

PERSPECTIVES ON PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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Reviewer

Dr. Saripalli V. Ravikiran

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- All units have been written afresh except unit-II.
- Corrections/Modifications/Suggestions proposed by Statutory Body, DU/ Stakeholder/s in the Self Learning Material (SLM) will be incorporated in the next edition. However, these corrections/modifications/suggestions will be uploaded on the website <https://sol.du.ac.in>. Any feedback or suggestions can be sent to the email- feedbackslm@col.du.ac.in



SYLLABUS

Perspectives on Public Administration

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Unit I: Public Administration as a Discipline

Lesson 1: Public Administration as a Discipline



LESSON 1

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AS A DISCIPLINE

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STRUCTURE

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1.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, students should be able to:

- Learn about the ancient roots of public administration
- Analyse theoretical journey of modern public administration
- Evaluate the principal of public administration

1.2 INTRODUCTION

In this lesson, we will examine the development of public administration as a topic of study throughout history and explain how various traditions have influenced it. In general, we have identified three traditions in the development of public administration: absolutist, liberal, and democratic, with less emphasis on elucidating the implications of empirical discoveries. We anticipate that the analyses will provide you a thorough understanding of the Public Administration theory and practise in this section. Such diversity resulted primarily from variations in the forces that shaped diverse societies at various times, in addition to variances in their cultures and levels of development. Prior to a discussion on the importance of public administration, we shall discuss the evolution of public administration in great detail.

The term “evolution” describes how things develop over time. Studying the past or history becomes even more important when the past, present, and future are viewed as a continuum. The past not only foreshadows the present but also acts as its structural foundation. According to the E.H. Carr, history is a never-ending conversation between the past and the present. In this way, studying history has value for today. In fact, it is essential for comprehending the subject’s current condition and the important difficulties therein, the origins of which may be discovered in the past. The adage “a phenomenon can be comprehended only



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in a historical context” is quite true. Once more, studying the many stages and customs in the history of public administration may aid in applying the “lessons” or signs of the past to the analysis of how the field is developing today. In general, the study accomplishes both theoretical and practical goals. From a theoretical perspective, it aids in placing the subject in a wider context, and from a practical perspective, it makes the knowledge more usable.

Public administration generally refers to the services provided by a government organisation to its constituents. It is the outcome of an evolutionary process that may be seen from two different angles: as a pursuit and as a topic for intellectual inquiry. The oldest cradles of civilisation, like Egypt, China, India, and Mesopotamia, may be identified as the origins of public administration as a distinct activity. Evidence in this approach includes China’s adoption of a system of public service recruitment through competitive examinations and Egypt’s development of a centralised bureaucratic administration structure. Greece’s city states, as well as the republics and kingdoms of India, developed in antiquity. Along with expanding its scope, democracy’s rise altered the administrative system’s very makeup. Resolution of problems that have emerged as a result of industrial revolution, made the organisation and methods of administration more complex.

Thereafter, the upheavals produced by World War I and II gave rise to challenges of reconstruction and rehabilitation and it became important for the administration to solve them. Also, the administration had to take corrective action due to the economic crisis, which included depression and inflation. The sphere of administrative activity widened as a result of all these advances, which required meddling in every aspect of society. It would be appropriate to highlight here that prior to World War I, the government was mostly national in its approach and then, with the developments of information, communication and technology, administration had much more international influence.



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1.3 ANCIENT ROOTS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: PERSPECTIVES FROM INDIA (KAUTILYA'S ARTHASHASTRA)

This section examines the foundational principles of public administration as outlined in Kautilya's Arthashastra, a seminal text in ancient Indian political thought. It explores early governance systems and the absolutist traditions that shaped the administration of the state, providing insights into how authority and power were organised and exercised to ensure stability and prosperity. By analysing these aspects, the section highlights the significant influence of ancient Indian ideas on the development of structured governance practices.

1.3.1 Early Systems

The history of public administration is lengthy. The Greeks and Egyptians structured public affairs by office in antiquity, and the chief officeholders were seen as being primarily in charge of dispensing justice, upholding law and order. Under their empire, the Romans created various administrative hierarchies for law, military affairs, finance and taxes, foreign affairs, and internal affairs, each with its own primary officers of state. This resulted in a more complex organisation. The Roman Empire was governed by a complex administrative system, which was later replicated by the Roman Catholic Church. A hierarchy of officers reported to the emperor through their superiors.

The Byzantine Empire in the east, where civil service authority was represented in the derogatory use of the epithet "Byzantinism," carried on many of its customs after the fall of the Western Roman Empire in the fifth century. The royal households of the Middle Ages gave rise to the early European governmental organisations. Official responsibilities within the royal households remained vague up until the end of the 12th century, with many people holding the same position frequently. The more clearly defined positions of butler (charged with providing wine), steward (charged with making arrangements for feasts), chamberlain (frequently tasked with receiving and disbursing money kept in the



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royal sleeping chamber), and chancellor (often a clergyman with duties) were exceptions.

Beginning in the 13th century, the royal household's essentially domestic duties and its state-related duties started to be divided. The traditional household positions frequently vanished, turned into sinecures, or lost significance. The genesis of the contemporary treasury or finance ministry can be linked to the chamberlain's office in the royal household because that position had always been involved with concerns of state and survived to become the most significant link between the old court offices and current ministries. In the middle of the 13th century, three institutions—the high court (which developed primarily from the chancellery), the exchequer, and the collegial royal council started to take centre stage as the principal entities for managing state affairs. Yet, the emergence of similar bodies in England and France did not occur until the first half of the fourteenth century. They didn't become separate political entities until the beginning of the 17th century in Brandenburg, which was presided over by an elector (a prince with the power to choose the Holy Roman emperor), and eventually served as the foundation for the Prussian state.

Modern ministerial structures in Europe emerged from the royal councils, strong groups of nobles chosen by the monarch. These councils, which were composed of powerful nobles, were established before the justice and treasury departments, which began in former court offices. The monarchs' secretaries, who were first accorded low status within a council, arose from the division of labour within these groups as perhaps the earliest modern-day professional civil servants in Europe. Compared to the more transient nobility on the council, the secretaries had a better understanding of the monarch's objectives and more experience with specific concerns of state due to their proximity to the monarch and relative stability. Staff members also helped them. Initially, geography was used to determine how secretaries would divide up their responsibilities. Up until 1782, when the positions of home and foreign secretary were established, England's regional allocation—with, for instance, a secretary of the North and a secretary of the South—persisted. At the conclusion of the ancient régime in

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1789, a more complicated division of territorial responsibilities among secretaries of state had started to give way to functional responsibilities.

China's civil service, which was developed under the Tang (618-907) and Song (960-1279) dynasties, was unquestionably the longest-lasting in history. It was initially created along with a centralised administration during the Han era (206 BCE-220 CE). The administrative structure was so effective that it persisted until 1912. The complete use of civil service exams evolved during the Song era. Three levels of written tests were used to successively exclude candidates, with more over a hundred people starting the process for each person who passed. The Chinese Classics were heavily emphasised since it was believed that they helped develop the virtues of a good citizen, but there was also an effort to create objective and meaningful assessments for practical skills.

1.3.2 Absolutist Traditions

The absolutist tradition, which predates the other liberal democratic traditions, will be discussed in this part. The absolutist tradition refers to administrative customs of absolute monarchical regimes, when all powers are vested in the monarch. Kautilya's Arthashastra, the ancient Indian work that focuses the most on public administration, is the earliest work on the subject. We focus on India in our discussion primarily for two reasons. The absolute administrative practises of other Asian societies are not well known. Also, the learners ought to be knowledgeable about their own customs in the area of public administration.

Tradition holds that Kautilya, often referred to as Chanakya and Vishnugupta, was the Prime Minister who established the Mauryan dynasty. One could think of Arthashastra, a work by Kautilya, as the Hindu equivalent of a textbook on political strategy. It deals primarily with statecraft, economic policy and military strategy. According to Kautilya, money is the lifeblood of government, and it plays a crucial role in all of its operations. As a result, his treatise approaches the issues of governance from the perspective of political economy.



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Kautilya highlights the significance of public administration. An administrator, in accordance with this theory, may only embrace the art of public administration if he is knowledgeable in the science of public. Thus, knowledge of the science of administration is required of the King, the Prince, the High Priest, and the ministers. He emphasised that the administration of the state is based on the concepts of authority and discipline. He believed that concepts like hierarchy, coordination, and the division of labour were crucial to the internal organisation process.

Moreover, Kautilya is possibly the first person to have considered the significance of statistics in administration. Kautilya undertook research and didn't just accept the status quo out of a sense of duty or tradition. The Vedas were considered to be the only source of law by early Hindus. Yet, Kautilya outlined four separate sources of law: sacred texts, Arthashastra regulations, conventions, and royal decrees. He views each of these as having more authority than the one before it. He makes it clear that the corporeal law should take precedence over the sacred law in cases where they contradict. The secular tenor of Arthashastra elevates politics over religion. Political issues do not supersede other considerations, according to Kautilya. The stability of the State, the King's position of authority, and his material riches should all be priorities for him. To achieve this, he even put forth a complex plan for hiring and educating spies. Some of Kautilya's ideas are referred to as Machiavellian. It's noteworthy that H.V.R. Iyengar made the observation that Kautilya "was honest and spoke clearly what currently is buried behind cloak of secret" in this context.

Kautilya's "Ideal State" was comparable to a contemporary welfare state run by an all-powerful individual who explicitly compelled the state to pay for the upkeep of minors, women, the elderly, the sick, and the disabled. For the advantage of the general populace, the State was tasked with assisting agricultural fields, utilising the wealth of the forests, and mining resources. The foundations of "Welfarism" may be found in Kautilya's Arthashastra, in fact. Kautilya favoured a monarchy-based strong central government. The origins and arrangements of authority in the two systems differ, as it was noted, so "the principles controlling the democratic administration are in many aspects different from the ideas



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underlying monarchical administration detailed in Arthashastra.” The king is at the centre of the administrative structure as it is described in Arthashastra. His directives are without question. His priorities come first. All institutions get their authority from him. As monarchies faded, various “traditions” developed to comprehend democratic states’ administrative structures. Be aware, though, that the public administration traditions created by are significant for emphasising the public and doing a thorough investigation of the art of governance.

1.4 MODERN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: AN OVERVIEW OF THEORETICAL JOURNEY

The origins of public administration as a distinct field of study can be seen in Woodrow Wilson’s 1887 article ‘The Study of Administration’. His essay represents the start of a thorough research of the area of public. Since then, the issue has been studied in stages, each stage being characterised by a distinct paradigmatic approach. In the broad paradigm of liberal democracy, seven phases are generally identified to comprehend the evolution of the topic. Let’s talk about each of them briefly.

1.4.1 Dichotomy: Wilsonian Approach

The founder of modern public administration, Woodrow Wilson, treated politics and administration as distinct processes and made an effort to conceptually separate the two fields of study. Another proponent of the dichotomy approach, Frank Gilbreth, made a similar attempt when he stated that “politics has to do with policies or representations of state while administration has to do the execution of these policies.” This contrast is drawn between formulating and implementing policies. Politics is seen to govern policymaking, whereas public administration governs its implementation, based on their institutional settings, politics and administration. The placement is associated with higher levels of government where major decisions regarding the allocation of values would be made. On the other hand, the site is associated with the executive branch of government—the



bureaucracy. It was stated that the administrative processes possess a certain regularity and concreteness that can be properly explored. Thus, it is feasible to create a science of administration.

1.4.2 Classical Approach

This is characterised by the propensity to develop a “Science of Management” and to strengthen the idea. The “Public” parts of public administration were essentially neglected, and efficiency and economy were the main priorities. The ‘value’ questions weren’t addressed considered crucial to the emerging field of administration. Politics was viewed as irrelevant as it was practised by politicians. Interest turned to scientific management in order to manage the “company” effectively. Principles were developed for use by practitioners of ready-made aids. The business schools and administrative practitioners collaborated to highlight the mechanical untouched by the political preferences and shortcomings of classical approach which focused just on the structures of the organisation.

1.4.3 Human Relations Approach

The experiments helped to establish the human relations approach to management as a movement. This method of analysis focused on the formation and impact of work groups in the formal setting, the phenomenon of leadership and conflicts, and the cooperation between individuals in the organisational setting. Its impact on the public was much more widespread in the post war period than before. In other words, human relations highlighted the significance of the social and workplace variables while highlighting the limitations of the notion in “Scientific Management.”

By bringing in, the psychologist increased the focus on humans. Further information regarding human sensitivity: It relates to (1) increased output or efficiency, and (2) increased happiness of the informal and increase their self-esteem. The propagators use this strategy for enhanced self-awareness. The human relations method has come under fire for its deceptive approach.



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The movement's purported goal is to manipulate people to increase productivity in organisations. It is also criticised for failing to consider the influence of the institutional and social system as an integral part of the organisation.

1.4.4 Behavioural Approach

Simon puts forward very different view of previous public administration. In public administration, it establishes scientific analysis. Some of the classical "Principles," in Simon's opinion, were "no more than proverbs" because they were not derived scientifically. In addition to rejecting the dichotomy, he introduced positivism to the study of policymaking and the relationship between means and aims. Administrative Behaviour argued in favour of the application of scientific principles in public administration, reflecting the viewpoints and methodology of behaviouralism in psychology and social psychology. The main emphasis is on "Any theory," as Simon pointed out, is engaged in decision-making. The core of administration is decision-making, and administrative philosophy must be formed from the logic and psychology of human choice."

Simon's method expanded the subject's horizons by connecting it to psychology, sociology, economics, and political science. He distinguished two streams of thought that were mutually helpful as the "discipline" evolved. One was focusing on creating a pure science of administration, which required a solid foundation in social psychology, while the other was creating a wide spectrum of values and formulating recommendations for public policy. Simon thought the second strategy was analytically broad. He was concerned that public administration may lose its identity in the second method since it would entail the absorption of all of political science, economics, and sociology. Yet, he supported their coexistence.

1.4.5 Development Approach

During the development of the Third World and growing acceptance of the majority of study-related theories, an approach to administration emerged. Robert Dahl once said, "The study of public administration inevitably must become a much more broadly based discipline, resting not on a narrowly defined knowledge



of techniques and processes but rather on the varied historical, sociological, and other conditioning factors.” This idea has been taken up as a challenge, and efforts have been made in the study of public administration in the developing countries in an effort to “establishing about administrative behaviour that transcends the traditional boundaries of the profession.”

Development administration and comparative public administration are the results of efforts.

1.4.6 Public Policy Approach

Public policy has become more important as a result of social anxiety over social engineering. Perspective has also influenced the study of public administration. The public policy method is compatible with administrative analysis because the politics-administration distinction has been abandoned. The requirements for an intimate relationship between politics and administration were revealed by the real world. The promotion of policy research is gaining traction as governments attempt to adopt more and more welfare programs. At present, there is no doubt that the study of public administration is becoming more and more relevant, although its methods as a study are no longer as common as they once were in the administration dichotomy. According to several public administration specialists, discipline has improved but is currently experiencing an identity crisis.

1.4.7 Political Economy Approach

The political approach to the understanding of administrative issues is what administration study is all about. This is connected to the proximity of political science and economics in terms of improved theoretical clarity and policy direction. By experimenting with the application of economic ideas and models to political concerns, economists like Anthony Downs and Gordon have crossed the line. As a result, administration, a subfield of political science, has evolved towards collaborating with economics. The growth of public administration as outlined above demonstrates how, after beginning with an assertion of identity, it has progressed towards assimilating concepts, methodologies, and approaches from many social science disciplines.



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In-Text Questions-1

A. Fill in the blanks:

1. The history of public administration includes early systems developed by the Greeks, Egyptians, and _____.
2. Kautilya's Arthashastra highlights the importance of _____ in governance and state administration.
3. In ancient China, the civil service system was developed during the _____ and _____ dynasties.
4. The dichotomy approach, proposed by Woodrow Wilson, separates _____ from administration.
5. Simon's behavioral approach connects public administration with disciplines like psychology and _____.

B. State True or False:

1. The Roman Catholic Church adopted the administrative system of the Roman Empire.
2. The absolutist tradition emphasises a decentralized form of governance.
3. The Chinese civil service system continued until the end of the Han dynasty.
4. Kautilya's Arthashastra integrates political economy with governance practices.
5. The classical approach to public administration prioritised political values over efficiency.

1.5 PRINCIPLES OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The study and practice of public administration were primarily pragmatic and normative throughout the 20th century rather than theoretical and value-free. This may help to explain why, in contrast to several social sciences, public administration emerged without much concern for an all-encompassing theory. There wasn't much interest in the theory of public administration until the middle



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of the 20th century and the spread of Max Weber's theory of bureaucracy. Yet, the majority of following bureaucratic thought was focused on the private sector, and nothing was done to link organisational to political philosophy.

Economy and efficiency—or the delivery of public services at the lowest possible cost—have long been regarded as important principles in public administration. Administrative reform has typically had this as its professed goal. Efficiency is a key objective despite growing concern over other types of values, such as being responsive to public needs, pursuing justice and fair treatment, and involving citizens in political decision-making. Public administration has long concentrated on issues of formal structure in its preoccupation with efficiency and progress. Reorganisation is usually believed to be able to at least partially fix administrative problems. Several organisational principles came from the military, while others came from private industry. They include, for instance, grouping similar activities into a single unit, equating responsibility with authority, ensuring unity of command (only one supervisor for each group of employees), limiting the number of subordinates reporting to a single supervisor, and distinguishing between line (operating or end-purpose) activities and staff (advisory, consultative, etc.) activities.

These and other public administration principles, according to some detractors, are only valuable as broad guidelines for specific organisational contexts. They hold that organisational issues vary, as does how rules should be applied in diverse circumstances. Nonetheless, despite considerably more in-depth investigations of organisational behaviour in succeeding decades, the aforementioned ideas are still relevant today.

The stress of public administration has also been placed on employees. Civil service reform has been a part of administrative reform in the majority of nations. The trend historically has been towards “meritocracy”—the best candidate for each position, competitive entrance exams, and selection and promotion based only on merit. The consideration of elements other than academic excellence, such as individual attitudes, motivations, personalities, interpersonal interactions, and collective bargaining, has grown. The budget has also evolved into a key

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tool for setting priorities, managing ongoing projects, coordinating the work of the administration and the legislature, and establishing control and responsibility. The battle for budgetary supremacy was sometimes the main point of contact between monarchs and subjects, starting centuries ago, particularly in the West. Britain invented the present executive budget system in the 19th century, where the executive makes recommendations, the legislative approves funding, and the executive monitors expenditures. The budget evolved as the main tool for legislative oversight of administration, executive control over departments, and departmental management over auxiliary programs in the United States during the 20th century. It has taken on a comparable role in many of the world's emerging nations.

1.6 CURRENT INTERPRETATIONS

The aforementioned classical approach to public administration likely reached its pinnacle development in the United States during the 1930s, but since then, through educational and training initiatives, technical support, and the efforts of international organisations, it has also spread to many other nations and become accepted doctrine. Governments with a British or continental-legal viewpoint have rejected some of its features, and even during the 1930s, it was under attack from a number of directions. Since then, the field has been extensively studied. The orthodox concept was based on the idea that administration was only the execution of other people's public ideas. This point of view holds that administrators should aim for maximum effectiveness while being impartial in regards to beliefs and objectives.

However, it became increasingly clear during the Great Depression of the 1930s and even more so during World War II that many new policies originated within the administration, that most significant administrative decisions contained implicit policy and value judgements, that many administrative officials worked exclusively on policy, and that, to the extent that public policies were contentious, such work invariably involved administrators in politics. It was believed that administration's purported separation from politics and policy was false. Hence,



there has been growing concern since the 1930s. Although many people believe the idea of a value-free, impartial government is unworkable today, no truly adequate alternative has been presented. Particularly in democratic governments, how to ensure that professional administrators make accountable and responsive policy decisions and how to coordinate their work with the policies of politically elected or appointive officials continue to be major concerns.

New informational technologies, such as national income accounting and the monitoring of gross national product as a key indicator of economic health, were adopted with government efforts to counteract the depression. The applied methods of fiscal and monetary policy are now recognised as public administration specialty. Most governments employ economists in crucial positions, and many other administrators are required to have a basic understanding of how government actions affect the economy. The United States, Great Britain, France, Sweden, and other Scandinavian countries were among the pioneers in the development of economic planning methods. In many developing nations, this kind of planning now dominates public administration.

1.7 THEORISING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The New Public Management initiative (NPM) was the first wave of public-sector reform. It was influenced by concepts from public choice theory and neoliberalism. NPM initially expanded throughout industrialised, Anglo-Saxon states. Subsequently, it extended to developing and post-transitional states as well as through much of Europe—though France, Germany, and Spain are frequently considered as staying largely unscathed by it. Fiscal crises in industrialised nations provided the motivation for NPM. As state income was reduced by the oil crisis and public spending as a percentage of GDP increased due to the development of welfare services, talk of an overburdened state increased. The end result was a cost-cutting drive. NPM was one suggestion made. The driving force behind NPM in developing and transitioning governments were primarily external factors, particularly plans formulated by the government with structural adjustment.



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Marketisation and corporate management make up the two key components of NPM. Privatisation is the most extreme example of marketisation. Assets are transferred from the government to the private sector through privatisation. Floating them on the stock exchange allowed certain states to sell different nationalised industries. Some state-owned businesses, like management buyouts, sold their stock to the employees. Others were sold to specific businesses or groups of businesses. Railways, electricity, water, waste services, and telecommunications were among the sectors that saw significant privatisations. Lesser privatisations included hotels, parking lots, and convention centres; both local governments and central states were equally inclined to sell these assets.

Privatisation is still a very uncommon kind of marketisation. These additional methods often use contracting out, quasi-markets, and consumer choice to incorporate incentive structures into the delivery of public services. Public services are being “marketised” in an effort to increase their effectiveness and accountability to the public, who now have more options for service providers. Contracting out, internal markets, management contracts, and market testing are a few prominent forms of marketisation. Contracting out, commonly referred as outsourcing, entails the state entering into a competitive agreement with a private firm to deliver a service. The private entity may be for-profit or nonprofit; occasionally, it is a business quickly established by persons who previously rendered the service as employees of the public sector. When departments are able to buy support services, internal marketplaces develop. The operation of a facility, such as an airport or convention centre, is transferred to a private corporation under the terms of a management contract. Market testing, often referred to as managed competition, takes place when the rules controlling the provision of a service are chosen through competitive bidding against other private-sector providers of the same service.

Conclusion

To conclude this lesson, we can say that marketisation, service orientation and clientele are the key components that have emerged out of the New Public Management. Supporters have provided their own ways of explanation for the said purposes. The focus of NPM is only on providing high quality services rather



than providing effective alternate policies. They believe that if policy makers are not concerned with different kind of service providers then they have to pay more attention to needs of the clientele.

In-Text Questions-2

A. Fill in the blanks:

1. Public administration in the 20th century was primarily _____ and normative.
2. Max Weber's theory of _____ influenced the field of public administration.
3. Efficiency in public administration aims for delivery of services at the _____ possible cost.
4. The concept of _____ was challenged as administrators became more involved in policy-making.
5. _____ is the transfer of government assets to the private sector.

B. State True or False:

1. Public administration was primarily theoretical and value-free throughout the 20th century.
2. Max Weber's influence on public administration was limited to the private sector.
3. Efficiency remains the sole objective in public administration despite other emerging values.
4. Marketization aims to decrease public accountability by removing consumer choices.
5. The concept of value-free administration remains widely accepted today.

1.8 SUMMARY

- The lesson highlights the foundational principles of public administration from Kautilya's Arthashastra, focusing on early governance systems and the absolutist traditions that influenced state administration.



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- It provides historical context on how public administration evolved, beginning with ancient Greek, Egyptian, and Roman systems where chief officeholders managed justice, law, and order, and resource allocation.
- The Roman Empire developed a hierarchical administrative system, later adopted by the Roman Catholic Church, and further evolved in the Byzantine Empire with distinct civil service authority.
- In medieval Europe, royal households formed the basis of early government organizations, with roles such as butler, steward, chamberlain, and chancellor, gradually becoming distinct and evolving into modern finance ministries and state institutions by the 13th century.
- The Chinese civil service, developed under the Tang and Song dynasties, became one of the long-lasting administrative systems, using civil service exams to select candidates and emphasizing virtues from the Chinese Classics.
- The absolutist tradition emphasized centralized power, as seen in Kautilya's work, which presented governance as rooted in political economy and focused on the welfare state model.
- Kautilya introduced concepts like the division of labor, coordination, hierarchy, and the importance of statistics in administration, advocating for the king's authority in decision-making and prioritising state stability.
- The influence of Kautilya's Arthashastra extended beyond ancient India, offering insights into monarchical administration and welfare principles comparable to those in modern states.
- The dichotomy approach in public administration separates politics from administration, tracing its origins to Woodrow Wilson, who emphasised the distinct nature of each.
- The classical approach highlighted efficiency and management but neglected political aspects, while the human relations approach focused on social factors and workplace dynamics.



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- The behavioural approach, led by Simon, emphasized decision-making and scientific analysis in public administration, integrating psychology, sociology, and other disciplines.
- Development and public policy approaches emerged, particularly in developing countries, emphasising the broad and interdisciplinary nature of public administration.
- Public administration in the 20th century was pragmatic and normative, focusing on economy and efficiency rather than theoretical models.
- Max Weber's theory of bureaucracy influenced public administration, yet it primarily impacted private sector thought.
- Efficiency and cost-effective service delivery remain key goals in public administration, despite the rise of values such as public responsiveness, justice, and citizen involvement.
- Organisational principles were derived from the military and private industry, emphasising unity of command, limited subordinates per supervisor, and the distinction between line and staff roles.
- Critics argue these principles should be adaptable to different organisational contexts as situations vary.
- Employee focus and civil service reform have aimed to establish meritocracy, with recruitment and promotion based on competitive exams and merit.
- Budgets are essential for managing administrative functions and balancing the work between the administration and the legislature.
- In the United States, the budget evolved as a tool for executive and legislative oversight during the 20th century and has influenced emerging nations.
- The classical approach to public administration peaked in the 1930s in the United States and spread globally through training programs and international organisations.



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- Administrators are increasingly involved in policy-making, and the idea of a value-free, neutral administration has been challenged since the 1930s.
- New Public Management (NPM), driven by fiscal crises, was the first wave of public sector reform, emphasising marketisation and corporate management principles.
- NPM promotes privatisation, contracting out services, internal markets, and managed competition to enhance efficiency and accountability.
- Privatisation transfers government assets to the private sector, affecting industries such as railways, electricity, and telecommunications.
- Marketisation introduces incentive structures in public services, allowing consumer choice and competitive service delivery.

1.9 GLOSSARY

- **Public Administration:** The implementation of government policies and the management of public affairs.
- **Byzantinism:** A term referring to the complex and hierarchical administrative structure of the Byzantine Empire.
- **Bureaucracy:** An organisational system governed by rules, hierarchical structure, and standardized procedures.
- **Meritocracy:** A system where individuals are selected and promoted based on ability and merit rather than other factors.
- **Privatisation:** The transfer of ownership of services or assets from the public sector to private companies.
- **Marketisation:** The introduction of market-like competition and incentives within public services to increase efficiency.
- **New Public Management (NPM):** An approach to public sector reform emphasizing efficiency, privatization, and market-driven principles.



1.10 ANSWERS TO IN-TEXT QUESTIONS

In-text Questions-1

- A.** 1. Romans
2. statistics
3. Tang, Song
4. politics
5. sociology

- B.** 1. True
2. False
3. False
4. True
5. False

In-text Questions-2

- A.** 1. pragmatic
2. bureaucracy
3. lowest
4. value-free administration
5. Privatization

- B.** 1. False
2. True
3. False
4. False
5. False



NOTES

1.11 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain the Ancient roots of Public Administration.
2. Describe the overview of the theoretical Journey of Modern Public Administration.
3. Critically examine the Principles of Public Administration.

1.12 REFERENCES/SUGGESTED READINGS

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Unit-II: Mainstream/Traditional Theoretical Perspectives

Lesson 2 Scientific Management (F.W. Taylor)

Lesson 3 Ideal-Type Bureaucracy (Max Weber)

Lesson 4 Human Relations Theory (Elton Mayo)

Lesson 5 Rational Decision-Making (Herbert Simon)

Lesson 6 Ecological Approach (Fred Riggs)



LESSON 2

SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT (F.W. TAYLOR)

NOTES

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STRUCTURE

- 2.1 Learning Objectives
- 2.2 Introduction
- 2.3 F.W. Taylor: His Books and Methods
- 2.4 Scientific Management Approach
- 2.5 Principles of Scientific Management: F. W. Taylor
 - 2.5.1 Science of Work and its Development
 - 2.5.2 Scientific Selection and Development of Workmen
 - 2.5.3 Combining Science of Work and Scientifically Selected Workers
 - 2.5.4 Workers and Management: Division of Responsibility
- 2.6 Scientific Management Movement
- 2.7 Criticism and Disagreement
- 2.8 Summary
- 2.9 Glossary
- 2.10 Answers to In-Text Questions
- 2.11 Self-Assessment Questions
- 2.12 References/Suggested Readings

2.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, students should be able to:

- Understand traditional and theoretical perspectives of public administration.
- Learn about F.W. Taylor's scientific management theory.



NOTES

2.2 INTRODUCTION

Scientific management approach is of vital significance in administrative management. This approach evolved during the later nineteenth century. Scientific management approach takes care of complex situation emerging due to mechanical advancements. Frederick Winslow Taylor is viewed as one of the forerunner of the scientific management, who cleared path for further research. F.W. Taylor was brought into the world in a German town on March 20, 1856. He got his experience in two European states. As an architect, he was involved in the improvement of many innovations, he concocted a few devices to build the creation. A portion of the significant instruments he created were cutting apparatus, a warmth treating device, a steel hammer, water driven force stacking hardware, exhausting and turning factories and so forth. He was constantly keen on enhancing the methods of the board. He underscored on the logical method of building up the apparatuses just as logical method of playing out the work. He has energy for proficiency and logical method of work in the associations. From USA, it spread to other countries including former USSR, where it took shape as Stakhanovite Movement during 1920-1940.

According to Taylor, “the same principles can be applied with equal force to all social activities: to the management of our home: the management of our farms: the management of the business of our tradesmen, large and small of our churches, our philanthropic institutions, our universities and our governmental departments.”

2.3 F.W. TAYLOR: HIS BOOKS AND METHODS

Taylor’s theory of Scientific Management is first of its kind where he has highlighted the issues of economy, efficiency and effectiveness. His major thrust was at improving the productivity in the organisation. Some of the significant works of Taylor reflects in his earlier writing and other issues which he has highlighted.



The vital observation of Taylor on Scientific Administration methodology are included in his major works in which he has specified following assumptions:

1. There should be standard time to finish any particular work.
2. Differential piece wage rate system.
3. Right men at right place.

Taylor also made certain assumptions in his theory of Scientific Management which are as follows:

1. Taylor laid emphasis that the functioning of any organisation can be improved with the application of Science;
2. A good worker accepts the directive from the management;
3. Man is motivated by monetary factors.

Taylor's stay in an organisation, his perception and investigation of various tasks in various manufacturing plants brought into his notice the imperfections in their administration. These were: absence of lucidity of obligations by labourers and administrations, absence of norms of work, limited yield due to welding of work, absence of occupation clearness which advances fastening of work, absence of logical base for choices, absence of division of work, and arrangement of labourers at various positions without thinking about their capacity, abilities and inclination.

Taylor depends on broad examination of investigations spread over long 26 years. He examined instruments for cutting of steel, contemplated movement and observed how workers handle materials, machines and apparatuses while on work. Taylor found out the most ideal approach in accomplishing various tasks. He came to the conclusion that right persons should be selected for various tasks. During his experiments in the industrial organisations, Taylor came across a soldiering phenomenon, which is a tendency on the part of workers to restrict the output. He classified this phenomenon into two kinds; natural soldiering and systematic soldiering. The former is the result of personal factors like habit to take it easy, not to over exert and so on, while the latter is the result of organisational



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and social factors. He observed that workers practice systematic soldiering to meet the expectation of supervisor at lower levels. He felt that the fundamental way of increasing efficiency of organisation lies in the reduction of soldiering through scientific techniques.

2.4 SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT APPROACH

As referenced over, the scientific administration approach created in the beginning stages of mechanical transformation. It attempted to address a portion of the issues of modern culture. The fundamental worries of mechanical community were to mend productivity, lessen expenses of creation to reap the benefits. This can be done by two long methods. So, it is identified with humanising the innovation thus leading to effective administration of labourers. The other is with development of new market. Taylor, though this Scientific Management method attempted to link it with contemporary culture. Henceforth, it is stressed on scientific methods on getting things done and overseeing associations.

2.5 PRINCIPLES OF SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT: F. W. TAYLOR

Taylor in his theory of Scientific Management laid four principles which he regarded as crucial for increasing the productivity within any organisation. These are as follows:

1. Develop scientific approach in various management tasks.
2. The rigorous assortment of workforce and their continuous training.
3. Combination of scientific approach and rationally chosen workforce.
4. Fixing the obligations of the employer and employees.



2.5.1 Science of Work and Its Development

Taylor observed that scientific approach is a must in dealing with workforce. He believed that systematic observation is helpful in finding out the most appropriate way of doing a job. He attempted to replace the old thumb rule method. This needed gathering, recording and tabulating various work experiences and finally formulating rules based on them. These rules are to be applied in actual work situations. This will ensure diminishing unnecessary criticism of the supervisor.

2.5.2 Scientific Selection and Development of Workmen

There should be scientific approach in selection of work force and continuous development of work culture. Taylor believed that each worker has his/her potential for growth. There must be systematic training. Scientific approach implies that right person should be selected for the right job. Proper environment should be created so that workers accept the new methods, tools and conditions enthusiastically. Opportunities should be created for workers to develop their new capabilities to the fullest extent.

2.5.3 Combining Science of Work and Scientifically Selected Workers

The third principle of Taylor's Scientific Management is about the combination of first and second principles. Thus he emphasised on bringing together and science of work with the scientific selection and development of work force. This provides the firm basis to his idea of Scientific Management.

2.5.4 Workers and Management: Division of Responsibility

Taylor emphasised on a conducive atmosphere of shared responsibility by the proper division of work between the employer and workers. In the prevalent practice, workers were always blamed for occurrence of any problem in the organisation. Hence, Taylor preferred an equal division of responsibility between the two which can prevent one section to be overburdened. Such sharing of responsibility is important for creating a stress free environment for workers in an organisation.



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2.6 SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT MOVEMENT

The very first person to talk about Scientific Management in 1910 was Louis Brandies.

Taylor stressed on the universal applicability of his principles of Scientific Management. He felt that his work covered the whole sphere of commercial management. Techniques developed by Taylor were termed as Task System or Task Management. His ideas were developed extensively by his peer group members including Henry Grantt, Frank Gilbreth and Lillian Gillberth etc.

Thus, scientific management became a ‘movement’ in itself and left a mark as the first systematic theory of the organisation. It gave a solution to many industrial organisations around the world through utilisation of scientific and objective principles. Post 1917, after the Bolshevik Revolution, Lenin introduced Taylor’s techniques in Russia. This system is viewed as “a combination of subtle brutality of bourgeois exploitation and variety of its greatest scientific achievements”. Taylor’s ideas and techniques gathered momentum and support all across Russia and the Communist Party fully supported the rational movement. Besides, Taylor’s ideas were introduced in the curriculum for education and training of engineers for further dissemination of his work.

Reinhard Bendix, in his book ‘*Work and Authority in Industry*,’ said that “by maximising the productive efficiency of each worker, scientific management would also maximise the earning of workers and employers. Hence, all conflicts between capital and labour would be resolved by finding science.”

2.7 CRITICISM AND DISAGREEMENT

Scientific Management, is criticized on following grounds:

1. It only focusses on the lower level of the organisation and entirely neglects the issues pertaining at the higher apex of the organisation. Thus, this



- approach neglects one set of factors in an organisation which is important for its functioning.
2. The Scientific Theory of Management neglects the human side of the organisation. It focuses too much on the formal structure of the organisation and neglected the informal side of it which is also an important aspect of organisation setup. It tends to treat workers as machines. Social and psychological factors also play their own roles in work management. The Scientific Management Theory does not focus on these vital aspects.
 3. Many scholars have criticised Scientific Management as it has simplified the concept of human motivation. Taylor has laid more emphasis on the monetary factors than the social and psychological factors. The Hawthorne experiments revealed that set of factors that are responsible for the healthy functioning of the organisation can be different from the monetary factors.
 4. Taylorism received great opposition from trade unions as the concept of mental revolution calls out for a cooperative relation between the two which makes the role of trade unions as irrelevant but this was not entirely true.
 5. It was opposed by managerial group as managers were losing out on their discretion and they were being asked to share their responsibilities. Professor Robert Hoxie put forward his strong opposition to Taylor by arguing that Scientific Management only focused on mechanistic facts and neglected the social and psychological facts and orientation.

Conclusion

Taylor's theory of Scientific Management apart from being the first coherent theory, also offered solutions to the problems of industrial organisations. The benefits received from Taylorism are huge and it also helped many organisations to overcome its issues of productivity. Taylor was the first administrative thinker to firmly rely on the principle of science and one best way of doing things. Taylor believed that these principles have universal application and can be applied to all organisations irrespective of its nature. His theory of Scientific Management focused on the problems of workers. Taylor's concept of differential piece



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wage rate system, mental revolution, propagation of science of work, economy, effectiveness and efficiency makes his theory of Scientific Management different from other classical theories.

In-Text Questions

A. Fill in the blanks:

1. Taylor's theory of Scientific Management focuses on improving _____ in organisations.
2. Taylor emphasised the use of _____ to improve organizational functioning.
3. The phenomenon where workers deliberately limit their output is called _____.
4. Taylor's principles include developing a scientific approach and rigorous _____ of the workforce.
5. Taylor's method of paying workers based on output is known as _____.
6. Reinhard Bendix mentioned that Scientific Management maximizes efficiency and resolves conflicts between _____ and labor.
7. Taylorism faced criticism for focusing too much on _____ factors and neglecting social and psychological aspects.

B. State True or False:

1. Taylor's Scientific Management theory emphasises informal structures within organizations.
2. Taylor believed that workers are primarily motivated by monetary incentives.
3. Taylor's observations were based on 10 years of study in various manufacturing plants.
4. Systematic soldiering occurs due to organisational and social factors.
5. Scientific Management received strong support from trade unions for its cooperative approach.
6. Taylor's methods were not adopted outside the United States.
7. Taylorism is criticised for focusing mainly on the lower levels of an organisation.



2.8 SUMMARY

- Taylor's theory of Scientific Management focuses on economy, efficiency, and effectiveness to enhance productivity in organizations.
- He highlighted key principles, including standard time for tasks, differential piece wage rates, and the importance of placing the right person in the right role.
- Taylor believed science could improve organizational functioning, emphasizing that workers are motivated by monetary incentives.
- His observations in manufacturing revealed issues like unclear duties, lack of work standards, and improper job assignments.
- Taylor conducted extensive studies over 26 years, analyzing work processes and introducing the concept of 'soldiering,' where workers limit output due to personal or organizational factors.
- He aimed to reduce soldiering using scientific techniques, emphasizing systematic observation and data-based rule formulation.
- Taylor's principles for Scientific Management include scientific task development, rigorous worker selection and training, integration of science and workforce, and shared responsibility between employers and employees.
- He advocated for a structured approach, moving away from traditional methods and creating environments conducive to worker development.
- Taylor's theories became widely influential, extending to global applications, including in Russia post-1917, where they were integrated into engineering education.
- Reinhard Bendix noted that Taylor's methods could resolve labor conflicts by maximizing efficiency and earnings for both workers and employers.



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- Criticisms of Scientific Management include its focus on lower organizational levels, neglect of human and psychological aspects, and an overemphasis on monetary motivation.
- Trade unions and managers opposed Taylorism, arguing it diminished the roles of unions and management discretion.

2.9 GLOSSARY

- **Scientific Management:** A management theory that emphasizes using scientific methods to determine the most efficient ways of working and improving productivity.
- **Soldiering:** The deliberate restriction of output by workers, categorized by Taylor into natural and systematic soldiering based on personal or organizational factors.
- **Differential Piece Wage Rate:** A pay system where workers receive different wages based on the amount of work completed.
- **Task System/Task Management:** Techniques developed by Taylor to organize work based on specific tasks and scientific principles.
- **Mental Revolution:** A cooperative relationship between workers and management advocated by Taylor to improve organizational efficiency.

2.10 ANSWERS TO IN-TEXT QUESTIONS

- A. 1. productivity
2. science
3. soldiering
4. selection



5. differential piece wage rate

6. capital

7. monetary

B. 1. False

2. True

3. False

4. True

5. False

6. False

7. True

2.11 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain the traditional and theoretical perspectives of public administration.
2. Critically analyse the scientific management approach of public administration.
3. Describe about scientific management movement in public administration.

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LESSON 3

NOTES

IDEAL-TYPE BUREAUCRACY (MAX WEBER)

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STRUCTURE

- 3.1 Learning Objectives
- 3.2 Introduction
- 3.3 Max Weber: His Life and Writings
- 3.4 Bureaucracy: Meaning
- 3.5 Max Weber on Authority
- 3.6 Types of Authority
- 3.7 Max Weber: The Concept of Bureaucracy
- 3.8 Max Weber: Characteristics of Bureaucracy
- 3.9 Max Weber: Limits on Bureaucracy
- 3.10 Max Weber's Bureaucracy: Criticism
- 3.11 Summary
- 3.12 Glossary
- 3.13 Answers to In-Text Questions
- 3.14 Self-Assessment Questions
- 3.15 References/Suggested Readings

3.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, students should be able to:

- Understand the meaning and evolution of bureaucracy.
- Evaluate Max Weber's theory of bureaucracy.
- Analyse the characteristics and limits of bureaucracy.



NOTES

3.2 INTRODUCTION

The German sociologist Max Weber's thoughts have influenced generations of scholars on bureaucracy and formal organisation. He occupies a central position in the bureaucratic model and tries to study it in a theoretical framework. He was the first one to use and describe the term bureaucracy. It is also called the bureaucratic theory of management or the Max Weber's theory. His formulation deserves careful analysis as his writings covered a wide range of subjects including economics, sociology and administration. He also outlined the impact of religion on the growth of capitalism and his thoughts are the larger considerations of socio-economic and historical forces that led to the growth of complex organisations. His thoughts represent the macro view of all these aspects. Weber believed that bureaucracy helps in administering and establishing the organisation in the most efficient manner.

3.3 MAX WEBER: HIS LIFE AND WRITINGS

Max Weber (1864-1920) was born in a business family involved in textile manufacturing in western Germany. He studied law from the University of Heidelberg after completing his preliminary schooling in 1882. He completed his doctorate and worked as an instructor in University of Berlin and wrote number of papers on law highlighting the social, political and economic factors. In his writings, Weber's main focus was on analytical and systematic study, he always preferred to gain knowledge through practical experience as he was of progressive outlook. His major writings include 'The Theory of Economic and Social Organizations', 'General Economic History' and 'Protestant Ethic and Spirit of Capitalism'.



3.4 BUREAUCRACY: MEANING

Bureaucracy simply means ‘Desk Government’. Vincent De Gourney, a French national was the first one who coined the term ‘bureaucracy’ in 1745. After him, several French writers were involved in popularising the word bureaucracy but as a term it was used in the 19th century. The famous economist J.S. Mill and the sociologists like Mosca and Michels extensively wrote on bureaucracy. For Weber, bureaucracy is an “administrative body of officials”, who all are needed to bring out the efficiency in the organisations. In his opinion, there is a lot of economic competition in the modern era, due to which capitalist organisations required a highly efficient kind of organisation system. The bureaucratic principles gave a scope to the organisation to go ahead with economic planning and maintain the stability in the market. Weber observes, “The capitalist system has undeniably played a major role in the development of bureaucracy. Indeed, without it, capitalist production could not continue...Its development, largely under capitalistic auspices, has created an urgent need for stable, strict, intensive and calculable administration.” (Weber, 1953, p. 48) He further said that “capitalism is the most rational economic basis for bureaucratic administration and enables it to develop in the most rational form, especially because, from a fiscal point of view, it supplies the necessary money resources”. (Weber, 1953, p 48)

3.5 MAX WEBER ON AUTHORITY

Weber tried to explain bureaucracy as a sociological phenomenon; where theory of domination can be understood in general context. Domination basically refers to a power relationship that is authoritarian power of command between the rulers and the ruled. But power is accepted, only when if it is justified and legitimate. Authority legitimises the exercise of power, where a person willingly complies



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with commands or orders; and on the basis of this belief, Weber identified three types of legitimation, and each correspond to a particular type of authority.

3.6 TYPES OF AUTHORITY

- i) Charismatic authority
 - ii) Traditional authority
 - iii) Legal-Rational authority
- i) Charismatic Authority:** The term charisma can be defined as ‘gift of grace’. The charismatic leader holds some personal qualities which makes him different from the common men. He may be a hero, *masiha* or a prophet and by virtue of his magical powers, he has a wide acceptance which forms the basis of legitimate system. People follow his commands or orders without questioning him, they believe in his extraordinary capabilities. The disciples of the charismatic leader have full devotion in him; however they don’t have any special qualification or status. The administrative apparatus in this type of authority is unstable and is very loose as the disciples work in accordance to the likes and dislikes of the leader.
- ii) Traditional Authority:** It derives its legitimacy from the goodness of the past where actions are based on customs and traditions. Individuals who exercise this authority are referred as masters and those who obey the masters are called followers. The master has the authority by virtue of his status which he inherited from the previous rulers; and his commands are obeyed by the followers who have personal loyalty towards him and faith in traditional status including household officials, relatives and personal choices of masters.
- iii) Legal Rational Authority:** Under legal rational authority, rules are applied judiciously and are applicable on all the members of the organisation. In modern society, this authority plays a dominant role. It is legal as it is based on systematic rules and procedures and it is rational because it is



well defined and more in accordance to proper channel to achieve an end. The members who exercise this authority are referred as superiors, who follow an impersonal order; and others include the administrative staff who obey the laws. Strict adherence to rules and procedures delimit the authority of the superiors.

3.7 MAX WEBER: THE CONCEPT OF BUREAUCRACY

For Weber, in the administrative staff the appointed officials are referred as bureaucracy. Bureaucracy explicitly includes the appointed officials and elected representative have no role to play in it. Weber considers that legal rational authority which is based on rules, norms and procedures holds a predominant position in bureaucracy. For Weber: “Bureaucratic administration means domination by the force of knowing: that is its fundamental character, specifically rational” (Cruz, 1995, 689).

“The development of the modern form of organisation concurs in all sectors with the development and continuous expansion of bureaucratic administration [...] Because the bureaucratic administration is always observed under equal conditions and from a formal and technical perspective, the most rational type [...] The main source of the superiority of bureaucratic administration lies in the role of technical knowledge, which, through the development of modern technology and economic methods in goods’ production, has become absolutely indispensable [...] Bureaucratic administration fundamentally means the exercise of domination based on knowledge. This is the trait that makes it specifically rational. It consists, on the one hand, of technical knowledge, which is, *per se*, sufficient to ensure a position of extraordinary power for bureaucracy. On the other hand, it should be considered that bureaucratic organisations, or those in power who use it, tend to become even more powerful by the knowledge that comes from the practice that they attain in the function.” (Weber, 1966, pp. 24-26)



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The bureaucracy presented by Weber is an ideal or a mental map of a fully developed bureaucracy, which means that it is an abstract and cannot be found in reality. This ideal type model of Weber is based on the studies of ancient bureaucracies of Egypt, Rome, China and Byzantine Empire. It was also influenced by the modern emerging trends of bureaucracy in Europe during the 19th and early 20th century. He believed that in modern state system, the ideal type of bureaucracy should be followed which is based on the rationalisation of collective activities and assures the predictability of the behaviour of employees.

According to Weber, “Bureaucracy is by far the most efficient instrument of large-scale administration which has ever been developed and the modern social order has become overwhelming dependent on it... this type of organisation is in principle applicable with equal facility to a wide variety of different fields. It may be applied in profit making business or in charitable organisations, or in any number of other types of private enterprises serving ideal or material ends. It is equally applicable to political and to religious organisations with varying degrees of approximation to a pure type; its historical existence can be demonstrated in all these fields.” (Weber, 1946, pp. 329-340)

3.8 MAX WEBER: CHARACTERISTICS OF BUREAUCRACY

According to Weber, the bureaucratic rationality in organisation consists of following main characteristics as depicted in figure 3.1 also:

- 1) **Division of work with high specialisation:** The task of the organisation should be divided on the basis of number of specialised function. Every employee is specialised and efficient in one type of job. This ensures increased productivity and efficiency of the organisation as a whole.
- 2) **Functions defined by law (formalised written rules and regulations):** Bureaucracy operates in accordance to complete strict adherence to formal rules. These written formal rules and regulations have been stressed by Weber so that personal favours, arbitrariness, or gratitude may not infringe



the working of the organisation; and the conduct of the organisation is based on the defined technical rules or norms.

- 3) Hierarchy of authority (Observance of legitimate order):** Hierarchy holds an important position in rational type of bureaucracy. The concept of hierarchy holds lot of importance as administrative system is heavily structured in subordinate services and management positions. Each lower office is under the control and supervision of higher one. This system offers the governed to appeal to the higher authority against the decision of the lower authority in a regulated manner.
- 4) Assessment and selection of employees for their technical competence:** The employee is appointed on the basis of free and fair selection and this selection is based on tenders, exams and diplomas which also requires special training programs for the candidates. The assessment is based purely on the capabilities and performance of the candidates.
- 5) Formal social relationship according to the position held:** The concept of impersonality should be followed in bureaucratic form of organisation. The relationship is based on formal social aspect and not on irrational sentiments; there is no space for personal likes and dislikes. The commands of the superior to the subordinate are based on impersonal order.
- 6) Employees' regular wage:** The employee wage is in the form of the fixed salaries which are given in accordance to the nature of the job and responsibility. The salaries are given according to the internal hierarchy of the organisation; moreover, there are chances of career advancement through promotion on the basis of seniority and merit.
- 7) Separation of ownership and the employee function:** There must be a complete separation between the ownership and employee function. The personal demands and interests should be kept separate and not to interfere with the organisational activities, since no employee can be the owner of his or her position.
- 8) Regular career of employees' overtime:** The promotion of the employees is based on the objective criteria and not on the discretion of authority which



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helps in the enhancement of the regular career advancement of employees over the time.



Figure 3.1: Characteristics of Weber's Theory of Bureaucracy

(Source: Adapted from Ferreira et al., 2004, pp. 24 and 25.)

The above mentioned characteristics clearly highlight, Weber's theory of bureaucracy as ideal, pure, neutral, efficient, hierarchical and rational and inevitable in contemporary society. He referred the 'ideal type' of bureaucracy as an ultimate efficiency machine. Weber said "Experience tends universally to show that the purely bureaucratic type of administrative organization... is, from a purely technical point of view, capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency and it is in this sense formally the most rational known means of carrying out imperative control over beings. It is superior to any other form in precision, in stability, in the stringency of its discipline and in its reliability. It thus makes possible a particularly high degree of calculability of results for the



heads of organisation and for those acting in relation to it. It is finally superior both in intensive efficiency and in the scope of its operations and is formally capable of application to all kinds of administrative task.” (Maheshwari, 1992) When Weber characterises bureaucracy as value neutral, he conceptualises bureaucracy as a form of social organisation which can be examined from three different points of view. First is the structural view which gained maximum importance. The features like division of work and hierarchy are included under the structural aspect. Secondly, bureaucracy can be viewed in terms of behavioural characteristics; and includes the characteristics like objectivity, precision and consistency. To quote Weber, “when fully developed, bureaucracy also stands in a specific sense under the principle of *sine ira ac studio*. Its specific nature, which is welcomed by capitalism, develops the more perfectly the more the bureaucracy is ‘dehumanized’, the more completely it succeeds in eliminating from official business love, hatred, and all purely personal irrational, and emotional elements which escape calculation. This is the specific nature of bureaucracy and its special virtue.” (Gerth and Mills, 1946, p. 215) Lastly, bureaucracy is defined from the instrumental point of view which includes the achievement of purpose. In the opinion of Peter Blau, “the organisation that maximises efficiency in administration or an institutionalised method of organised social conduct in the interests of administrative efficiency.” (Blau, 1956, p. 60)

3.9 MAX WEBER: LIMITS ON BUREAUCRACY

While emphasising the importance and need of bureaucracy, Weber was aware of the fact that bureaucracy has an inherent tendency of accumulation of power. Albrow also pointed out that due to this issue, Weber considered number of mechanisms to limit the scope of system of authorities in general and bureaucracy in particular. These mechanisms fall into five major categories:

- i) Collegiality
- ii) The Separation of Powers
- iii) Amateur Administration



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iv) Direct Democracy

v) Representation

i) Collegiality: The principle of collegiality is opposite to monocratism. In monocratic bureaucracy, Weber pointed out that at each stage of the official hierarchy, there is only one person but the moment more than one person get involved in decision making, the collegial principle comes into being. Collegiality helps in limiting the role of bureaucracy but it also results in to the disadvantage in terms of speed of decision and fixing of responsibility.

ii) Separation of Power: Separation of power meant dividing the same responsibility or a function between two or more bodies. All the involved bodies have to make compromises, so that they can reach to a decision. This will help to make bureaucracy free from monopoly of decision by a single body; however, such a system is inherently unstable.

iii) Amateur Administration: Under amateur administration, administration is run by those people who have public esteem to command, general confidence and their activity is basically unremunerated. But this system lacked in the expertise of professionals and experts which modern society requires.

iv) Direct Democracy: Direct democracy also limits the power of bureaucracy, as under this system officials are guided by and answerable to an assembly. It may take many forms like short term of office, selection by lot and possibility of recall. But this system is successful only in case of small organisations and in local governments.

v) Representation: Elected representatives of people share the authority of bureaucracy which helps in limiting or controlling the power of bureaucracy. But there is a possibility that these representatives being bureaucratised. However, Weber believed that through the representation, there is a greatest possibility of a check on bureaucracy.

Thus, Weber was conscious about the excessive authoritarian role of bureaucracy and that is why he wanted to limit the role of bureaucracy. There is a need to control the administrative apparatus.



3.10 MAX WEBER'S BUREAUCRACY: CRITICISM

Weber's bureaucracy is marked with several criticisms which mainly revolve around the bureaucratic design, authoritative norms, administrative efficiency; and concept of rationality, individuality and reliability.

Weber's theory failed to take in to consideration the individuals and their behavioural aspects within the organisation. It is constructed as an ideal which cannot be found in reality. Carl J Friederich observes the term 'ideal type' is unfortunate in that the entities to which it is applied are certainly not 'ideal' even in a platonic 'ideal' sense; there is, more particularly nothing 'ideal' about bureaucracy. Furthermore, if they were 'ideal', they would not be 'types' since 'types' derive their significance from the empirical reality which they typify... But Weber, instead of this proceeding by empirical observation and analysis of the ascertainable givens of such experience, set forth his 'ideal types' as mental constructs which are neither derived by a process of deductive ratiocination from higher concepts, nor build up from empirical data..." (Friederick, 1963, pp. 469-70)

Critics are of the opinion that Weber's theory is not fit for the task which involves innovation and creativity as it is fit for routine and repetitive work of the organisation following strict rules and regulations. Robert K. Merton viewed that no doubt strict rules and regulations and impersonality helps in maintaining reliability and predictability of employee behaviour but it results in to rigid and formal structure in an organisation and loss of organisational effectiveness. Weber emphasised on specialisation and differentiation and the focus is on decentralisation and delegation of responsibilities. The outcome is that there is a goal displacement as mentioned by Philip Selznick. There are differentiated goals of different sub units and the goals of the organisation as a whole takes a second place as the focus of the employees is on the goal of their sub units.

To quote Merton, "An effective bureaucracy demands reliability of response and strict devotion to regulation. Such devotion to the rules leads to their transformation into absolutes; they are no longer conceived as relative to a given



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set of purposes. This interferes with ready adaptation under special conditions not clearly envisaged by those who draw up the general rules. Thus, the very elements which conduce towards efficiency in general produce inefficiency in specific instances. Those very devices which increase the probability of conformances also lead to an over concern with strict adherence to regulations which induces timidity, consumerism and technicism”. (Merton, 1957, p. 156)

Another criticism was posed by Alvin Gouldner, he viewed that rules and regulations of the organisations tend to highlight the minimum levels of acceptable behaviour or performance. If the focus of the superiors and subordinates is more on the rules and regulations and less on the organisational goals, then this would result in to goal displacement of the organisation marked with apathy and constant rifts amongst the superiors and subordinates. Victor Thompson also put forward his argument that superiors are dependent on the lower level specialists for the fulfillment of the organisational goals. They try to formulate more and more rules and regulations to escape from the insecurities and their answerability towards the performance of the organisation. There is complete formal structure followed by Weber in his theory, he failed to recognise the informal relationship which plays an important role in the growth of an organisation. Lloyd Rudolph and Susanne Rudolph pointed out that, “Formal rationality (and technology) can contribute to organisational efficiency, but can also contribute to organisational ineffectiveness by building up the sources of alienation and resistance, and fuelling the struggle for power against authority. The persistence or retention of patrimonial elements in bureaucratic administration can mitigate if not eliminate the struggle, just as the presence of bureaucratic features in patrimonial administration can (and did) enhance its efficiency and effectiveness”. (Rudolph and Rudolph, 1979)

Weber equates the authority of the administrative staff with the technical superiority, Talcott and Parsons criticised this aspect as it leads to internal inconsistency. According to them, it is not always possible that those who possess authority to give orders are equally good in their technical skills. Another important drawback of bureaucracy is that employees do not get opportunity to express themselves, their opinions or decision making abilities do not hold any value. As a result, employees feel disheartened and demotivated. With the course



of time, they are not bothered about rules and regulations and start boycotting them or simply criticising them.

Conclusion

Despite of several criticisms, many empirical researches have accepted the importance of Weber's theory of bureaucracy. It is of great benefit for managing the large scale organisations which includes multi-level hierarchy, work based on well-structured established rules and procedures; and also helps in increasing overall efficiency. In the present day administration also, the utility of Weber's theory of bureaucracy is clearly visible. It is beneficial in both the societies whether it is capitalist or socialist. In free economy where state has a minimum role to play, bureaucracy performs some of the necessary functions of the state and fulfills day to day requirements. He is the first theoretician who gave a theoretical base to bureaucracy and highlights its importance in maintaining the organisation in an efficient manner.

In-Text Questions

A. Fill in the blanks:

1. Max Weber's major writings include The Theory of Economic and Social Organisations and _____.
2. Bureaucracy, according to Weber, ensures _____ in capitalist organisations.
3. Charismatic authority is based on the leader's _____ qualities.
4. Traditional authority derives from _____ and customs.
5. Legal-rational authority applies rules and procedures in a _____ manner.
6. Weber's ideal bureaucracy is based on _____ and cannot be fully found in reality.
7. Bureaucratic organisations rely on _____ knowledge to achieve efficiency.
8. Mechanisms like collegiality and separation of powers help to limit the excessive power of _____.



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B. State True or False:

1. Max Weber defined bureaucracy as an administrative body of elected representatives.
2. Charismatic authority is based on a leader's magical or extraordinary qualities.
3. Traditional authority is based on rational rules and procedures.
4. Bureaucracy, according to Weber, is an ideal form of organization that can be fully found in real-life institutions.
5. Legal-rational authority plays a dominant role in modern organizations.
6. The division of labor in bureaucracy increases efficiency by specializing tasks.
7. Bureaucracy, according to Weber, should be controlled by mechanisms like collegiality and amateur administration.
8. Weber's theory of bureaucracy was universally praised and accepted without criticism.

3.11 SUMMARY

- Max Weber was born in a business family involved in textile manufacturing in Germany.
- He studied law at the University of Heidelberg and completed his doctorate.
- Weber's focus was on the analytical and systematic study of social, political, and economic factors.
- His major writings include *The Theory of Economic and Social Organizations*, *General Economic History*, and *Protestant Ethic and Spirit of Capitalism*.
- Weber defined bureaucracy as an "administrative body of officials" and emphasized its efficiency in capitalist organizations.
- Bureaucracy allows economic planning and stability, making it indispensable for capitalist production.



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- Weber identified three types of legitimate authority: charismatic, traditional, and legal-rational.
- Charismatic authority is based on personal qualities; followers believe in the extraordinary capabilities of the leader.
- Traditional authority derives from customs, where the master's status is inherited.
- Legal-rational authority is based on systematic rules and procedures, applied equally in modern organizations.
- Bureaucratic administration, according to Weber, is based on technical knowledge and rationality, making it the most efficient form of governance.
- Weber's ideal bureaucracy is abstract, influenced by historical examples, and cannot be fully found in reality.
- The main characteristics of bureaucracy include division of labor, formal rules, hierarchy, technical competence, formal relationships, fixed salaries, and separation of ownership from employee functions.
- Weber acknowledged that bureaucracy might accumulate excessive power, requiring mechanisms like collegiality, separation of powers, and representation to limit it.
- Weber's theory faced criticism for being overly focused on structure and rationality, neglecting the behavioral aspects of individuals within organizations.

3.12 GLOSSARY

- **Bureaucracy:** A system of government or organization where decisions are made by appointed officials.
- **Charismatic Authority:** A form of leadership where followers obey based on the personal qualities of the leader.



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- **Traditional Authority:** The authority derived from long-standing customs and traditions.
- **Legal-Rational Authority:** The authority based on formal rules and laws that apply equally to everyone.
- **Collegiality:** A system where decision-making is shared among a group, as opposed to one person having authority.
- **Monocratic Bureaucracy:** A system where a single official holds decision-making power at each level of hierarchy.
- **Rationalization:** Organizing activities or systems based on reason and efficiency, often through formal rules and procedures.

3.13 ANSWERS TO IN-TEXT QUESTIONS

A. 1. Protestant Ethic and Spirit of Capitalism

2. efficiency
3. personal
4. traditions
5. systematic
6. abstraction
7. technical
8. bureaucracy

B. 1. False

2. True
3. False
4. False
5. True
6. True



7. True

8. False

3.14 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain the meaning and evolution of Bureaucracy.
2. Examine the Max Weber's concept of Bureaucracy.
3. Critically analyse the characters and limits of Bureaucracy.

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LESSON 4

NOTES

HUMAN RELATIONS THEORY (ELTON MAYO)

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STRUCTURE

- 4.1 Learning Objectives
- 4.2 Introduction
- 4.3 Professor George Elton Mayo
- 4.4 Early Experiment
- 4.5 The Hawthorne Experiment
 - 4.5.1 The Great Illumination Experiment (1924-27)
 - 4.5.2 Relay Assembly Study (1927-32)
 - 4.5.3 Human Attitudes and Sentiments (1928-31)
 - 4.5.4 The Bank Wiring Observation Study (1931-32)
- 4.6 Main Findings of Hawthorne Experiments
- 4.7 Chester I Barnard's Contribution to Human Relations Theory
- 4.8 The Essence of Human Relations Approach
- 4.9 The Human Relations vs. Classical Theories
- 4.10 Evaluation of Human Relations Approach
- 4.11 Summary
- 4.12 Glossary
- 4.13 Answers to In-Text Questions
- 4.14 Self-Assessment Questions
- 4.15 References/Suggested Readings

4.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, students should be able to:

- Study about the evolution of human relations theory in public administration.
- Evaluate Elton Mayo's theory of human relations.



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- Understand the contribution of Chester Barnard in human relations theory.
- Draw a comparison between classical and human relations theory.

4.2 INTRODUCTION

The Human Relations theory is a path-breaking theory in the organisation with its emphasis on the human side of management and organisation. The human relation movement comes as a criticism of classical theories, particularly, Scientific Management theory propounded by Frederick W. Taylor. The Great Depression and economic damage of 1920s to 1940s lay bare the shortcomings of earlier approaches to management. During this period, there was a growth of labour unionism and an increasing demand of improved work conditions, labour rights and social security. Such issues created a gap between the managers and labourers and there was need of increased communication for developing more humane ways of addressing various problems of organisation.

The Human Relations theory views organisation in a holistic social perspective and highlights the limitations of mechanistic approach to labour productivity and efficiency of an organisation. The pioneer of this theory was Professor George Elton Mayo. He is regarded as the father of Human Relations approach to organisation. In collaboration with his colleagues of Harvard Business School, Mayo conducted series of experiments in this field.

4.3 PROFESSOR GEORGE ELTON MAYO

Professor Elton Mayo was born in Australia in 1880. He studied Psychology and Philosophy at University of Adelaide. He joined as a lecturer in Logic, Ethics and Psychology at the University of Queensland in 1911. Later on, he was elevated to the rank of professor of Philosophy there. He pioneered research on psychoanalytic treatment of shell-shock. His research findings from the study in



the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company throw light on industrial and organisational psychology as well as certain aspects of sociology.

4.4 EARLY EXPERIMENT

In 1923, Mayo conducted his first research in a Textile Mill near Philadelphia. It was later termed as ‘first inquiry’. This research site was a highly organised sector. The environment for workers there was conducive. Despite this, the general labour turnover (absenteeism) in all the departments was estimated to be approximately 5 per cent per annum. Again, in the mule-spinning department, the turnover was low too. Various incentives were provided to the workers to improve the situation, however, without much success. Subsequently, Elton Mayo and his team studied the multi-spinning department from various directions. On the basis of his research, he found that workers suffered from fatigue or lack of adequate rest and there was a need of introducing rest periods to them. The motivating effect of the scheme was tremendous. Mayo’s study was comprehensive in nature. It took into account, production levels, rest periods, working conditions, occasional accidents etc. By delegating the decision of resting periods to the workers, the management in the Textile Mill set in motion the social interaction between management and workers. It started a new beginning.

4.5 THE HAWTHORNE EXPERIMENT

The Hawthorne Plant of Western Electrical Company at Chicago happened to be one of the progressive firms in the US. It was reputed for better working environment, favourable working hours and various facilities. But from the early 1920s, the firm was reduced to moderate level of productivity. The management of the firm attempted every positive change to improve productivity as suggested by the Scientific Management theory and Classical theories of organisation, but the results were not satisfactory. Under this circumstance, the management of



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the firm had approached Harvard Business School to find out the solution of the problem of low productivity. Hence, Elton Mayo and his associates took this responsibility and conducted a series of experiments and put forward their Human Relations Approach to organisations. The notable studies of this Hawthorne experiment are as follows:

4.5.1 The Great Illumination Experiment (1924-27)

In this experiment, two groups of female workers who were engaged in assembling telephone relays, were placed in two separate rooms. One was a test room and another was a control room. The object was to study the level of production. The hypothesis was that the level of productivity corresponds positively with enhanced degree of illumination. The control group remained with constant illumination of the level and the type with which the two groups started. Experimental changes were introduced periodically in the test group's room. Then slowly a change was effected in the working conditions. Its object was to mark the effect of this change on the output. The research work continued for two years. It was observed that regardless of the level of illumination, production increased in both the control and experimental groups. The findings were a bit surprising. Then the rest periods were deliberately altered. Change was also effected in wage payment, duration of work, room temperature, humidity etc. to assess their impact on productivity. However, quite contrary to the expectations of the researchers, the groups kept a steady growth rate. The researchers concluded that better communication between managers and workers during the experiment and increased attention to the worker's situation by the research group led to the positive result.

4.5.2 Relay Assembly Study (1927-32)

With a view to critically analysing the hypothesis on illumination theory and assessing the impact of variety of factors on productivity, two new groups were formed. It was based on the two hypotheses which were proposed by the researchers after the illumination study.

The first hypothesis: It was found that the individual wage enhancement stimulated increase in the output.



The second hypothesis: It was observed that positive changes in supervision methods improved the attitudes and output.

In this study, the two groups were offered individual incentive on piecework basis. It was observed that initially the total output improved whereas it remained constant after a certain period. The second group was placed on individual incentive plan. Variations in rest periods and duration of work and their impact on productive output were also studied. There was an average rise of productive output over a period of 14 months.

The researchers did not confirm the first hypothesis. It was found that not wage but other conditions enhanced output in both the groups.

In order to find out the validity of the second hypothesis, working condition was made more relaxed, conducive and cordial. Free and frank communication was encouraged among fellow workers and supervisors. Supervisors modified their managerial practices. They responded with the workers in a democratic manner. The workers came to realise that they were an integral part in the productive system. It led their response turning more positive.

It was observed by Mayo that work satisfaction largely depends on the informal social pattern of the working group. It was observed that cordial techniques of supervision positively impact productivity.

4.5.3 Human Attitudes and Sentiments (1928-31)

Mayo and his team conducted another study during 1928-31. It was related to human attitudes and sentiments. For this, they interviewed 21000 workers and asked them to express freely their opinion about the working conditions and the policies of the management. These interviews were more of an attempt to boost the morale of the workers than collecting data about the various problems faced by the workers. It was observed that without proper appreciation of the feelings and sentiments of the workers, it is difficult to delve deep into their real problems. In the process, the research team acquired new insights in understanding the concerns of the workers.



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The study identified mainly 3 things:

First, collection of information about the problems faced by the workers create a feeling of equality among the workers, since they find a place to participate in managerial decision making. This create hope of improved working environment.

Second, the observation of the research team encouraged managers and supervisors to become more responsive to the problems of workers.

Third, it was felt by the researchers for understanding the real problems of the workers, it is necessary to appreciate their sentiments and feelings. This in turn is derived both from employee's personal history and social situation.

4.5.4 The Bank Wiring Observation Study (1931-32)

This experiment involved a group of 14 men (9 wirers, 3 soldiers, 2 inspectors) who were assigned to do a wiring job which also included the job of soldiering and fixing the terminals. Wages were paid on the basis of a group incentive plan and each member got his share on the total output of the group. In contrast to their expectations, researchers found that the workers were not reacting positively to the incentives. Workers fixed their own productive target which was lower than the target fixed by the management. There was an informal consensus among the workers to maintain uniform rate of output and workers did not try to increase or decrease production from the standard they agreed for themselves. Thus, the researchers uncovered an underlying group psychology and informal code of behaviour that influences overall industrial productivity. Such behavioural pattern among the workers was directly attributed to the deep seated distrust against the management. In this particular experiment, the group used informal pressure to rectify the deviant members. The following rules were framed:

- Too much work should be avoided. If one does so, s/he will be regarded as 'rate buster'.
- Too little work should be discouraged. If one does so, s/he will be regarded as 'chiseler'.
- Anything negative about a fellow worker should not be reported to the supervisor.



- Nobody should attempt social distance or act in an officious manner.

Thus, this study was very useful in highlighting the fact of intra-group forces in the working of an organisation.

4.6 MAIN FINDINGS OF HAWTHORNE EXPERIMENTS

The Hawthorne experiments and subsequent studies were very important in highlighting the working of informal organisation and socio-psychological factors as major determinants of worker's satisfaction and organisational output. This study has led to the understanding of importance of human factor in organisation and necessity of proper communication system between the management and workers. The findings of experiments of Mayo and his associates can be summarised as follows:

1. **Social Factors in Output:** The level of organisational effectiveness is determined not by the official prescriptions but by the social norms. Workers are not mere cogs in the machine. They are human beings with social characteristics which in turn determine the productivity and efficiency in organisation.
2. **Group Influence:** In the organisational setting, workers do not merely act as an individual but do as member of the group. Group standards exert major impact on individual behaviour. The productivity of workers corresponds to this standard. The group also provide protection against executive retaliations. In these ways, the working of the informal groups somehow limit the executive power.
3. **Rewards and Sanctions:** Non economic rewards such as social rewards and group sanctions are more effective than economic incentives for the increment of productivity.
4. **Supervision:** Organisational objectives become acceptable to workers if they are also involved in discussions and their informal leader is consulted.



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This necessitates effective communication and willingness on the part of management to ensure participation of the workers in decision- making.

5. **Communication:** Communication is the key to develop a better environment for work and development of organisation. The rationality of a particular decision or action should be properly communicated to workers. Management should try to identify the attitudes, social and psychological factors, and methods of working of workers through proper communication.

4.7 CHESTER I BARNARD'S CONTRIBUTION TO HUMAN RELATIONS THEORY

Another important exponent of Human Relations approach to organisation is Chester I Barnard, which is reflected in his work '*The Functions of Executive*' (1938). The main features of Barnard's theory of organisation can be summarised as follows:

- **Organisation as a cooperative system:** Cooperation is necessary for proper working of an organisation. Individuals have limited capacity to manage the affairs of organisation without the cooperation of others.
- **Formal and Informal Organisation:** Barnard believed that formal and informal structure complement each other in the proper functioning of the organisation.
- **Consent Theory of authority:** According to Barnard, 'consent' or acceptance should be the basis of authority. Effectiveness of the authority is determined by the willing participation of the subordinates. He has identified four essential preconditions; intelligibility, conformity to the purpose of the organisation, compatibility with personal interests and physical and mental ability to comply behind the acceptance of authority.
- **Inducement-Contribution balance:** Barnard sought to bring equilibrium between contribution in an organisation in terms of labour and satisfaction level generally calculated in terms of inducements and incentives.



- **Moral Responsibility:** Moral responsibility of executives form the backbone of an organisation.
- **Communication:** Success of any cooperative system depends on proper communication network.

4.8 THE ESSENCE OF HUMAN RELATIONS APPROACH

First, Human Relations theory, in contrast to other classical theories, views organisation in its holistic social perspective emphasising on the human element in the working of organisation.

Second, the Human Relations theory believes that each worker carries with him/ her culture, attitude, belief and way of life. Organisation should take proper cognizance of all these socio-cultural factors. The social and psychological factors are responsible for worker's productivity and job satisfaction.

Third, this theory identifies the impact of informal groups on motivation and productivity.

Fourth, it emphasises on sense of belongingness among the workers and need of social solidarity in an organisation.

Fifth, Human relation theory discovers a new form of management; participative management, which may reduce the gap between workers and management.

4.9 THE HUMAN RELATIONS VS. CLASSICAL THEORIES

Like other Classical theories, The Human Relations theory acknowledges the importance of 'management' in efficient production, however, it differs in its basic approach to the organisation from the former. Organisation is in fact a social



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system. In addition to its formal structure, it involves individuals and informal groups. The Human Relations theory is regarded as a vital theory in relation to its impact on productivity. It is also called the 'neo-classical theory' as it emphasises efficiency and regards productivity as the essence of an organisation. But, this theory relies on different techniques to achieve desired objectives.

Though alike in terms of achieving objectives, Classical and Human Relations theory are different in their approaches. The Human Relations theory attempts to eliminate the dehumanising factors of the classical theory.

4.10 EVALUATION OF HUMAN RELATIONS APPROACH

The Human Relations theory brings a new perspective in organisation theory by acknowledging the importance of workers in their respective socio-cultural milieu. However, this theory is also criticised on the following grounds:

1. Critics have pointed out several shortcomings of research methods of the Hawthorne survey. It is argued that the sample size at the Hawthorne plant was inadequate. It did not deal with the entire organisation. Carey's criticism is based on the fact that small groups of 'cooperative girls' do not indicate the general pattern. Inadequate samples cannot help us to arrive at acceptable conclusions. The theory supports the old view that monetary incentives, conducive working environment and discipline are the vital impacting factors of productivity. According to Carey, the theory lacks scientific base.
2. Peter F Drucker is also a critic of this theory. According to him, it does not attach due significance to economic dimensions. The Harvard group neglects nature of work. It primarily focuses on inter-personal relations.
3. This theory is also criticised for its lack of understanding the role of unions in an organisation. Mayo and his team substitute human relations oriented supervisors for union representatives. Scholars like Loren Baritz and others



criticise the theory as ‘anti-union’ and ‘pro-management’. According to some Marxist critics, conflict free organisational situation is utopian.

4. The theory is also criticised for the reason that it draws inspiration mainly from classical theories. It did not go far enough to ensure ultimate contentment and well-being of employers.

Conclusion

No theory can be regarded as all-inclusive and perfect. Elton Mayo’s Human Relations theory also has certain shortcomings. But in spite of this, it may be regarded as a milestone in augmenting subsequent development of organisational practices. His ideas of adequate communication system, participative management, importance of informal organisations, and human side of organisation among others are regarded as very crucial in organisation theories. His ideas led to the further development of Neo-Human Relations approaches, particularly in the analysis of the work design and management evolved in the writings of Douglas Macgregor, Abraham Maslow, Frederick Herzberg, and Chris Argyris. At last, we can say that Elton Mayo and his Human Relations approach is relevant still today not only for its innovative ideas but also for practical application.

In-Text Questions

A. Fill in the blanks:

1. Professor Elton Mayo was born in _____ in 1880.
2. Mayo’s first research in 1923 was conducted in a _____ Mill near Philadelphia.
3. The Great Illumination Experiment took place between the years _____ and _____.
4. The Bank Wiring Observation Study involved a group of _____ men.
5. Chester I. Barnard emphasized that an organization is a _____ system.
6. The Human Relations theory is also referred to as the _____ theory.



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7. According to Mayo, work satisfaction largely depends on the _____ pattern of the working group.
8. Peter F Drucker criticized the Human Relations theory for neglecting the _____ dimensions of work.

B. State True or False:

1. The Hawthorne experiments were conducted in the early 1930s.
2. The findings of the Illumination Experiment supported the hypothesis that increased lighting directly increases productivity.
3. Chester I. Barnard believed that informal structures had no role in the functioning of organisations.
4. The Human Relations theory primarily focuses on the financial incentives offered to workers.
5. The Bank Wiring Observation Study showed that workers fixed their own productivity targets lower than management's expectations.
6. The Hawthorne studies emphasized the role of social factors and communication in increasing worker satisfaction.
7. Peter F Drucker argued that the Human Relations theory fully addressed the economic aspects of productivity.
8. The Human Relations theory supports the concept of participative management.

4.11 SUMMARY

- Professor Elton Mayo was born in 1880 in Australia and studied Psychology and Philosophy at the University of Adelaide.
- He joined as a lecturer in Logic, Ethics, and Psychology at the University of Queensland in 1911 and later became a professor of Philosophy.
- Mayo's research focused on psychoanalytic treatment of shell-shock and industrial/organizational psychology.



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- His first research in a Textile Mill in 1923 showed that fatigue was the cause of high turnover in certain departments.
- Mayo's Hawthorne studies at the Western Electrical Company led to the Human Relations Approach in organizational studies.
- The Great Illumination Experiment (1924-27) showed that productivity increased regardless of lighting conditions due to better communication and attention to workers' needs.
- The Relay Assembly Study (1927-32) found that improved supervision and rest periods, rather than wages, enhanced worker productivity.
- The Human Attitudes and Sentiments study (1928-31) highlighted the importance of appreciating workers' feelings and sentiments.
- The Bank Wiring Observation Study (1931-32) revealed informal group behaviors that influenced worker productivity, including distrust toward management and informal rules within the group.
- The Hawthorne experiments emphasized the role of informal organization and socio-psychological factors in productivity.
- The findings demonstrated that social factors, group influence, communication, and supervision are key to improving productivity.
- Chester I. Barnard's contributions included viewing organizations as cooperative systems, emphasizing formal and informal structures, consent theory of authority, and communication.
- Human Relations theory is seen as a neo-classical theory, emphasizing worker participation and addressing socio-cultural factors in productivity.
- The theory has been criticized for its small sample size, overemphasis on interpersonal relations, neglect of economic factors, and limited understanding of the role of unions.



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4.12 GLOSSARY

- **Hawthorne experiments:** A series of studies conducted by Elton Mayo to explore the impact of social and psychological factors on productivity.
- **Illumination experiment:** A study that tested the effect of lighting on worker productivity, finding no direct correlation but emphasizing worker-manager communication.
- **Relay Assembly Study:** A follow-up study examining wage incentives and supervisory methods, concluding that non-economic factors enhanced output.
- **Human Relations theory:** A management approach that emphasizes the role of social factors, communication, and group dynamics in improving worker productivity.
- **Bank Wiring Observation Study:** An experiment that revealed informal group behavior and distrust towards management as factors influencing productivity.
- **Neo-classical theory:** A theory emphasizing both productivity and human factors within organizational structures, often contrasted with classical theories of management.
- **Consent theory of authority:** Barnard's theory that authority in an organization is based on the willingness of subordinates to accept directives.

4.13 ANSWERS TO IN-TEXT QUESTIONS

- A. 1. Australia
2. Textile
3. 1924, 1927
4. 14



5. cooperative
6. neo-classical
7. informal social
8. economic

- B.**
1. False
 2. False
 3. False
 4. False
 5. True
 6. True
 7. False
 8. True

4.14 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Describe the evolution of human relations theory in public administration.
2. Critically examine the Elton Mayo's theory of human relations.
3. Explain the Chester Barnard's theory of human relations.

4.15 REFERENCES/SUGGESTED READINGS

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LESSON 5

RATIONAL DECISION-MAKING (HERBERT SIMON)

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STRUCTURE

- 5.1 Learning Objectives
- 5.2 Introduction
- 5.3 Definitions of Decision Making
- 5.4 Types of Decision Making
- 5.5 Principles of Decision Making
- 5.6 Meaning of Decision Theory
- 5.7 Types of Decision Making Model
- 5.8 Intuitive Decision-Making Model
- 5.9 Creative Decision-Making Model
- 5.10 Critiques of the Rational Decision-Making Model
- 5.11 Rational Decision Making and Herbert Simon
- 5.12 Summary
- 5.13 Glossary
- 5.14 Answers to In-Text Questions
- 5.15 Self-Assessment Questions
- 5.16 References/Suggested Readings

5.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, students should be able to:

- Analyse decision-making theory in public administration.
- Understand the definition, types and principles of decision making.
- Evaluate the concept of bounded rationality by Herbert Simons.



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5.2 INTRODUCTION

The subject of decision making is very extensive. Decision making is a multi-step process which is considered as the most significant activity of the organisation. It is the most basic and central function of management at all levels. Decision making involves a clearly-defined, elements based systematic process of selecting a course of action from multiple possible alternatives for the achievement of the desired objective. Each defined element involves a decision in itself and also serves as a building block of the decision process.

The main objective of the whole activity is to guide and channelise the human action for the achievement of a proposed goal. It involves systemising the organisational infrastructure and required resources into the suitable course of action which would lead to achieving the desired results in an orderly manner. The course of action involves questions like ‘what is the objective’, ‘what is to be done to achieve the objective’, ‘how it is to be done’, ‘who all will be involved’, and ‘what are the resources’. By considering all the questions, alternative possibilities are chalked out and then, the best alternative is selected which is called as ‘decision’ and the whole process through which the final decision is taken is known as ‘decision making’. The word “decision” is derived from Latin word “decido”, which means settlement, a fixed intention bringing to conclusive result and decision making means arriving at a conclusion as a solution of a problem.

All the administrative activities such as planning, organisation, direction, budgeting and control etc. are performed through decisions. That is why, the whole decision making process is the most crucial aspect of administration.

5.3 DEFINITIONS OF DECISION MAKING

According to Koontz and O’Donnel, “Decision-making is the actual selection from among alternatives of a course of action.”



Melvin T. Copeland said “administration essentially is a decision making process and authority is responsible for making decision and for ascertaining that the decisions made are carried out.”

According to Peter Drucker, “Whatever a manager does, he does through decision making.”

Above mentioned definitions show that as the core function of management process, decision is an act of choice selecting a particular alternative out of many possibilities. As an act of choice, the whole process involves thinking, designing and deciding at each step. This makes it a cognitive process where the knowledge about the problem helps to decide what to do about the problem, how to solve it. Decision making involves gathering the available information which is known, identifying the resources, chalking out the alternatives, assessing the risks involved and making the best decision weighing all the alternatives in a timely manner and evaluating decision’s effectiveness. This is fundamentally basic for each individual decision to big organisation, however, process of arriving at final solution is complex which can vary from individual to organisation at each level. (Bhattacharya and Chakrabarty 2005)

5.4 TYPES OF DECISION MAKING

There are many types of decisions which can be classified in a number of ways:

a.) Programmed decisions and non-programmed decisions

Programmed decisions are structured and recur after regular intervals. These types of decisions involve routine and repetitive problems. The conditions of the programmed decisions are highly certain which means that information about these problems are already available and solutions are offered in accordance with habit, rule or procedure in a pre-planned manner.

Non-programmed decisions are relatively unstructured and occur much less often than programmed decisions. Problems are unique and novel



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and conditions for non-programmed decisions are highly uncertain and non-repetitive in nature. There are no prespecified procedures to rely upon while taking decisions. Each situation is different from the other, involving situations and problems which are not often seen and thus, require more innovative solutions.

b.) Organisational decisions and personal decisions

Organisational decisions involve organizational goals and are made for the advancement of the organisation. These are the decisions which an executive or manager takes on behalf of organisation. These can be delegated or transferred to others. These decisions involve decisions pertaining to practices and problems of the organisation.

Personal decisions are concerned to employees of the organisation. These are basically the decisions which are made by an executive or manager as an individual and not as a member of the organisation. These decisions are made to achieve personal goals and cannot be delegated to others.

c.) Individual decisions and group decisions

Individual decisions are taken by an individual. In this, an individual can often reach decisions more quickly and it is less expensive in comparison to group decisions. The clear accountability lies with the individual who has taken the decisions.

Group decisions are those decisions which are taken by a group or organisational team which is constituted for the purpose. These decisions involve more information and a process of deliberation, and the accountability lies with the whole group.

d.) Routine (tactical) decisions and strategic (basic) decisions

Routine decisions are concerned with routine and repetitive problems. These types of decisions neither require the collection of new data nor conferring with the people. These can be taken without much deliberation. The primary purpose of these decisions is to achieve a high degree of efficiency in the ongoing activity. Within an organisation, lower-level units can take routine decisions in accordance with organisational rules.



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The strategic decisions are taken on the serious problems, and these require fact-finding analysis of the possible alternatives. These decisions require lengthy deliberations and have long-term implications. The strategic decisions are taken by top-level management in an organisation.

e.) Policy decisions and operative decisions

Policy decisions are the decisions that define the basic principles of the organization and determine how it will develop and function in the future. These are taken by top-level management to change the rules and organisational procedures.

Operative decisions involved determining and planning short-term objectives and goals concerning routine tasks. These decisions are taken by lower management in order to put into action the policy decisions.

Apart from these categories, there are more types of decision making, like departmental, interdepartmental, and enterprise decisions; major and minor decisions, short-term and long-term decisions; simple and complex decisions, etc. Each decision-making model has its own advantages and disadvantages.

5.5 PRINCIPLES OF DECISION MAKING

- **Marginal principle of decision making:** It is based on the principle of diminishing returns. This principle maintains that after reaching the optimal level of utilisation, any further addition of factor of production will yield diminished per unit returns. The principle works to identify the optimal level and is applied for training, promotion, sales, and advertisements.
- **Mathematical principle of decision making:** This principle gives a scientific approach to managers in organisations. It rationalises filtering of all the data and information which are used for analysing a problem, balancing all the possible alternatives, and taking decisions thereafter. It helps in balancing the overwhelming flow of information in the form of

Self-Instructional
Material



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data in an orderly manner. It underlies computer program and venture analysis, probability theory, and game theory are based on these principles.

- **Psychological principle of decision making:** It works on the idea that decision making is a cognitive process in which analysis of the problem, exploring alternatives and choosing the best possibility are all based on expectations, aspirations, technological skills, personality traits, organisational and social status, etc.
- **Limiting factor principle:** As per this principle, the basic fundamentals of a problem are analysed, and on that basis, possible inferences or conclusions are drawn.
- **Principle of participation in decision making:** This works on the idea of team participation. It maintains that decisions are influenced by human behaviour and thus are the byproduct of human relationships. Like in organisations, this principle favours consulting the subordinate for reaching decisions.
- **Alternative principle idea in decision making:** According to this principle, all the possibilities are evaluated one by one, and after weighing all the possible alternatives, the best alternative is considered the final decision.

All the decisions are fully or partially based on these principles.
(Bhattacharya and Chakrabarty, 2005)

5.6 MEANING OF DECISION THEORY

Decision theory is considered an interdisciplinary process to take decisions which are considered the best possible decision in unknown circumstances. As an interdisciplinary process, analysis of the decision-making process is done through a diverse lens of psychology, philosophy, mathematics, statistics, sciences and social science.



On the basis of that, three different areas of decision theory have been generated which examine decision-making from three different points of view. These are descriptive, prescriptive and normative decision theory.

- **Descriptive decision theory** examines how the irrational beings understand the problem and take decisions.
- **Prescriptive decision theory** provided fundamental guidelines to a decision-taker in order to draw possible inferences and make the best possible decision in an uncertain environment.
- **Normative decision theory** highlights the importance of values and norms and provides guidance for taking decisions based on sets of norms and values.

5.7 TYPES OF DECISION MAKING MODEL

The decision-making model describes the methods that are taken to make the decisions. There are four main models of decision-making and each model is relevant for a specific kind of decision. It is important to mention here that each model of decision-making has its advantages and risks. The models are:

- Intuitive decision-making model
- Creative decision-making model
- Rational decision-making model
- Bounded rational decision-making model

In-Text Questions-1

A. Fill in the blanks:

1. Decision-making involves gathering information, identifying resources, and _____ the risks involved.
2. Programmed decisions are _____ and occur at regular intervals.
3. _____ decisions are concerned with personal goals and cannot be delegated.



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4. Group decisions involve _____ accountability shared by the entire team.
5. _____ theory provides guidelines for making decisions in uncertain environments.

B. State True or False:

1. Non-programmed decisions are routine and repetitive.
2. Policy decisions are taken by lower management to implement strategies.
3. Descriptive decision theory examines how individuals make decisions in real-life scenarios.
4. The intuitive decision-making model relies heavily on instinct and experience.
5. Strategic decisions are taken by top-level management for short-term objectives.

5.8 INTUITIVE DECISION MAKING MODEL

The intuitive decision-making model focuses on the idea of reaching the decisions without considerable conscious reasoning. With a great deal of uncertainty attached, constraints of time and finances, and limitations in terms of lack or imperfect information, it is often found that people are taking decisions without considering the formal steps of rational decision-making. But it is important to note here that, as it is seldom criticised from an outsider that it is more based on gut feeling and guessing power, it is also a systematic model of decision making. (Lumenlearning course)

Unlike the rational decision-making model, in this model decisions are not taken on the basis of exploring the best alternative out of possible options. Rather, the decision-taker here analyses the environment, figures out the pattern, uses past experience, and takes the suitable course of action. If it is not coming out to be a workable solution, then another new idea is picked, so at one given point in time, one choice is considered. Once a workable course of action is recognised, the decision maker uses it to solve the problem. The basic strategy



here is trial and error, testing one solution at a time, understanding the patterns, scanning the cues, and thus reinventing the wheel every time.

The intuitive model is the opposite of the rational decision-making model, which is a multi-step process of taking a decision based on facts analysed. This model is good for analysing ill-structured and fragmented problems.

5.9 CREATIVE DECISION MAKING MODEL

A creative model of decision-making highlights the power of imaginative new ideas. With the multi-disciplinarity approach, 360-degree outlook, increasing competition, providing something new, and setting up new trend momentum, individuals and organisations are constantly trying to be more creative and unique with the decisions. The criteria for this model range from cutting costs to offering new innovative ways to do something. One point that needs to be clear here is that creativity and innovation are not synonyms for each other; in the innovation process, creativity is the first stepping stone. Innovation is a combination of creative and realistic, workable planning.

Steps of the creative decision-making process:

- Problem recognition: identifying and understanding the problem
- Immersion: conscious thinking and gathering information
- Incubation: setting aside the problem, however the brain is working on the problem, unconscious state.
- Illumination: in a least expected scenario, a solution becomes visible, similar to a 'eureka moment.'
- Verification and application stage: conscious verification of the solution leading to the implementation of the final decision. (lumenlearning course)

The combination of three factors evaluates the level of creativity in the decision-making process. These are fluency (ability to generate the maximum



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number of ideas), flexibility (range of different ideas), and originality (newness and uniqueness of ideas).

Rational Decision Making Model

The rational decision-making model presents a multistep process for making decisions through logic and reasoning between possible alternatives. It is known as a rational model of decision-making because the decision taken by this model seems to optimise utility and minimise the cost involved (Simon 1947). It is also rational because the inferences are drawn based on logical evidence in the form of facts and information and are not based on any guesswork or imagination. According to this model, any decision that has been taken without considering the information and reasoning seems to be highly irrational.

It is a model of making logical decisions based on objectivity, utilisation of experiences, economising on efforts, and giving lesser importance to intuition and subjectivity.

Stepwise Rational Decision Making Model

- Identifying the problem

The very step involves defining and framing the problem

- Establishing decision criteria

In this step, people need to establish the relevance of all elements which are involved in taking decisions like all the information, stakeholders involved, their requirements, interests, preferences etc.

- Weighing the decision criteria

This step revolves around putting the priorities and information in the decision in a correct order.

- Exploring possible alternatives

After the identification of the problem and collection of the relevant information, the next step is assessing them and chalking out all the possible alternatives.



- Evaluate each alternative

This is the fifth step and in this step, all the possible alternatives are evaluated on various parameters like feasibility, realisticity and reliability of the alternatives, as well as the merits and demerits of each alternative.

- Choosing the best alternative as a decision

Once the evaluation of the alternatives is finished, the decision maker chooses the best suitable alternative and clearly states the decision.

- Implementation of the decision

The final decision is implemented by the decision maker in order to solve the problem.

- Evaluation of the decision

The last and final step involves evaluating the results of the decision.

Assumptions of the Rational Model of Decision Making

This model maintains that people choose the best alternative out of possible inferences on the basis of maximisation of benefits and minimisation of cost analysis. The basic assumption of rational model are:

- People have complete and perfect knowledge about the problem and related information on the basis of which they will make choices.
- People have the perfect data to measure cost benefit analysis.
- People possess the required cognitive ability to process the data, evaluate all possible combinations against each other and have sound logical and objective ability to choose the best possible alternative. (lumenlearning course)

Problems with the Rational Decision Making Model

The very basic problem with the model is its unrealistic assumption that the decision maker knows everything, starting from the problem to all available choices to choosing the best alternative. The rational decision maker is expected to



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choose the 'optimal alternative' that has minimum cost and maximum benefits. In this decision-making process, the ethical and normative parameters are not taken into account. This model is dominated by the idea of giving more preferences to facts, data, and scientific analysis. (Henry 2003)

5.10 CRITIQUES OF THE RATIONAL DECISION MAKING MODEL

The model has been criticised for having bias towards the oversimplified and unrealistic assumptions like:

The model assumes that all information is available pertaining to the problem. It may not be the true case, and secondly, the decision-maker might not be able to get and retain all the information. There are numerous limitations to this process. As per the stepwise decision-making process, all information has to be gathered and analysed in order to create all possible alternatives. There are some inherent problems with the very assumption, as, firstly, it is tough to get all information about any problem; there are some limitations to how much information we can gather.

Secondly, piles of information can lead to 'information analysis paralysis' where too much time would get wasted in analysing information and making sense out of it without any conclusive decision. Too much reliance on these unrealistic assumptions has its problems.

Thirdly, individual rationality has its own boundaries to see through the data and figure out alternatives out of that. There are cognitive, infrastructural, and ecological restraints to it. And, the more complex the problem, the tougher it is to get information regarding it, and the more are the limitations in order to make a more rational decision.



5.11 RATIONAL DECISION MAKING AND HERBERT SIMON

Nobel Prize winning economist Herbert Simon's (1916-2001) most celebrated work, *Administrative Behaviour: A Decision-Making Process* was published in the year 1947. His notable works are:

- *Administrative Behaviour* (1947)
- *Fundamental Research in Administration* (1953)
- *Organisation* (1958)
- *Human Problem Solving* (1972)

In his book '*Administrative Behaviour*,' Simon mentioned that "decision-making is the central concern for understanding the organisation and its workings." And, in order to understand the organisation better, one needs to analyse the human behaviour and its ethical and value preferences in the whole decision-making process.

Herbert Simon attacked the scientific and structural approach for their contradiction and oversimplified, idealistic assumptions, thus making the discipline of public administration inconsistent with no universal relevance. Simon in particular questioned the theoretical basis of rational decision-making and challenged its universal validity. (Simon 1947)

Herbert Simon's investigation of the role of rationality in decision-making has led to the growth of behavioural approaches in the field of administrative behaviour with a focus on decision-making. For Simon, decision-making is a universal process and has contextual relevance. In his own words, "a theory of administration should be concerned with the processes of decision as well as the processes of action. Mere setting up of a theory and no relation to reality is of no value." (Simon 1947)

For Simon, "administration is the art of getting things done," and for that he emphasised choices that ensure actions. Simon highlighted that in administrative



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studies, more attention has been given to action than choices. Choice precedes actions, and without understanding the choice properly, action cannot be analysed. And, decision-making study is the study of choices in a behavioural approach. (Simon 1955)

Simon asserted that one has to understand that every administrative activity involves two different and interrelated activities. These are:

- ‘deciding’ (decision)
- ‘doing’ (action)

‘Doing’ is integrally related to deciding, and that is why deciding factors should be analysed and should be based on sound principles so that they ensure effective action. Simon argued that traditional administrative thinkers did not diagnose the situations thus lacked the frame of reference, which eventually made them suffer with the problem of universal validity. Thus, Simon proposed his model of rational decision-making which is based on logical positivism and excludes value judgement, preferences, and any normativity. Simon favoured that administrative behaviour should only take into account that knowledge that is coming from rigorous factual analysis. It is important to mention here that ‘logical positivism’ (a philosophical movement that arose out of Vienna Circle in the 1920s) basically holds the idea that the only knowledge is scientific knowledge and meaningful knowledge that is based on facts. Logical positivism differs from erstwhile schools of empiricism and positivism and maintains that knowledge acquired by verification and experimental processes should be considered as the basis of knowledge. (Bhattacharya and Chakrabarty, 2005)

On the basis of logical positivism, Simon supported the empirical approach and negated the use of a normative approach in the study of decision-making in administration. According to Simon, “factual information can be verified and tested; they are highly objective in nature, but value-based judgements are subjective in nature and cannot be tested.” (Simon, 1947)

Simon believed that decision-making is a tough task as the decision-maker within an organisation is constantly facing new, complex challenges, and out of



the many possible alternatives, the decision-maker has to select the most suitable alternative to provide a practical and workable solution to the problem.

Simon's decision-making theory is based on the basic idea that a rational administrator or rational decision-maker possesses perfect and complete knowledge about understating the problem, has all the required information, has the cognitive ability to interpret the information, and has the farsightedness to vision out the possible alternative and best alternative too.

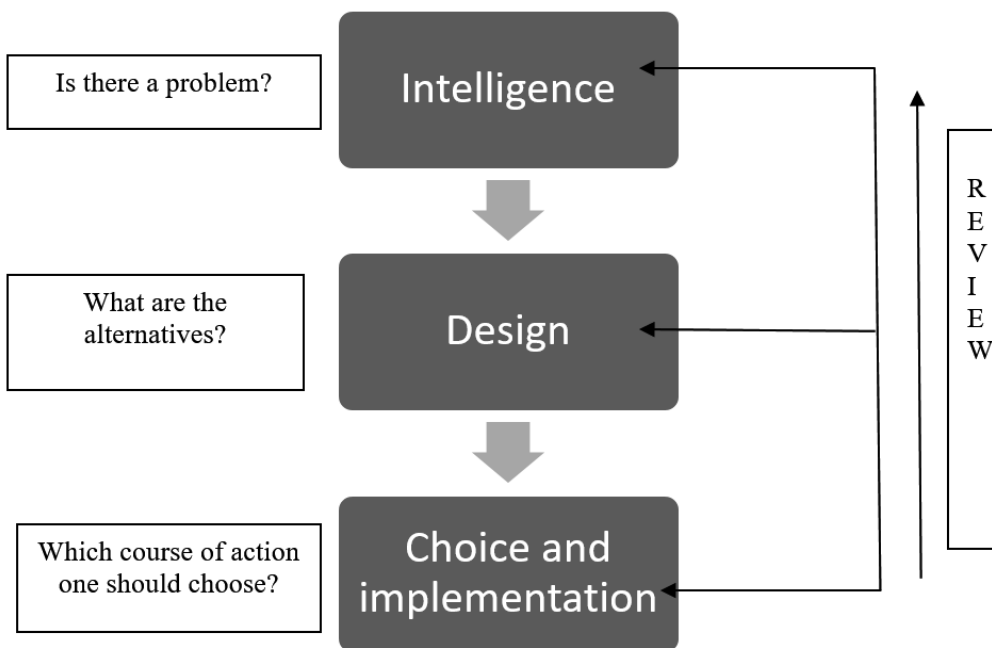


Figure 5.1: Flowchart of Simon's Decision Process

This process of decision-making comprises of number of stages:

- **Intelligence activity:** In this stage, the environment is analysed to identify the issues and events which require decision. Information as data is gathered, processed and analysed to define the problem.
- **Design activity** involves the development of the possible alternatives on the basis of processed data, and each course of possible action is evaluated.



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This ranges from problem analysis, figuring out possible alternatives, and testing alternatives for their feasibility and practicality.

- **Choice and Implementation** stage comprises of selecting the most suitable alternative, and that is implemented.
- **Review stage** involves monitoring the performance of the implemented course of action and evaluating outcomes.

As per the rational decision-making model, a complete rational decision-maker is an 'economic man' as defined by neo-classical theory. And, in the state of classical perfect rationality condition, each possible alternative would be given a numerical utility value, and the alternative having the highest value would be selected as a rational perfect decision. (Henry 2003)

As stated above, in this manner, it is assumed that the rational decision maker:

- Knows all about problems, information, and alternatives
- Knows the outcome of each alternative
- Knows all the preferences of all the outcomes
- Have a sound computational cognitive ability to compare and choose the most preferred possible course of action.

Simon mentioned that it is a condition of perfect rationality, but in an imaginary world. In a real-life situation, the whole decision-making process suffers from many limitations, like inadequate information, cognitive limitations, the possibility of chalking out all possible solutions, the decision-maker's own biases and beliefs, intellectual and skilled capacity, the external environment, organisational factors, etc. (Henry 2003)

Simon didn't negate that crucial role of rationality in decision-making and highlighted the importance of rationality, stating that "all decisions should be based on rational choices as preferred behaviour alternatives in terms of some system of values whereby the consequences of behaviour can be evaluated." He explained rationality as a means-end construct. Out of many possible alternatives, picking the one doesn't signify that the rest are not suitable or wrong. As per Simon, if we go by rationality, we will understand that in that particular situation,



that particular course of action is selected by the decision maker. However, in different situations, the decision-maker might opt for some other alternative. So, rationality helps to understand the problem better.

Simon suggested that there are mainly six types of rationality:

- Subjective rationality: a decision is considered subjectively rational if it leads to the maximisation of the achievement in comparison to the knowledge of the subject.
- Objective rationality: a decision is considered objectively rational if it maximises the given value in that given situation.
- Deliberate rationality means deliberately adjusting the means to ends.
- Conscious rationality refers to the conscious process of adjusting means to end.
- Personal rationality is related to decisions directly to individual
- Organisation rationality refers to the extent to which decisions are related to the organisation. (Simon 1947)

Herbert Simon's theory of rational decision-making differed from the traditional rational decision-making model because in Simon's theory, values, preferences, and rationality have given major importance. Simon's theory has adequate analysis of behavioural approaches and has universal application.

According to Simon, "the Rational-Economic Model (classical decision theory) assumes the manager faces a clearly defined problem, knows all possible action alternatives and their consequences, and then chooses the optimum solution. Whereas in Administrative Model (Behavioural), the behavioural decision theory accepts the notion of bounded rationality. It assumes the manager acts only in terms of what is perceived about a given situation and then chooses a satisfying solution." (Simon, 1947)

Understanding the Concept of Bounded Rationality

Rationality is the central point in Simon's decision-making model. On the basis of this boundless rationality concept, Simon has tried to show the limitations



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of human rationality and how human rationality differs from pure economic rationality.

The 'Bounded rationality' decision-making model of Herbert Simon provides a holistic understanding of how decisions are taken. The basic principle of this theory works on the same line that decision-making is a rational process. However, Simon gives a condition here that as the decision maker lacks the basic cognitive ability and due to many other limitations like time constraints, lack of information, organisational procedure, etc., the decision maker cannot attain the optimal decision that can maximise benefits with minimum costs. (Bhattacharya and Chakrabarty, 2005)

Instead, the decision-maker, in such cases, on the basis of his/her rationality, opts for a suitable course of action, thus making 'good enough' decisions. The rationality here is that the decision-maker is fully aware of limitations and then opts for the most suitable possible alternative.

The theory of bounded rationality highlights the point that decision-makers should adapt the rational approach and must determine the extent and range of information that needs to be gathered and processed for identification of the problem, creating alternative solutions at the information gathering and analysing stage, and finally choosing the alternative.

Simon clearly points out that the decision-maker is not in control of all the stakeholders and of the environment and that is why it is almost impossible for a rational man to take rational decisions knowing their limitations. So, with limited information and manageable alternatives, the decision maker would settle for a suitable alternative without exhaustive exploration. (Lumenlearning course)

The most important principle of the bounded rationality model is the 'principle of satisficing,' which means choosing the most suitable possible alternative that meets the minimum criteria. The concept of satisfying is similar to rational decision-making, but whereas later, the best possible alternative becomes the final choice, thus leading to maximisation of benefits and minimisation of costs, in the former, opting for a suitable alternative meeting minimum criteria saves efforts, time, and the most viable realistic approach to decision-making.



COMPLEX PROBLEMS



Figure 5.2: Bounded Rationality Decision-Making Model

(Source: ResearchGate)

Herbert Simon said that “the word satisficing is actually a combination of two words: satisfy and suffice. As one can get all information, and even if one gets all information, he will not be able to process it. In contrary, in bounded rationality, seeking ‘good enough’ something which is satisfactory, fulfilling minimum threshold, acceptable works best and in the practical world, this satisficing decision making is the most realistic approach.” Simon applied the concept of bounded rationality and satisficing to individual to organisational decisions. (Simon 1947; 1955)

So, in a nutshell, there are some basic factors that are leading to satisficing decisions based on bounded rationality. These are:

- Dynamic and complex nature of reality and administrative objectives.
- Limited ability of decision-makers to foresee the alternatives and outcomes.
- Lack of information and lack of cognitive and computational ability to process the information.
- Organisational pressure and other external factors in the environment.



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- Personal interests, preferences, and biases are bound to influence the decisions. (Bhattacharya and Chakrabarty, 2005)

On the basis of that, the administrative man has the following traits:

- On the basis of bounded rationality, the administrative man takes satisfactory decisions while meeting the minimum threshold.
- He takes a simplified version of the problem with only that much information, which he thinks adequate and does not fall for information analysis paralysis.
- Administrative man looks for satisficing conditions rather than maximisation conditions. (Bhattacharya and Chakrabarty, 2005)

Simon developed a more realistic, workable model of decision-making. Whereas the classical theory product 'the economic man' maximises, Simon's 'administrative man' satisfices. Administrative man simplifies the situation by considering fewer for deciding which he thinks is crucial.

A practical decision maker would opt for a satisfactory decision in order to solve the problem rather than going for an endless hunting of the ideal perfect option. A good decision-maker will only consider information that he is aware of and see the relevance of these, which he can process and interpret for proper decision-making.

Critique of Simon's Bounded Rationality Model

The bounded rationality model of decision-making is an acclaimed theory of decision-making, but many researchers claim that this theory, despite its differences, still comes under the school of rational decision-making. Scholars like Huber, Das, and Teng stated that there is no clear-cut distinction between perfect and bounded rationality. As per these scholars, Simon himself admitted that this theory of bounded rationality is a theory of rational decision-making with conditions..

Simon has also been criticised for giving too much importance to the role of decision-making and setting up the decision-making process as the only most important activity of the organisation. In that process, Simon neglected the role of



political, social, cultural, and economic factors and how they are influencing the administrative behaviour. Critics point out that decision-making is the important function of organisation, but by theorising and analysing only decision-making, one cannot understand the organisation fully.

Critics like Norton E. Ling and P. Selznick commented that the dichotomy of fact and value in Simon's theory is basically a revision in a new way of the discredited dichotomy of politics and administration. They further stated that Simon undermined the role of bureaucracy in administrative studies and limited it to a neutral agent, which is not true in the real sense. Bureaucracy is the most important agency in administrative studies, and without understanding the bureaucracy, the study of administrative behaviour would always remain flawed and narrow in its approach. (Henry 2003)

Das and Teng criticised Simon's theory of bounded rationality for its factual-based analysis and excluded values. For them, the bounded rationality theory of decision-making is more relevant to business administration, for private organisations, and not for public administration and governmental activities. In public administration, along with the factual data, many social and ethical values and welfare concerns have to be taken into account while deciding, and it is difficult to measure these factors just in the units of costs. (Henry, 2003)

Critics have also pointed out that the distinction between facts and values and the exclusion of values is not a correct way of approaching the problems, as values hold an essential part of policy-making cycle. Excluding values and limiting the policymaking to only factual study would make the public administration too mundane, routine, mechanical, and antipublic.

Many critics maintained that efficiency and cost-benefit analysis should not be the only concerns of decision-making. Satisfaction of all the stakeholders, societal welfare, and optimal utilisation of resources are also equally important objectives of decision-making, which Simon has ignored in the process.

Then, Simon has also been criticised for considering rationality as the only and most crucial element of decision-making. Whereas in reality, along with rationality, many other non-rational dimensions play an important role in



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decision-making. Simon has failed to recognise the role of tradition, faith, culture, personality traits, intuition, and creativity in decision-making.

In this regard, Chris Argyris criticised Simon for not acknowledging the influential role traditional values, belief systems, and intuition, or sixth sense, play in the whole decision-making process. (Bhattacharya and Chakrabarty, 2005)

Critics are sceptical that Simon's idea of 'satisficing' might become a 'justification tool' or an excuse for those who are not serious about their decisions and taking decisions that are less beneficial.

They also criticise that the difference between 'maximising' and 'satisficing' is not clear; rather, these are overlapping and relative to each other, as under many situations, satisficing conditions can also lead to maximisation and vice versa, and again, in many conditions, these two can be poles apart.

The Simon model is an attainable model for many critics because it is unattainable and idealistic to fit into real public administration and the real world. Critics commented that the concepts of bounded rationality and satisfying are oversimplified and too generalistic ideas and have nothing to guide or contribute to the real planners.

Despite the criticism, Simon's contribution and his pathbreaking work in public administration cannot be neglected. With the rational decision-making model, a new paradigm emerged in the discipline of public administration with a behavioural approach, shifting the traditional approach with a more scientific and logical orientation. Herbert Simon highlighted the significance of decision-making as a role of choice can give a better understanding of the administration and would help to understand the dynamics of administrative behaviour.

Influenced by Simon's idea and this pathbreaking work, several public administration theorists, management thinkers, and economists like Victor Thompson, Anthony Downs, Michel Crozier, Gordon Tullock, Dwight Waldo, and Golembiewski have further researched and contributed to the study of administrative behaviour.



Decision Making Model	Use This Model When:
Rational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Information on alternatives can be gathered and quantified. The decision is important. You are trying to maximize your outcome.
Bounded Rationality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The minimum criteria are clear. You do not have or you are not willing to invest much time to making the decision. You are not trying to maximize your outcome.
Intuitive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Goals are unclear. There is time pressure and analysis paralysis would be costly. You have experience with the problem.
Creative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Solutions to the problem are not clear. New solutions need to be generated. You have time to immerse yourself in the issues.

Figure 5.3: Models of Decision Making at a Glance

(Source: Lumenlearning.com)

Conclusion

As discussed, decision-making is one of the most important activities of not only an organisation but an essential part of everybody's daily life. A good decision is linked to the efficiency and effectiveness of the choices one makes. Whereas the rational model characterises the decision-maker as a rational economic man, later Simon's rational model of decision-making shows, despite the limitations of the decision-maker, how the administrative man optimises.

Simon, as opposed to the hard system approach, makes the decision-making relatively simple and clear. In the real world, problems are complex and face many constraints of varying range and degree. With a fast-moving economy and ever-changing administrative functioning, decision-making has become tougher and faces newer challenges.



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Along with the manifestation of the problem based on these models, a decision maker or an administrator or policymaker can improve his/her understanding of the social, economic, political, cultural, and cognitive factors and bring new ways of dealing with the issues and problems. The main objective is to create more suitable and relevant conditions to make good choices for the welfare of society at large.

In-Text Questions-2

A. Fill in the blanks:

1. The creative decision-making model emphasizes the power of _____ ideas.
2. According to the rational decision-making model, a decision is based on _____ evidence rather than guesswork.
3. Herbert Simon introduced the concept of _____ rationality, acknowledging limitations in human decision-making.
4. In the _____ model, decision-makers aim to optimize utility and minimize costs.
5. The principle of _____ involves choosing a satisfactory alternative that meets minimum criteria.

B. State True or False:

1. The intuitive decision-making model is entirely based on guesswork and lacks any systematic approach.
2. Creativity and innovation are the same, according to the creative model of decision-making.
3. The rational decision-making model involves a structured, multistep process focusing on logic and evidence.
4. Herbert Simon's bounded rationality model emphasizes that decision-makers always have complete information.
5. The principle of satisficing is about finding the best possible option that maximizes benefits.



5.12 SUMMARY

- Decision-making is the selection of a course of action from alternatives.
- Koontz and O'Donnel emphasize decision-making as a key function of management.
- Melvin T. Copeland and Peter Drucker view decision-making as integral to administration and managerial tasks.
- Decision-making involves cognitive processes such as thinking, analyzing, and selecting alternatives.
- It requires gathering information, identifying resources, assessing risks, and evaluating the effectiveness of decisions.
- Decision-making can vary in complexity based on individual or organizational contexts.
- Types of decisions include programmed and non-programmed decisions, organizational and personal decisions, individual and group decisions, routine and strategic decisions, and policy and operative decisions.
- Programmed decisions are routine, repetitive, and based on pre-existing solutions, while non-programmed decisions are unique, unstructured, and innovative.
- Organizational decisions focus on organizational goals, while personal decisions relate to individual goals.
- Individual decisions involve one person with clear accountability, while group decisions involve collective deliberation and shared accountability.
- Routine decisions address repetitive tasks with efficiency, while strategic decisions address serious issues requiring analysis and deliberation.
- Policy decisions set fundamental principles and long-term goals, while operative decisions implement these policies through short-term objectives.



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- Several principles guide decision-making, including the marginal principle, mathematical principle, psychological principle, limiting factor principle, participation principle, and alternative principle.
- Decision theory examines decision-making through psychology, mathematics, statistics, and social sciences, resulting in descriptive, prescriptive, and normative approaches.
- Descriptive decision theory focuses on real-life decision-making, prescriptive theory offers guidelines for uncertain environments, and normative theory emphasizes values and norms.
- The four decision-making models are intuitive, creative, rational, and bounded rational, each with its specific application and risks.
- Intuitive decision-making focuses on making decisions quickly without conscious reasoning, often criticized as gut-feeling based but systematic in approach.
- The creative decision-making model emphasizes imaginative ideas, creativity, and a multi-disciplinary approach to innovate and set new trends while balancing cost and feasibility.
- Rational decision-making follows a structured process using logic and evidence to optimize utility and minimize costs, often viewed as logical and objective.
- The rational model involves identifying problems, establishing criteria, exploring alternatives, evaluating options, and choosing and implementing the best solution, followed by evaluation.
- Assumptions of the rational model include having complete knowledge, perfect data for cost-benefit analysis, and the cognitive ability to process information and choose the best alternative.
- Critics argue that the model's unrealistic assumptions overlook limitations like imperfect information, decision-maker biases, and cognitive constraints.

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- Herbert Simon’s theory introduced behavioral approaches, challenging the rational model’s validity and emphasizing context, ethical values, and the complexity of decision-making in organizations.
- Simon proposed the bounded rationality model, acknowledging human limitations in rationality and emphasizing a “satisficing” approach—selecting a suitable option meeting minimum criteria rather than the best one.
- Bounded rationality focuses on making realistic, practical decisions within constraints of time, information, and cognitive abilities.

5.13 GLOSSARY

- **Programmed decisions:** Routine and repetitive decisions based on pre-determined solutions.
- **Non-programmed decisions:** Unique, unstructured decisions requiring innovative approaches.
- **Marginal principle:** A decision-making principle based on diminishing returns.
- **Intuitive Decision-Making:** A decision process based on quick judgments without conscious reasoning, often influenced by gut feeling.
- **Creative Decision-Making:** A model that involves imaginative thinking and innovation to find new solutions.
- **Rational Decision-Making:** A logical, step-by-step approach to decision-making using evidence and reasoning to optimize outcomes.
- **Bounded Rationality:** Herbert Simon’s concept that decision-makers operate under constraints and cannot achieve perfect rationality, opting instead for satisfactory solutions.



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- **Satisficing:** Choosing an option that meets minimum acceptable criteria rather than the optimal one, considering practical constraints.

5.14 ANSWERS TO IN-TEXT QUESTIONS

In-text Questions-1

- A.** 1. assessing
2. routine
3. Personal
4. shared
5. Prescriptive

- B.** 1. False
2. False
3. True
4. True
5. False

In-text Questions-2

- A.** 1. imaginative
2. logical
3. bounded
4. rational
5. satisficing

- B.** 1. False
2. False
3. True



4. False

5. False

5.15 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain about decision making theory in public administration.
2. Examine the Herbert Simon's rational theory of decision making.
3. Critically examine the evolution of Herbert Simon's models.

5.16 REFERENCES/SUGGESTED READINGS

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LESSON 6

ECOLOGICAL APPROACH (FRED RIGGS)

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STRUCTURE

- 6.1 Learning Objectives
- 6.2 Introduction
- 6.3 Riggs' Ecological Approach to Administrative System
- 6.4 'Agraria' (Fused), 'Industria' (Diffracted) and 'Prismatic' Societies
- 6.5 Sala Model: Administrative Subsystem in Prismatic Society
- 6.6 Bazaar Canteen: Prismatic Society's Economic Subsystem
- 6.7 Summary
- 6.8 Glossary
- 6.9 Answers to In-Text Questions
- 6.10 Self-Assessment Questions
- 6.11 References/Suggested Readings

6.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, students should be able to:

- Understand the ecological approach in public administration.
- Study Riggs' Ecological Models.

6.2 INTRODUCTION

In the field of comparative public administration, F W Riggs (1917-2008) was a pioneer intellectual in the period of post-world war II. He was the chairman of Comparative Administration Group (CAG) of the American Society for Public Administration. CAG maintained that in order to enrich the discipline

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of Comparative Public Administration and to make it more scientific, it has to be more critical, analytical, and cross-cultural. Delivering his lecture at Indian Institute of Public Administration in New Delhi (1969), Riggs has chosen his title of talk as '*The Ecology of Public Administration*'. He had selected three models viz., United State of America, Thailand, and Philippines to illustrate different models of administration. The contemporary studies in public administration made use of ecological approach to the public administration developed by F W Riggs in 1950s and 1960s. He revised and reexamined his study various times and offered cross-cultural analysis of administration.

He was the first who gave intellectual and organizational leadership to the Comparative Public Administration (CPA) movement in 1950s and 1960s. His empirical and comparative studies of the administration popularly known as ecological approach are found in his books '*The Ecology of Public Administration*' (1961), and '*Administration in Developing Countries: The Theory of Prismatic Society*' (1964). Riggs borrowed from Sutton's two ideal model of Agraria and Industria to illustrate the relationship between societal structure, administration, and whole culture. He illustrated the typology in comparative public administration as Agraria and Industria, and claimed that similar category can be developed by illustrating relationship between administration, society, and culture. Later he termed 'Agraria' as a 'Fused' model and 'Industria' as 'Diffracted' model and further developed an intermediary model which Riggs called as 'Prismatic' model. It is discussed below in details. His contribution in the study of administrative structure and their socio-economic environment (Ecology) in developing societies (Third World) is popularly known as '*Fused-Prismatic-Diffracted Model*'. It is famous as an ecological approach to the public administration. F W Riggs' task was to investigate how administration interacts with their social and economic factors in developing societies.

In the post-World War II period, many nation-states have become free in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. These developing countries are considered backward as per the norms of western model of development, they were ruled by western administrative systems originated in western countries. It was interesting for scholars to inquire how western originated administrative system does



function in these post-colonial societies. Many western scholars have started to study the public administrative system in developing societies in a comparative perspective. Riggs was one of them. His study is unique in the sense he looked at functioning of administration in the context of socio-economic and cultural factors of the society. In other words, he emphasized on interaction between administration and its environment such as social, political, and cultural context. He also highlighted that western model of administration is relatively less relevant in the developing societies where ecology viz., social, economic, and cultural environment is very much different from western society. Unlike western societies, the administrative system in developing countries are considerably shaped by the social, economic, and cultural context.

6.3 RIGGS' ECOLOGICAL APPROACH TO ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM

Initially ecological approach was applied to biology which refers to mutual relation among organisms, especially between organisms and their environment. In public administration, ecological approach denotes administration and their environment influences each-other. An inquiry into the dynamic process of interaction between administration and their larger ecology is necessary to understand administration. In the study of public administration, this approach was introduced by J M Gaus, Robert A. Dahl, Robert A Morton but F W Riggs's contribution is significant. Developing the concept, he analyzed the relationship between the administrative system and social, political, cultural, technological, and communication factors in a larger perspective. He studied interaction between administrative systems and their larger ecology in Thailand and Philippines and showed how environmental conditions (ecology) influence the functioning of administrative systems. By doing this, he tried to understand the disparity between the administrative system of developed and developing countries. Each nation has a different social, economic, and cultural setting which shapes the functioning of administration.



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In analyzing administrative systems from an ecological point of view, F. W. Riggs has applied a structural-functional approach. Talcott Parsons, Robert A. Morton, and G. Almond have applied a structural-functional approach in their study. Structural-functional approach signifies that in every society certain important function are carried out by a number of structures. This approach is a method of analyzing the functions that are carried out in a society and the structures that are responsible to carry out functions. Riggs insists that in every society, five types of functions are discharged viz., social, economic, communication, symbolic, and political.

6.4 ‘AGRARIA’ (FUSED), ‘INDUSTRIA’ (DIFFRACTED) AND ‘PRISMATIC’ SOCIETIES

For the purpose of analysis, Riggs has developed models of administrative systems. In the 1950s, he divided societies into two groups: ‘Agraria’ (Fused) and ‘Industria’ (Diffracted). ‘Agraria’ (fused) refers to post-colonial societies dominated by a traditional economic system like subsistence agricultural economy. No modernization in economy and politics have taken place, so primordial social and cultural systems exist along with traditional subsistence economies, for example, China, Indonesia, and Philippines in the 1950s. In these societies, a single structure carries out a number of functions. Economics in these societies are based on the traditional mode of exchange system and barter system. The king or royal family and nominated member rules the country with established traditional social laws. The administrative system in these societies are based on the structure of the king/royal family and the entire administrative system serves the interest of the royal family rather than to the people of the society aimed at development, happiness, and a good life. Parochial culture dominates the society at large and ascriptive values matter in everyday life. In these societies, people have very limited social and political mobility and there is no specialized division of labour. Old age customs, faith, value, belief, and way of living enabled people to live their life collectively and control each-other’s



behaviour. In these societies, critical thinking or examination is depicted as a threat to the society. The Royal Family is all in all the country's life and common people live a subjugated life.

In contrast, 'Industria' (Diffraction) refers to a developed society like the United States of America whose economy was majorly industrial along with modern political and bureaucratic structures. In these societies, modern industries play an important role in shaping a country's economic structure along with a dynamic system of production and high level of specialized division of labour. All organizations and structures are created and based on the basis of modern scientific rationality. Economy is based on free market rationalization. Riggs termed these societies as free marketized societies. In 'Industria' (Diffraction) society, government's intervention in the market and market operation is negligible. Social and spatial mobilities are very high and people enjoy modern technology for their industries and individual's utility.

In politics, democratic values like individual liberty, equality, and justice play an indispensable role in a country's political structure. Individuals have certain fundamental rights against excesses of the state. Citizens have the right to participate in elections and get elected for even the highest political office. Ascriptive values do not matter too much in public/political life and the government is responsive to the citizens' development, happiness, and good life. In these societies, there are independent civil society organizations in order to protect the interest of the common people and government's response to the protection of human rights is enormous. Citizens' groups pressurize the government to work in the interest of the common people and get their demand fulfilled. There is consensus among citizens about how to organize collective affairs of the state and basic aspects of social life at large. People pay attention and give respect to common laws of the nation. They are active regarding government's policy. In these societies, there are more or less universal political cultures and citizens are open minded and critical to the government's public policy.

Administration in these societies are more or less independent, accountable, and transparent. They serve to 'rule of law' in the interest of common citizens



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rather than to any family or group. Entire administrative systems are based on Max Weber's *legal-rational authority* rather than traditional social ascriptive values. The Weberian model of bureaucratic systems works in these societies. Universalization of rule of law is applied to everyone irrespective of their ascriptive identities. According to Riggs, all societies transform from 'Agraria' to 'Industria' in due course of time. For him, 'Agraria' is functionally diffused societies also known as 'fused' societies (In primordial societies, various social and economic functions are functionally diffused, that is, there is no specified division of labour), but industrial societies (Industria) are functionally diffracted as division of labour and are highly specified. These are two but diametrically opposed societies. He has identified structural features of 'Agraria' and 'Industria' which are as following:

	Agraria (Fused)	Industria (Diffracted)
1	Ascriptive value	Modern value
2	Particularistic or parochial cultural	Universal political culture
3	Diffused pattern	Specificity
4	Limited social and spatial mobility	High social and spatial mobility
5	Simple and stable occupational differences	Well-developed occupational pattern
6	Differential social stratification	Existence of egalitarian class system

Source: Prasad and Prasad (Ch.17, p.215)

Later Riggs developed an equilibrium model named '*transitia*' which refers to transforming societies which represent transitional stages from agrarian to industrial economic systems. These societies are economically, socially, and politically between 'Agraria' and 'Industria' and reflect characteristics of 'Agraria' as well as 'Industria'. Riggs called it '*prismatic*' societies, an intermediate society between fused and diffracted.

Firstly, it must be noted that 'prismatic' societies are the post-colonial societies who have been freed from colonization of western power in the 1940s



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and 1950s. Western power ruled these societies for centuries through their developed administrative system along with their social, economic, political, technological as well as cultural domination. They imposed a modern bureaucratic system to govern these societies. They have also recruited local people in their bureaucracy in a limited sense. In the post Second World War, these countries have gained independence. Secondly, when these western powers left these countries, they left structures of modern bureaucratic systems, political systems, industrial systems, and technological systems in these countries continuing with indigenous people. So, these societies consist of a modern economic, political, and administrative system along with traditional social, political, and cultural structures. Therefore, these societies are intermediate societies between 'Agraria' (Fused) and 'Industria' (Diffracted). Riggs was curious to look into the relation between western imposed administrative system and their social as well as cultural environment in prismatic society.

In 'prismatic' societies, one can find that a traditional subsistence agricultural economy exists along with modern heavy industrialization. Big and modern cities exist along with rural hinterland and modern political institutions exist along with traditional social, political, and cultural structure. People's behaviour in these societies vary from participation political culture (citizens aware of their rights and assertiveness for their due) to parochial political culture (politically unaware citizens who find themselves powerless in front of bureaucratic structure and state). One can find mix-political cultural structure in these societies. Here, there are large gaps between rural-urban divide, poor-rich divide along with divide in the administrative practice in favour of dominant class/caste. Administrative structure functions within their social, economic, political, technological, and cultural environment.

Riggs' focus of study was a prismatic society where one can find characteristics of modern industrial societies like heavy industry, technology, modern political structures like parliament, judiciary, and bureaucracy as well as primordial social, economic, and culture structures like hierarchy based on traditional social stratification, social status, and traditional ascriptive identities



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that dominates in everyday life. Traditional social values have equal or more importance than modern values like individual's rights, liberty, and equality. Riggs' interest was to inquire about interactions between modern bureaucracy and their social, economic, and cultural structure in developing societies. In other words, Riggs was concerned with social structure at large of the prismatic society and their interaction with the administrative subsystem.

Riggs has identified three characteristics of prismatic society which are as follows:

1. **Heterogeneity:** It refers to the co-existence of modernity along with traditional things; simultaneous presence of different kinds of systems, practice, and view point. Riggs finds a high degree of heterogeneity in prismatic society regarding structure, practice, and worldview.
2. **Formalism:** There is a large gap between envisaged vision of the society in the constitution and actual practice. Discrepancy exists between descriptive and perspective, between formal power and effective power, and between aims and objectives stated in the constitution and real practice. Due to formalism, actual behaviour bureaucratic officials vary and result in official corruption.
3. **Overlapping:** In a prismatic society, a modern political and administrative structures have been created but indifferent and traditional structures continue to dominate in the social behaviour system. Thus, newly created highly modern structures are paid only lip-service and overlooked widely in favour of traditional social structures. This is regarded as *overlapping*. Western bureaucratic and political structures have been created for administrative purposes but often ignored in favour of traditional social structures. Thus, modern structures co-exist with traditional ones but traditional structures continue to dominate in actual practice.

Overlapping has several important dimensions like *nepotism*, *favouritism*, *poly-communalism* (hostile interaction among different groups), *poly-normativism* (existence of several norms rational as well as irrational/traditional), existence of *clefts* (interest groups based on communal identity), *poly normativism*



(various norms for various group depending on group's social status and bargaining capacity), and modern administrative system co-exists with traditional administrative structures. Riggs calls economic structures in prismatic society as **bazar-canteen** and it has characterized a different set of prices for a commodity or service for different sets of people depending on social status and bargaining capacity.

6.5 SALA MODEL: ADMINISTRATIVE SUBSYSTEM IN PRISMATIC SOCIETY

The prismatic society is characterized by numerous social, economic, political, and administrative sub-systems. Riggs calls the administrative subsystem a 'sala' model. In Diffracted (Industria) societies, it is termed as 'office' or 'bureau', and in Fused (Agraria) societies, it is termed as 'chamber'. These three administrative structures have different characteristics of their own. In a prismatic society, nepotism, patronage, or favouritism based on family relationship and kinship is prevalent. In fact, nepotism or favouritism plays a very significant role in selection in various administrative offices and performance of administrative functions. Family lineage, kinship, and traditional law prevailed and universalization of rule of law was lacking in practice or in fact disregarded. The sala official gives priority to social structure while dealing with administrative matters. They prioritize family/kinship and social ascriptive identity of the individual rather than the political equality of common citizens. They increase personal power, wealth, and prosperity rather than doing social welfare. The 'sala' official behaviour and performance are highly influenced by his socialization and parochial character. As a result, they don't apply laws universally. They are biased and their action and interactions are guided by his ascriptive value and parochialism. Few get more benefits from the government programme and rest remain ignored from government's general welfare schemes.

Various social groups interact with each-other as communal members rather than common citizens. In prismatic society, these communal identities and their



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hostile interaction is denoted as ***poly-communalism***. Interest groups are formed on the basis of ascriptive identities and there is constant struggle among these groups to get bureaucratic favours. These interest groups based on ascriptive/communal identities are known as ***clects***. In his study of prismatic society, Riggs has noted that poly-communalism and presence of clects creates certain administrative problems. Normatively speaking, government officers implement laws, schemes, and programme universally and without any favouritism and discrimination, but sala officials shows greater loyalty towards member of their own community. In the process, a dominant minority community gets high proportion representation in government recruitment, and gets elected in parliament and assembly. Over-representation of the socially dominant minority creates dissatisfaction among vulnerable caste/class. To diffuse the situation and to protect the interest of vulnerable groups/class and minorities, certain mechanisms of 'quotas' or reservation system adopted to provide some sort of proportional representation in administration and government's institutions. As a result, such an arrangement creates mutual hostilities in the socially dominant caste/class against marginal caste/class who get representation through the 'quota' system. It creates tension among various communities which further generates hostilities among sala officials working in the government.

Family, community, and caste plays indispensable roles in society and simultaneously several groups emerge on the basis of caste/community membership. Riggs termed these groups as clects, a typical group (associational organization) in prismatic society depicting modern values but retaining traditional social law and values in practice. Administrative structures in such society deliver functions giving priority to clects and sometimes sala official or one of its agency develop closer relationship with particular clects and start functioning itself like clects. Thus, in prismatic society, administrative structure continues to maintain close relationships with particular clects and works for their interests and only pay lip services to achievement and universalization of norms.

In prismatic society, the traditional behaviour co-exists with a modern set of norms. As a result, there is overlapping of the formal standard and informal set of norms. There is no consensus on norms of behaviour. The sala official



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may be appointed on the basis of high educational qualification and competitive examination, but for promotion and career development, they largely depend on ascriptive identity, and favour of senior officials. The sala officials claim modern universalization of application of laws but they are indifferent and inconsistent in their behaviour in day to day administrative function. Riggs finds administrative structure divided in the *de jure* (legal) power and *de facto* (actual/real) control in the prismatic society where the *de jure* authority succumbs to the *de facto* control. The authority of the sala officials overlap with traditional social authority and control structure based on poly communism, clects and poly normativism (various norms for various groups depending on the group's social status and bargaining capacity). Various social structures function differently and sometimes it behaves against the very purpose of the administration for which it has created. There is overlapping authority of socially dominant class and the sala officials.

Riggs depicted polity of the prismatic society as 'unbalanced polity' and administrative bureaucratic officers exercise a dominant role in the decision-making process, despite the political leaders' constitutional power. Due to such centralization and concentration of power in bureaucrats, there is a lack of response to the citizens' need and welfare. Riggs concluded that such development of bureaucracy in prismatic society hinders the progress of political development. In such weak political development modern institutional structures like legislature, political party, voluntary organization, and civil societies become less effective.

Riggs said that the efficiency of the administrative system depends on the skills and acumen of the politician whether he/she is able/unable to punish the inefficient bureaucrats, but often bureaucrats escape his/her wrong decision and action, and go unpunished. In such circumstances talented sala officials tend to spend more time in self-aggrandizement and for the promotion of self-interest. Since the government's output highly depends on the sala official, there is a close link between bureaucrats' behaviour and administrative output. The most powerful bureaucrat is often a less efficient administrator. As a result, the sala official is characterized by nepotism and favouritism, institutionalized corruption, and inefficiency in the administrative output. The sala is officially governed by the motive of self-interest and personal power and to protect their own interest.



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6.6 BAZAAR CANTEEN: PRISMATIC SOCIETY'S ECONOMIC SUBSYSTEM

F W Riggs described the economic subsystem of the prismatic society as a bazaar-canteen model. In a diffracted society, economic system depends on free-market rule of demand and supply and also on market's economic consideration. In contrast, the economic system of the fused society depends on 'arena factors' like religious, social, and king/royal family consideration. In prismatic society, both market factors as well as 'arena factors' play an important role in shaping the economic system. Economic factors interact with non-economic factors and influence the economic structure. Under such circumstances, it is not possible to have a common price for a commodity or service in a prismatic society. Price of a commodity or service depends on a combination of the market factors as well as arena factors coexisting together. In prismatic society, a small fraction of the people enjoys most of the benefits and substantially control over economic institutions. As a result, a small fraction of people not only control over economic institutions, they exploit a large section of the population. These are a few characteristics of the bazaar-canteen model. Influences of a small section of people on economic structures and institutions result in slow economic development and progress.

In a diffracted society, everyone gets the services on equal basis and without any discrimination and favouritism. In such society employees get salary and remuneration based on his/her skills and talents, and on the basis of market price value of labour. In contrast, people get services in fused society on the basis of Royal family's or kings' patronage. In prismatic society, one can witness equality in urban areas while services in rural areas are based on patronage and favouritism. But in prismatic society, the relationship between bureaucratic (the Sala) officials and their clientele is like buyer-seller. The price of service depends on the nature of the relationship between the sala official and their clientele. The price of the commodity or service varies from place to place, time to time, and person to person. It also depends on the family contact, social status, bargaining capacity, individual relationship, and power politics. Services are guaranteed



to the socially dominant class/caste and at lower prices but the marginal caste/class has to pay heavy charges. Thus, the economic structure and institutions of the prismatic society acts like a 'subsidized' canteen to the members of the dominant community, elects, privileged groups, and politically influential people have access to market and its institutions like canteen for the army who serves at the subsidized rate. Conversely, it behaves like a 'tributary' canteen to the members of the marginal communities who have to pay a higher price than the influential political people and dominant caste/class.

The fluctuation of price in prismatic society creates more problems and it encourages black marketing, hoarding, adulteration, and ultimately leads to high inflation in the economy. It has a direct impact on common people. In such a situation, the sala official in prismatic society tries to develop contacts with business groups, foreign business clubs and institutions, and misuse foreign exchange for private purposes. It would often lead to large corruption, exploitation of the common people, poverty, and decline of life standard of common people in prismatic society. In prismatic society, the wage depends on political influence. There is a great division between the higher wage and lower wage in terms of economy and that results in high economic inequality and social injustice. Thus, exploitation, poverty, and social injustice become the major features of the bazaar canteen model.

Conclusion

F W Riggs' ecological approach has been criticized for being too pessimistic about the post-colonial society and neglecting social change. It is too much theoretical without adequate empirical evidence and too static about the external factors and overgeneralization. Riggs himself examined and re-examined his own model of public administration in developing society. His model is too broad and is an overgeneralization of the post-colonial society. Great scholar of the public administration, Ramesh Arora has identified the negative character of the prismatic/ecological model of the public administration. He argues that Riggs' ecological model has western bias towards post-colonial society and the model has portrayed a negative picture of the prismatic society. Actually, study was conducted with parameters of western society and it has painted a bad picture.



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It is not that administration in the prismatic society has all bad characteristics, there are many good characteristics that Riggs' ignored in his study like nation-building institutions. It isn't that the administrative office 'bureau' is not corrupt and biased in western society but Riggs has painted them as transparent and clean.

Riggs in his study of post-colonial societies left many variables that are very important to understand the bureaucracy like population, territorial size, the role of the military, and especially the role of national leaders/freedom fighters who have played important role in creating the entire structure of the post-colonial state. Most importantly, the unique social context of each country influences the administrative behaviour that Riggs seldom debated in his entire explanation of the 'sala' official as well as the bazaar canteen economy.

In-Text Questions

1. Fred W. Riggs introduced the _____ approach to study public administration.
2. The three models Riggs developed were Agraria, Industria, and _____ society.
3. The administrative subsystem in prismatic societies is known as the _____ model.
4. Agraria societies are characterized by _____ values and low social mobility.
5. In the Industria model, there is a clear division of _____.
6. Formalism in prismatic societies refers to a gap between _____ and actual practice.
7. The economic subsystem in prismatic societies is described as the _____ model.
8. Poly-communalism refers to the existence of multiple _____ groups in prismatic societies.
9. Clects are social groups based on _____ identity that influence politics and administration.
10. In prismatic societies, administrative officials often prioritize _____ gain over public welfare.



6.7 SUMMARY

- Fred W. Riggs was a pioneer in the field of comparative public administration and introduced the ecological approach to study administrative systems.
- His ecological approach emphasized the relationship between administrative systems and their social, political, and cultural environments.
- Riggs developed three key models: Agraria (Fused), Industria (Diffracted), and Prismatic Society, representing different stages of societal development.
- Agraria societies are characterized by traditional economies, with low social mobility and ascriptive values dominating public life.
- Industria societies are industrialized, with modern political and economic systems, high social mobility, and a division of labor.
- The Prismatic society is a transitional model, with features of both Agraria and Industria societies.
- Prismatic societies exhibit heterogeneity, formalism, and overlapping, where modern and traditional systems coexist but are often in conflict.
- Riggs described the administrative subsystem of prismatic societies using the Sala model, where nepotism and favoritism prevail in government appointments.
- Poly-communalism and clebs in prismatic societies create divisions based on social groups, leading to favoritism and unequal access to resources.
- Riggs identified formalism in prismatic societies, where there is a gap between the formal rules and their actual practice.
- The Bazaar-Canteen model explains the economic subsystem in prismatic societies, where prices and access to services depend on social status and bargaining power.
- Nepotism and corruption are prevalent in prismatic societies, with administrative officials prioritizing personal gain over public welfare.



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- Overlapping authority between traditional and modern structures leads to inefficiency and administrative challenges in prismatic societies.
- Prismatic societies face issues such as high economic inequality, slow development, and social injustice due to the coexistence of modern and traditional systems.
- Riggs criticized the dominance of bureaucracy in prismatic societies, which hinders political development and responsiveness to citizens' needs.
- Riggs highlighted the importance of understanding local social contexts in analyzing administrative systems.
- The Sala model describes how administrative systems in prismatic societies are influenced by kinship and social structures.
- In the Bazaar-Canteen economy, services are provided unequally, with the socially dominant groups benefiting the most.
- The ecological approach underscores that administrative systems cannot be isolated from their broader social, cultural, and political environments.
- Riggs' work remains influential in understanding the interaction between administration and society, especially in developing countries.

6.8 GLOSSARY

- **Ecological Approach:** It is a method of studying public administration by examining its interaction with social, political, and cultural environments.
- **Agraria Society:** It is a fused society characterized by traditional economies and limited social mobility.
- **Industria Society:** It is a diffracted society with industrial economies, modern political structures, and high social mobility.
- **Prismatic Society:** It is a transitional society combining elements of both traditional (Agraria) and modern (Industria) societies.



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- **Sala Model:** It is the administrative subsystem in prismatic societies, marked by nepotism and favoritism.
- **Formalism:** It is a gap between the formal rules and their actual practice in prismatic societies.
- **Poly-communalism:** It is the existence of multiple communal groups that interact based on social identity, often leading to conflict.
- **Cleets:** These are social or communal groups that influence administrative and political systems in prismatic societies.
- **Bazaar-Canteen Model:** It is an economic system in prismatic societies where prices and services vary based on social status and connections.
- **Nepotism:** It is favoritism based on family or social connections, common in prismatic societies.
- **Overlapping:** It is the coexistence of modern and traditional systems, often creating conflict and inefficiency.
- **Heterogeneity:** It is the presence of diverse and conflicting social, political, and cultural elements in prismatic societies.
- **Ascriptive Values:** These are social values based on inherited status, such as caste or family lineage.
- **Diffacted:** It is a term used to describe societies with a clear division of labour and modern political structures.
- **Fused:** These are societies where traditional systems dominate, and there is little division of labour or social mobility.

6.9 ANSWERS TO IN-TEXT QUESTIONS

1. Ecological
2. Prismatic
3. Sala
4. Ascriptive



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5. Labor
6. Formal rules
7. Bazaar-Canteen
8. Communal
9. Ascriptive
10. Personal

6.10 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain the ecologic approach in public administration.
2. Critically examine the Riggs Ecological Model.
3. What is Sala Model? Explain the Sala Model in Public Administration.

6.11 REFERENCES/SUGGESTED READINGS

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Unit III: Contemporary Theoretical Perspectives

Lesson 7 Contemporary Theoretical Perspectives



LESSON 7

CONTEMPORARY THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

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- 7.13 Answers to In-Text Questions
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7.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, students should be able to:

- Explain the concept of New Public Management
- Differentiate between traditional and new theories of management
- Trace the evolution of New Public Management and highlight its features as well as nature
- Examine the impact of New Public Management
- Explain the concept of New Public Service
- Trace the evolution of New Public Service
- Differentiate between New Public Service and New Public Management
- Trace the genesis of Good Governance
- Discuss the concept of Good Governance and its importance
- Distinguish 'Governance' from 'Good Governance'
- Analyse the advantages and disadvantages of Collaborative Governance
- Discuss the concept of Network Governance
- Understand the concept of Digital Governance

7.2 INTRODUCTION

Public Administration has undergone numerous multidimensional changes such as theoretical, practical, social, political, economic, and cultural changes. The spread of liberalisation, privatisation, and globalisation growth in the sector of information technology, finance, communication, market, and any more are the



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aspects that are attributed to the rapid growth of globalisation. It also altered the public and private sector as well as the relation between these two. In the twenty first century, Globalisation is having an enormous impact on various aspects of life. Similarly, it also influenced various disciplines. All these developments, changes in public and private sector, and the altered path of discipline happens due to globalisation, which led to a change in the course and structure of public administration as well. In the past few years, the modification of economies, from command to market-oriented, across the globe, has raised various issues and concerns about the failure of the 'traditional' state model to implement appropriate policies and deliver effective services. The basic features of traditional public administration were put to question and a need for developing an alternative model of administration was felt.

Thus, to adapt with these changes, constant developments were taking place during the 80s and 90s in the West as the governments were trying to make adjustments related to the new technology, demands of society, and increase in competition. This search led to the development of a new kind of administration, managerial concepts, and techniques in the governmental systems, with an objective of making public organisations more effective, efficient, and economical which we know as New Public Management (NPM). NPM emerged as an outcome of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) followed by UK and USA to make their administration more systematic and potent. NPM tries to answer the question of renewed governmental functioning in the globalisation scenario. An attempt is made in this lesson to trace the emergence of New Public Management Perspective and highlight its salient features.

Public administration is a major part of the State because administration is an instrument through which objectives of the policy implementations are implemented. The major objective of State is 'governance'. Where the traditional method of governance believed that administration is a function of government, the new theories believed that both government and citizen are important for policy formulation and policy implementation. Public Administration has undergone various multidimensional changes such as political, social, economic, and cultural changes. The development of liberalisation, privatisation, and growth



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in the information technology department, banking, finance, communication, market, and many more are the factors that attributed to the rapid growth of globalization. Governance refers to the method of decision-making and the process by which policy-related decisions are implemented or not implemented. The 1992 report of World Bank titled “*Governance and Development*” elucidated good governance as “*the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country’s economic and social resources for development*”. Good Governance is a comparatively recent development in the discipline of Public Administration which involves consensus-oriented, responsible, clear, approachable, effective, efficient, impartial, and inclusive methods and follows the rule of law. The concept of good governance is a very dynamic concept. It encompasses various social, economic, and administrative dimensions.

Good Governance is an attempt to broaden the scope of public administration by including both formal and informal aspect. It makes public administration more open, transparent, and accountable.

7.3 EVOLUTIONARY OUTLINE

Earlier, state has always been the central focal point of governance. Welfare state is a political system where state plays a key role in the protection of citizen as well as improvement in the social and economic well-being of the citizen. But the developments in the 1980s and 1990s owed to liberalisation, privatization, and globalisation brought significant major changes and forced the state to change their traditional way of administration. Philosophy of ‘*private good*’ and ‘*public bad*’ came into light which was a pro market and anti-welfare state concept which in turn gave birth to the concept of New Public Management.

Public administration always favoured public interest but reliance on traditional system was not efficient any longer. Traditional system focussed on the task related to public and made sure that it should be in the hands of the administrators. Administration should be based on written documents. All the administrative tasks are to be organised in a continuous and rule governed way.



For any administrative work, trained officials are the key. The task in office work should be arranged in a hierarchical way. The main guiding philosophy in the traditional system of management is in the interest of public interest which is believed to control the influence of self-interest and private aims in politics and administration.

It was alleged that this traditional system was designed in such a way that it was very mechanical since it gave emphasis on division of work, power differentiation, central authority, and the distinction between public and private.

But the changes across the globe claimed that politics administration dichotomy is unreal and irrelevant. It went ahead from the concept of total rationality to the concept of bounded rationality. It focused on achievement of goals and effectiveness of it rather than rule-based administration. It believed that centrality leads to rigidity and prohibits the flow of communication and ideas.

Thus, the decades of 1980s and 1990s saw changes in administration such as:

- Shift from rigid, hierarchical, and bureaucratic form of public administration to a more market based and flexible form of public administration.
- Rise in government expenditure along with penurious performance led to the questioning of government expenditure.
- Emergence of Public Choice or New Right Group which focussed on free market economy and less government interference in markets.

All these factors led to the emergence of a new need-based system of administration known as New Public Service.

7.4 NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT: SALIENT FEATURES

The new public management emerged from the policies of Margaret Thatcher's and Ronald Reagan's policy, adopted in the late 20th century. It emerged as a



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new hope against the ineffective and inefficient system of government works. NPM focusses to achieve 3Es which are as follows:

- **Efficiency:** Effective delivery of service
- **Economy:** No wastage of resources
- **Effectiveness:** Targeting the resources on specific problems and to ensure specification of the objectives leading to the solution of the problem

The concept of New Public Management was theoretically propounded firstly by David Osborne and Ted Gaebler in their book titled '*Reinventing Government*' which was published in 1992. The first major shift in Public Administration was with the coming of New Public Administration while the second shift was with the advent of New Public Management. Although, the term 'New Public Management' was coined by Christopher Hood in his famous article '*A Public management for all Seasons*' which got published in the year 1991.

The emphasis of NPM is on appraisal which is based on performance, managerial autonomy, recognising the concept of bounded rationality, measures to effectively achieve cost-cutting, incentives, improvement in quality, targeted outputs, innovation, accountability, market-orientation, flexibility, availability of choices, recognising the competition, bureaucratization, and decentralisation.

It emphasised on the role and importance of market as against that of state since NPM believed market is the key that regulates the society. It focussed on dealing with the new global changes of liberalisation, privatization, and globalisation.

Salient Features of NPM

It includes:

- Focus on management, appraisal according to performance, and efficiency.
- Decentralisation and desegregation of the bureaucratic system and transferring service delivery responsibilities to lower levels.
- Ways of cost cutting.
- Freedom of management.



- Keeping the needs of customers as a priority.
- Recognising the politics and administration dichotomy.
- Use of information technology for a better service delivery.
- Adoption of private sector managerial practices by public sector.

7.5 THEORETICAL BASES OF NPM

The New Public Management has three theoretical bases:

- New Rights Philosophy
- Public Choice Approach
- Neo-Taylorism

Each of them are discussed in detail in the following sub-sections.

7.5.1 New Rights Philosophy

Since the beginning of 1950s, New Rights Philosophy attacked the whole system of Welfare System. It negated the notion that government should always assume the role of direct provider of goods and services and focus on allowing the non-governmental agencies to enter into the goods and services provider. It advocated the propagation of free market as opposed to state-controlled markets. It believed that the new theory of privatisation will offer a better alternative to inefficient and insufficient working style of the government. It is believed that free market economy and privatisation increased deregulation and focus on market economy instead of welfare system. These are the ways to deal with the changing effect in administration in the new era of globalisation.

7.5.2 Public Choice Approach

During the 1960s, public choice approach clashed with the new public administration. Vincent Ostrom, the writer of '*The Intellectual Crisis in American Public Administration*' and the main propagator of this theory voted



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for the replacement of traditional '*bureaucratic administration*' to '*democratic administration*'.

In the public choice approach, emphasis was on the antibureaucratic approach and diverse democratic decision-making centres. It also focuses on the application of economic logic to the problems of public service distribution. Decentralisation was at school. It also advocated for the popular participation in administration. The public choice approach negated the theory of single centred administrative power and the separation of politics from administration. It did not believe in the theory of hierarchical administration and the rational as well as neutral bureaucracy.

7.5.3 Neo-Taylorism

In 1970s the capitalist countries faced economic crisis, for example, the oil shocks of 1973. The neo-taylorism advocated a number of principles for transforming the traditional model of public administration. Although it basically focused on the adoption of private sector management practices in the area of public administration, it said that, instead of measuring achievements in a pre-set target, it should be based on the performance evaluation technique. It focused on assigning personal responsibility for each step in the performance of the production process. It focused on the introduction of individual incentive rather than collective incentive.

7.6 NEW PUBLIC SERVICE

7.6.1 New Public Service as an Idea

The New Public Service approach advocates the need of a public service environment which tries to throw limelight on the ethics and inspirations of public servants towards service of public. The New Public Service model provides a better alternative as against controlling traditional public administration since



it focusses on the public interest and citizens as the core of public service. The concept was propounded by Denhardt and Denhardt.

The New Public Service is considered as one of the most organized and efficient approach in the study of public administration. It upholds the democratic values, citizenship, and service in the interest of people.

The New Public Service believes that the main work of public servants is to help citizens meet their shared interests rather than to control the citizens and society. The philosophical foundation of New Public Management approach believes that communication between public managers and customers might reflect biased self-interest of individual, at times which are framed by factors influenced by markets.

New Public Service philosophy approaches public management through the lens of active and involved citizenship. Citizens look beyond narrow idea of self-interest towards the wider idea of public interest. Unlike old public administration approach where citizens were related to the bureaucracy as clients and constituents, NPS sees them as citizens and believes public servant should be responsible and responsive towards them. It believes that the role of public officials is to create ways for citizen engagement in finding solutions to the societal problems. Instead of controlling the society, public officials should focus on negotiating and solving the complex problems with the help of citizens. For this, both government and public officials need to be more open, accessible, accountable, approachable, and should focus on serving citizens. According to Denhardt and Denhardt, NPS emphasizes the importance of public service ethos which focuses on the values and motivations of public servants dedicated towards wider public good.

7.6.2 Emergence of New Public Service

Many different scholars and practitioners have contributed to the idea of new public service, at times in disagreement and at times in agreement. General ideas characterize the new public service as '*what ought to be*', but it has evolved



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immensely in action, theory, and practice. Dwight Waldo's contribution had a great effect in the development of the idea of New Public Service.

Predecessor of New Public Service are as:

1. Theory of Democratic Citizenship
2. Idea of Civil Society
3. Theory of Organizational Humanism

7.6.3 Principle of New Public Service

It includes:

1. **Serve Citizens, Not Customers:** The key role of public servants is to serve the citizen and public servants should not respond to the demands of like that of a "customer", but focus on building relationships of faith and values with and among citizens.
2. **Pursue the Public Interest:** Goal is to find solution in a collective manner keeping in mind the shared interest and responsibility.
3. **Value Citizenship and Public Service:** The public interest is better carried on by public servants and citizens dedicated towards making contributions to society rather than by entrepreneurial acting.
4. **Think Strategically, Act Democratically:** Policies and programs aimed to serve the public needs and demands can be most effectively and dutifully achieved through collective efforts and collaboration of citizens.
5. **Identifying that Accountability Isn't Simple:** Public servants should be alert and should lay emphasis on community morals, political standards, professional norms, and citizen welfares.
6. **Serve and Not Steer:** Public servants should serve the citizens instead of controlling or directing them.
7. **Value People, Not Just Productivity:** Public organisations stay for long if they are run in a way which advocates for collaboration with citizens and the concept of shared leadership roles.



7.6.4 New Public Service v/s New Public Management

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While the new public service and new public management have a lot in common but there are few differences as well. Some of the differences are listed below:

1. The new public management is an economic theory whereas the new public service is a democratic theory which lays importance in the participation of citizen.
2. The new public management is associated more with the idea of an '*economic man*' as the idea of human behaviour whereas the new public service believes in strategic rationality of human behaviour.
3. The new public management represents the aspect of individual interest whereas the new public service advocates the idea of shared values.
4. The new public management believes that public servants should be responsive towards customers whereas the new public service believe that the public servant should be responsive towards citizens.
5. The new public management believes that the role of government is to steer whereas the new public service believe that the role of government is to serve.
6. The new public management focuses on the market-driven aspect whereas the new public service believes that public servants must attend to the community values, political norms, citizen interest, and the law of the state.
7. The new public management assumed the motivational basis of public servants and administrators is that of entrepreneurial spirit whereas the new public service believes that public servants and administrators are motivated and desired to contribute towards the society.

7.7 GOOD GOVERNANCE

Governance is the use of power and authority by those in government for public service to provide goods and services to the people and to fulfil the objectives

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and requirements of the citizen. Governance stands for operating and establishing of social institutions. It advocates for formal rules and regulations. Procedure of decision making serves the purpose of policy making decisions and its implementation. Governance is a way of devising social institutions as a matter of public concern.

7.7.1 Concept of Good Governance

Governance is concerned with power, strategies, policies, plans, and projects that aim at improving the quality of life. The word “good” in ‘good governance’ is due to the fact that governance becomes good when the decisions and actions of the government are based on peoples’ consent, legitimacy, and liability. Good governance implies enlightened citizenship and accountable constitutional government. It answers the question of how to bring improvements and development in the society. Development is both people-oriented as well as people-centred. It focusses on the needs and demands of citizens, community, and society. Good governance means governing by the rule of law with equality and equal protection under the law. To ensure the people’s welfare, good governance advocates that there must be appropriately guided public servants or bureaucracy. Thus, good governance means happiness and welfare of all through limited government, rule of law, properly directed bureaucracy, disciplined rulers, fixed salaries, maintenance of law and order, curbing corruption, and uniformity in administration.

It is associated with well-organized administration in a democratic framework, an administration that is considered to be citizen friendly, considerate, and approachable. Government must be well-organized, effective, economical, and ethical. The governing process must be rational and definite. Good governance has a constitutional base and is not something that governments can achieve, instead, it depends on the cooperation and involvement of citizens and organizations. Indeed, the good governance relates to political and institutional processes and outcomes that are perquisites for achieving the goals of development. Thus, good governance is applicable to all sections of society such as the government,



legislature, judiciaries, media, private sector, corporate sectors, cooperatives, society registered under the Society Registration Act, and NGOs.

Citizens are at the core of good governance. Citizen-centric administration and good governance go hand in hand.

7.7.2 Emergence of Good Governance

The whole concept of good governance version is to compare ineffective economies. At its core, good governance focuses on the responsibility of government and governing bodies to meet the needs of citizen. The concept of good governance theoretically emerged around 1990s. It tried to go beyond the traditional idea of public administration by expanding its reach above the formal government. In the 1990s, the idea gained popularity especially when the World Bank advocated the idea of good governance in its report titled '*Governance and Development*' (1992). It defined good governance as the manner in which administration in power is exercised in the handling and management of a country's resources which includes both economic as well as social resources for the development of the country.

According to the report, good governance is concerned with the proper technique of management and administration. The report identifies four areas where good governance should be focusing upon, which are:

- Public Sector Management
- Accountability
- Legal Framework for Development
- Information and Transparency

7.7.3 Characteristics of Good Governance

The idea of good governance majorly consists of seven features which are as follows:

- **Accountability:** One of the main traits of good governance is accountability. Responsibility along with transparency in accordance to rule of law. It



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should be applied for government, citizens, private sectors, and NGOs.

- **Participation:** It is for having equal participation of all the section of the society including men, women, minorities, deprived, etc.
- **Transparency:** It means that information should be in such a way that it is easily accessible to the citizens of a country.
- **Rule of Law:** It argues that it is said to be a good governance when rule of law is followed ensuring rights of citizen. The legal, executive, and the judiciary branch of the government should be impartial and unbiased towards the citizen.
- **Responsiveness:** It says that administration should ensure to answer in a time bound or a reasonable time frame to the citizens of a country.
- **Equity and Inclusiveness:** It advocate for equality and equity in the society. No one should be left behind, left out, or should be left marginalized. Constant opportunities should be provided irrespective of the fact that all citizens may belong to different culture, religion, caste, etc. This should be done in a way that it is not discriminatory.
- **Effectiveness and Efficiency:** It means that governance should be in such a way that it is effective and efficient by keeping in mind the sustainable use of natural resources.

7.7.4 Significance of Good Governance

Good governance is very significant as it advocates for economic, social, and political development of a society. Each of them are explained in detail below:

- **Economic Development:** A state's economic progress may become unstable if the state is facing a problem of strong administration presence. How to produce or distribute or invest are some of the challenges that a state might face in its course of economic development. Although the fair distribution of resources across and in the state via the help of good governance will try to help and remove such issues.



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- **Social Development:** People from various religion, caste, culture, and social group may together live in harmony in the state. However, if there is a lack of proper distribution of wealth or income, it may cause unrest in the society like the citizens feeling that if they are not treated fairly and equally. Thus, it is important for the state and the administration to ensure the right accommodation for minorities and the section which is marginalized so as to ensure peace in the country. For example, if the state is ignoring women of the society, they might feel ignored and resort to ways that may cause unrest in the state. Therefore, it is the duty of government and administration to look after these matters, find policies accurately, and implement them in a way that it satisfies the group by cycle or community needs.
- **Political Development:** Politicians of the state need to follow the rules and regulations. The constitution of a state needs to make sure that there is peace in the society. But, firstly a good competition among the political parties should be encouraged and the need to design policies that are benefiting for the citizens should be kept in mind.

7.8 COLLABORATIVE GOVERNANCE

The origin of collaborative governance is rooted in the classical liberalism and civic republicanism.

Classical liberalism believes that collaboration is motivated by self-serving whereas civic republicanism focuses on trust and mutual understanding. It is concerned with both deliberative democracy and the participation of civil society in the field of public governance as well as administration. In the era of liberalisation, privatisation, globalization, and the coming of new theories (for example new public management), where authorities like political as well as administrative are becoming more and more disintegrated, where the government is facing problems to meet with the new challenges because of the continuous dependence on traditional methods, collaborative governance provides a better alternative.

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The current idea of administrative decentralisation shifted the limelight towards the need and importance of civil society. According to Diamond, civil society is the realm of organised social life that is voluntary, self-generating, largely self-supporting, and bound by a legal order or a set of shared values.

Alexis de Tocqueville's idea contributed greatly towards the idea of a civil society. Collaborative government focuses on the collaboration of government, community, and the private sector. In the area of policy-making, public management, problem-solving, and decision-making both in formal as well as informal sector, collaborative government acts as a more effective option for its effective working. Collaborative governance depends on these three things:

- **Support:** It focuses on the policy problem which needs to be fixed.
- **Leadership:** It connects all the vitals needed to solve the policy problem.
- **Forum:** It is a group of members needed to search answers and ways to solve the policy problem.

Consensus building is one of the forms of collaborative governance. It focuses on building consensus among the stakeholders of a specific public policy challenge. Search for solving problem lies within the bracket of desired future needs of the community.

Collaborative network is another form of collaborative governance. In collaborating network, people collaborate to achieve solution of a problem despite the similarity in their culture, geography, etc.

7.8.1 Advantages of Collaborative Governance

It includes:

- 1) Creating a platform for better understanding of a problem.
- 2) Since it involves many stakeholders, it allows them to work together.
- 3) It helps in identifying and targeting problems more effectively.
- 4) It is a collaborative governance that focuses on collaboration of stakeholder's action and solutions to problems are delivered more effectively.



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- 5) It may also offer new manner and ideas regarding implementation of strategies.
- 6) It allows entry of wider range of ideas and suggestions in the process of policy-making.
- 7) It allows the citizen to understand the working of government and administration in a more closed manner.
- 8) It lays emphasis on a closer relationship between citizens and government.
- 9) It empowers citizen to be the representative and encourage involvement in institutional decision-making.
- 10) It combines skills and capacities of various stakeholders as well as government.

7.8.2 Disadvantages of Collaborative Governance

It includes:

- 1) The whole process may be time consuming.
- 2) It is possible that agreement of a solution to a specific problem can never be reached through.
- 3) The agreed solution may not be implemented by the government.
- 4) Since collaborative governance is a complex web with many stakeholders, at times individual role and responsibility may become unclear.
- 5) Few stakeholders might act in a biased way regarding the institutional organisation of state.
- 6) Stakeholders who are powerful may manipulate the whole process.
- 7) At times coordination can become an issue in solving a policy problem.
- 8) Hidden motive among the stakeholders like, trust issues, power imbalance, culture, race, etc. can act as a barrier to achieve goals.
- 9) It is also argued that collaborative governance cannot provide stability and consistency to the institution.



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The practice of collaborative governance has rightly been tested in countries like Australia, New Zealand, US, UK, and other European countries.

7.9 NETWORK GOVERNANCE

Network governance is a form of governance based on social controls rather than bureaucratic structures and formal contracts of relationship. Congress argued that network governance was the result of academic interest on cooperative, state theory, policy network, and cold delivery of services when various stakeholders of policy try to create consensus among them on matters related to policies and delivery of public services.

Network governance does not depend on the market or hierarchy. It is formed by many independent partners but is based on the symbiotic relationship between them. It involves informal social system rather than the bureaucratic structure. It focuses on privatization, public-private partnership, and contract or agreement-based situations. It tries to coordinate different economic activities rather than competition and hierarchies within the markets. Network governance depends on the global business risks and on information technology sector as well as on the influence of the network. Although not all scholars accept this theory, they doubt its ability to perform as a democratic governance structure. On the other hand, few scholars see it as an effective and efficient delivery of public goods and services.

Policymakers across the globe are now experimenting with innovative ways of collaboration that tries to bring together diverse stakeholder groups of the policy to be made and implement it to provide a more cohesive and all-inclusive responses.

Taking a network approach to public governance shows more reliance on networks as a guide to mobilise as well as involve citizens and organisations in the process of development, policy implementation, and monitoring of public policy. The rise of network governance and the new collaborative ethos of public institutions points to a more fundamental transformation and proliferation of the network paradigm, which Castells termed as “*the rise of network society*”.



7.10 DIGITAL GOVERNANCE

It is a framework to demonstrate accountability roles and decision-making authority to ensure states administration via digital presence. It confirms that its websites, channels, etc. are operating for the citizens.

Government is attempting to improve the system of administration by having active public service delivery to the citizens of this state. Improvements and advancements in the fields of information and communication technology have assisted in the reinvention of government to adapt and adopt to the needs and desires of the citizen.

It has transformed the institution of a state for a smooth delivery of public policy as well as policy implementation. In the present era, democracies worldwide believe that digital governance will be the future of governance. Digital governance is the application of information and communication technology to the functioning of government for good governance. It aims to improve information dissemination, enhance service delivery, and encourage the participation of citizens in the process of decision making. It also seeks to make the government more accountable, transparent, and efficient. Additionally, digital governance provides public access to information via the internet, streamlining the entire administrative system.

Digital governance consists of E-administration, E-services and E-governance. It was just for electronic service delivery, electronic workflow, and electronic voting. It also gives the citizen an option of electronic consultation, engagement, and the societal guidance provided by the government.

It aims to support and simplify governance, as well as improve the experience for citizens. The frequent use of information communication and technology connects these two very easily as compared to the traditional methods of public administration and governance. It tries to support the idea of good governance and also aims to manage the economical, political, and administrative functioning of administration and governance. It uses digital needs to support and



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stimulate good governance. Nowadays digital governance is becoming a reliable option for better management of affairs of a country at international, national, and local level. Digital governance provides options for how the government can best use information, communication, and technology to embrace the principles of good governance and achieve the policy goals.

Conclusion

The reforms in administration globally over the past few decades have been labelled as New Public Management. The new public administration emerged as a management tool for achieving the goals set by the state. All advocates of new public management emphasize a reduced role for the state and place greater importance on the market, although the crucial role of government has always been questioned.

On the question of appropriate functioning of welfare state, the solution came in the form of new public management.

The new management suggested changes in the manner and the ways in which a public sector is organised and managed in the times of liberalization, privatization, and globalisation. In the words of Osborne and Gaebler “*We do not need more government; we need better government.*”

The practise of governance and good governance has gained immense limelight over the past few decades. It focusses on efficient functioning of administration. Traditionally, it was believed that administration is only the function of government but the new theories suggest that both citizens of a country as well as the government of a state are the key factors in policy making, policy implementation, and the administration of a state.

In this context, firstly New Public Administration came. The theory of New Public Management was next in line. Then came the theory of good governance which is the talk of the world now.



In-Text Questions

1. The New Public Management (NPM) model focuses on the principles of _____, _____, and _____.
2. The Public Choice Approach advocates for _____ decision-making rather than bureaucratic administration.
3. Good Governance emphasizes _____, _____, and rule of law in public administration.
4. Collaborative Governance involves partnerships between government, private sectors, and _____.
5. Digital Governance uses _____ to improve government accountability and transparency.
6. Network Governance is based on informal social systems and the collaboration of _____.
7. The New Rights Philosophy advocates for _____ and free markets in governance.
8. Neo-Taylorism focuses on adopting _____ sector management practices in public administration.
9. The World Bank's 1992 report defined good governance as the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's _____ and _____ resources.

7.11 SUMMARY

- Public Administration has evolved significantly due to globalisation, liberalisation, and privatisation.
- New Public Management (NPM) emerged as a response to inefficiencies in traditional public administration.
- NPM focuses on the principles of Efficiency, Economy, and Effectiveness, often referred to as the 3Es.
- The New Rights Philosophy promotes free markets and privatisation as opposed to state control.



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- Public Choice Approach advocates for democratic decision-making instead of bureaucratic administration.
- Neo-Taylorism in NPM emphasizes adopting private sector management practices in public administration.
- The New Public Service model prioritizes public interest and democratic citizenship over market-driven approaches.
- Good Governance promotes transparency, accountability, rule of law, and responsiveness in governance.
- Good Governance emerged in the 1990s and it gained attention through the World Bank's 1992 report "Governance and Development."
- Key characteristics of Good Governance include accountability, transparency, rule of law, participation, and equity.
- Collaborative Governance involves partnerships between government, private sectors, and civil society to solve public policy issues.
- Network Governance is based on informal social systems and partnerships, coordinating various stakeholders for service delivery.
- Digital Governance uses technology to improve public administration and make government more accountable, transparent, and citizen-centric.
- The rise of Digital Governance highlights the use of technology to support good governance principles and enhance policy implementation.
- NPM has been criticized for focusing on market-driven solutions, but it has brought about significant administrative reforms.
- Collaborative governance provides a platform for stakeholder engagement but can be time-consuming and prone to trust issues.
- The focus of modern governance has shifted from rigid hierarchical systems to more flexible, citizen-centric approaches.
- NPM promotes decentralization and managerial autonomy to enhance service delivery and reduce costs.



- The New Public Service is considered more citizen-oriented, promoting shared values and democratic participation.
- Globalization, liberalization, and the rise of new technology have transformed the public administration landscape.

7.12 GLOSSARY

- **New Public Management (NPM):** It is a model that emphasizes efficiency, economy, and effectiveness in public administration.
- **Good Governance:** It is a governance that is accountable, transparent, participatory, and equitable.
- **Collaborative Governance:** It is a cooperation between government, private sectors, and civil society to solve public issues.
- **Network Governance:** It is a governance based on partnerships between stakeholders and informal social systems.
- **Digital Governance:** It is the use of technology to enhance government accountability, transparency, and service delivery.
- **Public Choice Approach:** It is a theory advocating for democratic decision-making in public administration.
- **New Rights Philosophy:** It is a perspective that promotes free markets and privatization over state control.
- **Neo-Taylorism:** It is the application of private sector management techniques in public administration.
- **Public Interest:** It is the welfare or well-being of the general public in governance.
- **Efficiency:** It means achieving maximum productivity with minimum wasted effort or expense.
- **Transparency:** It is the openness and accessibility of government decisions and information to the public.



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- **Accountability:** It is the responsibility of government officials to the public for their actions and decisions.
- **Rule of Law:** It is the governance based on laws that are applied equally to all citizens.

7.13 ANSWERS TO IN-TEXT QUESTIONS

1. Efficiency, Economy, Effectiveness
2. Democratic
3. Transparency, Accountability
4. Civil society
5. Technology
6. Stakeholders
7. Privatization
8. Private
9. Economic, Social

7.14 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What led to the emergence of New Public Management?
2. What are the key features of New Public Management?
3. How is New Public Management different from traditional aspect of administration?
4. What is the philosophical basis of New Rights Philosophy?
5. What do you understand by Good Governance?
6. Trace the evolution of Good Governance.
7. What are the characteristics of Good Governance?



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8. How is Good Governance different from New Public Management?
9. What is the concept of Collaborative Governance?
10. Explain the idea of Network Governance.
11. What is the Digital Governance?
12. What is the full form of SAP?
13. In which year David Osborne and Ted Gaebler's book 'Reinventing Government' was published?
14. What are the three theoretical bases of New Public Management? When was the World Bank's report "Governance and Development" released?
15. Which of the following is a characteristic of good governance?
 - a) Selective Participation
 - b) Transparency
 - c) Exclusion
 - d) Biasness

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Unit IV Gender Perspectives on Public Administration

Lesson 8 Gender Perspectives on Public Administration



LESSON 8

GENDER PERSPECTIVES ON PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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STRUCTURE

- 8.1 Learning Objectives
- 8.2 Introduction
- 8.3 Understanding the Gender Perspective to Administration
- 8.4 Feminist Approach
 - 8.4.1 Gender of Governance
 - 8.4.2 Governance of Gender
- 8.5 Parameters of Understanding Gender in Administration
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 - 8.5.2 Expertise
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- 8.9 Summary
- 8.10 Glossary
- 8.11 Answers to In-Text Questions
- 8.12 Self-Assessment Questions
- 8.13 References/Suggested Readings



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8.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, students should be able to:

- Understand the feminist's perspective of public administration
- Analyse the key components of feminist approach
- Access the notion of gender and gender equality in public administration
- Evaluate if public institutions are gendered or not
- Discuss the feminist approach for its relevance to public administration
- Understand concepts like gender, sensitivity, expertise, and leadership of public administration from feminist perspective

8.2 INTRODUCTION

The various fields of science and social sciences, such as sociology, economics, demography, and anthropology has seen a great transformation and seemed to have got a new direction with social issues like equality of men and women as the centre of attention in the 20th century. The same thing happened with public administration, feminist explanation of the subject has resulted in expansion of its boundaries and norms.

Feminism is a methodology of investigation. We can also describe feminism is more often a theoretical explanation to redescribe the reality. Three factors become important when we describe the public administration through feminist perspectives: first, inclusion of women-friendly policies in governance; second, participation of women in public administration, and third, a change in the view to the issue of gender in administration. The third factor is most crucial and is thus the central theme of this unit.

This lesson explains the feminist approach to public administration. It will deal with the problems related to women in governance by highlighting the different domains of gender analysis in governance. The issues of gender are



at the top of the agenda of the social scientists today. These problems have, in fact, turn out to be the potential dangers for a just society. Mohit Bhattacharya (2001) believes that gender and environment are two important topics that are gradually finding its place in the discipline of public administration. As far as the gender amplitude is concerned, there has been a movement worldwide to bring more and more women in it. There are various reasons for this kind of change and many scholars feel that the globalisation and information technology are important factors for this renewed interest on the much-neglected issues of gender. This lesson will try to highlight on some of these issues. The problems attached with these issues required urgent solutions. Social participation is one of the strongest measures to cope with these socio-economic and political issues. We will explore this aspect in greater detail later in this lesson.

8.3 UNDERSTANDING THE GENDER PERSPECTIVE TO ADMINISTRATION

The Management Approach tries to elaborate the case to public administration for transforming the bureaucratic government into an entrepreneurial one. The rejuvenated project is important that its objection against the Weberian model of bureaucratic organisation granted reality of administrative life. It further suggests that administrative structures, practices, principles, and values are neither permanent nor unalterable. With the release of the Report of the National Performance Review in 1993 under Clinton administration, the rejuvenated project of the feminist views to bureaucratic became more fashionable.

But the feminist scholars did not have a good environment, other theories of power, virtue, nature of organisation, and leadership based on feminist research failed to take the attention of policy makers and citizens. Few of these ideas have made their way into conversations in public administration, which continues to be rooted in an ostensibly neutral but overtly male, upper class, white mentality.

The rejuvenated gender aspects to public administration started by feminists is still ignored by the old bureaucratic government. These scholars tried to make



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women's experiences visible and ask for the development of public administration through Feminist Perspective, which builds the administrative reality in gender-inclusive rather than gender-neutral.

Feminist study of public administration has various aspects. We would first discuss the Feminist Theory and then try to re-investigate the concept of 'gender of governance', i.e., to see how the administrative power, institutions, and policies are organised around the domination of male and subordination of female. We will also investigate the concept of 'governance of gender' i.e., see how the administrative policies make the rules and regulations which not only regard and reward the men but also view the position of women and men as different and unequal. The crux of this argument is that we cannot understand gender relations apart from the Administrative State; Administrative States and gender relations are influenced by each other.

8.4 FEMINIST APPROACH

A 'feminist' is one who identifies with gender as an important and useful category of analysis and holds a critical view on women's current status and prospects. To use Gerda Lerner's words which said that "*There must be believes in a system of ideas and practices, which believes that despite gender, everyone, either men or women must share equally in the work, in their profits, in explaining and dreaming the future of the world*".

Feminism is a diverse and multifaceted collection of ideas and actions; we cannot take feminism as a unitary concept. Feminist movement holds different and even contradictory political viewpoints such as Liberal, Marxist, Socialist, Radical, and Post-Modern, but all are firmly working to end the "*gender-based inequality*". Gender is a part of the society which focuses on differences of harmony with biological sex and socio-economic identity. Feminists do not focus just on women rather it focuses on power relations which differentiates between men and women and their access to resources and decision-making power.



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Feminism is never about creating a space for women only but it is all about making space for heterogeneous gendered perspective, i.e., giving space to all the gender. It is all about changing the old forms of gendered power relation. It is like a modern tool to view things through different gender lens. Given the fact that, all the old theory and practices of public administration have overlooked feminist perspective, and are masculine in nature, so changing is vital. Therefore, using our gender lens means working to increase the visibility of women and other genders in social phenomena and asking why social processes, standards, and opportunities systematically differ between men and women.

8.4.1 Gender of Governance

If we look at the history of social science, it will reveal that all over the world, the political domain has been continuously controlled and managed by men. If we see, the dominance of male patriarchy is perceived as normal, neutral and main stream. As Sheila Rowbotham (1973) has said “*Women have been hidden from history*”. Feminists have tried to account for the absence of women from political structures. They believe that the macho behaviour towards politics is responsible for the exclusion of women from politics.

The main mechanism through which this exclusion is realised is through the belief of a natural separation of the public and the private (Squires, 1999). The traditional approach to public administration believes that the politics is public and hence the domain of the domestic, familial, and sexual relations are considered private and thus it lies outside the concern of the study of politics. If we see, male activity is seen as a sphere of public, and personal or private is reserved for women, thus stopping women from taking part in the sphere of politics. Women are largely excluded from defining their activities as political.

Thus, in the second half of the 20th century, feminist theory started to realise how the society has constructed the roles of men and women differently and how public sphere shape the personal circumstances. So, they began a re-examination of many of those males centred or created theories, principles, concepts, and institutions of those politics and administration. They challenged the dominant



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and core concept like family and personal life and thus made it political and included the private sphere into politics. They also feel that lives of women are regulated and shaped by public spheres, for example, legal status of wives by the policy of government on child care, allocation of welfare benefits, labour laws like division of labour on sex basis, laws on abortion, sexual harassment, and rape. Thus the personal problems can only be resolved by the political actions.

The society believes that gender is about power. Society thus recreate and reinforce the difference between men and women through gender relation and thus at the level of complex institutions, gender organises power. It saturates different spaces; even the Administrative State. In simple words, we can say that male dominance have built the Administrative State.

8.4.2 Governance of Gender

The Feminist writers not only expose the male bias of the Administrative State; they also assess the effect of such an Administrative State and its policies on men and women. They try to show that an Administrative State, which is a gendered hierarchy, produces inequality and assigns different life chances to men and women and reinforces material realities that oppress women. A Feminist Approach tries to include calling those marked boundaries into question about potential and capabilities qualities on the basis of gender that gives importance to males over females. It also means exploring the implications of these attitudes in governance.

This becomes apparent when we see that the conventional understanding of public administration is rooted in the images of expertise, leadership, and a form of virtue which can be identified as culturally masculine. This peculiar nature of the public-organizational reality links ideas of masculinity with norms of professionalism, leadership, and neutrality in public administration. Working women often bear a double burden—both paid employment and domestic responsibilities. They are not promoted to higher bureaucratic ranks and face many other challenges in the bureaucracy. A glass ceiling blocks their access to the highest positions of power, and monetary benefits are often not provided to



women within the organization, which harms their political and social freedom. Such a culturally dominant, masculine modes of thought and action privilege men and their interests by establishing boundaries that exclude all but a few exceptional women from positions of authority. A Feminist Approach to public administration theory entails questioning of these boundaries.

8.5 PARAMETERS OF UNDERSTANDING GENDER IN ADMINISTRATION

If we see the very structure of organisation, we can see the extent to which gender is embedded in structure and also if we see the figures in worldview and policies of administrator, we can find out the discrimination and exclusion of all other genders in comparison to male and thus exposed the exclusion of women from social and political world. Feminists believe that true equality cannot just be achieved by adding women's perspectives to traditional theories rather the theory must be challenged and thus re-examined and re-analyse the several problem and issue areas in public administration that ask for new addition or configuration and thus offer a new spectrum of the feminist opinion, which promises to be more generative in shaping administrative theory and practice.

8.5.1 Ethics of Justice

Lately, the forces of power, coercion, and violence had degraded the public moral values and the public morality of justice systematically in the political realm. Politics has come to be understood as power politics - conflictual rather than consensual. Not surprisingly ethics has emerged as a significant research concern for public administration scholars. The feminist tried to rearrange the integral relation between ethics and politics in making an ethical polity. The ethical debate within public administration would be both broader and deeper if ethics from a feminist angle were to be added. Ethical reasoning generally associated with an 'ethic of justice' idea of impartiality or a universalistic morality is viewed impersonal, gendered, and limited. Feminists support widening the



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range of moral reasoning to include another form of reasoning known as the 'ethic of care,' which should also be recognized. It is said that women are more likely to adopt this ethic of care than men and that to privilege only the ethic of justice is to silence women's distinctive moral voice. It is claimed that women's experiences as mothers within private spheres provide them with certain insights and concerns, which are valuable to the public sphere of the Administrative State, but are currently absent from it.

In Carol Gilligan's (1982) view, women have a different conception of morality, a morality of responsibility, whereas men have a morality of rights. Very early in life, men's individualism and separation from the feminine angle gives them an ethic of justice, while women's affiliation with mothers and others teaches them an ethic of care (White, 1999).

Feminist scholars like Gilligan have never advocated for abandoning the ethic of justice in the favour of an ethic of care. Rather, they fancy the ethic of justice to be tempered by an ethic of care. Their idea is based on the conviction that recognizing and affirming a 'different voice' is crucial to transforming public bureaucracies.

8.5.2 Expertise

Feminist thinkers have made up and bestowed to the discussion about the image of proficiency in public administration. The need for proficiency has been the main theme of the Wilsonian-Weberian model of public administration. Classical public administration grounded in political administration dichotomy was based on the assumption that public administration was legitimate because it was manned by expert professionals.

Feminists regret that generally speaking, there has been a tendency to banish norms, which are culturally recognised as 'feminine'- such as passivity, compliance, and vulnerability from public life, thus creating a masculine image of both men and women within public administration which appear technically expert, tough, and heroic.



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The traditional view of proficiency also privileges the notion of public servant obligation towards political leaders. From the Feminist Perspective, such ideas of expertise block connectivity and affiliation of the administrator with the world around them. They not only separate the individual from the field, but they also raise the administrator above the field. Professional ability reduces those over whom authority is exercised.

The identification that the view of all the faction to the circumstances - clients, citizens, and workers are necessary in ascertaining genuine public interest, made the feminists campaign for a form of professional competence that is non-hierarchical. They also claim for a form of compatibility in public administration that moves beyond the heroic male professional who surrender family concerns in a single-minded fashion to his career. The main view of Stivers' account is her claim that women find it difficult or impossible to live up to such an ideal system which are flawed in itself that it compartmentalises both the life of men and women and further relegating the family to lesser status and the performance of its responsibilities to lesser people. If we see the feminist view, they believe that administrators must be a whole person, who understands and continue as a member of a family then the work of agencies will be seen as a policy widely supported by its member and this understanding will be reflected by agency's personal policies. Policies like parental leave, on-side day-care facilities, and menstrual leave will be seen as policy of public interest as they promote the development and nurturing the children but not as the needs of individual employees.

However, feminists are distressed by the reality that very few top jobs in business and public administration are held by women in most countries. They are uncertain that merely adding women to important positions will be sufficient to bring about fundamental change in administration. Widespread dissatisfaction with hierarchy and control, led women organisations to experiment with non-hierarchical forms of organising which is a more participatory, flexible, group-oriented style of management. The feminists are not arguing that all women are interactive leaders or that it excludes men. The feminists just want a move in the



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standard of leadership such that feminist leadership is not viewed as a replacement to traditional leadership forms but as a compliment.

The feminist orientation on the above themes raises few questions that support directly on organisation theory. The feminists are building different models of organisation which is primarily based on their experience in the women's movement. While substantially departing from the traditional model of administration, they are experimenting with new patterns of group activity. They also questioned the domination by superior through hierarchical patterns on the grounds that it hurdles the growth of individual members. They suggested to adopt a more fluid, temporary, flexible, and egalitarian forms of organisation. The important impact of the feminist critique of the important concepts in public administration has prompted Robert Denhardt and Jan Powell to anticipate the fall of 'the administrative man' and urge the adoption of an alternative model based on organisational values of women's movement.

8.6 CONCEPT OF SOCIAL PARTICIPATION

Social participation has long been a scrutiny for the study of sociologists. Earlier, social participation was viewed by some as an element of social status which is viewed as a barometer of the degree to which individuals had status conferred on them by their peer participation. It has been viewed by many as a means of self-fulfillment. They have talked about four types of voluntary association. Voluntary associations have been seen as a bulwark of Pluralism in mass societies, an incentive for community integration, a tool of political socialization, and a proponent of social change. Participation has been viewed to correlate with socio-economic status, race and ethnicity, self-esteem, and other socio-psychological traits. The idea of participation was always viewed as a central concern of sociology and social science (See: Joseph, 1970).

Social participation asks for mobilization of the whole community or society for the development and thus it will be possible only if individuals, local organization, and social institutions participate fully. If the people are



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aware of their problems, then the participation will be true, ideal, and active and people must be in a position to know their needs, and to a certain extent to solve them, people in society must involve themselves at the planning level and should prioritize the needs as per the resources available and they should involve themselves in implementing the plan.

Social participation is a human act which is based on the idea of mutual faith based on the attitudes and beliefs of the people. Thus it is a process where individual takes participation for the development of his/her own society in his/her capacity. This helps the people to know the surrounding better and encourage them to handle their common issues and these helps them become agents of their own development rather than just a mere beneficiary of governmental schemes.

Social participation can be increased if the government tries to:

- Respect the community's contribution with respect to their knowledge, skills, and potential.
- Encourage project developers which become facilitators and mediators of development and help them bringing about society/community-based initiatives, and challenge the core practices and ideas of people and society.
- Promote people in making co-decision in identifying their needs, setting goals, and formulating policies.
- Avoid selective participatory proactive approach.
- To inform the people about the success and failure of the schemes to people.
- Motivate the people to participate to make them believe in the spirit of values viz., solidarity, conformity, compassion, respect, human dignity, and collective unity.
- To use the potential of the society/community without any exploitation.
- To share the results of development by empowering the society/community equally.

Techniques like Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) helps in promoting participation in development and management of programmes. PRA is a marker

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given to participatory approaches and methods that give importance to local knowledge and thus enable local people to make their own plans and analyse them. PRA uses the idea of group animation and different exercises to facilitate information sharing, action, and analysis among the society/community and thus the purpose of PRA is to activate the practitioners, government officials and local people so that they can work together to plan context-based programmes (World Bank Source Book, 2005).

Participation facilitates the development process. At the planning and implementation stages of a development programme, the participatory process gives important information which helps the people to ensure development objectives and preferences. It helps in evaluating the manpower resource utilisation, which helps in reducing the cost of the project. In case any change in the development scheme takes place or problems happened, it would be widely acceptable by the people just because they are involved in it. Field based studies advices that monitoring and sustainability of the project is smoother even if the external agency or the NGO leaves the project mid-way, as by that time the people are part in the management of the project. Participation helps both the administrator and the community to know the importance of cooperation. This learning process which based on participation helps the community to become a real actor and boasts its confidence and dignity.

8.7 GENDER ISSUES: THE GENERAL PARAMETERS

The issues of gender generally concern to the qualitative and interdependent character of the position of men and women in society. The division of gender is rooted through the conditions of production and reproduction, and is strengthened by the cultural, religious, and ideological bases prevailing in the society. So, we can say, sex is the province of biology, i.e., unchangeable and fixed qualities, while gender prevails in the province of social science, i.e., qualities that are shaped by social situation and interactions. These associations are not always



harmonious and non-conflicting, and sometimes, it may take different forms under different conditions.

The concept of gender tries to differentiate the sexual-biological differences between men and women from the culturally determined differences among them, and also to the role given or performed by them in a society. This also shows that the role of gender varies across countries and regions also over time within countries. Feminists urge that the culturally determined roles of men and women are feasible and it can be changed or impacted through government policy, education, media images, and opinion leaders.

Women account for 646 million and approximately represent half of India's total population as per the Census 2021. Therefore, the betterment of women's socio-economic condition and status is directly proportional to the development of the country. The Constitution of India protects the rights and privileges of this section, which can be seen or reflected in the national concern. Article 14 gives equal rights and opportunities on men and women in the political, economic, and social spheres. Article 15 stops discrimination against any citizen on the grounds of sex, religion, race, caste, etc. Article 15(3) gives power to the State to make affirmative discrimination in favour of women and Article 16 asks for equality of opportunities in the matter of public appointments for all citizens. Article 51A (e) urges a fundamental duty on every citizen to ensure that they do not practice anything derogatory to the dignity of women. To transform this de-jure equality into de-facto equality, Indian leaders and pressure groups have worked, leading to the launch of many policies and programs for the benefit of women from time to time.

The Legal Right to Property for women in parent's property is under consideration and the Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Bill (2005) has come up for discussion in the Parliament. This is in addition to the number of Acts such as Child Marriage Restraint Amendment Act (1956), Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls (1956), Indecent Representation of Women (Prohibition) Act (1986), Commission of Sati Prevention Act (1987), and the National Commission for Women Act (1990), which have already been passed.



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There has been a demand for 33 per cent reservation for women in the Parliament which has put pressure on all political parties to reach a consensus to pass the bill. All the Constitutional Provisions like Articles 10, 14, 15, and 16 have all strived to provide equality and justice to the women. Constitutional Amendment such as 73rd & 74th have already reserved one-third of the seats for women in the local government. It needs to be kept in view that “*Reservation is an ineffective tool for meeting social ends unless accompanied with effective training and inculcation of self-confidence among vulnerable sections of the society*” (Basu, 2005).

They pointed out that the unitary category of ‘woman’ just based on class, race, or nationality is not helpful in analysing the socio-political impact of women’s groups. They argued that one way of dealing with the problem is to differentiate the women’s groups from those which concerns around ‘political’ gender interests like economic survival and also those who are involved in ‘strategic’ gender interests associating with foremost objectives (Haynes, 1997).

From the First Five Year Plan till Fifth Plan, Government of India takes several steps towards keeping focus on ‘welfare of the women’. It is the Sixth Plan that adopted a multidisciplinary approach with a special focus on the three core sectors of health, education, and employment. In the Seventh Plan, the main focus of developmental schemes emphasis on raising economic and social status of women and bringing them directly into the focus of national development. Beneficiary Oriented Schemes (BOS) were added in various developmental sectors to extend the direct benefits to this group. The focus was on both, the generation of skilled and unskilled employment through proper education, awareness, and vocational training, in order to make them participate in programmes.

The main focus of the Eighth Five Year Plan was focused on human development which plays an important role in the advancement of the women. It made sure that no organisation should stop or discriminate women as equal partners and participants in the social development process. The Ninth Five Year Plan focused on two important strategies:

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- (i) The primary objective was empowerment of women. The approach tried to create an environment where women can freely exercise their rights both inside and outside home.
- (ii) Attempt was to connect both the prevailing service available in women specific and women related sectors.

To make this effective, both the centre and the states were directed to follow a special strategy of '*Women's Component Plan*' (WCP) in which 30 per cent of funds will directly flow to women for all the general development sectors. To make this effective, a special provision was suggested in 1986, a special mechanism was set up for monitoring all 27 Beneficiary Oriented Schemes at the instance of Prime Minister's Office and it has continued to be an effective tool till today. All women associated sectors viz. health, nutrition, education, labour, rural development, urban development, science and technology; and women and child development have attained its targets to a considerable extent.

The Ninth Five Year Plan sees some special initiatives which were taken for the employment and development of women like launching of 'Swashakti', 'Stree Shakti Puraskar', Gender Budgeting, National Policy for Empowerment of Women, 'Swayamsidha', and 'Swadhar'. These actions helped the women in setting up of self-reliant groups and self-help groups and thus tries to develop a connection with the lending institutions for helping women's access to credit facilities which will help them building confidence and getting aware through the process of conscientisation which will led them to take their rightful space in the mainstream of the nation's socio-political scene of the nation and further help in expanding service of rehabilitation in odd situations and destroying any forms of violence against women and the girl child.

The Tenth Five Year Plan's approach was slightly different from the earlier plans. It is an action-oriented approach having planned goals or targets which is needed to be completed in a given time-frame. The women empowerment process which was started in the Ninth Five Year Plan will continue with the Tenth Five Year Plan.



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8.8 ENGENDERING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

The gender issue has entered the domain of public administrative studies very lately. It was the Minnowbrook Conference in 1960s which talks about the equity, values, and social justice but the emphasis on the gender problems were not specifically highlighted. However, in 1980s, public administration recognised the issues of women as an empirical and theoretical area of concern.

There has been a substantial change in the approach to women's empowerment in Public Administration. According to Buvinic (1983), the policy approaches towards women have shifted from 'welfare' to 'equity' to 'anti-poverty,' and now to two different approaches known as 'efficiency' and 'empowerment,' which have questioned the development policies of "third-world countries." The approach of equity views women as active participants in the development process. This approach helps in meeting strategic gender needs and thus it links development with equity. So, these approaches help in redistribution of power (Ostergaard, 1997).

The approach of empowerment views the role of women and the works of women's organisations and groups with similar mindset as a main component of change. This approach advocates the use of a 'bottom up' approach to raise women's consciousness which helps them in challenging their status in society. This approach tried to work on practical gender needs so that women can built a support base in order to address strategic gender concerns. In order to ensure maximum women's participation in the various schemes started by the Central and state governments, women must be adequately empowered.

The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments in 1993 have helped increase the participation of women in local self-government in both rural and urban societies. The amendment has helped in ensuring the political presence of the women in local self-government at both rural and urban bodies. They are now in a position of power which has surely enabled them to participate for decision



making in local government, a sphere that affects their lives the most. This has provided them the opportunity to understand politics, gives them political administrative visibility, and learn local governance and certainly it has made them aware, conscious, and confident.

8.8.1 Health and Nutritional Status

There is a compulsion to increase the availability and utility of services like primary health and family welfare with the key focus on the underprivileged sections of the population, especially the poor women and children. The other important steps will be to keep the focus on essential obstetric care by registering earlier for pregnancy and screening of all pregnant women at least three times during the period of pregnancy in order to detect risk factors, identifying and managing high risk mothers, ensuring appropriate management of anemia and hypertension disorders, and providing the referral care of 'at risk mothers' to ensure safe delivery. All these are parts of the UN's Millennium Development Goals, which was widely accepted by the Government of India.

8.8.2 Education for Women

Hillary Clinton during her speech on 'Status of Women around the World' stated that *"As long as discrimination and inequities remain so persistent around the world, as long as girl and women are valued less, fed less, fed last, overworked, underpaid, not schooled, and subjected to violence in and out of their homes, the potential of human family will not create a peaceful, prosperous world which we want to build"* (UN 4* World Congress, 1995).

Education has now become a Fundamental Right. It is thus a key element for the empowerment of women. National Education Policy advocates '*Education for Women's Equality*'. It advocates to decrease the gaps at the secondary and higher education levels and thus give attention to the low female literacy and to the women and girl children belonging to the socially disadvantageous groups such as SCs, STs, OBCs, minorities and disabled, as they are way behind the rest of the population.



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8.8.3 Status of Girl Child

There are different provisions for the safeguards of girl child in the Indian Constitution. These provisions ensure their right to survival, protection, and development. Articles 14 and 15(3) of Indian Constitution prohibit the State from denying any person equality before the law and it empowers the State to make special provisions in favour of children. Article 23 of the Indian Constitution stops human trafficking, abolishing forced labour and thus treats any disturbance to this provision as a punishable offence. Similarly, Article 24 of Indian Constitution prohibits the employment of children below 14 years of age in any factory or mine or shop or in any space. Article 39 argued that the tender age of children should not be abused or forced into doing anything unsuited to their age. Articles 45 guarantees compulsory education for children up to the age of 14.

8.8.4 Women and Weaker Sections

To empower the women, some of the essential steps need to be taken by increasing their traditional skills by giving them proper support of credit, knowledge, training, equipment, and technology; ensuring payment of minimum wages and providing equal wages without gender discrimination, generally in the informal sectors; modernising the technologies and upgrading the skills of weaker sections in traditional arts and crafts such as handlooms, handicrafts, lace making, glass work, etc. thus adding value to their products to compete in the markets, and also motivating the private and corporate sectors to invest in the policies for the welfare of weaker sections.

Conclusion

Here, we have tried an attempt to explore the feminist approach to the specific aspects of administration. Feminist perspective in public administration till today remains fully neglected and has not received what it warrants. Giving insights into the issues of gender equality, feminists ask provocative questions such as what it means to be a man or a woman in various cultures, economic, or social systems. They believe, women have always been at the receiving end and are



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subjected to various negative stereotypes, also, women have not got a fair share in governance. They challenge the prevalent paradigm of bureaucratic culture and administrative state. They describe the administrative state as patriarchal and gendered. They systematically discuss the manner in which the administrative state strengthen women's subordination and marginalisation.

Feminist scholars try to weaken this masculinist bureaucratic culture which had been technicist in orientation. Based on their experience, they have developed an alternative perspective of public administration and provided a re-appraisal of administrative concepts such as ethics, expertise, leadership, etc. It has been observed that the objective of feminist scholarship is to reshape dominant paradigm to give greater priority to women's needs and concerns as well as to sensitive methodologies.

The idea of feminist ethics, expertise, leadership styles of women, organisation theory, and their impact on the administration, have been examined. This is by no means a complete list of method of feminist theorising on public administration. The effort has been to build an effective case for a feminist perspective to public administration.

In-Text Questions

1. The feminist approach to public administration challenges the _____ culture in governance.
2. Social participation involves the _____ of communities in decision-making processes.
3. The 73rd and 74th Amendments increased women's participation in _____ governance.
4. The _____ ceiling refers to barriers preventing women from leadership roles.
5. The feminist critique includes a call for _____ leadership styles in organizations.
6. The Constitution of India provides _____ rights to both men and women.



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7. _____ budgeting ensures resources are allocated to meet the needs of women
8. The term _____ refers to policies that claim to treat everyone equally but often perpetuate male dominance.
9. The feminist approach advocates for _____ in public administration to ensure women's voices are heard.

8.9 SUMMARY

- The feminist perspective on public administration focuses on gender equality, women's representation, and how governance impacts women.
- Gendered policies and structures have historically marginalized women in political and administrative spheres.
- Feminist theories highlight the “gender of governance,” analysing how administrative systems are dominated by male-centric perspectives.
- Feminists also examine the “governance of gender,” showing how policies reinforce male dominance and women's subordination.
- The feminist approach challenges traditional public administration, calling for a re-evaluation of leadership, ethics, and expertise from a gender-inclusive lens.
- Feminist scholars emphasize the need for visible participation of women in governance, not just symbolic representation.
- Social participation, through community involvement, is crucial for addressing socio-economic inequalities and achieving development.
- The feminist critique questions the masculine organizational structures that limit women's rise to leadership roles in public administration.
- Feminist ethics promote the inclusion of both the “ethic of justice” and the “ethic of care” in public administration.



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- The concept of expertise in administration has historically excluded feminine traits, creating a masculine image of public service.
- Feminist scholars argue for non-hierarchical, participatory leadership styles to encourage inclusivity in public institutions.
- Gender issues in administration are shaped by socio-cultural norms and perpetuated through the division of labour and access to resources.
- The Constitution of India provides several rights and protections to women, but actual implementation remains a challenge.
- Feminist approaches in public administration highlight the need for social policies that address health, education, and employment for women.
- Education is seen as a key factor in empowering women, especially in disadvantaged communities.
- Feminist scholars advocate for stronger policies to address issues like domestic violence, trafficking, and child marriage.
- The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments significantly increased women's political participation in local governance.
- Gender budgeting and women-centric development schemes are necessary to ensure equitable resource distribution.
- Feminist perspectives argue that gender equality in public administration is essential for inclusive development and social justice.
- Feminist scholars continue to call for transformative changes in the bureaucratic culture to prioritize women's needs and leadership.

8.10 GLOSSARY

- **Feminism:** It is a movement advocating for gender equality and challenging societal norms that oppress women.
- **Gender of Governance:** It is the idea that political and administrative systems are structured around male dominance.

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- **Ethic of Care:** It is a feminist ethical perspective that emphasizes empathy, relationships, and responsibility.
- **Social Participation:** It is the involvement of individuals and communities in decision-making processes for development.
- **Patriarchy:** It is a social system where men hold primary power and dominate in roles of political leadership and moral authority.
- **Gender-neutral:** These are policies or structures that claim to be unbiased but often reinforce male dominance.
- **Glass Ceiling:** These are invisible barriers that prevent women from rising to leadership positions in organizations.
- **Non-hierarchical:** These are organizational structures that promote equal participation and minimize power differentials.
- **Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA):** It is a method to enable local communities to analyse their own conditions and plan development activities.
- **Empowerment:** It means increasing the political, social, and economic strength of individuals or communities.
- **Ethic of Justice:** It is a moral perspective focused on fairness, rights, and universal rules.
- **Gender Budgeting:** It is the allocation of resources that ensure the needs of women and other marginalized groups are met.
- **Engendering:** It means incorporating gender perspectives into policies, institutions, and practices.
- **Strategic Gender Interests:** These are long-term goals for gender equality, such as legal reforms or institutional changes.
- **Women's Component Plan (WCP):** It is a development strategy that ensures at least 30% of resources are directed to women.



8.11 ANSWERS TO IN-TEXT QUESTIONS

1. Patriarchal
2. Involvement
3. Local
4. Glass
5. Non-hierarchical
6. Equal
7. Gender
8. Gender-neutral
9. Gender Equality

8.12 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain the concept of Gender.
2. Briefly explain the types of parameters of understanding gender in administration.
3. How you understand about the gender perspective in administration.
4. Comparison between engendering public administration and development.

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