2. Basic Concepts

2.1 ORGANISATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOONEY</td>
<td>form of every human arson</td>
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<tr>
<td>SIMON</td>
<td>planned sys. of co-operat. effort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GULICK</td>
<td>formal struct. Of auth:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLADDEN</td>
<td>pattern of relationship in an enterprise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PFIFFNER</td>
<td>relationship for orderly divn. Of labour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LD WHITE</td>
<td>arrangement of personnel ---&gt; allcn. of fun. &amp; respns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. BARNARD</td>
<td>relating of efforts &amp; capacities ---&gt; least friction, most satisfaction</td>
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<tr>
<td>J.M. GAUS</td>
<td>what activities are necessary, arrange, assign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URWICK</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

L.D. WHITE --->

- Elements
  - Persons
  - Combined efforts
  - Common propose

BARNARD

- Common
- Purpose
- Common Willingness to serve

Functions

H. SIMON

- dividing work
- formally std. practices
- common sys.
- transmitting decs.
- training

BASES

Purpose [Haldane comtee (1918-19), 1st Hoover (1949-50)]

L. Gulick

- Process
- Persons ----> Haldane ----> “Lilliputian adm.”
- Place

2.2 HIERARCHY

Jayol ----> Scalar chain
Mooney ----> Scalar proc.

- Principle ---> leadership
- Procs. ---> delegn.
- Effect ---> Int. Defn.
Universal phenomenon
Grading of duties, based on Auth. & resp. not based on functions.

**LD WHITE**: Universal applc. Of sup.-Subord.relnshp.
**MILLET**: method, efforts geared together

**PAUL APPLEBY**: “means by which

res. ---> apportioned
pers. ---> selected
opn ---> activated”

**Principles**

1. Three proper channel
2. Correspondence
3. Unity of command

**Jayol**: Gangplank

**CRITIC**:

- **Urwick**: “scalar chain-drain”
- **Argyris**: “Matrix Orgnsn.”
  Fan-like [No sup-subord.relnship]

**2.3 UNITY OF COMMAND**

**FAYOL**: One superior only ---> it violated, auth undermined, ….

**PFIF. PRES**: One and only one leader

**G & U**: “a man can’t serve 2 masters”

Arguments Against
Seckler-Hudson
  admin. In govt.

  many bosses
  many interrelnshps.

**JD MILLET**
1. Boards
2. Power of staff agencies

Theory of Dual Supervsn.
1. profsnl. (Technical)
2. Admin.
   Should be conflicting commands

### 2.4 SPAN OF CONTROL

Span of supervsn.
Span of Mangmt.
DIMOCK: “no. & range of direct commn. contacts”

V.A. GRAICUNUS: “span of attn.”

Limits
Sir Ian Hamilton → 3 – 4
V.A. Graicunus → 4 – 5
Lyndall Urwick → 5 – 6 (Lr.)
Lord Haldane &
Graham Wallals → 10 – 12
Amer. Mangmt. Asscn. → 9

V.A. Graicunus → “no. of sub-ord. increases arithmetically, then
No. of potential relnships. Increases geomotically

**Fayol: Factors → dual command**

1. dividing auth. → 2 mems.
2. imperfect demarcation of depts..
3. constant linking up of fns., b/w dept’s.

SIMON:
“Conflicts with print of splsh
“auth. In orgns. Bring to splsn. In cook”

TAYLOR

FUNCTIONAL Foremanship & supervisors

Seckler-Hudson
“Shorter the span, longer chain of commands”
“Short span → detailed suprvcn”

Factors

1. Function
2. Time (age of orgnsn) → old → more
3. Space → same roof → more
   direct suprvcn.

Urwick
access to boss (more)

4. Personality

- delegn. of auth
- tradtns. & environ. of orgnsn
- techniques of suprvsn
- automation
- MIS
- Splsts

### 2.5 AUTHORITY & RESPONSIBILITY

**Mooney & Reiley**

auth. → supreme co-ordng. Power

-Legitimacy to orgnsn
Auth → Legtncy. Power → Co-erdon

Sources

1. Law
2. Tradn.
3. Delegn

Millet → auth in 4 areas

1. Programme
2. Orgnsnl
3. Budgetary
4. Personel

Types

- Bureau → single indvdl.
- Board → group

Positional

Theories

Acceptance

Posinl → Lies in the formal posn. & not in the indvdl.

WEBER : Willing & uncondl. Compliance of people

FAYOL : right to give orders & exact obedience

Acceptance:

Barnard → accept by the subord

basic of legitimacy

“char of commn. (order) → accepted”

Acceptance only when 4 condns. Simultaneously

1. intelligibility
2. consistent with orgn. Purpose
3. compatible with personal interest
4. feasibility (ability)

ZONE OF INDIFFERENCE

Accepted only if within this contribut. – Satisfcn. Equilibium

SIMON : “Power to make decisions”

ZONE OF ACCEPTANCE
Accepted only within this zone

Types

WEBER | Amitai Etzioni
1. Tradnl. | 1. Coercive
2. Charismatic | 2. Nomative (symbolic rewards)
3. Legal rathl | 3. utilitarian (rewards)

Also

1. Line | 2. Staff | 3. Functional

→ Job to be performed
→ Outs across the chain of command

Resp.
Oblign. Of an indvdl to carry out his duties

G.R. Terry → “oblign’. of a person to achieve results”

Types

1. Operating → can be delegated
2. ultimate

FAYOL

a & r → inter-reld. & commensurate
resp. → corollary of auth
→ auths. Natural consequence
→ essential counterpart

“where auth, there resp.”

URWICK

A & R → conterminous & equal @ all levels

Principle of Correspondence

Kinds
1. Pol
2. Instnl.
3. Profsnl (Ethical)
2.6 CO-ORDINATION

Co-ordination is a necessary pre-condition of all successful management especially in Government administration due to multiplication of the tasks of Government organization and its many agencies.

In the negative sense-ordination means the removal of conflicts and overlapping in administration. In the positive sense it means the fostering of a spirit of cooperation and team work among the numerous employees engaged in the work of the organization. Newman defines co-ordination as “The orderly synchronisation of efforts to provide the proper amount, timing and direction of execution resulting in harmonious and unified actions to stated objective”.

According to Mooney, co-ordination is the first principle of organization and includes within itself all other principles which are subordinate to it and through which it operates. According to Terry, “Co-ordination is the adjustment of the parts of each other and of the movement and operation of parts in time so that each can make its maximum contribution to the product of the whole.”

Need for Co-ordination: Co-ordination is needed for three main reasons:

a) to prevent overlapping, conflict and constant inter-departmental friction;
b) To enable the employees to take a broad overview of administration instead of a narrow departmental one: and
c) To see that the right people and right resources are available in the right quantity in the right circumstances at the right time.

Types of Co-ordination: Co-ordination can be of two types:

(i) Internal (functional): It is concerned with the co-ordination the activities of individuals working of an organization;
(ii) External (Structural): It is concerned with co-ordinating the activities of various units of an organisation;

Both types of co-ordination are effected horizontally and perpendicularly. Horizontally, co-ordination establishes interrelation between one worker and another, between one branch and another, etc. Perpendicularly, co-ordination is established between one employee and his officer, between a branch and a division and so on.

Means of Co-ordination: There are both formal and informal means of achieving co-ordination. The formal means are:

a) Planning – In India, the Planning Commission acts as the chief co-ordinating agency.
b) Standardization of procedures and methods
c) Centralised house keeping.
d) Finance Ministry.
e) Effectiveness of verbal and written communications which channelise information and ideas down, up and across the chain of command.

The informal means are:

a) Personal contacts
b) Disciplined party system
c) The role of good leadership
**Effectiveness of Co-ordination:** The degree of effectiveness of co-ordination can be judged by the following criteria:

(i) It is timely and extends in a balanced fashion to all parts of the organization, and operates horizontally as well as vertically. Mary Parker Follet suggests: (a) It must be a continuous process, and (b) It must be direct between the persons immediately concerned.

(ii) It must start at the outset of the activity.

**Hindrances:** There are many hindrances to inter-departmental co-ordination. According to Gulick some of the hindrances arise from:

a) the uncertainty of the future behaviour of individuals;
b) the lack of knowledge, experience, wisdom and character
c) the lack of administration skill and technique;
d) the vast number of variables involved;
e) the lack of orderly methods regarding developing, considering, perfecting and adopting new ideas and programmes

Seckler-Hudson has added four more factors. These are:

1) Size and complexity
2) Personalities and political factors
3) The lack of leaders with wisdom and knowledge pertaining to Public administration
4) The accelerated expansion of Public administration of international dimensions.

### 2.7 CENTRALISATION AND DECENTRALISATION

Another controversial problem of organization is whether it should be centralized or decentralized. The issue of centralization vs. decentralisation arises an organization, between the head office and the component parts of organization, between the official and non-official elements, between the headquarters and field offices, and between the chief executive and the functional departments or agencies. A centralized organization is that in which most of the power of decision is vested in the top level so that head of the organization or his immediate subordinates for decision. A decentralized organization is one in which the lower levels are allowed the discretion to decide most of the matters which come up, reserving comparatively a few bigger and more important problems only for those higher up. The essence of centralization or decentralization, therefore, lies in the distribution of the power of decision. The difference between centralization and decentralization is one of degree rather than of kind, for no organization can be completely centralized or decentralized. In the words of L.D. White, “The progress of transfer of administrative authority from a lower to a higher level of Government is called centralization; the reverse, decentralization.” There are four main factors which would appear to govern centralization or decentralization. These are:

a) the factor of responsibility
b) administrative factors
c) functional factors, and
d) external factors

However, centralization and decentralization are not a priori principles which can be universally applied at any time and at any place; they have a situational relevance.
The essence of the scalar principle is delegation of authority. Delegation means the entrusting of one’s occupational authority to another, usually a subordinate, to facilitate work in the organization. Delegating of authority is a common feature in all types of large organisations. According to Mooney, delegation means conferring of specified authority by a higher authority.

The essence of delegation is to confer discretion upon others, to use their judgment in meeting specific problems within the framework of their duties. Thus, de jure authority still belongs to the principal, but its de facto exercise is permitted to the person or agent to whom authority is delegated.

M.P. Follet states that the concept of delegation is a mere myth of organizational theory and delegation is a functional necessity. She, however, says that authority belongs to the job, and he who does it must means that authority goes with the job and need not necessarily be delegated. Delegation of authority is not discretionary but compulsory for the functioning of the organisation.

Delegation involves dual responsibility, i.e.,
   a) that of the subordinates to do the job;
   b) that of the delegating superior to get the job done.

**Forms of Delegation**

(i) Delegation may be full or partial. Full delegation means complete conferment of the principal’s powers on the agent. Such delegation is called ‘alter ego’. Partial delegation is that when the requires reference to the delegating authority on crucial points.

(ii) Delegation may be conditional or unconditional. Delegation is conditional when the action of a subordinate is subject to confirmation and control by the principal; it is unconditional when the subordinate is free to act without reservations.

(iii) Delegation may be formal or informal. Delegation is formal when embodied in written rules and laws. It is informal when based on customs and conventions.

(iv) Delegation may be direct or immediate or indirect. Delegation is direct when no third person intervenes between the two parties to delegation. It is intermediate when it is made through a third person.

**Need for Delegation:** Practical considerations require delegation for two reasons:

1) because no head can actually exercise all the powers legally vested in him, he would be overwhelmed with detail, and
2) because without delegation, the subordinates would not be able to do their work, as the responsibility for doing a thing implies the authority or the power to do it.

According to L.D. White, “circumstances of magnitude and volume, however, require some delegation of authority and the settlement of much business at the point where it arises.”

**Principles of Delegation:** The principles of delegation are as follows:
a) delegation should be written and specific
b) Delegation should be properly planned and systematically exercised.
c) Authority and responsibility for each position in the organization hierarchy should be clearly spelled out and authority, and not to an individual.
d) A systematic reporting system should be established with those to whom the authority has been delegated.
e) Only that much of authority should be delegated as is within the competence of subordinates to exercise safely.

Essentials of Delegation: These are as follows:
(i) Delegation must be clear and equivocal.
(ii) Delegation must be sufficiently backed by the resources.
(iii) There should be mutual trust among the two parties involved.
(iv) Delegation should be regarded as a whole at every point.
(v) A corollary of delegation is accountability.

Limits of Delegation: Usually the following powers are not delegated:
a) The supervision of the work of the first line or immediate subordinates.
b) Power to sanction new policies and plans and departures from established policy.
c) Making of the specified higher appointments.
d) Hearing of appeals from the decision of at least the immediate subordinates
e) General financial supervisions and the power to sanction expenditure above a specified amount.
f) Rule-making power where it is vested in the delegating officer.

Effective Delegation: An effective system of delegation is one in which
1. The managers as well as the employees of an organisation understand the value and advantages of delegation.
2. The abilities and talents of employees at all levels are used in the right degree
3. Achievement standards for jobs to be performed for delegated authority are clearly laid down.
4. There is close cooperation between the manager and subordinate
5. An adequate system of employee education and training exists.
6. The worker is permitted maximum freedom to reach his goals without interference.

2.9 Supervision

Supervision is inherent in the hierarchical nature of organizations, each level of which supervises the one below it and in turn, supervised by the one above it.

Supervision is a compound of two words ‘super’ and ‘vision’ meaning superior power of perceiving. It means overseeing or superintending the work of others. It has been defined as “the direction, accompanied by authority, of the work of others.”

Generally, the term supervision is applied only to the lower levels of management. For higher levels the term used is direction.
Techniques of Supervision: Millet suggests six techniques of supervision. These are as follows:

a) Prior approval of individual projects: Here, the subordinates have to first obtain the prior approval of the supervisor. This arrangement ensures detailed control, provides the much needed flexibility to change the general plans and helps in removing misunderstanding and rectifying errors.

b) Promulgation of service standard: The top management is to lay down targets or standards for the operating units to achieve. Apart from that, the top management audits their performance. Services standard, thus, set up norms of administrative output.

c) Work Budget: It is a plan of work and is a powerful instrument of control over administration. The operating units, thus, work within the budgetary allotments and are not free to spend money as and when they like.

d) Approval of personnel: The superior authority appoints the key personnel and personnel agency is not completely free to recruit its staff.

e) Reports: It is a standard practice that the operating units should submit an account of their activities to the central office. Such reports may be periodic – weekly, fortnightly, monthly, quarterly, half-yearly or annual. Report may also be special or ad hoc. A good system of reporting conveys information to the superiors about what is going on. It enables the supervisors to evaluate the performance of their subordinates, to understand the situation faced by them; and above all, to control the operations within the organization.

f) Inspection: In general, the purposes of inspection are
   (i) to see that the existing rules, regulations and procedures are observed;
   (ii) instructing and guiding the persons working in the organization;
   (iii) a sort of performance audit;
   (iv) improvement of efficiency.

Work plans, written procedures or manuals, written and oral instructions, staff meetings and administrative follow-up are some other techniques.

Phase of Supervision: There are three aspects of a supervisor’s duties. These are:

a) Institutional aspect: Supervisor should have a knowledge of policies, procedures and practices of the agency

b) Personal aspect: The supervisors have to create an atmosphere in which the subordinates are self-motivated to work harder – for this the supervisors needs to be a master of human relations.

c) Substantive or Technical: Millet distinguishes between substantive and technical supervision. The first is concerned with the actual work done by an agency while the second deals with the methods by which the work is done.

Qualities of a Supervisor: Everyone cannot be a good supervisor. Supervision needs specified knowledge and skill in using it.

Halsey has listed the following six qualities a supervisor should have. These are:

a) Thoroughness
b) Fairness
c) Initiative
d) Tact
e) Enthusiasm
f) Emotional control
But the quality which is perhaps most necessary is the human relations aspect of supervision. The success of a supervisor, more often than not, depends on his personal relations with employees, taken as individuals.

**Training of Supervisors**
Qualities of a supervisor may be inherent, but they can be developed by training and the required techniques can be taught. Thus, training programmes have an important role to play. In fact, the supervisory training programmes should include:

(i) Job Instruction Training
(ii) Job Methods Training
(iii) Job Relations Theory (to help develop the ability to deal personally and effectively with the workers)

### 2.10 LINE AND STAFF AGENCIES

The central hierarchy of the organization is called a ‘line’, and those which fall on the margin are known as ‘staff’ and auxiliary agencies.

**Line Agency:** The term ‘line’ is drawn from military organization and it refers to command. In a governmental organization, the term ‘line’ refers to those administrative agencies which are concerned with the main or primary functions. For example, the education department is a line agency concerned with planning and implementation of the education programme. Line agencies are of three kinds – Department, Public Corporation, Independent Regulatory Commissions.

**Staff Agency:** Literally, the word ‘staff’ means a stick which is carried for support. It is also drawn from military organization. Those agencies which help the commanders by providing supply and ordnance and strategic information and advice to the ‘line’ are known as ‘staff’. In Public administration, staff refers to such activities in an organization which assist the departmental head or the chief executive in the performance of his duties.

**Need of Staff Agency:** Firstly, it is needed in management problems like that of organization, personnel and co-ordination and secondly, it is needed in the substantive problems or policy formulation and planning.

**Functions of the Staff Agency:** According to L.D. White the main functions are as follows:

White the main functions are as follows:

a) To ensure that the chief executive is adequately and correctly informed
b) To assist him in foreseeing problems and planning future programmes
c) To ensure that matters for his decision reach his desk promptly
d) To exclude every matter that can be settled elsewhere in the system
e) To protect his time
f) To secure means of ensuring compliance by subordinates with executive policy and executive direction

According to Mooney, staff work has three phases or aspects namely: (a) informative (b) advisory and (c) supervisory.

Staff agencies assist the chief executive in taking decisions but do not have to take decisions themselves. They do not issue order or commands.
According to Pfiffner, staff are of three main kinds – (i) General (ii) Technical (iii) Auxiliary (staff which consists of units or officers who perform certain duties and functions common to the various administrative departments but which are incidental and or of house-keeping nature. They are what Willoughby calls as auxiliary or house-keeping services.

Pfiffner and Persthus gave more importance to staff-work rather than staff agency.

**Difference between Line and Staff agencies**

(i) Line function means the actions taken directly to achieve the purposes of the organization. On the other hand, staff functions mean actions taken to support the chief executive and the organisation to perform these functions.

(ii) The line functionaries form part of the chain of command. They issue orders to their subordinates and receive orders from their superiors. On the other hand, the staff functionaries only advise and advise the chief executive. They do not issue direct orders to the line functionaries. In the words of Alvin Brown “there are two modes in most organization: line which executes, and staff which plans and renders many other incidental services.”