THE RATIONAL BEHIND THE FUNCTIONALITY OF THE MULTIPLE THEORIES OF MANAGEMENT: A THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

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ABSTRACT

Changes in the business environment and employees' behaviors have hitherto necessitated the perpetual emergence of management theories as a result of the inability of one management theory to solve all organizational problems. This write-up focuses on the Rationale behind the Functionality of the Multiple Theories of Management. In view of the above, a review of some early theories of management including the classical, the neo-classical and the modern management theories was made. Similarly, various limitations on these theories were discussed which gave us an in-depth understanding on the rationale behind the functionality of the multiple theories of management. It was concluded that the dynamic nature of employees, globalization, trends in business environment as well as the need for organization to gain competitive advantage has been the drive behind the emergence and application of multiple theories of management.

Keywords: Management, System Theory, Scientific Theory, Administrative principle of management, Bureaucracy, Contingency, Situational, Leadership.

INTRODUCTION

The increasing work complexities, global trends, workers re-orientation on emerging issues at the workplace has given rise to astronomical concern for the review of existing management theories and possible postulation of new theories. This concern has deepened the question on whether the existing theories can still remain relevant at the workplace in years to come. The way an employee feel about organizational policies, reward system, methods of performance appraisal, organization structure, organizational leadership styles and general organizational work ethics in the past has changed over time as a result of globalization, current economic, technological, socio-cultural, political, government policies and legal laws. In view of the above, we shall be analyzing the reasons behind the elasticity of management theories ranging from the early management theories, the classical theories, the Neo-classical and modern Management theories as well as future projections of likely management theories.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

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 (Bryon, 1990). 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 (Dejan, 1978). 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 led the Israelites out of Egypt and governed them (Haynes, 1975).

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 (Martin & Fellenz, 2010). 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 (Dejan, 1978). 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.

REVIEW OF MANAGEMENT THOUGHTS AND THEORIES

The Early Management Thoughts

The study of management as a discipline is relatively new, especially when compared with other scientific disciplines. Yet, to truly understand current management thought, it is necessary to examine the historical links. It is best to consider not only management pioneers' management theories, but also the contextual and environmental factors that help to clarify the developmental process behind the theories. Therefore, management pioneers may be easily placed along a historical timeline.

The Economic Facet

Smith and Watt (1723-1790), have been identified as the two men most responsible for destroying the old England and launching the world toward industrialization. They brought about the revolution in economic thought and Watt's steam engine provided cheaper power that revolutionized English commerce and industry. In doing so, they also laid the foundation for modern notions of business management theory and practice. Smith (1790), argued that market and competition should be the regulators of economic activity and that tariff policies were destructive and that the specialization of labor was the mainstay of Smith's market system. According to him, division of labor provided managers with the greatest opportunity for increased productivity.

Management Pioneers in the Factory System

The division of labour, combined with the advance in technology, provided the economic rationale for the factory system. However, the factory system brought new problems for owners, managers, and society (Davis, 1989). Four management pioneers proposed solutions

for coping with the pressures of the new large-scale industrial organizations. They were Robert Owens, Charles Babbage, Andrew Ure, and Charles Dupin. Owens (1771-1858) was a successful Scottish entrepreneur who was repulsed by the working conditions and poor treatment of the workers in the factories across Scotland. He became a reformer. He reduced the use of child labour and used moral persuasion rather than corporal punishment in his factories. He chided his fellow factory bill owners for treating their equipment better than they treated their workers (Hitt, 1979).

Babbage (1792-1871) is known as the patron saint of operations research and management science. Babbage's scientific inventions included a mechanical calculator (his "difference engine"), a versatile computer (his "analytical engine"), and a punch-card machine (Evans, 1976) He discussed the economic principles of manufacturing, analyzed the operations; the skills used and suggested improved practices. Babbage believed in the benefits of division of labour and was an advocate of profit sharing. He developed a method of observing manufacturing that is the same approach utilized today by operations analysts and consultants analyzing manufacturing. Also, Ure (1778-1857) and Dupin (1784-1873) emphasizes on harmony at the workplace. He wrote about the need for workers to receive concise instructions and the need to discover and publish the best way to perform work with the least amount of worker energy.

CLASSICAL MANAGEMENT THEORY (l880s-1920s)

Under the classical theories of management which was more concern with the structure and activities of formal and official organization, issues relating to; division of work, the establishment of a hierarchy or authority, and the span of control were seen to be of topmost priority in the attainment of an effective organization (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2010). The two greater exponents of classical theories were undoubtedly Henri Fayol (1841-1925 and F.W. Taylor (1856-1915). Furthermore, we shall be analyzing the; Scientific Management era, the administrative principles and, the Bureaucratic organization as shown in the diagram below;

Figure 1: Major branches in the classical approach to management
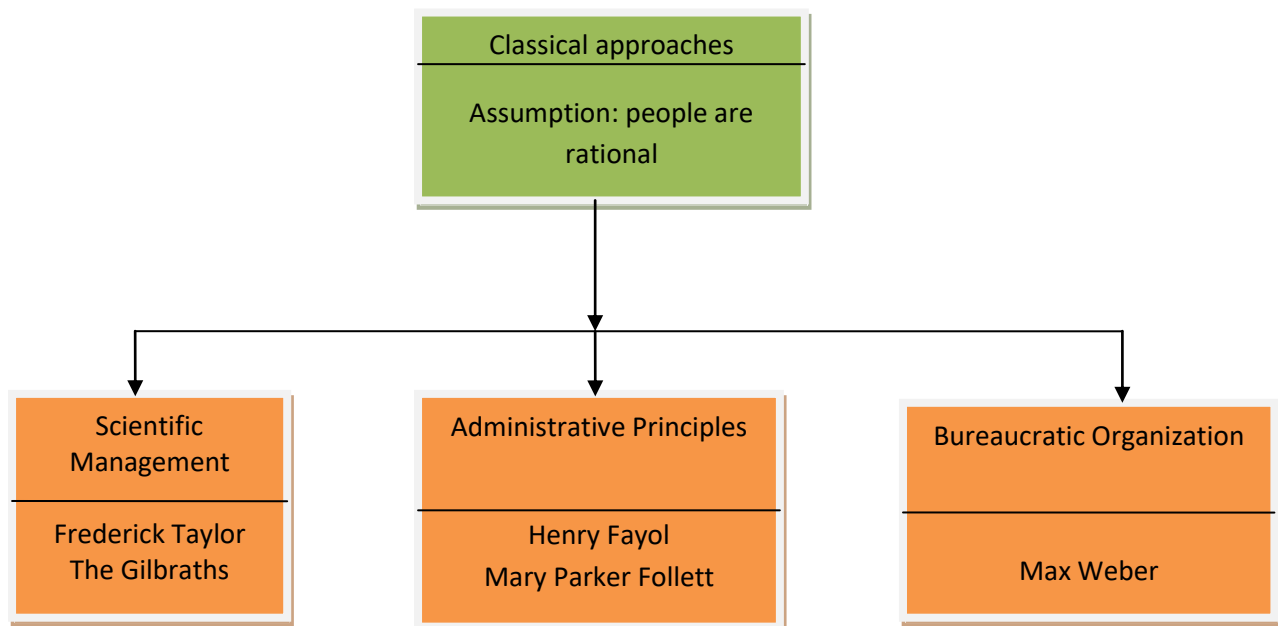
The Scientific Management Theory

Scientific management is a school of classical management theory, dating from the early twentieth century, based on the application of work study techniques to the design and organization of work in order to maximize output productivity (to find the 'one best way' of performing each task); it is a form of job design theory and practice which stresses short, repetitive work cycles; detailed, prescribed task sequences; a separation of task conception from task executive; and motivation based on economic rewards**.** Taylor (1856-1915) was one of the practical manager theorists. He spent the greater part of his life working on the problems of achieving greater efficiency i.e., 'doing things right' on the shop floor. Taylor was passionately interested in the efficiency of working methods. At an early stage he realized that the key to such problems lay in the systematic analysis of work. Experience, both as a worker and as a manager, had convinced him that few, if any workers put more than the minimal effort into their daily work. He described this tendency as 'soldering', which he subdivided into 'natural soldering, i.e. humans' natural tendency to take things easy, and systematic soldering, i.e. the deliberate and organized restriction of the workrate by the employees (Cole & Kelly, 2011). The rationale behind soldering centres on three issues such as; fear of unemployment, fluctuations in earning from piece-rate systems and, rule-of-thumb methods permitted by management (Cole & Kelly, 2011). In this theory, Taylor's concern was on; developing rules of motions, standardized work implementation and proper working conditions for every job, carefully select workers with the right abilities for the job, training workers and provide proper incentives and, support workers by carefully planning their work and removing obstacles. Also Henry(1919), introduced a payment system where performance below what is called for on the individual's instruction card still qualified the person for the day-rate, but performance of all the work allocated on the card qualified the individual for a bonus (Yukl, 2010). As a result of this system, supervision was enhanced, breakdowns were minimized and delays avoided by all concerned.

Benefits and Limitations of the Scientific Management

Some benefits of the scientific management include; its rational approach to the organization of work enabled tasks and processes to be measured with a considerable degree of accuracy, measurement of tasks and processes provided useful information on which to base improvements in working methods, plant design, by improving working methods it brought enormous increases in productivity, it enabled employees to be paid by results and to take advantage of incentive payments, it stimulated management into adopting a more positive role in leadership at the shop-floor level, it contributed to major improvements in physical working conditions for employees, it provided the foundation on which modern work study and other quantitative techniques could be soundly based (Kelly & Cole, 2011). While some of the limitations include; it reduced the worker's role to that of a rigid adherence to methods and procedures over which he had no discretion, it led to the fragmentation of work on account of its emphasis on the analysis and organization of individual tasks or operations, it generated a 'carrot-and-stick' approach to the motivation of employees by enabling pay to be geared tightly to output, it placed the planning and control of workplace activities exclusively in the hands of the management and; it ruled out any realistic bargaining about wage rates since every job was measured, timed and rated 'scientifically'.

The Administrative Principles of Management

Fayol's contributed to the administrative principles management via the postulation of (14) principles of management such as; Division of work, authority, discipline, unity of command, unity of direction, subordination of individual interests to general interest, remuneration, centralization, scalar chain, order, equity, stability of tenure of personnel, initiative and esprit

de corps. (Yukl, 2010). Similarly, Urwick (1952) who was a prolific writer on the subject of administration and management also contributed to the administrative principles of management by propounding ten consolidated principles of administration such as; setting objectives for the organization, specialization, coordination, authority, responsibility, definition, correspondence, span of control, balance and continuity. Brech (2006), centered on the development of people within the organization (Cole & Kelly, 2011). His approach was basically a classical one, but tempered to some extent by the prevailing human relations theories of the 1950s and 1960s. He saw management as a process, a social process, for planning and regulating the operations of the enterprise towards some agreed objective, and carried out within the framework of an organization structure. Key issues for Brech in the formation of the structure were; defining the responsibilities of Management, supervisory and specialist staff, determining how these responsibilities are to be delegated, coordinating the execution of responsibilities and, maintaining high moral (Northouse, 2010). Fundamentally, in his view, the principles exist to maintain a balance between the delegation of managerial responsibilities throughout the organization and the need to ensure unity of action as well. However, his writings on principles are much more directed towards helping practicing managers become more effective in their roles, than towards contributing to a general body of knowledge concerning the theory of management.

Limitations 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 give opposite messages. For example, the principle of unity of command contradicts the principle of specialization or division of labour. 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 and as such, diverse conditional principles of management are needed. Also, these principles results in the formation of a mechanistic organizational structure which are insensitive to employees' social and psychological needs. Such structures inhibit the employees' self-actualization and accentuate their dependence on superiors. In the same vein, this school does not consider sociology, biology, and psychology, economies, amongst others as relevant and included within the preview. In addition, these principles are based on the assumption that organizations are closed systems as well as the rigid structures created by these principles do not work well under unstable conditions (Cole & Kelly, 2011).

Bureaucratic Organization (Max Weber)
Max Webber (1864-1920) spanned the same period of history as those early pioneers of management thought, Fayol and Taylor, to whom we have already referred. Unlike Fayol and Taylor, Weber's had interest in organizational structure and authority. He wanted to find out why people in organizations obeyed those in authority over them (Kelly, 2010). It was in his publication that the term 'bureaucracy' was used to describe a rational form of organization which today exists to a greater or lesser extent in practically every business and public enterprise (Koontz, 2010). In his analysis of organizations, Weber identified three basic types of legitimate authority: traditional, charismatic and rational authority (Yukl, 2010). The main features of a bureaucracy according to Weber includes; a continuous organization of functions bound by rules, specified spheres of competence, the degree of authority allocated and the rules governing the exercise of authority, a hierarchical arrangement of offices (jobs), where one level of jobs is subject to control by the next higher level, appointment of offices are made on grounds of technical competence, the separations

of official from the ownership of the organization, official positions exist in their own right, and job holders have no rights to a particular position and, rule, decisions and actions are formulated and recorded in writing (Nwachukwu, 2006). However, some critiques of bureaucracy include; excessive paperwork or "red tape", slowness in handling problems, rigidity in the face of shifting needs, resistance to change and employee apathy Mark (2010). Weber's thinking on bureaucracy was dominated by his view of how rational it was. Goulder (2012) by contrast helped to indicate that opinions and feelings are also a key ingredient in the success of a bureaucratic form of organization. Whereas Weber emphasized structural aspects of organization, Goulder emphasized behavior. He said that some rules can total obedience whereas others may not depending on individual's behavior.. Therefore, in any one organization, there will be a tendency to respond to the rules in one way or the other, depending on how and why the rules are introduced (Heinz, 2010).

Criticism of Classical Management Theory
Apart from the limitations and disadvantages of the classical theories discussed so far under each school, there are some general criticisms. 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 (Cole & Kelly, 2011).

The principles propounded by the classical theory are not vigorously scientific and thus did not stand the test of time. They did not add up to the consistent and complete body of theories. They reflected the observers' empirical observations and their logical deductions, rather than a precise theory built upon truly scientific research and evidence. However, the principles, which were plausible and highly relevant to practitioners, have been later developed into guidelines for managing business enterprises (Yukl, 2010). The traditionalists believed that management theories can be reduced from observing and analyzing what managers do, and the empirical findings have been distilled to arrive at certain principles (Handy, 2002). Hence, they are criticized for carrying on the practices of the past and perpetuating outmoded practices and mediocrity.
NEO-CLASSICAL THEORY (1920s-1950s)

Human Relations and Social Psychological Theories
The human relations and social-psychological theories emerged when government and unions reacted to the dehumanization of employees at the workplace (Yukl, 2010). In these theories attention was given to individuals and their capabilities in the organization. The behavioral sciences played a strong role in helping us to understand how workers and organizational needs could be meet simultaneously. Embedded in the human relations and psychological theories are motivational theories that were concerned with human factors such as people's behavior at the workplace (Fellenz, 2010). The motivational theorists were particularly interested in human motivation, group relationships and leadership. Similarly, the process theories of motivation looked at motivation as the outcome of a dynamic interaction between the person and their experiences in an organization and its management (Buchana & Huczyn, 2010). Such processes depend critically on the sense individuals make of their experiences at

work. In the same vein, the content theories of motivation attempt to explain these specific things which actually motivate the individual at work and are concerned with identifying people's needs, the strength of those needs and the goals they pursue in order to satisfy those needs. Furthermore, in line with the Hawthorne studies, certain conclusions were drowned such as; individual workers cannot by treated in isolation, but must be seen as members of a group, the need to belong to a group and have status within it is more important than monetary incentives or good physical working conditions, informal (or unofficial) groups at work exercise a strong influence over the behavior of workers, supervisors and managers need to be aware of these social needs and cater for them if workers are to collaborate with official organization rather than work against it (Cole & Kelly, 2011). Some of the early theories of motivations include; Masslow's hierarchy of needs, McGregor-theory X and Y, Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, Likert-the high-producing with lowest cost and the highest level of employee management managers and the lower producing manager with higher cost and lower employee motivation, Argyris-immaturity and the maturity theory and, McClelland –Achievement motivation (Cole & Kelly, 2011).

Theories of Leadership
Early leadership theories tended to be more universal in nature through the application of these theories to all situations. Whereas, more recently contingency theories of leadership have emerged, suggesting that certain aspects of leadership may apply to some situations but not others (Cole & Kelly, 2011). Key leadership theories are; the trait theories, styles theories and the contingency approach of leadership. The styles theory of leadership suggest that successful leadership is about the style of behavior adopted by the leader, usually described as falling within an autocratic-democratic scale. The situational leadership as an approach used to determine the most effective style of influencing people or followers. The traits approach to leadership assumes leaders are born and not made (Yukl, 2010). Leadership consists of certain inherited characteristics, or personality traits, which distinguish leaders from followers and attention is focused on the person in the job and not the job itself. The principle-centred leadership based upon morals and ethical principles. While the Contingency theory of leadership is a view that argues that leaders must alter their styles in a manner consistent with aspects of the context. Organizational leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members (Cole & Kelly, 2011).

Limitations 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 (Northouse, 2010). 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. Also, there is a difference between allowing workers to participate in making decisions and letting workers think they are participating (Cole & Kelly, 2011). 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 (Handy, 2002). This approach makes an 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 is not always true and thus posed some limitations.

MODERN MANAGEMENT THEORY

The system theory

According to Mullins (2010), a 'systems approach' is a management approach which attempts to reconcile the classical and human relations approaches. In systems approach, attention is focused on the total work of the organization and the interrelationships of structure and behavior and the range of variables within the organization (Cole & Kelly, 2011). The organization is viewed within its total environment and emphasizes the importance of multiple channels in interaction. A system can be 'close or open'. Close systems are completely self-supporting, and thus do not interacts with their environment. While an open system interacts with its environment upon which they rely for obtaining essential inputs and for the discharge of their system output. Three major characteristics of open systems are as follows; they receive inputs or energy from their environment, they convert these inputs into outputs and they discharge their outputs into their environment (Heinz, 2010).

Whereas the classical approach may be criticized for almost viewing organizations without any regard for their people and the human relations approach being criticized for placing emphasis on people without organizations, none of them considers the organizations in turbulent environment), which the system approach has come to address. The systems approach takes a holistic perspective, encouraging managers to view organizations both as a whole and as part of a larger environment (open system) (Koontz, 2010). The approach considers the interdependency of organization parts, changes in one part, be it technical or social-will affect other parts. The systems approach and thinking has formed the backbone of organizational analysis and can be applied to organizational design problems, strategy, change management, information systems and was later adapted in the concept of the learning organization. The system thinking is a holistic approach of analysis that focuses on the way a system's constituent parts interrelate and how systems work over time and within the context of larger systems (Buchanan and Huczyn, 2010).

Management Sciences

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 (Handy, 2002). The management science approach proposes the use of quantitative technique to aid decision making. Despite voluminous data to be analyzed 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 (Cole and Kelly, 2011).

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 (Northouse, 2010). These team constructed mathematical models to stimulate real life problems and by changing the values of variables in the model, analyzed the effect of changes and presented a rational basis for decision makers. Tools such as linear programming, queuing theory, simulation models, inventory-control and quality control tools were extensively used in this approach (Kelly, 2009). 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 quantity the managerial process. This approach facilitated the process of achieving precision and perfection by expressing relationships among variables and facts in quantitative terms (Martin and Fellenz, 2010). However, while this approach has found wide applications in planning and control activities, not all managerial processes can be rationalized and quantified. The area such as organizing, staffing and leading which are more human than technical in nature, found this approach not so beneficial which imposes a major limitation on this approach.

Summary of the threads that influences the functionality of the multiple theories
As discussed earlier, each of the management school or theory has some key limitations that characterize the emergence of other theories to address those limitations and bridge the gap between the theories for optimal organizational performance. For instance, in the early management theories, emphasis was on division of labour and increased productivity. Thereafter, the classical school emerged with emphasis on efficiency. However, issues relating to employees welfare were not considered because emphasis was on how the organization can achieve optimal productivity. The weaknesses in the classical school led to the emergence of the neo-classical school of management. In the neo-classical school, emphasis was on human relations and social psychological issues. The bedrock of this school was to solve the problem of dehumanization at the workplace. However, it was also difficult to satisfy every employee and turn the organization in a big family as a result of the dynamic nature of human behavior. However, due to its emphasis on employees' welfare without considering the organization, certain organizational problems were not given attention and thus created a big gap between organizational needs and employees' welfare. Also it was viewed that human behavior is not the only concern of managers and that there are other components of the organization that needs to be considered which leads to the emergence of the system theory under the modern management theory. In the system theory emphasis was on how to bridge the gap between the classical and neo-classical approaches because whereas the classical may be criticized for almost viewing organizations without any regard for their employees, and the human approach emphasizing on employees without considering the organization, the two approaches fails to consider organization in a turbulent environment where managers need to view organization both as a whole and as part of a larger environment i.e., open system. Although, one major issue in the system theory was the possibility of integrating the classical and neo-classical theories due to their uniqueness and distinctiveness. Thus, this challenge led to the emergence of 'management sciences' with the proposition of the use of quantitative techniques in decision making such as linear programming, queuing theory, simulation models, inventory-control and quality etc. However, despite the wide application of management sciences approach in planning and control activities, not all managerial processes can be rationalized and quantified. Also, areas such as organizing, staffing and leading which are more human than technical in nature, found this approach not so beneficial and gives room for further management theories because there has not been a unified management theory to solve organizational problems as managers hitherto combines elements or components of different management theories in running their organizations.

Theoretical Implication
It has already been observed that there are contradictory and conflicting arguments in management theories. As discussed at the beginning of this write-up, revisionists are aiming for a high-level, comprehensive, integrated theory that would bring order to the theory jungle because these theories and methods are colliding at certain points with each other. Also, the

recent trend is to pay greater attention to comparative management theory, which emphasizes cross-cultural study of management.

CONCLUSION

Changes in the business environment and employees' behaviors have hitherto necessitated the perpetual emergence of management theories because no one management theory has been able to solve all organizational problems.

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