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CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR A GENERAL THEORY OF ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOR IN ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to formulate “conceptual framework for a general theory of administrative behavior in organizations”. The study integrates existing knowledge in the field of behavioral science and in the field of organizational psychology. Predominant concepts, divergent theses of existing theories –bureaucratic, human relations and human resources models– and supporting evidence was synthesized to form a theoretical framework comprising five “ideal models” of administrative behavior in organizations. Each of these ideal models, (Figures 1 and 2) relating to particular environmental condition in the time/space continuum, specified the level of technology and the degree of individual motivation for which what particular form of administrative behavior was appropriate -results in effective administrative behavior in organizations.

Keywords: Administrative behavior, motivation, technology, theory, opens system, environment, time and space.

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, örgütlerde yönetsel davranışla ilgili genel bir kuram için kavramsal bir çerçeve oluşturmaktadır. Çalışma, davranış bilimleri ve örgüt psikolojisi alanlarındaki mevcut bilgiyi bütünleştirmektedir. Hakim kavramlar, mevcut kuramların-bürokratik model, insan ilişkileri modeli ve insan kaynakları modeli-birbirinden farklı tezleri ve destekleyici nitelikteki bulgular, örgütlerde yönetsel davranışla ilgili beş ideal model içerecek bir kavramsal çerçeve oluşturmak amacıyla bir araya getirilmiştir. Zaman/mekan uzamındaki belirli çevresel koşullarla ilgili bu ideal modellerden her biri(şekil 1 ve 2), örgütlerde etkili yönetsel davranış sağlayacak teknoloji düzeyini ve belirli bir yönetsel davranış biçiminin uygun olduğu bireysel güdülenme derecesini belirlemektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yönetsel davranış, motivasyon, teknoloji, teori, açık sistem, çevre, zaman ve mekan.

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INTRODUCTION

"Institutions, as many have said, are tools for building "Civilizations" but they do not, like most tools, lie wholly outside and apart from the individuals who use them. They are, on the contrary, our own habits which, entering into our vital organizations, exert upon other phases of our personality, an affect which we cannot safely ignore."⁹

F.H. Allport

1. Rationale for the Study

In spite of the many studies of administrative behavior in formal organizations, a valid, comprehensive general theory has failed to emerge that adequately explains effective administrative behavior. The wide variety of divergent theories which have been proposed are constituted of concepts which appear to be generally incomparable and causal relationships which of ten seem to conflict with one another.

2. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to formulate "an analytical general system theory of administrative behavior" which integrates existing knowledge in the field of behavioral science in general, and in the field of organizational psychology in particular. Predominant concepts, divergent theses of existing theories and supporting research evidence were synthesized to form a theoretical framework comprising five "ideal models" of administrative behavior in formal organizations. Each of these ideal models, relating to particular environmental condition in the time/space continuum, specified the level of technology and the degree of individual motivation for which that particular form of administrative behavior was appropriate--results in effective administrative behavior in formal organizations.

2.1. Importance of Studying Organizations

"Organizations", by their very nature, exist in the environment and respond constantly to environmental needs over time. Organizations existed in simple form thousands of years ago in Egypt, Rome, China, and other ancient societies. Interest in studying organizations has greatly accelerated during the last century. Today, in contemporary society, organization has become one of the most important concepts in the behavioral and applied behavioral sciences. Economists, educators, psychologists, social psychologists, political scientists, and sociologists continually attempt to understand and explain administrative behavior in formal organizations. They try to formulate a powerful organizational model and with supporting theories which, when applied to existing organizations, are effective and efficient. They do this because in modern societies' higher standard of living, expectation of longer life, happiness, healthiness and productivity depend largely on organizations: Etzioni supports this concern for the study of organizations: "We are

⁹ F. H. Allport. *Institutional Behavior* (Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press, 1933), p. 471.

born in organizations, educated by organizations, and most of us spend much of our lives working for organizations. We spend much of our leisure time paying, playing, and praying in organizations."¹⁰

Related to the study of organizations is the concern of many behavioral scientists who believe that the proper study of mankind must take place outside the laboratory and that organizations provide a natural laboratory for behavioral and social research. The formal organization, with its explicit regulations and official positions constitutes controlled conditions: and these controls have not been artificially introduced by the scientists but are an inherent part of organizational life.¹¹

2.2. Importance of a Theory

It is virtually impossible to systematize existing knowledge without a conceptual framework within which to do so. Theory --a conceptual framework-- is important for this purpose in any scientific field, but is especially important in an applied field where knowledge now scattered through all of social and behavioral sciences and through the many applied areas of business, public, military, hospital and educational administration must be drawn together. Working theory is equally important to the management consultant, the teacher, the professionally conscious administrator, and the research scientist, where it serves as a framework for the organization of material.

A general theory is important as a guide to research. It helps identify gaps in both existing knowledge and ongoing research and thus promotes the design of other research efforts. It also provides working hypotheses or guides to individual research efforts which serve as vehicles for the subsequent incorporation of research efforts into synthesized bodies of thought.

Additionally, a general theory of administration could be extremely useful as a guide to administrative behavior. The analytically and intellectually self-conscious practitioner should readily recognize the importance of a general theoretical framework which may be used as a measure of personal performance--a behavioral checklist of daily undertakings. Educators should also find it of primary importance in shaping curricula and in guiding potential administrators.

3. Background of the Study

The Literature of Administrative Behavior in Organizations:

Any attempt to mold the scattered and diverse body of literature in the field of administrative behavior into a coherent whole must consider three basic issues: First, that while a great deal has been said about administrative behavior in formal organizations, what has been said is simply the same information repeated over

¹⁰ A. Etzioni. *Modern Organizations* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1964)

¹¹ D. Levinson. "Role Personality and Social Structure in the Organizational Setting," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 1959, 58, 170-181; D. S. Pugh, "Modern Organization Theory," *Psychological Bulletin*, 1966, QQ, 235-251.

and over in different ways. Secondly, hundreds of articles, essays and research projects have taken the same jargon and attempted to make sense of it. "We have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it (administrative behavior): leadership, power, status, authority, rank, prestige, influence, control, manipulation, domination and so forth."¹² "The number of studies is so large that even the number of reviews is considerable."¹³

"The third issue is that there are many and varied theories which are based on divergent assumptions about man from which administrative behavior in formal organizations are justified. At the one extreme, for example:

Man was [is] by nature brutish and the natural state of existence intolerable. Man therefore surrendered his natural rights to the state --organization-- in the interest of his own self-preservation."¹⁴

Strother (1963: 6) also notes that the writings of Plato, Aristotle, Hooker, Grotius, Descartes, Hobbes, Spinoza, Weber and others declare the brutish nature of man. At the other extreme is the concept of self realization or self-actualization of man, which is manifest in the more recent writings of Maslow (1954), Argyris (1957, 1964), McGregor (1960), Likert (1961, 1967), Haire (1963) and Blake and Mouton (1968).¹⁵

Admittedly, the dominant characteristics of the literature on administrative behavior in formal organizations is the variety of theoretical angles and the confusion in the three issues mentioned previously--terms, quantity of the study, and variety of the theories. It is there that the tone of his study rests. An attempt is made to develop order, and build connections between the primary theories of administrative behavior and integrate them into an appropriate framework--an open system concept.

Examination of the literature on administrative behavior in formal organizations leads to the identification of two primary theories from which assumptions related to the validity and universality of existing theories are, in an ideal sense, asserted. One of these approaches, referred to by Worthy¹⁶ as "the Machine Theory", includes: The Bureaucratic Model of Weber¹⁷ the

¹² W. Bennis. Behavior: The Science Quarterly, Leadership Theory and Administrative Problem of Authority," *Administrative Science Quarterly* 1959, 259-320

¹³ D. A. Butterfield. An Integrative Approach to the Study of Leadership Effectiveness in Organizations. Unpublished dissertation, University of Michigan, 1968, p. 1.

¹⁴ G. B. Strother. "Problems in the Development of a Social Science of Organization." in Harold J. Leavitt (Ed.) *The Social Science of Organizations* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963), 6, 7

¹⁵ C. Argyris. *Integrating the Individual and the Organization* (New York: Wiley, 1964). R. R. Blake and J. Mouton. *Corporate Excellence through Grid Organizational Development* (Houston: Gulf Corporation, 1968). D. McGregor. *The Human Side of Enterprise* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960). A. H. Maslow. *Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper, 1954). M.

Haire. "Philosophy of Organizations." in D. M. Bowerman and F. M. Fillerup (Eds.) *Management: Organization and Planning* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963). R. Likert. *New Patterns of Management* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961). R. Likert. *The Human Organization* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).

¹⁶ J. C. Worthy. "Factors Influencing Employee Morale." *Harvard Business Review*, LJI, 61-73.

¹⁷ M. Weber. *Organization* (New Press, 1964).

Administrative Management Model of Gulick and Urwick¹⁸ and the Scientific Management Model of Taylor.¹⁹ The Machine Theory began with the following assumptions about man--the nature of human nature:

1. Man is selfish and aggressive in his original nature and therefore administrative behavior must be impersonal,
2. Man is motivated only by economic needs--the needs which are essentially equivalent to Maslow's need hierarchy--and therefore reward, or incentive should be monetary and external--promotion, and
3. People do not like to work and therefore close supervision and accountability should be emphasized. Management must lead people fairly and firmly in a way that is not part of their inherent nature.²⁰

Based upon the previous assumptions and beliefs, organizations have been considered as primarily a rational tool or mechanical device for the successful accomplishment and the efficient implementation of a goal or goals. To set up and design such a rational tool, the organizational theorists have stressed the task and control (administrative behavior) dimensions of the organizational system, while the only human dimension given attention was essentially a physiological unit --the limited intellectual capacity of the individual.²¹

In sum, on the assumption that man is selfish and aggressive in his original nature, the classic school has proposed "the machine theory." In this theory or model, effectiveness of administrative behavior is considered and asserted in formal organizations as an interconnection or relationship between the rigid-structured task, impersonal administrative behavior and external motivation (reward system). Tasks which are to be performed for achievement of the goal are narrowly divided by function among the individuals of organizations and individuals have a limited sphere of activity that is tied to their own special knowledge. The control system emerges from the task requirements as a series of offices or positions which are integrated, interrelated and coordinated in a pyramidal hierarchy and supported by limiting rigid rules--rules which support the impersonal, mechanistic and bureaucratic relationship subordinate. Administrators, according to impersonal rules, between superior and therefore, provide order. Those who are on the bottom of the hierarchy unquestioningly obey those rules. These theories --the bureaucratic, the scientific management, and administrative management models-- will be discussed in more detail in Chapter II.

Almost two decades after the classical theory, a second line of thought, the so-called neoclassical approach, evolved in the social context of the Western

¹⁸ L. Gulick and L. Urwick (Eds.) *Papers on the Science of Administration* (New York: Institute of Public Administration, 1937).

¹⁹ F. W. Taylor. *Scientific Management* (Newyork: Harper & Row, 1911).

²⁰ J. Massie. "Management Theory." in James March (Ed). *The Handbook of Organizations* (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1965), 387-422.

²¹ For further discussion see J. March and H. A. Simon. *Organizations* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1958); W. S. Neff. *Work and Human Behavior* (New York: Atherton, 1968).

world. To the theorists, mostly psychologists and social psychologists, the theses of the Classic School are not acceptable. The neoclassicists proposed two different models--the -Human Relations and the Human Resources- based on the assumption(s) that man is social in his original nature, and further, that all men are interested in self-actualizing or realizing their full potential --a situation which should be considered in the design of social system-organizations.

Elton Mayo and Kurt Lewin²² with the "discovery" of the influence of the immediate informal group on motivation and behavior are known as the fathers of the Human Relations School. They and their followers (Lewin, Lippitt and White, 1939; Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939; Coch and French, 1948; White, 1948; Maier, 1955; and early Likert, 1958)²³

They particularly stressed social needs rather than the basic and safety needs of the Classical School. Their approach is supported by an impressive body of data which, in part, concludes:

"The amount of work carried out by an individual is determined not by his physical capability but his social capacity non-economic rewards are most important in motivation and satisfaction of individuals the leader is not necessarily the person appointed to be in charge, informal leaders can develop who have more power the effective supervisor is "employee-centered" and not "job-centered," that is, he regards his job as dealing with human beings rather than with the working communications and participation in decision making are some of the most significant rewards which can be offered to obtain the commitment of the individual."²⁴

The Human Relations School, with its emphasis on people's social needs, has rejected bureaucratic administrative behavior. It advocates a supportive form of administrative behavior as universally most effective for all organizations. An administrator is not a bureaucrat dealing with rules --the rules that constitute the relationships between superior and subordinate-- but is a person who attempts to understand the needs and feelings of subordinates and shows consideration and sympathy for their needs and feelings. In short, this school believes that effective administrative behavior in formal organizations involves a supportive relationship between superior and subordinates.

The Human Resources School is the second version of the neoclassical approach to the problem of effective administrative behavior in formal

²² K. Lewin. *Field Theory in Social Science* (New York: Harper, 1951); E. Mayo. *The Human Problems of Industrial Civilization* (New York: Macmillan, 1933).

²³ L. Coch and J. R. P. French, Jr. "Overcoming Resistance to Change," *Human Relations*, 1948, 1, No. 4, 512-532; K. Lewin, R. Lippitt, and R. K. White. "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created "Social Climatesl." *Journal of Social Psychology*, 1939, 10, 271-99; R. Likert. "Effective Supervision: An Adaptive and Relative Process," *Personal Psychology*, 1958, 11, 317-352; N. R. F. Maier. *Principles of Human Relations* (New York: Wiley, 1955); F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson. *Management and Worker* (Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1939); W. F. Whyte. *Human Relations in the Restaurant Industrv* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1948).

²⁴ D. S. Pugh. *Modern Organization Theory*, p. 241.

organizations. It is a step beyond the Human Relations School and is supported in organizational psychology literature by theorists such as Argyris (1957, 1964), McGregor (1960), Haire (1963), Likert (1960, 1967), Miles (1965), Tannenbaum (1960, 1968), Blake and Mouton (1968), and the others.²⁵ Although using different titles for their theories, they all derive their theoretical justification explicitly from the assumption that all men are interested in self-actualizing or realizing their full potential. To allow for this they object, as did the Human Relationists, to the thesis of the Classical theorists, and recommend a model or a theory which has come to be known as the Human Resources Model. McGregor, one of the leading theorists of the school, described this objection to the thesis of the Classical theorists when he proposed "Theory Y" as a solution to the problem of ineffective organizational performance:

"Above all, the assumption of Theory Y points up the fact that the limits of human collaboration in the organizational setting are not limits of human nature but of management's ingenuity in discovering how to realize the potential represented by its human resources. Theory X offers management an easy rationalization for ineffective organizational performance: it is due to the nature of human resources with which we must work. Theory Y, on the other hand, places problems squarely in the lap of management. If employees are lazy, indifferent, unwilling to take responsibility, intransigent, uncreative, uncooperative, Theory Y implies that the cause lies in the management method of organization and control."²⁶

In the human resources model, participation is the only administrative behavior which can yield maximum effectiveness.

Those who proposed the "Human Resources" Model, in which effectiveness of administrative behavior is based on interconnections or interrelationships between enlarged task-structure, participative relationships between superior and subordinate, and internal motivation, did so on the assumption that all men are interested in self-actualization or realizing their full potential in their original nature.

3.1. Conceptual Shortcomings of the Existing Theories

To be consistent with the purpose of and need for the study, justified in the rationale of the opening paragraph of this chapter, it is important to identify the conceptual shortcomings in the theses of existing theories in both the classical and neoclassical approaches. In order to identify the shortcomings of and major problems in the theses of the existing theories mentioned in the previous

²⁵ C. Argyris. *Personality and Organization*. C. Argyris. *Integrating the Individual and the Organization*; M. Haire. *Philosophy of Organizations*. R. Likert. *New Patterns of Management*. R. Likert. *The Human Organization*. A.H. Maslow. *Motivation and Personality*. A.H. Maslow. *Eupsychian Management* (Homewood, Ill.: Irwin-Dorsey, 1965); D. McGregor. *The Human Side of Enterprise*. R. E. Miles. "Human Relations or Human Resources," *Harvard Business Review*, 1965, 43, 148-166; A. S. Tannenbaum. *Control in Organization* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1968).

²⁶ Douglas McGregor. *Human Side of Enterprise*, p. 48, 29.

discussion, the open system approach to the study of living systems, including large social systems such as formal organizations must be introduced. The initial support for the view that living systems are essentially "open systems" as opposed to "closed systems" comes from an article in science, published by the theoretical biologist Ludwig von Bertalanffy in 1950. Bertalanffy was a pioneer in the promotion of an organismic view in biology and first developed his "general system theory" in the 1930's. However, he did not publish his ideas until the conclusion of World War II, later explaining that he waited until biology was more receptive to theory and model building (Bertalanffy, 1968).²⁷ Bertalanffy is responsible both for introducing the term "general system theory" and for initiating the intellectual movement for a unified science.²⁸

In the years since Bertalanffy's article, various behavioral scientists (Ashby, 1958, 1960; Bennis, 1966; Boulding, 1956; Buckley, 1967; Burns and Stalker, 1961; Dill, 1962; 1967; Miller, 1966, 1978; Emery and Trist, 1965; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1965a, 1965b, 1965c, 1972; Katz and Kahn, Parsons, 1951; Rice, 1958)²⁹ have maintained that formal organizations "must be conceived of, and studied as open systems" since "whether biological organisms or social organizations, [they] are acutely dependent on their external environment."³⁰ Walter Buckley, for example (sociology) has stated the meaning of system openness: "That a system is open means not simply that it engages in interchanges with the environment, but this interchange is an essential factor underlying the system viability, its

²⁷ Ludwig von Bertalanffy. *General system Theory* (New York: George Brarilter, 1968).

²⁸For information about the applicability of the General System Theory to the problems of both behavioral and social sciences, see Ludwig V. Bertalanffy, "General System Theory," *General Systems*, 1956, 1, 1-10; Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn. *The Social Psychology of Organizations*, 2nd ed. revised (New York: Wiley, 1978, Second Ed. Revised).

²⁹ W. Ross Ashby, "General System Theory as a New Discipline." *General Systems*, 1958, 2, 3-17; W. Ross Ashby, *Design for a Brain*. 2. Ed. revised (London: Science paperback, 1960); W. G. Bennis, *Changing Organizations* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966); K.F. Boulding. "General System Theory: The Skeleton of Science." *General Svstems*, 1956, 1, 11-17; Walter Buckley, *Sociology and Modern Systems* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1967); Tom Burns and G. M. Stalker. *The Management of Innovation* (London: Tavistock, 1961); W. Dill "Environment as an Influence on Managerial Autonomy." *Administrative Quarterly*, 1958, 2., 409-443; R. E. Emery and E. L. Trist, "The Causal Texture of organizational Environments." *Human Relations*, 1965, 18; P.R. Lawrence and J.W. Lorsch, "Differentiation and Integration in Complex Organizations." *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 1967, 12, 1-14; James J. Miller, "Living Systems: Basic Concepts." *Behavioral Science*, 1965a, 10, 193-237; James J. Miller, "Living systems: Structure and Process." *Behavioral science*, 1965c, 10, 380-411; James J. Miller, "Living Systems: The Organizations." *Behavioral Science*, 1972, 17, 1-182; Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn, *The Social Psvchology of Organizations* (New York: Wiley, 1966); Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn, *Social Psvchology of Organizations* (New York: Wiley, 1978); Tallcott Parsons, *The social Systems* (New York: Free Press, 1951); A. K. Rice, *The Enterprise and Its Environment* (London: Tavistock publications, 1963).

³⁰ Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn, *Social Psychology of Organizations*, 2. ed. Revised (New York: Wiley, 1978) p. 22.

reproductive ability or continuity, and its ability to change.³¹

In organizational psychology, Katz and Kahn, after encountering the general systems theory of Bertalanffy and his followers the Tavistock open-systems and the socio technical systems approach of group in England, have adopted an approach to organizations in their far-reaching work *The Social Psychology of Organizations*, published in 1966. Their book provides a convincing description of the advantages of an open system perspective for examining the important relations of an organization with its environment:

“Open system theory assumes continuing interaction of an organization with its environment: such interaction is what it means for a system to be open. The study of organizations therefore should include the relationship between the characteristics of the environment and the characteristics of the organization. Change in that environment leads to demands for change in the organization, and even the effort to resist those demands results in internal change.”³²

In light of these preliminary observations of open systems or organization-environment perspective and that which was said in the early sections, if one now takes the theses of all the existing theories into consideration it can be easily seen that they all conceive of formal organizations as closed social systems acting independent of external or environmental forces. Consequently, the shortcomings and inadequacies of closed system thinking about social organization become increasingly apparent when one considers the fact that societies are in a constant state of change.³³

A second shortcoming, closely related to the first, is that all the existing theories derive their theoretical foundation, in addition to assumptions about human nature, on either the task-dimension or the motivation-dimension of "organization". Therefore they arrive at a single form of administrative behavior based on one or more of these dimensions which they believe are universally most effective.

However, in the literature, there is increasing evidence (Bennis, 1959; Herzberg, 1959; Katzell, 1960; Leavitt, 1951; Vroom and Mann, 1960; March and Simon, 1958; Maslow, 1965; Whyte, 1969)³⁴ indicating that all the existing

³¹ Walter Buckley. *Sociology and Modern System Theory* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1967), p. 50.

³² Katz and Kahn, pp. 122, 31.

³³ For further discussions of the shortcomings and inadequacies of closed system thinking about the social organizations, see Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn, *The Social Psychology of Organizations* (New York: Wiley, 1978), pp. 30-32; F. E. Kast and J. E. Rosenzweig, *Organization and Management* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970), pp. 72, 76, 82; William G. Scott, "Organization Theory: An Overview and Appraisal." *Academy of Management Journal*, 1961, 7-26.

³⁴ W. Bennis. "Leadership Theory and Administrative Behavior: The Problem of Authority." *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 1959, 259-301. F. Herzberg, R. Mausner, and B. Snyderman. *The Motivation to Work*, 2. ed. (New York: Wiley, 1959). R. A. Katzell. "Contrasting Systems of Work organization." *American Psychologist*, 1962, 17, 102-108; H. J. Leavitt. "Some Effects of certain Communication Patterns on Group Performance." *J. Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 1951, 46, 38-

theories are importantly limited in their applicability yet are sometimes applicable. For example, as March and Simon (1958), Katzell (1960), and Whyte (1969),³⁵ suggested that if tasks are routine and subordinates are security-oriented, the bureaucratic form of administrative behavior may be effective. Yet many prominent studies have shown that the theses of the Bureaucratic and Scientific management models are ineffective under situations where the conditions of routine tasks and security-oriented staff are of ten not met (A. Kornhauser and O. M. Reid, 1962; R. Blauner, 1964).³⁶ When tasks are highly complex and subordinates are ego-oriented, the participative form of administrative behavior (the thesis of the Human Resources model) is more effective; much 16 recent evidence indicates that the Human Resources Model is inappropriate for blue collar workers (Friedlander, 1965; E. F. Fiedler, 1967; Centers and Bugental, 1966).³⁷ Miles (1965),³⁸ suggests that the supportive form of administrative behavior (the thesis of the Human Relations model) is more effective in relation to social motivational factors (social needs) and flexible tasks. Furthermore, several empirical and theoretical studies have shown that, in comparing organizations in different environments, different organizational models and forms of administrative behaviors are required to be effective (Burn and Stalker, 1961; Harvey, 1968; Perrow, 1967; Rice, 1963; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967, 1969; Maslow, 1965; and Thompson, 1967).³⁹ Maslow (1965) recommended, in his book *Eupsychian Management*, that the participative form of administrative behavior (the thesis of the Human Resources model) is more appropriate to organizations in highly developed countries. Burns and Stalker (1961), Lawrence and Lorsch (1967, 1969); Bennis (1969), and many others have suggested that if the environment is simple, with a slow rate of change, effective administrative behavior is highly bureaucratic. Similarly, if the environmental conditions are complex, dynamic, and

50. J. G. March and H. A. Simon. *Organizations*. A. H. Maslow. *Eupsychian Management*. V. H. Vroom and F.C. Mann. "Leader Authoritarianism and Employee Attitudes." *Personal Psychology*, 1960, 13, 125-140. W.F. Whyte. *Organizational Behavior: Theory and Application* (Homewood, Ill: Irwin-Dorsey, 1969).

³⁵ R. A. Katzell. *Contrasting Systems of Work Organization*, pp. 102-108. J. G. March and A. Simon. *Organization*, Chapter 2. W.F. Whyte. *Organizational Behavior*, pp. 3-9.

³⁶ A. Kornhauser, and O. M. Reid, *Mental Health of the Industrial Workers: A Detroit Study* (New York: Wiley, 1962); R. Blauner, *Alienation and Freedom* (Chicago: Quadrangle, 1964).

³⁷F. Friedlander, "Comparative Work Value Systems," *Personnel Psychology*, 1965, 18, 1-20; E. F. Fiedler, *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967); R. Centers and D.E. Bugental, "Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Motivations Among Different Segments of the Working population," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1966, 50, 193-197.

³⁸ R. E. Mill, "Human Relations or Human Resources," *Harvard Business Review*, 1965, 34, 148-163.

³⁹ Tom Burns and G. M. Stalker, *The Management of Innovation* (London: Tavistock, 1961); E. Harvey, "Technology and the Structure of Organization," *American Sociological Review*, 1968, 33, 247-259; C. Perrow, "A Framework for the comparative Analysis of Organizations." *American sociological Review*, 1967, 32, 194-208; A. K. Rice, *The Enterprise and its Environment* (London: Tavistock, 1968); Lawrence and J. W. Lorsch, "Differentiation and Integration in Complex organizations," *Organization and Environment* (Homewood, Ill: Irwin, 1969); A. H. Maslow, *Eupsychian Management* (Homewood, Ill: Irwin, 1965); J. D. Thompson, *Organization in Action* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).

turbulent, the effective administrative behavior is participative.

Given the research evidence, it seems clear that no single form of administrative behavior is universally effective at all levels of an organization, but may be effective for different hierarchical levels depending upon the nature of motivation and task; there is also no single form of administrative behavior which is universally effective for an organization that exists under differing environmental conditions. But a single model may be the dominating characteristic in an organization, depending upon the characteristics of that environment.

It should be possible to design a promising theoretical solution to the foregoing problems which is derived from the open systems model as applied to formal social organizations.

A Theoretical Framework

1. The System Stage.

The key element in the framework of the theory shown in Figure 1 is the environment; it is the starting point. The environment, which by its very nature is constantly changing from simple to complex in the time/space continuum, is defined by two essential dimensions --technology and motivation. It is a two-dimensional, "state-determined, dynamic system." The stability of the system is determined by a tendency toward fitness (see definition) between the two dimensions of the system.

This is what Dewey and Bentley (1948)⁴⁰ have called "transactions" or processes between the parts that constitute the system. It is suggested that in the nature of any society there is a tendency toward fitness between the essential dimensions of the social system. That is to say those human societies, like living beings, are self regulating; they adapt themselves to change over time. In order to analyze a system or systems, the unit definition, which is the relationship between the two dimensions rather than the dimensions themselves, is required.⁴¹ For the purposes of this study, the two dimensions are defined as follows: First, the motivational dimension is, at the individual level, defined as the need-tendency of "man" for the valued object, running from the basic needs to intellectualization,⁴² and linked, at the system level, to the values, beliefs, norms, and attitudes of the social system--society and culture.

It can be seen that the above definition encompasses the motivational dimensions of all the existing theories.

Second, the technological dimension, as related to change,⁴³ is defined here as the knowledge about technical processes existing outside the organization, and as the tendency to understand the nature of the object with, or without tools in order to make the object "manageable" or "known". The object may be animate-

⁴⁰ J. Dewey and A. Bentley. *Knowing and the Known* (Boston: Beacon, 1949).

⁴¹ E. Laszlo. "System Philosophy and Human Value." *Behavioral Science*, 1973, pp. 250-259.

⁴² The definition of the motivational dimension from the basics to intellectualization is essentially equivalent to the Maslow-needs hierarchy.

⁴³ E. Durkheim. *Division of Labor in Society* (New York: The Free Press, 1947).

human or other, inanimate, running from certainty to uncertainty or simple to complex in the time/space continuum.⁴⁴

2. The Sub-System Stage

The organization, in constant response to the need of its environment, is defined as a "miniature of society," (the words or term borrowed from Presthus.⁴⁵ Any statement about the environment is a statement about the organization, which requires a tendency toward fitness between the environment and the organization. It follows from this relationship that any change in the relevant environment changes the organization. Consequently, the organization is evolving from the autocratic to the organic model⁴⁶ in the time/space continuum.

The organization, because of the fitness tendency with the relevant environment, must fit with its internal structure in order to respond at an optimum level to the desired needs of the environment-organizational objective. The internal structure as the interconnection between the essential dimensions is characterized here by tasks-units at the stable state at a given time; "one task unit is the work to be performed by a subordinate and is defined in terms of parameters (technological and motivational dimensions of the social environment) in the 21 conceptual frameworks. This suggests that the task unit changes from manageable to unmanageable.

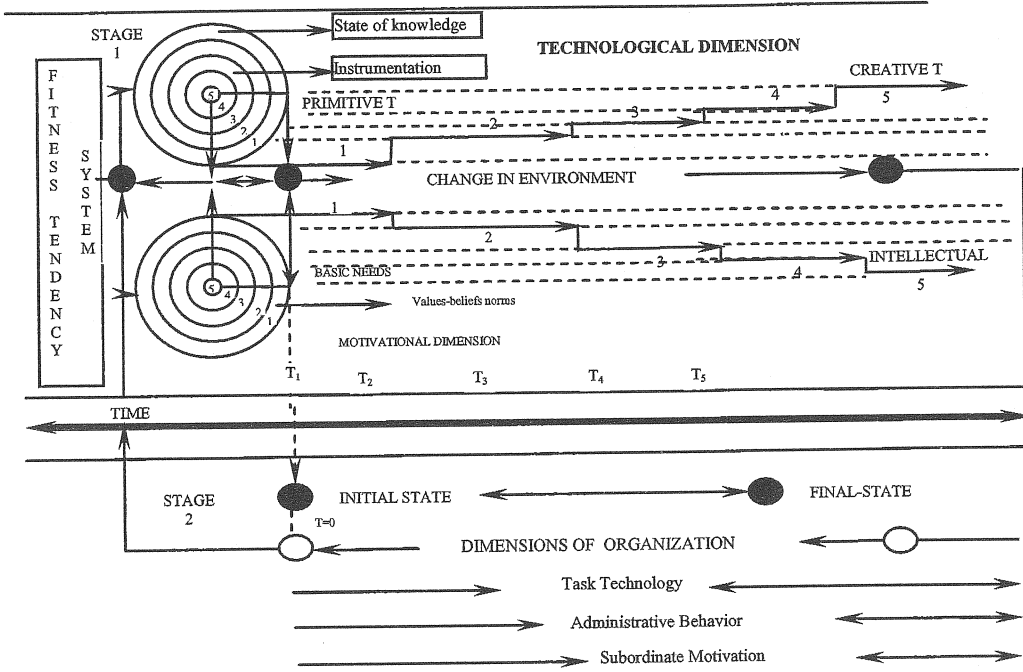
⁴⁴For the comparable definition of the technology see C. Perrow, "A Framework for comparative organizational Analysis," *American sociological Review*, 1967, 32, pp. 194-208; D. Katz and Robert L. Kahn, *The Social Psychology of Organizations* (New York: Wiley, 1978), pp. 136-138.

⁴⁵R. Presthus. *The Organizational Society* (New York: Knopf, 1962).

⁴⁶T. Burns and G. M. Stalker, *The Management of Innovation* (London:, Tavistock, 1961).

FIGURE 1

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE THEORY



To maintain the internal structure or interconnection of the system at the optimum level, the required control (administrative behavior) must be in the stable state with the task unit because of the nature of control which directly affects the outcome or objective.⁴⁷ Administrative behavior-control as "a task relationship between a superior and subordinate is determined in terms of the relevant parameters (technological and motivational dimensions) and changes dependently from authoritative to autonomous forms in the time/space continuum. This conceptual framework encompasses all the existing theories, and more specifically, implicitly, if not explicitly, includes all the dimensions--the dimensions from which the universality of the model or the theories is asserted. Furthermore, it facilitates the discovery of certain principles of the "stable-dynamic system" and identifies the nature of change, appearing as complexity in the time/space continuum. It identifies why change should tend to cause better adaptation for the individual, organization and society. In addition, it explains the relationship at the individual, organizational, and societal levels between the essential dimensions through which the effectiveness of administrative behavior is understood in formal organizations

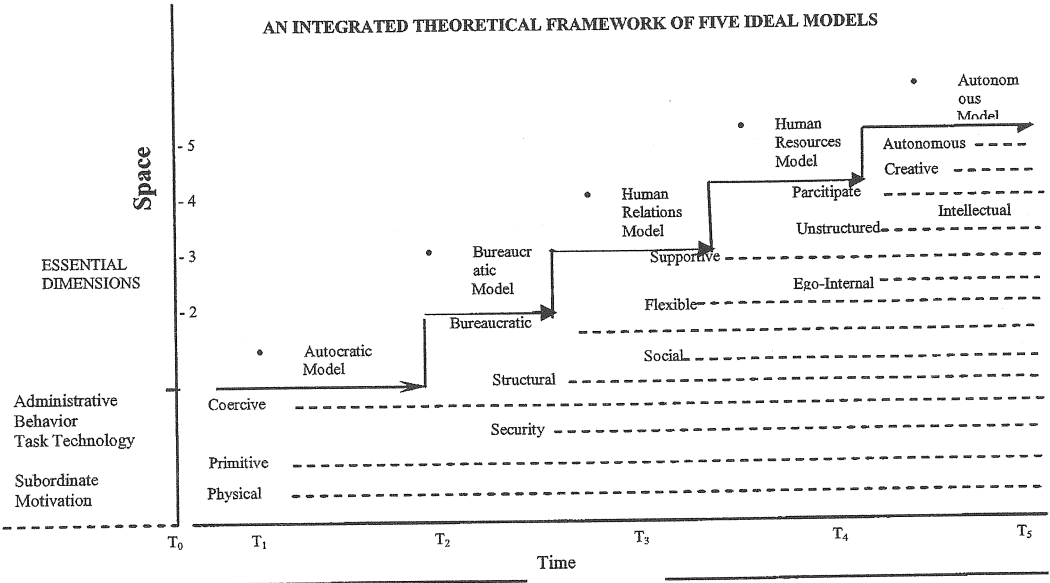
The framework of the theory shown in Figure 1 is environment. Environment, which is by very nature constantly changing from initial State to final state, from simple to complex in the time/space continuum with regard to dimensions of

Since such change exists, we propose five ideal models with regard to dimension of organizations-task-technology. Administrative behavior and subordinative motivation Figure 2 summarizes the models.

⁴⁷ For further information on this subject, see C. Perrow, "A Framework for comparative organizational analysis"

FIGURE 2

AN INTEGRATED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF FIVE IDEAL MODELS



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