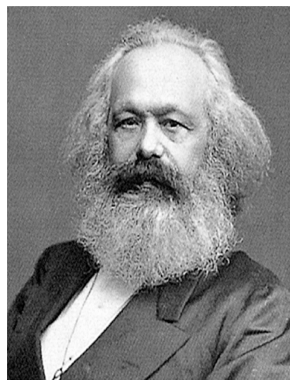


Administrative Thinkers



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Neha Nitin Karnik

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Monoranjan Sarkar, Neha Nitin Karnik

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CHAPTER 1

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE IN ARTHA SHASTRA: KAUTILYA

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ABSTRACT:

The Artha Shastra, authored by the ancient Indian scholar Kautilya (also known as Chanakya), is a seminal work on statecraft, governance, and economics. This text provides a comprehensive understanding of the administrative structure envisioned by Kautilya for the efficient functioning of a state. This abstract explores the key components of the administrative structure outlined in the Artha Shastra, highlighting its relevance and enduring principles in contemporary governance.

The administrative structure proposed by Kautilya in the Artha Shastra is a multifaceted system designed to ensure the stability, prosperity, and security of a state. It consists of several essential elements, including the king (the central authority), ministers, civil servants, and a well-organized bureaucracy. Kautilya emphasizes the importance of selecting competent individuals for these roles, as their actions directly influence the state's welfare. The king, according to Kautilya, should possess the qualities of wisdom, courage, and a sense of duty towards his subjects. He should delegate authority to ministers and advisors who possess expertise in various fields, such as finance, foreign affairs, and defense. The administrative machinery should be organized into various departments, each responsible for specific functions, and governed by strict rules and codes of conduct.

KEYWORDS:

Diplomacy, Governance, Indian Philosopher, Kautilyan Principles, Mauryan Empire, Political Science, Statecraft.

1. INTRODUCTION

The first work on general political concerns is called Artha Shastra. A masterwork, the book is said to address a broad variety of subjects, including statecraft and problems with public administration that include politics, economics, and administration. Different Indian kings, including Ashoka and Shivaji, adopted the governing and statecraft concepts that were developed and established in the Arthashastra. Many academics have noted that Kautilya's excellence lies in the fact that he made the ideas in his Arthashastra so relevant that they still hold true and are useful today.

This lesson will concentrate on Kautilya's fundamental administrative ideas and consider their applicability in the present. Numerous academics from the fields of political science, economics, management, public administration, psychology, military studies, and strategic sciences have been interested in Kautilya, also known as Chanakya and Vishnugupta. He is well-known for the Arthashastra, a groundbreaking work.

This magnificent thesis was published during a period when monarchy was the form of governance and kings were required to not only defend themselves to various people according to their specialization and expertise, but also to do it in a sensible and professional manner. According to the layout of the administrative system, Kautilya split the work into 34 divisions, each of which was led by a designated officer [1], [2].

Hierarchy

The administrative organization described in Arthashastra is bureaucratic and has a hierarchical structure. The King, who held all power, stood at the top of the organizational pyramid. The officials referred to as Mahamatya, Amatyas, Adhyakshas, or superintendents were in charge of the lower levels. However, the Book does not go into great detail or specify the hierarchy within the subordinates. For instance, the Mahamatya's and Senapati's or the Ashwadhyaksha's superior-subordinate status is not made clear. However, it must be emphasized that merit and fitness for the jobs were the guiding factors in progression within the hierarchy. All of the empire's workers were required to submit their requests for commands to the King alone. The King alone had the authority to give commands to the subordinates working in any department or post, and there was no question about this at any level of the government. Whether such an instruction was communicated directly or by another officer is likewise not clearly established. For instance, Kautilya does not answer the issue of whether the monarch used to speak directly to the head of the elephant department or if he employed the Senapati or the Mahamatya to do so [3], [4].

Centralization

The King genuinely had full authority, including the legislative, executive, and judicial branches. The organizing basis for administration was, in fact, centralization. But in order to ensure the efficient implementation of the policies and decisions made at the center, the administration was also set up at the local level under the close supervision of the center. The empire was split administratively into provinces, and each province had separate administrations for its districts, villages, and municipalities. Pradeshtha oversaw the province government, while Sthanika presided over the Sthaniya, and Nagarika oversaw the Nagar administration with help from many Gopas. A worker by the name of Gopa was in charge of the rural administration. Kautilya believed that the centralization of authority and decision-making was essential for the empire's safety, prosperity, and administrative devotion to the King. The acceptance of the concentration of power was also influenced by the development of agriculture, data collecting and maintenance, manufacturing, mining, and the creation of markets. Kautilya placed a high importance on social harmony, material wealth, and stability and order, all of which he believed could be attained via a centralized form of government.

While seated at a distance in a vast empire, the King had to make an acceptable judgment for a problem that was occurring at the district or provincial level of administration. This was made feasible by the King's participatory rule-making. The decision-making process included two phases. Before making a decision, the King was required to speak with authorities like the council of ministers. Additionally, the King was required to get advice from about the problem he was considering for resolution. To have a genuine grasp of the matter to be resolved, this structure was necessary.

Control and Responsibility

Responsibility and power go hand in hand. This seems to be the reason why the King is not only given full State authority, but also given responsibility for the advancement and pleasure of his people. He is expected to work toward the objective while exercising proper authority. Kautilya upheld a system of power and set out a variety of sanctions for various offenses committed by both the populace and government officials. All administrative theorists and practitioners agree that a public employee should be accountable to the law as well as the institution to which they belong. However, accountability for an officer's work or actions must be assessed from the perspective of professional conduct and ethics, taking into account whether or not the employee's actions or behavior advance or undermine the values of justice,

equity, and morality within and among the subjects. Considering this element of responsibility, it is clear that Kautilya placed a high value on the legal, moral, and ethical aspects of the distribution of administrative roles. From the king to the various heads of departments, he clearly outlined the processes and techniques for carrying out one's tasks. According to him, the effectiveness of the job should be assessed based on whether the authorities carried out their duties in a fair manner, seeking to produce the desired outcomes and fulfill the highest-level objectives.

2. DISCUSSION

Before implementing a strategy, the King and his advisors must expressly propose its advantages and disadvantages, according to Kautilya. To ensure that every state official performs their tasks conscientiously, successfully, and efficiently, the King must have ultimate authority over them. He suggests a structure of spies and watchdogs to make that happen. A system of accounting and auditing, for instance, was in place to submit individuals involved in the administration of financial concerns to strict examination. One other observation is that accountability in administration had to be imposed from top to bottom at all levels. The King had the responsibility to impose punishment on the populace for disobeying the King's instructions or State regulations. The severity of the official's offense dictated the kind of punishment, which ranged from a fine to termination from employment or any other punitive action. However, it was the King's responsibility to ensure that the penalty was reasonable and fair, meaning that it was neither more nor less severe than was necessary given the gravity and nature of the offense. It shouldn't be either harsh or kind since a King with a gentle rod is loathed while a King with a firm rod is respected. It suggests that the King was also not exempt from the need to use his reason to handle his power wisely without caving in to his whims and fancies. While performing his duties, the King was expected to uphold the Dharma's rules. People had the right to challenge the King if he failed to uphold moral standards or if any of his acts were inconsistent with dharmic principles [5], [6]. So only a just King could rule over the whole earth. A list of other officials who were to be held accountable for any administrative failings, such as misbehavior, concealing merchant offenders' offenses, failing to ensure traveler safety on roads between settlements, allowing protected spies to be captured, hurt, or killed, etc., is provided in Book 4 on the removal of thorns. The capacity to impose responsibility in administration from higher to lower-level employees who were performing the specified and assigned duties relevant to their office may thus be deduced. The department head was held accountable for breaking laws and regulations in addition to being careless, irregular, and performing poorly.

Organizational interests take precedence over personal interests

The idea that organizations should come before people, or, to put it another way, that organizational interests should take precedence over sectarian ones, is one of the 14 principles listed by Fayol. Kautilya believed that the King's interests should come first above all other considerations. The first and last requirement for anybody to enroll and continue serving in the State's service was loyalty to the King and the realm. In the Arthashastra, the King is not a person but an organization or a State. Therefore, inference suggests that each person should protect the interests of the State while putting their own interests second.

Discipline

Any organization, and the State is no exception, must operate with a feeling of unity of aims if it is to be effective. Arthashastra places a lot of emphasis on the need for careful adherence and obedience with the directives and laws promulgated by the King. Any employee who acted negligently on the matter would face consequences.

Coordination

The goal of the coordination principle is to develop a government apparatus that functions harmoniously and effectively by integrating the efforts of all departments and groupings. The emphasis on this concept is obvious from the assertion that a chariot can only be pushed with two wheels, not one, even if it is clear from the Book that it is simply implicit in the organization and duties of administration. Therefore, acting as the top coordinator is not just the King's responsibility; it also appears necessary for each Head of Department to direct and oversee the performance of his staff.

Direction

In management and administration, directing is seen as a crucial action. To get the best performance out of the workers, directing requires a variety of qualities. The notion of directing encompasses a variety of tasks including leadership, inspiration, supervision, and communication. Kautilya understood the need of strong leadership for the efficient operation of the state. Among other things, leadership entails the leader being completely consumed with the organization's and the workers' job [7], [8].

Leadership

The attributes of the leader who gives the guidance are often a factor in how well it is carried out. This is clear when considering the qualities that Kautilya attributed to a successful leader. To quote Kautilya, "like King, like citizenry." An effective leader is one who puts the needs of the people and the kingdom ahead of their own. This gives a clear explanation of the proper dynamics between a leader and his followers. "An ideal King is one who behaves like a sage monarch, who is ever active in promoting the *Yogakshama* of the people and who endears himself to the people by enriching them," says Kautilya in reference to the characteristics of a transformative leader. Hinduism holds that the words *Yoga* and *Kshema* are combined to form the term *Yogakshema*. A successful leader provides his followers and himself with monetary success, spiritual fulfillment, and pleasures.

Monitoring and Control

Many Classical philosophers included this idea into their conception of administration. Kautilya was aware of the value of oversight and control inside a company.

Value-based Management

When Kautilya defined a number of values in a leader and noted that in order to accomplish the main objective of the organization, a leader should be upright, honest, and devoid of vices, he introduced the idea of value-based management and administration. On the guidance of the wise ones, he should also call upon dependability, gratitude, generosity, promptness, and long-term vision.

Structure and Organization of Administrative Equipment

In Kautilya's writing, this component of administration and government is given the most focus. Although the Kautilyan State had a decentralized form of government for administrative purposes, it was a centralized one for purposes of governing. Therefore, the government was set up at three levels: the center, the *pradesh*, and the *sthaniya*, according to the *Arthashastra*.

Organizational Foundations / Department

The fact that the foundations of work organization during the Mauryan era match some of the principles of organization in the contemporary era is another significant component of the

administrative system that merits the attention of a student of public administration. The organization of departments was based on people, purpose, and procedure, according to several texts of the Arthashastra. The departments of elephants, horses, prisons, jewels, and mints, among others, may be offered as examples of these bases, as can the departments of prostitution, defense, revenue, and agriculture. In his second book, the longest of the other books, Kautilya gives a thorough explanation of the departments [9], [10].

Personnel Management

According to an ancient proverb, a good administration is defined by the caliber of the people in charge of it. Insofar as the specifics about the public workers in Arthashastra are concerned, the ancient government as described by Arthashastra was no exception to this. Kautilya emphasizes that the individuals tasked with administering choices, programs, and projects are how the State accomplishes its socio-economic and political goals. Because the range of state operations was broad and diverse, it followed that the range of public administration was as broad and diverse. This made personnel administration crucial. Aside from the fact that the state was essentially a welfare state where everyone had the same right to exist and where the subjects were expected to be regarded by the king as his children, the state was the main source of employment for the general population. The maintenance of the elderly, the handicapped, the impoverished, and orphans fell within the purview of the state apparatus. The state's policy was to consider its obligations to uphold the rule of law, defend society, keep the peace, keep the borders secure, and advance the welfare of its people. However, it is also true that Kautilya does not completely address personnel management in the meaning used today. It is evident from reading Book 5 that he was aware of the significance of staff capacity enhancement and selection procedures.

The two most important characteristics to look for in a candidate for a public position were loyalty and dedication to the King and the kingdom, which took precedence over any other requirement. In other words, Kautilya was concentrating on the moral/ethical, technical or professional, and loyalty to the ruler and the nation as the three sorts of requirements in a candidate to be hired under the State. He ought to be free of *Loabh*, *Maya*, *Kaam*, and *Kroadh*. In order to serve the interests of the ruled and the ruler in the most efficient and satisfying manner, an officer must be free from avarice and allurements. The high moral and ethical standards of government personnel are related to the safety and security of the State and the people. Kautilya suggests a variety of tests on the scales of *Kaam*, *Kroadh*, *Mada*, and *Loabh* in order for this to occur.

However, several of these experiments were branded as utopian. Another thing to keep in mind is that Kautilya mainly paid attention to officers of higher levels; he either seemed to ignore lower-level workers or mistakenly believed that everything in administration depended on the competence and quality of the people in charge. The followers, or the subordinates, would typically imitate their boss's or master's behavior. This seems to be the case in part even in contemporary times, since organizational success is often and strongly correlated with the nature of organizational leadership. The following components of personnel administration have a full description.

Promotion, hiring, and transfer

For the purpose of carrying out the specified administrative tasks/functions, recruitment is the process of identifying and selecting the most qualified candidates or eliminating the less qualified individuals, commonly called "rascals." Although there was no open hiring process or independent hiring agency as there is now, the King was in charge of choosing the higher level officials personally. It is not stated or recognized very clearly where the recruiting came

from. It can be assumed that it was a closed recruiting model of some kind. Second, the necessary requirements for various functional duties were often established in order to determine if a candidate would be accepted or would be rejected or assigned a low-level assignment. Even the King had to meet a number of requirements in order to be crowned. The same applied to the Prince, the Priest, and other department heads that were stated before. The King had complete control over the officers' promotion and transfer. He had to make his decision in light of the feedback and the performance assessment made using the observational approach. Except for his statement that Heads of Departments should not work in the same position for an extended period of time and should rotate often, there is little information available on the transfers of government workers. Guards of royal structures, forts, and rural areas were exempt from any transfer restrictions, whilst others may only be moved as a preventative measure or anti-corruption remedy.

Earnings and Salaries

When it comes to wages and compensation, one discovers that the officials received a certain sum as salary/pay, which might be increased or decreased at the King's discretion based on the official's success or failure in achieving the intended goal(s) of the state. Additionally, unlike now, there was no wage scale or guarantee of advancements.

These classes range from 1 to 12, with personal attendants, musicians, and other lower-level employees receiving salaries of 60 panas each. It turns out that the pay was appropriate for the job or position, experience, and talent or expertise. The concepts of The Capacity to Pay to the Countryside and the City were used to establish the overall remuneration of public employees. It cannot exceed one-fourth of the state's income. The remuneration should not be in conflict with the tenets of Dharma and Artha and should be sufficient to support the workers' physical necessities. To achieve the goals of the State, salaries should be set in a way that attracts the appropriate individuals with the proper qualifications. Depending on the amount of cash on hand at the Treasury, the wage may be paid in cash, kind, or both. Similar to this, it is difficult to get a clear explanation of the pension or retirement benefits to which an employee is now entitled. However, the State was required to provide for the dependents of any employees who died while working for the State.

Financial Management

Kautilya placed a great emphasis on the state of the nation's finances. He firmly believed that the strength of the treasury underpinned the state's authority. In order to collect taxes and improve the state's resources, he also pays close attention to the management and administration of the Treasury. Budget, Agricultural Taxation, Audit, and Accounts were the other area of finance that caught Kautilya's interest.

The Mauryan administrative structure was seen to be most important when the treasury was involved. The Treasury required the King's full attention since it was the foundation for all government operations. It goes without saying that running the government is difficult, if not impossible, without riches or money. As a result, it has been said that a King with a low treasury eats away at the very life of the people and the nation. The officers in charge were required to grow, reinforce, and enhance the resources, but they were not to do so in a random, excessive, or unjust way. They should only assess and collect taxes that were legitimately owed and fair.

The Kautilyan plan generates a list of persons who must pay taxes and those who are exempt. The villages were split among those that paid taxes and those who did not. There are still certain people and organizations who are exempt from paying taxes. In addition to the two additional officers in charge of all the stores, one was known as the Chief Superintendent of the Treasury

and the other as the Chief Superintendent of the Warehouses, one of the Amatyas was appointed koshadhyaksha or chief superintendent of the Treasury, known as Samnidhatra or treasurer-general. The Koshadhyaksha served as the King's accountant, and the King was intended to have direct authority over the treasury. He issued a warning about the many ways that the Kosh may suffer injury, including theft by chiefs, remission of taxes, dispersed collecting, dishonest accounting, and looting by adversaries of the money amassed before it reached the treasury. The State's sources of income have been meticulously documented and include profits from Crown agricultural lands, mines, metallurgy, animal husbandry, irrigation projects, forests, industries like textiles, alcoholic beverages, and salt, as well as profits from courtesans, prostitutes, and entertainers, betting, and gambling, in addition to transaction tax and customs duties. taxes on commerce, fees and levies for services provided by the government to its residents, and octroi.

Accounts, Budget, and Audit

A statement of income and expenses for a fiscal year is a budget, as we previously knew it. It follows that the entire expected expenditure to be made on various products and the projected amount of money that is likely to come from all sources are included. Despite the development of various new forms and ideas for budget creation and execution, this kind of budgeting is still popular today. The budget included a thorough breakdown of current, transferred, and other revenue. The following was included under other revenue.

1. Recovered debts and fees.
2. Government employees' fines.
3. Surcharges, money paid as recompense for harm or loss, presents, seized goods, and treasure trove.
4. Income from sales profit.

Apart from spending on worship and charity, the palace, administration, foreign affairs, maintenance of granaries, ordnance depots and warehouses, manufacturing, labor, defense, cattle, forest and game sanctuaries, and consumables like firewood and fodder, the expenditure was broken down into three different categories: allocated day-to-day spending, unallocated day-to-day spending, and anticipated periodic spending.

The management of fiscal affairs includes the vital role that financial responsibility plays. One of the most important measures toward the probity, honesty, and responsibility of authorities engaged in budget management, tax collection, and spending is the proper preservation of accounts of income and expenditure. It was necessary to keep the account books in order even during the reign of Kautilya. The accounts officers had a duty to present the accounts on time each month; if they failed to do so, they would be disciplined.

A type of code of behavior was expected of account officers. They were required to appear for the audit at the scheduled time, bringing with them their accounting records and any income that needed to be remitted to the Treasury. They were also required to be prepared for the audit when the audit officer called them, not to lie about the accounts when questioned, and not to try to interpolate an entry as though it had been made accidentally. There were consequences for breaking these rules. It was the duty of every high-ranking official to present their accounts completely and truthfully. They were susceptible to paying the highest-level standard penalty if they did do any such offense.

This narrative reveals that the audit and accounting were kept separate, which is a characteristic of financial management in contemporary India. The management of the State's financial affairs included discipline and effectiveness. The Inspectors were subject to the sanctions outlined in the regulations for their negligence, neglect of duty, and financial loss. For instance, the loss incurred as a result of the inspector's failure to perform his duties had to be made up by other officials, subordinates, sureties, sons, daughters, and wives, etc. Officials who caused losses to the Treasury due to their ignorance, laziness, timidity, negligence of duty, corruption, short temper, arrogance, or greed faced punishment commensurate with the gravity or seriousness of the offense.

Cheating the government, which includes misappropriating public funds or taking advantage of the public by government employees, was seen as major financial misbehavior. 40 methods of theft, fraud, and embezzlement by public employees are listed by Kautilya. Out of this list, 10 methods were related to fraudulent behavior, while the remaining methods were related to misappropriation acts such as non-delivery of revenue to the treasury, misrepresenting income received, favor for money, payment due to one paid to another, etc. The remaining methods included obstruction, using government property for personal work, falsifying dates, collecting less than prescribed revenue or incurring more than allocated expenditure. Punishment was only to be given after a thorough inquiry and trial.

3. CONCLUSION

The Artha Shastra delineates the fundamentals of taxation, law enforcement, and diplomacy—all of which are essential to the efficient operation of the governmental system. Kautilya places a strong focus on morality, justice, and the welfare of the populace, which highlights how crucial it is for a government to be fair and responsive. In conclusion, the organizational system described in Kautilya's Artha Shastra is evidence of the timeless value of traditional Indian political philosophy. For individuals who are interested in statecraft and public administration, its governing, meritocratic, and ethical ideals are still relevant in modern settings. The fundamental principles outlined in the Artha Shastra remain applicable and serve as a source of inspiration for contemporary administrative systems seeking effectiveness, justice, and the welfare of their population even if the details of government have changed over the ages.

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CHAPTER 2

WOODROW WILSON'S VIEWS ON PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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ABSTRACT:

Woodrow Wilson, the 28th President of the United States, is renowned for his significant contributions to the field of public administration. This abstract explores Wilson's views on public administration, focusing on his seminal essay, "The Study of Administration" (1887), which laid the groundwork for modern public administration theory. Wilson advocated for a more professional and efficient approach to government, emphasizing the need for a clear distinction between politics and administration. He believed in applying principles of business management to government operations and championed the idea of a trained, expert bureaucracy. Furthermore, Wilson's ideas continue to influence the practice of public administration, serving as a cornerstone for the development of public administration as a discipline. This abstract provides an overview of Wilson's key concepts and their ongoing relevance in contemporary public administration. Woodrow Wilson's views on public administration have had a lasting impact on the field and continue to shape the way governments operate today.

KEYWORDS:

Administrative Efficiency, Civil Service Reform, Decentralization, Expertise Administration, Federal Government, Merit-Based System.

1. INTRODUCTION

From 1913 until 1921, Woodrow Wilson presided as the 28th president of the United States of America. For proposing the League of Nations with the intention of establishing equal peace throughout Europe, he was given the Nobel Prize for Peace in 1919. The 19th Amendment to the American Constitution legalized women's right to vote during his second term as president. Thomas Woodrow Wilson was raised by Presbyterian parents and was inspired by British history and literature as well as religion. Wilson's family moved to Augusta from Staunton when he was about 2 years old. After some time, they moved to Wilmington and then to Columbia. He experienced tremendous economic, political, and social changes while living in many Southern US towns, including Augusta's rebuilding and devastation, the American Civil War, and the anguish of injured soldiers [1], [2].

The Reverend Joseph Ruggles Wilson, who was his primary teacher, taught him at home. At 1875, Wilson enrolled at the University of Virginia Law School as well as the College of New Jersey. In 1886, he received a PhD from Johns Hopkins University. He was appointed president of Princeton University in 1902. He was chosen to serve as New Jersey's governor in 1910. In order to comprehend Wilson's views on public administration, it is necessary to follow the developments that saw the United States through World War I, under his stewardship. This gave him the power to implement reform programs against corruption, push through workers' compensation law to help families of workers killed or injured on the job, and more. These changes are a result of the New Freedom Campaign. Woodrow Wilson was running for president at the time. He advocated for smaller government throughout his New Freedom Campaign. Later, Wilson also produced a book containing the campaign's principles.

Union of Free Nations

It was a global organization that was established as a consequence of the Paris Peace Conference in 1920 after the First World War. The organization was founded with the basic goals of avoiding wars by collective security and disarmament, resolving international conflicts through negotiation and arbitration, and maintaining peace in the globe. This was the immediate result of the Treaty of Versailles, which put an end to the war between Germany and the Allies [3], [4].

The fourteen points of Wilson

At the conclusion of the First World War, Woodrow Wilson developed these guiding principles for peace. These were designed with the goal of ending the aforementioned War. Not simply a new power balance, but a fair and lasting peace, was the goal.

- 1) Open covenants of peace and absence of secret international agreements.
- 2) Complete freedom of seaborne travel.
- 3) Elimination of all financial constraints.
- 4) A decrease in national arsenals.
- 5) The flexible modification of colonial claims.
- 6) A complete Russian-wide exodus.
- 7) Rebuilding Belgium after the exodus. The whole French Empire should be liberated. Italian borders were revised.

Possibility of independent development for the Austrian and Hungarian people. The lands of Romania, Serbia, and Montenegro should be returned after evacuation. Ensure Turkish stance of Ottoman Empire sovereignty. creation of a Polish state of independence creation of a world alliance governed by certain covenants. World War I dominated Wilson's second time in office and gave him the opportunity to closely examine how administrative offices operated. Numerous domestic troubles were in front of him. He was in charge of numerous significant pieces of legislation, including Prohibition and the Women's Adult Franchise. Wilson cherished impartiality and favored a government free from political meddling. He believed that not all administrative issues had political solutions. His goal was to create a technically competent and efficient public administration. Now let's talk about his opinions on public management.

Wilson saw American Public Administration to be a significant area that needed significant adjustments. His first book, *Congressional Government A Study in American Politics*, which contrasts the American presidential style of government with the parliamentary system, was produced from his PhD thesis. He came to the conclusion that only changes could bring about more accountability and efficiency in the American system. Wilson's *The Study of Administration*, widely regarded as a classic work on public administration, was published in 1887 by the *Political Science Quarterly*. In his first paragraph, Wilson made the astute comment that it had taken a long time for the practical science of administration to find its proper place in college curricula. This realization "to know more about administration" came much later than it should have, maybe as a result of the pervasive sense of being "taken for granted among us" for so long. the ongoing reform of the civil service, and the separation of government from politics. Absent politics, administration would work to enhance selection processes, carry out executive duties, uphold the honor of public office, and rebuild public confidence. We might draw the conclusion that Wilson's 1887 article "Study of the Administration" Political science

was considerably older than public administration, so for Wilson, this discussion was only getting started on a relevant topic. We were worried about the Constitution, the law, political theories, and who makes the laws but never about who executes them or helps to develop them. Wilson had a businesslike approach to administration and believed that politics should not be allowed to intrude. He took a scientific approach to public management.

He separated politics from administration and emphasized the distinction between the two. He introduced comparative analysis to the field of administration for the first time. He was the one who first proposed the ideas of political neutrality and checks and balances. Wilson is responsible for several things, including the idea of an efficient bureaucracy and business-like methods to administration. The conventional worldview that emerged between the early 1900s and the late 1930s was represented by the Wilsonian viewpoint, which upheld the politics-administration duality. This ideology was based on the tenets that efficiency/bureaucracy and democracy were diametrically opposed and incommensurable, that the decision-execution dichotomy can express the politics-administration divide, that administration, like execution, can be conceptualized as a science based on purely technical and applicable principles, and that government administration can be run like a business based on management principles and values. Prior to World War II, the traditional approach of public administration was still in use. The Western cultural history of the Progressive Reformism is where the politics-administration divide first emerged.

Wilson presented his audience to yet another distinctive feature of politics and government. No lines of demarcation, separating administrative from non-administrative functions, can be run between this and that department of government without being run uphill and down dale, over dizzy heights of distinction, he said, "until they become entirely lost to the common eye not accustomed to this sort of surveying, and consequently not acquainted." He was referring to administrative and constitutional matters.

2. DISCUSSION

Even yet, administrative concerns are focused on finding ways to adapt to various contexts and goals, while constitutional questions are focused on necessary governmental modifications to the fundamental principles of the Constitution. Administration involves the thorough and deliberate execution or application of public law, such as tax assessment and collection, the execution of criminals, mail delivery, and the recruiting of soldiers and the modernization of military hardware.

The broad rules that control how government is run, however, are within the purview of constitutional affairs. The Constitution addresses both general law and the political frameworks that support its enforcement. Simply defined, the administrative sphere is responsible for carrying out these plans in detail, while the constitutional sphere is responsible for conceptualizing the government's broad action plans. However, there comes a point when constitutional issues and administrative ones overlap.

Concerns about the "sui" allocation of constitutional power are addressed in the philosophical study of administration. The latter would significantly benefit if the former put out suitable guidelines for authority allocation. It would assist in resolving constitutional issues if administrative studies could provide "the best principles" for the appropriate separation of power and duty. Wilson said that trust should be the guiding concept and advised the constitutional reformer and the administrative organizer to establish criteria for trustworthiness and guarantee it. He reasoned that the notion of sharing power with heads of services and branches of services would avoid irresponsibility and the misuse of power that would follow if power were distributed widely [5], [6].

Procedure for Administration

Is American government management sufficient? We have been on our feet for too long to learn the art of walking, according to Wilson. We are a practical people who have become so skilled and competent at self-government through centuries of practice that we seldom ever have the capacity to see the discomfort of the specific system we may be employing since it is so simple for us to apply any system. These were plain-spoken remarks urging reflection on the way government is now conducted and correcting flaws in the American public administration. They were also a crucial part of the administration's methodical approach's launch. An intelligent approach to administration would include philosophical research on the subject, current organizational principles, and historical comparisons of governments. Such a strategy would support democracy, create majority-driven policy frameworks, establish a standard for good governance across all governments, and prevent administrative errors. Wilson asked Americans to embrace administrative science without bias. The borrowed science might be modified or filtered to fit the political, administrative, and constitutional framework of the United States. Most crucially, the future science of American administration should be based on democratic ideals. The general people's view is the greatest gauge of public administration performance.

Wilson said that when he used the term "public opinion," he meant the arguments made by knowledgeable opponents who were graduates of reputable institutions' political science programs. He commented that although it was promising to see how quickly political studies had spread across the nation and how many knowledgeable critics had been trained in the fundamentals of governance, it was also crucial to train a group of executive officers who would be "conducting government". The foundation for improved public perception was well-trained civil service employees acting ethically. He described proper conduct as uncompromising, unwavering adherence to governmental principles and unavoidable accountability to the public. Therefore, a civil service or bureaucracy dedicated to the service of everyone could only be made viable if it were exempt from organizational and State politics.

Theodore w. Taylor

Industrialization took place throughout the latter decade of the 19th century, although the techniques used were illogical and disorganized. During this time, industrial techniques for increasing the production or efficiency of the industries were not carefully examined. The old techniques and subjective expertise were making the managers and supervisors antsy. This period is the home of the Classical Approach to Organization. During this time, classical theorists sought to simplify these exact processes and strive towards maximizing output via efficient means. The foundation of Taylor's concepts is the Classical Approach to Organization, often known as the Traditional Theory of Organization or the Mechanistic Theory [7], [8].

The scientific management perspective of organization was promoted by F.W. Taylor and his associates Henri L. Gantt and the Gilbreth couple, Frank and Lillian, while the other stream included Henri Fayol, Luther Gullick, Urwick, Mary Parker Follett, and others. Taylor concentrated on shop floor management with an emphasis on time and motion research, which sets the two groups apart from one another. In contrast, Fayol concentrated on management level with a specific set of principles. This Unit will focus on studying F.W. Taylor's ideas and guidelines. Along with evaluating his work, we'll look at the circumstances in which he wrote.

F.W. Taylor-profile

1856 saw the birth of Frederick Winslow Taylor in Pennsylvania. He completed his undergraduate work in France and Germany before deciding to pursue legal studies at Harvard.

Even after finishing his Harvard education, he decided to work as a pattern maker apprentice. He was an apprentice at the Hydraulic Works in Philadelphia, working on the shop floor. In 1878, he finished his apprenticeship and began working for the Midvale Steel Company. Taylor performed manufacturing floor labor at the Midvale Steel Company in the USA. Within six years, he progressed from a regular laborer to the post of head engineer. Later, after receiving his mechanical engineering degree, he started working for Bethlehem Steel. In 1906, he was elected president of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers and authored many very relevant research articles. He sought to maintain the attention of employees on the factory floor by investigating new working techniques, mechanical tools, and technological innovations. Taylor thought that since management is based on established laws, norms, and principles, it is a real science. These ideas are widely applicable in society and are universally applicable. It is applicable to every organization. Taylor established the connection between the physical and physiological aspects of labor while focused on the lowest level of the organization [9], [10].

The first cogent theory of administration was Scientific Management, which Fredrick Winslow Taylor proposed in the first decade of the 20th century. It is said that Taylor did not develop the Scientific Theory of Management at first. The approaches and strategies for scientific management were established by Charles Babbage, Henry R. Towne, Fredrick Halsey, and Henry Metcalf. Louis Brandies was the one who first introduced the phrase "scientific management," but it was Taylor who utilized it to give it a scientific rationale and create procedures for enhancing organizational efficiency, earning him the title "Father of Scientific Management." He made the case for organizing labor in an unbiased, systematic, and orderly way. The development of scientific management theories and methods centered on enhancing organizational effectiveness.

Taylor's Guidelines

Taylor provided the scientific management concepts, which are detailed in his books detailing the subject. His 26 years of labor and the trials he carried out led to the creation of his works. His subsequent writings, which focused on organizational goals, were published. Taylor's Scientific Management's four guiding principles intended to standardize tasks, processes, tools, and approaches. The guiding concepts are the creation of a science for every aspect of labor. Analyze each step of the process in relation to the time required to complete it. Before giving someone a job, scientifically select and train them. Training managers to motivate staff and assist them in carrying out tasks in accordance with scientific management concepts. Training for managers and employees to maintain a balanced distribution of tasks and responsibilities will increase output. Taylor's scientific management principles may be characterized as having the following characteristics in line with these rules: Science, not common sense. not dissonance, but harmony. Individuals don't matter; cooperation at all levels is crucial. promoting the growth of each person to maximize his or her effectiveness and profitability. increased pay for employees. things at a lower price for employees.

Basic Taylor Concepts

The Scientific Management processes make it easier to put concepts into practice. These might also be thought of as the foundations of Taylor's discoveries. The research focused on managerial efforts and quality work to increase efficiency.

Useful foremanship

Taylor promoted the idea of functional foremanship, which calls for eight specialized supervisors to oversee and direct a worker. He opposed the linear system, often known as the unity of command, or the idea of a single boss. He proposed eight functional heads under this

idea, of which four were in charge of planning and four of implementation. Order-of-work-and-route clerk, Instruction card clerk, Time-and-cost clerk, and Shop disciplinarian were the four functional foremen in charge of planning. In addition to Gang Boss, Speed Boss, Inspector, and Repair Boss were the other four operational foremen. On the factory floor, they were to work. In essence, each employee was supposed to have eight working supervisors. Separating planning from implementation and promoting specialization were the goals.

Motion Analysis

Taylor conducted research based on this method and found that each job consists of a series of actions that are influenced by the instruments' size, shape, and quality as well as the strategies used for that work. The optimal collection of movements must be chosen after careful consideration of the motions that make up a certain work. As a result, it was created to research the best working procedure while taking into account tools, raw materials, equipment, and more. Therefore, it was focused on identifying "the best way to complete the task."

Study of Time

Using this method, Taylor looked at how long it took to execute a certain activity. This was done to establish the expected level of task completion. The goal was to make daily method planning easier.

System of Differential Piece Rates

This is Taylor's system for paying employees' wages. Taylor recommended in this that each employee be compensated in parts based on a time and motion analysis. There was a standard categorization of tasks due to the scientific study, analysis, fragmentation, and implementation of the tasks, which resulted in the establishment of "rates" for various sections. Pieces were then categorized as

1. Average or typical.
2. Up to average or standard.
3. Above normal or the norm.

Taylor then argued that rather than paying employees based on their position, they should be paid based on the quantity of labor they accomplish. He advocated firing employees who are incapable or unwilling to deliver.

Shop Floor Administration

The lowest level of the plant is referred to as the shop floor. This, in Taylor's opinion, has been the most ignored area. He noted that managers have to develop scientific working practices and inspire employees to better themselves as a whole. Low performance is caused by employees' lack of motivation. He advised using tools like instruction cards, machine improvements, and several other time-saving gadgets in his article "Art of Cutting Metals" to distinguish between high-performing and low-performing personnel. He thought that the shop level operation of the standardized system operated on its own, requiring little management effort.

He did add that the manager is presented with additional remarkable goods, however. As the "exceptional principle" in shop management, he described this. This made it easier for the managers to recognize and reward the top performers. Additionally, this changed the mindset of the workforce and gave rise to the notion that great performance benefits both managers and employees. He called this a "mental revolution" and advocated for managers and employees to put their immediate interests first while maintaining a focus on growing output and profit.

Useful foremanship

This encourages managers and employees inside an organization to divide up the job. Taylor emphasized that when employees need to seek specialized help during an operation, a significant amount of time is wasted. There is a significant distance between the employees and the management as a result of the hierarchical structure of the organization, and the managers are unable to provide the worker's rapid support. He said that we must close this gap in time. To close this gap, the idea behind functional foremanship was to assist people work more quickly by offering knowledgeable support. Workers and supervisors were given different responsibilities under the functional foremanship theory. Eight specialized supervisors would be in charge of each employee. There will be four planning supervisors and four execution supervisors.

Soldering

Taylor discovered the "soldering" phenomena while doing his studies. He noticed that employees had a propensity to put off doing their jobs. He notes that this limits productivity. The two categories he used to categorize the propensity were "natural soldering" and "systematic soldering." The latter he saw as a result of organizational and societal issues, whereas the former he thought was caused by personal variables like taking it easy and postponing. He saw that this was often done to keep the boss's expectations for the employees low. He sensed that they are led by their social group.

Scientific Tayloran Evaluation Management

In the United States, the scientific theory of management was a significant trend. It was effective in enhancing the manufacturing procedures. Taylor attracted a sizable following, including H.L. Gantt, H. Emerson, M.L. Cooke, and Frank and Lillian Gilberth. With his task and bonus scheme, Gantt competed with the incentive pay system. Gilberth's set the groundwork for the study of time and motion. He created the fundamental unit of labor by developing the phrase "THERBLIGS." Emerson concentrated on making the organization more effective. These particular researchers were affected by Taylor's principles, which gave his theories some momentum. Taylor's concepts centered on improving productivity, for which he examined each task and paid attention to each production component. He was able to pinpoint the elements that led to abundant output. He even broke up the monotony of labor by the use of scientific principles, which had a favorable effect on enterprises and their output. Despite Taylor's success with scientific management, there were certain limitations to his method. Taylor disregarded the organizational social and psychological factors. He disregarded the variations in worker perceptions of efficiency and individual variances. He is claimed to have had a mechanical interpretation of organizational effectiveness.

He emphasized the economic character of people. He believed that the "economic man" was most driven by financial gain. He receives criticism for his lack of unique inventiveness in his works. According to Elton Mayo's Hawthorne research, social and psychological aspects are just as significant as economic ones. This was shown by Maslow in his theory as the fluctuating grounds of motivation in people. He saw that met needs weren't really motivators. Therefore, those who are financially secure would not find increased earnings to be more appealing than the organization's set income structure. Important structural ideas like coordination, delegation, and decentralization were eclipsed by Taylor's principles.

Taylor's division of work into planning and carrying it out has come under fire. The fact that they were placed under the jurisdiction of eight supervisors is believed to have been perplexing for the employees. According to Peter Drucker, this is an effort that focuses more on industrial

harmony than efficiency. The union leaders are alleged to have been very hostile toward Taylorism. Trade unions saw Taylor's Mental Revolution, which sought to settle all problems between employees and management, as a danger. It was regarded as a danger to the labor movement's cohesiveness, collective bargaining, and trade union activity.

Managers also disagreed with Taylor's theories because they believed that the use of scientific procedures had robbed them of their discretion and judgment. Second, they believed that functional foremanship would mean more labor and responsibility. Taylor's "Scientific Theory of Management" has drawn criticism for a number of reasons, but it's crucial to remember that he created it during a period when businesses operated according to no set norms or principles. Taylor made a sincere effort to increase organizational effectiveness. He advocated giving employees skills training and instruction. His method of studying organizations, work environments, and procedures is helpful for modern organizational functioning.

3. CONCLUSION

Wilson's focus on a professional, nonpartisan civil service as well as his calls for a clear division between politics and administration as well as his convictions on the value of experience and education in public service have all since become guiding principles in public administration. Wilson's theories, as presented in his article "The Study of Administration," set the foundation for the professionalization of public service, which resulted in the creation of civil service systems and the development of merit-based recruiting processes. His idea of an administration-led government that runs smoothly and successfully has affected how administrative institutions and agencies are structured. In conclusion, Woodrow Wilson's ideas on public administration have had a lasting impact on the subject, highlighting the significance of effective, impartial administration to the smooth operation of the executive branch. In conversations today concerning the function of government and the need for a capable and impartial bureaucracy to handle complex social issues, his thoughts are still pertinent. Wilson's contributions as a theorist and proponent of contemporary public administration survive, continuing to influence global governance practices.

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CHAPTER 3

BUREAUCRACY OF SOCIAL ENTITY: MAX WEBER

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ABSTRACT:

Max Weber, a prominent sociologist, is renowned for his extensive contributions to the study of bureaucracy within social entities. This abstract delves into Weber's conceptualization of bureaucracy, elucidating his influential essay, "Bureaucracy" (1922), and its enduring relevance. Weber's work laid the theoretical groundwork for understanding bureaucratic structures in both public and private organizations. He identified key characteristics of bureaucracy, such as hierarchy, formalization, specialization, and impersonality, emphasizing their impact on efficiency and rationality. This abstract provides an overview of Weber's essential ideas on bureaucracy, their implications for social entities, and their continued significance in contemporary organizational theory and management. Max Weber's insights into bureaucracy have had a profound and enduring impact on the study of social entities and organizational theory. His analysis of bureaucracy as an ideal type, characterized by clear hierarchical structures, formal rules, division of labor, and impersonal interactions, remains highly relevant in understanding the functioning of modern institutions.

KEYWORDS:

Administrative Hierarchy, Bureaucracy, Formal Rules, Goal Rationality, Impersonal Relationships, Legal Authority.

1. INTRODUCTION

Max Weber was one of the best thinkers who clarified how bureaucracy interacted with politics and society continually as a social organism. The socioeconomic changes of the late eighteenth century, as well as those in Germany and the rest of the globe, had a significant impact on his work. The Protestant Ethic and The Spirit of Capitalism, two of his unpublished books that dealt with the historical actuality of the industrial revolution, are examples. He grew up in Germany during the capitalist era and saw the country's economic development, the expansion of the industrial sector, and the traditions of the working class. A new managerial class known as the "bourgeoisie" began to take the place of the traditional nobility as countries became increasingly industrialized and urban areas more overcrowded. In order to better comprehend the society's dramatic occurrences and expanding complexity, Weber has examined them and created a few essential concepts. One of Weber's observations regarding the dysfunctions of aristocracy—such as illogical behavior, unscientific customs, nepotism, class awareness, etc.—that resulted in unrestrained and unbridled social and political power—struck a deeper chord in his later works. The conclusions drawn from Weber's observations led to a legal-rational model-based reformation of the organization's internal structure and operating processes. In his view, only systems that allowed individuals to wield distinct authority within an organization could endure in the face of expanding complexity. It's interesting that his ideas laid a strong basis for the study of bureaucracy in terms of "domination/authority" and "legitimacy." As a consequence, the technical and pedagogical environment of the field of public administration gained depth and rigor. We will cover the idea of bureaucracy as well as some general technical features of it in this unit, according to Max Weber [1], [2].

The French term "bureau" is used to describe a desk, a writing desk, an office, or even a department for doing business. And when the term "bureaucracy" was used in reference to government, the suffix "cracy," which comes from the Greek word for "rule," added complete meaning. Its definition designates a group of constitutionally established authorities tasked with exercising authority who are independent of a monarch or other head of State. Numerous academics, including Hegel, Marx, and Mosca, had discussed bureaucracy before Weber, but he was the first to make an organized effort to comprehend it in the context of capitalism. Jaques Claude Marie Vincent deGournay, a French economist and administrator, is credited with coining the word "bureaucracy" in the middle of the eighteenth century. He created the word "bureaucratie," which translates to "government by desks," in opposition to government regulations that were used to stifle regular company operations. After Weber's interpretation, the mocking term "bureaucracy," coined by Vincent de Gournay to describe insensitive officials who were neither exact nor considerate of the repercussions of their behavior, became the most popular academic buzzword of the early 20th century [3], [4].

Weberian modeling Providing Context

With the advent of the Industrial Revolution at the start of the eighteenth century, bureaucracy discovered a chance to mature. The end of absolute monarchy in the West and the subsequent phase of national sovereignty that resulted from social and economic development were two significant turning points that helped shape the eventual outcome of the modern concept of bureaucracy.

The expansion of administration, however, was not consistent. Each nation's administrative structure was shaped by its unique historical foundations, geographic location, and, most importantly, ecological environment. However, one aspect that remained constant was the demise of feudalism, which produced an environment that was favorable to the bureaucratic State. In his work, Weber focused largely on the way power was used in formal organizations and referred to "dominancy" as a crucial component of social activity. He believed that patterns of domination had a significant impact on every aspect of social interaction, including politics, business, and religion. However, he believed that if the authority was seen as legitimate, then the subordinates' obedience with instructions might be made more mandatory. This refers to the subordinate's conviction that the direction issued by his superior was appropriate and that it was their responsibility to carry it out. Weber values dominance or the exercise of power far more highly than other types of belief. Weber developed several authority structures, such as traditional authority, charismatic authority, and legal-rational authority, in relation to the many types of belief.

Categories of Authority

When the head's directives were carried out on the basis that this was how things had always been done and the authority's power was derived from his inherited position, the authority was said to be traditional. The person exercising traditional authority was not referred to as a "superior," but rather as a personal "chief/head," and the foundation for its validity was the "sanctity" of the order and practices and traditions that had been observed from time immemorial. Patriarchs, tribal chiefs, and others fall under this category. The administrative staffs of traditional authority, according to Weber, are generally made up of one's own relatives rather than elected authorities.

Additionally, rather than being impartial, the administrative staff's relationship to the chief is based on personal allegiance. According to Weber, systems that are simply constrained by individual judgment would not last in the long term since the scope for the masses' vision is limited [5], [6].

Charismatic Influence

The Greek term "charisma" was used by Weber to describe it as the "quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least a person with specifically exceptional powers or qualities" by his people. They would obediently carry out the instructions of the leader so long as they were seen as significant by the leader's own adherents. Sahni and Vayunandan note that there are no formal hiring processes or legal requirements for promotions or pay under charismatic leadership. As a consequence, Weber forewarned that the administration would be informal and sloppy. This implies that the leader is not subject to any formal procedures for adjudication.

Legal-Rational Justification

Weber believed that "legal-rational authority" was the cornerstone of contemporary organizations out of the three categories of authority. As was previously established, Weber conducted a thorough analysis of industrial society and foresaw changes in the bureaucratic structure that would result from specialization, formalized rules and regulations, centralized power, hierarchical structures, chains of command, competition, etc. However, not all bureaucratic incumbents are recognized by this idea. They were not allowed to serve in the executive branch. He understood the word "bureaucracy" to refer to a group of appointed officials who carry out their official responsibilities in an impersonal and formalistic way. The subordinates in this power follow the commands obediently and not out of a sense of loyalty. From a technical standpoint, Weber emphasized bureaucracy's superiority over other organizations and stated it is capable of achieving the greatest level of "rationality" and "efficiency."

A Quick Review of Authority Types

Weber regarded "authority" as a representation of the relationship between the leader and the follower, in contrast to his contemporaries in academia. Henderson and Parsons noted that all authority rests on the "belief" of the subject, which gives the one in charge respectability. Weber saw his bureaucracy as the finest form of legal-rational power in this setting. Control is exerted in a legal organization via the consistent forms of power, authority, and influence. It suggests that the established regulations are widely accepted, technically solid, and consistent with the needs of the general public. The laws and regulations are equally applicable to everyone, regardless of caste, creed, or gender, and they do not conflict with one another. The following is how Parkin views Weber's three types of authority.

2. DISCUSSION

In conclusion, the charismatic authority may resemble a charismatic leader, and the traditional authority may be patrimonial in form. However, the legal-rational authority maintains a higher rank than the other two kinds of power. After discussing several forms of power, we will now focus on the broad definition of bureaucracy.

Basic Principles of Bureaucracy

No order, in Weber's opinion, would be deemed legally sound if it were to be influenced by private interests. He also prioritized popular view of the people as "legitimate" above elite opinion. He thought the following five notions were necessary for the "legitimacy" of passed laws and the impersonality of orders given by the ruling body [7], [8]. That written obligations may be used to meet the legal standard that can compel adherence from an organization's members. believes administrative practices always serve the interests of an organization and that law is a body of universal principles that apply to specific situations. This implies that

there is no room for arbitrary behavior in how it operates. that the person with the authority to provide orders is also accountable to the law. This suggests that everyone is subject to the law. that the individual who follows orders does so in his role as an organization member. The person in charge is entirely impartial and fair. The organization's members are expected to comply with impersonal directives by virtue of their position and not the authoritative figure. Weber therefore permitted the law to take precedence over the individual, regardless of that person's religion, class, caste, or any other kind of prejudice. Weber then went on to outline the essential bureaucratic concepts, which are covered in the subsection titled "Fundamental Principles of Bureaucracy. Instead, then studying bureaucracies using scientific terminology, Weber developed an ideal form of organization based on the distinctive bureaucratic characteristics of all observable organizations across the globe. The following are among the eight guiding tenets of legal-rational authority: organization of official activities on a regular, regulated basis. a defined area of expertise and a set of separate tasks based on a thoughtful division of labor, each of which is provided with the necessary power.

Every workplace is set up hierarchically, with rules that are clearly defined and punishments for breaking them. Technically proficient staff must be scientifically appointed and provided proper training in order to run business effectively. a total lack of appropriation by the holder of their office. A prime example would be Mr. M. Visvesvaraya, a prominent Indian statesman and engineer who always carried two pens, one for official business and the other for personal usage. Institutional memory is another aspect of bureaucracy, and Weber emphasizes the need of keeping written records of all actions, decisions, and norms. He believed that regulations cannot be enforced by spoken communication. The permanent career service offered by Weber's structure includes salary, promotions, career development based on seniority or merit, and the availability of grievance mechanisms. Organizations with non-bureaucratic leaders are required to maintain organizational commitment among their employees in order to boost productivity. According to Weber, the most effective bureaucratic structure is one that is based on the logical concepts outlined above. Thus, regardless of an organization's objective or vision, Weber's five core ideas and eight guiding principles together make up the overall notion of bureaucracy [9], [10].

Administrative Bureaucracy Traits

According to Weber, perfectly rational organizational structures include benefits including accuracy, quickness, dependability, discipline, continuity, operational homogeneity, discretion, and provisions for friction reduction. According to what he said, "Today, it is mainly the capitalist market economy, which demands that the official business of the administration be discharged precisely, unambiguously, continuously, and with as much speed as possible." The main benefit of this Model is that there is always room for training and ongoing practice to steadily increase performance. According to Weber, one of the toughest social systems to overthrow is a fully formed bureaucratic organization. On the notion that the outcomes of a developed bureaucracy would rely "on the direction which the powers using the apparatus give to it," he was unambiguous. According to Weber, another characteristic of bureaucracy is that it increases the superiority and professional prominence of the bureaucrat by maintaining the secrecy of their knowledge and motivations. Bhattacharya views the concept of official secrecy theoretically as a creation of bureaucracy. He notes that bureaucracy seeks to conceal its knowledge and activity from criticism and stays closed and remote even from the political representatives. However, Weber was well aware of the bureaucracy's inclination to abuse authority, which might weaken political shrewdness and social responsibility. Let's examine the controls Weber recommended for officials to prevent abuse of power in the next subsection.

The 'Rule by Officials' has its limitations. Albrow notes that Weber created a number of methods to control the extent of abuse of power generally and bureaucracy specifically. Albrow really notes five mechanisms in Weber's works. They are representation, direct democracy, amateur administration, separation of powers, and collegiality.

Collegiality

The antithesis of monocratism is the "collegial" principle. According to Weber, the power may be distributed evenly among the authorities in order to prevent individual power abuse. Collegiality has the benefit of allowing members to collaborate to find solutions, which raises employee morale. One drawback is that making choices and assigning responsibility might require more time and effort.

Discipline of Powers

It alludes to the distribution of duties between two or more bodies for the same purpose. In such a system, a compromise between the interested parties may be reached on the budget, the parliament, the monarch, or any other administrative issue. According to Weber, such a system is fundamentally flawed.

Amateur Management

This relates to a scenario when the government relies on administrators who are willing to volunteer their time and resources for the administration of public affairs. Weber thought that this approach may not be an exact fit for the administrative professionals and specialists, nevertheless.

Democracy in Action

It may take many various forms, including temporary office, lot-based selection, and the ability to recall the authorities. The main goal is to legally place the officials under the supervision of the assembly and to assure their responsibility to the populace.

Adapting Views of Weber's Bureaucracy

Following Weber, both supporters and detractors have often believed that only a developed society with a culture built on rational principles could support such legal-rational administration.

This implies that it was assumed that in less developed civilizations, a legal-rational organization could seldom attain maximal efficiency. However, in the middle of the 20th century, the complexity of people living in societies based on democracy and justice led to a growing reliance on governmental institutions in both developed and less developed nations. In spite of the fact that this phenomenon had helped bureaucracy become all-pervasive, it was also plagued by administrative dysfunctions including inert, inefficient, corrupt, unmanageable, unresponsive, unaccounted, intrusive processes, etc. Bureaucratization is the term used to describe all of these dysfunctions.

Caiden makes an effort to portray the systemic and organizational shortcomings in terms of bureaucratic slowness and complacency by using evidence from study results. At the Institute of Administration, University of Ife in Nigeria, an innovative experiment was carried out in the early 1970s when 72 Nigerian public workers participated in developing case studies of bad administration. According to the report, there are six bureaucratic dysfunctions that impede authorities from taking action against corruption and lack of integrity, community strife and aggressiveness, sectarian conflict, inefficiency, misbehavior, and indiscipline, and weak

authority relationships. Additionally, a small number of persistent issues were noted by academics and activists, including excessive delays, the unavailability of officials at all levels, a lack of regard for the complaints of individuals or groups, a lack of a humanitarian attitude, and similar issues.

The post-Weberian perspective is people-oriented rather than structure-oriented, and there has been a paradigm shift away from the mechanical, impersonal Weberian structure toward the paradigm of human growth. This calls for the adoption of more adaptable organizational structures as well as a relinquishment of the concern with production and secrecy, which was formerly thought to be useless in the absence of human growth. It was advised to build qualitative aspects at the organizational level, including a new ethos, situational reaction, increased accessibility, more openness and transparency, and most importantly, inter-personal connections. Governments' responsibilities have become more complicated over the last several decades, and bureaucracy's influence on people's daily quality of life has also been recognized. There has been universal acceptance of the need of citizens' engagement in government and bureaucrats for efficient governance, but on the other end of the spectrum, there is growing worry about how the bureaucracy are utilizing their "power."

Accountability—for what and to whom are bureaucracies accountable—is at the center of these worries, according to Bhattacharya. How are the bureaucracies managed? There has been an increase in the need for assuring new ethos, such as "accountability" and "transparency" in administration, as the most crucial answer to the enduring issues faced by the government in general and bureaucracy in particular. All of the terms "openness," "accountability," "responsibility," "answerability," and "responsiveness" refer to essentially the same procedure. Both academics and practitioners thought that by applying this new ethos more broadly, bureaucracy's dysfunctional elements could be overcome and that "performance" might significantly exceed rules and procedures.

A. H. Maslow

In administration, organizational performance depends heavily on motivation. A tremendous amount has been contributed by the several intellectuals who have shared their opinions on the Theory of Motivation.

A brand-new area of study, psychology or the study of human behavior, was created in the modern age. Abraham Maslow, a famous psychologist recognized for his theory of the Hierarchy of Needs, one of the early psychologists to pay attention to happy people and their psychological development, is one of the pioneers of the social psychological approach. The reality is that employees must be motivated while taking into account their wants and requirements.

This is what the Social-Psychological Approach is all about. Abraham Maslow basically centered his life's work on finding happiness and self-fulfillment. In contrast to other specialists of his day, he sought to comprehend the driving forces behind history's most influential figures. He also sought to comprehend human potential by learning what individuals were capable of when they were at their healthiest. We will discuss Maslow's early years, his theory of motivation, and its efficacy in this unit. Additionally, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory will be evaluated critically.

American psychologist Abraham Harold Maslow is most known for developing the Hierarchy of Needs, a theory of psychological health based on meeting basic human needs first and leading to self-actualization. After attending City College in New York, he subsequently transferred to the University of Wisconsin to pursue a psychology degree. He then taught at

Columbia University, Alliant International University, Brandeis University, Brooklyn College, and the New School for Social Research. In 1954, he collected his earlier writings into a book titled "Motivation and Personality." Instead, then treating individuals as a "bag of symptoms," he emphasized the value of emphasizing their good traits.

With the publication of his paper titled "A Theory of Human Motivation" in the journal *Psychological Review*, Abraham Maslow made a significant contribution to the field of human motivation in 1943. Maslow proposed a "hierarchy of human needs" in this article. He believed that as humans are pleasure-seeking creatures, they are driven to satisfy their desires. He continued by adding his observations about the natural curiosity of man. According to his theory, after satisfying their "basic needs," people go on to satisfying their "higher needs," which are arranged in a certain hierarchy.

Before developing the Theory of Motivation, Maslow researched role models such Mahatma Gandhi, Albert Einstein, Jane Adams, Eleanor Roosevelt, and Frederick Douglass. Before Maslow, every administrative thinker from the Human Relations School consistently adopted the instrumental view of man, thinking that by controlling him, the organization could make him a more effective tool. Maslow departed from this way of thinking. He argued that a hierarchy of needs should be used to inspire employees rather than treating them like tools. In other words, man is an evolving entity. Maslow believed that the finest managers are those that help their workers' health.

3. CONCLUSION

The design and administration of governmental organizations, businesses, and non-profit organizations have been influenced by Weber's focus on the reason and efficiency built into bureaucratic processes. His methodology has been helpful in resolving issues with responsibility, decision-making, and authority in complex organizations. In conclusion, Max Weber's study of bureaucracy has had a lasting impact on the social sciences by illuminating the conflicts and benefits that bureaucratic institutions always provide. His work continues to serve as a guide for academics and professionals in the disciplines of management, public administration, and sociology as they attempt to organize and govern social units in the modern world. The fact that Weber continues to be regarded as a key figure in the study of bureaucracy highlights the significance of his theories for comprehending the behavior of sizable institutions and organizations.

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CHAPTER 4

MASLOW'S THEORY OF MOTIVATION: A HIERARCHICAL PERSPECTIVE ON HUMAN NEEDS

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ABSTRACT:

Abraham Maslow's theory of motivation, often depicted as the hierarchy of needs, has been a pivotal framework in the field of psychology and management for decades. This abstract explores the core principles of Maslow's theory and its significance in understanding human motivation. Maslow posited a pyramid of needs, comprising physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization needs, arranged in ascending order of importance. According to his theory, individuals strive to fulfill these needs sequentially, with higher-level needs becoming relevant once lower-level needs are met. Maslow's theory has been applied extensively in various fields, from psychology to organizational behavior, offering valuable insights into human motivation and well-being. This abstract provides a concise overview of Maslow's theory, its applications, and its enduring influence on the study of human behavior and motivation. Abraham Maslow's theory of motivation, with its hierarchical arrangement of human needs, has significantly contributed to our understanding of what drives individuals to act and seek fulfillment. The enduring appeal and relevance of Maslow's theory lie in its simplicity and applicability to various aspects of human life.

KEYWORDS:

Belongingness, Esteem Needs, Hierarchy, Human Needs, Maslow, Motivation, Physiological Needs.

1. INTRODUCTION

Maslow's hierarchy of requirements put a focus on how crucial human needs are to any organization. Every organization has a set of objectives that must be met, and they rely on the organization's employees. If organizational employees' needs are unmet, motivation may be possible. The worker would constantly be motivated to satisfy or achieve an unmet need or objective. In order to inspire employees or workers, organizations must identify their degree of needs. As previously established, Maslow developed a general Theory of Motivation in his landmark paper "A Theory of Human Motivation." "From the perspective of human needs, he examined the interaction between people and organizations. According to him, people join organizations to satisfy their wants, which may come from a number of sources. As a result, meeting these requirements inspires people to perform at a greater level, but unmet needs have a negative impact on people's willingness to contribute to organizations. As a consequence, the organization's goals and objectives aren't being met. Abraham Maslow developed the Hierarchy of Needs Theory with this in mind in order to keep personnel motivated, which would increase productivity and lead to greater individual and organizational satisfaction. According to Maslow, an individual's behavior is the outcome of their conscious and unconscious aspirations, as noted in Dhameja and Mishra. These objectives were both organizational and personal. He prioritized organizational demands higher and put personal needs lower. According to Abraham Maslow, healthy people have a number of wants that are placed in a hierarchy because they follow a hierarchical pattern. These needs include those for physiology, security, social interaction, esteem, and self-actualization. Certain demands are

more fundamental or primal than others. Maslow's so-called "hierarchy of needs" is sometimes shown as a five-level pyramid, with higher demands only becoming apparent until more fundamental or lower wants have been satisfied. The needs are organized as follows [1], [2].

The hierarchy starts with the Physical Needs. Hunger, thirst, shelter, and other fundamental survival necessities are included in this list. Once this desire is met, it no longer satisfies the human beings, who originally strive to meet it. In other words, they are no longer driven by these wants. Security requirements are the following need. These requirements discuss job security or workplace safety, which also gives people a feeling of psychological security. Maslow discusses both bodily and emotional safety in this passage, and he believes that once both requirements are met, they stop motivating people. The social needs come in third. The ties between and among the various groups of employees in the organization are represented by these requirements. These demands provide individuals a feeling of emotional stability as well as a sense of affiliation and belonging. Because men are social creatures who like interacting with others, if their wants are not addressed, they will become recalcitrant and aggressive. The Esteem Needs come in fourth. These are the needs where people seek for dominance, success, and prestige. Esteem here refers to both one's own sense of worth and the respect of others [3], [4].

The Need for Self-actualization is the most important need. The fulfillment of all previous demands is represented by this desire. The satisfying of this desire increases a person's feeling of pleasure in their job and personal lives, which enhances their performance in an organization. Kurt Goldstein created the phrase "self-actualization," which refers to the pursuit of one's life's meaning and purpose. The core of this need is the desire for self-fulfillment and a meaningful existence.

Maslow referred to the lower levels of the pyramid as "deficiency needs" because when they are satisfied, a person feels nothing, but when they are not, they get worried. Therefore, safety requirements, social needs like friendship and physical intimacy, and ego needs like self-esteem and recognition are all examples of deficient needs. The same goes for physiological needs like eating, drinking, and sleeping. Maslow, on the other hand, referred to the fifth level of the pyramid as a "growth need" since it helps people to "self-actualize" or realize their full potential as people. A person might focus on self-actualization after satisfying his deficient requirements. Self-actualization needs exceptional traits like honesty, independence, awareness, objectivity, creativity, and originality, hence only a tiny proportion of individuals are able to achieve it.

The Hierarchy of Needs Theory in Action

There are five stages in the Hierarchy of Needs Theory. The satisfaction of each need acts as a goal for the individual. For instance, the physiological need comes first, and the person focuses on satisfying it until he or she is completely satisfied. Only then does the person move on to the next need. Almost everyone experiences this in their everyday lives, and when a goal in a needy area is not achieved, it inspires a person to do so. When something is accomplished, it stops motivating the person, and they stop being interested in and working on it further [5], [6].

When it comes to physiological demands like food, thirst, shelter, etc., the organization makes contributions in the form of pay and other perks to meet these needs. After these requirements are met, the person advances to the requirements of the following order, which are the security requirements. People nowadays worry about a variety of undesirable situations and accidents. In light of the fact that security has turned into a crucial aspect of a person's existence, security demands now play a very significant and even dominating position in an individual's life.

Therefore, the individual doesn't go out to fulfill the next demand until he is entirely pleased with his safety. The necessities of the social order are at the next level. Being a social animal, the person yearns for connection and association. This involves addressing psychological requirements like gaining acceptability in a group or organization. Additionally, this includes fostering better interpersonal relationships. After these requirements are met, the individual next has esteem needs, where he wants to be respected and acknowledged inside the organization where he is employed. He yearns for fame, flexibility at work, and independence. The pleasure that comes from meeting these demands increases one's level of motivation to contribute fully to the organization. The employee gains more self-assurance and morale, which further equips him to assume leadership roles and mentor others.

The desire for self-actualization, which is the highest level need, comes next. This urge, which is shown by giving more in any function, denotes greatness in society and organizations. Additionally, it has to do with finding meaning and purpose in everything of one's endeavors. Their efforts are focused on advancing the organizational development objectives. Only when all the lower level demands have been met does this need become apparent. However, it's important to interpret this requirement correctly. According to Prasad et al., some qualities are necessary to satisfy the demand for self-actualization, and these are:

1. Absence of guilt and worry that dominate.
2. A preference for quiet and alone.
3. Aspire to freedom and independence.
4. The thrill, inspiration, and fortitude that come from life's fundamental events.
5. A strong sense of empathy and affiliation with mankind.
6. Mystic occurring experiences.
7. Relationships with a select group of individuals.
8. The capacity to distinguish between means and goals, as well as between good and evil, and
9. Sense of humor, uniqueness, and innovation.

Maslow thought that the insufficiency and development requirements needed to be thoroughly described since they resemble instincts and are a key driver of behavior. He divided the requirements into deficiency and growth requirements. Deficit needs, which result from deprivation, include those for physical requirements, security needs, social needs, and esteem needs.

It's critical to meet these lower-level requirements in order to prevent negative emotions or outcomes. Maslow referred to the requirements for expansion at the top of the pyramid. These requirements don't result from a deficiency of something, but from a desire to develop personally.

2. DISCUSSION

Maslow pointed out that although the Theory is often depicted as a fairly rigorous hierarchy, the sequence in which these needs are satisfied is not always consistent with this process. He pointed out, for instance, that some people's desire for self-esteem outweighs their need for love. Others may have wants that go beyond even the most fundamental ones, such as the desire for creative expression. Once a need is met, it no longer motivates the individual, and as a result, the need's urgency lessens and a new, unmet need appears [7], [8].

Reviewing Maslow's Theory

The Social-Psychological Approach to Public Administration advanced Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs. Maslow respected human feelings and sentiments and worked to accord each person in an organization their fair share of value based on their hierarchy of wants, which was a key factor in inspiring people to perform better.

While some study indicated some agreement with Maslow's beliefs, the majority of studies have been unable to prove the existence of a "needs hierarchy." It has been said that there is minimal support for Maslow's hierarchy of requirements and much less support for his ranking of these needs. Maslow's hypothesis came under fire for using a limited sample size, and even his methods and validation have been hotly debated. The hierarchy does not allow for variations, such as the fact that individuals have different preferences for different requirements, such as a strong preference for security needs over esteem needs. The hierarchy of requirements also cannot be divided into separate categories. It cannot, therefore, be waterproof. Even the birth of a demand is not instantaneous; rather, it develops gradually. The fact that human behavior is multi-motivated and cannot be affected by a single need is most essential.

Other critiques of Maslow's theory point out that it is challenging to conduct empirical research to support his notion of self-actualization. His idea of self-actualization is nebulous, and it can't be used as a model of employee motivation to boost output across any organization. A relatively small sample of people, including persons he knew and biographies of well-known people Maslow considered to be self-actualized, served as the basis for his study on self-actualization [9], [10].

Antoine Fayol

By collaborating with the other social science fields, public administration as a discipline is led toward the administrative reality. It aims to develop political, philosophical, moral, and political concerns with the purpose of supporting the surrounding public institutions. These public institutions are run by various viewpoints, which calls for various fixes. To accommodate these various viewpoints, many public administration theories have been developed. The foundations of public administration ideas may be found in many different academic fields, including history, political science, law, government, and management. We will concentrate on Henri Fayol in this Unit as a thinker who developed the theory of administration as a framework for comprehending and analyzing administration. One of the main proponents of the Classical Theory of Organization is Henri Fayol. Henri Fayol tried to create a general organizational system using this philosophy of organization. Most often, Gullick and Urwick's and Henri Fayol's contributions are considered together with his own work. It is said that their cumulative contributions provided the fundamental concepts of management and organization. Therefore, it would be useful to quickly explain the underlying concepts of Henri Fayol's ideas, which are often categorized under the fourteen principles of management or the Classical Theory of Organization, before we try to grasp his contributions. This unit would emphasize Fayol's professional background and managerial philosophies. Engineer in mining Henri Fayol was a Frenchman. He advanced in his profession gradually and in 1918 was appointed managing director.

Basic principles of Fayol

Understanding Fayol's theoretical underpinnings is necessary to comprehend his theory of management. Fayol questioned the difference between management in a public and private firm right away. The fundamental notion that management and public administration are

different, in his opinion, is deceptive. The term "administration" is surrounded by a misunderstanding. Administrative science encompasses businesses of all sizes and purposes in addition to governmental services. Planning, organization, command, coordination, and control are necessary for any organization. Instead of having many administrative sciences, we need one that can be equally applied to the public and private sectors. Regarding the goal of action, he held the notion of universality. His goal was to start a theoretical analysis suitable for the various organizations. On the basis of industrial operations, Fayol classified his conception of management duties into six groups:

Technical Activities: These activities were geared toward goal accomplishment via manufacturing, fabrication, and adaption.

Commercial Endeavors

This includes actions including the purchase and sale of goods. To make informed judgments and ensure effective manufacturing, market information was necessary. Financial operations This entailed making the best use of existing money, the manufacturing process, which includes buying raw materials, and other operations.

Security Measures

Protecting the interests of its employees and property was necessary for the industrial operations and management.

Accounting Procedures

It is crucial to maintain track of the organization's financial situation while conducting industrial operations.

Administrative Tasks

Regardless of who carries out these tasks, he characterizes them as being the organization's key. The fundamental components of managerial tasks and management are organization, command, coordination, and planning.

Basic Management Principles

Fayol expounded on the fundamental principles of management in an organization while concentrating on the concept of managerial actions. which are

Planning

The most effective tool for fostering organizational development is a strategy. Understanding both the short-term and long-term strategies is beneficial. Our experiences enable us to create practical plans. Focusing on unity, continuity, adaptability, and accuracy helps a lot in making a solid action plan successful.

Organising

It is necessary to organize both the material organization and human capital in order to organize a corporation or an agency. Every organization must make sure that all relevant factors are taken into consideration in order to properly design and execute the strategy. An organization's goals and needs must match up with the human and financial resources available. This necessitates the creation of a single authority, which aids in the coordination and clarity of activity management. The leadership facilitates the performance of tasks and inspires workers to do their responsibilities. Rewards are paid to start this.

Command

According to Fayol, management behavior or general management principles form the foundation of the art of command. The manager in charge should be able to remove the inept employees and should have a full understanding of the staff. He must strive to set a positive example for others under his leadership by conducting regular audits.

Coordination

This organizational role put a strong emphasis on coordinating efforts. The main goal of guaranteeing coordination is to make sure that each department works in concert with the others while keeping in mind the overarching goals of the organization.

Control

This makes it easier to demonstrate compliance with the strategy and goals. In order to guarantee efficacy, the control process must aid in overcoming shortcomings and should be carried out in a suitable way and time frame. These are what Fayol saw as the fundamental components of administration, which may be summed up as:

1. Plan calls for keeping next action in mind. The strategy must be built with coherence, adaptability, and continuity.
2. Create a formal framework of power with material and human agencies through organizing. Organizing entails a variety of tasks, such as dividing the organization into several departments or designating various roles and occupations.
3. The goal of command is to keep the troops moving.
4. To coordinate is to connect and tie the different process components together.
5. Control is the process of ensuring adherence to law and authority.

Tenets of organization

Fayol listed fourteen administrative concepts. He said that these administrative guidelines will boost the organization's compassionate component. These guidelines are adaptable and adjustable to the organization's requirements.

Fayol said that if an organization is not founded on these principles, it would be operating in the dark. He did note, however, that this is not a complete list of administrative principles and that more may be added or removed depending on the need of the organization. These Fayol's fourteen tenets are described as follows:

Grouping of Tasks

This refers to the division of labor based on individual skill levels. A group of individuals with various characteristics and skills make up an organization. Additionally, this leads to the specialization of function.

Responsibility and Authority

Authority and responsibility, according to Fayol, are connected. He said that accountability comes from authority. Exercise of power comes with sanctions and rewards, and this is what authority is.

Discipline

In order to obtain adherence and execution at all levels, agreements must be respected. Both upper-level and lower-level managers may use it. With transparent and equitable agreements at all levels, it may be used with discretion.

A single command

Fayol indicated that just one supervisor should be able to deliver commands to the subordinates. Because if it is broken, the superior's authority is weakened. The subordinate finds it challenging to follow several commands. He said that this happens when there is dual command, or when power is shared between two people and the departments are not clearly defined.

Continuity of purpose

Fayol intended this to indicate "one head, one plan," and it is crucial to have both coordinated strength and laser-like concentration. Focusing on organizational coordination, where goals are achieved, is unity of direction. It differs from unity of command in that unity of direction is organization-based rather than personnel-based. As a result, Unity of Command is dependent on Unity of Direction.

Individual Interests Are Put Behind General Interests

Individual interests shouldn't take precedence over organizational interests. Therefore, the organization should endeavor to cooperate as much as possible with its employees.

Compensation for Employees

Paying the employer fairly is important for both the employee and the company. The cost, business health, manner of payment, and other aspects are only a few that affect compensation.

Centralization

The senior management of a company have a major role in determining how much initiative is there. Every organization has some level of centralization, whether it is to a larger or smaller amount.

Chain Scalar

Scalar Chain is the hierarchy of superiors, from highest to lowest, according to Fayol. The channel used for communication from top to bottom is the line of authority. This path is time-consuming, sluggish, and long. He claims that the unity of command concept determines the course of action. Fayol, however, proposed using the "gang plank" as a substitute way to avoid the wait.

Order

This procedure refers to the need for staff to work toward social and economic order after the fundamental job structure has been established. staff must be assigned to the appropriate position.

Equity

Employees must be treated fairly and kindly in order for business to be conducted inside the organization. Building the employee-employer connection depends on this.

Employees should be given enough time to become used to their jobs, according to the stability of tenure of personnel. According to Fayol, an organization's inefficiency is caused by tenure instability.

Initiative

Employees should contemplate and pursue novel concepts. These concepts serve as strong motivators for workers and support the development of discipline and respect.

Spirit of the body

This denotes harmony among the organization's employees. The organization is strengthened as a result of this.

Fayol's Principles' Effect

The guidelines set down by Fayol helped the organization become more effective. These guidelines aided in the development of reliable operating procedures in organizations. They assisted in creating discipline and cooperation between the employer and the employee while preserving the organizational hierarchy. Fayol drew attention to the fact that principles were not hard rules for managing administration; rather, they served as facilitators for organizational administration. The human component of the organization as well as the effectiveness of the work were strengthened by these ideas. These administrative concepts, in accordance with Fayol, contribute to the coordination and accomplishment of organizational goals. In an effort to achieve organizational goals, Fayol proposed the "gang plank" concept. Fayol focused on the concept of formal organization, but he also proposed the "gangplank" approach as a way to enhance the efficiency of organizations. He believed that "Formalism" might hinder an organization's ability to function and that the "gangplank" technique could disrupt the hierarchy and intermediate levels.

FAYOLAN Evaluation

Fayol's Theory has drawn criticism for a number of reasons. His use of personal experiences as the foundation for his theory has drawn criticism. It is said that he worked at a mining company and learned that it was impossible to create a framework that would work for all organizations. He is believed to have concentrated on enhancing the administration as a whole using a set of guidelines derived from particular, personalized experiences.

His theory is sometimes referred to as a "macro theory" since he is said to have concentrated on large-scale organizational management issues. He is criticized for focusing only on functional factors while allegedly ignoring the structural ones. A significant critic of "Fayolism" is Peter Drucker. He said that the fourteen Fayol principles overlapped with one another. He also noted that Fayol made an effort to run his organization according to a general model. According to Drucker, performance capacity issues would arise if these fourteen principles were applied to a more entrepreneurial or dynamic organization than the average mining sector. According to Chester Barnard and Herbert Simon, there are fourteen ideas that cannot adequately describe organizations. The behavioral characteristics of organization participants have to be emphasized. It was necessary to pay attention to the workers' emotional requirements as well.

3. CONCLUSION

Maslow's hierarchy of needs has been extensively utilized in management to create employee incentive methods and in psychology to understand human behavior. It emphasizes how crucial it is to take care of fundamental physiological and safety demands before moving on to more

advanced requirements like social connection and self-esteem. This paradigm has affected approaches to personal development, education, and even marketing since it offers an organized method to understand human motivation. In summary, Maslow's theory of motivation is still a key idea in psychology and management. It serves as a reminder of the complexity of human motivation and the need of attending to a variety of needs in order to promote personal development and wellbeing. Maslow's insights on human motivation continue to be an important resource for understanding and enhancing both individual and organizational behavior, despite years of criticism and modification.

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CHAPTER 5

ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY: MARY PARKER FOLLETT

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ABSTRACT:

Mary Parker Follett, a pioneering thinker in the realm of administrative theory, made significant and lasting contributions to the field of management and administration during the early 20th century. This abstract delves into Follett's key ideas and their enduring relevance in contemporary management practices. Follett's work emphasized the importance of human relations, integration, and collaboration within organizations. She championed the concept of "constructive conflict" and advocated for a more democratic approach to leadership. Her holistic perspective on administration has left a profound impact on organizational theory and leadership practices. This abstract provides an overview of Follett's essential concepts and their continued influence on modern administrative theory and management. Mary Parker Follett's administrative theory has had a profound and enduring impact on the field of management and administration. Her emphasis on human relations, integration, and collaboration within organizations remains highly relevant in today's complex and dynamic business environment.

KEYWORDS:

Authority, Bureaucracy, Classical Management, Decision-Making, Henri Fayol, Human Relations.

1. INTRODUCTION

The pioneering female in the subject of administrative theory was Mary Parker Follett. She was the first to emphasize the notion of people in organizations. Warren Bennis said that "just about everything written today about leadership and organizations comes from Mary Parker Follett's lecture IGNOU and writings," while Peter Drucker referred to her as a "Prophet of Management." According to many academics, Follett was decades ahead of her time as a political scientist, master analyst, and study of business and organizational management. She has specialized in the field of contemporary management and organization, particularly in the areas of coordination, leadership, power, and authority as well as in dispute resolution and group dynamics. However, in the fields of organization and management, her concepts such as dynamism, empowerment, participation, leadership, conflict, and experience find a position of relevance [1], [2].

The Works and Life of Follett

1968 saw the birth of Mary Parker Follett in Boston, Massachusetts. She attended the Thayer Academy for her early schooling before graduating from Radcliff College, widely known as Harvard's Annex for Women. She pursued studies in philosophy, politics, and economics. Follett dedicated her life to studying psychology, the foundations of industrial and scientific management, political science, public administration, and psychology. According to Follett's biographer Joan Tonn, "Follett developed such original, penetrating analyses of leadership, power and authority, conflict, and group behavior without the benefit of modern research methods that her ideas form the basis of much of our modern discourse about organizations and management." Follett produced a number of significant contributions, including:

1. The House of Representatives' Speaker.
2. State of the New.
3. The Creative Process, and
4. Administration in Motion.

Follett On Organizational Conflicts

An organization is a structure made up of a number of individuals cooperating to achieve shared goals. Conflict thus naturally emerges when two or more individuals collaborate. Such friction may sometimes impede the organization's development, but it may also boost organizational effectiveness. According to Follett, an organization is a social structure, but it's not a cooperative one, hence conflict results. She proposes the concept of "constructive conflict," arguing that although conflict in an organization is harmful, it may also serve constructive ends. She argues that conflict is neither good nor bad and should be judged based on ethical prejudgments in her book "Creative Experience," which states that conflict "is not a wasteful outbreak of incompatibilities, but a normal process by which socially valuable differences register themselves for the enrichment of all concerned." Conflict is only the appearance of disagreement; it is not combat. Conflict, therefore, is a divergence between people's beliefs and interests. Such disagreements may emerge everywhere, not only between the boss and the workers. It occurs often in all organizations, at every level. Follett contends that in order for conflict to be productive, we must actively look for a way to integrate. It won't happen by fighting but by engaging in a shared investigation of the issues and finding a solution. Follett has proposed three strategies, namely Domination, Compromise, and Integration, to resolve "conflict" in an organizational setting [3], [4].

Domination

With this approach, dominance is used to settle dispute. One side is winning over the other in this case. Conflict appears to be easily resolved via dominance. It is not, however, a sustainable one since the one who loses the debate would feel cheated and would clash with others. Domination is just a temporary solution to conflict when it is used as a strategy to settle it. However, in the long term, it remains unsolved and could potentially spark further conflict.

Compromise

Compromise may also be used to end a quarrel. Follett, however, asserts that "compromise is too fleeting and futile." When compromise is attempted over a dispute, it may result in a position where one may win or lose. Even if conflict may be handled by compromise, it suppresses people, and a repressed person will give up trying to settle the issue. Later on, however, it will have far more devastating effects. Integration is a form of conflict resolution that integrates the goals of both parties. It is a constructive way to end a disagreement since neither party has given up anything in order to use this approach. Instead of dividing men, the problem may be handled by unifying them. This approach has certain benefits since it promotes the formation of new ideals.

However, integration calls for a high level of intellect, and the leadership must be well-versed in how to handle disagreements. The benefit of integration is that it addresses the issue at its source and finds a lasting solution. This form of conflict resolution also saves time and money since the issue is permanently resolved and won't recur. According to Follett, the willingness of the populace to resolve the issue via integration is hopeful in and of itself [5], [6].

"I do not think that integration is possible in all cases," Follett said in her article. Integration is often impossible when two sons have a desire for the old family house or when two males want

to marry the same lady. These situations occur often, with varying degrees of severity. I don't want to imply that life is devoid of tragedy. All I can say is that we could often integrate if we were aware of its benefits.

Integrated Foundations: According to Prasad's observations in his book on administrative thinkers, Follett's proposed basis for attaining integration are as follows. Follett believes that acknowledging rather than repressing differences is the first step toward attaining integration. She claims that without first identifying our differences, we cannot possibly aspire to merge them. Therefore, it is necessary to unearth, recognize, and comprehend the true problems at stake in a disagreement.

The second phase is breaking down the whole, or taking into account and breaking down the needs of both parties to a disagreement. This entails symbol analysis, which is necessary for organizational work and cannot be avoided. This calls for carefully examining the language used to determine its true meaning. According to Follett, all language is symbolic, therefore it's important to be aware of what's being symbolized. In order to integrate, one must occasionally do the opposite of tearing the entire apart. It is crucial to express the whole need, the actual want, which is being masked by unrelated minor claims or a weak presentation. Conflict anticipation is the third phase. It does not imply avoiding confrontation; rather, it means handling it differently. Follett compares integration to a game of chess. The anticipation of a reaction is not sufficient in and of itself; more preparation is required. This entails fostering certain sentiments among the populace. People are often used to the concept of dominance via character and habit. As a result, promoting the notion of integration is difficult.

2. DISCUSSION

In general, strong intellect, sharp awareness, discernment, and originality are necessary for effective integration. Orders are given based on the "Law of the Situation," not on a person's personal power. The execution of a job may be impacted by the manner in which an order is provided. Follett outlines four fundamental guidelines for issuing orders in her article titled "The Giving of Order," they are as follows. Realize the concepts that may be used to behave in every situation with a conscious attitude;

Determine which of the concepts should be put into practice with responsibility; do experiments and observe; and have an experimental mindset. Follett's suggestion that giving an instruction based on principles qualifies it as having a conscious attitude. Having a responsible attitude is defined as issuing orders based on the moral standards that one should uphold. An experimental attitude is when orders are given without knowledge and the successes and failures are analyzed. Finally, if it is determined that the current techniques are insufficient, one should consider the collective experiences of all parties and how much and how the ways of providing commands have changed [7], [8].

It is often believed that instructions would be followed without doubt or discussion. Giving or issuing orders is really a very challenging task. According to Follett, several behavioral patterns and mental attitudes have an impact on how orders are given. Past experiences, education, training, emotions, beliefs, biases, and other factors contribute to the formation of particular thought patterns that psychologists refer to as "habit patterns," "action patterns," and "motor sets." Orders cannot be heeded by the populace without a change in habitual behavior and mentality. Follett offers three actions to effect the transformation. the development of certain attitudes; the provision for their release; and the enhancement of the released while it is being put into practice.

The boss should figure out how to get workers to accept orders as a habit. The following are four crucial steps for creating habits: (i) convincing officials of the merits of a new approach; (ii) changing office rules so that officials can adopt the new approach; (iii) persuading a small number of people to adopt the new approach ahead of time to set an example; and (iv) intensifying the attitude to be released. Follett has noted that the aforementioned step will pave the way for acceptance of or compliance with the new approach. Giving commands is a behavior that is equally significant. A major factor in many disputes is alleged government harassment, tyranny, and domineering behavior. The use of words and disregard for the workers' sentiments and self-respect would result in strikes and poor workplace relations. One becomes increasingly resistant to being bossed about as time goes on [9], [10].

Follett proposed depersonalizing the commands in order to prevent this kind of bossism and noted that it is necessary to "depersonalize the delivering of orders, to join everybody involved in a study of the situation and follow that. She said, "I don't believe we'll have the greatest success in business administration unless we accomplish this. When there is a conflict between two key positions of equal power, this is what occurs and must happen. The head of the manufacturing department does not issue orders to the head of sales, and the opposite is true. Instead, then giving directions to one another, both parties should agree to follow the situation's cues. If there are commands involved, the issue of who is giving and who is receiving does not arise. Employees accept the commands supplied by the circumstance, and both accept the orders.

Power concepts: Authority and Control

Follett claims that "power might be defined as simply being able to cause events to occur or act as a catalyst for change." Follett distinguished between "power-over" and "power-with" in order to define the concept of power. The former is "coactive-power," whereas the latter is "coercive-power." Power-with is a self-evolving entity that fosters improved communication, lessens friction and conflict, enhances teamwork, and supports participatory decision-making. Follett believed that although we cannot stop the power-over, we may lessen its effects. Follett has offered three strategies to lessen power-over: "i) through integration; by acknowledging that all should submit to the law of the situation; and iii) by making the business more and more functional unity."

According to Follett, authority is a vested right that allows the holder to acquire and use power. She claims that a person does not acquire power via ownership or a formal position inside an organization. The phrase "belongs to the job and stays with the job" is often used. As a result, it derives from the function rather than the location. She claims that authority cannot be assigned and that the phrase "delegated authority" is now outdated. According to her, authority should start with the law of the circumstance rather than bossism. In addition, responsibility is derived from the context and role. Follett questions "what is he accountable for, rather than "whom is he accountable to." She opposes ultimate responsibility and views it as an illusion, and she favors the pluralistic or cumulative definition of responsibility. Control is a crucial component of achieving organizational objectives, such as authority and responsibility. Follett, in contrast to other classical philosophers, favors "correlated-control over superimposed control" and "fact-control over man-control." She views organizational control as pluralistic and cumulative.

Coordinating and Planning

"Harmonious ordering of parts" is what Follett defines as coordination. Planning, according to her, is a strategy for adjusting oneself and coordinating one's own interests. Self-adjustment can only be accomplished via cooperation. The following are the guidelines for cooperation as outlined by Follett:

Early Stages of Coordination Workflow coordination must begin from the very beginning. Instead of focusing on policy execution, it should take into account the lower level of the organization. The organization will gain from higher motivation and morale if it gets started early. The idea of central planning is completely destroyed by this theory. According to this idea, coordination via direct control, the accountable party in the organization contacts the subordinates directly, regardless of their position and hierarchy. Vertical chain of command and horizontal communication, in Follett's opinion, are equally significant.

The main goal of coordination is to unite the various activities, talents, attitudes, and efforts of organizational members into a harmonic whole. Coordination is defined as the reciprocal relating of all factors in a situation. The organization's activities and procedures are intertwined with one another. Follett refers to an organization in this context as a system of interconnected pieces. Coordination as a Continuous Process Coordination is a continuous process in which actions are planned and from those plans, further activities are produced. Follett emphasizes the necessity for an ongoing system to approach the challenges in a logical way. Follett asserts that "leadership" is an essential managerial competency. She leads in a practical approach rather than an autocratic one. She asserts that a leader is someone who "can see all around a situation, sees it as related to certain purposes and policies, sees it evolving into the next situation, and who understands how to pass from one situation to another," rather than the department head. A leader is also "the man who energises his group, who knows how to encourage initiative, how to draw from all that each has to offer," according to her. He is "the man who can show that the order is integral to the situation" Coordination, goal definition, and anticipation are a leader's three essential tasks. She points out that leaders are developed via appropriate education and training in management and organization, not born. A leader not only affects but also is affected by his group. The term "circular response" refers to this mutually beneficial arrangement. She makes a distinction between the three main forms of leadership.

Harold A. Simon

The main proponent of the behavioral approach in the field of public administration is regarded as Herbert A. Simon. He was a political scientist and economist, and the majority of his study included topics linked to organizations, including decision-making, human behavior, and other topics. In the study of organizations, he favored empiricism. In his book *Administrative Behaviour*, he emphasized that the study of decision-making processes is his most important contribution and that decision-making processes may be used to understand an organization's character. He also conducted an investigation of how values preferences in decision-making relate to human behavior. He also thought that the idea of choice may help close the gap between logic and behavior.

Simon was renowned for his theories on "bounded rationality" and "satisficing," in particular. He fiercely disagreed with the traditional views that led to the creation of the "Principles of Administration" and compared them to "administrative proverbs." The writings of Mary Parker Follet, Elton Mayo, and Chester I. Barnard, who made significant contributions to the study of group dynamics in organizations, the human relations approach, and executive functions, respectively, had an influence on Simon. He rejected the notion of a politics-administration dichotomy and proposed an empirical approach to the study of public administration. We go through Simon's foundational ideas of organizational process in this unit.

The Works and Life of Simon

At the University of Chicago, Herbert Alexander Simon earned a doctorate in political science with a focus on public administration. Throughout his lengthy career, he wrote several articles and research papers on a range of topics, including politics, public administration,

management, cognitive psychology, computer science, complex systems, and artificial intelligence. Simon won the Nobel Prize in Economics in 1970 for his investigation into how economic organizations make decisions.

Views of Simon on Classical Theory

The Classical Theories advanced by many philosophers were largely criticized by Simon, who referred to the "principles of administration" as "mere proverbs." Simon also criticized the conventional approach's narrowness and thought it to be internally inconsistent. According to Simon's article on the proverbs of administration, "proverbs have a fact that substantially increases their propensity to be quoted:

They nearly usually appear in pairs that are mutually exclusive. Before you jump, look! He who hesitates, however, is lost. Although the two principles in a pair would result in completely divergent organizational suggestions, there is nothing in the theory to suggest which is the correct one to use. "Almost every principle has an equally plausible and accepted contradictory principle." For instance, he draws attention to the contradiction between the concepts of "unity of command" and "span of control," where the former refers to how a worker should only have one superior and the latter, to the number of subordinates that a superior may manage.

Since there has been no in-depth study of actual events, and the principles have been developed without sufficient diagnosis of situations, Simon deems the two principles to be unclear, contradictory, and considers them to be proverbs. Therefore, according to Simon, the principles of administration lack scientific validity and universal relevance, and there is a significant gap between the theory and practice of organization. He claims that in order to determine the correctness of a proposition, it should be directly compared with experience - with the facts - or it should be led by logical reasoning to other propositions that can be compared with experience. He suggests decision-making above principles because, in contrast to principles, he thought that decision-making is a universal process and would serve as the foundation for organizational analysis.

Making decisions in administration

Simon believes that the essence of administrative activity is decision-making, and he points out that an organization is an institution if it is set up with decision-makers. He emphasizes that "decision making is the heart of administration" and that "the vocabulary of administrative theory must be derived from the logic and psychology of human choice" in his book *Administrative Behaviour*. Simon suggests a fresh approach to management that is founded on Logical Positivism's ideas and methods and emphasizes decision-making. Thus, the idea of making decisions is associated with administration, which includes the POCCC and POSDCORB activities proposed by Fayol and Gullick, respectively.

According to Simon, every decision made inside an organization is based on more than just the administrative facts and ideals. Since administration is nothing more than the art of "getting things done," it is equally vital to consider the procedures and techniques used in decision-making to guarantee that an action is carried out. He claims that in administrative analysis, the decision that comes before action is not given enough consideration. He contends that choosing "what to do" requires more consideration than the act of "doing," and in that sense, decision-making refers to the process of making a choice before taking action. Simon makes the point that it is crucial to comprehend this aspect of an organization, which is anchored in how people behave inside it. Without it, administration studies would continue to be essentially insufficient.

Based on his dissertation thesis, which analyzed the behavioral and cognitive processes involved when a person makes a logical choice or decision, Simon's fundamental work—which subsequently emerged on decision-making and the logical Choice Approach. According to Simon, the behavioral process that is used which is mostly dependent on the conscious or unconscious selection of activities or alternatives determines whether an administrative decision, option, or even an individual decision is made. The word "selection" describes the decision-makers' preference for one course of action above other potential courses of action. And such a course of action or the many possibilities recognized, as well as the ultimate decision, are dependent on the behavioural and cognitive thinking of the person or organization.

It is possible to describe the decision and action in any normal procedure as being similar to established reflex actions. For instance, the concerned personnel in an organization do not need to consider their choices or actions while doing regular tasks like keeping employee leave records or paying salaries since a reflex has been built between the usual procedures followed and the activities. Though the actions made in this situation by a human resource management are reasonable, awareness is not present. Such regular actions taken, which have a pre-determined standard set of processes, are referred to as conditioned reflex actions.

On the other hand, there are uncommon or non-standard circumstances in an organization when decisions and actions must be made carefully. In this situation, the word selection is the result of a complicated series of tasks known as "planning" or "design" operations. If a department or organization wants to execute a new program or scheme, for instance, the program is created, and options and a series of activities are identified and planned in a methodical way, based on brainstorming discussions, in-depth analysis, using one's own judgment, etc. As a result, the employee implements the program according to the detailed plan that has been developed, expressing the behavior in a chain that ensures the set of activities planned out is carried out in the intended manner. Simon has therefore specified three types of activities in the decision-making process, which are as follows:

Finding the right circumstances to make choices is the goal of intelligence activity. The organization's leader or executive must assess the organizational environment, comprehend it, and pinpoint the issue that has to be resolved. Design activities involve creating a plan of action to address the issue. Once the issue has been found, the head or executive should look into every potential course of action to find a remedy for the specific issue that has been identified. Selecting the best option from a range of possibilities is referred to as a choice activity. To achieve organizational objectives, the decision-maker should pick one of the available options or a plan of action that best serves those objectives.

The decision-maker in these phases should be capable of using their judgment, creativity, experience, and quantitative analysis. The decision-making process may seem to be relatively straightforward, but it is really more complicated. There is a collection of the three actions in each one that is described again. That is, all three activities intelligence, design, and choice are included in the "intelligence activity" and may be thought of as wheels inside wheels.

3. CONCLUSION

Follett's theory of "constructive conflict" questioned conventional ideas about how to resolve disputes and promoted conflict as a way to spark new ideas and promote cooperation. Contemporary management and leadership styles have been impacted by her views on participatory leadership and the value of incorporating people in decision-making processes. In conclusion, Mary Parker Follett made significant contributions to administrative philosophy that still influence how businesses are run and led today. Modern management techniques have been forever changed by her focus on the human dimension of management, the significance

of democratic leadership, and the benefits of constructive conflict. Scholars and practitioners wanting to build more efficient and cooperative organizations continue to find inspiration in Follett's comprehensive and progressive approach to administration.

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CHAPTER 6

CHESTER BARNARD: ORGANIZATION AS A COOPERATIVE SYSTEM

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ABSTRACT:

Chester Barnard, a pioneering management thinker of the 20th century, introduced the concept of organizations as cooperative systems. This abstract explores Barnard's foundational ideas on organizational theory, emphasizing the importance of cooperation, communication, and authority within complex organizational structures. Barnard's work, especially his seminal book "The Functions of the Executive" (1938), has had a profound and lasting impact on the fields of management and organizational theory. This abstract provides an overview of Barnard's key concepts, highlighting his belief in the cooperative nature of organizations and their critical role in achieving collective goals. Chester Barnard's perspective on organizations as cooperative systems has left an enduring legacy in the realm of management and organizational theory. His insights into the essential elements of effective organizations, including cooperation, communication, and the role of executives, continue to be highly relevant in contemporary management practices.

KEYWORDS:

Chester Barnard, Cooperation, Formal Organizations, Informal Organizations, Management Theory, Organizational Communication.

1. INTRODUCTION

Every choice, in Simon's opinion, is founded on the logical assumptions of values and facts. According to him, "an administrative science is concerned only with factual judgments, like any science. Ethical declarations have no place in the study of science. The knowledge accessible at a particular moment, which is connected to the issue of facts, determines how successful a course of action will be. The ability of the course of action to accomplish the predetermined objectives is another factor that determines its efficacy. The right decision depends on the individual's desire, which deals with the issue of values. Fact may be defined as a declaration of actuality. It is demonstrable by visible methods. Value, however, is the statement of a choice. It can only be inferred subjectively. For instance, there may be numerous sets of guidelines, rules, or regulations that must be followed if a service is to be obtained from a department. This is nothing more than the collection of information needed to make a choice. On the other side, the choice to be made relies on the preferences of the person or organization, and may include adhering to a set of laws and regulations, using influence to get things done, or even engaging in corrupt behavior to fulfill the requirement. The former is an example of a factual judgment, while the latter is an illustration of a value assumption. The organization's aims and objectives shape each person's behavior inside that organization. A company has no purpose unless appropriate goals and objectives are set. The organization's mission provides direction, a frame of reference, and specifies what should be done and what shouldn't be done. Every choice made in this process, no matter how little, will unavoidably have an impact on the manner and purpose of more significant choices. Simon uses a guy walking as an illustration. This is how he explains the procedure: "A walk contracts his leg muscles to make a step; he takes a step to move toward his destination; he is going to the destination, to mail a

letter; he is sending a letter to transmit certain information to another person, and so forth. As a result, each choice requires choosing a behavior that is appropriate for that purpose, which is not an end in itself. It may lead to a far-off objective, and so on, until a quite distant goal is attained. He contends that choices are referred to as "value judgements" inasmuch as they influence the choice of ultimate objectives. And they are referred to be "factual judgements" if they entail carrying out such objectives. For instance, the council must choose the group of goods for which money is to be allocated while creating a budget for a local body. The priorities will determine this. The choice of whether to spend more money on parks or highways, on education or health, is tied to one's "value judgments." Following the selection of the priorities, "factual judgments" are mostly used to guide implementation. Examples of choices involving factual judgments include the length of the road, the connecting points, the style of road, etc. There are no judgments based on value or facts. Only the underlying assumptions and constituent parts that are related are values and facts. Problems do not present themselves to us as judgments based on facts or values [1], [2].

Rationale for Making Decisions

Simon's main contribution is decision-making, specifically the rational decision-making. Making decisions is a difficult process that requires a never-ending network of choices. Analyzing the sequence is simple in a typical circumstance, and logical decision-making is likewise feasible. However, it might be difficult to analyze the sequence in a complicated circumstance, and reason suffers as a result. Simon, however, asserts that only logical decisions may be the basis for any decision-making process. According to Simon, rationality is "concern[ed] with the relationship of preferred behavioral alternatives in terms of some system of values whereby the consequences of behavior can be evaluated." To do this, the decision-maker must be fully aware of all available options and their potential outcomes. However, owing to several constraints, it is not always feasible to fully understand all potential outcomes and alternatives in real-world situations. These restrictions might be brought on by the decision-maker's poor knowledge or, in certain cases, by the organization's organizational structure. The following are some restrictions that prohibit making fully reasonable decisions:

The decision-maker has a limited understanding of all the options for solving the specified issue. decision-maker's inability to fully understand the effects of every potential course of action. inadequate information available to the decision-maker. He or she lacks the time to thoroughly consider every alternative and its implications. lack of understanding of the future events that will be affected by the choice. limitations in options and alternatives brought on by the habits, values, and intelligence of the decision-makers. Influence of informal groups' traditions and behavioral norms on choices Organizational elements, including external forces and the formal organization's norms and processes, lines of communication, etc.

Simon goes into further detail on the many sorts of rationality that go into making decisions. Objective, subjective, conscious, purposeful, organizational, and personal rationality are among Simon's six categories of rationality. A choice is objectively rational if it maximizes the provided values in the given circumstance. If the choice maximizes achievement in relation to topic knowledge, it is subjectively rational. Adjusting means to aims is a deliberate process in conscious rationality. Insofar as the methods to the objectives have been purposefully altered, this is intentional rationality. If the choice is made with the organization's aims in mind, it is said to be organizationally rational; otherwise, it is said to be personally rational [3], [4].

Although Simon claims that rationality is the fundamental presumption for decision-making, he rejects the idea of ultimate rationality owing to the irrational assumptions it contains. First of all, absolute rationality is predicated on the idea that decision-makers are omniscient and are

aware of every option that is offered as well as its implications. Second, it is assumed that the person making the choice has infinite processing power. Finally, it thinks that the decision-maker is capable of organizing all potential outcomes. According to Simon, these presumptions are erroneous in every way. The actions of people are neither entirely reasonable nor entirely irrational. Simon goes on to say that cognitive constraints place boundaries on behavior or knowledge, which is how he came up with the idea of "bounded rationality." He also created the term "satisficing," which is formed from the term's "satisfaction" and "sufficing," when addressing the notion of bounded rationality. In other words, a person does not consider all of the options before making a choice. Instead of optimizing the decision, a choice that matches their degree of desire or happiness is taken into account. The term "satisficing decision" refers to how people really act while making choices.

Decision-making Models

There are several models of decision-making behavior available. The main goal of the models is to evaluate the level of decision-makers' rationality. The models of the economic man and the social man, respectively, vary from perfect rationality to complete irrationality. Simon has created an Administrative Man model that sits next to the "Economic Man" and is more realistic. Organizational elements including the anticipated function of the job, obligations and duties, concern for the public interest, and moral and ethical responsibilities influence how someone behaves in an administrative setting. Therefore, unlike the "economic man," it is not practicable for the administrative man to maximize the option. An economic person maximizes, i.e., chooses the best option from all those at his disposal, as opposed to an administrative person who is unable to see all potential options or forecast all potential outcomes. The administrative guy is content with "good enough" or "somehow muddling through" choices rather than seeking to find "optimal solutions". In contrast to the economic-man model, which considers maximizing solutions, the administrative-man model considers satisficing solutions [5], [6].

Organizational influence mechanisms

The administrative organization comes up with its own strategies and tactics to influence the decision-making process. The organization aims to limit the operational personnel' behavioral and decision-making freedom. These organizational influences can be divided into two categories: establishing in the operating employee the attitudes, habits, and state of mind that led him to make the decision that is best for the organization, and imposing the decisions made elsewhere in the organization on the operating employee. In the first category, workers' organizational loyalty, efficiency, and training are used to exert influence. The influence in the second category is based on legitimacy, counsel, or knowledge. Authority

The organizational culture creates the illusion of power so that subordinates obey orders from superiors without questioning them. Instead, then trying to persuade the subordinate, the superior anticipates quick compliance with commands. Chester Barnard has argued that authority belongs to the subordinate accepting it, not to the superior executing it. The myth of authority has a significant impact on how people behave.

Organizational Belongings

Members of any organization have a tendency to identify with that group. This is a significant aspect of human behavior. They make judgments with the interests of the organizations they are affiliated with in mind. The organization's goals constantly predominate in members' minds. He is loyal and able to make judgments that are in line with the organization's best interests because of this vision of what is good. As a result, organizational loyalty limits the behavioral

options and promotes behavioral uniformity, which makes group work feasible. In order to establish responsibility, each member of the organization would also share a set of values. However, the issue with organizational loyalty is that each person has a limited perspective of the organization and disregards its wider organizational objectives. According to Simon, the necessity for a wider perspective would increase as one rose through the ranks of an organization.

Standard for Efficiency

The organization may affect an individual's value assumptions via the exercise of power and the formation of organizational loyalty, yet all decision-making involves factual judgments. The criticism of efficiency has an effect on them. Efficiency refers to using the quickest and least expensive methods to achieve objectives. The efficiency criteria are basically agnostic in terms of the objectives to be accomplished. Any administrative agency's members are heavily influenced by the organizational directive "be efficient" while making choices.

2. DISCUSSION

The way that information is communicated inside a company affects how decisions are made. Making factual decisions requires a person to consider all of the facts and advice at their disposal. The organization that can enable effective communication may not only influence behavioral choice but also guarantee consistency in judgment and action.

Training

A tool for preparing organization members to make wise judgments is training. It teaches someone how to use their judgment in accordance with the structure and objectives of the organization. This is also a tool for communicating facts and objectives to a person in order to empower him to make the best decisions for the organization [7], [8].

An analysis of Simon's Works

It is clear from the debate thus far that Herbert A. Simon made a substantial contribution, particularly to the development of the decision-making process, the theory of limited rationality, or the idea of satisficing. Simon's opinions have drawn criticism from certain academics, nevertheless. The following are a few common critiques of Simon's works.

Simon has placed greater emphasis on the procedures involved in making decisions while ignoring the social, political, economic, and cultural influences on administrative decision-making and behavior.

In contrast to values, Simon's work primarily focuses on factual judgments. Excluding value premises, however, would limit the study of public administration to less significant, mechanical, and regular topics. In contrast to public administration, his concept of fact-based administrative theory is better applicable to corporate administration. His conception of decision-making is too abstract, formalistic, and functionalistic, failing to take into consideration individual motives and feelings.

James Mc Camy believed that under Simon's theory, the person is subsumed into the organization, and emotion is extinguished in a rationale puff. Simon, according to Chester Barnard, was attempting to generate physics while also attempting to solve the universe's puzzle. He also criticized the use of the terms rational and efficient inconsistently, failed to consider the significant degree of uncertainty that most decisions involve, failed to pay enough attention to organizational communication processes, and failed to adopt a politically neutral stance. The difference between facts and values made by the Logical Positivists is included

into and used in Simon's research of decision-making. His strategy has drawn criticism for recreating in a new form the debunked politics-administration divide. Norton E. Long criticizes Simon's assertion that administration is a value-free science, which might have the unexpected and illogical effect of recreating the policy-administration split in new language. Selznick contends that the frequent logical disparities between fact assertions and preference statements radical divisions of truth and value only serve to reinforce the separation of means and goals. Simon's definition of efficiency came under fire for being equated with economy, and the phrase itself was criticized for encouraging a mechanistic view of administration and an uncoordinated link between means and objectives. Chris Argyris believes that Simon's insistence on reason has prevented him from acknowledging the importance of religion, tradition, and intuition in making decisions. Status quo ante is the main emphasis of Simon's thesis [9], [10].

Cliff Barnard

Chester Barnard, who was born in 1886, is regarded as one of the top administrators. He has held a variety of administrative positions in the business throughout his life. He combined his ideas based on real observation and expertise from his career of executive experience. The *Functions of Executive and Organization and Management*, two of his fundamental writings, are regarded as providing the conceptual framework for all behavioral actions carried out in subsequent periods. He saw organization as a kind of social structure. He is regarded as the founder of the Social Systems School of Management.

Organization as a System of Cooperation

Barnard sees organizations as cooperative systems that are purposefully coordinated to accomplish goals. He maintains that each organization is a little component of a bigger system, which is eventually the society.

No organization can sustain itself. For a variety of resources, it is dependent on other political, social, economic, and cultural systems. According to Barnard, there are three crucial components to every organization. a collection of people having the capacity to communicate with one another. a shared goal to be achieved.

collaboration and coordination amongst group members to accomplish a shared goal. Chester Barnard emphasized that one of the most crucial foundations for an organization's survival is its members' connections with one another. He believed that a group needed to be ready to pitch in to achieve a goal. People organize themselves to do tasks they are unable to complete on their own. Cooperation is thus the cornerstone of organization.

Organizations official and informal

According to Chester Barnard, informal organizations may be found in all official organizations. He thought that informal groupings make up formal organizations. These informal organizations develop from these informal groupings. According to Barnard, neither can exist without the other's efficient operation, and the other two are both essential to one another's existence. In formal work settings, informal organization should not be discarded, but rather promoted and streamlined with the official organization, according to Barnard.

Barnard saw informal organizations as a network of communication that contributes to the improvement of formal organizational communication structures. Thus, Barnard includes both the factors that are needed to formal goal formulation and the essential socio-psychological acceptance of the same in his definition of good organizational functioning. Formal organization is described by Chester Barnard as "a system of consciously coordinated forces

of two or more persons." It alludes to a system of clearly defined occupations, each of which has a certain amount of power, duty, and accountability. The four main elements that make up formal organization are its foundation.

1. Division of labor.
2. Functional and scalar processes.
3. Composition.
4. Control range.

A formal organization is one that is the outcome of planning, where the top management has previously decided on the structure's design. In order to accomplish organizational objectives effectively and efficiently, informal organization, which is not represented on the organization chart, works in conjunction with formal organization. An informal organization is one that develops as a consequence of people's interpersonal and social relationships rather than being formed by a formal authority. Informal organization is the term used to describe how individuals within an organization relate to one another based on their own attitudes, feelings, biases, preferences, etc.

Without a question, formal organization is a crucial component of the organization, but it cannot fulfill all of the goals of the organization by itself. The organizational culture and formal recognition of authority are determined by the group's ideas and values. "Informal organization brings cohesiveness to a formal organization," according to Barnard. The formal organization's members have a sense of prestige, self-respect, and social fulfillment as a result.

Barnard's opinions On Interaction

Communication, in Barnard's opinion, is the organization's cornerstone. A collection of individuals having the ability to communicate with one another forms an organization. It not only aids in the formation of the organization but also significantly contributes to its efficient operation. Even authority, in Barnard's view, is a type of communication. Its acceptability is largely based on how well it is conveyed to the subordinates. They were able to comprehend the instructions.

They won't be able to track them till then. As a result, communication is crucial to an organization's performance, according to Barnard. He emphasized the need of well-coordinated organization to accomplish any formal group's goal. Without good and effective communication, this is not feasible. The following seven characteristics, according to Barnard, should characterize organizational communication:

1. Communication channels need to be clear.
2. Everyone has to be aware of the communication routes.
3. All individuals have to have access to official channels of communication.
4. Communication channels should be as brief and straightforward as feasible.
5. The communication centers' staff members should be adequately competent.
6. When the organization is operating, the channel of communication shouldn't be cut off; and
7. Every communication has to be verified.

He emphasized the need of using the whole communication channel, and that once a decision had been made, all participants in the channel needed to be fully informed of its operation and contents. Barnard emphasized the need of Communication authentication. Additionally, he stressed the bosses' qualifications at communication centers.

Conception of Power

The ideas that Barnard has about authority are unique. Prior to him, all classical philosophers held the view that power comes from above and is vested in the office. Barnard was the one who emphasized that power doesn't come from a position in a hierarchy or a job; rather, it comes from how well subordinates are treated. He views power in a mutually beneficial way. His view of authority is bottom-up. From juniors to seniors, it moves. "An order has authority or it lies with the person to whom it is addressed and does not reside in the "person of authority" or those who issue these orders," the speaker remarked. He distinguishes two sorts of authority.

1. Objective Power.
2. Subjective Power.

The inclination of subordinates to respect his superiors is the source of objective authority. Subjective Authority, however, is based on how a subordinate views a command.

Imaginary Authority

Barnard saw the existence of authority in an organization as an illusion, even if he thought that subordinates were responsible for its efficacy. According to his opinion, the reason why the illusion of authority persists in organizations is because subordinates are afraid of the consequences of disobeying commands. He asserts that employees do not want to lose their position or other perks inside the company where they are employed. They worry that if they are rejected, other group members would start to look down on them. He said that since the subordinates are afraid to take on any responsibility or initiative, they accept authority. As a result, subordinates accept the Communication as being from superiors. They believe that only their superiors are responsible for obeying orders. Additionally, defying authority may be seen as a disobedient act against the whole organization, which might lead to retribution on the part of the entire organization.

The employees' terror keeps them attentive to communication. Therefore, in the organization, a fiction of authority operates in place of actual authority. The superior believes that the subordinate obeys his commands because of his authority, while the subordinate really does so for personal gain. "This fiction simply establishes a presumption among people in favor of the acceptability of orders from superiors, enabling them to avoid objecting to such orders without incurring a sense of personal or individual status with their fellows.

3. CONCLUSION

Barnard's focus on cooperation as the cornerstone of organizational success emphasizes how crucial it is to promote cooperation between people and divisions within an organization. Modern leadership and management techniques that emphasize the requirement for legitimacy and trust in hierarchical systems have been inspired by his notion of power as a type of acceptance by subordinates.

Finally, Chester Barnard's view of organizations as cooperative systems continues to be a key idea in the field of management research. His theories provide insightful direction for comprehending the dynamics of complex organizations and the function of leadership in accomplishing common goals. Barnard's work continues to influence and shape the practices

of managers and leaders all over the globe, serving as a testimony to the continuous value of collaboration and effective communication in contemporary organizational contexts.

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CHAPTER 7

ELTON MAYO: STRUCTURAL ASPECTS OF ORGANISATION

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ABSTRACT:

Elton Mayo, a pioneering figure in the field of industrial sociology and management, made significant contributions to understanding the structural aspects of organizations during the early 20th century.

This abstract delves into Mayo's key insights, emphasizing his exploration of how organizational structures impact human behavior and productivity. Mayo's renowned Hawthorne studies highlighted the importance of social and psychological factors in the workplace and their influence on organizational performance. His work has had a lasting impact on organizational theory and management practices. This abstract provides an overview of Mayo's fundamental concepts, shedding light on his belief in the integral relationship between organizational structure and employee well-being and productivity. Elton Mayo's examination of the structural aspects of organizations has left an indelible mark on the fields of management and industrial sociology. His groundbreaking Hawthorne studies challenged conventional thinking by revealing the profound influence of social and psychological factors on organizational dynamics.

KEYWORDS:

Elton Mayo, Human Relations, Industrial Sociology, Management Theory, Social.

1. INTRODUCTION

The question of why subordinates obey authority when it relies on their consent emerges. According to Barnard, an organization's ability to survive relies on maintaining a balance between the contributions and happiness of its members. The decisions about contributions are made by employees rather than management since they are made by participants in the organization.

The organization gives its participants pleasure. He made the argument that a participant would only stay in an organization if his inducements were greater than his efforts. The organization continues to exist as long as it is able to provide sufficient effective inducements to maintain the system's balance. Barnard divided the rewards a man seeks for his commitment to an organization into two main categories [1], [2].

Particular Incentive

In general, Barnard agreed with human relationists on how to motivate employees in an organization and opposed the notion of the classical economic man. He identified four distinct inducements as the sources of satisfaction. He has proposed four distinct rewards.

Indifferent Zone

The Recognition Zone of Difference of individual members of the organization facilitates Theory of Authority. Zone of Indifference, according to Barnard, is a philosophical concept that explains which directives from the superior are to be received and which are to be ignored.

In his notion, Barnard explains that statements that are obviously inside the Zone of Indifference should be received without hesitation by subordinates. Conversely, the subordinates must blatantly reject communication that is obviously beyond the Zone of Indifference [3], [4].

Regarding the communication that just so happens to be on this Zone's border. The subordinate may or might not agree with the idea. Barnard emphasizes the need for expanding the subordinates' Zone of Indifference in this conversation. He emphasized that only messages that fall inside the Zone of Indifference should be given by superiors. The notion of Contribution-Satisfaction Equilibrium states that this may be increased by incentives, which can be monetary or non-monetary. Barnard offers a novel perspective on leadership. Leadership, in Barnard's words, "depends on three things: the individual, the followers, and the circumstances." He claims that not all of the work done by executives in an organization qualifies as executive work. According to him, there are three categories into which executive duties might be divided. upkeep of the organization's communication networks. obtaining crucial services from the people. There are two stages to the initial organizational communication maintenance function. Creating organizational charts, defining roles, allocating work among team members, and managing a personnel system are all included in the definition of organizational structure. A personnel system includes hiring individuals with the necessary credentials, providing incentives, etc. According to Barnard, preserving morale, education and training, incentives, monitoring and control, and getting necessary services from people may all help with the second purpose. Creating organizational goals and objectives is the third executive function. This, in his opinion, is a leader's most crucial role. There cannot be meaningful collaboration until these goals are broadly embraced by all of the organization's members.

Barnard made an important contribution to the theory of decision-making in *On Decision Making*. He emphasized group decision-making above individual decision-making. Barnard contends that whereas human decision-making is influenced by unconscious, responsive, and emotional variables, organizational decision-making is the outcome of consideration, assessment, and reasoning. Organizational choices are more logical and sensible than those made by an individual. Between a person's personal choices and organizational decisions, Barnard identified five key distinction [5], [6].

Decisions made by organizations are impersonal and heavily influenced by their goals. Organizational objectives are clearly articulated, although this is not always the case with personal choices. The objectives of an organization are often reached after a great deal of rational deliberation, but with personal aspirations, subconscious processes may prevail. Organizational choices can and often are delegated, however personal ones cannot. Personal choices are not specialized, but organizational decisions are. According to Barnard, a decision-maker should be able to separate the important facts from the irrelevant ones that have an impact on the achievement of the organizational mission. This is attainable via the analysis of circumstances in the quest for strategic elements. Strategic variables should be under control since they affect how decisions are made.

Elton Mayo

The structural elements of organization were the major concern of the classical thinkers. The human components of organizations received little consideration. Work groups are important and have an effect on individual behavior, according to Australian psychologist, sociologist, and organization theorist Elton Mayo. He argued that job satisfaction depends on the informal social structure of the workplace. He believed that both social difficulties and professional demands affected how well individuals performed at work. In this Unit, we'll talk about Elton

Mayo's Hawthorne experiments and look at the results. We'll make an effort to comprehend the complex part Mayo played in his research, one that led to a big result. Despite criticism of his work, his promotion of the idea of the social man and of social needs gave organization and management literature a sociological and psychological emphasis.

Elton MAYOA's biographical information

George Elton Mayo was an American psychologist and social scientist who was born in Australia. In Australia's Adelaide, he was born. He attended Queen's School and St. Peter's Collegiate School for his education. In 1897, he enrolled at the University of Adelaide to study medicine. He left his studies behind, moved to the UK, and enrolled in medical programs in London and Edinburgh, which he finally quit as well. When he returned to England, he started writing, started working for the Pall Mall Gazette, and started lecturing at the Working Men's College in London. In 1907, after his return to Australia, he enrolled at the University of Adelaide to study philosophy and psychology under Sir William Mitchell. He was hired as the University of Queensland's first foundation professor in philosophy and education in 1911. Elton Mayo served on many government bodies and provided advice on how to organize the military effort during World military I. He published articles and gave lectures on industrial, political, and psychoanalytic psychology. He received his appointment as the First Chairman of the Philosophy Department in 1919 as compensation for the work completed during the war.

He made a lengthy speaking tour in the United States in 1922 and lectured on a range of socio-psychological topics, focusing in particular on concerns relating to employee-management interaction. He relocated to the USA in 1923 on a Rockefeller grant and enrolled at the University of Pennsylvania's Wharton School. As a research associate there, he looked at how work breaks affected productivity in different textile companies. He concentrated on sociology and organizational psychology. A research position at the newly founded Harvard Business School was given to Mayo in 1926. He began his renowned Hawthorne Studies there in 1928 and carried out trials over the next five years.

2. DISCUSSION

Psychologists Sigmund Freud and Pierre Janet had a big impact on Mayo. He concentrated on employee behavior and their potential for output while taking into account physical, psychological, and financial factors. Industrial sociology and the Human Relations School of Business are said to have been founded by Elton Mayo. Mayo went for England after the conclusion of World War II. He joined a team at the National Institute of Industrial Psychology there that was involved in aiding British Industry's post-war recovery. Additionally, he kept on giving lectures and engaging in other scholarly pursuits. He passed away in England in 1949.

Experiments of Elton Mayo

Extensive studies were carried out at the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company in Chicago in the US between 1924 and 1932, the results of which formed the basis for Elton Mayo's works, which established the Human Relations hypothesis. These experiments were previously covered in Unit 5 of the Core Course on Public Administration Perspectives' Human Relations Approach. However, we also need to have an overview of Elton Mayo's viewpoints in this Unit in order to grasp them. The four primary stages of the Hawthorne trials were

Studies on illumination

In this study, the productivity of the workers was examined in relation to illumination intensity. The employees were split into the experimental group and the control group. However, the findings of these experiments were equivocal since output in the experimental group changed

in a manner that did not seem to be related to the intensity of illumination, but rather rose when the environment was made worse. Production rose in the control group even though the illumination didn't change. There is little doubt that variables other than modifications to the physical requirements of the job had an impact on the amount of productivity. The association between production levels, incentive programs, and lighting levels could not be shown [7], [8].

Test Room for Relay Assembly

The job in the Relay Assembly Test Room was monotonous and repetitious. It required fitting together a variety of tiny pieces to assemble telephone relays. Six female employees were moved from their usual department to a different location. Two assemblers who knew each other well were chosen by the researchers. The experiment was split into 13 phases, and throughout each one, the employees were exposed to a number of planned and monitored changes in their working environment, including shift swaps, rest breaks, and the availability of refreshments.

By consulting the employees and listening to their grievances, a congenial environment was developed throughout the trial. The volume of output increased. The management's interest and the increased focus on the employees were the main drivers of increasing productivity. Mayo had the opinion that the informal social structure of the working group played a significant role in determining how satisfied one was at work. The shift in supervisory techniques raised employee morale, which led to an uptick in output. The Human Relations Approach's guiding principle was the connection between supervision, morale, and production [9], [10].

Recruiting Process

Another significant portion of the trials was the interviewing program. It was raised to get a sense of how the employees felt about their managers and the overall working environment. This allowed the employees a chance to talk about the business, management, and working conditions while also having a congenial environment in which to "let off steam." Nearly 20,000 workers provided information on a variety of topics, including family life and opinions on society in general.

The Observation Room for Bank Wiring

Another experiment entailed watching a group of 14 people while they worked in the bank wiring room. The guys established their own informal organization, complete with subgroups or cliques, it was reported. The organizations created their very own set of unofficial social relationships. It was discovered that social constraints on employees were more powerful than monetary rewards. The Hawthorne studies made an effort to investigate how physical factors like light and temperature affected output. However, the main finding was how social dynamics at work affected output. The investigations' results produced a number of conclusions, including

In influencing a worker's morale and productivity, needs for belonging, security, and acknowledgment are more crucial than physical working circumstances. Social pressures from both within and outside the workplace influence the attitudes and productivity of the worker. The work plan's conditions exert significant social restrictions over each employee's work habits and attitudes. The Hawthorne studies made the crucial observation that employees had a great desire for cooperation and communication with one another. Mayo believed that people generally still have a desire for cooperative action, which can be tapped into by clever and straightforward administration. Mayo proposed that managers should learn social skills and use them to win the cooperation of employees.

Elton Mayo emphasized the importance of social elements of work above organizational structure that is only functional, two-way communication between the CEO and employees, and strong leadership. According to Elton Mayo's tests, informal methods and work groups that put a strong emphasis on human emotions, feelings, and relationships were crucial in boosting organizational efficiency. The management must work hard to build interpersonal abilities in coaching, motivating, leading, and communicating as well as skills in understanding human behavior. Using experimental data, Elton Mayo came to the general conclusion that worker misperception and management mistrust were the root causes of the antagonistic interaction between employees and management. The problem was also made worse by emphasizing economic efficiency above social cohesiveness. Employee productivity was influenced by both the nature of their jobs and societal factors. Mayo argued that management was required to ensure employees' engagement and match their interests with those of the organization. More importantly, however, subsequent generations of management scientists saw the research as supporting the notion that intangible interactions between coworkers and managers, as well as within the workforce, were major predictors of productivity.

Works by Elton Mayo

With his research, Elton Mayo promoted the ideas of the social man and social needs. In 1933, he released his debut book with the same name. *The Human Issues in an Industrialized Society*. Included in here is a description of Mayo's Hawthorne experiments. He came to the conclusion that the creation of a method that would allow people to live in simple social interactions with one another was the most important necessity of the industrial world. *The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization*, another book by Mayo, was released in 1945. Mayo believed that although industrialization may help with production issues and boost economic progress, it had not really raised the social standing of the workforce. Mayo thought that psychological approaches to the issue would be more effective than socialism in resolving the conflict between employees and bosses. The author, Mayo, the theme of 108 was the development of new systems of comradeship and integration in industrial society. Without it, social maladjustment and societal disarray may take place.

The Political Problems of an Industrial Civilization, Mayo's third book, was released in 1947. He highlighted the political issues that result from an industrial civilization in this book. Some of these issues can be caused by dishonest government officials and rules that businesses had to follow. Mayo's work has helped advance fields like organizational psychology as well as management theory. Other social scientists including Chris Argyris, Frederick Herzberg, Keith Davis, and others were influenced by his research. Douglas McGregor changed his Hawthorne experiments. The way that Elton Mayo emphasized the significance of management style as a significant factor in industrial productivity was distinctive. His emphasis was on the value of interpersonal abilities above monetary rewards. In order to satisfy the organizations, he placed focus on the humanistic approach. His research on the financial requirements of employees served as the foundation for a fresh perspective on management. Through research done at the Western Electric Company's Hawthorne experiments, which were performed between 1927 and 1932, Elton Mayo's work made a contribution to management theory. He argued for the development of humanistic relationships between employers and workers. He believed that rather than being regarded as interchangeable parts of the industrial system or as components of production, employees and workers should be treated with dignity and respect. Mayo saw industrial organizations as psycho-social systems that place a strong focus on their people resources, including their relationships, welfare, needs, and fulfillment.

The extensive literature that came out of the Hawthorne trials, which were led by Elton Mayo, has improved organizational theory. He was able to provide verifiable proof of the importance

of interpersonal ties at work. Trahair claims that Mayo did not start, control, or direct the study at Hawthorne. He really took on four different jobs. He was a "appreciative helper" during the first 18 months of his life. He went to Hawthorne to observe the physiology of the ladies participating in the relay assembly test, but he also gave advice on women's health in general. He commended the researchers and urged them to pursue new, untested lines of inquiry while making suggestions about potential modifications to questioning techniques and goals.

F.W. RIGGS

A pioneer in the study of public administration from a comparative perspective was Fred W. Riggs. Comparative public administration examines public administration from a cross-cultural and cross-national viewpoint. After the Second World War, when the dominating America was providing relief to war-torn nations, the study of public administration in comparison acquired importance. Riggs worked with government organizations in charge of relief initiatives. These international assistance initiatives, forced the intellectuals on administration in the west to comprehend the methods used for public administration in non-western nations.

Although born in China, Riggs spent his academic career in the United States. He has previously worked in the Philippines and Thailand. Riggs' international experience likely inspired him to examine public management across cultures. Riggs identified three major tendencies in the study of public administration: normative to empirical, idiographic to homothetic, and non-ecological to ecological. Normative guidelines cannot be contested. They would fall under the heading of conventional norms and be of the sort of do this or do that. The comparative study of public administration must move away from traditionally sanctioned standards and toward assertions that can be scientifically verified. Moving from microstudies to generalizations is the second key tenet of comparative public administration research. Moving from specific cultural contexts of administration to non-ecological, generic principles is the third main concept.

The structural functional theory of Talcott Parsons and other functional theoreticians used as the foundation for Riggs' strategy. The word "ecology" comes from the Greek word "olkos." The ecology of public administration states that public administration must only be understood in its cultural environment in order to understand its functioning, much as the elements of a house are organically related to one another to produce the home. Essentially, it is the study of how public administration interacts with its social and cultural surroundings. According to Riggs, the study of how administration interacts with economic, social, technical, political, and communication factors in a broader context is known as ecology of public administration. To describe the traits of contemporary politics and conventional policy, Riggs used the structural-functional theory created by Talcott Parsons. He described traditional civilization as *Agaria* and the contemporary society as *Industria*, with the transitional period between the two being modeled by *Transitia*. Widespread criticism was leveled at this typology for failing to elaborate on the transitional period, failing to account for diverse communities, and being unidirectional from agriculture to industry et. In order to accommodate the prismatic typology, Riggs had to rearrange typology.

According to the prismatic model, there are three stages: fused, prismatic, and diffracted. The traditional society is classified as the fused society, which is functionally dispersed and has particularistic values. It portrays a typical pre-industrial civilization that was mostly made up of independent communities. Particularism refers to ideals that are unique to the village in question and that do not apply to other villages. The power was given to the village chief or the household patriarch on the assumption that it could not be obtained by individual merit or technical proficiency. Technical specialization was not necessary in pre-industrial civilization

since everyone was well-versed in everything. Functionally scattered describes this lack of specialization. However, as a result of industrialization, moral principles became universal, and a person's degree of personal accomplishment was correlated with their level of power. Industrial units need specialized skill sets, or functional specificity as Riggs calls it. The word "diffracted society" refers to how diverse skill sets that people earned via personal effort dictated their degree of power.

Riggs developed the prism theory to compare and contrast traditional and contemporary societies. Before entering the prism, a light ray is only one light strand. This figure of speech is used by Riggs to characterize a traditional culture as one that lacks distinct skill sets. However, when the light beam splits into multiple colors, each color represents a separate professional specialty. Riggs refers to the industrial society as a diffracted civilization as a result. The prismatic society, which is a society in transition from the pre-industrial fasted society to the professional specialization of the industrial society, is the most original aspect of his idea.

According to this prismatic paradigm, the diffracted society is distinguished by universal values, success, and functional distinctiveness. In a contemporary culture, ideals like equality, personal responsibility, secularism, etc. are universally applicable. The hallmark of industrial society is personal success that confers power, and professional specialties. The prismatic society is defined by selectionism, attainment, and poly-functionism. These characteristics mix universal values with trial values. For instance, the industrial society wants individuals with professional skill sets who are hired solely on the basis of merit. People were hired in the pre-industrial world based on their birth status. The prismatic society incorporates both: competitive exams favor merit and are a part of the contemporary system, but reservations allow for caste attachments based on birth rather than on merit, which is a characteristic of pre-industrial fusion societies.

3. CONCLUSION

Understanding of workplace dynamics, employee motivation, and productivity have advanced significantly as a result of Mayo's focus on the human aspect inside organizational systems. Modern management techniques have been influenced by his understanding of the significance of social interactions and group dynamics in molding individual behavior. As a result, Elton Mayo's research on the structural features of organizations has had a significant and enduring impact. His understanding of the social and psychological aspects of the workplace has prompted managers to adopt a more comprehensive and compassionate management style. Modern management approaches are still influenced by Mayo's theories, which emphasize the need of taking into account both the structural and human components of companies in order to promote employee well-being and increase productivity.

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CHAPTER 8

A BRIEF DISCUSSION ON IMMATURETY-MATURITY THEORY

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ABSTRACT:

The Immaturity-Maturity Theory is a psychological framework that explores the stages of human development, emphasizing the progression from immaturity to maturity across various facets of life. Developed by several psychologists and scholars over the years, this theory posits that individuals undergo distinct stages of growth and change, transitioning from dependency and limited self-awareness to greater autonomy and self-realization. This abstract provides an overview of the Immaturity-Maturity Theory, its key principles, and its implications for understanding human development across the lifespan. The Immaturity-Maturity Theory offers valuable insights into the complex process of human development. It underscores the notion that individuals evolve over time, acquiring new skills, knowledge, and self-awareness as they progress from dependency to independence and maturity.

KEYWORDS:

Immaturity, Leadership, Leadership Development, Maturity, Psychological Development.

1. INTRODUCTION

Selectivism, achievement, and poly-functionalism are characteristics that Riggs attributes to the prismatic society. In this stage in between fused and diffracted societies, certain values are chosen from the specific and limited fused society, while other values are chosen from the universal values of diffracted society. This is why it is known as selectivism. Because the prismatic society accepts the uniform standard of competitive test for determining merit and personal performance, attainment is a strong illustration of selectivism. However, the prismatic society achieves it via the specific and constrained values of caste-based and nepotistic reservation. Since they are ascribed to a person based on birth or tradition, nepotism and caste-based reservation are examples of scriptural principles. By understanding transitional civilizations as prismatic societies, Riggs utilized the ideal models of fused society and diffracted society to describe how a growing nation function. Heterogeneity, formalism, and overlapping, in Riggs' opinion, are the three different characteristics of a prismatic society. Heterogeneity is the existence of several types of systems in a prismatic society. Rural villages are still led by village elders who mix social, economic, and political functions within themselves. This is in contrast to metropolitan environments, which are dominated by a sophisticated intellectual elite with contemporary western style offices and information technology. Because contemporary hospitals coexist with ancient medical practices, modern western education is provided alongside the old gurukulam system of instruction, etc., this heterogeneity in a prismatic society is puzzling. Integration is hard to accomplish because of these divergent diverse practices that have an influence on the administrative system. The gap between declared goals and actual accomplishment is formalism, which is the second key characteristic of prismatic society. Formalism plagues prismatic cultures, but high levels of realism are experienced by fused and diffracted society. This difference arises from the fact that the prismatic society, as a transitional society, creates laws to be in accordance with contemporary norms, but the officials actively participate in infractions to earn corrupt money on the side. As a consequence, bureaucratic conduct would be very unpredictable, which would

invite corruption. While prohibition was in place, this was obvious. The government did not take its implementation seriously. In recent years, it has become increasingly common to see people riding two-wheelers without helmets, which is a clear example of formalism the discrepancy between the letter of the law and its practical application [1], [2].

The third main tenet of prismatic society is something like to overlap. When undifferentiated structures from a fused civilization co-exist with differentiated structures from a diffracted society, there is overlap. Again, overlapping is the outcome of transitional civilizations bringing structures from the diffracted society to rule the social structure. Institutions like parliament, markets, and government offices ostensibly serve political and economic purposes, as they would in a diverse society, but they are nonetheless impacted by outdated institutions like religion, caste, and other social constructs. Numerous behaviors, such as nepotism, poly-communication, normativism, and others, are manifestations of overlap [3], [4].

In a prismatic society, Riggs referred to the administrative subsystem as *sala*. According to Riggs, the equivalent of a *sala* in a diffracted society is a bureau or office, while in a fused society, it is a chamber. The Spanish term *sala* has a unique assortment of connotations. *Sala* is an example of a prismatic term since it might refer to a government agency. To describe how public administration in a prismatic society combines the quantities of a bureau with the quantities of a chamber, Riggs uses the term *sala*. In other words, it is clear from prismatic society's public administration how old and contemporary systems interact.

In a merged society, patrimonial considerations would affect governance, but in a diffused society, caste, religion, and kinship play distinct roles. Even if formal mechanisms of a diffracted society are in existence in a prismatic society, specific familial rules take precedence over universal laws. Poly communal ideals predominated in a prismatic society, and administrators exclusively favored those who belonged to their own community. Administration choices are influenced by unique community *lias* norms rather than the universal requirement of neutrality. Reservation or quota policies are employed to preserve the interests of more compartmentalized groups and to create conflict between them in an effort to combat this communal *lias* of integrated society [5], [6].

Associations function in a diverse culture and enlist people from many backgrounds to achieve a shared goal. They adhere to general principles that apply to all members equally, and Riggs refers to them as clubs. On the other hand, fused societies encourage the formation of tiny groups based on shared interests, such as family or religious connection. They are described as sects by Riggs. The prismatic society combines the characteristics of both societies and associations. These features are combined into what are known as cleacts, which are partly open to everyone and partly sects that are combined to one particular community. Since cleacts are made up of this community, government representatives who represent a particular cleact are only required to provide services to members of this cleact and ignore those who do not belong. Because government officials are a structure of the divided society, this is a breach of the universal standard of treating everyone equally. In other words, although seeming to be a framework of the diverse society, public administration primarily benefits the cleacts. In this regard, Riggs recalls that universalism is defeated by the social control mechanisms of the fused society and the legally established authority structure of the diffracted society.

The Bazaar-Canteen is how Riggs refers to the prismatic society's economic subsystem. The only factors influencing a product's or service's pricing in a diffracted society are supply and demand. Arena factors religious, social, and family considerations determine the cost in a unified society. The price in a prismatic society is determined by both economic and non-economic elements, leading to the phenomena of price indeterminacy. The relationship

between a public worker and their family, their relatives, or an individual would affect the price of a product or service, as would the surrounding environment. Bureaucrates would provide preferential prices to privileged consumers, while prices would be higher for less privileged, outside groups. A facility that is accessible to employees of a certain company is referred to as a "canteen," a common prismatic phrase. Corporate stands for the universal principle of being open to individual success, but the canteen, which is exclusively accessible to members of certain corporate organizations, promotes particularism.

This overlap of values in the prismatic society's economic structure encourages harmful economic behaviors like hoarding and illicit marketing, which also raise inflation levels. The sala officials take advantage of the economic uncertainty, while the people continue to live in poverty. Officials from the sala collaborate with international commercial organizations and abuse foreign currency. The salary gap between those with high incomes and those below the poverty line also widens. Thus, the sala officials are influenced by the prismatic society's economic subsystem, who in turn are influenced by the prismatic society's economy. Riggs offers advice on how to leave the period of transition and establish a diffracted society in his conclusion. According to Riggs, development is the process by which social systems become more autonomous as a result of an increase in diffraction. In order to avoid exogenic development thrusts that would increase formalism, heterogeneity, and overlapping, Riggs argues that the urge for change toward a diffracted society should emerge from inside rather than from outside. Second, differentiation and integration are both necessary for the development process. Integration brings these specialized operations under the umbrella of the government's objectives, whilst differentiation calls for specialized entities to carry out various duties. The extremely diversified and inadequately integrated system is a problem in prismatic society. Only when there are high degrees of differentiation and high levels of integration can diffraction result in development. Technology-based elements cause distinction, but penetration of government services into every region of the nation and public involvement in the execution of government programs determine integration. participate and the extent to which they can. The usage of Riggsian Terminology is the main critique of Riggs. Critics claim that public administration is a science only because of the vocabulary it borrows from physical disciplines. Some detractors contend that the Riggsian model just serves as an equilibrium model and does nothing to alter the system. Despite all of these critiques, the Riggsian model does provide some insight into the challenges of public administration in a nation in transition.

Argyris Chris

An outstanding social scientist and member of the Socio-Psychological School of Thought, Chris Argyris made a substantial contribution to the field. He is a competitor for the most venerable and significant conventional organizational structure, which is based on mechanical and technocratic ideas. Traditional businesses, however, opened the door for increasingly sophisticated, non-materialistic businesses. Argyris noticed a discrepancy between managerial techniques and adult personality. Every person, in his opinion, continuously strives for psychological achievement, which they all attain to varied degrees. The issue is that formal organizational structures are too immature to understand and support a person in achieving psychological achievement, according to Argyris. According to him, this will cause organizational and personal degradation [7], [8].

He sought reform in all areas people, the organization, and their interpersonal interactions to achieve this. His work has made it easier to comprehend how people and organizations interact, as well as organizational learning and action research. He advocated altering organizational management procedures and individual personalities in order to decrease conflicts of interest and boost output. The Immaturity-Maturity Theory, Improving Interpersonal Competence,

Alternative Organizational Structures, T-Groups, and Organizational Learning are among the topics covered in this unit. Finally, we shall look at some objections to these hypotheses.

Chris Argyris was raised in Newark, New Jersey, where he was born. He earned a psychology degree from Kansas University as well as an M.A. in psychology and economics. In 1951, he earned a Ph.D. in organizational behavior from Cornell University. He began his academic career at Yale University in 1951 as a member of the Yale Labour and Management Centre, where he later rose to the position of Professor of Management Science. He relocated to Harvard University in 1971, where he served as a professor of organizational behavior and education until his retirement. On November 16, 2013, at the age of 90, he passed away.

Early study by Chris Argyris examined how people reacted to and adjusted to formal organizational structures, control systems, and management. His books *Executive Leadership*, *Personality and Organization*, and *Integrating the Individual and the Organization* are the products of this study. He subsequently turned his attention to organizational transformation while examining top leaders' behavior in the workplace. From there, he transitioned to a study of the inner contradictions between rigorous research and action science, which looked at the function of the social scientist as both a researcher and an actor. His fourth main focus is on studying and theorizing individual and organizational learning, as well as the degree to which human thinking, rather than merely behavior, may serve as the foundation for diagnosis and action (all with Donald Schön). This line of thought has also been expanded by him in *Knowledge for Action and Overcoming Organizational Defenses*. Academics and practitioners of public administration and management greatly value and are affected by Argyris and his colleagues' contributions. Argyris and Schön had a steadfast view that organizational structure and individual personalities are interrelated. It implies that they are both accountable for their growth. Organizations and individual activities should both pick up lessons from one another and the environment in which they function. Additionally, changes in the environment will have an impact on the workplace. People learn and serve as the organization's learning agents. They made their contribution during the beginning of the 20th century while the globe was experiencing both the positive and negative repercussions of industrial expansion. Urban standards of living have constantly increased in terms of material things, including food, shelter, housing, and other tangible items, as well as services like health care and education. Their intellectual lives were enhanced by expensive books, magazines, newspapers, and improved public libraries. This sparked a shift in people's mindsets from being more materialistic to being less or non-materialistic, as correctly defined by Maslow as Middle-level Needs and Higher-Level Needs [9], [10].

Argyris saw that although people's views were shifting, the old, formal organizational structures did not adapt and continued to handle their workers using the "carrot and stick approach," "materialistic approach," or "mechanistic approach." He made the case that this traditional method, combined with organizational structure and leadership style, inhibited personal development. Both the person and the organization lost as a consequence. It would only result in the decline of people and organizations. When organizations support and encourage people to reach their greatest potential, everyone will benefit. Argyris created the intervention techniques for organizational transformation in response to this. His ideas include the Improving Interpersonal Competence, Immaturity-Maturity Theory, Innovative Organizational Structures, and Group Sensitivity Training.

2. DISCUSSION

Chris Argyris created and outlined this theory in his book *Personality and Organization*. One of the numerous ideas that aims to explain how organizational structure and human behavior

interact is this one. Chris Argyris contrasted a more humanistic, democratic value system with the bureaucratic, pyramidal principles that still rule many organizations. This Theory contends that a person develops along a continuum ranging from immaturity to adulthood. Argyris claims that the antiquated organizational systems continue to see individuals as "immature" and defined by sloth, lack of interest, and indifference. People are still seen as being greedy for money, wasteful, and prone to mistakes. They thus use outdated organizational concepts such as task specialization, unity of direction, chain of command, and span of control to keep them moving in the direction of organizational objectives. These principles call for workers to be obedient, submissive, reliant, and passive toward organizational leaders. These outdated organizational philosophies adhere to strict, inflexible rules and regulations and place a strong focus on management controls that make workers feel reliant on their managers and wary of the staff members in charge of the different forms of controls.

Evaluative methods are sometimes seen to be unjust since they often highlight mistakes without explaining why they may have been required. According to Argyris, "without interpersonal competence or psychologically safe environment, the organization is breeding ground for mistrust, inter-group conflict, and so on, which in turn lead to a decrease in organizational success in problem solving." There is less room for natural and free expression of ideas and feelings among workers, which results in poor, shallow, and distrusting relationships, decrease in interpersonal competence, etc.

Similar to this, Argyris has discovered that these outdated organizational structures place the responsibility for any organizational inconsistencies on the workers and launch initiatives to "change people's attitudes" and "make employees more interested in the organization." The "autocratic and directive leadership style" placed on them by the logic and presumptions of long-standing conventional organizational management practices is where this approach to problem-solving originates in the minds of traditional leaders. According to Argyris, this leadership style positions the workers in a position where they are more likely to be passive, dependent, subservient, and obedient. They are also more likely to concentrate their efforts on the requirements of the organization and the leader rather than the needs of all the followers. Argyris came to the conclusion that the influence of directed leadership on the followers is comparable to the influence of the formal organization on the followers. Furthermore, he contended that authoritarian leadership strengthened and continued the "damage" brought about by the organizational structure. On the other hand, a "mature" person is a dynamic, autonomous, self-assured, and self-controlled human being. Chris Argyris defines mature individuals as those who take on greater responsibilities, have a readiness to manage a range of activities, and have the capacity to engage in decision-making.

It is comparable to Douglas McGregor's Theory "Y" beliefs about the populace. The system sees individuals as human beings, respects interpersonal skills, enables them to communicate their views and establish trusts, stimulates participation and values connections, among other things. This personality is fostered through humanistic organizations. Both organizations and individuals would have the chance to reach their full potential here. Chris Argyris concurred, stating that the most productive managers were those that treated staff members with respect and as mature individuals.

Seven modifications have been proposed by Argyris as ones that might aid someone in transitioning from an immature to a mature mentality.

1. As they get older, people transition from a passive to an active condition.
2. A person would develop from dependence to independence.

3. Individuals will be able to act in a wide variety of ways rather than just a few.
4. Individuals would develop strong, profound interests, as opposed to superficial ones when they were younger.
5. People are more adept at understanding the long-term perspective, the history, and the future than merely the present.
6. People go from having merely subordinate roles to equal or super-subordinate ones.
7. Adults are more self-aware and possess more self-control.

According to him, these transformations occur along a "continuum," and a "healthy personality" develops along this continuum as it moves from "immaturity" to "maturity."

Enhancing interpersonal skills

We know that an organization is a collection of individuals who are organized and have a purpose or agenda. It is a team endeavor, thus everyone involved must get along well with one another and work together. Different interpersonal skills are required for this. The capacity of a person to connect with people and the larger society, such as an organization, is referred to as interpersonal competence. Argyris thought that organizations that adopted a mechanical approach had poor interpersonal skills. Employees of such organizations would, as was previously said, be suspicious, afraid, engage in unhealthy rivalry, lack cooperation, etc. All of these elements would be detrimental to the individual's effectiveness inside the organization.

Argyris argued in favor of the organizations that would place a higher value on enhancing both interpersonal and mechanical abilities. He discovered that interpersonal competency was being undervalued. He argued that organizations performed better if their members had stronger interpersonal skills. The term "interpersonal competence" describes the capacity to function well in a setting when there are other people present. He proposed three prerequisites or conditions for the development of interpersonal competency.

Self-acceptance

This refers to how much a person regards himself or herself positively. Confirmation By "confirmation," Argyris refers to the reality-checking of one's own perception of oneself.

Pyramidal Building

It is a stiff, traditional framework best suited for repetitive tasks or unoriginal endeavors. It is appropriate for those who like doing mundane activities, scorn psychological needs, etc.

Formal Organizational Structure Modified

Although it has a hierarchical structure, it is democratic in its operations and procedures. It is comparable to Likert's System 4, which allows a subordinate to participate in the decision-making process of a superior. Comparatively speaking, this organizational form is more effective than the pyramidal structure.

Participatory Design

Comparatively less hierarchical and flexible is this structure. Each employee would have an equal chance to solve problems and make decisions that are consistent with their ability since it has a more organic nature. This framework is ideal for tasks requiring imagination and inventiveness. It may be used for collaborative projects, cross-departmental work, etc.

Organisation Matrix

The project organization is being superimposed over a functional organization. Everyone in the flat organizational structure has the same authority and accountability to do the given job. The group must function as a coherent whole. It is anticipated that superior-subordinate connections would be eliminated and replaced with personal discipline. It may be used for activities requiring numerous abilities or specialized knowledge. The level of participation necessary in decision-making is essentially what distinguishes the arrangements. On the continuum, the matrix organizational structure is farther to the right than the pyramidal structure is to the left. Consequently, although the Matrix organizational style asks for everyone to have equal authority, the pyramidal structure essentially includes relatively few in the decision-making process. No one of these structures should be employed exclusively, Argyris said. Instead, the organizations will often differ based on the structures they use and the kind of choices that must be taken. According to Argyris' theory, "decision rules" must be devised to decide which structure to apply in a particular set of circumstances.

T-Groups

As early as the 1960s, Argyris adapted and implemented this laboratory program approach for the T-Group experiment. He recommended this method to help workers be more productive on a personal level. Understanding oneself and other personalities, group dynamics, and organizational structure are the main topics of this curriculum. It gives you the chance to discover more about their behavior, provide and receive criticism, try out new behaviors, grow in self-awareness and acceptance, and become sensitive to other people's characteristics. The T-group also offers opportunities to understand the characteristics of efficient group dynamics.

Argyris discovered numerous successful outcomes from this experiment. He noted that in this experiment, lower-level workers were given greater responsibility and had access to more reliable information that enabled them to make free decisions. He admitted that the initial purpose of T-group training was to foster self-insight or personal development, with the emphasis being on altering the people rather than necessarily the workplace environment. However, this strategy has steadily improved the organization. Finally, he said that neither he nor his peers shared the belief that formal organizations like T-groups should be run. However, for certain specific judgments, they advised such groupings in formal organizational structures.

T-Group and Public Management

T-Group approach should be widely used in public administration, according to Argyris. He advocated on involvement in organizational socio-emotional processes particularly following the evaluation by the US Department of State. Reforms in governmental organizations should, in Argyris' opinion, focus on meeting higher order needs for personnel. This called for long-term change programs that would concentrate on the senior participants' behavior and leadership style as well as the introduction of organizational changes that would instill in the participants' minds attitudes that were supportive of exercising more initiative, expanding their responsibilities, and engaging in innovative behavior. Additionally, in order to weaken the system's defenses, Argyris recommended significant changes to the personnel procedures.

Enterprise Learning

Argyris also makes a significant contribution to organizational learning. He conceptualized the learning processes in organizational contexts while doing research with Donald Schön. They contended that organizations are more than just groups of people and that they cannot exist without such groups. In other words, organizations also learn from the experiences and deeds

of people, making organizational learning more than just individual learning. Organizational learning happens when members take on the role of learning agents for the organization, reacting to changes in the internal and external environments by identifying and fixing flaws in the application of organizational theory and encoding the outcomes in personal and public maps and pictures of the organization. Learning, according to Argyris and Schön, entails mistake detection and correction. Many individuals originally advised looking for a different method that would handle and operate within the controlling factors if anything goes wrong. In other words, rather than being questioned, predetermined or decided objectives, beliefs, programs, and norms are operationalized. Single-Loop Learning, say Argyris and Schön, is what is taking on here. An alternate course of action would be to critically examine the regulating factors themselves. They refer to this as "dual-loop learning." The controlling variables may then change as a result of this learning, which will change how strategies and consequences are presented. In order to investigate the nature of organizational learning, they arrived. This is how the process is defined in the context of organizational learning: single-loop learning occurs when the mistake recognized and fixed allows the organization to continue with its current policies or accomplish its current goals. A thermostat that learns when it is too hot or cold and switches the heat on or off is an analog of single-loop learning. The ability of the thermostat to accept information and make adjustments enables it to carry out its role. Double-loop learning happens when errors are found and fixed by altering the fundamental standards, goals, and practices of an organization. When objectives, values, frameworks, and to a large part, techniques are taken for granted, single-loop learning seems to be present. Techniques and increasing their efficiency are the focus. Any analysis aims to improve the effectiveness of the plan. Contrarily, double-loop learning requires challenging the role of the framing and learning systems that support real objectives and tactics. This divide resembles that made by Aristotle between technical and practical reasoning in many ways. The former entails adhering to routines and some type of current plan; it is less dangerous for the person and the organization, and it gives the individual and organization more control. The latter is more imaginative, reflective, and takes conceptions of the good into account. Here, reflection is more fundamental since the fundamental presumptions underlying concepts or policies are addressed, hypotheses are put to the test in public, and procedures are adaptable and non-self-serving.

3. CONCLUSION

Although this theory has been debated and modified by a variety of psychologists and academics, its basic idea of developmental phases is still valid. It serves as a reminder that life is a journey of development and change, characterized by changing abilities and expanding knowledge of oneself and the outside world. The Immaturity-Maturity Theory invites us to recognize the complex character of human growth in its last sentence. It acts as a reminder that people are continually changing and that as they become older, their needs, capabilities, and viewpoints change. A greater comprehension of the intricacies of the human experience is fostered by this idea, which is still used to guide conversations and research on human development. The Immaturity-Maturity Theory has stood the test of time thanks to its focus on the effect of social and cultural factors on one's sense of self. Erikson's understanding of the interaction between a person's psychological development and the larger socio-cultural setting has been crucial in directing therapeutic practice and psychological research.

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CHAPTER 9

RENSIS LIKERT: PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT THEORY

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ABSTRACT:

Rensis Likert, a prominent figure in the field of management and organizational psychology, is widely recognized for his contributions to the theory of participative management. This abstract explores Likert's core concepts and principles of participative management, highlighting their significance in shaping contemporary organizational practices. Likert's theory stresses the importance of involving employees in decision-making processes and fostering open communication channels within organizations. His research findings, presented in the "Likert Scale" and "New Patterns of Management" (1961), have had a profound impact on management approaches, emphasizing the relationship between participative management and organizational effectiveness. This abstract offers an overview of Likert's participative management theory and its ongoing relevance in contemporary management and leadership. Rensis Likert's Participative Management Theory has left an enduring legacy in the field of management and organizational behavior. His emphasis on the value of employee involvement, open communication, and the creation of supportive work environments has greatly influenced modern management practices.

KEYWORDS:

Employee Involvement, Leadership, Management Theory, Organizational Communication, Participative Management, Rensis Likert.

1. INTRODUCTION

Many people have criticized Chris Argyris and his beliefs. First, Argyris' conception of how a person fits within an organization and how he characterizes the notion of self-actualization seem to be ideal concepts without specific practical cues. Self-actualization as a notion has been criticized by writers like Simon and contrasted with anarchy. To encourage people to pursue self-actualization, they have offered pragmatic alternatives like lowering working hours and improving leisure time. Second, there are no parallels to Argyris' hostility against authority. Argyris' fixation with the thirst for power has an impact on the belief that "structure is the devil." As Simon notes, Argyris tends to pick de-emphasizing authority relations as a solution, but at the expense of ignoring the repercussions for organizational success. Power itself does not corrupt; rather, it is the desire for power that does, and it corrupts both the mighty and the helpless [1], [2].

Thirdly, Argyris has pushed for employment expansion and T-group meetings to improve interpersonal skills. As long as there is a fundamental conflict of interest between the employers and the workers, this corrective method seems to be myopic in character and unable to address the base of the issue. Instead, the existing quo cannot be better served by these tactics. Fourthly, Argyris contends that the Human Relations Approach and Scientific Management are no longer the dominant management philosophies. Practically speaking, a good management demands a well-balanced mix of both strategies, or a thoughtful blending of the organizational structure and human components [3], [4].

Fifth, several of the key claims of Argyris are challenged on the basis of methodological grounds. For instance, the claim that employees in organizations are hostile to authority has little factual support. Contrarily, workers seem to accept authority and organizational objectives in many organizations because they align with their beliefs and interests. Sixth, the generalization made by Argyris on the pursuit of self-actualization is called into doubt. It seems that not everyone wants to self-actualize themselves in every situation and that many people are happier in environments with directed leadership. Chris Argyris recommended T-group sessions and job expansion as a last strategy for boosting interpersonal skills. As long as there is a fundamental conflict of interest between the employers and the workers, this corrective method seems to be myopic in character and unable to address the base of the issue. Instead, the existing quo cannot be better served by these tactics [5], [6].

Ronald Likert

Rensis Likert, a social psychologist from the United States, was one of the first to advocate for participatory management theory. Likert's scientific concern was people-oriented and encompassed handling 131 conflict, diversity, establishing high-performance teams, leadership, motivation, change, culture, and ethics, in contrast to Classical Thinkers such Max Weber, F.W. Taylor, Luther Gulick, and Lyndal Urwick, etc. In fact, he was inspired to consider his own presumptions and deductions regarding the organization and administration of people by his vast interest for academic subjects such as sociology, psychology, ethics, statistics, engineering, etc. Likert "was always curious about how things worked and how to fix them when they did not," according to renowned statistician and survey methodologist Leslie Kish. His quantitative and practical approaches to social issues and social measures also demonstrated his great sense of structures and measurements. He had a key role in the founding of the Institute for Social Research, which is known as the biggest academic social science survey and research organization in the world. He was a professor of psychology and sociology at the University of Michigan. He created the psychometric scale known as the "Likert Scale" which assesses respondents' attitudes and presumptions about a topic—as part of his dissertation study in 1932. According to Rensis Likert, this unit will assist us in elucidating the function of organizational actors, their relationships with one another, and their impact on general workplace practices.

Humanism in organizations Providing Context

The post-industrial revolution had been the setting for "industrial reforms," which meant that various approaches were taken to achieve "maximum productivity," with a focus primarily on quantity, efficiency, and production equipment. Weber's bureaucratic model and Taylor's Scientific Management approach to job design were influential between the early 1900s to the early 1950s. As a result of the workers' lack of education in the early 20th century, management made all decisions, and employees automatically followed them. Additionally, the worker's every move was predictable and extremely regulated.

In the end, the mechanistic paradigm in those days proved to be quite effective. It's important to highlight that academics have also criticized conventional bureaucratic systems for restricting human behavior. As a result, researchers have looked for alternate management and organizational strategies. Although Taylor's strategy emphasized humanistic components like a mental revolution among management and employees and equitable treatment of workers, in reality, the management just saw employees as "cogs in the wheel" [7], [8].

The Hawthorne experiments from the 1930s and 1940s showed that the existence of peer pressure might have an impact on employees' performance. The research showed that the existence of "informal networks" and "group norms" of the workplace had a significant impact

on worker performance as employees were more aware of human needs other than financial advantages. This signaled a significant change in how people saw the interaction between the worker, the task being done, and the organization as a social structure. The start of the "Socio-technical" approach to work design, where management was needed to create a work design that could satisfy the technical requirements of the job in connection to the social system, was the initial phase that proved to be the most intriguing. Second, there was concurrent study and interest in "Group Dynamics," which referred to how members of an organization interact with one another. The publications of Fredrick Herzberg, Douglas McGregor, Chris Argyris, and Rensis Likert in the United States of America in the late 1950s and early 1960s planted the seeds for a paradigm change in management thought. Herzberg altered management perceptions of employee motivation, whereas McGregor altered those of managers on employee attitudes toward their jobs. While Likert offered a brand-new viewpoint on how to see a manager's function in terms of a "participative leadership style," Argyris investigated the effects of conventional management methods on people's psychological development.

The worker was supposed to be meek, dependent, and powerless under old hierarchical systems. Therefore, these thinkers contended, such duplicated methods would restrict what workers might contribute to the organization. This thinking, when combined with socio-technical thinking, which had already begun to gain ground, created a new paradigm that called for new approaches to work design and new types of organizational leadership. Notably, Herzberg's strategy of employment expansion and enrichment was an effective way to raise employees' output. The Approach provided a chance for the workers to have more pride in their job. In essence, the Hawthorne discoveries gave social psychology and group dynamics a big boost. And businesses and industry sectors started experimenting quickly with the new ideas that academics had unveiled. How to utilize people and groups efficiently to influence both individual and organizational performance was one of the era's hot topics. Let's attempt to explore Likert's viewpoint on organizational leadership and growth in the sections that follow.

System of Influence-Interaction

Likert developed the idea of the interaction-influence system in order to improve the abilities, resources, and motivation of people at various levels of an organization. This takes us to the contemporary school of management thought, which places a strong focus on the value of dynamic interaction between workers, the external environment, and other group members inside the organization. The operational setting of the organization, which would have a direct influence on how it operates on a daily basis, may be referred to as the environment in this context. Chester Barnard, Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, and Fredrick Herzberg are just a few of the significant philosophers in this field who have concentrated on the importance of the individual, organizational leadership, group dynamics, motivation, and satisfaction. The Human Relations Movement, which signaled a significant paradigm change in the interaction between the worker, the job being done, and the organization as a whole, is brought up again. Likert noted that the environment has an impact on how organizations are designed.

2. DISCUSSION

Likert claims that this "interaction-influence" system's success therefore affects an organization's ability to maximize the abilities and resources of both individuals and workgroups. The qualities of a perfect "interaction-influence" system are as follows. The workgroups and organization as a whole would represent the objectives and principles of each member. Accordingly, employee commitment would be strong as opposed to rule compliance as the most effective way to increase production. The members themselves are motivated to perform at a high level and improve their skills. When the organization's members can see the

need of critically reflecting on their own behavior, it advances issue resolution. Every organization member will be able to contribute their expertise to the work, which has a big impact on the organization's choices and policies [9], [10].

According to Likert, a workplace built on an efficient "interaction-influence" system would tie together objectives, principles, practices, communication, decision-making, coordination, and other factors into a continuous thread. In reality, however, there could be a number of tensions, such as seniority vs merit and dedication versus compliance. The dispute that may arise in a working group if there are people with varying degrees of experience, age, or expertise is "who will decide." The second potential contradiction is the focus on team development and employee identification with their job. As the task's complexity rises, so does the need for group interaction, and under these circumstances, an employee can be tempted to use their own discretion and intuition rather than strictly following the guidelines. This circumstance could run counter to the norm of rule compliance in typical hierarchical workplaces. The over-reliance on following rules has been one of the main critiques of the bureaucratic theory and scientific management approach. A common belief among human relations theorists was that an organization that relied too much on rule compliance would eventually lead to rule-breaking. Even though the "interaction-influence" method seems to be at odds with rule-compliance, achieving this outcome without controlling internal disputes is difficult. Likert provided his insights on handling conflict in this respect.

Management Techniques

The evolution of ideas about how to manage people effectively involves a variety of related subjects and concepts, such as organizational structure, organizational functioning, organizational management, decision-making, organizational culture, change and learning, organizational in society, and so forth. It generally entails inquiries into the nature of authority and power, human motivation and accountability, and the development of confidence and trust. Fundamentally, however, it is based on fundamental presumptions about the makeup of individuals and behavior. The founders of the Human Relations School firmly believed that organizations are systems of interconnected human beings, in contrast to classical philosophers who saw humans as one of the crucial resources needed to attain the objectives. Researchers have examined attitudes, expectations, value systems, tensions and conflicts, group dynamics, and their impacts on output, culture, cohesiveness, and motivation. These researchers include Elton Mayo, Maslow, Herzberg, McGregor, and Likert.

The behavior of an organization's members unquestionably influences the organization's structure, operation, and governing or management principles, according to a number of scholars in this field. While recognizing these authors, Pugh and Hickson maintain that "people are the organization" rather than just being employees of it. They saw organization as more of a "natural system" than a "formal system."

Rensis Likert introduced new management techniques based on his thorough study of thousands of managers in various organizational contexts. In his book *The Human Organization Its Management and Value*, the research was explained in terms of six organizational aspects, including leadership, motivation, communication, choices, objectives, and control. According to Likert, out of all the management jobs, managing the human component is the most crucial and crucial duty since everything else relies on how well it is done. Notably, he distinguished four management styles along a continuum, with an authoritarian, employee-centered manager at one extreme and a democratic, job-focused manager at the other. Threats are placed on these four management philosophies. The boss has a strong sense of authority and imposes choices on staff with little to no opportunity for

discussion. Additionally, the management is primarily focused on task completion and pays little attention to the goals of the people participating in the activity. In general, top-down communication and psychological segregation between superiors and subordinates define this management style.

Benevolent-authoritative Management

As the name "benevolent" suggests, the manager in System 2 Benevolent-Authoritative Management Style pays attention to the problems of the subordinates. This suggests that the boss has some faith and confidence in their employees. For instance, the managers provide subordinates with direct policy control the authority to make routine choices. The benevolent-authoritative employs prizes to encourage conformity from the underlings, as opposed to management by fear and terror. In addition to include a compensation system, System 2 is distinguished by limited upward communication from subordinate to superior, meaning that only the information the management wishes to hear is allowed to flow upward.

Management Consulting for Systems

The manager in System 3 Consultative Management Style has some faith and confidence in their subordinates. All policy choices are still made by the boss, although they do try to learn what their subordinates think. Similar to the benevolent-authoritative management style, System 3 is characterized by two-way communication processes, both upward and downward, and subordinates' giving their opinions other than what the superior wants to hear in limited amounts. The top management handles higher-order decisions; involves subordinates for making lower order decisions; and uses economic rewards for compliance. As a result, subordinates may have a modicum of influence on departmental activity.

Participatory System Management

Every employee feels accountable for reaching the organization's objective thanks to the participatory group management style that is founded on managerial trust and confidence. In addition to offering financial incentives, management fully utilizes employee engagement and participation in creating high performance targets, performance-based awards, collaborative cooperation, enhancing work processes, open communication, and other activities. It should be highlighted that subordinates and superiors have a tight psychological relationship, and decision-making occurs primarily via group procedures across the whole organization. Employee-focused managers, in general, are those who have developed the staff in their particular areas into cohesive teams with cooperative attitudes and high levels of work satisfaction.

According to Likert, management is always a subjective process. The fundamental idea that Likert advanced was that in order for contemporary organizations to be productive, they must see themselves as functioning social communities with "supportive relationships" among one another. All incumbents should believe that the organization's goals matter to them personally. They will see their work as important, necessary, and difficult since it helps them achieve their goals. In order to accomplish these common goals and ideals, managers are responsible for fostering and encouraging workplace collaboration. For instance, it is discovered that participatory managers concentrate their efforts on creating successful teams and the human elements of their colleagues' issues.

Likert thought that organizations must establish the atmosphere and circumstances that may inspire all managers to interact with the people in a compatible manner. He also considered that sensitivity to the organization's values and expectations is an important leadership talent. In his

subsequent work, Likert expanded the System categorization by defining the "System Total Model of Organization," in which the leader embodies the qualities listed below: The leader is encouraging, accessible, pleasant, easy to speak to, and concerned about the welfare of subordinates.

creates cohesive, highly productive, cooperative problem-solving teams with the subordinates that are connected by individuals with overlapping memberships. In other words, a subordinate in one group would be a superior in a higher-level group. There are no antagonistic or competitive interactions amongst subordinates. ensures that subordinates have access to all of the resources they need in order to do their tasks. Overall plans are communicated to subordinates so they may better plan their own job. The leader demands excellence both from oneself and from others around them. Additionally, "System T" exhibits the ideal organization in terms of differentiation and connections, as well as strong group ties.

Likert created a continuum of management styles, with an authoritarian task-centered manager at one end and a participative employee-centered manager at the other, as was previously indicated above. When offering advice to a future "System " organization, Likert advised against making a sudden transition from System to System, instead suggesting that the organization move steadily down the continuum. The first reason is that the System organization's management and current employees may not have the necessary knowledge and abilities to deal with the abrupt shift in organizational culture. Second, it was stated that in order to make the required change, the concerned individuals should be included in the organization. Thirdly, Likert recommended using objective, impersonal evidence as supportive and helpful as feasible to bring about the intended result.

Consequences For Managers

A key objective of management leadership is to make sure that the team members feel inspired to work hard and show a feeling of loyalty to the company. Based on his extensive research into company organizations, he came to the conclusion that the top management does not appreciate or measure its employees. Likert, on the other hand, recognized the importance of middle managers who try to implement his System 4 Management Style, which strongly supports participative decision-making. Therefore, Likert's study was centered on answering the constant challenge of how to find and nurture talent-based human resources. Likert and his colleagues focused on simplifying the accounting system, comprehending and resolving disputes, and conceptualizing and developing the Linking Pin Model, respectively, in an effort to institutionalize "innovation" and "openness." Let's continue the conversation.

Likert criticized the methodologies and metrics now used to evaluate an organization's success in terms of production, expenses, dividends, and other factors. Such operational and financial statistics of organizations might overestimate or understate the true human resource performance of any given corporation if Likert scaled them. Additionally, Likert said unequivocally that "it is essential for a firm to know not only its investment in human resources but to know as well the present productive capability of that human organization, i.e., its present value to the firm." Likert provides an example to demonstrate.

How much would it cost in terms of payroll if your company woke up tomorrow with all of its buildings, offices, laboratories, warehouses, stores, and equipment, but only one employee, the firm's president? If he had to start from scratch to get the company's human organization back to where it is now a tight-knit, productive human organization—how much would that cost? Would it take half a year's payroll, a year's payroll, two years' payroll, five years' payroll, or ten years' payroll? In other words, what would the entire cost be for hiring, training, and developing the organization to restore it to its previous level of effectiveness?"

In order to estimate the real costs associated with hiring, selecting, training, acquainting personnel with all elements of their jobs, and fostering productive working relationships inside the organization, Likert and his collaborators developed techniques. He suggested that periodic measurements be made that can provide accurate information on whether the value of the human organization is roughly constant, rising, or falling in little or big quantities. Likert believed it was essential to distinguish between causal and intervening factors in order to evaluate the status of human organization. The causative factors are independent variables that may have a direct impact on how an organization develops and how outcomes are attained. According to Likert, the organizational structure, management's policies, choices, and business leadership techniques, abilities, and behavior are among the cause factors. The internal state, health, and performance capabilities of the organization are reflected by intervening variables, on the other hand, in accordance with Likert. These variables include member commitments, attitudes, motivations, performance goals, and perceptions, as well as the group's capacity for efficient action, interaction, communication, and decision-making. Likert said that "the more complex the technology, the larger the estimates tend to be" while highlighting the intricacy of technology-industry effect on the actual estimations of the company. This viewpoint places Likert and his collaborators on a "new level," which emphasizes the need of adopting a modern approach to accounting for human capital. According to Bahl, in the next ten years, a large portion of the workforce will combine workplace automation with human intelligence, leading to the most probable emergence of positions with names like "Human-Machine Interaction Analyst." For instance, Amazon Web Services makes use of artificial intelligence to advise employees on where to concentrate their attention each day in order to increase productivity and decision-making. In the near future, Likert's theory on human asset accounting will prove to be a crucial opportunity as advanced technology become trusted incumbents.

Dealing with Conflicts

Conflict in organizations may occur due to the nature of the company, ownership, functional areas, and stakeholder rights. The above list is not all-inclusive, since other management-employee relations issues, such as those involving pay, transfers, attrition management, addressing employee complaints, and promotion choices, may also be causes of conflict. Conflict is unavoidable, and depending on how it is handled, it may have either beneficial or harmful effects, according to current organization theorists. Organizational development is likely to be impacted by the challenges that science and technological advancement have placed on contemporary polity, economy, and society, such as economic recession, political stability, big data management, cyber security, automation, flexible work schedules, gender equity, etc. In this context, complex social structures might be created to handle the tensions brought on by such changes and diversity.

Likert tried to develop several conflict-management techniques or tactics and their effects on organizational and managerial success in light of the aforementioned situation. In his book, "New Ways of Managing Conflict," Likert bemoaned the fact that conflict is occurring more frequently than ever before not only within and among organizations but also within and among nations. He criticized the existing methods for resolving conflict as inadequate because they only produce win-lose outcomes rather than win-win outcomes. According to Likert, System might serve as a useful foundation for resolving and managing conflict in organizations.

3. CONCLUSION

One of the most important lessons to be learned from Likert's theory is the understanding that when people are regarded as partners in decision-making, businesses may attain better levels of effectiveness and productivity. His research's results and the Likert Scale have evolved into

priceless instruments for gauging workplace culture and employee attitudes, enabling management to spot areas that need change. In conclusion, managers and leaders who want to improve organizational performance and employee engagement continue to find inspiration in Rensis Likert's participatory management theory. His study reaffirms the notion that empowered and engaged people are key resources for any successful business, underscoring the significance of collaborative and supportive management styles in obtaining optimum outcomes. Likert claimed that "System be an appropriate approach for all kinds of organisational settings including industries, schools, universities, and cities" based on his considerable studies in industries and schools.

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CHAPTER 10

KEY PRINCIPLES OF THE LINKING PIN MODEL

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ABSTRACT:

The Linking Pin Model, developed by Chris Argyris and Donald Schön in the 1970s, is a seminal framework that addresses the complexities of communication within organizations. This abstract delves into the key principles of the Linking Pin Model and its significance in understanding and improving organizational communication. The model highlights the presence of "linking pins," individuals who bridge the gap between different levels of an organization, facilitating the flow of information. It sheds light on the importance of these intermediaries and their role in maintaining cohesion, resolving conflicts, and enhancing organizational effectiveness. This abstract provides an overview of the Linking Pin Model's essential concepts and its continued relevance in the realm of organizational theory and communication. The Linking Pin Model, introduced by Chris Argyris and Donald Schön, has made valuable contributions to our understanding of organizational communication and effectiveness. It emphasizes the crucial role of individuals who serve as intermediaries or "linking pins" within organizations, connecting different levels and facilitating the flow of information.

KEYWORDS:

Cybernetics, Leadership, Linking Pin Model, Management Theory, Organizational Structure, Subsystems.

1. INTRODUCTION

Likert recommended for important positions in organizations based on the Linking-Pin Model, which claims that each member of an organization has twin duties in two overlapping groups, in order to promote intergroup collaboration. The incumbent is therefore implied to be a leader of a lower-level group and a member of a higher-level group. The following are Likert's "System 4"'s main tenants overlapping memberships between groups by individuals who act as "linking pins," multiple overlapping structures with groups made up of supervisors and their subordinates, group problem-solving by agreement within groups, and supportive ties among organizational members [1], [2].

In contrast to the conventional top-down organizational structure, which placed a strong emphasis on individual roles, Likert created a model centered on group processes and functions. A person in a "linking-pin" role should assist the smooth flow of resources and communication since, in accordance with this model, they are supposed to be integrated members of two or more groups. According to Graen et al, who support Likert's System organization, if sufficient resources and productive participants were available, the following results may be attained in More direct and truthful information is sent across the connection in both ways. Increased dedication to the organization, increased work satisfaction, and more collaboration as opposed to competition. Generally speaking, Likert believed that the individuals who hold these positions would have a significant impact on the performance of the organization and the standard of living of subordinates. In other words, Likert believed that interpersonal and intergroup competence were important for those holding these roles since

they would improve productive working relationships regardless of rank, authority, or experience. Thus, it may be assumed that the quality of linking-pins influences the quality of work life to some amount [3], [4].

System A Successful Public Administration Plan

It is clear from the discussion in this unit that employee involvement in decision-making plays a significant role in any organization's performance, regardless of the organizational settings. Adams said that "participation is an important value in and of itself" and that "participative approaches are necessary for people in organizations to have a decent and dignified existence. "For instance, McGregor argued that making administration more democratic and less bureaucratic or hierarchical would enable employees to express their inclinations toward responsible labor. In his self-actualization requirements, Maslow made a precise reference to this circumstance [5], [6].

Likert made it a goal, like many of his contemporaries, to comprehend the meanings that people attribute to their work and their relationships at work, particularly with the manager or supervisor, and how these meanings may affect work performance whether in public or private administration. In Likert's own words, "All activities of any expertise are initiated and determined by the persons who make up the institution," he supports the need for a people-centric approach. Everything used by a contemporary company—plants, office computers, automated machinery, etc. is useless without human work and guidance. Humans create or purchase the equipment, choose where and how to utilize computers, determine whether to modernize the technology used, do so or not, get the necessary funding, and choose the accounting and fiscal processes to be followed. The skill, drive, and overall success of a company's human organization impact every facet of its operations. The most crucial and core management duty is managing the human element since everything else relies on how effectively it is done. According to this line of reasoning, Likert said that "System 4" may empower every government administrator who wants to boost the output of the division they are in charge of. Likert considers "System 4" to be a potent leadership tool because it is founded on the values of participation and trust among the members of the organization, which are required by contemporary challenges that force administrators to run in a cost-effective manner and to ensure concurrent improvement in the quality of citizen services. According to a number of scholars, engagement and participation are among the fundamental characteristics that effective public sectors often adhere to. A report by the Auditor-General of Canada lists "Participative Leadership" as one of the five characteristics shared by high-performing public sector organizations. Through his study, Likert found that, in contrast to other approaches, participatory leadership might boost an organization's output by as much as 40% in both the public and commercial sectors. His other results include increased levels of health and happiness, cost efficiency, superb communication, great motivation, and the ability to influence others in a reciprocal manner. Likert brought up the Department of Labor and Industrial Relations' situation in the American state of Hawaii. When Mr. Joshua Agsalud became its director in 1974, he had a vision for the department's future that included increased productivity and employee happiness. In light of this logic, Joshua discussed the applicability of System' with the administrators of his divisions and urged them to bring their administration closer to it. Organizational development tools like the self-training package and survey-guided development cycle were employed as a resource and operational manual to achieve the goals. This procedure was developed with the intention of encouraging collaborative planning and measuring employee sentiments. As a consequence, both individual performance and general work satisfaction significantly improved. The genesis of the "Likert Scale," which was created by Likert himself, is another significant advancement in methodological terminology. This

psychometric measure acts as a crucial reality check in identifying areas that still need further clarity. This 5-point scale allows the user to gather information on empirical comparisons in more detail. With a neutral midpoint, it allows the responder to rank themselves on a scale of agree/disagree or favorably/unfavorably.

According to Likert, reading and hands-on training are the only ways for an aspiring manager to have a thorough grasp of leadership and interactional processes, which is a necessary condition for any organization to apply. Last but not least, Likert lays his faith in System 4 as a dynamic instrument that every government organization may use as a chance to enhance its human resources, the productivity of those resources, and the perfection of its services. The potential return from establishing capacity development programs that may make System 4 feasible comes as a startling worry given the issues encountered by the public sector in relation to limited resources, poor staff morale, growing citizen expectations, etc.

2. DISCUSSION

Likert drew out various important ideas in the field of organizational behavior in his quest to create the perfect organization, including the interaction-influence system, participatory decision making, linking-pin model, and human asset accounting. In terms of methodology, he developed the most widely used attitude scale, known as the "Likert scale," which, to this day, has an impact on all people, particularly researchers, regardless of their nation, gender, color, religion, age, etc. Likert's perspective on organization, meanwhile, was not without opposition from his contemporaries. For instance, detractors assert that his Linking Pin Model is just a triangle drawn around the conventional hierarchical systems. It was criticized by Luthans for delaying the decision-making process. According to Zaleznik, System is an "oversimplified package" for organizations. He is also quite worried with Likert's desire to change the managers' authoritarian management style to a democratic one. Since Klein believed that "System may be bound by existing institutions and practices, he saw it as a relative process. Many scholars consider that Likert and his friends' effort to demonstrate the empirical validity and dependability of their suggested technique in various organizational contexts is one of the book's key flaws. A number of academics believe that the proponents have neglected real-world organizational challenges in their desire to defend their method [7], [8].

Thought leaders accept the methodological and theoretical advancements made by Likert in organizational behavior in spite of criticism. According to Kish, Likert's works served as an example of his engineering-based, pragmatic approach to solving issues. He said that one may comprehend people's sentiments regarding politicians, global events, consumer items, and other pertinent concerns using survey findings based on the Likert Scale. On this note, he thanks Likert for his lifetime of work in the area of survey methodology. Second, although Likert's perspective on participatory leadership and decision-making may appear like the ideal circumstance, its relevance cannot be disputed since modern organizations must be structured according to the democratic and trustworthy tenets outlined in "System 4." In other words, the idea of organizing an organization around "innovation" and "openness" is not new; it has its roots in the management techniques of "System.

Dror Yehezkel

The father of public policy studies is Yehezkel Dror. With 15 Books published in 12 languages, he has made an academic contribution. He has authored a significant amount of writing on management, policy sciences, public administration, governing capacities, leadership, and security issues. Public Policy Re-examined, one of his books, is regarded as a classic work on policy studies. In the area of policy sciences, Dror has employed an integrated and multidisciplinary approach. In his approach of policy making, he combines systems thinking,

behavioral science, and policy analysis. His works have had a significant impact on the most recent paradigm of public administration, known as public policy. We shall describe the multidisciplinary approach to policy sciences in this unit. With particular emphasis on the Optimal Model of Policy Making, we will go through the new aspects of Policy Sciences. We'll also critically evaluate Dror's Model [9], [10].

Career and Life of Yehezkel Dror

Yehezkel Dror moved to Israel in 1938 after leaving his birthplace of Vienna in 1928. He attended Hebrew and Harvard Universities in Jerusalem for his studies. He began working for the Hebrew University of Jerusalem's political science department in 1957, and he is now an emeritus professor of political science and holder of the Wolfson Chair in Public Administration. Dror has held a number of high-level positions in the Israeli government over the course of his long career, including those of Senior Policy Planning Advisor in the Office of the defense minister and the Prime Minister's Office, Chairman and Member of Public Service Commissions Handling Various Policy Issues, Founder-President of the Jewish People Policy Planning Institute, etc. Dror has received a number of honors, including the Thomas R. Dye Award for outstanding service to the Policy Studies Organization, the First Annual Harold Lasswell Award of Policy Studies, the Landau Prize for Outstanding Contributions to Social Sciences, the Israel Prize in Administrative Sciences for Outstanding Original Scientific and Applied Work in Policy-Making, Capabilities to Govern, and Strategic Planning, and the Rosolio Award for his contributions to the advancement of the study. Dror has made the case for the need of putting several social scientific fields under the purview of a supra-discipline known as Policy Sciences. Dror's thought and writing processes have an interdisciplinary focus. He has held the opinion that the rapid expansion and wealth of knowledge have led to specialization. With the expanding amount of information available, Unity of Command cannot suffice. However, it is also crucial that the experts have a multidisciplinary approach and a larger perspective. so that they may provide effective services to people who live in complicated environments where a variety of elements play varied roles and interact with one another. He abolished the politics-administration distinction because of his interdisciplinary approach. He held the opinion that an administration's environment, which includes many political, social, economic, and cultural dimensions, is intertwined with it. Administration thus cannot be divorced from politics and the political landscape. They both collaborate well and have an impact on one another. By introducing Policy Sciences in its stead, he expanded the field, significance, and importance of public administration and boosted its relevance in the current day. Dror made a significant contribution by removing the "administration" from management science, boosting its usefulness and giving public administration a distinct character. Dror has used a multidisciplinary approach in his works and has personally utilized management sciences, although he has placed a greater emphasis on policy studies. Over management sciences, he valued policy sciences. According to Dror, under

The burden of complicated societal concerns has led intellectuals to concentrate on management sciences in an attempt to discover solutions. Management sciences undoubtedly aid in increasing the economy and effectiveness of the organization, but further efforts are required to address social issues. Because of its many flaws, including its disregard for institutional settings, inability to address political demands, limited capacity for creativity, reliance on quantification, and ignorance of strategy options, management sciences cannot be used to tackle social issues. By promoting cohesion and reason inside the organization, management sciences may aid in the formulation of policies. However, it requires a wider viewpoint to address societal challenges. To deal with complicated challenges, they must include policy analysis. First, it's important to be able to analyze the issue's larger, less obvious

demands as well as the organizational needs. In order for administration to be more rapid, simple, quick, responsive, and accountable, modifications should be made to the procedures, level of strictness, and staff. These two adjustments indicate a Scientific Revolution that will provide new paradigms focused on the advancement of mankind. Therefore, in order to make public administration more dynamic and responsive, we must shift from Management Sciences to Policy Sciences. And this paradigm is only supplied by Policy Sciences.

Policy analysis comes after systems analysis

Dror has noted that Systems Analysis cannot completely comprehend the development concerns of developing nations. A more comprehensive approach to Policy Analysis is required for the examination of fundamental and important issues with development administration. Only a small portion of policymaking involves systems analysis. Dror claims that by contrasting the anticipated results, systems analysis aids in pursuing the correct inputs. However, systems analysis is not very helpful when it comes to development issues since they lack defined objectives, predicted outcomes, value judgments, and other qualitative choices like social transformation and power acquisition. Furthermore, in developing nations we do not have appropriate resource persons or specialists who can analyze the data with innovation, nor do we have good and sufficient resources like data, tools to analyze it. Therefore, we need to restructure the government to have the proper Systems Analysis with adequate data and resource persons. This must be done often so that policy problems on both the quantitative and qualitative fronts may be properly considered.

Policy sciences and Knowledge Systems

Dror claims that in order to formulate reasonable policies, it is necessary to evaluate resources, identify issues, update mechanisms for producing policies, and choose a strategy for doing so. He opposed instrumentalism because we lack the wealth of relevant information needed to make sound policy. Dror separated understanding into three levels.

1. understanding of environmental control.
2. understanding of social and personal control.
3. Meta control is the study of controlling controls themselves.

He goes on to discuss the three levels of knowledge in more detail and concludes that humans have come a long way in terms of understanding how to manage the environment. We now have a greater grasp of environmental challenges and difficulties thanks to all the advances in science and technology. Additionally, humanity has made some strides in comprehending society and its members as well as the issues that surround them.

Science and technology are used to address the issue of environmental management. Humanities and social sciences are used to control individuals and society. The excess of control is not distributed via a third party. Therefore, we are the least knowledgeable when it comes to meta control, or control of controls themselves. Regarding the construction and functioning of the control mechanism itself, our understanding is relatively limited. Dror refers to the social control system as a whole as

The "Societal Direction System." He believed that Policy Sciences should concentrate their efforts primarily in this area. Dror has seen that knowledge gaps between certain fields, where it is growing, and others, where it is not, inevitably lead to issues. Each generation should thus adopt a comprehensive approach to knowledge and address any gaps. If certain sectors of the economy expand faster than others, the society loses the capacity to govern its affairs, making

the one-sided, incomplete expansion of knowledge harmful. Systems of social direction are required in this circumstance. He has also noted that the absence of a social orientation system has an impact on societal human values. Society is subject to many strict regulations as a result of the lack of information accessible. Therefore, we must increase our understanding of the social orientation system and incorporate it for the benefit of mankind. Dror has noted that in addition to expanding our understanding of control systems, we also need to adopt new values and beliefs in order to govern society. Although scientific knowledge to manipulate society is growing, it is not producing healthy value systems.

According to Dror, the quickening pace of scientific and technological progress would bring about changes without providing the required values. Dror developed the following rule: "While human capacities to form the environment, society, and human beings are rapidly rising, policy making capabilities to use those capacities remain the same." This law was based on Dror's perception of the situation. According to this rule, society ought to be able to establish a system of leadership. In order to effectively employ this capacity to dominate humans, society should become more logical as a result of this understanding. Therefore, we must advance scientific understanding in the field of policymaking. According to Dror, understanding how policies are created and implemented is essential and the only way to address societal issues. But he was aware that creating a scientific body of information for making policy is fraught with challenges. Dror has noted that although we need a Multidisciplinary Systems Approach, the information that is currently accessible for policy making is fragmented. Any study is conducted at the micro level. Instead of being more on creativity, it is more on instrumentalism. Numerous important factors that play a crucial part in the formulation of policies have been ignored, including politicians and political institutions. Dror has argued that in an effort to increase scientific ardour, academics have emphasized reason but neglected other reasonable variables such as intuition, gut instinct, inventiveness, etc. He also emphasized the contrast between normative and behavioral methods, emphasizing the necessity for a complementary combination of the two in order to solve real-world issues. Dror has noted that some interest in policy sciences has grown as a result of enduring issues and the work needed to find answers. The attention of social scientists has also increased as a result. Dror has proposed a few additional aspects of Policy Sciences to bolster the little efforts in policymaking so far.

The main focus of policy sciences should be macro-control systems. It need to encompass all areas that might aid in comprehending the system of societal direction, such as policy analysis, policy assessment and feedback, meta-policy improvement, etc. Multidisciplinary research should be done in policy sciences. Behavioural science, physical and life sciences, systems thinking, really anything that is pertinent to the topic at hand, should be included. Eliminating the distinction between basic and applied research is a goal of policy sciences. It ought to acknowledge both tacit knowledge, firsthand knowledge, and the source of information. According to Dror, policy sciences cannot be a value-free discipline since they deal with social concerns. Therefore, it must develop an operational theory of value by considering value implications, consistency, and costs. Policy sciences should attempt to anticipate the future in addition to concentrating on historical progress. In addition to using extra-rational and illogical processes, policy sciences also employ rational knowledge.

Promotion of comprehensive metapolicies, in which specific policy concerns are evaluated in the perspective of more fundamental objectives, stances, and instructions. systematic analysis of previous policies to draw lessons for the future. To promote greater future thought in contemporary policy making, certain structures and procedures should be put in place. Look for ways to promote innovation and creativity in relation to policy challenges. creation of several organizations dedicated to doing policy research in order to address key policy

concerns. creation of elaborate social experimentation, as well as social experimentation-capable structures and organizations. improvement of public policymaking citizen engagement. New media presentation and analysis forms are created as a result of the requirement of policy sciences.

Yehezkel Dror has written a book titled "Public Policy Re-examined" that discusses the process of formulating policies in both emerging and industrialized nations. He claims that policymaking in underdeveloped nations is based on heirlooms and legacies. Policy approach is not chosen purposefully. Institutional frameworks for systematic learning feedback are lacking. Sometimes, only trial-and-error techniques are used. Due to a lack of appropriate tools and infrastructure, it is exceedingly difficult to determine the true outcome of a policy. The role of voters in determining policy is quite little. Intellectuals' role is similarly constrained. Legislative bodies serve a supporting role in determining policy since the political executive is more powerful. The method for creating policies is severely hampered by a severe labor shortage. Those involved in the process do not have the necessary expertise and information. Since policymaking is often of ordinary quality, it falls far short of greatness.

In industrialized countries, policymaking is practical and has both political and economic viability. The order of values and operational objectives are clearly stated. There is a thorough search for alternate policies. In some of the nations, there are independent organizations for conducting long-range policy-making surveys and for gathering information for managing research and developing policy. Elections provide voters in democratic systems a significant amount of influence over decision-makers. The development of public policy is significantly influenced by intellectuals. The most important and conspicuous function in determining policy belongs to the heads of the governments. In democratic systems, the legislature as an institution has a significant role to play in formulating policies; under autocratic systems, that function is much less. Political parties have a significant role in the formulation of public policy.

Resource Use for the Best Policy Making

The policy includes assets employed in its creation and execution. According to Dror, "optimal public policy creation necessarily specifies and evaluates its possessions just as it does its troubles. Optimal meta policy creation must systematically and periodically scan present and future possessions and troubles, make an estimate of the potential payoff of possessions using both knowledge and intuition, make an explicit evaluation of the supply of and demand for each resource, and specify needs for additional possessions and further th

Any policy's resources, whether in terms of cash, labor, infrastructure, or facilities for formation, should be valued in terms of money. Always ensure that the benefits of the resource output outweigh the costs of the resources. A policy will not have a beneficial effect if it consumes more resources than it generates. To determine how the policy has affected the possessions utilized, we must identify "which, where, and how" instances in which a specific scrupulous resource has not produced the expected goals or has been used excessively. Such data would provide sufficient feedback to conduct a subsequent check and correct the issue.

Policy Science Elements

There are several components that have to be normative features of a process for forming policy. It aids in our comprehension of the dynamics of various models and ways for determining policy. Nine of these components are mentioned in Yehezkel Dror's book. Clarification of values, goals, and criteria for making decisions is necessary. The approach should include recognizing the options while making an attempt to investigate fresh options and encourage the creation of many alternatives. The approach should include a preliminary

calculation of the projected returns from the various options and a determination of whether a strategy with little risk or innovation is preferred. The incremental-change model should be used if the initial predicted payoffs are taken into account. Establishing a cutoff horizon for analyzing the potential outcomes of various strategies and defining the main anticipated effects while relying on readily available information and intuition is the next stage when the problem is one of low risk or innovation. To go above the constraints of the existing Systems Analysis and get toward Policy Analysis, analysis of the alternatives should take into account both quantitative and qualitative elements. The approach should consider if the problem is important enough to justify doing a more thorough examination. The composition of the mix will be based on the availability of theory, experience, reason, and additional rationality, as well as the nature of the issue. As far as feasible, explicit approaches like Simulation and the Delphi methodologies should be employed because they are relevant, and knowledge from other disciplines should be applied to the challenges at hand. The approach should include clear provisions for enhancing policymaking via systematic experience-based learning, fostering initiative and innovation, staff development, and supporting intellectual endeavors.

Normative optimal policy making model

Models provide frameworks for the analysis of the issues encountered and the steps taken in the creation of public policies. Dror claims that Lindblom's Incremental Model is inadequate and cautious. Because it widens the divide between people who have little authority and those who have, he believes the incremental approach is unfair. Bringing about change may be challenging for those with less influence. He criticized Lindblom's Approach because he believed that partial change as a solution to a problem is not viable since the greater issue or the preceding problem's inertia would still continue and negate these little and minor improvements. He proposed a mix of rational and irrational elements related to the choice and circumstance. One of the shortcomings of the Incremental Model is the lack of the dynamic equation of power and how it affects the formulation of policy. He recommended using a feedback system in a qualitative method. He also supported the idea of making decision-making a social science topic that can be studied holistically, using information and methods from other social science fields to widen its reach and provide the best outcomes.

As a result, Dror has embraced a "normative-optimal" model, which keeps the components of rationality recommended by Simon, but he is pragmatic in his understanding of the significance of tacit knowledge and experience in the process of formulating policy. With the goal of encouraging decision-makers to broaden their thinking in order to cope with this complicated reality, Dror's notion of "normative optimalism" contends that policy analysis must embrace the importance of extra-rational understanding based on tacit knowledge and personal experience. As a result, this model incorporates not just the cost-benefit analysis's economic benefits, but also the value judgments, tacit bargaining, and coalition-building abilities of the participants. His paradigm is less directive; rather, it offers a framework for analyzing policy in a specific setting. In essence, Dror's Optimal Model combines extra-rational and economically rational models.

Dror's major goal has been to improve the rationality of governance and include the "extra rational" aspect of decision-making into his model. What is required, according to him, is a model that captures reality while simultaneously working to improve it, one that can be used to inform policy decisions and inspire everyone to put out their best efforts. As a result, Dror suggests a modified version of the rational model that may help policymaking become more reasonable. He contends that analysis should encourage decision-makers to broaden their thinking so they may better navigate the complicated environment.

3. CONCLUSION

The Linking Pin Model's capacity to identify important players who can close communication gaps and assist in conflict resolution is one of its lasting qualities. These connecting pins are crucial in building a more harmonious and efficient structure. In conclusion, the Linking Pin Model still has a lot to offer businesses looking to boost productivity via better cooperation, communication, and overall effectiveness. This model has had a long-lasting influence on how companies tackle the difficulties of information flow and coordination in complex contexts by emphasizing the significance of connecting pins and the subtleties of organizational communication. The Linking Pin Model's focus on the value of excellent communication and teamwork in destroying silos is one of its lasting qualities. Organizations may increase information flow, encourage cross-functional collaboration, and ultimately improve organizational performance by discovering and enabling connecting pins.

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CHAPTER 11

EXPLORING THE KEY DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES BETWEEN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE ADMINISTRATION

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ABSTRACT:

Public administration and private administration represent two distinct sectors of governance with varying objectives, structures, and practices. This abstract explores the key differences and similarities between these two domains and highlights their implications for the functioning of modern societies. Public administration, driven by the public interest and accountability, operates in the realm of government and focuses on delivering public services. In contrast, private administration, guided by profit motives and competition, operates in the marketplace and seeks to maximize shareholder value. While both sectors share some common management principles, such as efficiency and effectiveness, they diverge significantly in terms of their goals, stakeholders, and regulatory frameworks. This abstract provides an overview of the contrasting features of public and private administration and their enduring relevance in contemporary governance.

The comparison between public and private administration illuminates the fundamental distinctions that define these two sectors of governance. While both share certain management principles and tools, such as the pursuit of efficiency and effectiveness, their objectives and operating contexts differ significantly.

KEYWORDS:

Accountability, Bureaucracy, Governance, Organization, Policy, Private Administration.

1. INTRODUCTION

Public administration seems to imply that non-public or private administration must also exist. Some theorists contend that there is no distinction between public and private administration and that all administration is one. Regarding how public and private administration interact, there are divergent views. Some academics believe that the administrative processes and procedures used in both commercial and public companies are the same and that there is no distinction between the two. This viewpoint is shared by Urwick, Mary Parker Follet, and Henri Fayol. We are now faced with one administrative science that can be used equally effectively for both public and private matters, according to H. Fayol.

Administration in the Public and Private Sectors: Similarities and Differences

Many intellectuals have proposed many parallels between the two. First off, there are many skills, strategies, and practices used in both commercial and public administration that are similar, such as accounting, office management, and so on. Because there is sometimes a shift of people between the two, this viewpoint is valid. Had there been a difference in how the private and public administrative entities operated, it would not have been conceivable [1], [2].

In actuality, there are many parallels between public and private management. Typically, we refer to all actions carried out by governmental or public agencies as being under the umbrella of public administration, while activities carried out by private organizations are referred to as

falling under private administration. However, there are a lot of tasks that are shared by public and private organizations. For instance, private entities tended to handle business-related operations. However, many economic and commercial operations that were once the province of private management have been taken up by the government [3], [4].

A public company, which differs significantly from the typical departmental form of organization used by the government, has been created as a result of this. This kind of structure is now required to provide the public administration the flexibility it needs to manage businesses in emerging nations like India. The public sector now has a significant place in the structure of the nation's economy.

As a result, public enterprises now play a far larger role in society, which has led to the phenomena of the government incorporating private companies' business methods. Additionally, it is becoming increasingly clear that both public and private administration share a number of competencies, methods, and practices. Examples of tasks that are similar to both public and private administration include accounting, statistics, office management, office processes, purchases, disposals, stocking, and many more tasks.

There are four fundamental aspects of public and private management that are identical. They are as follows:

1. The collaborative component and a collaborative team effort in a public or private environment is public administration. The efficient use of people and material resources is essential to the smooth running of any human organization, whether it be private or public. The aspect of collaboration is present in both groups, despite the fact that the aims or goals of both organizations may differ.
2. Large organizational sizes the bureaucratic element is found in any organization with a sizably large staff population. The need for intermediate levels of supervision has arisen since it has become difficult for one individual to supervise all the workers. In other words, the organization becomes more complicated as different layers of hierarchy develop. So another significant resemblance between the two is bureaucracy.
3. Extensive research Scientific analysis is breaking down each activity into its constituent pieces, observing worker movement, examining how supplies and equipment are used, trying out various work techniques and processes, and then adopting the ones that proven to be the most effective. This scientific method is being used more often in both public and private management.
4. The method of human connections the two approaches' primary area of overlap is in human connections.

Even if there are certain similarities between public and private administration, no private company can ever be completely identical to a public one. Among the contrasts between the two styles of administration are the following:

Political stance

The main difference between public and private administration is that private administration is not subject to political direction, even in the case of the most serious emergency. It uses its own means to achieve its goals. Generally speaking, its goals are independent of political choices. However, the public administrator has little choice but to follow out the directives that he receives from the political executive [5], [6].

Reason for making money

The goal of public administration is to serve the public, while the goal of private administration is profit. Regardless matter how pressing the need for the latter may be, a capitalist would choose to build a textile mill if doing so will result in more profits than building a sugar mill. If private administration serves the public, it does so as a byproduct of producing money. In public administration, the state carries out certain tasks that require a lot of financial resources, such administering a government hospital or school.

Price and service

Only those tax dollars are generated in the area of public administration that are required for the provision of the service. In other words, there is a close connection between the cost of providing a service to the general public and the quality provided. A government budget often has a deficit, meaning that its expenses exceed its revenues. In private administration, income often outpaces expenditures because efforts are typically made to maximize revenue from the selling of goods and services [7], [8].

Functions' nature

Compared to private administration, public administration is more extensive. In most nations, it maintains railroads to enable the transportation of products and passengers, provides mails and telegraphs to promote communication, and maintains hospitals and dispensaries to safeguard the public health. It also handles with a variety of other requirements that people may have. Since the goal of a socialistic state is to maximize everyone's happiness, state action is even more widespread in these societies. The financial necessities of existence are often not covered by private management. The public sector performs duties that are essential to the survival of the populace, such as maintaining law and order and national defense. Private administration handles less important tasks like the production of fabric and the supply of sugar, among others. Additionally, certain services are monopolized by governmental administration. For instance, it controls the only railroads, mails, telegraphs, and army in India. No private person may carry out any of these tasks. In private administration, many organizations will carry out the same task, such as providing clothing or providing hired taxi service.

Community Accountability

people administration is accountable to the general people. Government administration is distinct from all other administrative work due to its public character, the way it is subject to public inspection, and the way it is susceptible to public outrage, according to P.H. Appleby. On the other hand, private government only indirectly considers the welfare of its citizens and often works to further its own interests rather than that of the populace.

Equal Treatment

Public administration should follow standard policies and practices when interacting with the public. An official cannot treat some individuals well while treating others poorly. Contrarily, a private administration need not be concerned with treatment consistency. Clothes may be given on credit by a cloth merchant, but a post office employee will not sell stamps on credit.

Public Relations

The concept of public relations is another area where public and private administrations diverge. In the corporate realm, it is used to attract consumers via window displays, giveaways, and label design and color.

2. DISCUSSION

Private administration is seen to be more effective than state administration. The allure of "a businessman's government" or "commercializing the entire apparatus of government" or privatizing the octroi, electricity production and distribution, etc., that the public views private administration as more effective because it benefits from certain advantages, such as differential wage payment as an incentive to increase production and to attract staff with superior ability from rival firms, etc., over public administration which is characterized by red tapeism, extra regulations, etc. In a private administration, the lure of increased revenues motivates the person to fully commit to his firm. However, this does not imply that either private or governmental management is always effective. If there is no financial incentive in public administration, then there is an incentive and a desire to make one's own administration successful and gain public approval, and with this incentive, the administrators give their all to the office's efficiency [9], [10].

Organization

Although the concept of "organization" applies to both public and private administration, it has more social ramifications in the former than the latter because a flaw in public administration's organization will harm the public more than a gap in private administration. The state "lives in a glass house," according to Huxley. We can see all it attempts to do as well as all of its failures, whether partial or complete. Private business, however, is hidden by opacity in the structure.

Monopolistic

In the realm of public administration, the government often has a monopoly and forbids private parties from competing with it. For instance, as they are the exclusive purview of the government, no individual or group of individuals may start a post office, telegraph, railway, or mint money in the majority of nations.

This is not the case in private administration, where a number of organizations compete with one another to provide a given good or to fill a given demand. Of fact, even private businesses might sometimes have a monopoly.

Officials maintain their secrecy

Even the highest-ranking officials in the public sector maintain their anonymity and keep their identities a secret. This is the case because they always act on behalf of the government and never in their own names. A private administration entrepreneur, on the other hand, acts independently and is well-known in the business community. Even commercial entities often carry the names of their owners in their names.

psychological variation Between private and public management, there are further psychological distinctions. Although there were no substantive changes made in the management of the coal mines in the USA during World War II, there was a psychological shift among the employees since they were now aware of the potentially disastrous repercussions of strikes, etc. According to Simon, there are three key differences between public and private management, and they are as follows:

1. Private administration is more businesslike than public administration, which is bureaucratic.
2. Unlike private administration, public administration is non-political.
3. Private administration is free from red tape, while public administration is.

New Governmental Structure

The established concepts of academic fields are often the target of new waves of thought that aim to question them and provide them a fresh perspective during turbulent and unstable historical periods. The introduction of what became known as the "New public administration" in 1968 helped to enhance the public administration discipline as it was developing. With the release of *Toward a New Public Administration* in 1971, the phrase became a household word. Frank Marini's *Minnowbrook Perspective*. The Minnowbrook conference from 1968 served as the foundation for much of this work, and the New Public Administration can only be understood in the context of that academic meeting. Among the key components of the New Public Administration were

In several ways, it was anti-positivist. It disagreed with the idea that public management is value-free.

1. It rejected a determinist and rationalist vision of humanity.

The politics/administration divide was also rejected. It was against bureaucracy and hierarchy.

4. It rejected the overemphasis on the machine and the system in its approach to organizational issues and was anti-mechanistic.

Thus, the aforementioned anti-goals served as a hallmark of new public administration. It showed a strong interest for pertinent society issues. It placed a strong emphasis on social equality, innovation, and morality. It placed a strong focus on interpersonal communication, innovative management, and social transformation. Therefore, it was believed that new public administration needed to possess the following qualities in order to accomplish the intended goals. Possess the knowledge and skills necessary to execute policies that may enhance the quality of work life. more focused on determining how laws affect persons as opposed to being comfortable with how they are applied mechanically. According to the findings of a Delphi exercise carried out in 1972–1973 by Emanuel Wald at the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, Syracuse University, New York, the fundamental components of the New public administration were the Honey findings on Higher Education for Public Services.

John C. Honey of Syracuse University was invited to conduct an evaluation study on public administration as a topic of study at US colleges in 1966 by an affiliate of the American Society for Public administration. The 1967 Honey Report, which revealed the actual situation of the field of public administration, is noteworthy in this regard. It aimed to widen the subject's scope by integrating it with the whole political system. It highlighted the following four issues and recommended taking urgent action to address them:

In order to demonstrate how different types of institutions currently approach their public service, educational, and other tasks and to identify stimulating and innovative developments as well as deficiencies and problems, it was advised that a study of universities and education for public service be undertaken. The second significant research proposal, which was closely related, called for a study of the public service, professional education, and other vocations.

In the US, The Honey Report sparked debate as well as attention. Although what it stated was significant, what it omitted was perhaps more significant. For example, it stated nothing about the function of public administration in the turbulent, strife-torn society of the time. Was there nothing the discipline could say about the contemporary societal issues? The Report served as a spark for debate on the Report's suitability in resolving social issues since it inspired many researchers to reflect extensively on its position and function in society.

Conference on Public Administration Theory and Practice

The American Academy of Political and Social Science organized a conference in Philadelphia in December 1967 to discuss the topic *The Theory and Practice of Public Administration: Scope, Objectives, and Methods*. This was done because the organization felt that there had been some rapid developments in the field and that a new synthesis or selective appraisal would be useful at the time. James C. Charlesworth, the conference's chairman, summarized the sentiment of the attendees in this way. The attendees of this meeting demonstrated a desire to take a bold and comprehensive approach to the discipline of public administration. They also sought to assess public administration's significance within a broad philosophical context and to consider whether it is both a useful tool of government and an ornament of the mind. The participants voiced a variety of viewpoints. Public administration was regarded as a subject of study, a career, and an academic discipline. Others equated public administration with governmental administration, while others described it as management in the public interest. Although there was no universally accepted definition of public administration, the following issues seemed to have widespread agreement:

It is no longer acceptable to perceive organizational authority in a hierarchical or pyramidal fashion. Instead of treating employees as subordinates, managers must consider them as co-ordinates. The executive is more in the middle than on top, being influenced by the surrounding subordinates. The primary emphasis in public administration has shifted from managerial skills to policy and political factors. Information that has been computerized is bad merely because it has been computerized. PPBS does not also provide trustworthy political solutions. Only a tiny portion of all the aspects that go into a choice are covered by quantification and cost analysis.

Future administrators should get training in professional schools, and public administration courses should place equal emphasis on the subject's psychological, financial, sociological, and anthropological dimensions in addition to its administrative structure and processes. Social issues have not been resolved by public administration. The idea of public administration has not kept up with new issues like the massive military industrial complex, riots, labor disputes, conflicts in public schools, slums, the impact of technology, or developing nations.

Although public administration is a field, it cannot use all of the modern social science's methodology. While certain aspects of public administration are susceptible to scientific investigation, other significant aspects of the field are not. We can be scientific if we drastically restrict the breadth of our field, but if we did, wouldn't we eliminate its most important components? said Charlesworth. We can never be scientific since our topic is so loaded with morals and rules, even if we are scientific in certain areas.

The fact that at least some of these opinions were fully expressed at the Minnowbrook conference is noteworthy and suggests that the Philadelphia conference should be seen as having served as a prelude to the Minnowbrook event.

Conference at Minnow brook

The Minnowbrook Conference was born out of two things. First off, despite the fact that the 1960s were a volatile era plagued by myriad social issues, public administration gave little indication that it was even aware of them, much less committed to finding solutions. Waldo's 1968 piece *Public Administration at a Time of Revolutions*, which appeared in *Public Administration Review*, did a good job of highlighting this. Second, there was a need to hear from young academics and practitioners in the field of public administration since there was a generational divide there. It should be emphasized that the Philadelphia conference drew

attendees who were over 35, with the bulk of them being even in their fifties and sixties. Where were the 30+ year old academics and professionals? The Minnowbrook conference was open to the younger age range. The first conference on public administration was the Minnowbrook conference, and it was this academic gathering that gave origin to what must be referred to as New public administration.

A keen awareness of and concern for the contemporary social issues is the defining characteristic of new public administration. Relevance, post-positivism, morality, ethics, and values, innovation, customer care, social equality, etc. are some of its criteria. The proponents of new public administration express their unhappiness with how the field of public administration is now operating and want for it to be responsive to issues brought on by the current unstable environment.

The promotion of a post-positivist perspective stressed the need of giving up value-free and value-neutral research in favor of developing a perspective that emphasizes social equality. Public officials should become advocates for the socially disadvantaged groups, according to social justice.

This suggests that they ought to actively promote change and reject the status quo. To adapt to the rapidly changing environment, new organizational structures must be developed. The development of program and customer loyalty is prioritized.

It is fair to give the Minnowbrook conference the distinction of creating the first cohesive grammar of the New Public Administration. It was this Conference that voiced the displeasure with the situation of the discipline, very plainly and loudly. It was the first to attempt to reinvent public administration as a field actively engaged in addressing societal issues with a strong commitment to change.

3. CONCLUSION

The public interest, accountability, and the provision of public services are the primary drivers of public administration, which is a cornerstone of government. It works in a regulated environment where helping people comes first and openness and justice are given top priority. On the other hand, private management pursues profit maximization and works in a cutthroat environment.

It is distinguished by a focus on creating wealth for shareholders and a receptivity to market forces. In conclusion, the comparison of public and private administration highlights the need of understanding each discipline's distinctive characteristics and roles. While they may share best practices, it is important to recognize that their unique objectives and environments call for alternative management and governance strategies. As they negotiate the complicated environment of modern governance, policymakers, practitioners, and academics alike need to have a sophisticated awareness of the distinctions between public and private administration.

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CHAPTER 12

DECISION-MAKING AND HERBERT SIMON: AN OVERVIEW

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ABSTRACT:

Herbert A. Simon, a Nobel laureate economist and cognitive psychologist, made groundbreaking contributions to the field of decision-making, introducing the concept of bounded rationality. This abstract explores Simon's key ideas on decision-making and their profound impact on various disciplines, including economics, psychology, and management. Simon challenged the classical notion of rational decision-makers by highlighting cognitive limitations and information constraints that individuals face. His work led to the development of alternative decision-making models and theories, such as satisficing and heuristics, which acknowledge the real-world complexities of human decision-makers. This abstract provides an overview of Herbert Simon's influential work on decision-making, shedding light on the enduring significance of his ideas in understanding human behavior and choice. Herbert Simon's insights into decision-making have had a transformative effect on multiple academic disciplines and practical fields. By introducing the concept of bounded rationality, he revolutionized the way we understand and study human decision-makers.

KEYWORDS:

Bounded Rationality, Decision-Making, Herbert Simon, Organizational Behavior, Problem-Solving, Rational Choice Theory.

1. INTRODUCTION

The New Public Management, as it is often known, has been the subject of intense controversy in the area of public administration. The result of various changes ingrained in the social as well as political framework of the Western democracies, this has been like a reform agenda that was ushered in internationally during the previous two decades. There are differing perspectives on how New Public Management emerged; its proponents depict it as a new administrative paradigm that breaks significantly from previous ways of thinking and doing, while skeptics contend that it has only gradually developed from earlier administrative traditions [1], [2].

There are various global trends that might be linked to the present reform agenda in public administration. First, and probably most importantly, throughout the late 1970s and early 1980s, industrialized nations' social, political, and economic discourse witnessed a rightward shift as political leaders came to understand the unviability of comprehensive, centralized systems of public service delivery. Leaders in Europe, Asia, and North America began to look at more affordable, effective methods to provide public services including public welfare, transportation, health care, and other services. The economic difficulties resulting from the global economy's shifting structure have led academics and professionals to consider novel approaches to public management.

The main motivating elements have been the expenditures associated with the overburdened Welfare State and its effects, which led taxpayers to doubt the public sector's justification. As a consequence of this unhappiness with the Welfare State, the New Right Economics movement was born, providing the change's intellectual foundation. Thus, by the early 1990s, many public

managers all over the globe had set out on a mission to reform bureaucratic agencies, simplify agency procedures, and decentralize policy decision-making, utilizing catchphrases like reinvention and New Public Management. The dominant pro-market philosophy since the 1980s claimed that when it comes to delivering services to people, the government is less effective than markets. The market focus on the following forms the foundation of the New Political Economy of development [3], [4].

The group of changes known as the "first generation reforms" sought to bring managerialism into the public sector. The New Public Management movement's proponents claim that it has improved public and non-profit management in terms of cost effectiveness and service efficacy, as well as helping to solve basic management and accountability and control system flaws in public services.

In essence, it would be ideal to comprehend what the main issues with New Public Management are nowadays and how they got started. Everyone is aware that management and public administration are both applied sciences, and it is generally acknowledged that the majority of maxims, principles, directives, and dictums of effectiveness, economy, and efficiency have their origins in the writings of management thinkers and are subsequently adopted and modified by public administration scholars in their own unique intellectual environment. There seems to be just one paradigm in the field of public administration at the moment, maybe new public management.

The New Public Management paradigm evolved in response to the Re-inventing government movements as a result of how the entrepreneurial spirit is changing the public sector. When we carefully consider this sub-title of David Osborne's book, we can see that excellent governance. It is clear from the sub-title of Ted Gaebler's book, Re-inventing Government, that both of these researchers were explaining what was already obvious on the administrative landscape. Consequently, they were largely descriptive rather than prescriptive, showing the existence of entrepreneurial governments. In fact, the push toward managerializing the government had already begun before to the publication of this enormous book. These and other researchers' writings that emphasized the need of implementing excellent management principles in government systems effectively first surfaced in the 1980s.

One is brought back to the period of time about nine decades ago when the Taft Committee was established to introduce Taylorism into the political system. It should come as no surprise that some academics refer to New Public Management as Neo-Taylorism. It must be argued that public administrative organizations have freely adopted models and approaches from its livelier sister field, Management, even if we skip a dispute on neologisms like Neo-Taylorism.

A historical view would show that bureaucracies have seldom successfully addressed environmental issues on their own throughout history. In general, they have fallen behind. Peter Drucker published his insightful book, *The Age of Discontinuity*, in 1968, just when Dwight Waldo was planning the inaugural Minnow Brook Conference. In it, Drucker provided a foresighted critique of the inefficiency of bureaucratic administration. Even in the works of Harold Laski, Warren Bennis, Robert Reich, Tom Peters, Alvin Toffler, and others, one can see this frustration with the rigid bureaucratic structure.

And it is odd that management experts have proposed more solutions to bureaucratic ills than public administration sages. The ability and aptitude of public administration students to assimilate and integrate the important and valuable from any other subject and shape it to fit their own internal agenda and environment, however, is to their credit. One example of this resilience in public administration is new public management [5], [6].

2. DISCUSSION

The OECD thinks that the introduction of a more contractual, participative, and discretionary style of relationship between levels of hierarchy, between control agencies and operating units, and between producing units, whether they are public or private, as a result of New Public Management, is making the public sector more managerial. Furthermore, according to the OECD, most nations are adopting two main strategies to enhance the production and delivery of products and services by public institutions. These are the two options:

Raise the production performance of public organizations to better manage human resources, including staff, development, recruitment of qualified talent, and pay-for-performance; involve staff more in decision-making and management; relax administrative controls while imposing strict performance targets; use information technology; enhance client feedback and place a premium on service quality; and combine supply and demand decisions. Utilize the private sector more to support a reliable, effective, competitive, and open public procurement system for outsourcing the production of products and services supplied for the public as well as contracting, in intermediate goods and services, and ending monopolies or other supplier protections.

In conclusion, the following component of administrative management is included in the OECD's perspective on new public administration. enhancing human resources, such as performance compensation. Staff participation in the different decision-making processes, relaxation of controls and rules, while prescribing and assuring the attainment of performance goals. using information technology as effectively as possible to improve policy and decision-making processes and MIS. delivering effective services to clients and treating them as both customers and team members. imposing user fees for services in order to include the public in the administration of the public sector. outsourcing services as a component of the privatization strategy. monopolies are deregulated, and there is less economic power concentrated in a small number of institutions. ensuring transparency, progressive leadership, and improved communication between the public and political leaders [7], [8].

Gradual Reduction of Governmental Size

One significant change in New Public Management's way of thinking has occurred through time. Early on in the entrepreneurial government era, de-governmentalization and privatization also referred to as right-sizing or downsizing were prioritized. Once again, it has been acknowledged that the imperatives and inevitability of the government's function and obligation as a key aspect of national life cannot be denied. Previously, it was assumed that the government would be lean and mean.

The government's involvement in fostering socioeconomic change and achieving goal-directed progressive multi-dimensional development is expected to continue to be very important, especially for emerging nations. Therefore, better governance, not less government, is the current focus. This is the area where the importance of good management techniques has influenced public administration.

It is unclear why public administration academics have not opposed the New Public Management's assault on their field. Perhaps this is mainly due to the fact that, notwithstanding how cutting-edge New Public Management may seem, it has natural ties to Old Public Administration.

As a result, one may infer that conventional managerial and administrative theories that placed an emphasis on effectiveness and efficiency with the economy have taken on a new shape as

essential elements of modern public management. The differences between the administrative systems' aims in the two distinct contexts are obvious, but New Public Management is more interested in the tactics that may be used to accomplish those goals. In this context, it should be understood that new public management is primarily concerned in the structure and style of public administration, as opposed to new public administration, which has prioritized the aims, values, and spirit of public administration.

Certain aspects of new public administration may be seen in new public management, and vice versa. In essence, both are additive to one another. The term "public choice" refers to the use of economic research to understand political behavior.

Public choice provides a theoretical foundation for a criticism of government bureaucracy in the field of public administration. It also examines market and quasi-market techniques for providing public services, such as voucher programs, privatizations, contracting out, and competing bureaucracies.

According to this technique, public choice methodology is used to address the issues facing those in charge of managing people in bureaucratic organizations. Public choice essentially focuses on how reasonable people interact to guarantee reasonable collaboration in the administrative system.

population choice theory is often used to explain how political decision-making results in outcomes that are in opposition to the desires of the broader population. For instance, many lobbying organizations and pork barrel initiatives are unpopular with the democracy as a whole. But it does make sense for the politicians to back such initiatives. They could feel important and strong as a result.

Additionally, it may help them monetarily by providing them with opportunities for future fortune as lobbyists. The local constituents of the politician could find and value the initiative. Since the politician is using public funds, he must pay next to nothing in order to get these perks.

Special-interest lobbyists also act logically in a sense. They might get millions or even billions in government favors in exchange for very little contributions. If they don't ask for such favors, they face the danger of losing out to their competitors. Additionally, the taxpayer acts rationally. While the advantages to the individual taxpayer are extremely little, the cost of stopping a government giveaway is quite substantial.

Each person merely pays a few cents or dollars for each particular government favor, yet it would cost far more to stop that favor. Despite the wider constituency's wish for the contrary, everyone engaged has reasonable motivations to accomplish what they are doing. Benefits are concentrated while costs are dispersed. Over the objections of disinterested majority with nothing to lose, the voices of outspoken minority with great potential are heard.

The premise of limited government serves as the cornerstone of the public choice argument. 'The economics of politics' is another name for the political theory known as public choice. This method assumes that political players are 'utility maximizers' who seek to advance their own interests in order to understand and study political behavior.

The majority of public choice theorists agree that government has expanded beyond what the general populace needs. They contend that it has expanded to accommodate the tastes and interests of bureaucrats, interest groups, and politicians. Intellectuals who support public choice started a diatribe against the fundamentals of bureaucracy and politics.

Decision-Making Process Steps

Without making choices—and not just any decisions, but smart ones—no organization can be operated. Therefore, decision-making is the core of all management, whether it be in the public or private sector. In an organization, management makes choices along with other stakeholders. Additionally, government decision-making is a plural activity. The decision may be made by one person, yet many others participated in the process. It belongs to the political structure.

Two common misunderstandings concerning decision-making exist.

1. Decision-making authority in that organization is centralized at the top of the pyramid, making it monolithic.

2. that decision-makers' actions match the logical comprehensive model, wherever they are positioned throughout the organization

The opinions of three experts, each with a distinct background, are pertinent in regards to the first mistake. James D. Thompson, an organization theorist, noted that control by a single, all-powerful person is only conceivable when that person is not reliant on others for the knowledge or skill required to make judgments. This state could occur in organizations with moderate complexity, but it most definitely does not in extremely complex organizations that are typical of contemporary society. The primary idea of Harlan Cleveland has been that contemporary organizations ought to be large enough to fulfill their duties, which necessitates an ever-expanding size. It is hence closely connected with more externalization of actual responsibility as well as broader distribution of real authority within each institution. Cleveland believes that every important decision is the result of a complex process of brokerage involving people both within and outside the business who have a stake in the outcome or who have unique expertise to provide.

Regarding the second misconception, government policies are frequently difficult to comprehend from a rational standpoint because the right hand does not appear to be aware of what the left hand is doing.

This is because many organizations produce policy outputs in this manner and because there is intense competition between agencies. This does not imply that there is no interagency collaboration or that the chief executive has no control over the agencies. It does, however, imply that the chief executive's ability to exert control is severely constrained and that coordination is challenging. Organizational decisions are often, if not always, incomprehensible in terms of clearly defined logical choices. They include a lot of ambiguity since people don't always behave in the right manner and don't always make the best or even most reasonable decisions. Therefore, non-rational choice is the best way to understand a lot of choices. Pfiffner and Nicolaidis came to the conclusion that decision-making by administrators does not proceed logically. They should logically carry out each step in the following order:

Implementation

Getting feedback on the outcomes, Irving Janis emphasized the importance of group dynamics in influencing governmental decision-making. These choices are made by small policy-making committees, who may sometimes make shocking errors. If the right measures are followed, a group's judgments will be better the more unified it is. However, even very cohesive groups may fall victim to what is known as groupthink. People adopt this way of thinking when group members' need for agreement overrides their desire to consider all available options for action realistically. These are the top eight signs of groupthink [9], [10].

Herbert Simon And Making Decisions

The topic of decision-making has only lately gained attention in administrative theory and thought. What precisely does a guy do when he makes a decision? There are basically three key components to decision-making. He either has a problem or recognizes that there is an issue. He might choose from a variety of options in the subsequent phase. He either actively seeks them out or is faced with them while weighing his options. The third phase is selecting the one he believes would provide the greatest outcomes out of all the available options.

It was Herbert Simon's responsibility to build the groundwork for a contemporary theory of decision-making by combining a significant amount of economic theory with philosophical thought. Barnard's publications had a significant impact on American social scientist Herbert Simon, whose early books *Administrative Behaviour* and *Public Administration* include many of Barnard's concepts. Simon has been a leading behavioral scientist in the subject of administrative studies. In the area of decision-making, Simon's work has been especially noteworthy. Simon's notion of rational decision-making may also be mentioned.

Peter's Models

Herbert Simon was one of the first to dispute the redefining of public administration as the study of public policy. He cautioned that it would ultimately include political science and maybe other social sciences as well. It would eventually develop into applied social science. He advocated that academics place greater emphasis on the actions of individuals who made judgments in the public sphere and the procedures by which they created public policy rather than on public policy itself. Administrative theory should focus on both the decision-making and action-taking processes. A universal theory of management would include organizational principles that would guarantee sound judgment just as it must have concepts that will guarantee efficient action. The ability to make decisions is at the core of administration, permeating both the art of decision-making and the whole administrative process.

Simon recognized that choices were made at every level of an organization in *Administrative Behaviour*. There were various amounts of factual and moral judgments in them. Because most value judgments also contained factual inquiries, differentiation was challenging. Sanctions were also required to make sure that specialists making factual decisions acted in accordance with democratically determined value judgments. He suggested that, in an ideal world, the factual and ethical components should be kept as distinct as possible and distributed between politicians and administrators based on their relative significance and how contentious the ethical concerns were. Decisions were value judgments inasmuch as they contributed to the choice of end objectives, and factual judgments insofar as they carried out such aims. Representatives should be given information and guidance in cases where they made factual decisions. Administrators who make moral judgments need to be accountable for their actions and sensitive to community values. In reality, representatives often asked administrators to decide matters with a high policy content on their behalf; administrators tended to follow their own views when determining questions with a high political element. In other words, people and institutions were unable to entirely separate the factual and value components of a choice.

Simon's focus on proper choices and appropriate methods of action served as his starting point since the two were interdependent. Making the best decisions possible for the use of available resources was the goal of efficient decision-making, not the merciless pursuit of mechanical efficiency in methods. It was a correlation between the goals pursued and the strategies used to accomplish those goals. The ideal was unachievable perfect rationality, whereby all objectives would be identified and prioritized, all potential alternative strategies would be listed along with their effects, and a comparative assessment of the strategies and their effects would

be made in order to get the most out of the available resources. In reality, however, entire knowledge was not available, man was not a purely rational entity, and neither the goals nor the results of public policy could be accurately measured or even approximatively assessed.

There existed subjective, individual rationality in addition to objective reason. Simon thought that his early study had indicated the feasibility of monitoring and assessing efficient decision-making and the necessity to define, quantify, and evaluate administrative choice. Empirical investigations would disclose how people really made choices and what most impacted them.

joint efforts with D.W. Both Smithburg and V.A. In order to demonstrate how American public administration functioned via a realistic, behavioral depiction of the administrative processes, Thompson and Simon wrote the first behaviorist textbook in public administration. It introduced and applied sociological and psychological principles to public administration, focusing more on the informal aspect of the field. Although it wasn't particularly created with a decision-making strategy in mind, it reiterated much of the reasoning of *Administrative Behavior* and went considerably farther in dispelling the assumption that rationality in the pursuit of mechanical efficiency was the goal in public administration. Simon, however, abandoned the idea of the optimal rational choice altogether and opted for bounded rationality and a satisfying model of decision-making, which states that people accept what is good enough or satisfying to them and do not search for all possible alternatives, as more empirical evidence about how decisions were actually made started to accumulate. Their search is constrained by their expectations, and they choose the most appealing option that they see. He anticipated in *Models of Man* that if temporal constraints, value systems, and factually feasible alternatives were understood, mathematical models of program feasibility within constrained rationality would be possible. Simon expanded on these ground-breaking concepts in a series of lectures delivered in 1960 and made available in *The New Science of Management Decision*. The decision-making process was once again divided into three steps: intelligence, design, and choice, with execution being identical to formulating more specific policy. To the extent that a difference was recognized between individual and organizational decision-making, both sets of abilities could be learned and developed. Decisions were made along a continuum between programmed decisions, which were repetitive and routine and for which a clear routine had been developed so that they were not treated differently every time, and non-programmed decisions, which were novel, unstructured, and consequential and for which there was no clear-cut method for handling the problem because it had never before arisen, or because its exact nature and structure were elusive or complex, or because it was so important.

In the 1960s, Simon added the maze model of decision-making, in which problem solvers take various paths, some of which led to a payoff solution while others merely to additional paths. By 1960, Simon had identified three major models of decision-making, namely A non-programmed decision-making based on instinct, judgement, intuition, and other extra-rational factors, Pure-rationality optimal, Decision-making, and Satisficing Decision-Making.

Simon's detractors largely argue that while if the decision-making process is a significant factor in the organizational environment, it cannot fully account for the whole organizational picture on its own. They see decision-making as a process with both emotional and intellectual components. The dichotomy between fact and value proposed by the logical positivists is included and used in Simon's research of decision-making. This strategy has been criticized:

- 1.The outmoded politics-administration split is being revived in a new form.
- 2.Having an equally negative impact on decision-makers
- 3.As irrelevant to Simon's central premise

Simon's definition of effectiveness is often contested as well. Some object, linking the phrase with economics. Others disagree with the term's usage because they believe it promotes a mechanistic view of administration and an uneven link between means and ends. Efficiency is not, and cannot be, the only goal of administration because there are many other major categories of organizational purposes, such as satisfying different interests, producing goods, providing food services, mobilizing resources, adhering to organized codes, using the most logical techniques, etc. Any of these objectives, roughly or in combination, may under certain circumstances be more important than efficiency in an organization.

Simon's theory of reason has also come under fire. For instance, Argyris believes that Simon has ignored the importance of intuition, tradition, and religion in decision-making by relying on reason. Satisfying is used to excuse ineptitude. However, despite all of the aforementioned flaws, Simon's work has been regarded as a significant advancement in the development of administrative theory.

Systems-Based Method

A branch of the behavioral approach is the system approach. The creation of generic systems concepts for organizational analysis is one of the most important turning points in the development of organization theory. General systems may be traced back to the 1920s and the ideas of the biologist Von Bertalanffy.

However, the idea of system was first formed as a result of the search by many post-World War II researchers for a body of concepts offering consistency to studies conducted in many fields. In summary, a push for the fusion of science and scientific analysis gave rise to general systems theory. This method of organizational analysis views an organization as a whole social system that should be researched. In other terms, a system is a group of connected components that accepts inputs, acts on them in a structured or predetermined way, and as a result generates certain outputs.

Placement of all types of organizations within the expansive context of general systems theory is becoming more and more popular. A system is seen as a collection of interconnected components that communicate with one another. The idea of interdependence suggests that when one portion changes, it inevitably has an impact on other sections of the system. The fundamental component of organizational structures is the individual.

All human organizations are open subsystems that participate in interactions with society, the wider social system. All subsystems get inputs from the larger system in the form of people and material resources and provide outputs in the form of goods, services, or rewards for their constituents as well as for the larger system.

Other characteristics of organizational sub-systems include their adaptability, the fact that they both influence and are impacted by the larger system, and the fact that they are dynamic in that they change continuously as a consequence of interactions with other sub-systems of the broader social system.

Herbert Simon made the most significant contribution to systems analysis in organizational theory. Simon sees the organization as a whole, made up of all the smaller systems that work together to create the desired results. His fundamental premise is that human problem-solving processes and logical decision-making are the source of organizational structure and function. As a result, the organization is seen as a system made up of people who behave and make decisions based on their responses to their needs and surroundings.

When assessing the policies or activities of any organization, the systems approach's main benefit is found in the methodical search for important relationships. By analyzing the links between the system's components, systems analysts hope to forecast the system's motions. The study of huge public organizations that operate in more complex social, political, and economic situations is especially pertinent to the systems approach.

Five fundamental points are brought up by Charles W. Churchman in connection to the systems approach to management.

1. The overall goals of the system and the performance metrics for the system
2. The environment of the system serving as a restriction
3. Resources used by the system during performance
4. Components of the system, together with its objectives and actions
5. the system's management

Many administrative theorists have described the organization as a socio-technical system that includes both social and technical factors. It is more than just a collection of structures, resources, tools, and procedures. The system consists of people arranged around different technologies, and the quality and quantity of its inputs and outputs are determined by the people's motivation, behavior, and connections. Any business may be seen as an open system with traits similar to those of a biological organism, according to Miller and Rice. Only through exchanging resources with its surroundings can and will an open system exist. It accepts raw materials, alters them via conversion procedures, consumes the end results for internal upkeep, and exports the remainder. It trades its outputs for more Intake, including extra resources for maintenance, either directly or indirectly. The business must do these import, conversion, and export activities in order to survive.

It is increasingly commonplace to employ the systems approach to organizational analysis. This method may examine an organizational issue within the context of a wider system, taking into consideration numerous factors and interrelationships. The way a system interacts with its surroundings is another crucial factor. The fundamental tenet of the systems approach is that the environment and the system are always in reciprocal contact with one another. The ecological method to organizational studies finally had its roots in this idea.

3. CONCLUSION

The understanding that people often depend on satisficing procedures and heuristics rather than thorough optimization when confronted with complicated choices is one of Simon's most important contributions.

Due to the fact that it recognizes the underlying limits and cognitive limitations that affect our decisions, this deviation from the conventional rationality assumption has significant ramifications for economics, psychology, management, and other fields. In conclusion, Herbert Simon's research on decision-making has improved our comprehension of how people behave when faced with ambiguity, insufficient knowledge, and cognitive constraints. His influence may still be seen in the creation of more sensible and useful models of decision-making that take into account the complexity of the actual world. As they struggle with the complexities of choice and decision-making in a continuously changing world, scholars and practitioners are nevertheless motivated by Simon's discoveries. The fact that Simon acknowledges the cognitive constraints that are a part of human decision-making is one of his writings' lasting virtues. He suggested that people often use heuristics, short cuts, and satisficing tactics to get

by in the face of cognitive limitations and information overload. For subjects like economics, psychology, and management, this deviation from the conventional idea of complete rationality has had significant ramifications.

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CHAPTER 13

SYSTEMS APPROACH IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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ABSTRACT:

The systems approach in public administration is a holistic and interdisciplinary framework that has gained prominence in recent decades as a means to enhance the efficiency, transparency, and accountability of government agencies and organizations. This abstract explores the core principles of the systems approach and its significance in contemporary public administration. It emphasizes the interconnectedness of various components within public systems, such as policies, processes, people, and technology, and how these components interact to achieve public service goals. The systems approach encourages a comprehensive understanding of complex issues and the development of integrated solutions, ultimately contributing to more effective and responsive public administration. This abstract provides an overview of the systems approach in public administration and its ongoing relevance in the field of governance and policy.

KEYWORDS:

Administrative Systems, Holistic Perspective, Input-Output Analysis, Organizational Behavior, Public Administration, Systems Theory.

1. INTRODUCTION

'A collection or arrangement of objects so linked or connected as to create a unity or organic whole' is how Webster describes a system. Thus, a system is a cohesive whole made up of several interconnected elements or subsystems. It also has recognizable boundaries that set it apart from the environment in which it is embedded and with which it interacts. Systems are often classified as being closed or open. Social and biological systems are open systems because they constantly interact with their surroundings. Physical and mechanical systems, on the other hand, are locked off from their surroundings grasp a system's domain requires a grasp of the boundary notion. Systems that are physical or mechanical have limits that are obvious. However, it is necessary to understand social organizations' bounds from their actions and roles in actual life circumstances. Open systems, on the other hand, have a propensity to evolve via increased internal differentiation and progress toward higher degrees of structure, while closed systems have a general trend toward entropy and disarray. The majority of social systems fall towards the latter group. They expand by internalizing their organizations, and they often specialize more and more, which raises organizational complexity [1], [2].

The systems approach views an organization as an example of a system, i.e., a group of interconnected elements coming together to perform a certain purpose. A corporate organization is primarily seen as a system for making decisions, and it is assumed that the organization was developed after a study of the information needs and communication networks. As a result, it views the decision-making process as fundamental to the choice of goals and policies. Thus, the following stages make up the systems approach methodology:

1. Identifying goals
2. Creating subsystems

3. Examining these decision areas' information requirements
4. Creating communication channels that will help the organization's internal information flow.

Combining decision-making areas to reduce communication issues. The strategy demonstrates the value of information organization, the benefits of functional division over project division, and the need of concentrating the information network centrally. The concept of regarding organizations as just passive instruments acting in reaction to external stimuli is rejected in the modern approach to the theory of organizations. Organizations are thought of as semi-autonomous systems that create their own internal goals, such as performance objectives and conservation objectives, the latter of which pertains to the organization's desire to survive. Simon uses the examples of performance objectives and conservation objectives [3], [4].

According to Argyris, an organization is an organic interrelation of pieces that has as its primary functions:

1. Achieving certain goals
2. Upkeep of oneself inwardly
3. Adjusting to the environment within the body

The study of complex public organizations with intricate structures that are a component of wider social, political, and economic settings is especially pertinent to the systems approach. According to the open system approach, an organization develops and lives by using environmental inputs that are then internally processed to create its output. The processes of intake, conversion, and output are what allow an organization to exist and grow. Systems thinking enables us to see an organization in its whole, including all of its components and how they interact.

The works of Mary Parker Follett and Chester Barnard had a subliminal reference to the systems approach of organization. Herbert Simon's method to decision-making is based on the systems approach, which he and his colleagues subsequently developed further. The systems framework has been employed by Philip Selznick in his research on governmental and other complex organizations [5], [6].

Individuals interact as a whole in cooperative systems in respect to a formal coordinating framework. The mutual impacts of the formal and informal parts of organization led to the creation of the concrete structure. Additionally, this structure functions as a whole and an adaptive organism that responds to environmental factors. A variety of studies based on the systems framework have been developed at the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations in England. The company has been designed as a socio-technical system that incorporates both social and technological factors. According to Miller and Rice Any business may be seen as an open system with traits that are similar to those of a biological entity. There is an open system that can only function by exchanging materials with its surroundings. It imports raw materials, converts them using conversion techniques, uses part of the conversion products for internal maintenance, and exports the remainder. It trades its outputs for new intakes, including more resources for support, directly or indirectly. The firm must complete these import-conversion-export procedures in order to survive.

Organizational analysis today often uses the systems approach. It has proven to be a highly helpful tool for conceptualizing the organization and its interactions with both internal and external parties. Additionally, it has made the situational or contingent view of organizations possible, which is a major change from the conventional approach that focused on the one

optimum method to structure organizations. The contemporary perspective in organizational analysis, which is influenced by systems theory, is that the structure may change from situation to scenario based on such aspects as their technological advancements and environmental circumstances [7], [8].

Fred W. Riggs' Comparative/Ecological Approach

Ecology, or oikos, refers to a living area. This idea of a living area is derived from biology, which explains that every living thing has a distinct living space or habitat. According to the theory, every living thing interacts with its environment and then adapts to it. Everything has a niche in which it finds its form and moral compass. This leads to the conclusion that public administration has a niche or a particular place in which it exists since it is a knowledge-based system of living creatures. The groupings and communities of people, economic transactions, the interaction of political forces, and the norms that are recognized to regulate interactions among them are only a few examples of how the structures and institutions of public administration continuously interact with the circumstances existing inside the living environment. The interaction is purposefully not referred to as the environment of public administration because ecology is a more expansive term that describes how environmental factors constantly interact with one another and how people gradually adapt and develop as individuals. Environment is a limited term that is used to explain environmental factors in isolation from one another. Therefore, the term "ecology of administration" refers to the analysis of how a discipline interacts with its environment and how it develops within a certain niche. This implies that public administration is one of the several systems that predominate within the wider system and that these systems are continually interacting with one another and developing in connection to one another. These might be thought of as sub-systems. Therefore, the study of public administration's interactions with other subsystems within its habitat or niche is known as ecology.

2. DISCUSSION

Urban studies gave the phrase a sociological connotation in relation to the spatial impacts on man and his environment. Additionally, it turned into a crucial entryway for the 1948-launched US Technical Assistance program to comprehend emerging nations. In his articles, L.D. shifted the emphasis of his study to the interdependence of bureaucracy and its environment. White, M.E. Gaus, and John M. Dimock in 1936's *The Frontiers of Public Administration*, an edited volume. Their argument was that because American life was distinct from other cultures and their administrative systems would likewise be distinctive, the USA shouldn't copy other nations' administrative models. The new research revealed that public administration was not merely limited to the preservation of law and order but is continually evolving as the State and society develop, which flipped the s versus dichotomy on its head. By 1947, Gaus had introduced the ecosystem as a theory for comprehending the development of public administration in *Reflections on Public Administration*. *The Science of Public Administration: Three Problems*, written by Robert Dahl in 1947, was followed by works by Roscoe Martin in 1952 and F.W. Riggs rose to prominence as an advocate for an ecological viewpoint.

F.W. Riggs, who is perhaps the most avant-garde thinker working in the field of comparative public administration today, has focused mostly on understanding the interconnections between the administration system and its surroundings. His primary area of focus has been in emerging or post-industrial nations. It should be emphasized that Riggs is one of the comparative public administration authors who takes the ecological viewpoint very seriously. Since many developing societies' administrative structures lack the same level of independence from other social structures as do those in many developed societies, Riggs came to the conclusion that

Weber's ideal type construct of bureaucracy is not particularly relevant to the study of these societies. There is a need to create new conceptual constructs to examine these cultures since they are characterized by a blend of primitive and contemporary structural elements [9], [10].

Public bureaucracies may be seen as one of the many fundamental institutions in a society, according to the fundamental assumption of the ecological approach in comparative public administration. The political, economic, and socio-cultural sub-systems of a society are always interacting with, affecting, and feeding back onto the bureaucratic system. It both modifies these systems and is transformed by them as a result of their activity. The Comparative Administration Group was founded by the American Society of Public Administration at its 1953 session, and F.W. Riggs was chosen to lead this organization as its chairman. His whole focus was on the advancement of comparative public administration. He saw several tendencies in the study of public administration while doing this. Most of the trends were in one of three ways. The normative methods were directive in character, but the empirical approaches were more realistic, dynamic, and placed a strong focus on reason.

Ideographic to nomothetic transition:

The ideographic method focused only on the administration of a certain nation. This pattern foreshadowed a shift in the 1940s. On the basis of many institutions, an effort at generalization was undertaken. The nomothetic method was this. The goal was to develop the standards or guidelines that would lead to generalizations in behavior.

Non-Ecological to Ecological;

Previously, public administration was researched as an independent phenomenon, untouched by other institutional frameworks. But this couldn't go on for much longer. In this regard, Riggs made an outstanding contribution by clearly articulating the significance of ecology while taking into consideration Thailand and some other south Asian States. It was realized that a norm when studied could not be separated from its environment in which it operates, such as the political environment, social structure, etc.

Riggs concluded that only empirical, nomothetic, and ecological research are really comparable. According to this viewpoint, an administrative process may be seen as a system with an environment in which it interacts and functions. This claim is a logical extension of the idea that administrative institutions are a subsystem of the greater social system. The relationship between the administrative subsystems and the societal political, social, cultural, and economic subsystems has been the main focus of Riggs' research. This expresses his fundamental outlook, which is described as ecological. Behind such a viewpoint is Riggs' conviction that it is impossible to comprehend the nature of public administration in a nation without also comprehending the social context in which it functions.

The social climate is referred to as the physical environment. Riggs made a distinction between cultures with a predominance of agricultural institutions and those that are mostly or typically industrial. The models were created to provide a set of fictitious categories for categorizing and analyzing reality, including patterns of political and administrative change. Riggs, as opposed to Weber, used an inductive strategy. He discovered that the ideal types lacked the necessary analysis tools for mixed-type or transitional cultures. Whatever the physical conditions, they merely alter the administrative capacity. A key element is human resources. Any nation's demography is a crucial concern. It speaks about human potential, which may be both a country's restriction and its greatest asset. The term "culture" describes the make-up and structure of any given society, including the enduring social, economic, and technological tendencies as well as those that are related to its values and beliefs. The modern administrative

system's knowledge and operation are also influenced by the global environment. No country can afford to exist alone in the world. Interdependence is becoming more prevalent, not only in terms of the economics but also in terms of other variables. Even a sophisticated country like the United States cannot survive by itself. World events and global issues have an impact on policies and choices. A sign of interactions and transactions are the many pacts and treaties.

Riggs continues by discussing more environmental issues as well. Despite the possibility of a politics-administration dichotomy, the administrative system of any nation operates under the proper supervision of the political system and takes into account the political institutions and framework. On the other side, the economic system has an impact on the political system. A crucial role is played by economics. The political system is impacted by how the resources are used, and the political system in turn affects the administrative system. The social system is made up of all of these interconnected systems. As a result, there will undoubtedly be complications. A society's ability to adapt to its surroundings determines how it develops. From the perspectives of developed and emerging countries as well as from the standpoint of the people and their aspirations, this seems to be the ecology of public administration.

Models of Riggs' Prismatic Sala or Theory of Prismatic Society

Social structures may be functionally diffuse or functionally particular in accordance with the idea of multifunctionality, according to the Theory of Prismatic Society or Riggs' Prismatic society model. According to Riggs, functionally particular civilizations are diffracted, while functionally diffuse societies are united. Prismatic civilization is a good representation of the middle form of society. The fused- prismatic-diffracted models are intended to be ideal kinds that are not present in any real civilization, though they may be approximated in some, and that are helpful for heuristic reasons and as a tool for data organizing.

A diffracted system would score high in terms of universalism and accomplishment orientation, a fused model would rank high in particularism and ascription, with the prismatic model being intermediate on both scales, according to Riggs' hypothesis using Parsonian pattern variables. Additionally, Riggs has created intermediate pattern variable categories. Thus, selectivism, achievement, and poly-functionalism are traits of a prismatic society. The relationships between these factors, according to Riggs, will only be a question of conjecture and not of definition. In a prismatic society, the sala, or administrative sub-system, interacts with a number of important social structural components that are the subject of Riggs research. Riggs' main focus has been on illuminating administrative issues in emerging or transitional civilizations.

Riggs has outlined the prismatic sub-model's fundamental characteristics. which are Heterogeneity A prismatic society is distinguished by a high level of heterogeneity, which is defined as the simultaneous existence of very different types of systems, practices, and viewpoints next to one another. In a prismatic society, there are metropolitan regions with a well-educated intellectual elite, Western-style offices, and cutting-edge administrative technology. However, there are also rural communities with traditional appearances and outlooks, where village leaders or elders serve in a variety of political, administrative, religious, and social capacities. The social, religious, and administrative functions all exhibit this variability. The administrative structures exhibit this variability as well. The sala coexists in a prismatic society with contemporary bureau and conventional courts or chambers. Formalism is the degree to which the officially prescribed and the successfully implemented, the norms and realities, diverge or cohere. The degree of similarity between these aspects indicates realism, whereas the degree of dissimilarity between them denotes formalism. The more formalistic a system is, the larger the gap between the formal and effects. The degree of realism in the fused and diffracted societies is rather high, but the degree of formalism in the prismatic

society is very high. Despite the fact that certain public officials may insist on strictly adhering to the letter of the law, official behavior in prismatic society does not always follow the letter of the law. They often insist on strictly adhering to some technical regulations and standards while ignoring others, notably those that deal with broad words and purposes. The absence of push toward program goals, the ineffectiveness of social power as a motivator for bureaucratic performance, and a high tolerance for arbitrary administration are the root causes of formalistic behavior. The motivation for an official's formalistic behavior may originate from his innate tendencies or from the rewards he receives in a certain circumstance. Formalism therefore often contributes to governmental corruption. According to Riggs, the policy implication of the realism/formalism dichotomy is that formal administrative institution reforms in a diffracted society are likely to bring about changes in administrative behavior, while such reforms are likely to have only a superficial impact in a prismatic society.

The feature of overlapping, which is connected to heterogeneity and formalism, describes how formally defined structures from a diffracted civilization coexist with undifferentiated structures of a fused kind. Even while new, contemporary social structures are developed in a prismatic society, the older, undifferentiated structures continue to rule the social order. Older values more suitable for an undifferentiated society are prioritized over new norms or values that are often linked with diffracted structures but are just given lip regard. How much of what is referred to be administrative behavior in the sala is really influenced by non-administrative elements, such as political, economic, social, religious, or other factors, may be used to assess overlap. In a prismatic society, overlapping has numerous distinct aspects. which are

Nepotism In a differentiated society, allegiance to one's family is separated from proper conduct. of contrast, the political-administrative structure of a merged society has a patrimonial character and places a major emphasis on kinship or family. On the other side, in a prismatic society, the family and kinship are superimposed over the new formal institutions. Additionally, although nepotism is used to decide official employment, universalistic rules in the administration of the law are often violated. As a result, patrimonialism is not only recommended but also practiced.

Poly-communalism or Clects Mass communication mobilizes practically everyone in a diffused society. A national community with its own set of elites exists in such a society. Because there are no mass media in a scattered society, there is no mass mobilization. The prismatic society, which lies between these two polar kinds, is one in which mass mobilization is likely to occur at a faster pace than assimilation to the elite's symbol system. This leads to a condition of polycommunalism, or the coexistence in a society of different ethnic, religious, and racial groups that interact in a generally antagonistic manner. These groupings, which exhibit achievement, orientation, selectivism, and poly-functionalism, are referred to by Riggs as clects. Clects provide rather sporadic semi-traditional duties, despite the fact that they are set up in an associational fashion that is more contemporary.

Clects and polycommunalism have an impact on the sala's personality. In a prismatic society, a public servant is more likely to acquire a feeling of devotion to his fellow citizens than to the state.

The dominant minority community has disproportionate participation in decisions about hiring for official positions and enforcing laws and regulations. However, a quota system may provide a type of proportionate representation in the hiring for official positions, safeguarding the interests of other minorities. However, such a plan can cause mutual antagonism between distinct populations.

There are occasions when the sala or one of its agencies begins acting like a specific clect or establishes strong relationships with it. The collaboration between the sala and the clects benefits sala officials via rebates or bribes. This characteristic of prismatic behavior is intimately connected to the prismatic society's economic sub-system.

Dynamic Economy

Price determination in a differentiated society is mostly based on supply and demand market forces, according to the bazaar canteen model. In contrast, the economic system of a merged society is dominated by arena considerations, and the issue of pricing is seldom raised. It is often hard to establish a standard price for a good or service in a prismatic society because market and arena forces interact and lead to a situation of pricing indeterminacy.

In terms of a buyer-seller relationship, Riggs has investigated the trade between public officials and their clientele. In a prismatic society, rates for public services therefore fluctuate depending on the kind of interaction between a public official and his consumer. Services are provided at preferentially lower prices to members of the dominant and inner communities, and at higher prices to members of the outer communities and deviant or minority communities. In other words, depending on the situation, economic organizations often function as a subsidized canteen or a tributary canteen. Price uncertainty encourages a bazaar-like environment and significant haggling over the dollar amounts of financial transactions in relation to things like taxes, fees, rebates, and bribes. Such actions have a significant impact on how the financial administration is set up overall, but especially on how budgeting, accounting, and auditing are done. Additionally, it hinders the collection of tax revenues, which results in, among other things, low compensation for public servants and the employment of dishonest measures to boost income.

In a prismatic society, new norms and regulations coexist alongside established social mores. This is known as poly-normalativism. The social interactions in a prismatic society are characterized by a lack of agreement on norms of behavior since the formal and effective standards of behavior overlap. In a scenario of poly-normativism or normlessness, officials in the sala really behave in a way that is more subjective, ascription-oriented, and particularistic even when they officially pretend to follow objective, universalistic, and achievement-oriented methods. These authorities insist that they adhere to traditional customs while claiming to follow western rationalistic ideals in their behaviour. Potential public leaders often come from a narrow range of groupings in prismatic societies. The chances for professional advancement and ancillary rewards rely heavily on assigned methods, including assistance from one's superiors and seniority in service, even when the officials attain rank via accomplishment. Even the citizen is poly-normative in his interaction with the sala; he is willing to flout the law to further his personal interests while also emphasizing the need for rigorous legality in governmental behavior.

Power Distribution: Authority vs. Control

In a prismatic society, there is a strong overlap between a highly localized and distributed control system and a highly centralized and concentrated authority structure. There is a distinction between authority and control.

The control mechanisms of society, which are founded on poly-communalism and poly-normativism, overlap with the authority of the sala. As a result, both tangible buildings with a primary orientation towards this function and other structures without such a main orientation may carry out the administrative function. The relationship between lawmakers and the government is impacted by such overlap. In general, a prismatic society has an uneven polity

with bureaucrats dominating the political-administrative system, as described by Riggs. This is true despite the fact that politicians have official power to make policy. As a result, sala officials participate more in decision-making than their counterparts in a diffracted society. The bureaucrats' concentration of power often leads to a lack of official response to popular needs and desires. The capacity of political leaders to reward or penalize the administration significantly affects their power. As a result, the sala official's behavior might vary from having an effective monopoly on decision-making to playing the sinecurist. Whatever function a bureaucrat may have in a prismatic society, he has a significant impact on the sala's level of productivity. According to Riggs, administrative effectiveness and bureaucratic authority are inversely related; the more powerful officials grow, the less successful they are as administrators. The sala is defined by cronyism, hiring, entrenched corruption, ineffective law enforcement, and the desire to rise to power and further its own interests. In essence, the sala behavior is wasteful and extravagant.

Change's Problem in a Prismatic Society

The dilemma of change in a prismatic society: Pressure for change is present both internally and externally in prismatic societies. Change may be said to be exogenous if it is predominantly the result of external factors. On the other hand, endogenous change is that which is primarily induced by internal processes. Change is said to be equigenetic when there is about equal push for both forms of change. The prismatic phase of the diffraction process is more formalistic and heterogenous when it is more exogenetic than when it is endogenetic, according to Riggs' hypothesis. As a result, an exo-prismatic one is likely to have a higher degree of formalism heterogeneity and overlap. This difference arises from the fact that in an exo-genetic transformation, the sequence is paradoxically reversed, and effective behavior comes before the creation of new formal institutions. As a result, prismatic societies must contend with the potential for higher formalism, heterogeneity, and the severity of revolutionary tensions in order to absorb the externally induced change in the shortest amount of time.

3. CONCLUSION

The systems approach in public administration marks a crucial paradigm change in how companies and government bodies handle difficult problems. This method provides a more thorough understanding of the complex operations of governance by seeing public systems as linked and dynamic entities. The systems approach's capacity to support cross-functional cooperation, data-driven decision-making, and resource optimization is one of its lasting strengths. It encourages public officials to think about how their decisions will affect all aspects of society, promoting a culture of responsibility and openness. In conclusion, the systems approach in public administration remains an essential foundation for solving the complex problems that governments throughout the globe confront. Its focus on connectivity, flexibility, and efficiency is in line with the changing requirements of contemporary government. The systems approach offers a systematic and flexible framework for promoting effectiveness and accountability as public administrations deal with more complex challenges, eventually improving results for individuals and communities.

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