Module 2

Public administration and organisational theories

Introduction

This module will focus on public administration organisations.

A public organisation (as used in this module) refers to a collection of people whose mission is the delivery of goods and services to benefit people outside the organisation. This module will examine the basic concepts of organisational behaviour, including its relation to other disciplines and adherence to the scientific method. The four fundamental characteristics and the two key assumptions of organisational behaviour will also be highlighted. The organisational impacts of globalisation, diversity and technology are discussed in detail.

The range and complexity of the issues addressed by government makes the study of public organisation essential. This module will trace the history of organisational theory from the scientific management period to the classical theories and the human relations movement. This approach will help you understand that public managers have to be sensitive to the impact of interpersonal and structural relationships in the development of stable (or changing patterns) of government organisations. This module explores two aspects of Weberian methodology:

1. The control mechanisms used (structures and procedures)

2. The purposes that are to be achieved (values).

According to Weber (1946), the interaction between structures and values creates the action, or social consequences, that scholars identify as behaviour or practice. Therefore, without knowledge of the structures and values, the behaviours and practices cannot be fully understood. The relationship between structures and values is the reason why the public manager should understand the dynamics of public policy design and implementation to address society's needs. This is an important relationship that could provide an ethical basis for public administrators.

The module argues that all organisations, be they public or private, have some similarities. The public administrator lives in the nexus of a political and administrative world and, therefore, is neither an independent actor nor solely an instrument of the political system. The real focus is revealing the differences among organisations by sector. The module also explores some examples of the private sector which include profit and non-profit organisations. The public sector (as used in this module) includes government agencies, public corporations and some non-profit organisations. We will also explore various approaches to understanding life in public organisations. Public administration is viewed as a process of managing change in pursuit of publicly defined society values. As

such, the development of a theory of public organisation constitutes a major and difficult task; not only for theorists but practitioners.

The module closes with an analysis of the impacts of changing employee expectations regarding the workplace, including the need for scheduling flexibility. The module offers specific insights to improve a public manager's people skills and helps public administrators see the values of workforce diversity (and practices) that may need to be changed in different countries. It can improve quality and employee productivity by showing public managers how to empower their people, design and implement change programmes, improve customer service and help employees balance the work-life conflict. It can help public administrators cope in an ever-changing world and learn how to stimulate innovation. Thus, understanding public organisation behaviour can guide public managers in creating an ethically healthy work environment.

Assignment one (Case Study #1 in your student booklet) is to be submitted after completion of this module.

Module outcomes

Upon completion of this module, you will be able to:

Outcomes

- *Define* organisational behaviour.

- *Describe* the three levels of analysis, the field of organisational behaviour uses and its commitment to scientific methods.

- *Explain* the relationship between public administration and the organisational theories.

- *Differentiate* between scientific management, classical and human relations theories.

- *Explain* the core competencies and traits of good leaders.

- *Explain* how the field of organisational behaviour contributes to the effective functioning of public administration and the wellbeing of individuals.

- *Explain* how the field of organisational behaviour benefits by taking a global perspective.

- *Describe* how the field of organisational behaviour today is being shaped by the global economy, increasing racial and ethnic diversity in government workforces and advances in technology.

- *Explain* how the field of organisational behaviour has influenced public administrators by changing expectations about the desire to be engaged in their workplace and the need for more social interaction.

Terminology

Terminology

Basic needs:	An approach to social insurance programmes in which the government sets benefit levels based on certain standards below which no individual should fall.
Behaviourism:	The school of thought in political science that focuses on the political behaviour of individuals and groups throughout society.
Bottom-up implementation:	A view of implementation that focuses on how informal custom and considerations, faced by those who implement policies, block the fulfilment of what policy decision makers originally intended.
Direct regulation:	Environmental policies that involve the setting of restrictions and requirements by government.
Economic incentives:	Environmental policy instruments that use market mechanisms such as tax breaks, pollution charges, or deposit systems to reduce pollution.
Equality of provision:	The attempt to ensure that all students in an educational system receive the same type of education, particularly with respect to subject matter.
External control:	Illegal immigration control measures designed to prevent foreigners from entering a country without permission, such as more effective policing of borders and airports.
Federal political system:	A political system in which one or two meaningful levels of government exist above the local level; each level has its own constitutionally defined policy-making responsibilities.
Fusion of power:	The constitutional division of authority in which the executive derives from and is responsible to the legislature.
Garbage can decision-making:	A policy decision-making model that rejects the idea that governments systematically weigh policy alternatives. Decisions are instead the result of multiple factors interacting in the policy environment or garbage can.
Gridlock:	A situation that occurs when political, ideological, or other differences between the executive and the

legislature make it more difficult for the government to develop policies.

Public and private administration

There are numerous major differences between public and private administration. However, there are areas where the two are similar.

According to Cox, Buck and Morgan (2011), business and government organisations are alike in some respects. The most important area where there are similarities is that administration in both the public and private sectors involves co-operative group action. Further, all large organisations (be they government or private — such as factories, labour unions, commercial enterprises, hospitals, government departments or ministries) must provide for the performance of such functions of general management as planning, organising, coordinating, staffing and budgeting.

There are, however, several areas where business and government functions are completely different — the political environment within which these activities are conducted and the scope and complexity of government activities. On one hand, the overall mission of public administration is service to the public. On the other, the primary reason for the establishment of the private sector is to make a profit.

To this end, the efficiency of the private sector is judged by how successful participants perform in the market place and the measure of success is profitability (Lehne, 2006). According to Starling (2011), both public and private organisations use resources (inputs) to produce goods and services (outputs). However, in the public sector, outputs are hard to quantify.

Because of the distinct measure of profitability and service delivery, most scholars have argued that public administration operates less efficiently than business administration. Henry (2010) and Berkley and Rouse (2004) contend that public organisations are less inclined to be efficient because they do not have to be as sensitive as private organisations to the preferences and grievances of their consumers. It should be noted, however, that many services are provided by government because they would not produce sufficient profits to interest private organisations. Sometimes government organisations do make a profit. When they do, such profits are reinvested in the public sector. One of the reasons for this is that government organisations are funded through taxes while the private sector is financed by investment from private citizens with the intention of growing their investment.

Sometimes efficiency in public organisations is hindered by greater emphasis in the public sector accountability process. According to Starling (2011) and Berkley and Rouse (2004), the difference between public and private administration could be analysed from two perspectives:

1. **Substantive issues:** Substantive issues (of public and private administration) include questions of politics versus profit, the measurement of objectives and management versus administration. The substantive issues refer to conceptual or abstract concerns such as goals, objectives, means, ends, values, result and priorities (Berkley & Rouse, 2004).

2. **Procedural issues:** Procedural issues address management as a universal process. The issues for procedural deliberation include open versus closed systems, planning and efficiency (Shafritz, Russell & Borick, 2011). For example, the public nature of public administration requires that much of it be conducted in a goldfish bowl of publicity, whereas private sector businesses or deliberations are conducted behind closed doors.

Unlike private administrations, public organisations could be described as business administration in a fishbowl. To this end, the press and public feel they have a right to know everything that goes on. The freedom of information policy of some countries makes sure citizens could find out any activity being conducted by the government if they wanted to do so. One of the reasons for citizens' curiosity is the fact that they pay taxes that are used to finance public sector organisations.

While a large, well-organised private organisation is likely to hire the best-qualified candidate from an application pool, the public sector might be inclined to employ a candidate who might be the less-qualified. Government organisations may have to do so in order to promote sensitivity and responsiveness to the needs of certain minority groups. The complexity and inflexibility of public personnel management systems result from the general emphasis on accountability. According to Cox et al., (2011) and Shafritz et al., (2011), the means and ends of public administration differ significantly from those of private administration. This is because the importance of an end or value should not be ignored and that the processes through the executive, legislative and judicial branches of government that public administration must pass through in their decision-making procedures are not found in the private sector. Therefore, the means of management is a value in itself and cannot be separated from other values. For example, justice (and the implementation of justice) in public and private organisations can also illustrate differences in ends and means.

One important point to note is that while private, non-profit and government organisations may be engaged in delivering social services, it does not follow that private and public management are the same. They differ in the sense that business organisations seek profitability while public administrators are more concerned with the distribution of the common wealth or public goods. The private sector is organised for the wellbeing of its employees and stockholders and public organisations are organised to serve the interests of people outside the institution.

Basic nature of organisational behaviour

Organisational behaviour (as the name implies) is concerned with organisations and the behaviours of the people within the organisation.

Organisations are structured social systems consisting of groups and individuals working together to meet some pre-determined goals and objectives. Public organisational behaviour is a multidisciplinary field that seeks knowledge of behaviour in organisational settings by systematically studying individual, group and organisational processes in the public sector. According to Greenberg and Baron (2009) there is one common thread that runs through the functions of public administrators. The thread consists of roles, activities, skills and approaches to management. Each recognises the importance of managing people, whether it is called the leading function, interpersonal roles, human skills or resources, management, communication and networking activities. Public administrators must develop their people skills to be effective and successful.

According to Greenberg and Baron (2009), Robbin and Judge (2011) there are four major characteristics of organisational behaviour (OB):

1. Organisational behaviour applies scientific methods to practical managerial problems. It uses the behavioural sciences (psychology and sociology) especially to scientifically develop a base of empirical knowledge. Scientific methods are based on systematic observation and measurement of the phenomenon of interest. In this module, application refers to the practical use of the theories, findings and models of OB in the workplace by public administrators.

2. OB focuses on three levels of analysis:

    i.   individual
    ii. groups
    iii. organisations

3. Organisational behaviour cannot be explained by solely focusing on individuals and groups as well as the traits of the organisations themselves. It has a strong bearing on the behaviours of individuals and the public organisations. The OB subject covers each level and the interactions between the levels.

4. OB is multidisciplinary in nature. The subject draws from a wide variety of academic fields because of the broad range of issues and activities that influence the study of people in a public organisation. This acceptance of such diverse views and techniques is one of the reasons why it is such a powerful and growing field of study.

One reason why public organisational behaviour is essential is because it seeks to improve the effectiveness of the quality of life in the workplace.

Public organisational behaviour has a stated goal of finding ways to make government organisations more efficient in the global environment; therefore, balancing pragmatic goals is more esoteric because it requires helping a public organisation to create work environments that improve the lives of public administrators.

Theory X and Theory Y

Theory X and Theory Y were propounded by McGregor (cited in Robbin & Judge, 2011; Greenberg & Baron, 2009).

This OB theory describes how a public administrator's viewpoint of the nature of workers can influence the work environment that employees face. According to McGregor, Theory X managers believe that people are inherently lazy, dislike work, need close supervision and must be pushed to perform. This traditional approach to employees is less popular now than it once was. The Theory Y manager (on the other hand) thinks people are naturally motivated and willing to work. They believe people enjoy working, are self-motivated and desire positions of increasing responsibility and achievement. This is the more prevalent viewpoint in modern public organisations.

Theory X: the assumption that people are basically lazy and not motivated to work and that they have a natural tendency to avoid responsibility.

Theory Y: the assumption that people do not inherently dislike work and will commit themselves willingly to work that they care about
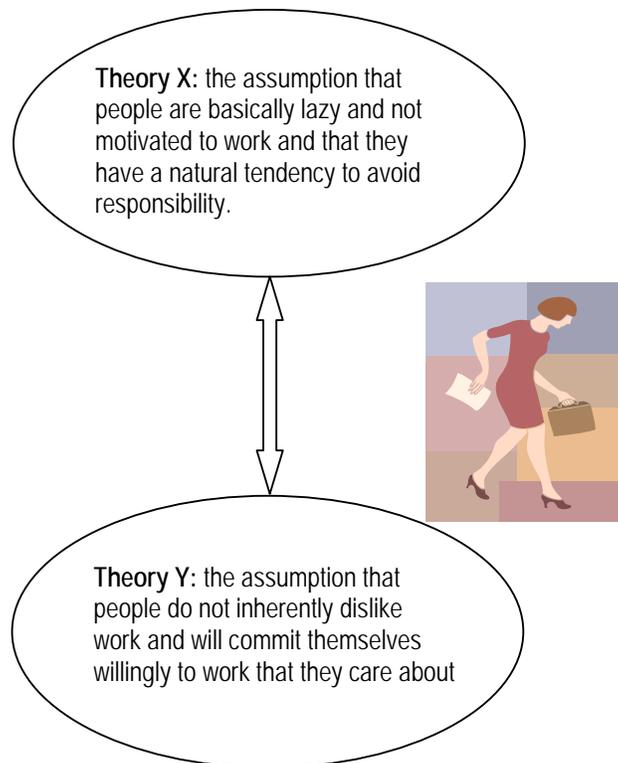
Figure 2.1 Theory X and Y

Source: McGregor (cited in Robbin & Judge, 2011)

According to Denhardt (2011), Natemeyer and McMahon (2011), Theory X takes a pessimistic view of human nature and employee behaviour. Theory Y presents a more optimistic and positive view.

To understand Theories X and Y more fully, one should think in terms of Abraham Maslow's (cited in Greenberg Baron, 2009) hierarchy of needs. Theory Y assumes higher-order needs dominate individuals. McGregor held to the belief that Theory Y assumptions were more valid than Theory X assumptions. Therefore, he proposed such ideas as participative decision-making, responsible (and challenging) jobs and good group relations as a method to maximise an employee's job motivation. Moorhead and Griffin (2006) and Denhardt (2011) contend that the organisational principles to which Theories X and Y point is integration. This means the creation of conditions under which the individual's objectives are complemented by the goals of the organisation where they work. The positive relationship between the individual and organisation may motivate him or her to diligently work toward the attainment of the organisation's goals. The worker is integrated into the public organisation. The public manager must take care to determine the needs and desires of employees, perhaps through more open and participatory approaches of conduct. The public administrator could also help orient those individual objectives so that they can be best obtained through effective implementation of appropriate policies in their organisation or agency.

McGregor believes employees react differently depending on how they are treated (cited in Robbin & Judge, 2011). For example, if a public manager creates an impression that they believe their employees are Theory X types, the worker will most likely meet those expectations. However, if senior public administrators treat employees in a Theory Y manner they will most likely meet those expectations associated with Theory Y. Whatever the case, the important beliefs that characterise organisational behaviour theory are:

- recognition that the informal organisation can be as influential as the formal one in setting work rules,

- respect for workers as complex human beings with diverse sets of needs, and

- distrust of simple, one dimensional theories of motivation.

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Abraham Maslow (cited in Greenberg & Baron, 2009) presents his theory of motivation by stating that no need is ever fully gratified. A substantially satisfied need no longer motivates an employee. Every human being has his or her hierarchy of five needs:

1. **Physiological needs:** Including hunger, thirst, shelter, sex and other bodily needs

2. **Safety:** Security and protection from physical and emotional harm

3. **Social:** Affection, belongingness, acceptance and friendship

4. **Esteem:** Internal factors such as self-respect, autonomy and achievement; external factors such as status, recognition and attention

5. **Self-actualisation:** Drive to become what we are capable of becoming, including growth, achieving our potential and self-fulfilment

(Greenberg & Baron, 2009)

Maslow argued that human beings are "wanting animals". Like other human beings, public administrators have innate desires to satisfy a given set of needs. Maslow believed these needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance, with the most basic needs at the foundation.

According to Maslow each level of need must be satisfied before the level above it can become important (cited in Greenberg & Baron, 2009). Based on his perspective, once the physiological needs have been satisfied, their importance diminishes and security emerges as a primary source of motivation. This eventually escalates to a higher level need and the individual hierarchy continues until self-actualisation becomes the primary motivator.

The primary contribution of Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs to public administration lies in providing a general framework for categorising needs. His more complex theory of motivation seems to strike a more responsive note than the simple one-dimensional approach of the scientific management school. Maslow's findings are comparable to those of the contingency theory with the usual observation that different people are motivated by different kinds of things; and even the same person is motivated by different things at different times (Greenberg & Baron, 2011).

Most public administrators' belonging needs are satisfied by family ties and group relationships both inside and out of the organisation. In the government workplace, public administrators usually develop friendships that provide a basis for social interaction and can play a major role in satisfying social needs. Public administrators help satisfy these needs by fostering a sense of group identity and interaction among employees. At the same time, however, public managers can be sensitive to the probable effects on employees, such as low performance, absenteeism, family problems or lack of acceptance by other public administrators.

Activity 2.1

Activity

1. What are the differences between Theory X and Theory Y? Is it possible that Theory X management might be functional in some cases?

2. What are the implicit values espoused by organisational development using Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory?

3. How might the definition of public organisations vary and what difference would the variation make in the way we understand work in the public sector's organisation?

Theories of organisational behaviour

Scientific management

Organisational management theories are also very useful in explaining organisational behaviour. The scientific management theory was popularised by the work of Taylor (1923). Taylor's theory focused on trying to increase the efficiency and productivity of works. Taylor strongly reinforced the idea that the individual worker should be treated as an appendage to a machine and should perform only those functions that a machine could not perform more cheaply. In this respect, workers should not be encouraged to participate in designing work flow and processes, because these were matters for scientific managers. Work is to supply products and services, not to develop the full capability of workers (Rosenbloom, Kravchuk & Clerkin, 2009; Greenberg & Baron, 2011).

Taylor (1923) is regarded as the father of scientific management. He was an engineer whose specialty was toward improving the mechanics of the human workplace. His goal was to create the most efficient way of performing a task. That is, the one with the fewest moves required for completion.

One tool Taylor (1923) proposed was the "time and motion studies" technique when researching the workplace. The study was designed to assess and streamline the individual movement to perform jobs with the intent of finding the "one best way" to perform them. The scientific management approach was Taylor's concept of management, which emphasised the importance of designing jobs as efficiently as possible. Taylor's management philosophy also pointed out the importance of proper selection and training of workers.

Wilson (1886) proposed that politics should be separated from administration in order to improve efficiency. Wilson's suggestion is that the same lesson learned by students of management in the private sector could be applied to administration in the public sector. Students of public administration would come to adopt essentially the same agenda as that of students of business — to seek scientific principles of administrative management that would help to attain organisational efficiency.

The results (or outcomes) of scientific management gave Taylor (1911) more credit. Taylor suggested that increasing the effectiveness of the workplace, would come at a cost. Scientifically managed factories were seen as being dehumanising: making people more like machines. In reaction to the lack of human integration in the scientific management concept, the human relations movement began to develop.

The scientific theory of organisation — Gulick and Urwick

Gulick and Urwick (1969) were more concerned to develop a broader theory about the ideal structure for any organisation. Their main concerns

were span of control and the proper alignment of related functions. According to Gulick and Urwick, a span of control refers to the number of employees that may report to one manager. They contend that the smaller the span of control the better. Greenberg and Baron (2011) argued that a narrower span of control may lead to too many managers or supervisors and too much overhead cost for an organisation.

The main question they ask is:

> "what is the appropriate span of control? " (Greenberg & Baron, 2011).

(Please note that this question's answer obviously depended on Gulick and Urwick's time — the 1950s to1970s)

In order for us to provide answers to this question in our time (2010–2015), it will be appropriate to review the interaction of many variables:

- The overall stability of the organisation.

- The nature of the work supervised (routine procedures allow for a broader span of control, but supervision of several heterogeneous activities require a narrow span of control).

- The extent of geographical decentralisation of the work.

- The level of training of the subordinates.

<div align="right">(Gulick & Urwick, 1969)</div>

Gulick and Urwick (1969) were also concerned with the problem of the ideal arrangement of duties within an organisation. They argued that the process of organisational design should work simultaneously from the top-down and the bottom-up. The bone of contention is that working from the bottom-up was an appropriate definition of homogeneity. Gulick further argued that each employee's behaviour could be reviewed from:

- the purpose they serve,

- the process they use,

- things or persons the employee is dealing with, and

- the place where they render the service.

Gulick (1969) contends that when designing an organisation, workers who had all four of the variables stated above should be grouped in the same organisational module. It is important to emphasise the virtue of pragmatism and judgement as it applies to each employee. There is no one most-effective pattern for determining the priority and order for the introduction of these interdependent principles. The division of any organisation is dependent on the results desired at a given time and place.

Gulick and Urwick (1969) were also concerned with the activities of executive officers in organisations. They contend that the words "administration" and "management" had lost their appropriate content. They attempted to summarise the functions of executive officers with the following acronym POSCORB, which stands for:

- Planning

- Organising

- Staffing

- Co-ordinating

- Reporting

- Budgeting

Robbin and Judge (2011) and Moorhead and Griffin (2006) present an argument that the contribution of Gulick and Urwick (1969) to organisational behaviour was in some ways the dissemination of ideas that had been developed by other people. Despite this criticism, Gulick and Urwick (1969) made a valuable contribution in forcing other scholars to think about management in a systematic manner. They viewed good management from the standpoint of devising an optimal organisational structure to minimise output.

Simon (1957) criticised the scientific management theory. Simon argued that the continued validity of the theory is in doubt because:

- administrative efficiency is enhanced by keeping (at a minimum) the number of organisational levels through which a matter must pass before it is acted upon; and

- administrative efficiency is supposed to be enhanced by limiting the number of subordinates who report directly to any one administrator to a small number, say, six.

Simon (1957) further argued that good empirical work on the efficiency of existing organisations is needed more than additional theoretical mulling.

Activity 2.2

Activity

1. What is the main argument put forward by the scientific management theory?

2. Discuss two rationales why Taylor is credited for the scientific management theory?

3. How useful is the scientific management theory to modern public administration?

The human relations movement

Human relations movement theorists shared a management perspective on organisational behaviour that rejected the primary mechanistic orientation of scientific management theory. The human relations movement also recognised the importance of social processes in a work setting.

The human relations approach accepts efficiency and productivity as the legitimate values of organisation; however, it seeks to maximise these values by eliminating the dysfunctions caused by overspecialisation, alienating hierarchical arrangement and general dehumanisation

(Greenberg & Baron, 2011). One of the earliest and best-known systematic research projects in OB arose from the human relations movement and took place at Western Electric's Hawthorne plant near Chicago in the 1920s and 1930s. Elton Mayo (cited in Greenberg & Baron, 2009) and his associates spent a number of years changing various factors in the physical environments of the workplace (such as lighting) to determine the most productive levels of these factors. While these studies failed in their original purpose, the insights gained from workers' reactions to the study have been powerful. Mayo's study at the Hawthorne plant recognised the importance of social conditions in the workplace.

According to Robbin and Judge (2011), the Hawthorne studies came up with several important conclusions. The findings of the Hawthorne experiment became the basis for further research and the development of the human relations approach to organisation. Some of the conclusions are:

- The highest degree of specialisation is not necessarily the most efficient approach to dividing labour.

- Productivity is strongly affected by social and psychological factors, not simply by physical ability and stamina.

- Workers may react to management, organisation and work itself as members of groups or informal organisations rather than as individuals.

Rosenbloom et al., (2009) argued that the human relations approach conceptually put the human being back into the organisation.

Activity 2.3

Activity

1. What is the relationship between the Hawthorne experiment and the human relations movement?

2. What are the major conclusions from the Hawthorne study?

3. Why is social interaction a major factor in the increase of productivity?

Classical organisation theory

The classical organisation theory focused on the most efficient way to structure organisations. Fayol (cited in Greenberg and Baron, 2009) — a French industrialist — advocated the division of labour.

According to classical theory, division of labour is the practice of dividing work into specialised tasks in order to enable workers to specialise in what they do best. Weber (1864-1920), a German sociologist, was one of the classical theorists. Weber focused on bureaucracies. A bureaucracy is an organisational design that attempts to make organisations operate efficiently by having a clear hierarchy of

authority and rules under which people are required to perform well-defined jobs.

While a bureaucracy as an organisational structure is no longer as popular as it once was, there is still much to learn from its use (Greenberg & Baron, 2009). Many organisations make use of structural and procedural characteristics associated with bureaucracy; these factors in turn tend to make bureaucracies behave in predictable ways. Weber's intention, however, is to identify the essence of bureaucracy.

Weber's (1886) concept consists of the following:

- By implication, bureaucracies are large organisations.

- A career structure in which individual employees of the bureaucratic organisation move through various specialisations and ranks. Movement is based on merit and seniority.

- Specialisation jurisdictions — office, tasks, a division of labour and authority regarding the achievement of the organisation's goal.

- A bureaucratic structure that tends to be permanent. It remains intact regardless of the flow of the members within it. Society becomes dependent on the bureaucracy's functioning to the extent that chaos occurs if it is destroyed.

- A hierarchy of authority to coordinate the activities of the specialised offices and to integrate their jurisdictional authority. In the most rational bureaucratic design, the organisation is headed by a single individual authority.

(Hill & Lynn, 2009; Rosenbloom et al., 2009)

Weber (1886) referred to individual bureaucratic employees as "cogs in a wheel". This is because he recognised the extent to which bureaucracy is dehumanising. Robbin and Judge (2011) presented an argument that bureaucracy could turn the individual into an appendage of a machine-like organisation. The power of bureaucratic organisation (according to Weber) is not derived from its structure and procedural attributes, but also flows from its rationality. From this perspective, people comply with bureaucratic orders and decisions because they accept them as legitimate.

The lesson one can derive from Weber's bureaucracy theory is that the ideal-type analysis is widely considered to be limited in a real world organisation. This is because it fails to take into consideration the vast cultural differences among society. To Weber, one size fits all bureaucracies, but in the real world there are great differences in organisational design due to culture. According to Denhardt (2011), the limitation caused by not integrating cultural differences into Weber's bureaucratic theory has prompted public administration analysts to devote considerable attention to comparative public administration. They contend that this amendment could eventually analyse the effects of cultural factors and environmental issues on public bureaucracies.

Activity 2.4

Activity

1. Why is it important for those interested in public administration to address broad social and cultural issues such as those raised by Weber?

2. Name the five major premises of Weber's concept of bureaucracy.

3. What is the major premise of the classical theory?

Leadership of an organisation

Leadership is becoming a very challenging area of study. Leadership is a highly sought after commodity in the public, private and non-profit sectors all over the world. In literature, some scholars have conceptualised leadership as a trait (or behaviour); whereas others view leadership from an information processing perspective or related view point (Northouse, 2010; Hughes, Ginnet &. Curphy, 2009; Nahavandi, 2009).

This course focuses on managerial leadership as opposed to leadership of social movements such as civil society or other emergent leadership in informal groups. Recent ethical scandals in government and non-profit organisations, global crises, the emergence of E-commerce, learning organisations, virtual teams, globalisation, knowledge work and other ongoing transformations place new demand on leaders far beyond topics traditionally taught in courses on public management (Greenberg & Baron, 2009; Yukl, 2010). An important aspect of the learning process on how to be a modern leader involves looking inward for greater self-understanding. The subject of leadership's effectiveness is of special interest because of the million dollar question: What makes a person an effective leader?

Another important question is: What is the reason some people emerge as leaders, and, as part of that question, what are the determinants of their actions? There is consensus, however, on what makes a leader effective. There is a general notion that leadership may be fascinating because it is such a mysterious process as well as one that touches everyone's life (Yukl, 2010).

Northouse (2010) and Nahavandi (2009) contend that leadership is a process. This means leadership is not a trait, behaviour or characteristic that may reside in a leader. This point of view stipulates that leadership could be a transaction event that may occur between the leader and the followers. This explanation clarifies the idea that leadership is a process in which leaders are affected by followers. The main point is that leadership is not a linear one-way communication event. Leadership is an interactive event.

Leadership involves influence. It occurs among people who intentionally desire significant changes, and the changes reflect purposes shared by

leaders and followers. Since leadership involves people, there must be followers. Greenberg and Baron (2009) contend that leaders focus on a common goal. They direct their attention and energies toward individuals trying to achieve that common goal. By so doing, leaders and followers have a mutual purpose.

According to Yukl (2010), Greenberg and Baron (2009), good leaders know how to follow and they set an example for others. One stereotype that reflects a different view is that leaders are above others. In reality, the qualities needed for effective leadership are the same as those needed to be an effective follower. Most effective followers think for themselves and carry out assignments with energy and enthusiasm. Effective leaders and followers may sometimes be the same people, playing different roles at different times.

At its best, leadership is shared among leaders and followers, with everyone fully engaged and accepting of higher levels of responsibility (Nahavandi, 2009). Leaders' personal moral philosophies and decision-making experience may not be sufficient to guide them in public and private sectors and non-profit organisations. There is, however, another set of challenges and skills that are equally implicated in effective public leadership. These skills include the ability to stand up for what you believe, integrity, fairness, truthfulness, equity and the ability to develop and communicate strong beliefs; in addition, effective public leaders surround themselves with great people (Yukl, 2010). Leaders must display accountability, integrity and responsibility, beyond individual interests, to employees, customers, the organisation and all stakeholders. Good leaders must reinforce the importance of doing the right thing, even if it is unpopular.

The world of leadership and organisations is undergoing a revolution. A good knowledge of leadership skills helps people make better decisions, assume greater responsibility, perform duties in a more professional, ethical and justifiable manner and help them rationalise their actions more reasonably.

Some definitions of leadership:

> A Leader is an individual within a group or organisation who wields the most influence over others.
>
> *(Greenberg & Baron, 2011).*

> A Leader is the person who takes charge and guides the performance or activity.
>
> *(Pierce & Newstrom, 2009).*

> Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.
>
> *(Northouse, 2010).*

> Leadership is the process whereby one individual influences other group members toward the attainment of defined group or organisational goals.
>
> *(Daft, 2005; Greenberg & Baron, 2011).*

Leadership is about managing energy, first in yourself and then in those around you.

(Clawson, 2009).

Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of helping individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives.

(Yukl, 2010).

Shared leadership is a dynamic interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organisational goals or both (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010).

From these perspectives, leadership could be perceived as a shared diffused process. Leaders are likely to pay more attention to the complex influence processes that occur among members. This attention also includes the conditions that determine when and how they occur and the consequences for the group, public or private sector organisations (Greenberg & Baron, 2009; Nahavandi, 2009).

Several scholars have identified three major characteristics of the leadership process. They contend that leadership:

1. has non-coercive influence,

2. is goal-directed, and

3. requires followers.

(Greenberg & Baron, 2009; Northouse, 2010; Clawson, 2009).

Leadership requires followers because, with the major role of influence, there must be followers for leadership to exist. In the reciprocal relationship, leaders are able to influence followers, and followers influence leaders as well. If you are a leader and there are no followers, you are working and not leading. Generally a good leader must not force followers to perform their duties in the organisation. Dictators are often associated with coercion (threat of punishment or sanction). Leaders, however, do not use coercion. Leadership relies on developing positive feelings between leaders and subordinates. Followers accept influence from leaders because they respect, like or admire them, not because the leader holds a position of authority (Greenberg & Baron, 2011). Northouse (2010) contends that since organisations are established to achieve a set goal, leadership in such organisations is often directed at attaining the defined group or organisational goals.

Core leadership competences

Several leadership theories present various arguments about the effective leader. They sometimes focus on the core competences (or behaviour) used to directly influence followers. It is worth noting that leaders could also influence other people in the organisation who are not necessarily subordinates. For example, a leader may also influence other people inside the organisation who do not directly report to them. Leaders could

inspire followers to willingly sacrifice their selfish interest for a higher cause (Yukl, 2010). A leader may have special skills that help them to emotionally influence other followers. It is also argued that it is only the emotional, valued-based aspects of a leader's influence that can account for the exceptional achievements of groups and organisational goals (Northouse, 2010; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010).

A leader's most challenging job is to guide followers by using his or her power effectively and responsibly in creating and developing a climate of respect and self-development for members within the organisation.

There is also the process of leaders empowering followers. This process could be tied directly into the new ways of working that emphasise collaboration over competition and conflict. Further, in the era of globalisation, the concept of knowledge management (which relies on a culture of sharing rather than hoarding information), has taken a firm place in the competences that a leader should have. Some of the new competences a good leader should have emphasise:

- accountability,
- integrity, and
- responsibility to something greater than individual self-interest.

Responsibilities extend to subordinates, stakeholders and customers of the organisation. Ethical leaders are expected to reinforce the importance of doing the right thing, even if it is unpopular. The characteristics of ethical leaders emphasise:

- integrity,
- honesty,
- truthfulness,
- transparency, and
- accountability to stakeholders.

These competences of the leaders are crucial requirements for them and unbridled self-interest and arrogance have no place in persuading followers to effectively, efficiently and equitably provide service for the organisation.

Several scholars have started analysing the importance of the shared leadership (or shared governance) concepts due to the fact that it encourages greater participation in any organisation (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010; Yukl, 2010; Northouse, 2010).

There is a consensus among these scholars that the concentration of leadership in a single person or position may be less ideal than sharing the responsibilities of leading among several individuals in certain task environments. Shared responsibilities are associated with the attributes of high-performing teams.

Shared leadership (in a nutshell) involves the chief executive officer in an organisation, and other senior officers, sharing the overall responsibilities of operating the functions of the institution. Kreitner and Kinicki (2010) contend that the application of shared leadership also helps the organisation build a leadership pipeline for executive level positions in the near future.

Leaders are:

Strategic thinkers

- Effective leaders are strategic thinkers who consider a broad range of factors when making decisions regarding their organisation, ministry, department or administrative agency.

- More than day-to-day managers, effective leaders have a clear vision of where the institution is headed in the long term and effectively communicate that vision for their organisation, department or administrative module.

- They inspire others to accept and work toward this vision, and find ways to translate long-term objectives into short-term goals and daily activities.

- Issues ranging from resource allocation to personnel decisions are viewed through a strategic lens, considering a range of internal and external factors and the long-term direction of the organisation, department or administrative module.

(Greenberg & Baron, 2009; Dibie, 2008; Yukl, 2010)

Sound decision- and judgement-makers

- Effective leaders make decisions in a timely manner using good judgment.

- Sound decision-making requires a good understanding of the issues facing the organisation, developing alternative courses of action and making the decision on the basis of the knowledge available at the time, the decision-maker's experience and good judgment.

- Once decisions are made, effective leaders take responsibility for the decisions, and do not look to place blame on others if the decisions do not work out as planned.

(Northouse, 2010)

Motivators

- Effective leaders are skilled at motivating others.

- They encourage others to set high goals for themselves, provide them with opportunities for development and give feedback in constructive and timely manners.

- The effective leader is quick to reward and recognise those who contribute to their organisation, department or administrative module

(Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010)

Respectful of others

- The effective leader is fair in their dealings with other people.

- They hold all individuals to the same standards, respect their views and opinions and deal with them in an equitable manner.

- They treat others as equals, worthy of respect and are not demeaning or abusive.

<div align="right">(Greenberg & Baron, 2009; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010)</div>

Mentors

- Effective leaders identify the strengths and weaknesses of others and work with them to improve their effectiveness.

- They challenge others to take on assignments, provide ongoing constructive feedback and handle poor performers effectively.

- They identify the developmental needs of others and understand how to provide the coaching needed to encourage others to work toward improvement.

<div align="right">(Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010)</div>

Tolerant

- Effective leaders effectively deal with ambiguity, uncertainty and different constituencies.

- They take a course of action even when the information they have is complex and somewhat conflicting in nature.

- They reconcile differences between the constituencies they serve, but also recognise that they may not be able to meet all needs all of the time.

<div align="right">(Northouse, 2010; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010)</div>

Collaborators

- Effective leaders work well in teams and collaborate with others.

- They possess the necessary interpersonal skills to maintain good relationships with peers and build a rapport with faculty members and other constituents.

<div align="right">(Yukl, 2010; Kreitner & Kinicki, (2010)</div>

Delegators

- Effective leaders delegate work to others by assigning responsibilities that are commensurate with abilities.

- Leaders provide subordinates with the necessary resources to accomplish tasks, providing feedback on their progress and not interfering or micro-managing.

<div align="right">(Yukl, 2010).</div>

Cultural and diversity advocates

- Effective leaders view diversity in employees, opinions and approaches as assets rather than liabilities.

- They seek out and value input from a wide variety of people and support equal and fair treatment for all.

<div align="right">(Northouse, 2010; Dibie, 2008)</div>

Honest and possess integrity

- Effective leaders have high standards of honesty and integrity.

- Issues are resolved in a consistent and ethical fashion and dealt with in a straightforward, honest and transparent manner.

(Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010; Yukl, 2010)

Self-aware

- Effective leaders understand (and accept) their strengths and weaknesses and build a team that balances those strengths and weaknesses.

- They acknowledge and accept responsibility for their mistakes and do not look to blame others.

(Yukl, 2010)

Self-motivators

- The effective leader is open to criticism and continually looks for opportunities to enhance their leadership, interpersonal skills and abilities.

- They are not defensive and actively seek input and feedback from others looking for ways to improve their effectiveness.

(Greenberg & Baron, 2009; Yukl, 2010).

Effective communicators

- Effective leaders are good communicators.

- Written communications are precise, clear and avoid technical jargon.

- Speech is clear and expressive.

(Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010)

Effective listeners

- Effective leaders are good listeners who value the input of others.

- They create environments in which followers feel comfortable expressing opinions and ideas even when ideas are contradicted.

- Open communication is used.

(Yukl, 2010; Northouse, 2010; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010)

Knowledgeable

- Effective leaders possess broad knowledge of the organisation.

- They understand current trends and issues; they know how they are likely to influence their organisation and use this knowledge to identify potential opportunities.

(Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010)

Culturally and historically aware

- Effective leaders know the history, culture and identity of the organisation.
- This knowledge is used appropriately for the benefit of all.

(Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010; Greenberg & Baron, 2009)

Loyal

- Effective leaders are loyal and committed to the goals and mission of the organisation.
- They follow the guiding values of the organisation.
- They do not use their position as a means of self-promotion.
- They seek organisation success.

(Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010; Greenberg & Baron, 2009)

Skilled advocates

- Effective leaders are skilled advocates for the organisation and local communities.
- They seek opportunities to inform others about the organisation.
- They are effective at communicating contributions made.

(Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010; Greenberg & Baron, 2009)

Financially astute

- Effective leaders know about good financial management practices and demonstrate fiscal responsibility.
- Possess an understanding of:
    - basic budgeting procedures,
    - organisational procedures and policies.
- Use financial information in the management of their departments.

(Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010; Greenberg & Baron, 2009)

Business savvy

- They use effective management practices.
- They develop policies, processes and procedures to ensure they get as much as possible out of the resources they have.
- They have a good working knowledge of business practices and what their competitive advantage is.

(Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010; Greenberg & Baron, 2009; Yukl, 2010)

Human resource aware

- Effective leaders make sound personnel decisions.

- They evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of other people and understand who to hire and promote, keeping in mind the long-term objectives of the organisation.

(Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010; Greenberg & Baron, 2009; Yukl, 2010)

Servant leadership

Effective leaders must adopt the concept of servant leadership.

The servant leader concept believes that great leaders act as servants, putting the needs of others, including employees, community and customers as their first priority. Servant leaders focus on increased service to others rather than to themselves.

Yukl (2010) and Kreitner and Kinicki (2010) contend that because servant leaders are satisfied in serving others over self-interest, they are less likely to engage in self-serving behaviour that may hurt other employees, stakeholders or the organisation. Servant leaders are concerned with issues of fairness and justice. They place issues of fairness at the centre of decision-making (Greenleaf, 1977).

According to Greenleaf (1977), servant leaders must listen to followers, learn about their needs and aspirations and be willing to share in their pain and frustration. Servant leaders can ease problem-solving by helping followers and stakeholders get information by identifying points of agreement or disagreement and by encouraging subordinates to find solutions to conflicts or problems.

We have examined the core competences of leadership and argued that competent leaders play an essential role in helping bring about efficiency, equity and integrity in an organisation. Competent leaders could help an organisation nurture followers, empower subordinates and promote social justice. The characteristics of competent leaders include efforts to encourage ethical behaviour as well as stop unethical practices.

Good leaders seek to build mutual trust and respect among diverse followers and find integrative solutions to conflict among stakeholders with competing interests. Because leadership has a moral dimension, being a leader demands awareness of the way our ethics define our leadership approach. Managers and leaders can use information on ethics to understand themselves and strengthen their leadership style. Leaders can use ethical principles as benchmarks for their behaviour. They learn that the leader-follower relationship is central to ethical leadership and the characteristics of the leader-follower include:

- listening,
- conceptualisation,
- foresight,
- stewardship,
- commitment to the growth of people,
- awareness,
- empathy,
- persuasion, and
- striving to heal other people's failure or suffering.

Activity 2.5

Activity

1. Why is the design of a bureaucratic organisation important in public administration?

2. Why are the core competences of leaders important for their ability to successfully and effectively influence their followers to achieve a set goal?

3. Is a leader born or made? What, in your opinion, is the best leadership style? Explain.

Globalisation and organisational behaviour

Organisational behaviour has continued to blossom since the 1960s when business and public administration schools embedded OB studies within their curriculum. During this period the subject developed its inherent interdisciplinary nature. In the workplace, computers have changed the way individuals work and the way managers operate. These changes have affected the workplace and refocused OB theorists. In this new age, OB attempts to explore the relationship between individuals, groups and the organisation. The three trends that have mostly affected OB are:

- the rise of global business,
- technology, and
- the rising expectations of people in general.

Each trend is discussed further below.

Globalisation refers to the ongoing process of interconnecting people with respect to the cultural, economic, political, technological and environmental aspects of their lives. As the world becomes more interactive, each country will be influenced by others.

Three forces lead to increased globalisation. They are:

1. Technology has drastically lowered the cost of transportation and communication, enhancing opportunities for international commerce and comparative public administration.

2. Laws restricting trade have generally become more liberalised throughout the world.

3. Developing nations have begun to promote exports and encourage investment by foreign companies.

Multinational enterprises (MNEs), while headquartered in one nation, often maintain significant operations throughout the globe. The rise of MNEs has led to increasing numbers of expatriate staff. Expatriates are citizens of one country who live and work in another country for extended

periods. The sets of values, customs and beliefs that people have in common with other members of their social module is often very diverse, and when expatriates are immersed in a foreign culture, culture shock may result. The tendency is for people to become confused and disoriented when they attempt to adjust to a new culture. One of the main causes of cultural shock is the parochial assumptions and ethnocentric beliefs carried by many people.

Ethnocentrism is the cultural belief that (literally) the world revolves around that society. Everything is judged by the standards of the original culture, even when the individual no longer lives in that culture. Not only may expatriates experience culture shock when entering a new society, they frequently experience culture shock when they re-enter their own society after being absent for years. This readjustment is known as repatriation.

For public managers to work effectively with people from different cultures, they have to understand how their culture, geography and religion have shaped them and how to adapt their management style to those differences (Robbin & Judge, 2011; Greenberg & Baron, 2009). Whereas globalisation focuses on differences between people from different countries; workforce diversity addresses differences among people with given countries.

Approaches to management practice

There are two basic approaches to public management practice.

1. **The Convergence Hypothesis:** This older view holds that the principles of good management are universal and that the best management practices are those that work well in the modular states or the modular kingdom. This approach to management is very ethnocentric.

2. **The Non-Convergence Hypothesis:** This is used to understand the behaviour of people at work and to appreciate the cultural context within which employees operate. This approach appears to be more relevant for today's environment.

OB and trends toward diversity

The following trends are found within public administration as well as outside the public sector. More women are entering the workforce than ever before. Almost half of all employees are women (many of whom are mothers), amplifying the need for day care and other family-friendly practices (Robbin & Judge, 2011). These practices have proven to increase retention, alleviate non-work related stress and increase attraction of better-qualified applicants. Racial and ethnic diversity is a reality because liberal immigration policies and differential birth rates have increased the relative proportion of minorities in the public sector (Denhardt, 2011). For example, by 2050, more than half of all Americans will be minority (non-white) groups (Greenberg & Baron, 2009). People are living and working longer than ever because of good health care facilities (Greenberg & Baron, 2009). The automatic retirement age is no longer 65 and a large segment of the population (the baby-boomers, those

born in the economic boom period following World War II) are nearing retirement age and declining to retire. This may be due to personal desire or economic necessity.

Each of these trends represents challenges for public managers in the workplace and are important areas of study for organisational behaviour professionals. Due to globalisation, the public work environment is becoming a more heterogeneous mix of people in terms of gender, age, race, ethnicity and sexual orientation.

Organisational behaviour response to advances in technology

Organisational behaviour could be defined as the study of people at work (Robbin & Judge, 2011). OB studies the influence that individuals, groups and organisational structure have on behaviour within organisations (Greenberg & Baron, 2011).

According to Robin and Judge (2011), the goal of OB is to apply the knowledge of how individuals, groups and organisational structure influence organisations toward improving effectiveness within the organisation. To that end, OB emphasises behaviour relating to jobs, work, absenteeism, employment turnover, productivity, human performance and management. OB is concerned with employment-related situations.

The public administration workplace has changed in the past two decades because of technology. Jobs (carefully prescribed sets of tasks) and organisations (large networks of workers who answer to those above them in hierarchical arrangements) are changing dramatically.

Three of the most profound changes are:

1. leaner organisations,

2. downsizing, and

3. outsourcing (Denhardt, 2011).

Technology and automation have made people more efficient, decreasing the number of people it takes to do a given task. While in the past automation involved creating machines to work with physical objects, in today's workplace automation deals with software created to manipulate digital data — the information process, by which workers use computer information technology to transform a once-physical task into one that involves manipulating a sequence of digital commands. Information processes are changing far more rapidly than mechanical automation processes changed in the past, quickly changing the nature of work. Managers, therefore, need to develop their interpersonal or people skills if they are to be effective in their jobs. Public administrators can achieve their potential as managers by enhancing their intuitive view of behaviour with systematic analysis in the belief that, by doing so, such analysis will improve in accuracy when explaining and predicting employee behaviour.

According to Robbin and Judge (2011), downsizing or rightsizing as a result of structural adjustment programmes (SAP) has resulted in greater efficiency. Public administration in several developing countries has been

rapidly reducing the number of employees in its organisations. More than simply laying off employees to save costs, this involves restructuring the work and relationships within government ministries and departments.

Outsourcing government services (or contracting out) has been encouraged to remove peripheral tasks that are not directly related to the core competency (the core activities that define the organisation). This also reduces ministries' and agencies' headcounts, but may increase the ability of a government to focus on essential processes. One result of increased outsourcing is the creation of virtual agencies, and they are becoming a way of life. Virtual agencies are highly flexible, temporary organisations formed by a group of government agencies that join forces to exploit a specific opportunity. Government use of non-profit organisations is a good example of this type of organisation. The use of non-profit organisation allows governments to hire the best possible talent without incurring the long-term costs a more traditional organisation would have in maintaining that expertise internally (Dibie, 2008).

Telecommuting (or teleworking) is the practice of using communication technologies to enable work to be performed from remote locations, such as the employee's home. As the cost of broadband internet access and computer technology has decreased, the use of telecommuting has dramatically increased. Stillman (2010) contends that this method of working has many benefits for both the employee and government organisation. Employees gain greater flexibility, save commuting time and expenses. Government ministries and departments can reduce overheads required to house their workers and more easily comply with restricted regulations (Henry, 2010).

Telecommuting is not for everyone. It works best for jobs that require concentration, have well-defined beginning and end points, are easily portable, call for minimal amounts of special equipment and can be done with little supervision. Successful telecommuting requires self-discipline on the part of the public administrator. The challenge for managers is to stimulate their employees' creativity and encourage their tolerance for change (Robbin & Judge, 2011). Today, public managers and employees must learn to cope with temporariness. They must learn to live with flexibility, spontaneity and unpredictability. The study of OB offers a number of suggestions to guide public managers in designing workplace jobs that can help employees balance the work-life conflict.

Activity 2.6

Activity

1. How can the field of OB contribute to both the effective functioning of organisations and the well-being of individuals?

2. How does the field of OB stand to benefit by taking a global perspective? What would you say are the major challenges associated with such a perspective?

3. In what ways has technology (and trends in diversity) affected the public sector work environment?

How government organisations respond to changing expectations

The expectations of public administrators regarding their work environments are changing. Three particular areas of concern to the field of organisational behaviour are:

1. desire for engagement,

2. expected employer flexibility, and

3. the pressure to produce high quality goods and services.

Public administrators' engagement is defined as:

> A mutual commitment between government and public servants to do things to help one another achieve each other's goals and aspirations.

> (Cox et al., 2011; Shafritz et al., 2011)

Four key drivers of engagement are controlled by employers:

1. **Involvement:** Employees to be involved in decision-making

2. **Input:** Employees to be given opportunities to express ideas and opinions

3. **Job development:** Employers provide opportunities for employees to develop their jobs

4. **Concern:** Employers show concern for employees' wellbeing as individuals

In search of flexibility (and in response to the needs of public administrators) there is the tendency that diversity of lifestyles may result. According to Rosenbloom et al. (2009), some of these flexible arrangements may include:

- **Idiosyncratic work arrangements:** This requires uniquely customised agreements negotiated between individual public administrators and their ministry (or agency heads) with respect to employment terms benefiting each party. While not a form of favouritism, these arrangements may be seen as such by other workers if not managed properly.

- **Flexible hours (flexitime programmes):** These give public administrators some discretion over when they can arrive and leave work. They make it easier for employees to adapt their work schedules to the demands of their personal lives. Typically, there is a core period when all employees must be at work, but the beginning and ending times of the work day are negotiable.

- **The contingent workforce — "permanent temporary":** These public administrators are those temporarily hired by government departments (or agencies) to work as needed for finite periods. This technique increases the flexibility of government and the

administrator; while reducing overall labour costs for public agencies. This freelance work also tends to reduce the income of the contingent administrator, as well as preventing them from taking advantage of employer-sponsored benefits (Rosenbloom et al., 2009).

- **Compressed workweeks:** A technique that allows public administrators to work fewer days a week, but longer hours each day, in order to maintain the same total number of hours worked.

- **Job sharing:** A form of part-time work in which pairs of public administrators split the duties of a single job. They share its responsibilities, salary and benefits in proportion to the time each has worked. These arrangements are often temporary.

- **Voluntary reduced work time (V-time):** Programmes that allow public administrators to voluntarily reduce the hours they work with a proportional reduction in pay.

- **The quality revolution:** A public management trend, which focuses on creating quality goods and services and has become a basic ingredient of modern organisations.

- **Total quality management:** One of the most popular quality management programmes designed by W. Edwards Deming (cited in Mckee 2011). Deming's philosophy was that everyone in the organisation must be fully committed to the need for quality and innovation.

- **Benchmarking:** The process of comparing one's own products or services with the best products and services of other organisations.

- **Quality control audits:** The investigation as to how well the government department or agency is meeting its standards; often done with the help of customer inputs.

In sum, in the search for flexibility (and in responding to the needs of public administrators) governments can improve quality and employee productivity by showing public managers how to empower their people, design and implement change programmes, improve customer service and help employees balance the work-life conflict. Governments can also help public managers cope in a world of temporariness and learn ways to stimulate innovation. It can offer managers guidance in creating an ethically healthy work environment.

Activity 2.7

Activity

1. Explain how people's changing expectations about the desire to be engaged in their work, the need for flexibility in work, and the pressure to promote quality have influenced the field of OB.

2. Although many employees enjoy the flexibility of working lots of part-time jobs or working for a series of employers on a temporary basis, it comes at a cost: such employees often make low wages, have little security and cannot count on having fringe benefits. How do you think this trend affects organisations?

3. Although telecommuting may keep people from working in cubicles, it may have its own limitations. What do you believe these may be? How would you compare the problems of telecommuting with the problems of working in an office?

Module summary

Summary

This module has examined the relationship between public administration and organisational behaviour theories. It contends that an organisation is a structured social system consisting of groups and individuals working together to meet some agreed objectives. Organisational behaviour is the field that seeks knowledge of behaviour in organisational settings by systematically studying individual, group and organisational processes. The module further describes the field of organisational behaviour's commitment to the scientific method and the three levels of analysis it uses.

Two important themes in the study of public administration emerge from this module:

1. The search for scientific principles of administrative management that improves the efficiency of government institutions such as ministries, departments and agencies.

2. The tension between politics and administration.

In contrast with scientific management's view of organising the work of individuals, proponents of classical organisational theory developed ways to efficiently structure organisations to increase productivity. Weber's (1886) concept of bureaucracy is a prime example of this approach. Contemporary OB is characterised not by one best approach to management. It covers various systematic scientific research from several fields of social science.

This module also contends that modern OB uses a contingency approach, recognising that behaviour may be influenced by many different forces at once and thereby rejecting the idea of any single most effective approach to managing behaviour in organisations. We also identified the fundamental assumptions of the field of OB.

The module also presented an argument that some scholars of public administration contend that the problems of public organisations are essentially the same as those of private organisations (Rosenbloom et al., 2009; Starling, 2011; Appleby, 1949; Goodnow,1900; and Henry, 2010), subject to solution through the scientific principles of administrative management. Similarly, they saw democracy as best preserved through the efficient operation of government agencies and efficiency, in turn, as best produced through sound business management.

The field of OB assumes organisations can be made more productive while improving the quality of the public administrator's work life. No one approach to studying managerial behaviour in government organisations is best and organisations are dynamic and ever-changing. The world's economy is becoming increasingly global, a trend that is affecting the field of OB in several distinct ways. For example, government organisations are expanding from one country to another, requiring public administrators to live and work in different countries, requiring considerable adjustment. As this occurs, much of what we

thought we knew about managing people is proven to be limited by the culture in which that knowledge was developed.

Finally, as technology becomes increasingly specialised, organisations have found it useful to hire other companies to do non-essential aspects of their operations that they once performed themselves — a process known as outsourcing. The psychological studies of Maslow and McGregor are helpful in understanding why and how individuals are motivated to act the way they do and in appreciating the importance of clarifying deep or hidden meanings. The importance for a public administrator of being aware of these factors cannot be stressed enough.

Module three will discuss the current traditional and new public management concepts and their application to government institutions.

Assignment 1

Assignment

Due date: XX/XX/XXXX

Value: 15 per cent

Format: Case study analysis #1 (3000-3500 words)

Modules covered: Modules 1–2 (Module 3 may also be used)

Assignment question

Answer the questions within the case study analysis which can be found in your Student Booklet.

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Further reading

Reading

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Activity feedback

Feedback

Activity 2.1

1. Theory X takes a pessimistic view of human nature and employee behaviour. On the other hand, Theory Y presents a more optimistic and positive view of employees. Theory X managers believe that people are inherently lazy, dislike work, need close supervision, and must be pushed to perform. Theory Y managers, on the other hand, think that people are naturally motivated and are willing to work.

2. Maslow argued that human beings are "wanting animals". Each level of need must be satisfied before the level above it can become important. In the government workplace, public administrators usually develop friendships that provide a basis for social interaction and can play a major role in satisfying social needs. Public administrators can help satisfy these needs by fostering a sense of group identity and interaction among employees. At the same time, however, public managers can be sensitive to the probable effects on employees, such as low performance and absenteeism, family problems or lack of acceptance by other public administrators.

3. The overall mission of public administration is service to the public, whereas the primary reason for the establishment of a private organisation is profit.

Activity 2.2

1. Scientific management approach emphasised the importance of designing jobs as efficiently as possible. It also pointed out the importance of proper selection and training of workers.

2. Scientific management approach was Taylor's concept of management, which emphasised the importance of designing jobs as efficiently as possible. Taylor's management philosophy also pointed out the importance of proper selection and training of workers

3. The scientific management theory — could help public managers to seek help by:

   - facilitating job specialisation and mass production,

   - demonstrating to managers their role in enhancing performance and productivity, and

   - attaining organisational efficiency by proper selection and training of workers.

Activity 2.3

1. The human relations approach conceptually put the human being

back into the organisation. The study at the Hawthorne plant recognised the importance of social conditions in the workplace.

2. The highest degree of specialisation is not necessarily the most efficient approach to dividing labour; productivity is strongly affected by social and psychological factors, not simply by physical ability and stamina; workers may react to management, the organisation, and work itself as members of groups or informal organisations rather than as individuals.

3. Productivity is strongly affected by social and psychological factors, not simply by physical ability and stamina. Social interaction helps to promote solidarity in the workplace.

Activity 2.4

1. It is important for public administrators to address broad social and cultural issues because public administration does not operate in a vacuum but it is deeply intertwined with the critical dilemmas confronting an entire society. Further public administrators must ensure that the allocation and use of resources available to the government are directed towards the achievement of lawful public policy goals.

2. The five major premises of Weber's concept of bureaucracy are:

   i. By implication, bureaucracies are large organisations.

   ii. A career structure in which individual employees of the bureaucratic organisation move through various specialisations and ranks. Movement is based on merit and seniority.

   iii. Specialisation jurisdictions — office, tasks, a division of labour and authority regarding the achievement of the organisation's goal.

   iv. A bureaucratic structure that tends to be permanent. It remains intact regardless of the flow of the members within it. Society becomes dependent on the bureaucracy's functioning to the extent that chaos occurs if it is destroyed.

   v. A hierarchy of authority to coordinate the activities of the specialised offices and to integrate their jurisdictional authority. In the most rational bureaucratic design, the organisation is headed by a single individual authority.

3. The classical organisation theory focused on the most efficient way to structure organisations.

Activity 2.5

1. A bureaucracy is an organisation design that attempts to make organisations operate efficiently by having a clear hierarchy of authority and rules under which people are required to perform well-defined jobs. Bureaucratic organisations are likely to be very efficient.

2. Core competences of leaders could help them inspire followers to willingly sacrifice their selfish interest for a higher cause. Therefore leaders may have special skills that help them to emotionally influence other followers. It is also argued that it is only the emotional, value-based aspects of a leader's influence that can account for the exceptional achievements of groups and organisational goals.

3. Some leaders are born, but have the will to learn additional skills that would help them to be better leaders. There is no best leadership style. A leadership style is contingent on the situation that a leader is faced with. The characteristics of the charismatic leader includes listening, conceptualisation, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, awareness, empathy, persuasion, and striving to heal other people's failure or suffering.

Activity 2.6

1. The goal of organisational behaviour is to apply the knowledge of how individual, groups and organisational structures influence organisations toward improving effectiveness within the organisation.

2. The perspective of globalisation will help public managers to adapt to people who are different. Whereas globalisation focuses on differences among people from different countries, workforce diversity addresses differences among people within given countries.

3. Technology and automation have made people more efficient, thereby decreasing the number of people it takes to do a given task. Successful telecommuting requires self-discipline on the part of the public administrator. Technology will help employees to gain greater flexibility, save commuting time and reduce expenses. Thus, due to globalisation the public work environment is becoming a more heterogeneous mix of people in terms of gender, age, race, ethnicity and sexual orientation.

Activity 2.7

1. The expectations of public administrators regarding their work environments are changing. There are three particular areas of concern to the field of organisational behaviour:

    i. Desire for engagement

    ii. Expected employer flexibility

    iii. The pressure to produce high-quality goods and services

2. In search of flexibility and in responding to the needs of public administrators there is the tendency that diversity of lifestyles may result. They can improve quality and employee productivity by showing managers how to empower their people, design and implement change programmes, improve customer service, and help employees balance work-life conflict. The government can

also help managers to cope in a world of temporariness and to learn ways to stimulate innovation.

3. Outsourcing government services or contracting out. More than simply laying off employees to save costs, this involves restructuring the work and the relationships within the government ministries and departments. Telecommuting is not for everyone. It works best for jobs that require concentration and have well-defined beginning and end points.