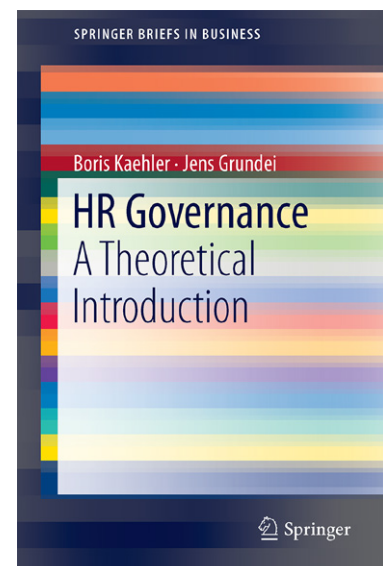


HR Governance

A Theoretical Introduction

Boris Kaehler & Jens Grundei
(authors)

2019



Book Manuscript

Original version published by Springer 2019
(available in July 2018)

The final authenticated version is available online at:
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-94526-2>

About This Book

HR governance is a relatively new construct that has been drawing increased attention lately. As a part of corporate governance, it represents the internal and external normative framework for human resource management and its supervision in organizations. This book theoretically integrates HR governance with the related domains of corporate governance, corporate management, HR management and leadership. It thereby provides scholars and practitioners in the field with a precisely delineated system of theoretical concepts for their work and helps to convert them into research questions as well as practical concepts. By interpreting the new ISO 30408 norm on human governance and by reflecting recent developments, the book helps to implement company-specific HR governance systems and to comply with current and future HR regulations.

About The Authors

Boris Kaehler

is a professor of human resource management at Merseburg University of Applied Sciences in Germany. Prior to his academic career, he gained ten years of professional experience as an HR business partner and head of HR in German corporations, attending to all facets of modern human resource management and day-to-day personnel work. In addition to his academic duties he works as an HR strategy consultant specializing in leadership guidelines, human resource management strategy and HR governance.

Contact: boris.kaehler@hs-merseburg.de



Jens Grundei

is a professor of corporate governance & organization at Quadriga University in Berlin where he leads the MBA elective "organization". His work concentrates on organizational design, in particular the assessment of alternative organizational forms. He has served as a member of the review board of Organization Science and as a member of the executive board of a German association for organization. He advises on matters of governance and organization design.

Contact: jens.grundei@quadriga.eu



Preface

There can be no doubt that HR governance is a highly important topic for corporations, public institutions and other organizations alike. Positioned between the fields of corporate governance, management, and human resource management, it may well be considered the missing link between them. However, it has been widely ignored by both scholars and practitioners. Given its substantial organizational impact, it must certainly play a major role in theory and practice, as the international norm “ISO 30408” on human governance underlines convincingly. Unfortunately, while the dominating literature sources never fail to stress its importance, they describe the concept rather vaguely and fail to precisely establish how it relates to adjacent concepts.

Indeed, HR governance is no intuitive matter. In our attempt to clarify and theoretically integrate the concept, we were surprised as well as intrigued to realize that well-known and familiar concepts, like corporate governance, general management and HR/leadership, reveal their actual vagueness during the attempt to integrate them. So, as we went, first these concepts had to be specified before we could integrate them into a coherent definition of HR governance. We are convinced that our theoretic solutions, developed during many long discussions, will prove useful to scholars as well as practitioners as they provide necessary conceptual clarity that has been lacking. The constructs treated are of paramount relevance for various lines of current discussions including the very role of management or managerial positions, respectively, in modern organizations.

The aim of this first edition is to quickly define the freshly emerging topic and allow for its coherent future development. This is our aim by introducing our thoughts into the debate. It is our hope that our new definition will stir the debate on HR governance and help the concept gain momentum. Future publications will certainly be more extensive as emerging literature and research, as well as illustrative corporate examples, are integrated. We hope this approach will find the reader’s approval and look forward to any kind of constructive feedback.

We would like to express our gratitude to Oliver Maas of maasgestaltet for the appealing graphic design of the illustrations, as well as to Lorri King for her most professional proofreading and helpful suggestions.

Merseburg and Berlin, spring 2018

Boris Kaehler and Jens Grundei

Content

Preface	3
1 Introduction	6
2 The Concept of Management – In search of a New Definition	7
2.1 Need for Specification	7
2.2 Analysis of Established Management Definitions	8
2.3 Definitory Fixes	11
2.3.1. Overcoming Fayol's Task Catalog	11
2.3.2. Overcoming the People and Resource Fixedness	12
2.3.3. Please Don't: Management vs. Leadership	13
2.4 Important Definitory Supplements	14
2.4.1. The Organizational Unit as a Point of Reference	14
2.4.2. The Basic Duality: Chasing the Phantom	17
2.4.3. Constitutive, Strategic, and Operational Management.	18
2.4.4. Multiple Complementary Management Actors	21
2.5 Defining and Conceptualizing Management	22
2.5.1. Integrative Definition of Management	22
2.5.2. Structuring the Manager's Job: Tasks, Activities and Instruments.	23
Reference List	26
3 HR Governance as a Part of the Corporate Governance Concept	30
3.1 The Concept of (Corporate) Governance	30
3.1.1. Definition	30
3.1.2. External and Internal Governance on Different Hierarchical Levels	32
3.2 The Interrelatedness of Governance and Management	33
3.2.1. Internal Governance as the Result of Constitutive Management	33
3.2.2. People vs. Non-people Management and Governance	34
3.3 Human Resource Management and Leadership.	37
3.3.1. The One Integral Governance Sphere of People Management	37
3.3.2. Context and Deliverables of HR Management.	39
3.4 The Concept of HR Governance	41
3.4.1. Present Notion of HR Governance	41
3.4.2. The HR Model and Leadership Guidelines as HR Governance	43
3.4.3. Integrative Definition of the Term "HR Governance"	44
3.5 Implications	45
Reference List	47

2 The Concept of Management – In search of a New Definition

Abstract

The concept of management is well established and very familiar to scholars and practitioners alike. However, it is also very vague, with traditional text book definitions containing almost no concrete characteristics. This chapter aims at developing a more precise definition of management that clearly and fully captures the meaning and the content of the term. This is done by conducting a broad survey of literature and subjecting the main elements to critical analysis. Essential new definitory elements are also conceptualized. As a result, we suggest that management is a steering influence on market, production and/or resource operations in an organization and its units that may address both people and non-people issues and is exerted by multiple organizational actors through either anticipatory norm-setting or situational intervention with the aim of achieving the unit's objectives.

Keywords

Management, Constitutive Management, Strategic Management

2.1 Need for Specification

Things we frequently use become so familiar with time that when asked to describe them, we often struggle to find an adequate response. And sometimes, after due consideration, we have to admit that we are not sure at all and quickly look it up. This is common with objects, but also with theoretical concepts. As Parker Follett (1925, p. 69) put it: "We students of social and industrial research are often lamentably vague. We sometimes do not even know what we know and what we do not know."

Management certainly is one such over-familiar concept. We practice, discuss and teach it on a daily basis, but mostly do so without questioning the concept. For one thing, it is not necessary, for an intuitive, implicit approach often works rather well. Secondly, when the need arises, we might remember some old lesson from our student days about how management is something like "planning, organizing, leading and controlling in order to achieve results with people". However, when subjected to critical thinking, this answer appears unsatisfying. Not only is it very vague, providing little information on how management is actually practiced, it also has some obvious flaws, like its redundancy with people management (i.e. human resource management). Finally, in no way does it describe the specifics of organizational management, but applies just as much to managing a household or playing a soccer game with friends. "So described, management is a universal human activity in domestic, social and political settings, as well as in organisations" (Boddy 2017, p. 11). Indeed, the term management is broadly used in everyday language and even in the organizational world and is applied to fields as different as data or anger management. As stated by Koontz (1961, p. 183), writers and experts call almost everything under the sun management. In an institutional sense, the term refers to managers, i.e. the people responsible for managing. In a functional sense it refers to the practice of managing.

This chapter aims at developing a better definition of management, used here in the functional sense of "managing". In order to do so, it is necessary to critically review the existing definitions in literature and examine which of their aspects are useful and which are not. Additionally, other

fundamental elements of the management concept must be identified and verbalized, some of which have never been appropriately addressed. This seems to be a challenge indeed, since some of the most likely originators of such a definition have seemingly chosen to pass the buck. The venerable Peter F. Drucker, for example, provided us with many enlightening insights about management, but avoided a real definition throughout his books, specifying only the institution and its tasks. (“[...] it is a multi-purpose organ that manages a business and manages managers and manages worker and work” Drucker 1954, p. 17). And indeed, the practice of management has so many facets and variations that capturing its essential elements in a definition is a challenging quest. “Taking everything we have discussed thus far and turning it into a definition of management is a non-trivial task!” (Cole/Kelly 2015, p. 18). When it comes to defining management, even the Academy of Management (2018) does not provide its own definition, but merely refers to an external online dictionary on its website (“the act or manner of managing; handling, direction, or control”). Some authors even explicitly resign by saying: “management is too complex a concept for one definition to capture accurately” (Hitt/Black/Porter 2012, p. 22).

However, such a definition is of utmost importance to the further development of management science and practice. Not only will it provide scholars and practitioners with a more accurate understanding of their field, it might also affect the way we teach and train management, as well as the design and demarcation of management functions within organizations (think line managers, HR, organizers, governance functions). Many reasonings in this paper might appear unusual to those accustomed to the old teachings, and some of them might not stand the test of academic disputation. Nevertheless, at the very least, it will stir a discussion that has long been overdue. As Cole/Kelly put it: “The search for a comprehensive definition of ‘management’ that is not over-generalized still proceeds” (2015, p. 19).

In order to develop a new definition of management that clearly and fully captures the meaning and the content of the term, the best approach is one that is exploratory, conceptual and quasi pre-theoretical. Before theories of management can be crafted, and empirically testable predictions can be derived, basic definitory concepts have to be established. This development process may best be described as a form of abduction (Folger & Stein, 2017). After all, the conceptual clarity and appropriateness of the underlying concepts fundamentally determines the quality of scientific theory and research. A broad survey of literature was conducted in order to identify as many management definitions as possible. These definitions were then analyzed qualitatively with the aim of identifying common themes. Because of the rather small, and therefore partly random, sample and because of the fact that numbers are next to irrelevant when it comes to creating a new definition, no quantitative analysis was conducted. Instead, the main element clusters are subjected to critical analysis. Additionally, essential new definitory elements are conceptualized, building on practical experience, selected research results, and a broad selection of ‘best-of’ theoretical considerations from decades of management literature.

2.2 Analysis of Established Management Definitions

Like any concept, management can be defined in different ways. It should be noted that books and articles on practical management and empirical research rarely define management at all. In contrast, most textbooks used in management education do. Table 1 provides a collection of management definitions.

Table 1: Examples of Management Definitions

1	"The art of management has been defined, 'as knowing exactly what you want men to do, and then seeing that they do it in the best and cheapest way.'" (Taylor, 1911, p. 7)
2	"To manage is to forecast and plan, to organize, to command, to co-ordinate and to control. To foresee and provide means examining the future and drawing up the plan of action. To organize means building up the dual structure, material and human, of the undertaking. To command means maintaining activity among the personnel. To co-ordinate means binding together, unifying and harmonizing all activity and effort. To control means seeing that everything occurs in conformity with established rule and expressed command." (Fayol 1916, p. 5/6)
3	"Indeed, we can only answer our question: 'What is management and what does it do?' by saying that it is a multi-purpose organ that manages a business and manages managers and manages worker and work." (Drucker 1954, p. 17)
4	"[...] management is the art of getting things done through and with people in formally organized groups, the art of creating an environment in such an organized group where people can perform as individuals and yet cooperate toward attainment of group goals, the art of removing blocks to such performance, the art of optimizing efficiency in effectively reaching goals." (Koontz 1961, p. 186)
5	"[...] management can be defined as the process of planning, organizing, directing, and controlling organizational resources (human, financial, physical, and informational) in the pursuit of organizational goals." (Dunham & Pierce 1989, p. 6)
6	"[...] we will define management as a process of planning, organizing and staffing, directing, and controlling activities in an organization in a systematic way in order to achieve a common goal." (Aldag & Stearns 1991, p. 13)
7	"[...] management can be defined as the process of achieving organizational goals through planning, organizing, leading, and controlling the human, physical, financial, and information resources of the organization in an effective and efficient manner" (Bové et al. 1993, p. 5)
8	"Management. The process of achieving desired results through efficient utilization of human and material resources" (Bedeian 1993, p. 4)
9	"The process of planning, organizing, leading, and controlling the work of organization members and of using all available organizational resources to reach stated organizational goals." (Stoner, Freeman, & Gilbert 1995, p. 7/10)
10	"Management is the process of achieving organizational goals by engaging in the four major functions of planning, organizing, leading, and controlling." (Bartol & Martin 1998, p. 5)
11	"Management is the process of achieving organisational objectives, within a changing environment, by balancing efficiency, effectiveness and equity, obtaining the most from limited resources, and working with and through other people." (Naylor 2004, p. 6)
12	"[...] management is coordinating work activities so that they are completed efficiently and effectively with and through other people." (Robbins & Coulter 2005, p. 7)
13	"Management is the process of planning, organizing, leading, and controlling the use of resources to accomplish performance goals." (Schermerhorn 2005, p. 19)
14	"Management is the profession of achieving results or obtaining results." (Malik 2000, p. 72)
15	"Management is working with and through other people to accomplish the objectives of both the organization and its members." (Montana & Charnov 2008, p. 2)
16	"Management, to repeat, means getting things done through other people – whether that be on the people plane (leading and linking) or on the information plane (controlling and communicating)." (Mintzberg 2009a, p. 168)

17	"Basically, managing is about influencing action. Managing is about helping organizations and units to get things done, which means action." (Mintzberg, 2009b)
18	"[...] management is the process of assembling and using sets of resources in a goal-directed manner to accomplish tasks in an organization." (Hitt, Black, & Porter 2012, p. 22)
19	"Management: A set of activities (including planning and decision making, organizing, leading, and controlling) directed at an organization's resources (human, financial, physical, and information), with the aim of achieving organizational goals in an efficient and effective manner." (Griffin 2013, p. 5)
20	"There is no generally accepted definition of 'management' but we consider it to be coordinated activities (forecasting, planning, organizing, deciding, commanding) to direct and control an organization." (Cole & Kelly 2015, p. 20)
21	"[...] management is the process of reaching organizational goals by working with and through people and other organizational resources." (Certo & Certo 2016, p. 37)
22	"Management is the attainment of organizational goals in an effective and efficient manner through planning, organizing, leading, and controlling organizational resources [...]" (Daft 2016, p. 4)
23	"Management: Coordinating and overseeing the work activities of others so their activities are completed efficiently and effectively" (Robbins & Coulter 2016, p. 39)
24	"Management is the activity of getting things done with the aid of people and other resources." (Boddy 2017, p. 11)
25	"Management: The act of working with and through a group of people to accomplish a desired goal or objective in an efficient and effective manner." (Gulati, Mayo, & Nohrian 2017, p. 8).
26	"Management is the process of working with people and resources to accomplish organizational goals. Good managers do those things both effectively and efficiently." (Bateman/Snell/Konopaske 2017, p. 13; Bateman/Snell/Konopaske 2018, p. 4)
27	"Management is getting work done through others." (Williams 2018, p. 3)
28	"Management, then, is the planning, organizing, leading, and controlling of human and other resources to achieve organizational goals efficiently and effectively." (Jones & George 2018, p. 5)
29	"[...] management is defined as (1) the pursuit of organizational goals efficiently and effectively by (2) integrating the work of people through (3) planning, organizing, leading, and controlling the organization's resources." (Kinicki & Williams 2018, p. 5)

In this list, three definitory elements continue to reoccur. The first one is Henry Fayol's (1916) task catalog of planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling (with "commanding" replaced by "leading" in modern definitions). As one textbook states: "His general statement about management, in many ways, still remains valid after almost a century and has only been adapted by the more recent writers" (Cole & Kelly 2015, p. 18). The second element is utilizing people or, less constrained, resources in general. According to a popular quote often attributed to Mary Parker Follett, management is "the art of getting things done through people"¹, a definitory element some of the following sources explicitly build on. However, most textbooks speak of resources in general. However, not a single source listed in Table 1 mentions any other object of managerial influence than resources. The third reoccurring element is that management aims to achieve results or goals, the latter of which is never specified.

¹ This attribution to Mary Parker Follett is probably wrong. Montana/Charnov (2008, p. 2) instead ascribe it to the president of the American Management Association (AMA) in 1980.

On the whole, the literature review reveals a surprising lack of substance. Almost none of the definitions display a specific view of management. Instead they contain mere variations of a few outlines introduced a century ago, which might be comfortably familiar, but are all rather questionable, as will be shown. At the same time, they neglect substantial characteristics of the management concept that are necessary for understanding its meaning and delineate it from similar concepts like governance, human resource management and leadership. These shortcomings and necessary addendums will be addressed below.

2.3 Definitory Fixes

2.3.1 Overcoming Fayol's Task Catalog

To this day, most definitions of management draw on Fayol's groundbreaking work "General and Industrial Management" published in 1916. Accordingly, "To manage is to forecast and plan, to organize, to command, to co-ordinate and to control" (Fayol 1916, p. 6). At first glance, this seems plausible enough. Indeed, Fayol's definition has its merits, which will be discussed in the next subchapter. However, the usefulness of this task catalog itself proves rather limited when it comes to accurately describing the concept of management. First of all, sometimes these management tasks are understood to be a circle not very different from the so called "Deming circle" of continuous improvement. Nevertheless, management must be management even if the tasks are performed in another order or if certain tasks are not fulfilled (and the cycle never closed). To e.g. control a work result without having organized this work is nevertheless management. Also, as has been remarked e.g. by Bovée/Thill/Wood/Dovel (1993, p. 11), they are overlapping and of mutual influence.

Another problem with the task catalog is that it uses rather vague terms that can be interpreted in various ways, making it easy to agree on the definition even when there are differing understandings of its actual meaning. Luckily, Fayol himself provided an explanation of his own understanding: "To foresee and provide means examining the future and drawing up the plan of action. To organize means building up the dual structure, material and human, of the undertaking. To command means maintaining activity among the personnel. To co-ordinate means binding together, unifying and harmonizing all activity and effort. To control means seeing that everything occurs in conformity with established rule and expressed command" (Fayol 1916, p. 6). This explanation makes it clear that the set of five tasks is really meant as a categorization of about 10 tasks: forecasting, planning, organizational design, staffing, defining and steering work tasks, aligning work activities, team building, performance feedback, and rule compliance supervision. It certainly does not stop there, or even at 20, because management tasks like motivating, solving conflicts, safeguarding health, and qualifying/developing people are doubtlessly also necessary for steering business operations and can easily be subsumed under Fayol's categories. A task catalog of this length can be useful in many ways, but does not provide for a concise description of the phenomenon of management in the form of a definition. Instead, all of these tasks may be characterized as steering influences.

Another problem arises for those who, despite all of these arguments, prefer to stick with the established five-task catalog of planning, organizing, instructing, coordinating and controlling (or similar tasks e.g. "deciding" which is often added). In such an abbreviated version, the tasks

are only a very generic set of basic steering tasks that, in principle, is applicable in any and all aspects of life. Even managerial activities themselves are steered like this (e.g. an incentive scheme must be planned, organized etc.) and any one of the five tasks involves the other four (e.g. the task of controlling must be planned, organized etc.). All tasks are necessary on the strategic organizational field as well as on the operative organizational field and take on very different forms there. For example, “planning” on the strategic field is synonymous with establishing a strategy (e.g. a plan for a business period), while “planning” on the operative field is synonymous with setting goals/instructions for daily work operations; “controlling” is either conducting strategic metrics or evaluating work performance, and so forth. They also apply to banal micro-activities occurring inside and outside of organizations, like cooking a meal, using the bathroom or opening a box of cookies, which also have to be planned, organized, and controlled (usually by the person themselves). In such cases, however, most will prefer to speak in less-managerial terms like “intending”, “making sure”, “examining” etc. It is not wrong to state that management is planning, organizing, instructing, coordinating and controlling operations, but it is also just one of several possible categorizations and ultimately not very useful. Plainly describing management as a steering influence on operations captures the very essence of Fayol’s concept and leaves room for more substantial differentiations within the definition.

2.3.2 Overcoming the People and Resource Fixedness

Fayol’s definition describes management as a set of tasks that need to be performed in order to achieve any and all kinds of business undertakings. In other words, it describes management as a transverse and superior function that steers the mere execution of work (i.e. conducting/performing it). What almost everyone can agree on is that not everything that happens in an organization is management, only the steering part. For example, handling customers/machines or generating/booking monetary flows are work operations, not management (similarly Gutenberg 1981, p. 31). Deciding which tasks must be performed in order to do this, and motivationally initiating and controlling these activities, is management. Of course, any management position also entails a certain amount of executing work (i.e. its conducting/performing), i.e. negotiating with important clients (Drucker 1973, p. 399/400).

However, the exact nature of the matters steered by management influence remain vague in almost all management definitions. Those defining it as “reaching objectives through people” and the like, effectively concentrate entirely on human resources. This makes little sense, because how would management then differ from human resource management, i.e. people management? Of course, managing an organization is more than managing personnel. Activities like serving customers or auditing accounts first spring to mind, but as outlined above, they are merely execution and not management, so this is not it. Nevertheless, there clearly are also non-people management tasks like defining a business strategy, choosing a tax model or appointing a budget. Still, the question of how to systematically delineate the people and factual-technical aspects of management is not at all trivial. Most management textbooks completely ignore this issue. One exception is Boddy (2017, p. 16), according to whom managing a business is solely the work of the board of directors (as opposed to first-line, middle and senior management and working staff). “They establish policy and have particular responsibility for managing relations with people and institutions in the world outside – shareholders, media or elected representatives.” But, of course, this is no valid solution here because, not only are organizational members at all hierarchical levels potentially involved in these activities (think customer contact or participative vision statement), but also directors have their fair share of people management to do. As a matter

of fact, the general considerations on corporate governance outlined in chapter 3 also help to solve this problem. The solution there is to conceptualize operational management as purely people management, while constitutive and strategic management are mostly factual-technical management, containing only embedded particles of the former (i.e. HR governance, HR strategy).

So, management is more than managing people, and indeed many definitions state that management is about managing resources in general (e.g. Schermerhorn 2005, p. 19; Griffin 2013, p. 5; Daft 2016, p. 4). While this is of course correct, it is also not complete. For one thing, management is most certainly also about managing markets. Consumer markets are operated by marketing and sales activities, which have to be managed. For another, the sold products must be produced in the first place, which involves subtasks like fabrication and research/development. Non-profit organizations do not address consumer markets or manufacture goods, but nevertheless face very similar tasks of selling and producing their services to their interest groups. A single organizational unit (e.g. an internal personnel department) might not mention its markets and products, but nevertheless has to take care of very similar issues (like salary systems and their acceptance within the workforce). Such market and production activities, in the narrow or wider sense of the word, are not resources. They might be largely conducted by human resources, but as the last paragraph has shown, management is more than people management. For example, to craft a marketing and production strategy is not a people management task, but rather a technical-factual management task. Thus, definitions of management that explicitly mention resources should also explicitly mention market and production operations.

2.3.3 Please Don't: Management vs. Leadership

In recent decades it has become customary for popular authors and business trainers to somewhat artificially distinguish between management and leadership. There are two approaches to this. The first goes back to Zaleznik (1977) and Kotter (1990a; 1990b), according to whom management (the manager) is preserving, directing, routine-driven and administrative, while leadership (the leader) is visionary, change-oriented, inspiring and progressive. In a particularly strange but nevertheless very popular alteration, Bennis and Nanus (1985/2007, p. 28f.) claim that management equals efficiency and leadership equals effectiveness, quite an illogical idea since any human activity has both of these aspects. The second approach is found in most textbooks which, by defining management as “planning, organizing, leading, controlling”, inevitably have to conceptualize leadership as a sub-category of management (e.g. Bovée et al. 1993, p. 468; Naylor 2004, p. 355; Gulati, Mayo, & Nohrian, 2017, p. 8; Bateman, Snell, & Konopaske 2018, p. 226). Here, they draw loosely on the first approach while, at the same time, referring to standard definitions of leadership as a goal-oriented influence on people (see e.g. Yukl 2013, p. 23/36). Hitt, Black & Porter (2012, p. 226) try to resolve the issue by conceptualizing management and leadership as two overlapping circles with a slight intersection.

Nothing of this makes any sense at all. How could leadership not include planning, organizing and controlling? How is management not a goal-oriented influence on people or does not include choosing the right direction? In fact, this is a much better description than most definitions; management is a goal-oriented steering influence. Only very few authors come to this obvious conclusion. For instance to Mintzberg (2009b), managing is basically about influencing action. Boddy (2017, p. 16-27) remarks that managers directly and indirectly influence stakeholders, e.g. subordinates. It is no coincidence that these authors also tend to equate management with leadership. “People work to create change and to create order in varying degrees, so there is

no value in a sharp distinction between managing and leading [...] Managing and leading both depend on influencing others to put in the effort – whether to create order or change.” (Boddy 2017, p. 16-27). “[...] leadership cannot simply delegate management; instead of distinguishing managers from leaders, we should be seeing managers as leaders, and leadership as management practiced well” (Mintzberg 2009a, p. 9). Once we leave Fayol’s vague task catalog behind and abstractly define management as a steering influence, it becomes obvious that leadership and management are one and the same concept. And as it so happens, this is exactly what most practitioners not previously indoctrinated by trainers etc. will say. “In fact, most people use the terms interchangeably when they refer to the operation of a business” (Gulati, Mayo, & Nohrian, 2017, p. 8).

This said, another conceptual inconsistency arises. The popular notion of leadership in literature and practice often includes a wise choice of direction as the very reason people follow a leader. This clearly is no people task, but a factual-technical matter of the kind outlined in the previous paragraph. If the concept of leadership includes such choices, it indeed equals management. However, in defining leadership, probably all scholarly and practical sources unanimously agree that the reference point of leadership influence is only people (see e.g. Yukl 2013, p. 23/36). If this was the case, the wise business decision a leader makes would have to be excluded from the leadership concept and be seen rather as a kind of factual-technical management. Leadership, then, would not equal management, but rather only human resource management, a thought also not compatible with the prevailing scholarly opinion. Any attempt to solve the theoretical problem of separating people from non-people issues must make a connection between the two concepts of management and leadership, but in doing so it will inevitably collide with the established concept of at least one of them. Faced with this dilemma, the proposition (elaborated below in chapter 3.3.1) is to equate management with leadership and conceptualize them as a steering influence that addresses both people and non-people issues. In any case, the dualism of management and leadership is misleading and should be abandoned.

2.4 Important Definitory Supplements

2.4.1 The Organizational Unit as a Point of Reference

If management is an influence by managers on operations, it appears tempting to take one of these ends as a conceptional reference point. However, a theoretically coherent concept of management can not be based on the influencing persons (management = influence of managers) for the simple reason that management is a collective activity with variable roles (see 2.4.4). Neither can it be based on the matters or persons that are influenced (management = influence on e.g. people), because they are subjected to many other influences which are not management but have a very similar effect (for example influence of external stakeholders or self-serving initiatives of insiders).

The term “management” can be used either in a functional way, meaning the act of managing, or in an institutional way, referring to managers, i.e. those people assigned to management positions. This may explain the misconception that management is an influence emanating from top and line managers. Admittedly, many sources point out that managers are not the only ones influencing the organization to be managed. Albeit, most come to the conclusion that focusing

on a manager's influence is justified because of their dominant role in the organizational context. In order to develop a consistent concept of management, a more precise approach is needed.

One promising alternative is to take the organizational unit, rather than the manager, as the point of reference. Here, an organizational unit shall be defined as a bundle of smaller organizational units, the smallest unit being a job, itself defined as a bundle of work tasks to be achieved (e.g. Colquitt, Lepine, & Wesson 2013, p. 491). "The manager [...] is someone responsible for a whole organization or some identifiable part of it (which, for want of a better term, I shall call a unit). [...] The overriding purpose of managing is to ensure that the unit serves its basic purpose [...]" (Mintzberg 2009a, p. 12/49). "Managing is about helping organizations and units to get things done [...]" (Mintzberg 2009b). Hence the definitory suggestion: Management, then, is a steering influence on operations in an organization and its units with the aim of achieving the focal unit's objectives. As mentioned before, this influence may address the unit's people and non-people issues.

Most classic organizations have different hierarchical levels resulting from the subordination/superordination of organizational units into a hierarchy of nested units connected by reporting lines, again the smallest unit being a single job (Child 2015). Unfortunately, many contemporary organization authors associate hierarchies with authoritarian management behavior, high power distance, inflexible structures and a bureaucratic exchange of information. While this might indeed be the case in many traditional organizations, it is important to note that, in principle, a hierarchical system does not necessarily have to possess these characteristics. Formal lines of reporting/direction may be tight or loose, easily adaptable or inflexible, and utilized in a domineering or gentle manner. Furthermore, the organizational design of a formal hierarchy, as illustrated in an organizational chart, obviously represents only one perspective of the organization, leaving informal relationships, cultural norms and many other relevant organizational aspects unconsidered. Authors providing other perspectives always have the tendency to declare hierarchies redundant, often without noting that these new concepts can just as well degenerate into Kafkaesque bureaucracy (e.g. Hammer & Champy 1993). In fact, scholars and practitioners alike seem to find the concept of hierarchy unabatedly relevant, which is why it is still taught, and few companies have chosen to abandon it. As for modern organizational concepts, we find it remarkable that one of the most strident contemporary attempts to "abolish hierarchy", the concept of "holacracy" (Robertson 2015), stresses the need for strict organizational rules and explicitly uses the term "governance" to relate to them. In any case, the crucial point, in connection with the unit as a reference point, is that nested units each display an entity that has to be managed (see Figure 1a, Figure 1b, Figure 1c), a concept that applies just as well to an informal network structure of coequal units.

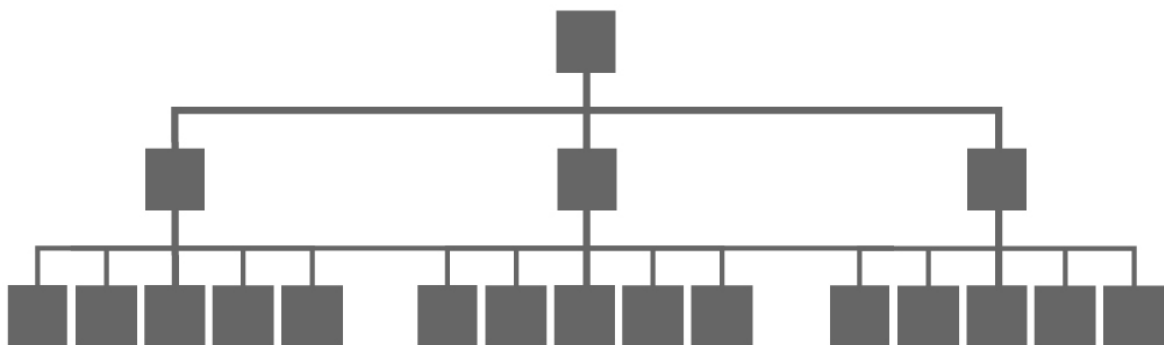


Fig. 1a: Classic org chart depicting reporting lines

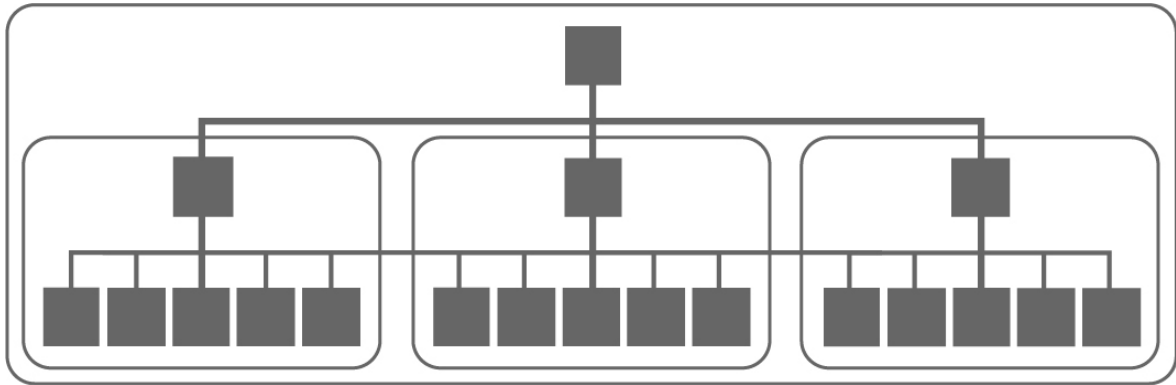


Fig. 1b: Classic org chart showing the boundaries of the nested units

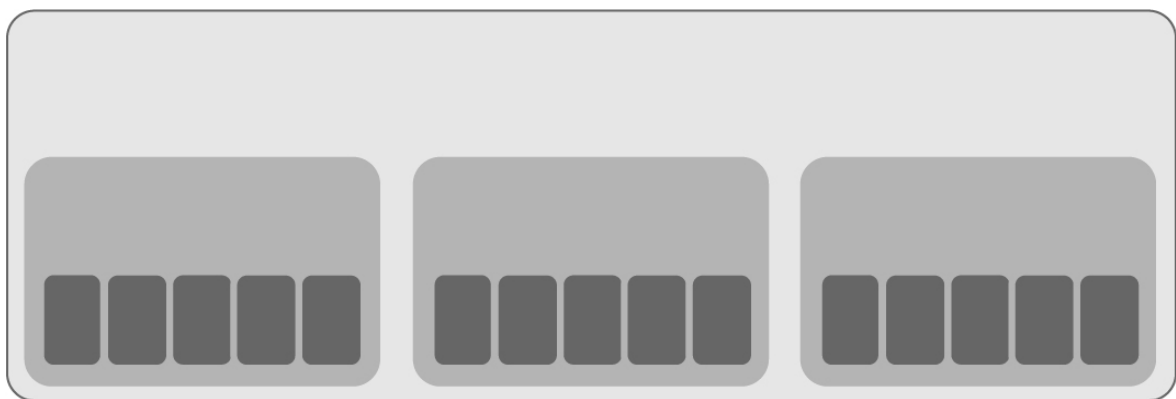


Fig. 1c: Chart of nested units only

In traditionally organized institutions, the entire organization is the superordinate unit, which contains divisions that contain departments that contain teams that contain jobs. This principle of nested units resembles the famous Russian matryoshka dolls (a generic metaphor also used, for example, by Hilb 2008 to define various aspects of corporate governance). The outer layers contain the inner layers, the former being empty and meaningless without the latter. The only difference is that every unit really contains multiple dolls instead of only one (Grundeis & Kaehler 2018). Like in this metaphor, it is not only the overall entity of the entire organization that has to be managed, but also each division, department, team and job. One reason many management initiatives (e.g. cost reduction or change campaigns) fail is probably that they tend to be limited to the overall corporate level. They are not sufficiently cascaded down into the subordinated units which actually, taken together, must achieve the desired results. Thus, it is worth noting that managing takes place at the level of every single organizational unit.

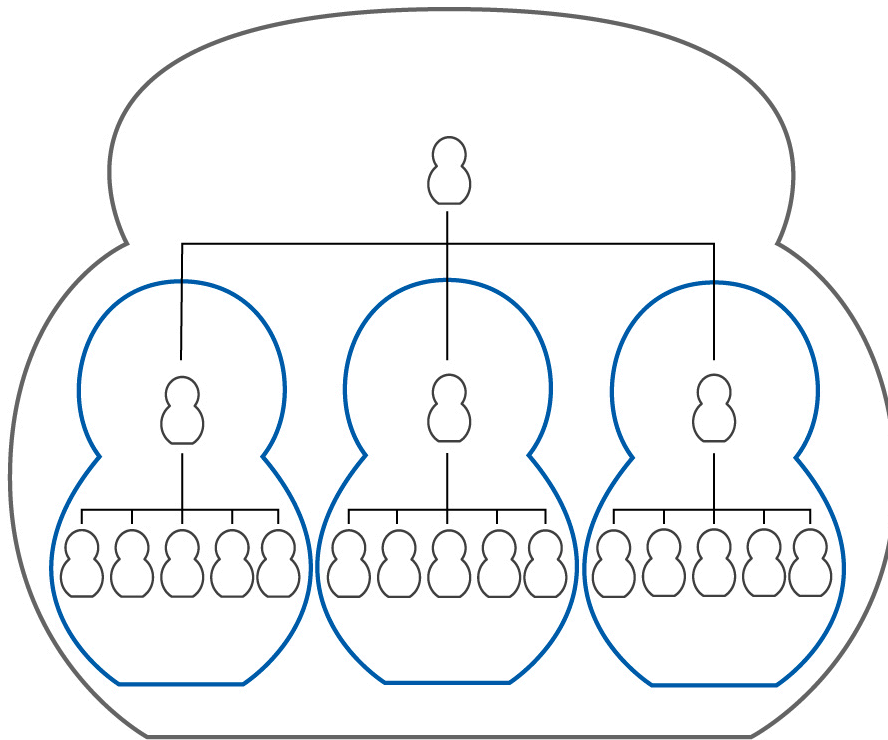


Fig. 2: Organizational unit entities as the point of reference for management and governance (from Grundei & Kaehler 2018, p. 590)

Managing a whole institution may be called “organization management”, but to avoid misunderstandings it is probably better to use a more specific term referring to the nature of an institution, like “corporate management”, “university management” or “church management”. In any case, managing an institution means addressing the overall issues of the organization as a whole, as well as managing all its organizational units. The term “general management” seems even more fitting and suitable to delineate management from HR management. Unfortunately, according to the prevailing opinion in literature, general management is defined as responsibility for several organizational activities or a complete division/subsidiary, as opposed to functional management that is responsible for just one organizational activity/function” (e.g. Boddy 2017, p. 13; Kinicki & Williams 2018, p. 21). To avoid misunderstandings, it is probably better to avoid the term “general management” in connection with the overall entity.

2.4.2 The Basic Duality: Chasing the Phantom

There is a fundamental duality in management. It consists of the two basic forms that management influence can take. In management and leadership literature this duality goes by many names. It is referred to as “personal vs. structural” (Wunderer 2011, pp. 4-14; Armutat 2012, pp. 32/33; v. Rosenstiel 2014, pp. 3-4²), “structural-systemic management” vs. “interactive leadership” (Wunderer 2001), “directing action vs. shaping activity” (Jung 2008, pp. 3-4³), “leadership vs. leadership substitutes” (Kerr & Jermier 1978; Kerr & Jermier 1997; Rosenstiel 2011,

² Own translation.

³ Own translation; German original: “Lenkungshandeln/Gestaltungshandeln”

pp. 359/360; Yukl 2013, pp. 21/171), “organizing vs. disposing” (Kosiol 1962, p. 28⁴), “information plane vs. people/action plane” (Mintzberg 2009a, pp. 49-96), “systems leadership domain vs. direct leadership domain” (Hunt 1991, pp. 27-35) or “direct vs. indirect leadership/management” (Lord & Maher 1991, pp. 163-178; Yukl 2013, p. 21; Boddy 2017, pp. 16-27). Unfortunately, none of these established terms seem precisely fitting for the matter at hand, and none of the respective concepts covers the full scope of the two basic forms of influence. One might well say that the duality is a phantom concept, described only vaguely and inconsistently in literature and hidden away rather than prominently placed in academic textbooks. However, it is hidden in plain sight, because it is the subtext of all management practice and known as a success factor to many practitioners. Already drawing on the following subchapter (4.2.3) as well as on the governance definition elaborated below (3.1.1), we propose to refer to this basic dualism as “management by anticipatory norm-setting” vs. “management by situational intervention”. The former, management by anticipatory norm-setting, describes a management influence that is mediated by rules. These rules can be informal, as may be the case with cultural norms and emergent strategies; usually though they are formalized rules explicitly laid out as a guideline for human behavior. The latter, management by situational intervention, is a management influence that determines work behavior situationally by formal or informal interference⁵. Management without intervention is hardly imaginable. However, the superior and much more efficient form of management certainly is management by anticipatory norm-setting. It follows the substitutional principle of organization (Gutenberg 1981, p. 29) which may be regarded as the very essence of systematic management.

2.4.3 Constitutive, Strategic, and Operational Management

In order to outline the concept of management and better understand the duality of norm-setting vs. intervention, it is helpful to conceptualize management – following the venerable St. Gallen model of management – as a trinity of three subdomains: normative, strategic and operative management (Bleicher 1991; Bleicher 1994; Bleicher 2011; Rüeegg-Stürm & Grand, 2003; Rüeegg-Stürm & Grand, 2015; Ulrich & Krieg, 1973; Ulrich & Krieg refer to it as “philosophy/policies”, “planning” and “disposition/steering”). Normative and strategic management are no end in and of themselves, but guidelines for operational management, which itself is directed at the operations of the unit (see Figure 3a in which “normative” is substituted by “constitutive”). Rüeegg-Stürm & Grand (2015) summarize the basic concept as follows: “The normative perspective provides orientation on issues of an organization’s identity and societal accountability [...]. The strategic perspective relates to questions of safeguarding the future of an organization, and thus of deriving organization-specific ideas of success. The operational perspective is focused on aspects of efficiently managing everyday work life and utilizing resources.”

⁴ Own translation.

⁵ Intervening by setting rules is still intervention, but creates regulation for the future.

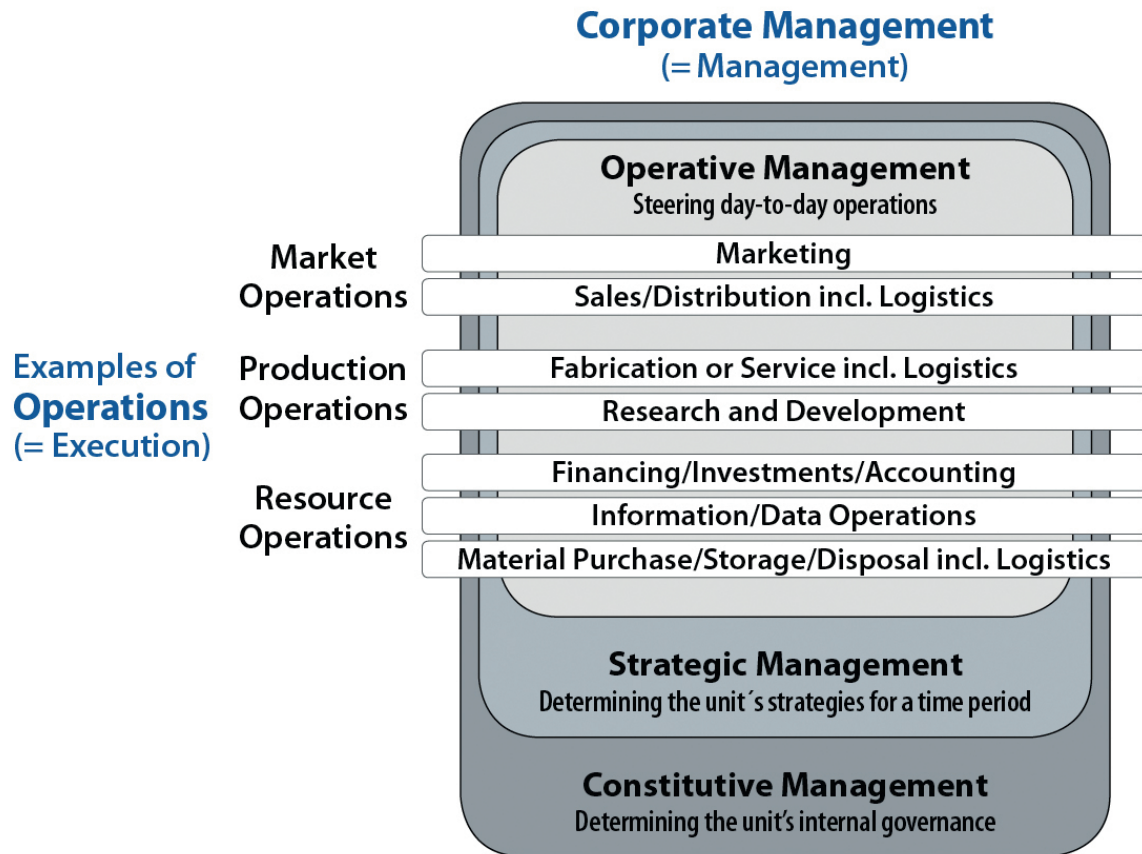


Fig. 3a: The three task fields of management (modified from Kaehler 2017, p. 54)

So-called normative management deals with the establishment of fundamental norms, understood to be prescriptive regulations. It is constitutive of the respective organizational unit and lays the foundation for all activities within the unit, defining its general purposes, objectives, fundamental structures, principles and guidelines in the specific context of the economy and society. It aims to create value for the unit's stakeholders and provide meaning to its members, thereby shaping the system and ensuring its ability to survive and develop (Bleicher 1991; Bleicher 1994; Bleicher 2011). Yet, it also includes the abstract definition of all activities conducted within the scope of strategic and operational management, as well as the design of fundamental instruments (formalized tools, e.g. control systems), process/unit structures and resources to be used in it. Therefore, the term "normative management" appears misleading, because norms (i.e. regulations) are stipulated in strategic and operational management as well, and may be formal or informal. We therefore suggest the use of the term "normative management" only in the general sense outlined above, i.e. since all managerial influence is exerted through anticipatory norm-setting. We propose substituting the term "normative management" with "constitutive management" (Grundeis & Kaehler 2018). This constitutive management creates general behavior norms, which together, and insofar as they are formalized (written or otherwise documented) and regulate managerial behavior, are nothing but than corporate governance (see chapter 3.1.1)⁶.

⁶ Conversely, constitutive management creates not only governance, but also non-formalized behavior norms that can be regarded as pre-governance, which, in most cases, eventually becomes formalized (e.g. a fundamental change at first only introduced in a CEO's speech, but nevertheless binding).

In comparison, the function of strategic management is to provide guidance for and steerage of the operational activities, aligning them with the constitutive prescriptions (Bleicher 1991; Bleicher 1994; Bleicher 2011). Furthermore, it deals with strategies, understood to be plans and rules on how to reach long-term objectives and overcome obstacles. Like constitutive management, strategic management is a task field, the tasks being to determine strategic objectives, as well as scenario-based plans for accomplishing them. A strategy refers to a particular medium-term or long-term timeframe (even if it is changed weekly or never at all). Strategic norms are not considered governance, because they are non-permanent (i.e. valid only for the fixed term during which the strategic objective should be reached according to the strategy) and not necessarily formalized in writing⁷. However, creating governance norms, i.e. practicing constitutive management, can certainly be part of a strategy.

Operative management involves implementing normative and strategic prescriptions, achieving performance, and accomplishing work by steering everyday activities (Bleicher 1991; Bleicher 1994; Bleicher 2011). It also involves steering an organizational unit, and therefore must not be confused with execution in the sense of conducting or performing the unit's work operations (although anyone managing a unit will have to execute certain things him or herself). Operative management includes the control and enforcement of constitutive/strategic norm compliance, as well as the continuous monitoring of unit structures, processes and instruments for improvement. However, if these control activities lead to an actual adjustment of such structures, this adjustment is not operational, but again part of constitutive or strategic management. Notably, though the term seems contradictory at first glance, there are indeed operative norms. These are behavioral prescriptions in everyday operations (especially for executing/conducting/performing behavior) that are not of a constitutively permanent or strategically periodical nature, but rather operative-dispositional case decisions for a specific situation. A manager instructing a team to call all customers about a product recall establishes a norm for all team members, but no strategic or governance norm.

Traditionally, the concepts of normative and strategic management were mostly used in regard to the overall level of an entire institution, while operative management referred to management on the subordinated unit levels. Nevertheless, taking into account the principle of nested units explained above, it is obvious that every single organizational unit needs all three kinds of management, just as every matryoshka doll has feet as well as a body and a head (Grundeis & Kaehler 2018). Following the same logic, the term "corporate management" should not be used to refer only to the overall level of an entire organization, but rather to describe the trinity of these complementary management domains in each and every organizational unit (see Table 2). The weight or importance of an issue is not a defining criterion for constitutive and strategic management, because what is most essential to a single job might be unimportant to the organization as a whole, and vice versa.

⁷ Since many organizations and authors use the term "strategy" for permanent, constitutive regulations, it is necessary to have a close look at the respective sources in order to determine whether they actually refer to strategy or rather to governance under the term of "strategy".

Table 2: Constitutive, Strategic and Operational Management on Different Hierarchical Levels		
Constitutive Management (= management by normative regulations)	of the overall unit (= entire organization)	Determining the framework and management system of the unit (e.g. mission/vision, legal form, business model, stakeholders, possibly tax model; general management model; stipulations with regard to organizational unit structures, processes and fundamental formalized instruments)
	of any intermediate unit (= team, department etc.)	
	of any elementary unit (= job)	
Strategic Management (=management by normative regulations)	of the overall unit (= entire organization)	Determining strategies of the unit for a certain period (i.e. market, production and resource strategies)
	of any intermediate unit (= team, department etc.)	
	of any elementary unit (= job)	
Operational Management (= management by intervention)	of the overall unit (= entire organization)	Steering (not executing!) day-to-day operations of the unit (incl. control and enforcement of constitutive/strategic norm compliance)
	of any intermediate unit (= team, department etc.)	
	of any elementary unit (= job)	

Bleicher (1991; 2011) describes normative and strategic management on the one hand and operative management on the other as two sides of the same coin, the former with a shaping and the latter with a steering function. And, indeed, constitutive and strategic management are similar insofar as they are nothing else than norm-based regulation on a constitutive and strategic level. In contrast, operational management is purely situational intervention, which includes surveilling and enforcing the constitutive and strategic regulations.

2.4.4 Multiple Complementary Management Actors

The common notion that management is what top and line managers do has already been criticized in subchapter 2.4.1. Indeed, taking the organizational unit as a point of reference also accounts for the obvious fact that organizational management is a collective influence exercised by multiple actors, including top and line managers, but also HR specialists, the managed subordinates themselves and, to a certain degree, supervisory bodies. Top and line managers might be more dominant than other actors in most organizations, but the influence of those is nevertheless management – down to the self-management or participatory influence of a single job-holder. “Management [...] is an activity spread [...] between head and members of the body corporate.” (Fayol 1916, p. 6). Taking the organizational unit as a reference point, it may be said that the unit is managed by its head, but also by his or her direct superior, the unit members or central staff, and other units.

This notion combines well with a modern understanding of management as self-management. While Fayol himself might not have meant it that way, all management tasks described by him and others are at least potentially self management tasks. In fact, it is not even possible for a superior to extrinsically perform all of the management tasks for a given employee with respect to all aspects of his or her work. Total control is an illusion. The simple truth, only partially

acknowledged by theoretic models like collective and shared leadership (e.g. Pearce & Conger 2003; Contractor et al. 2012; D’Innocenzo, Mathieu, & Kukenberger 2016), is that leadership always and inevitably is a collective phenomenon. To fully manage executional (i.e. conducting/performing) work of other people as a line manager, i.e. directing operations in any and all detail, is impossible (and would reduce people to robot-like instruments, albeit robots without artificial intelligence). However, if management is understood to be partly – ideally even mostly – self-management (= self-direction), this distinction makes sense. Against this backdrop, the question arises as to which roles the managerial actors should assume and how they should interact. One possible answer, following the model of complementary management/leadership (Kaehler 2017), is that subordinates should practice maximum self-management, while managers and HR advisors should limit themselves to a mere (but nevertheless important) compensatory role. In any case, management influence on an organizational unit is exerted not by one person alone, but rather by multiple complementary actors.

But not everybody’s goal-oriented influence is management. Firstly, it seems reasonable to exclude external influences from the management concept, thereby limiting it to internal organizational actors, i.e. members of the organization. The external impact of outsiders like legislators or regulatory authorities cannot be called management, although it is an influence and follows more or less the same pattern. Supervising bodies may be seen as a part of the extended organization, only partially exerting “managerial” influence or doing so in the general sense of the term. Secondly, management aims to achieve the organization’s objectives. This criterion excludes self-serving activities of organizational members. When insiders pursue initiatives that aim to achieve their own personal objectives instead of the unit’s, this is a goal-oriented influence, but should not be called management.

2.5 Defining and Conceptualizing Management

2.5.1 Integrative Definition of Management

Based on the theoretical considerations outlined above, we propose the following new definition, which takes into consideration all aspects previously discussed (modified from Grundei & Kaehler 2018):

Management is a steering influence on market, production and/or resource operations in an organization and its units that may address both people and non-people issues and is exerted by multiple organizational actors through either anticipatory norm-setting (= constitutive or strategic management) or situational intervention (= operational management) with the aim of achieving the unit’s objectives. To manage a unit is synonymous with “directing” or “leading” it.

On the one hand, this definition avoids the shortcomings of traditional management definitions. It contains Fayol’s basic notion that management is a transverse steering function without relying on the problematic task catalog of “planning, organizing, leading, controlling” or the like. By defining management as a steering influence on the mere execution (conducting/performing) of operations, the essence of traditional definitions is included while providing the option to concretize this essence with a more comprehensive and therefore more realistic task catalog,

which itself does not have to be included in the definition. The element of “market, production and/or resource operations” overcomes the traditional people and resource fixation of almost all extant management definitions. The proposition that management may address people and non-people issues implies that human resource management is a sub-domain of management. Management, leadership and direction are considered to be synonyms, abandoning pseudo-informative differentiations. Thus, the concept of leadership must contain people issues as well as non-people issues like choosing a business model, organizational design etc.

On the other hand, the definition contains important enhancements to the management concept. The reference point of management influence is specified as the organization and its units. This means that not only the overall entity of the entire organization has to be managed, but also each division, department, team and job. The fundamental dualism of anticipatory norm-setting versus situational intervention is expressed and matched with the trinity of the St. Gallen management model. In effect, the definition clearly outlines the full range of management task fields, with constitutive or strategic management as norm-setting, pre-structuring tasks, and operational management as purely situational intervention. Finally, management is described as a collective influence exercised by multiple actors, including line managers, but also HR specialists, supervisory actors and the managed employees themselves. The definition thus includes self-management, paying tribute to the practical importance of self-direction in management. Since total external control of human behavior does not exist, this is also a theoretical prerequisite for defining management as a steering influence on the mere conducting of operations. The term ‘organizational actors’ excludes the external influence of outsiders and the element of achieving organizational objectives and self-serving behavior, which are both influences, but not management.

2.5.2 Structuring the Manager’s Job: Tasks, Activities and Instruments

If management is a steering influence that directs work operations, the form which this influence assumes remains to be specified. Classic task models describe management as a catalog of tasks. This approach may also be traced back to Fayol’s (1916, p. 5/6) abovementioned model in which he defined management as planning (forecasting), organizing (building material and human structure), commanding (maintaining the personnel’s activity), coordinating (binding, unifying, harmonizing) and controlling (monitoring rule conformity). In another attempt, Chester Barnard (1938, pp. 215-234) outlined three functions of the executive: Firstly, the maintenance of organization communication, secondly the securing of essential services from individuals, and thirdly the formulation of purpose and objectives. Henry Mintzberg (1973, pp. 54-99) describes ten roles of a manager: The interpersonal roles of “figurehead”, “leader” and “liaison”, the informational roles of “monitor”, “disseminator” and “spokesman” and the decision roles “improver/changer”, “disturbance handler”, “resource allocator” and “negotiator”. Peter F. Drucker (1973, p. 400) and Fredmund Malik (2000, p. 153-230) promote a catalog consisting of setting objectives, organizing, measuring and developing people, plus decision-making/supervising (only Malik) or motivating/communicating (only Drucker).

In principle, structuring the manager’s job by defining management tasks is a promising approach. However, as this overview shows, established models not only have implausibly few tasks, but also neglect the difference between constitutive, strategic and operational task fields. Also, they can be misleading insofar as the management tasks are usually described using verbs, so that it is very easy to confound them with the actual management activities that have to be carried out.

And indeed, most literature sources fall into this trap. On closer examination though, “planning”, “organizing”, “motivating”, “controlling”, “developing” and the like are no concrete activities, but rather refer to the aims of achieving plans, structure, motivation, compliance and development. These are necessary, but not sufficient in describing the manager’s job. As Mintzberg (2009a, p. 44) remarks: “lists of managerial roles [...] take the job apart without putting it back together. [...] I was responsible for one of these lists [...] As one manager commented: ‘the descriptions are lifeless and my job isn’t’”. This must remain so until the list of tasks is supplemented by a list of concrete activities. Malik (2000, pp. 243-331) takes this into account by supplementing the task catalog with a catalog of management “tools”, by which he means meetings, reports and performance appraisals. This is indeed a crucial theoretical differentiation: In order to fulfill a task – which really is an intended achievement – concrete activities, such as meetings, are necessary. Activities are occupations, i.e. concrete actions to be performed. In other words: They bring the task list to life.

Nevertheless, as Kaehler (2017, pp. 313ff.) points out and elaborates, Malik’s “tools” category mixes up two different things, namely activities and instruments. As for management activities, these are concrete actions. For example, the management task of defining a strategy may be the result of conducting a strategy workshop, the task of providing orientation the result of a speech or a dialog, the task of developing people the result of a coaching session and so on. With regard to management time, only activities, not tasks, can be underpinned with concrete time budgets. It is fairly easy to measure and plan how long a weekly meeting or work discussion takes. How long it takes to come up with a unit’s strategic plan or achieve an employee’s orientation/development can also be measured and planned, but only by considering the necessary activities. As for the instruments, these are formalized tools like written regulations, systems, programs and forms, designed to facilitate the achievement of management tasks through management activities. For instance, a good compensation system can help a lot in motivating people, but the task of motivation can never be fulfilled by the compensation system alone, only by its application in dialogs and through other activities.

Thus, in order to understand and design the manager’s job as well as management systems, the three elements – tasks, activities and instruments – must be theoretically distinguished as well as integrated (see Table 3). In order to fulfill the catalog of management tasks (= achievables), management activities (= actions) must be conducted in which management instruments (= formalized tools) are applied.

Table 3: Tasks, Activities and Instruments of Management

	Management Tasks (= aims to be achieved)	Management Activities (= actions to be performed)	Management Instruments⁸ (= formal tools to be applied)
Constitutive Management	To stipulate the internal factual-technical governance of the unit (e.g. mission/vision, business model, stakeholders, tax model; general management model; fundamental technical processes and instruments incl. control system) To stipulate the internal HR governance of the unit (people management model/system; fundamental HR processes and instruments incl. control system; also incl. fundamental work processes and organizational units)	Governance workshops and projects	Formalized tools for crafting internal governance (e.g. organizational assessment tools; RACI matrixes)
Strategic Management	To determine the market strategies, production strategies and non-human resources strategies of the unit (incl. infrastructural technical processes and instruments) To determine the people management strategies of the unit (incl. infrastructural HR instruments; also incl. infrastructural work processes and adjustment of organizational units) Strategies = work objectives and normative prescriptions for the next business period considering obstacles	Strategy workshops and projects	Formalized tools for crafting strategies (e.g. SWOT analysis, scenario planning). In a wider sense, all aspects of internal governance may be regarded as a management tool for crafting strategies.
Operational Management	To steer (not execute!) day to day business by managing people, i.e. ensuring the various premises of the productive human labor that conducts business operations (e.g. well-defined work objectives, sufficient motivation and qualification, innovation, control and enforcement of constitutive/strategic norm compliance; according to complementary leadership theory, 24 tasks are necessary)	Leadership (= people management) activities, i.e. conducting the various acts that are necessary in order to achieve all operational management tasks (e.g. conducting dialogs, projects or team meetings)	Formalized HR management tools (systems, programs, forms). In a wider sense, HR governance and HR strategies may be regarded as management tools for operational management.

⁸ All these instruments are formal tools containing norms and as such are a part of a unit's governance (see definition in chapter 3).

Reference List

Academy of Management (2018): What is Management? <http://aom.org/FAQs/About-AOM/What-is-Management-.aspx?terms=what%20is%20management> (accessed Feb 8, 2018)

Aldag, Ramon J. / Stearns, Timothy M. (1991): Management (2nd edition). Cincinnati: South-Western.

Armutat, Sascha (2012): Elemente, Zusammenhänge und Formen internationaler HR-Governance-Strukturen; in DGFP Deutsche Gesellschaft für Personalführung e. V. (ed.): Internationales Personalmanagement gestalten – Perspektiven, Strukturen, Erfolgsfaktoren, Praxisbeispiele; DGFP-PraxisEdition Band 103; 2012, pp. 25-50.

Barnard, Chester I. (1938): The Functions of the Executive (new edition 1968); Cambridge: Harvard University Press (first published 1938).

Bartol, Kathryn M./Martin, David C. (1998): Management (3rd edition); Irwin/McGraw-Hill.

Bateman, Thomas S. / Snell, Scott / Konopaske, Robert (2017): Management – Leading & Collaborating in a Competitive World (12th edition). New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Bateman, Thomas S. / Snell, Scott/Konopaske, Robert (2018): Management (5th edition). New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Bedeian, Arthur (1993): Management (3rd edition). Orlando: The Dryden Press.

Bennis, Warren G. / Nanus, Burt (1985): Leaders (2nd new edition 2007). New York: HarperCollins (first published 1985).

Bleicher, Knut (1991): Das Konzept Integriertes Management. Frankfurt am Main: Campus.

Bleicher, Knut (1994): Normatives Management – Politik, Verfassung und Philosophie des Unternehmens. (1st edition). Frankfurt am Main: Campus.

Bleicher, Knut (2011): Normatives Management – Politik, Verfassung und Philosophie des Unternehmens. (8th ed.). Frankfurt am Main: Campus.

Boddy, David (2017): Management – An Introduction (7th edition). Harlow: Pearson Education.

Bové, Courtland L. / Thill, John V. / Wood, Marian B. / Dovel, George P. (1993): Management (1th edition). McGraw-Hill.

Certo, Samuel C. / Certo, S. Trevis (2016): Modern Management – Concepts and Skills (14th global edition). Essex: Pearson Education.

Child, John (2015): Organization: Contemporary Principles and Practice. (2nd edition). Chichester: John Wiley.

Cole, Gerald A. / Kelly, Phil (2015): Management – Theory and Practice (8th edition). Andover: Cengage Learning EMEA.

Colquitt, Jason A. / Lepine Jeffery A. / Wesson, Michael (2013): Organizational Behavior – Improving Performance and Commitment in the Workplace (3rd edition). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Contractor, Noshir S. / DeChurch, Leslie A. / Carson, Jay / Carter, Dorothy R. / Keegan, Brian (2012): The Topology of Collective Leadership. The Leadership Quarterly 23, pp. 994-1011.

Daft, Richard L. (2016): Management (12th edition); Boston: Cengage Learning.

D’Innocenzo, Lauren / Mathieu, John E. / Kukenberger, Michael R. (2016): A Meta-Analysis of Different Forms of Shared Leadership–Team Performance Relations. Journal of Management 42 (7), pp. 1964-1991. doi: 10.1177/0149206314525205

Drucker, Peter F. (1954): The Practice of Management (1st Harper business edition 1993); New York: HarperCollins (first published 1954).

Drucker, Peter F. (1973): Management – Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices (new Harper business edition 1993), New York: HarperCollins (first published 1973).

Dunham, Randall B. / Pierce, Jon L. (1989): Management (6th edition). Jon Lepley.

Fayol, Henri (1916): General and Industrial Management (English edition 1949); London: Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons Ltd (first published in French in “bulletin de la société de l’industrie minérale” 1916).

Folger, Robert / Stein, Christopher (2017): Abduction 101 – Reasoning processes to aid discovery. Human Resource Management Review 27, pp. 306-315.

Griffin Ricky W. (2013): Management – Principles and Practices (11th international edition). Cengage Learning South-Western.

Grundeis, Jens / Kaehler, Boris (2018): Corporate Governance – Zur Notwendigkeit einer Konturschärfung und betriebswirtschaftlichen Erweiterung des Begriffsverständnisses; Der Betrieb 1½018. pp. 585-592.

Gulati, Ranjay / Mayo Anthony J. / Nohrian, N. (2017): Management – An Integrated Approach. Boston: Cengage Learning.

Gutenberg, Erich (1981): Concepts and Functions of Organizations; International Studies of Management & Organization Vol. XI (1), pp. 26-32.

Halpin, Andrew W. / Winer, B. James (1957): A Factorial Study of the Leader Behavior Descriptions; in Stockdill, Ralph M. / Coons, Alvin E. (eds.): Leader Behavior – Its Description and Measurement; Ohio State University Business Research 1957; pp. 39-51.

Hammer, Michael / Champy, James (1993): Reengineering the Corporation – A Manifesto for Business Revolution (1st edition). New York: Harper Business.

Hilb, Martin (2008): New Corporate Governance – Successful Board Management Tools. (3rd edition). Berlin: Springer.

Hitt, Michael A. / Black, J. Stewart / Porter, Lyman W. (2012): Management“ (3rd edition). New Jersey: Pearson.

Hunt, James G. (1991): Leadership – A New Synthesis; Newbury Park: Sage.

Jones, Gareth R. / George, Jennifer M. (2018): Contemporary Management (10th edition). New York: McGraw-Hill Education ()

Kaehler, Boris (2017): Komplementäre Führung – Ein praxiserprobtes Modell der Personalführung in Organisationen. (2nd ed.). Wiesbaden: Springer Gabler.

Kerr, Steven / Jermier, John M. (1978) Substitutes for Leadership – Their Meaning and Measurement; Organizational Behavior and Human Performance 22, pp. 375–403. doi: 10.1.1.463.5909

Kerr, Steven / Jermier, John M. (1997) Substitutes for Leadership: Their Meaning and Measurement – Contextual Recollections and Current Observations; Leadership Quarterly 2 (8), pp. 95–101. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.93.2.317

Kinicki, Angelo/Williams, Brian K. (2018): Management – A Practical Introduction (8th edition); New York: McGraw-Hill 2018.

Koontz, Harold (1961): The Management Theory Jungle; Journal of the Academy of Management, December, pp. 174-188. doi: 10.2307/254541

Kosiol, Erich (1962): Organisation der Unternehmung. Wiesbaden: Gabler.

Kotter, John P. (1990a): A Force for Change – How Leadership Differs from Management. New York: The Free Press.

- Kotter, John P. (1990b):** What Leaders Really Do. Harvard Business Review, 68 (3), pp. 103-111. doi: 10.1109/EMR.2009.5235494
- Lord, Robert G. / Maher, Karen J. (1991):** Leadership and Information Processing – Linking Perceptions and Performance. Volume 1 People and Organizations. Boston: Unwin Hyman.
- Malik Fredmund (2000):** Managing Performing Living: Effective Management for a New Era (English edition 2006). Frankfurt am Main: Campus (first published in German 2000).
- Mintzberg, Henry (1973):** The Nature of Managerial Work. New York: Harper & Row.
- Mintzberg, Henry (2009a):** Managing. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Mintzberg, Henry. (2009b):** What Managers Really Do. Wall Street Journal August 17, 2009. <http://www.mintzberg.org/sites/default/files/article/download/mgrsreallydo.pdf>. Accessed February 12, 2018.
- Montana, Patrick J./Charnov, Bruce H. (2008):** Management (4th edition). New York: Barron's Educational Series.
- Naylor, John (2004):** Management (2nd edition). Essex: Pearson Education/Prentice Hall.
- Parker Follett, Mary (1925):** The Giving of Orders; in Metcalf, Henry C. / Urwick, L.: Dynamic administration – The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follett; New York: Harper & Brothers (text first published in 1925); pp. 50-70.
- Pearce, Craig L. / Conger, Jay A. (2003) (eds.):** Shared Leadership – Reframing the Hows and Whys of Leadership“; Sage.
- Robbins, Stephen P./Coulter, Mary (2005):** Management (8th edition). New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Robbins, Stephen P. / Coulter, Mary (2016):** Management (13th global edition). Essex: Pearson Education.
- Robertson, Brian J. (2015):** Holacracy – The Revolutionary Management System That Abolishes Hierarchy. London: Portfolio Penguin.
- Rosenstiel, Lutz von (2011):** Employee Behavior in Organizations – On the Current State of Research. Management Revue 22 (4), pp. 344-366. doi 10.1688/1861-9908_mrev_2011_04_Rosenstiel
- Rosenstiel, Lutz von (2014):** Grundlagen der Führung. In Rosenstiel, Lutz / Regnet, Erika / Domsch, Michel E. (ed): Führung von Mitarbeitern – Handbuch für erfolgreiches Personalmanagement. Stuttgart: Schäffer-Poeschel, pp 3-28.
- Rüegg-Stürm, Johannes / Grand, Simon (2003):** Das neue St. Galler Management-Modell – Der HSG-Ansatz (2nd edition). Bern: Verlag Paul Haupt.
- Rüegg-Stürm, Johannes / Grand, Simon (2015):** The St. Gallen Management Model – English Translation of the Fourth Generation of the German Text. Bern: Verlag Paul Haupt.
- Schermerhorn, John R. Jr. (2005):** Management (8th edition); Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons.
- Stoner, James A.F. / Freeman, R. Edward / Gilbert, Daniel R. Jr. (1995):** Management (6th edition). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall International Editions.
- Taylor, Frederick W. (1911):** Shop Management (new edition 2008). Nu Vision Publications (first published 1911).
- Ulrich, Hans / Krieg, Werner (1973):** Das St. Galler Management-Modell. Bern: Verlag Paul Haupt.
- Williams, Chuck (2018):** MGMT10 – Principles of Management (10th edition). Cengage Learning (Boston).

Wunderer, Rolf (2001): Employees as "co-intrapreneurs" – a transformation concept. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal* 22 (5), pp. 193-211. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000005676>

Wunderer, Rolf (2011): Führung und Zusammenarbeit – Eine unternehmerische Führungslehre (9th edition); Köln: Luchterhand.

Yukl, Gary (2013): *Leadership in Organizations* (8th ed.). London: Pearson.

Zaleznik, Abraham (1977): Managers and Leaders – Are They Different? *Harvard Business Review* 55, pp. 67-76; doi: 10.1097/00005110-198107000-00005