Leveraging Management Thought for Job Performance

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Abstract: *The schools of management thought are theoretical frameworks for the study of management. Each of the schools of management thought are based on somewhat different assumptions about human beings and the organizations for which they work. Since the formal study of management began late in the 19th century, the study of management has progressed through several stages as scholars and practitioners working in different eras focused on what they believed to be important aspects of good management practice. Over time, management thinkers have sought ways to organize and classify the voluminous information about management that has been collected and disseminated. These attempts at classification have resulted in the identification of management schools. Disagreement exists as to the exact number of management schools. Different writers have identified as few as three and as many as twelve. Those discussed below includes; (1) The ClassicalSchool (2) The Neo-Classical School (3) Modern Management School. The study of management is largely a twentieth-century phenomenon, and to some degree the relatively large numbers of management schools of thought reflect a lack of consensus among management scholars about basic questions of theory and practice.*

Keywords: *Modern Management School, The Classical School, The Neo-Classical School*

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of studying various schools of management thought is to enable the recognition and appreciation of how developments in the field of management could contribute to current practices. An examination of these past and present approaches can help to discover the strengths and weaknesses of current managerial practices and finally enable you, as a potential manager of an information centre, to choose appropriate management styles. During the brief history ofmanagement as a discipline a number of more or less separate schools of management thought have emerged, some broad, some narrow in scope, and some quite specialized. Each sees management from its own viewpoint; none is comprehensive" (Dejon, 1978:7). These viewpoints can provide several perspectives. Firstly, people are at the helm of affairs and people are of prime importance, in all thinking about management. There have been different views about the nature of people's impact on organizations. Secondly, there were some historical settings in which certain ideas and approaches developed. Similar conditions may or may not be present today. Thirdly, there are many theories and approaches to management and each has some utility and some limitations. Hence, there is no single 'best' theory of management. Today's management is both a reflection of and a reaction to past management theories (Hitt, *et al.,* 1979:35-36).

It can be seen that the most dramatic developments in management theory and practice have occurred since 1900. The modern management theory has provided few key concepts like looking at organizations as open systems, having contingency basis for managerial actions, considering a variety of individual needs in designing organizations and use of a wide variety of quantitative tools to aid managerial decisions.

Historical Perspectives of Management

The history of management extends to several thousand years into the past. However, it is only since the late 19th century, that management is considered a formal discipline. In other words, the practice of management is as old as the human race but its theories and conceptual frameworks are of recent origin. Yet most of the contemporary management thoughts are a twentieth century phenomenon. (Hodgetts & Attman, 1981). Early example of development and use of management principles is recorded in Egypt as early as 2900 BC while using over one-lakh men for 20 years to build pyramids. Other works such as Middle Eastern Ziggarats, the Chinese Great Wail, and Middle American pyramids, and Persian roads and buildings are often cited for early use of management. Similarly the Bible has a reference to the fact that Moses had hired his father-in-law as the first management consultant to help design the organization through which Moses lead the Hebrews out of Egypt and governed the Hebrews. Management ideas were also developed in China, Greek and Roman empires in the Middle Ages. Venice, which was known for

its fighting power and production facilities, has been found to have used assembly-line techniques to outfit galley ships to go to wars during the 15th century. It is interesting to note that there was a facility in which ten ships could be completely outfitted and sent to sea within a few hours. This early 'autocratic period' of management is characterized by the use of strategies like 'fear of punishment' and 'fear of God', absolute authority, coercion and force on the human side of management. In the 16th century Machiavelli wrote 'The Prince' in an attempt to gain favour with the ruler of an Italian city state and described the way that a good prince or leader should act. He propounded two basic approaches namely, 'love approach' and 'fear approach' as a basis for leadership and administration. Four important principles set forth by Machiavelli are concerning mass consent, cohesiveness, will to survive and leadership. The Roman Catholic Church, a power in feudal society is the best example of a departmentalized organization having heavy reliance upon power and authority rather than ability and leadership. These are only glimpses of management thought in early history. Most of them needed to be refined and synthesized through sound theoretical and conceptual frameworks to be called management principles. Later, in the Age of Enlightenment and Renaissance, change of societal values, human worth and individual knowledge, ability, skill and accomplishments were acknowledged, but these alone were not enough to be a manager. Industrialism and the factory system of the early 19th century saw the use of management skills, assembly line operation and costing systems.

The Concept of Management

Management is basically collaboration with the people to determine, interpret and achieve the objectives of the organisation with the performance of the functions of planning, organizing, directing, and controlling. The economists consider management as a resource like land, labour, capital and organization. The bureaucrats look upon it as a system of authority to achieve business goals. The sociologists consider managers as a part of the class elite in the society.

Management defined by different scholars.

• According to Henry Fayol**(1916),** "To manage is to forecast and to plan, to organise, to command, to coordinate and to control".

• According to Peter Drucker**(1954),**"Management is a multi-purpose organ that manages business and manages managers and manages workers and work".

• According to Harold Koontz **(1968)**, "Management is the art of getting things done through and with people in formally organized groups".

• According to Mary Parker Fallett**(1933)**, "Management is the art of getting things done through people".

•According to Nwachukwu E. **(1990)**defined management as all those activities towards achieving organizational goals.

•According to Ile Norbert **(1990)** defined management as planning, organizing and controlling all effort directed to attain objectives or goals.

• According Seth Accra Jaja and Zeb. Obipi **(2005)** defined management as a process by which Administers create, direct, maintain and operatepurposive organizations through systematic, coordinated and co-operative human effort.

• Furthermore, David *et al,* **(2023)** argues that the study of management cannot be over emphasized; hence, management is the effective coordination of people and efficient control of resources in every given setting with respect to leader and subordinates' collaboration to achieve a desired goal.

Characteristics of Management in an Organization

Management is a managerial process; Management is a process and not merely a body of individuals. Those who perform this process are called managers. The managers exercise leadership by assuming authority and direct others to act within the organisation.

Management is a social process; Management takes place through people. The importance of human factor in management cannot be ignored. A manager's job is to get the things done with the support and cooperation of subordinates.

Management is action-based;Management is always for achieving certain objectives in terms of sales, profit, etc. It is a result-oriented concept and not merely an abstract philosophy. It gives importance to concrete performance through suitable actions. It is an action-based activity.

Management involves achieving results through the efforts of others; Management is the art of getting the things done through others. Managers are expected to guide and motivate subordinates and get the expected performance from them. Management acts as an activating factor.

Management is a group activity; Management is not an isolated individual activity but it is a collective activity or an activity of a group. It aims at using group efforts for achieving objectives. Managers manage the groups and coordinate the activities of groups functioning in an organisation.

Management is intangible; Management is not directly visible but its presence is noticed in the form of concrete results. Management is intangible. It is like invisible spirit, which guides and motivates people working in a business unit. Management is like government, which functions but is not visible in physical form.

Management is all pervasive; Management is comprehensive and covers all departments, activities and employees. Managers operate at different levels but their functions are identical. This indicates that management is a universal and all-pervasive process.

Management is an art; science as well as a profession Management is an art because certain skills, essential for good management, are unique to individuals. Management is a science because it has an organised body of knowledge. Management is also a profession because it is based on advanced and cultivated knowledge.

Management is innovative; Management techniques are dynamic and innovative. They need to be adjusted as per the requirements of the situations. Another manager need not repeat the decisions of one manager. Similarly, a manager has to change his decisions under different situations.

Management is different from ownership; Management is concerned with the management of business activities. Managers are not the owners but they manage the business on behalf of the owners. Separation of ownership and management is a special feature of modem business organisation.

Management is dynamic, Business is influenced by changes in economic, social, political technological and human resource. Management adjusts itself to the changing atmosphere making suitable forecasts and changes in the policies. Hence, management is treated as a dynamic activity.

Management aims at achieving predetermined objectives; Management is a meaningful activity. All organisations are essentially groups of individuals formed for achieving common objectives. An Organisation exists for the attainment of specific objectives.

Functions of Management

The essential elements/components of Management Process are four.
1. Planning
2. Organising
3. Directing and
4. Controlling.

Some more elements in the management process may be added.

Such elements are: - 1. Motivating 2. Co-coordinating 3. Staffing and 4. Communicating.

The elements in the management process are actually the basic functions of management these functions constitute the management process in practice. Management process is in fact,

management in practice. This process suggests what a manager is supposed to, do or the basic functions that he has to perform while managing the job assigned to him.

Planning

Planning is the primary function of management. It involves determination of a course of action to achieve desired results/objectives. Planning is the starting point of management process and all other functions of management are related to and dependent on planning function. Planning is the key to success, stability and prosperity in business. It acts as a tool for solving the problems of a business unit. Planning plays a pivotal role in business management It helps to visualize the future problems and keeps management ready with possible solutions.

Organizing

Organising is next to planning. It means to bring the resources (men, materials, machines, etc.) together and use them properly for achieving the objectives. Organisation is a process as well as it is a structure. Organising means arranging ways and means for the execution of a business plan. It provides suitable administrative structure and facilitates execution of proposed plan. Organising involves different aspects such as depart mentation, span of control delegation of authority, establishment of superior-subordinate relationship and provision of mechanism for co-ordination of various business activities.

Staffing

Staffing refers to manpower required for the execution of a business plan. Staffing, as managerial function, involves recruitment, selection, appraisal, remuneration and development of managerial personnel. The need of staffing arises in the initial period and also from time to time for replacement and also along with the expansion and diversification of business activities. Every business unit needs efficient, stable and cooperative staff for the management of business activities. Manpower is the most important asset of a business unit. In many organisations, manpower planning and development activities are entrusted to personnel manager or HRD manager. 'Right man for the right job' is the basic principle in staffing.

Directing

Directing as a managerial function, deals with guiding and instructing people to do the work in the right manner. Directing/leading is the responsibility of managers at all levels. They have to work as leaders of their subordinates. Clear plans and sound organisation set the stage but it requires a manager to direct and lead his men for achieving the objectives. Directing function is quite comprehensive. It involves Directing as well as raising the morale of subordinates. It also involves communicating, leading and motivating. Leadership is essential on the part of managers for achieving organisational objectives.

Coordinating

Effective coordination and also integration of activities of different departments are essential for orderly working of an Organisation. This suggests the importance of coordinating as management function. A manager must coordinate the work for which he is accountable. Co-ordination is rightly treated as the essence of management. It may be treated as an independent function or as a part of organisms function. Coordination is essential at all levels of management. It gives one clear-cut direction to the activities of individuals and departments. It also avoids misdirection and wastages and brings unity of action in the Organisation. Co-ordination will not come automatically or on its own Special efforts are necessary on the part of managers for achieving such coordination.

Controlling

Controlling is an important function of management. It is necessary in the case of individuals and departments so as to avoid wrong actions and activities. Controlling involves three broad aspects: (a) establishing standards of performance, (b) measuring work in progress and interpreting results achieved, and (c) taking corrective actions, if required. Business plans do not give positive results automatically. Managers have to exercise effective control in order to bring success to a business plan. Control is closely linked with other managerial functions. It is rightly treated as the soul of management process. It is true that without planning there will be nothing to control It is equally true that without control planning will be only an academic exercise Controlling is a continuous activity of a supervisory nature.

Motivating

Motivating is one managerial function in which a manager motivates his men to give their best to the Organisation. It means to encourage people to take more interest and initiative in the work assigned. Organisations prosper when the employees are motivated through special efforts including provision of facilities and incentives. Motivation is actually inspiring and encouraging people to work more and contribute more to achieve organisational objectives. It is a psychological process of great significance.

Communicating

Communication (written or oral) is necessary for the exchange of facts, opinions, ideas and information between individual's and departments. In an organisation, communication is useful for giving information, guidance and instructions. Managers should be good communicators. They have to use major portion of their time on communication in order to direct, motivate and co-ordinate activities of their subordinates. People think and act collectively through communication. According to Louis Allen, "Communication involves a systematic and continuing process of telling, listening and understanding".

Management as a Science

Science means a systematic body of knowledge pertaining to a specific field of study. It contains general principles and facts which explains a phenomenon. These principles establish cause-and-effect relationship between two or more factors. These principles and theories help to explain past events and may be used to predict the outcome of actions. Scientific methods of observations, and experiments are used to develop principles of science. The principles of science have universal application and validity. Thus, the essential features of science are as follows:

(i)   Basic facts or general principles capable of universal application
(ii)   Developed through scientific enquiry or experiments
(iii)   Establish cause and effect relationships between various factors.

It is important to examine as to what extent management satisfies the above conditions:

(i)   Systematic body of knowledge: Management has a systematic body of knowledge consisting of general principles and techniques. These help to explain events and serve as guidelines for managers in different types of organizations.

(ii)   Universal principles: Scientific principles represent basic facts about a particular field enquiry. These are objective and represent best thinking on the subject. These principles may be applied in all situations and at all times. Exceptions, if any, can be logically explained. For example, the Law of Gravitation states that if you throw an object in the air it will fall on the ground due to the gravitational force of the earth. This law can be applied in all countries and at all points of time. It is as applicable to a football as it is to an apple falling from tree. Management contains sound fundamental principles which can be universally applied. For instance, the principle of unity of command states that at a time one employee should be answerable to only one boss. This principle can be applied in all types of organization-business or non-business. However, principles of management are not exactly like those of physics or chemistry. They are flexible and need to be modified in different situations.

(iii)   Scientific enquiry and experiments: Scientific principles are derived through scientific investigation and reasoning. It means that there is an objective or unbiased assessment of the problem situation and the action chosen to solve it can be explained logically. Scientific principles do not reflect the opinion of an individual or of a religious guru. Rather these can be scientifically proved at any time. They are critically tested. For example, the principle that the earth revolves around the sun has been scientifically proved.

No doubt managers can work better by applying organised knowledge about management that has occurred over decades. Because the issue is very complex and intangible where managers have to deal with the knowledge of management, which is believed to be a solution that allows to improve managerial practices of managers. Management can say to be a science because management can be learned and was made of systematic measurements in order to achieve organisational goals. Thus, management as a science is the accumulation of knowledge arranged and organised systematically and its principles have evolved on the basis of observation.

In other words, management needs rational decision making, which isconsidered as a science. Forster and Browne **(**1996: 158**)** argued that rationality indecision making is the application of reason to the problem of action, which is deciding what needs to be done to accomplish a given end. He continues to argue thatmanagers in order to create practical judgements on which actions should be taken to attain particular goals are relied on their organisations' knowledge and environments.Therefore, as a science, management deals with decision making and executing themregarding to the previous and present data that has been collected, assessing themand the connection of such data so as to forecast upcoming circumstances.

Management as an Art

Art implies the application of knowledge and skills to bring about the desired results. The essential elements of arts are:
  (i)   Practical knowledge
  (ii)   Personal skill
  (iii)   Result oriented approach
  (iv)   Creativity
  (v)   Improvement through continuous practice Let us judge how far management fulfils these requirements:
  (i)   Practical knowledge: Every art signifies practical knowledge. An artist not only learn the theory but also its application in practice. For example, a person may have adequate technical knowledge of painting but he cannot become a good painter unless he knows how to make use of the brush and colours. Similarly, a person cannot become a successful manager simply by reading the theory and getting a degree or diploma in management. He must also learn to apply his knowledge in solving managerial problems in practical life. A manager is judged not just by his technical knowledge but by his efficiency in applying this knowledge.
  (ii)   Personal skill: Every artist has his own style and approach to his job. The success of different artists differs even when all of them possess the same technical knowledge

or qualifications. This is due to the level of their personal skills. For example, there are several qualified singers but Lata Mangeshkar has achieved the highest degree of success. Similarly, management is personalized. Every manager has his individual approach and style in solving managerial problems. The success of a manager depends on his personality in addition to his technical knowledge.

(iii) Result-oriented approach: Arts seeks to achieve concrete results. The process of management is also directed towards the accomplishment of desirable goals. Every manager applies certain knowledge and skills to achieve the desired results. He uses men, money, materials and machinery to promote the growth of the organization.

(iv) Creativity: Art is basically creative and an artist aims at producing something that had not existed before. Therefore, every piece of art requires imagination and intelligence to create. Like any other art, management is creative. A manager effectively combines and coordinates the factors of production to create goods and services. Molding the attitudes and behavior of people at work, towards the achievement of the desired goals is an art of the highest order.

(v) Improvement through people: Practice makes one perfect. Every artist become more and more efficient through constant practice. A dancer, for example, learns to perform better by continuously practicing a dance. Similarly, manager gains experience through regular practice and becomes more effective.

Accordingly, management as an art is reasonable since the consequence of management are substantially depends on the individual expertise of a manager, for example, instinct, hunches, intuition, judgment skills and experiences in handling organisation. It is due to a manager requires charisma, emotional stability, dignity, honesty, and ability to establish human relationship that everything was determined by a person's talent and somewhat difficult to learn. This is in line to "managers relied on intuitive rather than theoretical reasoning and often instructed subordinates to find data to support their 'gut decisions'." **(**Agor 1986 as cited in Huczynski 1996:176**).**

Furthermore, Henry M. Boettinger as cited in Lachowski (2012:137) believes that "management is an art – a creative 'tidying of the organisational chaos' – and like every branch of art and literature, it requires three components: the vision of the artist, craftsmanship, and an effective way of communicating with the audience". As an art, manager is viewed as a craftsman who needs to have dreams or visions for the organisation, as well as individual aptitudes and skills in order to achieve his dreams. Each manager has his own strategy for doing the jobs done.

Based on the case study conducted by Bruch and Ghoshal **(**2004: 6**),** they seek why and how the manager's action-taking had pulled up Lufthansa Company from a crisis and close to bankruptcy in 1991 be resuscitated and successfully recording profits of close to a billion marks in 1997. They

discovered that only 10 percent of the managers took purposeful action, while the other 90 percent of managers did not do those things. "The real problem for those managers was not the lack of knowledge or even resources, but the real gap was between knowledge and action" (Bruch & Ghoshal, 2004:6**).** "Purposeful action is determined, persistent and relentless action-taking to achieve a goal or a purpose, against all odds" (Bruch & Ghoshal 2004:7).

Management as Art and Science

Thus, "management is both a science as well as an art". It is a science because it has an organized body of knowledge consisting of certain universal facts. It is known as an art because it involves creating results through practical application of knowledge and skills. However, art and science are complementary to each other. They are not mutually exclusive. Science teaches one to know and art to do. Art without science has no guide and science without art is knowledge wasted. For example, a person cannot be a good surgeon unless he has scientific knowledge of human anatomy and the practical skill of applying that knowledge in conducting an operation. Similarly, a successful manager must know the principles of management and also acquire the skill of applying those principles for solving managerial problems in different situations. Knowledge of principles and theory is essential, but practical application is required to make this knowledge fruitful. One cannot become an effective manager simply by learning management principles by heart. Science (theory) and art (practice) are both essential for the success of management.

It is believed that management could be more effective if there is a combination of an art and a science. "Effective managing happens where art, craft, and science meet" (Mintzberg 2004:10)**.** He also mentioned that by "putting together a good deal of craft with a certain amount of art and some science, and you end up with a job that is above all a practice and there is no 'one best way' to manage; it all depends on the situation" (Mintzberg 2004:10). Management is needed for managers to make decisions not just based on theories and evidences they have learned in the past, but combined with their intuitions, judgements, and 'gut feelings'.

Management is basically a collaboration with the people to determine, interpret and achieve the objectives of the organisation with the performance of the functions of planning, organising, directing, and controlling. In order to do so, managers not just need to 'oversee individuals', they need to oversee themselves, as well. In fact, managers are only human being as well as their employees whom they seek to influence.

Robert L Katz **(**1955**)** as cited in Northouse **(**2012: 44**)** has been an eloquent proponent of management as an art and a science. He explained that every manager requires three basic skills. Firstly, managers need to have the expertise to create notions and ideas for the improvement of the organisation, which is called conceptual skills. Those concepts and ideas are next be interpreted into an action plan to be implemented, which the process of elaboration of ideas into

a tangible plan is generally mentioned to as the process of planning. For that reason, conceptual skills are likewise skill to create the plan work. Secondly, managers correspondingly need to be prepared with the skills of communication or the skills to relate to others, which is called humanity skills. Humanity skills involve the ability to interact with other people effectively, where managers cooperate and interact with their personnel. Managers having a persuasive communication, friendship, and fatherhood to their personnel will get better appreciation and respect, which leads to better achievements on the organisation's goals. Thirdly, managers should have technical skills.

Management as a Profession

A profession may be defined as an occupation that requires specialized knowledge and intensive academic preparations to which entry is regulated by a representative body. The essentials of a profession are:

1. Specialized Knowledge – A profession must have a systematic body of knowledge that can be used for development of professionals. Every professional must make deliberate efforts to acquire expertise in the principles and techniques. Similarly, a manager must have devotion and involvement to acquire expertise in the science of management.

2. Formal Education and Training – There are no. of institutes and universities to impart education & training for a profession. No one can practice a profession without going through a prescribed course. Many institutes of management have been set up for imparting education and training. For example, a CA cannot audit the AC's unless he has acquired a degree or diploma for the same but no minimum qualifications and a course of study has been prescribed for managers by law. For example, MBA may be preferred but not necessary.

3. Social Obligations – Profession is a source of livelihood but professionals are primarily motivated by the desire to serve the society. Their actions are influenced by social norms and values. Similarly, a manager is responsible not only to its owners but also to the society and therefore he is expected to provide quality goods at reasonable prices to the society.

4. Code of Conduct – Members of a profession have to abide by a code of conduct which contains certain rules and regulations, norms of honesty, integrity and special ethics. A code of conduct is enforced by a representative association to ensure self discipline among its members. Any member violating the code of conduct can be punished and his membership can be withdrawn. The AIMA has prescribed a code of conduct for managers but it has no right to take legal action against any manager who violates it.

5. Representative Association – For the regulation of profession, existence of a representative body is a must. For example, an institute of Charted Accountants of India establishes and administers standards of competence for the auditors but the AIMA (Alternative Investment Management Association) however does not have any statuary powers to regulate the activities of managers. From above discussion, it is quite clear that management fulfills several essentials of a profession, even then it is not a full-fledged profession because: -

a. It does not restrict the entry in managerial jobs for account of one standard or other.

b. No minimum qualifications have been prescribed for managers.

c. No management association has the authority to grant a certificate of practice to various managers.

d. All managers are supposed to abide by the code formulated by AIMA,

e. Competent education and training facilities do not exist.

f. Managers are responsible to many groups such as shareholders, employees and society. A regulatory code may curtail their freedom.

g. Managers are known by their performance and not mere degrees.

h. The ultimate goal of business is to maximize profit and not social welfare. That is why Haymes has rightly remarked, "The slogan for management is becoming – 'He who serves best, also profits most'."

Management as a Career

Management is a very exciting and rewarding career. A career in management offers status, interesting work, and the satisfaction of working closely with other people. People are considered the most important resource in organizations. If they perform effectively, the organizations will succeed. Managers work closely with people, ranging from top managers to clerical workers, to ensure that organizations achieve their objectives. A management career also offers the opportunity to make the world a better place. Managers help organizations succeed. When organizations are successful, there is better utilization of resources, less stress among employees, less chaos in society, and a better quality of life for all. Effective managers play an important role in shaping the world in which we live. Certo and Certo (2006) emphasized this point when they stated that our society would not be as developed as it is today without effective managers to guide its organizations.

Management is a people job. The manager coordinates the work of other people to ensure that the unit is run efficiently and profitably. A manager may have direct responsibility for a group of people in one department or a team of people from several different departments. For some managers, it could mean supervising one person.

Managers provide overall direction and leadership for the organization. The manager sets clear objectives for the team and makes sure they know what the focus is, assigns duties to team members, and encourages them to perform those duties. The manager also evaluates the team's actual performance against organizational objectives and decides on promotions and salary increases where appropriate. When team members are not performing satisfactorily, the manger makes the changes necessary to ensure that they reach the company's objectives. Managers usetheir people skills and business skills, such as marketing and cost controls, to achieve the company's objectives while at the same time making sure to stay within budget.

THEORY IN MANAGEMENT

Management theories in the early period were not really theories, but some discrete practices or experiences. For that matter, management theories in the present century are also not totally free from certain problems. To become a theory, an experience or practice needs to undergo several modifications, syntheses and tests. For this purpose, a sound theoretical and conceptual framework is essential for a theory to take shape. The chaos caused by the proliferation of management theories is aptly called 'the management theory jungle' (Koontz, 1961) and a strong need for a unified and integrated theory of management was felt a number of theoretical approaches with varying hypotheses, assumptions and propositions have emerged. Lack of adequate concept formation is considered a serious drawback in the development of a unified and integrated management theory. Part of the difficulty in the development of management concepts comes from the fact that management is an applied science; it lacks coherent theoretical concepts of its own. Management scholars have borrowed and applied concepts from other disciplines. Thus, management theory has evolved in a symbiotic relationship to its related and supporting disciplines like mathematics, statistics and behavioural sciences, depriving the motivation to devise its own conceptual framework independent of related disciplines. Moreover, management research has been kept psychologically and philosophically closer to practice than to theory.

Classification of Management Theories

As mentioned earlier there are several schools of thought in management. Apart from the 'autocratic' or 'authoritarian' or pre-scientific era(i.e., earlier to 1880) of the early period, several schools of management thought are identified and classified in several ways by experts. It is interesting to note that while early writings on management principles came from experienced practitioners, the more recent writings tend to come from academic theorists, some of whom have had no direct experience in organizational management.

During the history of management, a number of more or less separate schools of management thought have emerged, and each sees management from its own viewpoint. Thus, there are many

ways of classifying management theories. Koontz's has classified the management theories into the following six groups:

i)   The management process school
ii)   The empirical school
iii)   The human behavioural school
iv)   The social systems school
v)   The decision theory school
vi)   The mathematical school.

Adding one more style or approach of his own Evans discusses eleven basic styles cited by Herbert hicks in his hooks "the management of organizations" (1967). Again, leaving the early perspectives, Hitt and others (1979**)** classify management theories into three broad groups.

i)   Classical management theory
ii)   Neoclassical management theory
iii)   Modern management theory

Under each group a few schools of thought are identified. These three groups of schools of management thought are currently in vogue and found adequate for the purpose.

Classical Management Theory (l880s-1920s)

Classical management theory consists of a group of similar ideas on the management of organizations that evolved in the late 19th century and early 20th century. The Classical school is sometimes called the traditional school of management among practitioners. This school, evolved as a result of the industrial revolution, in response to the growth of large organizations and in contrast to the handicraft system that existed till then. It contains three branches, namely, scientific management, administrative principles and bureaucratic organization. The predominant and common characteristic to all three branches is the emphasis on the economic rationality of management and organization. The economic rationality of the individual employee at work assumes that people choose the course of action that maximizes their economic reward. In other words, economic rationality assumes that people are motivated by economic incentives and that they make choices that yield the greatest monetary benefit. Thus, to get employees to work hard, managers should appeal to their monetary desires. These assumptions are based on a pessimistic view of human nature. While they are true to some extent, they also overlook some optimistic aspects. Classical theorists recognized human emotions but felt that a logical and rational structuring of jobs and work could control human emotions.

The primary contributions of the classical school of management include:

(i)   application of science to the practice of management

(ii)   development of the basic management functions and

(iii)   articulation and application of specific principles of management.

Scientific Management

According to Taylor, ―Scientific Management is an art of knowing exactly what you want your men to do and seeing that they do it in the best and cheapest way. In Taylors view, if a work is analysed scientifically, it will be possible to find one best way to do it. Hence scientific management is a thoughtful, organized, dual approach towards the job of management against hit or miss or Rule of Thumb.

According to Drucker, ―The cost of scientific management is the organized study of work, the analysis of work into simplest element & systematic management of worker 's performance of each element.

Frederick Winslow Taylor (1856-1915) is considered to he the father of scientific management. Henry Gantt, Frank and Lillian Gilberth and Harrington Emerson supported Taylor in his efforts. All these disciples of Taylor became famous in their own right. Together with Taylor they revolutionized management thinking. Scientific management is the name given to the principles and practices that grew out of the work of Frederick Taylor and his followers and that are characterized by concern for efficiency and systematization in management. Four basic parts of a series of ideas developed by Taylor are as follows:

   i)   Each person's job should be broken down into elements and a scientific way to perform each clement should be determined.
   ii)   Workers should be scientifically selected and trained to do the work in the designed and trained manner.
   iii) There should be good cooperation between management and workers so that tasks are performed in the designed manner.
   iv)   There should he a division of labour between managers and workers. Managers should take over the work of supervising and setting up instructions and designing the work, and the workers should be free to perform the work himself.

Thus, the scientific method provides a logical framework for the analysis of problems. It basically consists of defining the problem, gathering data, analysing the data, developing alternatives, and selecting the best alternative. Taylor believed that following the scientific method would provide a way to determine the most efficient way to perform work. Instead of abdicating responsibility for establishing standards, the management would scientifically study all facets of an operation and carefully set a logical and rational standard. Instead of guessing or relying solely on trial and error, the management should go through the time-consuming process of logical study and scientific research to develop answers to business problems. Taylor believed sincerely that

scientific management practices would benefit both the employee and theemployer through the creation of larger surplus and hence the organization would receive more income. He believed that management and labour had a common interest in increasing productivity. Taylor did a lot of work on improving management of production operations. He demonstrated in the classic case of the pig iron experiment at the Bethlehem Steel Company, how both output per worker and the daily pay of worker could be increased by employing scientific method.

Among the other significant contributors to scientific management was Henry L Gantt. Gantt was a contemporary and an associate of Taylor. He emphasized the psychology of the worker and the importance of morale in production. Gantt insisted that willingness to use correct methods and skills in performing a task was as important as knowing the methods and having the skills. Thus, he saw the importance of the human element in productivity and propounded the concept of motivation as we understand today. Gantt devised a wage-payment system and developed a charting system or control chart for scheduling production operation which became the basis for modern scheduling techniques like CPM and PERT.

Frank and Lillian Gilbert concentrated on time-and-motion study to develop more efficient ways of performing repetitive tasks. Time-and-motion study is a process of analysing jobs to determine the best movements for performing each task. Time-and-motion study and piece-rate incentives are two major managerial practices developed by scientific management theorists and widely used even today. The piece-rate incentive system envisages, that the largest amount of income goes to workers who produce the maximum output. In addition, scientific selection and training of workers, importance of work design amid encouraging managers to seek the best way of doing a job, development of a rational approach to solving organization problems and above all professionalisation of management, are some of the other contributions of the scientific management school.

Harrington Emerson in his classic book "Twelve principles of efficiency" (1913) set forth principles, which state that a manager should carefully define objectives, use the scientific method of analysis, develop and use standardized procedures, and reward employees for good work.

Limitation of Scientific Management

The scientific management school is criticized on the following grounds. No man is entirely an 'economic man' and man's behaviour is dictated not only by financial needs, but by other needs like social needs, security needs and esteem needs. Hence, it may not always be true that economic incentives are strong enough to motivate workers. Secondly, there is no such thing as 'one best way' of doing a job so far as the component motions are concerned and hence time and

motion study may not be entirely scientific. Two studies done by two different persons may time the same job entirely differently. Thirdly, separation of planning and doing a job and the greater specialization inherent in the system tend to reduce the need for skill and produce greater monotony of work. Lastly, advances in methods and better tools amid machines eliminated some workers, causing resentment from them.

Administrative Management.

While pioneers of the scientific management tried to determine the best way to perform a job, those in the administrative management explored the possibilities of an ideal way to put all jobs together and operate an organization. Thus, the emphasis of administrative or general management theory is on finding 'the best way' to run an organization. This school of thought is also called administrative or traditional principles of management. Henry Fayol **(**1841-1925), aFrench industrialist, is the chief architect and the father of the administrative management theory. Other prominent exponents include Chester I Barnard amid Colnel Lyndall Urwick (a British management expert).

Fayol's Unified Concept As the managing director of a mining company, Fayol developed a unified concept of management and broad administrative principles applicable to general and higher managerial levels. He used the word 'administration' for what we call management. Fayol focused on managerial levels and the organization as a whole. His perspective extended beyond the shop level and the physical production processes and was of macro in nature. In his French book 'Industrial and General Management', He writes that all activities of business enterprises could he divided into six groups: technical, commercial, financial, accounting, security and administrative (or managerial). He focused on the managerial activity and propounded those fundamental functions of any manager consists of planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling. He emphasized that the process of management is the same at any level of an organization and is common to all types of organizations. He also presented 14 principles of management as general guidelines for management practice. Thus, the 14 Principles are:

1. **Division of Work**: The specialization of the workforce according to the skills a person, creating specific personal and professional development within the labour force and therefore increasing productivity; leads to specialization which increases the efficiency of labour. By separating a small part of work, the workers speed and accuracy in its performance increases. This principle is applicable to both technical as well as managerial work.

2. **Authority and Responsibility:** The issue of commands followed by responsibility for their consequences. Authority means the right of a superior to give order to his subordinates; responsibility means obligation for performance. This principle suggests that there must

be parity between authority and responsibility. They are co-existent and go together, and are two sides of the same coin.

3. **Discipline:** Discipline refers to obedience, proper conduct in relation to others, respect of authority, etc. It is essential for the smooth functioning of all organizations.

4. **Unity of Command**: This principle states that every subordinate should receive orders and be accountable to one and only one superior. If an employee receives orders from more than one superior, it is likely to create confusion and conflict. Unity of Command also makes it easier to fix responsibility for mistakes.

5. **Unity of Direction**: All those working in the same line of activity must understand and pursue the same objectives. All related activities should be put under one group, there should be one plan of action for them, and they should be under the control of one manager. It seeks to ensure unity of action, focusing of efforts and coordination of strength.

6. **Subordination of Individual Interest:**The management must put aside personal considerations and put company objectives first. Therefore, the interests of goals of the organization must prevail over the personal interests of individuals.

7. **Remuneration**: Workers must be paid sufficiently as this is a chief motivation of employees and therefore greatly influences productivity. The quantum and methods of remuneration payable should be fair, reasonable and rewarding of effort.

8. **TheDegree of Centralization:** The amount of power wielded with the central management depends on company size. Centralization implies the concentration of decision-making authority at the top management. Sharing of authority with lower levels is called decentralization. The organization should strive to achieve a proper balance.

9. **Scalar Chain**: Scalar Chain refers to the chain of superiors ranging from top management to the lowest rank. The principle suggests that there should be a clear line of authority from top to bottom linking all managers at all levels. It is considered a chain of command. It involves a concept called a "gang plank" using which a subordinate may contact a superior or his superior in case of an emergency, defying the hierarchy of control. However, the immediate superiors must be informed about the matter

10. **Order**: Social order ensures the fluid operation of a company through authoritative procedure. Material order ensures safety and efficiency in the workplace.

11. **Equity**: Employees must be treated kindly, and justice must be enacted to ensure a just workplace. Managers should be fair and impartial when dealing with employees.

12. **Stability of Tenure of Personnel**: The period of service should not be too short and employees should not be moved from positions frequently. An employee cannot render useful service if he is removed before he becomes accustomed to the work assigned to him.

13. **Initiative**: Using the initiative of employees can add strength and new ideas to an organization. Initiative on the part of employees is a source of strength for the organization because it provides new and better ideas. Employees are likely to take greater interest in the functioning of the organization.

14. **Esprit De Corps**: This refers to the need of managers to ensure and develop morale in the workplace; individually and communally. Team spirit helps develop an atmosphere of mutual trust and understanding. These can be used to initiate and aid the processes of change, organization, decision making, skill management and the overall view of the management function.

Apart from a list of basic management principles for achieving good organization and dealing with the numerous facets of managing an organization, he laid tremendous emphasis on logic, rationality and consistency. Taylor worked from the bottom of the hierarchy upward, whereas Fayol worked from the apex downwards, with 'management centred' philosophy.

Inspired by Fayol, Harold Koontz and Cyril O'Donnell propounded a new school of thought known as the management process school. They believe that management is a dynamic process of performing the functions of planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling. These functions and the principles, on which they are based, are believed to have general and universal applicability. Managers perform the same functions irrespective of their levels and the difference, if any, will be in the degree of complexity. These functions are applicable to all organizations wherever group effort is involved and the management theory is not culture bound. In other words, these functions are all pervasive. For the same reason the management process approach is also called the universal approach.

Limitation of Administrative Management

Like the scientific management school, the administrative management school is also criticized on some grounds. Many of the principles of this school including those of Fayol are contradictory and have dilemmas. These principles are no better than proverbs, which giveopposite messages. For example, the principle of unity of command contradicts the principle of specialization or division of labour and the principle of limited span of control, contradicts that the number of organizational levels should be kept at a minimum. Further the principle of specialization is internally inconsistent; for purpose, process, and place are competing modes of specialization and to secure the advantages of any one mode, the organizer must sacrifice the advantages of the other three modes. All modes cannot be followed simultaneously while pursuing specialization.

Secondly, these principles are based on a few case studies and they are not empirically tested. Thirdly, these principles are stated as unconditional statements and valid under all circumstances,

which is not practicable. More and more conditional principles of management are needed. Fourthly these principles result in the formation of mechanistic organization structures, which are insensitive to employees' social and psychological needs. Such structures inhibit the employees' self-actualization and accentuate their dependence on superiors.

This school does not consider sociology, biology, psychology, economies, etc. as relevant and included within the purview. Further, these principles are based on the assumption that organizations are closed systems. According to this school of thought employees tend to develop an orientation towards their own departments rather than towards time whole organization. Lastly, the rigid structures created by these principles do not work well under unstable conditions.

Bureaucratic Organization

As organizations became larger and more complex, the authoritarian-paternalistic pattern gave way to increased functional specialization with many layers of middle and lower management for coordinating organizational effort. The result was a bureaucratic approach to organizational structure. With the intentions of eliminating managerial inconsistencies and as a reaction to managerial abuses of power, Max Weber propounded a set of principles to provide grounds for organizing group efforts. The characteristics of bureaucratic organization are division of labour by functional specialization. We defined hierarchy of authority, a set of rules covering the rights and duties of employees, a system of procedures or dealing with work situations, impersonal relations between people and promotion and selection of employees based on technical competence, Often, public service with a large number of offices and employees like postal services are cited as examples of bureaucratic organizations. The strength of such a bureaucratic organization exists in its system of workable set of rules, policies and a hierarchy of authority.

The advantages of bureaucracy are many folds. Apart from consistent employee behaviour, it eliminates overlapping or conflicting jobs or duties, and the behaviour of the system is predictable. In turn, consistency and precise job definitions help to avoid wasteful actions and improve efficiency, Further, bureaucracy has the advantages of basing its mode of hiring and promotion on merit, developing expertise in employees and assuring continuity in the organization. In other words, bureaucracy emphasizes the position rather than person and organization continues even when individuals leave.

Despite the above advantages, bureaucratic organization has some significant negative and side effects. Too much of red tapes and paper work not only lead to unpleasant experiences but also to inefficient operations. Since employees are treated impersonally and they are expected to rely on rules and policies, they are unwilling to exercise individual judgment and avoid risks. Consequently, their growth, creativity, development and even initiative suffer considerably. Machine like treatment makes employees unconcerned about the organization and exhibit indifference regarding the organization and job performance. Bureaucracy expects conformity in behaviour rather than performance.

Criticism of Classical Management

Theory Apart from the limitations and disadvantages of schools of classical theory discussed so far under each school, there are some general criticisms on schools of classical theory. The notion of rational economic person is often strongly criticized. The assumption that people are motivated primarily by economic reward might have been appropriate around **1900 A.D.,** and for a few people today. This assumption is not correct under the new circumstances where aspirations and the educational level of people have changed. Further, organizations have grown more complex and hence require more creativity and judgment from employees. Secondly the classical theory assumes that all organizations can be managed according to one set of principles and the same may not be valid. In other words, all pervasiveness of principles of management is also questioned. With changes in objectives, approaches, structures and environment, organizations may have to have some changes in principles.

Neo-Classical Theory (1920s-1950s)

The Traditional classical theory and its principles are attacked on the ground that they are contradictory, pay little attention to motivation, and make hasty pronouncements on what should be done without examining time assumptions underlying such pronouncements. As such, these principles do not represent the heart of knowledge of management but a small part of the total body of administrative management. As a reaction to schools of classical theory which overemphasized the mechanical and physiological characters of management, came up the schools of neoclassical theory with a more human-oriented approach and emphasis on time needs, drives, behaviours and attitudes of individuals. Another impetus was the development of the concepts of industrial psychology around the same time. Two important groups, namely, human relations school and behavioural schools emerged during 1920s and 1930s under the neoclassical theory. Often names of two persons mentioned from the period earlier to neoclassical theory are Robert Owen and Andrew Ure. As Young Welsh factory owner Robert Owen was first one to emphasize human needs of employees as early as 1800. Andrew Ure has incorporated human factors in his book 'the philosophy of manufactures' published in 1835. Yet the human relations movement of the 1940s and the 1950s filled many gaps in knowledge about business organizations, but it did little to fill major gaps in management theory or to create a new and viable theory of management.

Human Relations School

Elton Mayo has been considered as the father of the human relations movement, which later became organizational behaviour. The other two important co-researchers of this school are F.J.Roethlisberger and William J Dickson. They believed that organizations always involve interrelationships among members and that it is the manager's role to see that relationships are as conflict free as possible, in order to accomplish the organization's objectives. They believed

that the human aspects of business organizations had been largely ignored. They felt that satisfaction of psychological needs should be the primary concern of the management.

Mayo, Roethlisberger and Dickson conducted studies at the Hawthorne, Illinois plant of Chicago Western Electric Company, which became famous Hawthorne experiments or studies later. They felt that if the best work environment could be determined (just as the best way to perform the job could be determined by scientific management), then workers would be more efficient and become less tired. They also felt the importance of evaluating the attitudes and reactions of workers to their jobs and their environment. They attempted through several experiments to determine the relationship between working conditions and productivity. They set up test groups, for which changes were made in lighting, frequency of rest periods and working hours and control groups, for which no changes were made.

Mayo and others in their initial experiment came to the conclusion that some factors other than light were responsible for increased productivity. From a follow up interview of employees, they realized that people were not leaving their feelings, attitudes, and emotions at home and employees were not at work simply for economic benefit. But other dimensions also affected their performance. In a final experiment they discovered that the workers had developed their own idea of the level of fair output. This informally developed, called a norm, was enforced on the work group to the point that total output was restricted. Any worker who produced more than the norm was pressurized by other workers to comply with the norm.

Mayo and his colleagues arrived at two important conclusions: (i) existence of strong informal groups (ii) employees' behaviour at work is affected by non-economic factors. They revealed some inadequacies of the rational and structured approaches of classical theory and the fallacy of viewing all workers as rational and economic beings. Thus evolved a social person view of employees from Hawthorne studies.

As against the rational economic view, the social person view is that (i) individuals are motivated by social needs (ii) people obtain their sense of identity through interpersonal relationships (iii) because of industrial progress and routinization, the work has become dissatisfying (iv) employees are more responsive to the social forces of peer groups than to incentives and controls of management (v) employees respond to provisions for their social needs and acceptance offered by management. The social person view of human relations school has necessitated managerial strategies for improving the human skills of the supervisors, replacing individual incentive plans by group incentive plans, focusing on employees' feelings and attitudes and their effect on productivity rather than managerial functions. The concept of social manager has evolved and the social manager assumes the role of helper and coach and carries out human relations programs shunning a stern and aloof attitude.

This theory virtually looked beyond organizational factors (i.e., environmental factors) and aimed at as conflict-free inter-relationships as possible among members of the organization. Drawing heavily from social psychology and individual psychology this theory expected the manager to be a leader and supervisor of a rather tolerant (democratic and participative) type and considered every employee to be a unique socio-psychological being. The lesson of Hawthorne experiments was that psychological needs of individuals have a significant impact on group performance and that employees often miss-state their concerns. As a corollary it was also learnt that when employees are given special attention, output is likely to increase regardless of the actual changes in the working conditions (Hawthorne effect). In other words, the resultsupported the thesis that reasonable satisfaction of the needs and desires of employees will lead to greater output.

Human relations approaches laid greater emphasis on the work group and need for better communication between supervisors and workers. The Human relations movement is looked as a trend towards power equalization. It is an attempt for reduction in the power and status differential between supervisors and subordinates and looked upon as a continuing reaction against the emphasis of programmed work, rigid hierarchical control and a high degree of specialization of Taylorism. However, they did not reject all the classical ideas. The neoclassical writers believed that treating employees like individuals (neoclassical) would make them act according to the principles (classical). They said, "treat employees as if they are important and give the workers the feeling of participation".

Limitation of Human Relation School.

Human relations school has several limitations as well. It is considered to be a swing in the opposite direction of classical theory. In other words, they saw only human variables as critical and ignored other variables. Every organization is made up of a number of diverse social groups with incompatible values and interests. These groups might cooperate in some spheres and compete and clash in others. It is practically impossible to satisfy everybody and turn the organization into a big happy family.

This approach over-emphasizes the importance of symbolic rewards which may not be appreciated by recipient's 'significant others' and underplays the role of material rewards. Further, the assumption about formation of informal groups in unrealistic and not very common. Informal groups can only make the worker's day more pleasant and not his repetitive, monotonous and uncreative task. Workers do not come to the organization to seek affection and affiliation. Techniques of human relations school try to play a trick on workers to create a false sense of happiness and are not really concerned with their real well being. There is a difference between allowing workers to participate in making decisions and letting workers think they are participating. On this sense, this approach is also production-oriented and not employee oriented. The unqualified application of these techniques in all situations is not possible. For

example, where secrecy of decision is required and when decisions have to be made quickly on emergent basis, this approach may not work. This approach makes as unrealistic demand on the supervisor and expects him to give up his desire for power. The assumption that the satisfied workers are more productive and improved working conditions and human relations lead to increased output may, not always be true. Above all, human behaviour is not the total field of concern of the manager.

Human relations movement accepted scientific management's central goal of efficiency, but focused on individuals and on small-group processes rather than large organizations. It stressed communication, leadership and interpersonal relations, particularly between employees and their bosses. Like scientific management efforts, research in human relations focused on the lower levels of organization rather than on the middle and upper groups and hence lacked comprehensive scope. Behaviour scientists became interested in companies as research sites, but they tended to use their findings to build their own disciplines, or to establish a science of human relations rather than a science of management. Thus, the human relations movement accepted many of the assumptions of the scientific management thinkers, and it did not achieve a major breakthrough in management theory.

Behavioural Schools

Since the Hawthorne experiments, there has been an increased interest in and an application of, behavioural science in management. The human relations approach has evolved into modern behaviourism. The term modern behaviourism refers to the current stage of evolution of the behavioural school of management, which gives primacy to psychological considerations but treats fulfillment of emotional needs mainly as a means of achieving other primary economic goals. Much of the discussions under behavioural schools can as well be considered under organizational (modern) humanism in modern management theory. Important behavioural scientists who contributed to gain insight in ways to achieve managerial effectiveness and developing techniques to utilize people more effectively in organizations, are Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, Chris Argyris, Frederick Herzberg, Rensis Likert, Kurt Lewin, Chester Barnard, Mary Parker Follett, George Homans and Warren Bennis. They had rigorous training in various social sciences and used sophisticated research methods. They regard the classical management theory as highly mechanistic, which tends to degrade the human spirit and is nonresponsive to the human needs. As against overly specialized jobs, under-utilized people, too much control over employees with no scope to make decisions and little concern about subordinates' needs for recognition and self-fulfilment, the behaviourists preferred more flexible organization structures with jobs built around the capabilities and aptitudes of average employees.

Modern Management Theory

Modern management theory highlights the complexity of the organization as well as individuals and the diversity of their needs, motives, aspirations and potentials. As a result, one time status or universal management principles are impracticable. The complexities require intricate managerial strategies for dealing with people and organization. As against the rational economic man of the classical theory and the social person view of neoclassical theory, the complex employee view is the premises of modern management theory.

The complex employee view holds that people are both complex and variable. They have many motives, learn new motives through experience and motives vary from organization to organization and department to department. Complex interactions relate the employee and the organization. There is no single managerial strategy that works for all people at all times. Managers can employ different strategies at different times and for different persons. Analytical tools may be useful while applying managerial strategies. Four important modern management theories arising out of the complex employee view are systems theory, contingency theory, organizational humanism and management science.

Systems Theory

As noted earlier the drawback of the classical theory and the neoclassical theory is emphasizing one aspect at the cost of the other. The classical theory emphasized the 'task', 'structure' and 'efficiency' and the neoclassical theory emphasized 'people'. Systems theory has come up as via media with an integrated and holistic approach to management problems. This has emerged as a way of looking at the organization as a whole. Chester Barnard, George Homans, Philip Selznick and Herbert Simon are some of the advocates of the systems theory.

A system is an entity made up of two or more interdependent parts that interact to form a functioning organism. An organization, human body, a flower and a tree are examples of a system (anything and everything is a system). The phrase 'interdependent parts' is very important and means that a manager should not look for a single cause of a problem. A system can either be open or closed. An open system interacts with its environment. All biological, human and social systems are open systems and many physical and mechanical systems are closed systems. Traditional organization theorists regarded organization as closed systems while modern view is to treat it as an open system having constant interaction with its environment. In other words, an organization is an open system that interacts regularly with external forces such as government agencies, customers and suppliers. These external forces have an impact on organization practices.

The open system concept is the first part of the two parts of systems theory. The second part is the impact of changes within an organization. The changes in one part of the organization affect all other parts of the organization. This interdependence complicates the manager's job. The

boundaries of open systems are permeable or penetrable, flexible and changeable depending upon its activities. The function of the management is to act as a boundary-linking pin among the various subsystems within the organizational system. Every system has flows of information, material and energy and these inputs get converted into outputs of goods, services and satisfactions in the organization. This process is called 'throughput'. This change process is synergistic. Synergy means that the output of a system is always more than the combined output of its parts. In other words, these interrelated parts become more productive when they act in cooperation and interaction rather than in isolation.

A system adapts and adjusts to the changing conditions of its environment and exercises control over its operations through feedback. Information flows to appropriate people as feedback to carry out this function.

Contingency Theory

As indicated under the systems theory, today's organizations are quite complex and there cannot be one correct managerial strategy that works in all situations. The contingency approach stresses the absence of a single best way to manage and emphasizes the need for managerial strategies based on all relevant facts. In other words, each manager's situation must be viewed separately, a wide range external and internal factor must be considered and then the focus should be on the action that best fits the given situation. This approach, in a way attempts to integrate the various schools of management thought, otherwise it is obvious that the principles and concepts of various schools have no general and universal applicability under all conditions. The contingency approach suggests that managers need to be developed in skills that are most useful in identifying the important situational factors. They should be able to identify which technique, in a particular situation, will best contribute to the attainment of management goals. In other words, managers should develop a sort of situational sensitivity and practical selectively.

Contingency approach is most applied in the activities of motivating, leading and structuring the organization. The other potential areas of application include employee development and training, decisions of decentralization, establishment of communication and control systems and planning information decision systems. The implication of contingent theory on motivation is that behaviour results from individual reactions to important aspects of the environment and individuals are motivated by influences around them. The implication on leadership is that managers must not only be kind and considerate to subordinate but also be flexible leaders and act at the right time. Contingency leadership approaches and discusses the aspects of the leadership situation that influence how a leader should behave. This theory says that organization must be designed to fit its situation, particularly the organizations environment and the technology it uses. Researchers have found that the more complex and changing the environment, the more flexible the structure must be. Bureaucratic structure like that of a

manufacturing organization can be effective only in a stable, unchanging environment. An R & D organization may find a more flexible structure to be most effective.

Organizational Humanism

This school of thought is an extension of behavioural schools of neoclassical theory and hence has much in common with behavioural schools. Some of the researchers like Chris Argyris, Douglas Mc Gregor and Abraham Maslow mentioned under behavioural schools are the propounders of organizational humanism or the modern behavioural school. The underlying philosophy of this school is that individuals need to use all of their capacities and creative skills at work as well as at home. This 'self-actualizing view' is the basis of this school. According to this view, motives fall into categories that can be arranged according to 'their importance and employees seek to mature (self-actualize) on the job and are capable of being so. Employees are primarily self-motivated and self-controlled and react negatively to externally imposed controls. If allowed to become self-actualized, employees will integrate the goals with those of the organization. Self-actualization refers to reaching one's potential i.e., ultimate use of personal skills.

Exponents of this theory felt that rational design of organizations leads to highly specialized and routine jobs in which employees cannot use all their creative and motivated potential. Hence, unnecessary rules, rigidly designed jobs and inflexible supervision should be avoided and in consistent with human nature. Employees should have greater freedom and satisfaction at work. Self-actualized employees are highly motivated and produce organizational benefits that cannot he achieved in the bureaucratic organization. The best role for a manager is to challenge employees, develop their decision-making skills, and allow them to seek responsibility. Humanist approach suggests to rely on the worker's internal motivation (i.e., desire to grow) as against external pressures (social acceptance and organizational play) suggested in classical and neoclassical theories.Organizational humanism focuses on individual needs and the satisfaction of these needs at work. Organizational humanism is criticized on the ground that it is difficult to believe that every employee seeks self-actualization at work. Organizational humanists say that there are many ways in which employees can entertain themselves at work and make their jobs interesting.

Management Science

Management Science should not be confused with scientific management of classic theory. However, the management science approach also known as quantitative approach is evolved from the early application of some of the scientific management techniques of classical theorists. Because of complexities of organizations discussed earlier, today's managers are required to have more and better information in order to make effective decisions. The management science approach proposes the use of quantitative technique to aid decision making. Despite voluminous

data to be analysed and sophisticated computations to be done, a wide variety of quantitative tools have been developed and high-speed computers deployed in the analysis of information.

This approach gained momentum during the Second World War when interdisciplinary groups of scientists called Operations Research Teams were engaged to seek solutions to many complex problems of war. These teams constructed mathematical models to simulate real life problems and by changing the values of variables in the model, analysed the effect of changes and presented a rational basis for decision makers. Tools such as linear programming, queuing theory, simulation models, CPM, PERT, inventory-control and quality control tools were extensively used in this approach. Thus, the focus of management science or quantitative approach is on making objective and rational decisions. Objective rationality implied an ability and willingness to follow a reasoned, unemotional, orderly and scientific approach in relating means with ends and in visualizing the totality of the decision environment. It is an attempt to rationalize and quantify the managerial process.

This approach facilitated disciplined thinking, achieving precision and perfection by expressing relationships among variables and facts in quantitative terms. While this approach has found wide applications in planning and control activities, not all managerial processes can berationalized and quantified. The area such as organizing, staffing and leading which are more human than technical in nature, found this approach not so beneficial and this is the major limitation of these tools.

Total Quality Management (TQM)

TQM was developed by William Deming; it is an approach to organizational management that focuses on improving processes and standards that translate to customer satisfaction.

According to Besterfield (1995) "QM as both a philosophy and a set of guiding principles that represent the foundation of a continuously improving organization. It integrates fundamental management techniques, existing improvement efforts, and technical tools under disciplined approach."

According to ISO 9001:2015 "TQM is a management approach for an organization, centred on quality, based on the participation of all its members and aiming at long-term success through customer satisfaction, and benefits to all members of the organization and to society." ISO 8402:1994.

Wilkinson and Wither (1990) define TQM using a three-word definition:

- **Total**: Every person is involved (its customers and suppliers)
- **Quality**: Customer requirements are met exactly
- **Management**: Senior executives are fully committed.

Vincent, omachonu, Joel and Ross (1995): Total Quality Management (TQM) is the integration of all functions and processes within an organization in order to achieve continuous improvement of the quality of goods and services. The goal is customer satisfaction.

John Oakland 1995: Total Quality Management (TQM) is an approach to improving the competitiveness, effectiveness and flexibility of a whole organization. It is essentially a way of planning, organizing, and understanding each activity, and depends on each individual at each level.

The history of TQM start with Elton Mayo's Hawthrone experiments from 1927 through 1932. These experiments showed that workers participation in decision making improve productivity.

In the 1930's the Hawthrone plant of the western electric company studied lighting levels, workday lengths and rest period length to maximize productivity. During the lighting level studies, researchers found that when the light were brighter, workers productivities increased. However, when lighting level were decreased workers, productivity also increased. The change in behavior from the employees is now called the Hawthrone effect. It is basically states that when workers are involved in studies or decision-making productivity increases.

Also, during the 1930's Walter Shewhart developed control chart which are a statistical method to control chart processes

Edward Deming **1950'** taught statistical method and Dr. Juran caught quality management techniques to the Japanese. Armand Feigenbaum wrote Total Quality Control. This became the first work that started many Total Quality Management Theories. In 1954 Abraham Maslow created a pyramid of self-actualization needs must be met prior to employees performing at higher levels. The needs in order are:

1. Physiological: which is Food, shelter and clothen.
2. Safety: which is to have economic and physical security.
3. Love and Belonging: which is to be accepted by family and friends
4. Esteem: which is to be held in high regard
5. Self-actualization which is to archivers on best

1960's Douglas McGregor formed the theory X and theory Y leadership models.

A theory X leader applied a negative approach to management they assume most workers really do not like to work and do not try to avoid work.

A theory Y leader believes workers want to do a good job. They believe will offer solution to problems and participate in problem solution event. An involved employee is a productive employee.

1970's a **1968** the Japanese shaped the phrase total quantity control TQC. Is a companywide quality control philosophy. This philosophy drove Japan to the world quality leader in the **1970's.** for the most part, Japan remains the quality leader. However, the world has ignorantly closed the gap.

In the **1980** the us Naval Air systems coined the TQM phrase. The Navy Based most of the principle on the Japanese total quality control philosophy many companies adopted TQM during the **80's**. TQM spread like wild fire. Many companies saw significant gains in productivity. However, many companies started the program and failed miserably because they weren't willing to change.

1990's TQM evolved experts introduce new methods that supported TQM. These includes lean manufacturing and six signal.

Organizations could now become certified to ISO9001 the Malcom Baldridge National Quality Award (MBNQA) was created to the US MBNQA auditors give this award to companies who show the most outstanding quality management practice **2000s,** ISO revised ISO 9001 to focus more on business planning quality management and continuous improvement. Other certification standards were created including AS9100 for aerospace. TS16949 for electronics, ISO 17025 for laboratories these standards all include the ISO 9001 **2010s,** ISO revised the ISO 9001 standard in **2015** to include knowledge management. Although six sigma started in the **1990's,** it became the prevalent problem-solving process used by quality professionals.

The term lean six sigma was born. A combination of learn thinking 5s and six sigma forms the core of lean six sigma in addition experts start using Kiazen Gemba and Hoshin Kanri

Key Concepts of Total Quality Management includes

1. Structured system for exceeding customers' expectations.
2. System that empowers employees
3. Drives higher profits.
4. Drives Lower Costs
5. Continuous improvement
6. Management Centered approach on improving quality

Benefit of TQM includes

1. Improves competitive position
2. Increase adaptability to global markets.
3. Elevated Productivity
4. Superior Global Image
5. Eliminate Defects
6. Significantly reduce waste
7. Reduces Quality Costs
8. Improve Management Communication
9. Raise profits
10. Drives Customers focus
11. Customers loyalty
12. Reduce design time.

Other Schools of Thought, Styles or Approaches

As noted in the beginning Evans **(1976)** discusses the following twelve basic styles of management and organizational thought (after adding one more style to the II styles of Herbert Hicks). They are traditional, empirical, human relations, decision theory, mathematical, social systems, formalism, spontaneity, participative, challenge-response, directive and checks and balances approaches or styles. Of these styles, human relations school has already been discussed explicitly. The traditional style is the same as administrative management of classical theory. The empirical style shares a number of basic premises of traditional style and emphasizes the case study approach. The essence of this style is that the practitioners do enunciate general guidelines for other or later managers.

The decision-theory school concentrates on logic and the rational process involved in decisionmaking and believes that the more rational the decision is, the more efficient and effective the organization will be. This is in effect the same as the quantitative methods discussed under management science of modern management theory. The mathematical approach does not differ much from the decision-theory school and it is part of or even same as the management science school. The social systems school is sociologically oriented and emphasizes group and individual behaviour in terms of cultural relationships and then looks at the ways in which these behavioural patterns interlock in a miniature social system. These aspects are covered under the behavioural schools of neoclassical theory.

The school of formalism is the same as the bureaucratic management of classical theory. It believes that the bureaucracy with clearly defined jobs and highly formalized structure of organization maintains the system and provides the services. The school of spontaneity, which draws heavily from social psychology, group dynamics and psychological disciplines, opposes the bureaucracy and emphasizes the creative ability of individuals. This is a part of the behavioural school of neoclassical theory. The participative school is also a part of the behavioural school and emphasizes the need for opportunity to participate in the decision-making process. The school of challenge-response is yet another extension of behavioural school which takes the participative approach further to allow freedom to individuals to face challenges and come out with responses.

Consequently, this approach provides enormous opportunity for individuals to grow. The directive school is an extension of scientific management of classical theory. It believes that people need to be told what to do. Hence it is opposite of the challengeresponse school. The school of checks and balances takes the administrative management school of classical theory one step further by prescribing that there must be adequate checks and balances in the system so that no individual or segment of the organization is able to become dominant enough to take over control.

In this way, there are many more schools of thought propounded in the literature of management. But in essence all of them can be fit into the schools of thought discussed so far.

Problems and Conflict in Management Theories

It has already been observed that there are contradictory and conflicting arguments in management theories and hence they are no more than proverbs. The problem is how a practitioner must choose his approach. Alternatively, is there any way to synthesis a unified management theory from among the diffused theories or the jungle of approaches. As discussed in the beginning of this unit, revisionists are aiming for a high-level, comprehensive, integrated theory that would bring order to the theory jungle. Their theory and methods are colliding at certain points with those of the earlier scientific management (classical theory) and humanrelations (neo-classical theory) movements. It also appears that unification of different schools of thought, of the theories in management is unlikely and each will maintain its viewpoint. The reasons for such a conclusion lay in the problems, of semantics (everyone saying the same thing but using different terminology), differences in definitions of management and the tunnel vision of each school to see its own point of view.

Another basic problem of the management theory is to provide adequate explanations and predictions in subject matter that is subjected to rapid and extensive change. Management theories have to be dynamic and embrace a number of upcoming subjects and concepts.
Yet another problem inherent in the applied science nature of management is that of separating the managerial implications from non managerial implications when inputs are taken from the fields like organization theory, decision theory, personality theory, game theory, information theory, communication theory, learning theory, group theory and motivation theory.
The problem is to demonstrate and support conclusions applicable to management theory. The recent trend is to play greater attention to comparative management theory, which emphasizes cross-cultural 'study as well as variations within a given culture i.e., across the boundaries between nations or cultural groupings of nations, as well as in different organizational or administrative contexts like schools, hospitals, libraries, etc., within a given culture.

Conclusion
Though practice of management existed thousands of years ago, most of them needed to be refined and synthesized to call them management principles. The early 'autocratic period' of management is characterized by the use of absolute authority, coercion and force, with strategies like 'fear of God'. The history of Management as a discipline is traced from the 19th century. Development of a unified and integrated management theory out of 'the management theory jungle' has some difficulties like applied science nature of the subject, lack of coherent theoretical concepts of its own and heavy reliance on concepts borrowed from other disciplines.

A number of more or less separate schools of management thought have emerged since the end of the 19th century and each sees management from its own viewpoint. There, are many ways of classifying these theories or schools. One broad way of grouping management theories is to group them as classical, neo-classical and modern management theories. The classical management theory is referred to the period between **l880s** and **l920s**. This phase 'consists of Scientific management of F.W. Taylor and his followers, administrative management of Henry Fayol and others and Bureaucratic organization of Max Weber. The classical theory emphasized the economic rationality of management and organization and suggested to determine the best way to perform a job. This theory is criticized for its assumption that people are motivated primarily by economic reward.

The Neo-classical theory, which is identified with the period from **1920s** to **1950s**, is concerned with the human oriented approach and emphasized the needs, drives, behaviours and attitudes of people. The human relations school together with (early) behavioural schools constitutes this group. The social person view of employees is the basis of this set of schools. The famous Hawthorne experiment conducted by Mayo, Roethlisberger and Dickson is a milestone in the endeavours of this school. Several behavioural scientists including Maslow, Mc Gregor, Argyris, Herzberg and Likert have contributed to this school as well as to organizational humanism school under the modern management theory. This school is criticized for its overemphasis on human variables and symbolic rewards which may not be appreciated by the recipient's 'significant others'.

The complex employee view has become the basis of modern management theory, which began around l950s (more particularly with revisionists movement propounded by Litchfield in Administrative Science Quarterly in **1956**). This group tried to test the views of earlier schools and accept them selectively. In the process it has made use of many tools like computers and mathematical techniques and theories from other disciplines like systems theory, decision theory, behavioural science, etc. Four important schools in this group are systems, theory, contingency theory, organizational humanism and management science.

There are many more names of schools of management thoughts in the literature of management, but most of them substantially overlap one another. There are also problems in synthesizing a unified theory of management.

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