Abstract
Mintzberg’s contribution to management thinking is not based on one or two clever theories within some narrow discipline. His approach is broad, involving the study of virtually every manager they do and how they do it. His general appeal is further enhanced by a fundamental belief that management is about applying human skills to systems, not applying systems to people - a belief that is demonstrated throughout his writing. Mintzberg sets out the stark reality of what managers do: ‘If there is a single theme that runs through this article, it is that the pressures of the job drive the manager to take too much work, encourage interruption, respond quickly to every stimulus, seek the tangible and avoid the abstract, make decisions in small increments, and do everything abruptly’. Mintzberg uses to stress the importance of the manager’s role and the need to understand it thoroughly before attempting to train and develop those engaged in carrying it out. “No job is more vital to our society than that of the manager. It is the manager who determines whether our social institutions serve us well or whether they squander our talents and resources. It is time to strip away the folklore about managerial work, and time to study it realistically so that we can begin the difficult task of making significant improvements in its performance.”

Key Words
Managerial Roles, Strategy, Configurations, Bureaucracy, Decentralization, Mechanisms.

I. Introduction
The Canadian academic, Henry Mintzberg who had trained as a mechanical engineer, wrote his PhD thesis at the MIT Sloan School of Management analyzing the actual work habits and time management of chief executive officers (CEOs). In 1973, Mintzberg’s thesis on the nature of managerial work was adopted as a study and published for a wider audience Mintzberg’s empirical research involved observing and analyzing the activities of the CEOs of five private and semi-public organizations. Previous management behaviour studies had concentrated on team and subordinate behaviour or organizational structure rather than on the day-to-day reality of managerial behaviour. To describe the work life of a CEO, Mintzberg first identified six characteristics of the job:

1. Managers process large, open-ended workloads under tight time pressure - a manager’s job is never done.
2. Managerial activities are relatively short in duration, varied and fragmented and often self-initiated.
3. CEOs prefer action and action driven activities and dislike mail and paperwork.
4. They prefer verbal communication through meetings and phone conversations.
5. They maintain relationships primarily with their subordinates and external parties and least with their superiors.
6. Their involvement in the execution of the work is limited although they initiate many of the decisions.

Mintzberg next analyzed individual manager’s use and mix of the ten roles according to the six work related characteristics. He identified four clusters of independent variables: external, function related, individual and situational. He concluded that eight role combinations were ‘natural’ configurations of the job:

1. contact manager -- figurehead and liaison
2. political manager -- spokesperson and negotiator
3. entrepreneur -- entrepreneur and negotiator
4. insider -- resource allocator
5. real-time manager -- disturbance handler
6. team manager -- leader
7. expert manager -- monitor and spokesperson
8. new manager -- liaison and monitor

Mintzberg’s study on the ‘nature of managerial work’ exposed many managerial myths requiring change such as replacing the aura of reflective strategists carefully planning their firm’s next move with one of fallible humans who are continuously interrupted. Indeed, half of the managerial activities studied lasted less than nine minutes. Mintzberg also found that although individual capabilities influence the implementation of a role, it is the organisation that determines the need for a particular role, addressing the common belief that it predominantly a manager’s skill set that determines success. Effective managers develop protocols for action given their job description and personal preference, and match these with the situation at hand.

II. Review of Literature
Organizations exist to achieve goals. These goals are broken down into tasks as the basis for jobs. Jobs are grouped into departments. Departments in organizations may be characterized by marketing, sales, advertising, manufacturing, and so on. Within each department, even more distinctions can be found between the jobs people perform. Departments are linked to form the organizational
structure. The organization’s structure gives it the form to fulfill its function in the environment (Nelson & Quick, 2011). The term organizational structure refers to the formal configuration between individuals and groups regarding the allocation of tasks, responsibilities, and authority within the organization (Galbraith, 1987; Greenberg, 2011). More recently, social scientists have augmented Chandler’s thesis by contending that an organization’s strategy determines its environment, technology, and tasks. These variables, coupled with growth rates and power distribution, affect organizational structure (Hall & Tolbert, 2009; Miles, Snow, Meyer, & Coleman, 2011).

Very early organizational structures were often based either on product or function (Oliveira & Takahashi, 2012). The matrix organization structure crossed these two ways of organizing (Galbraith, 2009; Kuprenas, 2003). Others moved beyond these early approaches and examined the relationship between organizational strategy and structure (Brickley, Smith, Zimmerman, & Willett, 2002). This approach began with the landmark work of Alfred Chandler (1962, 2003), who traced the historical development of such large American corporations as DuPont, Sears, and General Motors. He concluded from his study that an organization’s strategy tends to influence its structure. He suggests that strategy indirectly determines such variables as the organization’s tasks, technology, and environments, and each of these influences the structure of the organization.

III. Research Methodology

A. Research Objectives

The major aspect of this research paper is to evaluate the Mintzberg’s Roles played by the manager and assess the strategy form on the basis of three dimensions of strategy. The research paper attempt to achieve the following objectives:-

1. Analyzing the Mintzberg’s Managerial roles performed by manager.
2. Attempt to assess the five structural configurations: simple structure, machine bureaucracy, professional bureaucracy, divisionalized form, and advocacy.
3. To assess strategy an organization adopts and the extent to which it practices that strategy result in five structural configurations
4. To highlight conclusive remarks, strategy, planning and future perspective of Mintzberg Managerial roles

B. Research Methods

The research paper uses the secondary data for analyzing the Mintzberg’s Managerial Roles, and it’s a judgmental research methods have been adopted by the study, in which Mintzberg’s Managerial Roles have been analyzed and its various components have been studied in the research.

IV. Analysis/Interpretation of Mintzberg's Managerial Roles

To meet the many demands of performing their functions, managers assume multiple roles. A role is an organized set of behaviors. Henry Mintzberg has identified ten roles common to the work of all managers. The ten roles are divided into three groups:

- Interpersonal
- Informational
- Decisional

The performance of managerial roles and the requirements of these roles can be played at different times by the same manager and to different degrees depending on the level and function of management. The ten roles are described individually, but they form an integrated whole.

1. Interpersonal Roles

- The interpersonal roles link all managerial work together. The three interpersonal roles are primarily concerned with interpersonal relationships.
- Figurehead Role: The manager represents the organization in all matters of formality. The top level manager represents the company legally and socially to those outside of the organization. The supervisor represents the work group to higher management and higher management to the work group.
- Liaison Role: The manager interacts with peers and people outside the organization. The top level manager uses the liaison role to gain favors and information, while the supervisor uses it to maintain the routine flow of work.
- The leader Role: It defines the relationships between the manger and employees.

2. Informational Roles

- The informational roles ensure that information is provided. The three informational roles are primarily concerned with the information aspects of managerial work.
- Monitor Role: The manager receives and collects information about the operation of an enterprise.
- Disseminator Role: The manager transmits special information into the organization. The top level manager receives and transmits more information from people outside the organization than the supervisor.
- Spokesperson Role: The manager disseminates the organization’s information into its environment. Thus, the top level manager is seen as an industry expert, while the supervisor is seen as a unit or departmental expert.

3. Decisional Roles

- The decisional roles make significant use of the information and there are four decisional roles.
- Entrepreneur Role: The manager initiates change, new projects; identify new ideas, delegate idea responsibility to others.
- Disturbance Handler Role: The manager deals with threats to the organization. The manager takes corrective action during disputes or crises; resolve conflicts among subordinates; adapt to environmental crisis.
1. **Resource Allocator Role:** The manager decides who gets resources; schedule, budget set priorities and chooses where the organization will apply its efforts.

2. **Negotiator Role:** The manager negotiates on behalf of the organization. The top level manager makes the decisions about the organization as a whole, while the supervisor makes decisions about his or her particular work unit.

Henry Mintzberg (1992, 2009) suggests that organizations can be differentiated along three basic dimensions: (1) the key part of the organization, that is, the part of the organization that plays the major role in determining its success or failure; (2) the prime coordinating mechanism, that is, the major method the organization uses to coordinate its activities; and (3) the type of decentralization used, that is, the extent to which the organization involves subordinates in the decision-making process. The key parts of an organization are shown as

### The Key Parts of the Organization:

1. **The strategic apex** is top management and its support staff. In school districts, this is the superintendent of schools and the administrative cabinet.

2. **The operative core** is the workers who actually carry out the organization’s tasks. Teachers constitute the operative core in school districts.

3. **The middle line** is middle- and lower-level management. Principals are the middle-level managers in school districts.

4. **The techno structures** are analysts such as engineers, accountants, planners, researchers, and personnel managers. In school districts, divisions such as instruction, business, personnel, public relations, research and development, and the like constitute the techno structure.

5. **The support staffs** are the people who provide indirect services. In school districts, similar services include maintenance, clerical, food service, busing, legal counsel, and consulting to provide support.

### Coordinating Mechanism:

The second basic dimension of an organization is its prime coordinating mechanism. This includes the following:

1. **Direct supervision** means that one individual is responsible of the work of others. This concept refers to the unity of command and scalar principles.

2. **Standardization of work process** exists when the content of work is specified or programmed. In school districts, this refers to job descriptions that govern the work performance of educators.

3. **Standardization of skills** exists when the kind of training necessary to do the work is specified. In school systems, this refers to state certificates required for the various occupants of a school district’s hierarchy.

4. **Standardization of output** exists when the results of the work are specified. Because the “raw material” that is processed by the operative core (teachers) consists of people (students), not things, standardization of output is more difficult to measure in schools than in other non-service organizations. Nevertheless, a movement toward the standardization of output in schools in recent years has occurred. Examples include competency testing of teachers, state-mandated testing of students, state-mandated curricula, prescriptive learning objectives, and other efforts toward legislated learning.

5. **Mutual adjustment** exists when work is coordinated through informal communication. Mutual adjustment or coordination is the major thrust of Likert’s (1987) “linking-pin” concept.

### Extent of Decentralization

The third basic dimension of an organization is the type of decentralization it employs. The three types of decentralization are the following:

1. **Vertical decentralization** is the distribution of power down the chain of command, or shared authority between superordinates and subordinates in any organization.

2. **Horizontal decentralization** is the extent to which non administrators (including staff) make decisions, or shared authority between line and staff.

3. **Selective decentralization** is the extent to which decision-making power is delegated to different units within the organization. In school districts, these units might include instruction, business, personnel, public relations, and research and development divisions.

Using the three basic dimensions—key part of the organization, prime coordinating mechanism, and type of decentralization—Mintzberg suggests that the strategy an organization adopts and the extent to which it practices that strategy result in five structural configurations: simple structure, machine bureaucracy, professional bureaucracy, divisionalized form, and adhocracy. The following Table summarizes the three basic dimensions associated with each of the five structural configurations. Each organizational form is discussed in turn.
Table: Five Structural configurations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>Adhocracy</td>
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<td>Selective decentralization</td>
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* In an administrative adhocracy, the support staff are a key component. In operating adhocracies the operating core is pivotal.

**Contribution to organization theory**
The organizational configurations framework of Mintzberg is a model that describes six valid organizational configurations (originally only five; the sixth one was added later):

- Simple structure characteristic of entrepreneurial organization
- Machine bureaucracy
- Professional bureaucracy
- Diversified form
- Adhocracy or Innovative organization

**Simple Structure**
According to Mintzberg (1983b), the simple structure, typically, has little or no techno-structure, few support staffers, a loose division of labor, minimal differentiation among its units, and a small managerial hierarchy. The behavior of simple structure is not formalized and planning, training, and liaison devices are minimally used in such structures (Mintzberg 1979, 1983b). Coordination in the simple structure is controlled largely by direct supervision. All important decisions tend to be centralized in the hands of the chief executive officer. Thus, the strategic apex emerges as the key part of the structure (Mintzberg, 1983b). The environments of the simple structures are usually simple and dynamic. A simple environment can be comprehended by a single individual, and so enables decision making to be controlled by that individual. A dynamic environment requires an organic structure; its future state cannot be predicted, the organization cannot effect coordination by standardization (Mintzberg, 1979; Mintzberg, 1983b; Mintzberg and Quinn, 1991). The simple structure has as its key part the strategic apex, uses direct supervision, and employs vertical and horizontal centralization. Examples of simple structures are relatively small corporations, new government departments, medium-sized retail stores, and small elementary school districts. The organization consists of the top manager and a few workers in the operative core. There is no techno-structure, and the support staff is small; workers perform overlapping tasks. For example, teachers and administrators in small elementary school districts must assume many of the duties that the techno-structure and support staff performs in larger districts. Frequently, however, small elementary school districts are members of cooperatives that provide many services (i.e., counselors, social workers) to a number of small school districts in one region of the county or state.

**Machine Bureaucracy**
A clear configuration of the design parameters of the machine bureaucracy can be listed as follows: highly specialized, routine operating tasks; very formalized procedures in the operating core; a proliferation of rules, regulations, and formalized communication throughout the organization; large-sized units at the operating level; reliance on the functional basis for grouping tasks; relatively centralized power for decision making; and an elaborate administrative structure with sharp distinctions between line and staff (Mintzberg, 1979). Because the machine bureaucracy depends primarily on the standardization of its operating work processes for coordination, the techno-structure emerges as the key part of the structure (Mintzberg, 1979). Machine bureaucratic structure is found in environments that are simple and stable. Machine bureaucracy is not common in complex and dynamic environments because the work of complex environments cannot be rationalized into simple tasks and the processes of dynamic environments cannot be predicted, made repetitive, and standardized (Mintzberg, 1979; Mintzberg, 1983b; Mintzberg and Quinn, 1991).

The machine bureaucracies are typically found in the mature organizations, large enough to have the volume of operating work needed for repetition and standardization, and old enough to have been able to settle on the standards they wish to use (Mintzberg, 1979; Mintzberg and Quinn, 1991).
The managers at the strategic apex of these organizations are mainly concerned with the fine-tuning of their bureaucratic machines (Mintzberg, 1979). Machine bureaucracy type structures are “performance organizations” not “problem solving” ones (Mintzberg, 1983b). Machine bureaucracy has the techno-structure as its key part, uses standardization of work processes as its prime coordinating mechanism, and employs limited horizontal decentralization. Machine bureaucracy has many of the characteristics of Weber’s (1947) ideal bureaucracy and resembles Age’s (1965) mechanistic organization. It has a high degree of formalization and work specialization. Decisions are centralized. The span of management is narrow, and the organization is tall—that is, many levels exist in the chain of command from top management to the bottom of the organization. Little horizontal or lateral coordination is needed. Furthermore, machine bureaucracy has a large techno-structure and support staff. Examples of machine bureaucracy are automobile manufacturers, steel companies, and large government organizations. The environment for a machine bureaucracy is typically stable, and the goal is to achieve internal efficiency. Public schools possess many characteristics of machine bureaucracy, but most schools are not machine bureaucracies in the pure sense. However, large urban school districts (New York, Los Angeles, and Chicago) are closer to machine bureaucracies than other medium-size or small school districts.

**Professional Bureaucracy**

The professional bureaucracy relies for coordination on the standardization of skills and its associated parameters such as design, training, and indoctrination. In professional bureaucracy type structures duly trained and indoctrinated specialists—professionals—are hired for the operating core, and then considerable control over their work is given to them. Most of the necessary coordination between the operating professionals is handled by the standardization of skills and knowledge—especially by what they have learned to expect from their colleagues (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1991). Whereas the machine bureaucracy generates its own standards, the standards of the professional bureaucracy originate largely outside its own structure. The professional bureaucracy emphasizes authority of a professional nature or, in other words, “the power of expertise” (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1991).

The strategies of the professional bureaucracy are mainly developed by the individual professionals within the organization (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1991). Professional bureaucracy has the operating core as its key part, uses standardization of skills as its prime coordinating mechanism, and employs vertical and horizontal decentralization. The organization is relatively formalized but decentralized to provide autonomy to professionals. Highly trained professionals provide non-routine services to clients. Top management is small; there are few middle managers; and the techno-structure is generally small. However, the support staff is typically large to provide clerical and maintenance support for the professional operating core. The goals of professional bureaucracies are to innovate and provide high-quality services. Existing in complex but stable environments, they are generally moderate to large in size. Coordination problems are common. Examples of this form of organization include universities, hospitals, and large law firms. Some public school districts have many characteristics of the professional bureaucracy, particularly its aspects of professionalism, teacher autonomy, and structural looseness. For example, schools are formal organizations, which provide complex services through highly trained professionals in an atmosphere of structural looseness. These characteristics tend to broaden the limits of individual discretion and performance. Like attorneys, physicians, and university professors, teachers perform in classroom settings in relative isolation from colleagues and superiors, while remaining in close contact with their students. Furthermore, teachers are highly trained professionals who provide information to their students in accordance with their own style, and they are usually flexible in the delivery of content even within the constraints of the state- and district-mandated curriculum. Moreover, like some staff administrators, teachers, tend to identify more with their professions than with the organization.

**Divisionalized Form**

Divisionalized form type 0f organizations are composed of semi-autonomous units—the divisions. The divisionalized form is probably a structural derivative of a Machine Bureaucracy—an operational solution to co-ordinate and control a large conglomerate delivering (Mintzberg, 1991); (a) horizontally diversified products or services; (b) in a straight-forward stable environment; and (c) where large economies of scale need not apply. If a large economy of scale is possible, the costs and benefits of divisionalisation would need careful examination. The modern, large holding company or conglomerate typically has this form (Mintzberg, 1991).

Like the professional bureaucracy, the divisional form is not so much an integrated organization as a set of quasi-autonomous entities coupled together by a central administrative structure. Whereas those “loosely coupled” entities in the professional bureaucracy are individuals—professionals in the operating core, in the divisionalized form they are units in the middle. These units are generally called divisions, and the central administration, the headquarters (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1991). The divisionalized form differs from the other four structural configurations in one important respect. It is not a complete structure from the strategic apex to the operating core, but rather a structure superimposed on others. That is, each division has its own structure (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1991). Most important, the divisionalized form relies on the market for grouping units at the top of the middle line. Divisions are created according to markets served and they are then given control over the operating functions required to serve these markets (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1991). The divisionalized form has the middle line as its key part, uses standardization of output as it prime coordinating mechanism, and employs limited vertical decentralization.
Decision making is decentralized at the divisional level. There is little coordination among the separate divisions. Corporate-level personnel provide some coordination. Thus, each division itself is relatively centralized and tends to resemble a machine bureaucracy.

The techno-structure is located at corporate office to provide services to all divisions; support staff is located within each division. Large corporations are likely to adopt the divisionalized form.

Most school districts typically do not fit the divisionalized form. The exceptions are those very large school districts that have diversified service divisions distinctly separated into individual units or schools. For example, a school district may resemble the divisionalized form when it has separate schools for the physically handicapped, emotionally disturbed, and learning disabled; a skills center for the potential dropout; a special school for art and music students; and so on. The identifying feature of these school districts is that they have separate schools within a single school district, which have separate administrative staffs, budgets, and so on. Elementary and secondary school districts that have consolidated but retained separate administrative structures with one school board are also examples of the divisionalized form. As might be expected, the primary reason for a school district to adopt this form of structure is service diversity while retaining separate administrative structures.

Adhocracy
Adhocracy includes a highly organic structure, with little formalization of behavior; job specialization based on formal training; a tendency to group the specialists in functional units for housekeeping purposes but to deploy them in small, market-based project teams to do their work; a reliance on liaison devices to encourage mutual adjustment, the key coordinating mechanism, within and between these teams (Mintzberg, 1979). The innovative organization cannot rely on any form of standardization for coordination (Mintzberg, 1983b). Consequently, the adhocracy might be considered as the most suitable structure for innovative organizations which hire and give power to experts - professionals whose knowledge and skills have been highly developed in training programs (Mintzberg, 1979; Mintzberg 1983b).

Managers (such as functional managers, integrating managers, project managers, etc.) abound in the adhocracy type structures (Mintzberg 1983b). Project managers are particularly numerous, since the project teams must be small to encourage mutual adjustment among their members, and each team needs a designated leader, a “manager.” Managers are also functioning members of project teams, with special responsibility to effect coordination between them. To the extent that direct supervision and formal authority diminish in importance, the distinction between line and staff disappears (Mintzberg, 1979; Mintzberg 1983b). The adhocracy has the support staff as its key part, uses mutual adjustment as a means of coordination, and maintains selective patterns of decentralization. The structure tends to be low in formalization and decentralization. The techno-structure is small because technical specialists are involved in the organization’s operative core. The support staff is large to support the complex structure. Adhocracies engage in non-routine tasks and use sophisticated technology. The primary goal is innovation and rapid adaptation to changing environments. Adhocracies typically are medium sized, must be adaptable, and use resources efficiently. Examples of adhocracies include aerospace and electronics industries, research and development firms, and very innovative school districts. No school districts are pure adhocracies, but medium-sized school districts in very wealthy communities may have some of the characteristics of an adhocracy. The adhocracy is somewhat similar to Hage’s (1965) organic organization.

V. Strategy, Structure and Planning:
The work begun by Chandler and extended by Mintzberg has laid the groundwork for an understanding of the relationship between an organization’s strategy and its structure. The link between strategy and structure is still in its infancy stage. Further research in this area, particularly in service organizations like schools, will enhance school administrators’ understanding of school organizations (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012). In the meantime, school leaders must recognize that organization strategy and structure are related. Regarding the coordination between different tasks, Mintzberg defines the following mechanisms:

1. Mutual adjustment, which achieves coordination by the simple process of informal communication (as between two operating employees)
2. Direct supervision, is achieved by having one person issue orders or instructions to several others whose work interrelates (as when a boss tells others what is to be done, one step at a time)
3. Standardization of work processes, which achieves coordination by specifying the work processes of people carrying out interrelated tasks (those standards usually being developed in the techno-structure to be carried out in the operating core, as in the case of the work instructions that come out of time-and-motion studies)
4. Standardization of outputs, which achieves coordination by specifying the results of different work (again usually developed in the techno-structure, as in a financial plan that specifies subunit performance targets or specifications that outline the dimensions of a product to be produced)
5. Standardization of skills (as well as knowledge), in which different work is coordinated by virtue of the related training the workers have received (as in medical specialists – say a surgeon and an anesthetist in an operating room – responding almost automatically to each other’s standardized procedures)
6. Standardization of norms, in which it is the norms infusing the work that are controlled, usually for the entire organization, so that everyone functions according to the same set of beliefs (as in a religious order)

The relationship between strategy and planning is a constant theme in Mintzberg’s writing and his views on the subject are perhaps his most important contribution to current management thinking. In his 1994 book The rise and fall of strategic planning, Mintzberg produces a masterly criticism of conventional theory. His main concern is with what he sees as basic failings in our approach to planning. These failings are:
• Processes - the elaborate processes used create bureaucracy and suppress innovation and originality.
• Data - ‘hard’ data (the raw material of all strategists) provides information, but ‘soft’ data, Mintzberg argues, provides wisdom: ‘Hard information can be no better and is often at times far worse than soft information’.
• Detachment - Mintzberg dismisses the process of producing strategies in ivory towers. Effective strategists are not people who distance themselves from the detail of a business: ‘...but quite the opposite: they are the ones who immerse themselves in it, while being able to abstract the strategic messages from it.’
• He sees strategy: ‘...not as the consequence of planning but the opposite: its starting point’. He has coined the phrase crafting strategies to illustrate his concept of the delicate, painstaking process of developing strategy - a process of emergence that is far removed from the classical picture of strategists grouped around a table predicting the future. He argues that while an organisation needs a strategy, strategic plans are generally useless as one cannot predict two to three years ahead.

VI. Conclusions/Contribution and Perspective

Henry Mintzberg (1992, 2009) suggests that organizations can be differentiated along three basic dimensions: (1) the key part of the organization, that is, the part of the organization that plays the major role in determining its success or failure; (2) the prime coordinating mechanism, that is, the major method the organization uses to coordinate its activities; and (3) the type of decentralization used, that is, the extent to which the organization involves subordinates in the decision-making process. Using the three basic dimensions—key part of the organization, prime coordinating mechanism, and type of decentralization—Mintzberg suggests that the strategy an organization adopts and the extent to which it practices that strategy result in five structural configurations: simple structure, machine bureaucracy, professional bureaucracy, divisionalized form, and adhocracy. In his 1979 book, The structuring of organizations, Mintzberg identified five types of ‘ideal’ organisation structures. The classification was expanded 10 years later in the book Mintzberg on management and the following more detailed view of organisation types drawn up:

• The entrepreneurial organisation - small staff, loose division of labour, little management hierarchy, informal, with power focused on the chief executive.
• The machine organisation - highly specialized, routine operating tasks, formal communication, large operating units, tasks grouped under functions, elaborate administrative systems, central decision making and a sharp distinction between line and staff.
• The diversified organisation - a set of semi-autonomous units under a central administrative structure. The units are usually called divisions and the central administration referred to as the headquarters.
• The professional organisation - commonly found in hospitals, universities, public agencies and a firm doing routine work, this structure relies on the skills and knowledge of professional staff in order to function. All such organizations’ produce standardized products or services.
• The innovative organisation - this is what Mintzberg sees as the modern organisation: one that is flexible, rejecting any form of bureaucracy and avoiding emphasis on planning and control systems. Innovation is achieved by hiring experts, giving them power, training and developing them and employing them in multi-discipline teams that work in an atmosphere unbounded by conventional specialism’s and differentiation.

• The missionary organisation - it is the mission that counts above all else in such organizations; and the mission is clear, focused, distinctive and inspiring. Staff readily identify with the mission, share common values and are motivated by their own zeal and enthusiasm. Perhaps the most distinctive feature of Mintzberg’s research findings and writing on business strategy is that they have often emphasized the importance of emergent strategy, which arises informally at any level in an organisation, as an alternative or a complement to deliberate strategy, which is determined consciously either by top management or with the acquiescence of top management. He has been strongly critical of the stream of strategy literature which focuses predominantly on deliberate strategy.

Mintzberg is cited in Chamberlain’s Theory of Strategy as providing one of the four main foundations on which the theory is based. Perhaps the most convenient example of his theory being implemented is on Kodak, which proves that his Theory critically analyzes the theories effectiveness.

Henry Mintzberg remains one of the few truly generalist management writers of today, and has applied his ideas on management to the management education field, believing that this area is in great need of reform. He was instrumental in setting up an International Masters in Practising Management in 1996, which seeks to change the traditional way in which managers are educated.

His work covers such a wide perspective that different readers see him as an expert in different areas. For some people he is an authority on time management, and he has written some of the most thoughtful and practical advice on this subject; for others he is the champion of the hard-pressed manager surrounded by management theorists telling him or her how to do their job; and for yet another group, he is a leading authority on strategic planning.

For most people, however, Mintzberg is the man who dared to challenge orthodox beliefs and, through the scholarly presentation of research findings, and some truly original thinking, changed our ideas about many key business activities.

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[34] Key articles are given below, for a complete list from 1967 to date, with some links through to full text, please see http://www.mintzberg.org/articles


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