
ARTÍCULO PRODUCTO DE INVESTIGACIÓN

Directions and trends in management theory

Orientaciones y tendencias en la teoría de la gestión

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Abstract

The article analyzes the significance of classical management theories in the context of dynamic changes in the modern economy, emphasizing their impact on current managerial practices. The research uses a critical literature review to understand the role of key figures in classical management, such as Robert Owen, Charles Babbage, and Frederick W. Taylor, and their contribution to the organization of work and the effectiveness of enterprises. The evolution of managerial thought is presented, including classical management theories, such as the theory of interpersonal relations and quantitative theories. Contemporary integrative approaches, such as systemic and situational theories, are also identified, which allow for better adaptation of management methods to changing market realities. The research indicates that despite the passage of time, classical theories still constitute the foundation for contemporary management concepts, such as reengineering, benchmarking, outsourcing, and lean management. It also indicates the need for further analysis of these theories in the context of new technologies and innovations and their adaptation to digitalization. The conclusions drawn from the undertaken subject show that classical management theories have a significant

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impact on the effectiveness of modern organizations. Their development should be continued to adapt to the challenges resulting from technological progress and changes in the market environment.

Keywords: reengineering, benchmarking, outsourcing, management theories, enterprise management

Resumen

El artículo analiza la importancia de las teorías clásicas de gestión en el contexto de los cambios dinámicos de la economía moderna, haciendo hincapié en su impacto en las prácticas de gestión actuales. La investigación utiliza una revisión crítica de la literatura para comprender el papel de figuras clave de la gestión clásica, como Robert Owen, Charles Babbage y Frederick W. Taylor, y su contribución a la organización del trabajo y la eficacia de las empresas. Se presenta la evolución del pensamiento gerencial, incluidas las teorías clásicas de gestión, como la teoría de las relaciones interpersonales y las teorías cuantitativas. También se identifican enfoques integradores contemporáneos, como las teorías sistémicas y situacionales, que permiten una mejor adaptación de los métodos de gestión a las realidades cambiantes del mercado. La investigación indica que, a pesar del paso del tiempo, las teorías clásicas siguen constituyendo la base de los conceptos de gestión contemporáneos, como la reingeniería, el benchmarking, la externalización y la gestión ajustada. También indica la necesidad de seguir analizando estas teorías en el contexto de las nuevas tecnologías e innovaciones y su adaptación a la digitalización. Las conclusiones extraídas del tema tratado muestran que las teorías clásicas de gestión tienen un impacto significativo en la eficacia de las organizaciones modernas. Su desarrollo debe continuar para adaptarse a los retos que plantean los avances tecnológicos y los cambios en el entorno de mercado.

Palabras clave: Reingeniería, benchmarking, externalización, teorías de gestión, gestión empresarial

Introduction

In the face of dynamic changes in the economic environment and market requirements, the importance of management theories, including classical ones, is becoming increasingly visible, and the knowledge associated with them is gaining relevance. Classical approaches to management, whose researchers and inventors were outstanding individuals such as Robert Owen, Charles Babbage and Frederick W. Taylor, had a fundamental influence on the development of organizational sciences and practices and on how structures or processes in enterprises are thought about. These theories focused on the rationalization of work, focusing on efficiency and savings, which provided an answer to the challenges related to the first waves of industrialization.

In this article, using the research method of critical literature analysis, an attempt was made to analyze classical management theories, which, despite the passage of time, still constitute a solid foundation for contemporary managerial practices. In addition to presenting key figures and their ideas, the focus was on the directions of scientific work organization developed at that time, as well as on the administrative theory of management. The influence of these theories on many contemporary management concepts was also examined, from *reengineering*, through *benchmarking* and *outsourcing*, to methods such as *lean management* and time management.

The following parts of the article also present the evolution of management thought, paying attention to the research methods used in the analyses and to the problems that emerged at the beginning of the 20th century in the context of employee behaviour.

It is crucial to understand how classical theories still influence contemporary thinking about management and how they can help in adapting to new conditions and challenges faced by organizations in the era of digitalization, Revolution 4.0. The aim of the considerations was not only to capture the essence of classical theories but also to prove their relevance and usefulness in the context of contemporary management principles.

1. Classical management theories

Babbage (1792-1871) is considered to be the forerunner of the classical trend in management sciences. R. Owen is seen as the "father of British socialism" (Siméon, 2012), who reformed the working hour system and the rules for employing young people, and also introduced a system of competition and employee evaluation, which made it easier to identify problem areas in factories (Owen, 1948, pp. 183-185). In his time, R. Owen built model workers' villages. He provided employees with decent sanitary facilities and established schools for children. He was interested in the well-being of his staff (Malik, 2009). He created a humanitarian platform for production workers.

Babbage was a supporter of the modernization of work organization. Using mathematical statistics, he defined the principle of the division of labour, which consisted in closely linking work with the employee's specialization. The justification included information on time savings and measurable economic benefits. Specialists achieved significantly greater efficiency and used the tools entrusted to them in a better way (Ónday, 2016, p. 34). He tried to prove these observations during his research, drawing attention to the large disproportions between mechanized and traditional work. At the beginning of the period of industrialization, he indicated the need to introduce a new organization of the production process, which would be based on the principle of a prudent division of labour. This researcher stated that ensuring the rational use of machines in industry would allow for the separation of factories and distinguishing them from manufactories. In the published work entitled " *On the Economy of Manufactures and Machinery* " (1832), the first standards of the new organization and management of the manufacturing business appeared (Babbage, 2009, p. 14).

Already at the beginning of the 20th century, attempts were made to eliminate unnecessary activities from work by implementing methodologies and performance indicators. The year 1903 turned out to be important for management practice, when W.F. Taylor (1856-1915) presented his theory, claiming that work organization should be solved on the basis of scientific facts and not left to human intuition (Christiansen, Chandan, 2017, pp. 34-36).

WF Taylor's concept was born as a result of his experiences, which he gained while working in various positions, also as a worker. He designed his management system based on the analysis of the duration of the production cycle on the assembly line. This researcher proposed several theses, which talk about what should be applied to improve the quality and efficiency of work (Payne, Youngcourt, Watrous, 1995, pp. 218-222):

- . the precise method of training and selecting employees,
- . scientific techniques of personnel management,
- . scientific methods for determining the principles of cooperation between management and workers,
- . full control of workers in terms of work efficiency and compliance with procedures,
- . planning and scientific approach to organizing work with the burden of responsibility of the unit's management.

H. Turan emphasized in his studies that scientific management is a revolution of productivity that removes the disharmony of capitalism and also prevents poverty of the working class. The person who started this revolution was W.F. Taylor (in Turan, 2015, p. 1103). The period about which H. Turan wrote was marked by liberalism, capitalism and individualism in North America and Europe. It was a period when production based on productivity was gaining importance. It was an era in which human behaviour was ignored (Hodgetts, Greenwood, 1995, pp. 218-222).

The classical trend has developed a view based on examining specific cases, and with it the so-called "new wave" has emerged, whose supporters value the most in management those factors that emphasize the employee's initiative (Szarecki, 2012, p. 252). The psycho-sociological trend has resulted in explaining, at least partially, problems related to motivation and building a broadly understood theory of motivation, linked to the achievements of social psychology in the field of managing people, leadership, controlling negotiations, profiling

formal and informal groups, as well as in the field of resolving conflicts (Madalina, 2016, pp. 807-814).

1.1 Scientific and administrative work organization

The directions of scientific work organization appeared with the growing knowledge of scientific management among managers at the beginning of the 20th century. At that time, scientific management was introduced in two hundred American enterprises, due to the period of rebellions, these were mainly factories (Nelson, 1992, pp. 88-91). H. Ford's production managers adopted the principles of scientific management in the years 1908-1914. As a result, the modified methodology of Ford's Fordism was promoted on an international scale (Waddell, Jones, George, 2013, pp. 5-27, 37-55). The direction of scientific work organization was also supported by A. Marshall (after Nelson, 1992, p. 92). In his publication from 1919, he analyzed scientific management, specifying its implications and limitations. This view gained great popularity in the then-Soviet Union, where Taylor's theory was found to be a noteworthy feature of scientific management teaching (after Nelson, 1992, p. 77).

Already at the end of the 19th century, scientific management appeared in one of the foundries in Great Britain. Several innovative management techniques were implemented at that time, such as (Pindur, Rogers, 1994, p. 60):

- . workflow planning,
- . market research and forecasts,
- . planning the location of the area for production halls,
- . production planning,
- . standardization of the product and its components.

Sociological and socio-psychological factors related to positive effects in business management can be divided into external and internal (Duncan, 1971, pp. 64-69). V. Sorenson (1964, p. 138) classified the company variables as:

- . Results,
- . set of variables,
- . behavioural variables.

The variables listed above have an impact on the decisions and actions taken by the company to achieve specific results. V. Sorenson stated that companies operate to achieve financial benefits that arise when the company makes appropriate decisions and actions related to the elements of marketing, pricing, promotion, organization and production or services. To achieve the desired results, behavioural variables can be properly manipulated by the company. The results that the company achieves include the level of profits, costs, market power, organizational adjustment and market penetration (Sorenson, 1964, pp. 138-140).

The scientific trend focused primarily on improving all activities carried out in the enterprise, dealing mainly with workers. It was associated with the issues of organizing the work process in space and time, but also with ensuring appropriate resources with their proper use. On the other hand, the administrative trend examined the principles of desk work. This theory was based on the experience and observations of officials, which provided the foundation for administrative management principles. The achievements of the scientific trend concerned the modification of work performed by individual employees, and the achievements of the administrative trend focused on universal rules that could be applied in any enterprise. Both approaches were placed in the principle of causality, thanks to which it was possible to break down complex issues into much simpler ones and look for principles of influence on selected phenomena (Bacud, 2020, pp. 162-163).

Classical management theories, in addition to scientific and administrative work organization, also include behavioural schools, the main trend of which was the theory of interpersonal

relations (psychosocial trend), as well as quantitative schools. This classical management movement had the following two assumptions: general administrative management and scientific management (Pindur, Rogers, 1994, p. 60). The administrative management trend studied enterprises as a whole, focusing on ways to make them more efficient and effective. Scientific management, on the other hand, focused on methods of improving productivity (1895-1940) (Pindur, Rogers, 1994, pp. 60-61). It should be noted that in recent years there has been a revival of interest in this classical management theory, as a technique for increasing productivity, reducing costs and re-examining the efficiency and effectiveness of organizations (Onday, 2016, pp. 83-94).

1.2 Theory of human relations

Classical management theories, such as scientific and administrative, were popular, but there were situations when, despite following the principles of these theories, the desired effects were not achieved, for example, there was no relationship between efficiency and the pay system, and it was impossible to predict the reactions of employees motivating management actions. For this reason, managers began to look for other incentives than wages that could affect the efficiency of workers (Baloch, 2019, pp. 156-169).

The school of interpersonal relations focuses on models that understand interpersonal communication as one of the phenomena of social psychology, which is understood as modelling communication processes in terms of complex influence on processes functioning at the intrapersonal level, as well as at the interpersonal level. At the intrapersonal level, communication includes processes that enable participants to understand and create messages. In turn, at the interpersonal level, processes are created that cause participants to simultaneously influence each other. The sociological-psychological school of interpersonal relations aims to explain how these sets of processes interact (Krauss, Fussell, 1995, pp. 8-9).

The beginning of the new thinking appeared in the years 1924-1933 in the Chicago area, where E. Mayo together with his associates (W. Dickson, F.J. Roethlisberger) conducted many

experiments, which showed from the very beginning that employees took the opinions of their co-workers to heart. It turned out that the role of this kind of interpersonal relations in work was more important than higher wages. Moreover, the interest of management in employees was treated as a kind of distinction (the Hawthorne effect) (Bramel, Friend, 1981, pp. 867-878).

These studies directed further research processes to the non-economic area, including social needs (contact with the group, belonging, recognition), as well as to the significant relationship between efficiency and job satisfaction, which in effect showed that the attitude of management towards employees has a significant impact on the well-being of subordinates. The researcher justified the results of the experiment with the following factors: the role of informal relations between employees and the interference of management with a given group of employees, which influenced its behaviour. This gave rise to interest in interpersonal relations prevailing in companies (Chiesa, Hobbs, 2008, pp. 67-74).

Another representative of the human relations school was D. McGregor, who in 1960 presented two ways of thinking about employees, calling them Theory X and Theory Y. Supervisors who unconsciously accepted the assumptions of Theory X claimed that: people try to avoid work whenever possible and do not like it, and managers, if they want to persuade them to perform their duties, should carry out constant checks, threaten employees with punishment in case of disobedience, and workers prefer to be directed, do not want to take any responsibility themselves. They have no ambitions and only want to be safe in their current positions (McGregor, 1960, pp. 204-208).

McGregor noted that the assumptions of Theory X fit well with the representatives of scientific management. He opposed a different set of claims, which he called Theory Y, whose basic assumptions concern the following circumstances (McGregor, 1960, p. 207):

- . People like work, which is a natural part of life,
- . employees commit to the goals set for them to an extent proportional to the personal rewards they receive for achieving them,
- . each staff member has an internal motivation to carry out tasks as long as they feel connected to them,
- . inappropriate conditions, employees themselves strive to take responsibility,
- . people most often use only part of their talents because they do not have the conditions to demonstrate them at work,
- . employees have an innate tendency towards innovation and creativity.

Managers who report increases in revenues, innovation and decreases in overhead costs are more likely to apply Theory Y (Arslan, Staub, 2013, p. 103). An example of implementing Theory Y was Procter & Gamble ², which in 1950, striving to minimize costs, created work rules that allowed for maximizing efficiency (Schein, 1999, pp. 97-112).

When Japanese companies began operating in the American market (1950-1960), many American workers and managers wanted to work for them because they believed they would be willing to learn the most effective ways to work in a team (for which the Japanese were famous at the time), with respect for their dignity. Workers felt that at work and in private they were one big family. Although it sometimes happened that whole groups of American workers were laid off from one day to the next, the system of interpersonal relations worked without any problems during the work, according to Theory Y (Trice, Beyer, 1993, pp. 283-328).

In human resources management, it turned out to be important to enable company decision-makers to achieve success in local and global markets with the significant participation of employed employees.

²A global capital group headquartered in Cincinnati, Ohio, USA. It manufactures consumer goods (cosmetics and personal hygiene products) (Annual Report, 2010).

It has become necessary to induce such employee behaviours that will lead to the realization of the organization's goals. Most often, human resources management, in addition to employment planning, recruitment and selection, professional adaptation, employee and manager evaluation, motivation, training and development, aims to shape proper interpersonal relations in the enterprise.

1.3 Quantitative theories

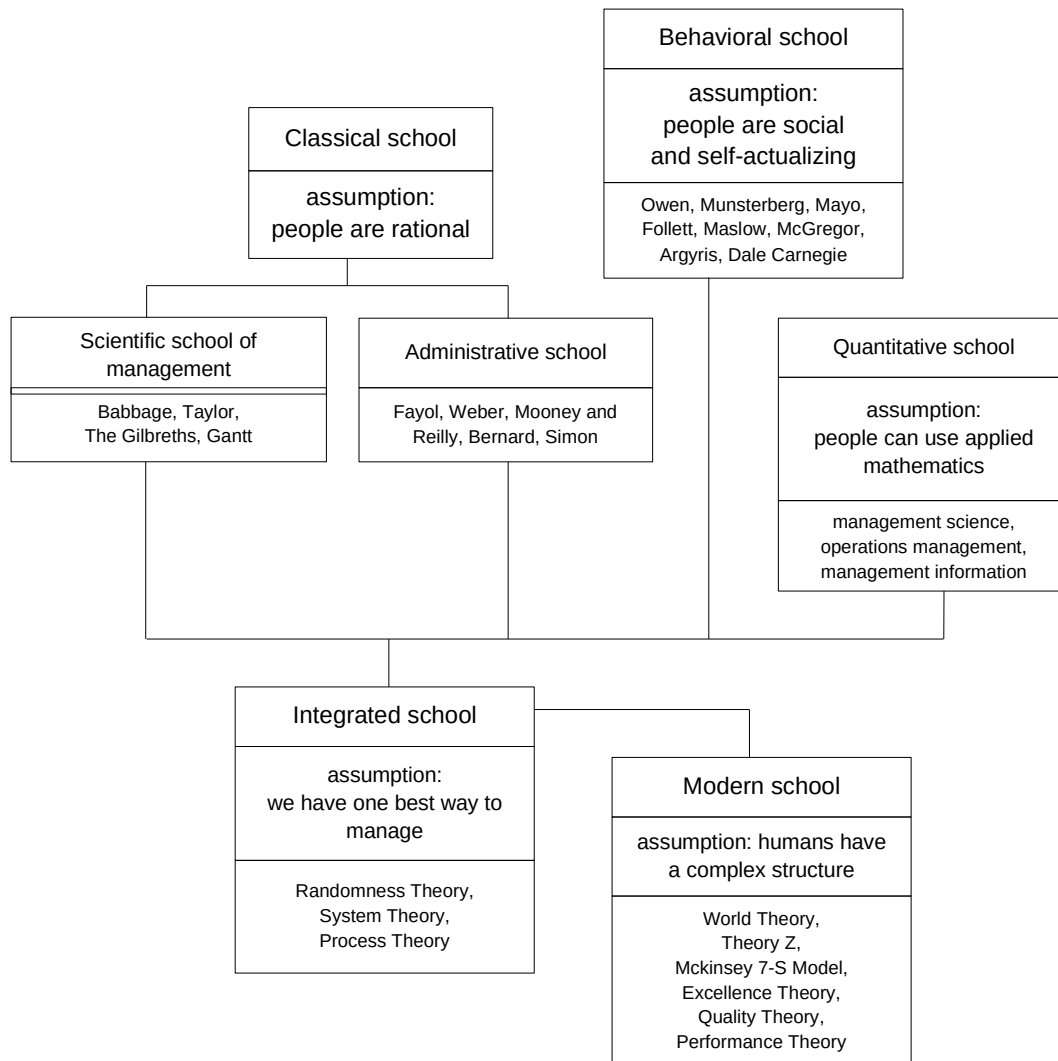
The quantitative approach mainly consists of determining a number of measurable factors in the organization and comparing them to a previously established model. Based on the obtained results, decisions are made in the field of organization management. This system was created in the fifties of the last century and was first introduced by R. McNamara in the Ford corporation (after Beveridge, 2014, pp. 279-299).

The method is effective when the translation of the actual state into the model state is easy (a few factors are relatively easy to measure). In the current business reality, purely quantitative models are rarely used to manage a company. It is extremely difficult to collect reliable data, select appropriate weights and take into account, for example, human behaviours that are not subject to modelling. However, it can be said that the achievements of the quantitative approach have remained a permanent foundation of contemporary management methods (Rahman, 2016, pp. 105-107).

2. Integrative approaches

The evolution of thought on management can be started by distinguishing schools: classical (the school of scientific management and the administrative school) and behavioural and quantitative – Figure 1.

Figure 1. Merging four (three) schools into an integrated school (Pal, 2011, p. 534)



Source: Author

These three schools merged into an integrated school, which led to the emergence of modern management thought.

In the past, there was a common belief that the management process consists of intuitive knowledge that only a few people endowed with a "divine" talent can acquire. However, the advent of the Industrial Revolution and the resulting growth of trade and industry forced the

need for expanded research on management. The development of classical schools of management released a multidimensional view of the problems of organizations' management and employees. The achievements of the administrative, scientific, behavioural and quantitative approaches should not be mutually exclusive, and the presented assumptions can constitute the basis for the further development of this scientific discipline. The search for ways to integrate the classical achievements led to the separation of the systemic and situational direction (McNamara, 2009, pp. 63-77).

2.1 System theories

In the systems theory, attention is paid to the dynamic nature of various subsystems of an organization and the relationships between them. The idea is that the actions of one part of the organization affect the functioning of the other parts, while changes in one subsystem affect the remaining components of the organization (Daryani, 2012, pp. 71-79). The systems approach is derived from the general systems theory, which was initiated by L. von Bertalanffy (1901-1972) and N. Wiener (1894-1964). The development of systems theory in the field of management theory began in the 1950s. It stemmed directly from the trend of social systems theory, which was initiated by T. Parsons (1902-1979). In the structure of social action, T. Parsons developed the following three interrelated motifs (after Thomas, Weber, 2006, p. 403):

- . Classical social theory,
- . the detection of theoretical convergence towards a voluntaristic theory of action,
- . linking the importance of an individual's social action and integration functions.

T. Parsons' theory (1951, p. 21) assumes that classical social theory is not able to present a description of the functioning of organizations in terms of positivist and rationalist epistemology without contradicting its assumptions, because classical theories assume that economic actors are selfish, satisfying only their needs (Savage, 1981, pp. 16-30). T. Parsons

argued that classical theories cannot explain the social order, because for economic entities the use of fraud or force is completely rational. Although classical economic theory partially solved this problem, using the theory of interpersonal cooperation, T. Parsons, criticizing these illegal strategies, invented the idea of "residual category" (after Thomas, Weber, 2006, pp. 383-424).

The basic norms of the systemic approach include the following principles (Thomas, Weber, 2006, p. 386):

- . a holistic view of the organization, which is more than just a simple sum of various organizational elements,
- . suboptimization, where improvements to a subsystem do not lead to improvements in the performance of the entire system,
- . asymmetry of impact, which assumes that the entire system has a greater impact on the organization than its elements,
- . awareness of recognizing connections in the organizational system.

This approach focuses on treating the organization as a unified, purposeful social system composed of interconnected parts.

2.2 Situational theories

Situational theories in contemporary organizations have not been sufficiently popularized. The justification for the development of the situational trend was first presented in the 1960s by H. Sherman (1966, pp. 174-175). This author noted that achieving a perfect organizational structure is not impossible, because management techniques that are effective in one situation turn out to be unreliable in another. H. Sherman proved that no management science includes only completely positive or negative patterns of action. Managers should perform an appropriate diagnosis of the situation in which the use of appropriate tools will bring the desired effects. This approach is therefore characterized by pragmatism and relativism

(Adamska-Chudzińska, 2020, p. 218). Pragmatism determines actions, giving them a dimension that depends on time and purpose and on values, as well as the current situation. On the other hand, relativism occurs in the assessment of the organization's achievements in the environment of a given situation. For this reason, the situational approach is dynamic and requires proper analysis and each time adjustment of the solution to the current operational situation, which should help managers not only understand the differences and circumstances but also respond to them appropriately (Luthans, Stewart, 1977, pp. 182-183). In other words, situational theories assume adjustment of the management method to a specific situation, environment and internal conditions.

This means that in an organization, one should not look for just one, even the best, management method that would always be effective, but look for a so-called situational point of view that helps understand the differences in management resulting from specific situations (Staehle, 1976, pp. 59-69). According to H. Sherman, the situational approach shows that in practical management there are no absolutely good or absolutely bad patterns, methods or techniques. This author justifies his claim by saying that it is not possible to create an ideal organization that would be adapted to every time, goal, value, or other event, for example, various random situations (after Adamska-Chudzińska, 2020, pp. 214-227). In this situation, according to the situational approach, the role of the manager should be to recognize the given conditions and then to adjust (to these conditions) their actions to achieve the desired results. Similarly, G. Morgan observes the situational approach as the adaptation of the company to the conditions created by the environment. This author formulated the following four assumptions for this trend (after Digha, 2014, pp. 201-205):

- . there is no single best way to organize. The choice of solution in a given situation depends on the goals, tasks and environmental conditions,
- . organizations are not closed systems, on the contrary, they require management that balances their internal needs with the need to constantly adapt to the needs of the external environment,
- . the diversity of environmental conditions requires knowledge of different management approaches, including the use of different structural solutions of the organization,

. the primary goal of management should be to ensure a good fit between the organization and the environment.

PR Lawrence and JW Lorsch (1967, pp. 4-11) associate situational theories with the decisive influence of external conditions on various structural activities occurring in organizations. These authors present the following conclusions in this respect:

- . organizations operating in unstable conditions operate more effectively if their organizational structures are little formalized and largely decentralized, with diversified tasks,
- . companies operating in stable conditions operate more effectively if their organizational structures are formalized and there is greater centralization in decision-making,
- . the best solution at a given moment depends on too many factors, hence optimal structural solutions are not possible,
- . in the case of stable solutions in terms of production technology, centralized organizational solutions are optimal, whereas, in technologically unstable conditions, decentralized forms should be used,
- . modern organizations are moving away from formal schemes or traditional organizational structures in favour of individualized ones, adjusted to external and internal operating conditions.

The situational approach to management is therefore based on concluding observations of the surrounding reality. Direct cause-effect interactions are not sought, but the results of the organization's behaviour are examined. This approach is practical, with the role of managers who should be aware of the complexity of each management situation.

3. Modern management concepts

Management concepts and methods are subject to constant change, following the variability of the environment. Technological progress and constantly new customer expectations have significantly limited the use of models that work well in mass production. As a result of these

changes, companies began to look for savings, developing management concepts, methods and tools to eliminate waste. This package was called *the Toyota Production System* (Lean Management) (Fritze, 2016, p. 2) and became a typical model of companies specialized in industries, focused on new technologies, taking advantage of opportunities with a long life cycle.

In the aspect of the contemporary emerging management concepts, the most emphatic opinion was expressed by M. Hammer and J. Champy, who recommended ignoring all the rules previously applicable in organizations and management, and instead developing a new, process-oriented business organization that should achieve a quantum leap forward in terms of efficiency (Hammer, Champy, 1995, p. 32). They called their concept *Business Process Reengineering* (BPR).

3.1 Reengineering

According to M. Hammer and J. Champy Reengineering is the radical redesign of business processes, as a result of fundamental rethinking, to achieve dramatic improvements in process performance in terms of cost, quality, service, and speed (Hammer, Champy, 1995, p. 33). Fundamental rethinking means answering the following question: why should it be done and why in this particular way? Radical redesign, on the other hand, can be interpreted as the opposite of superficial redesign. The process is about reshaping the enterprise, not just improving or modifying it. When we talk about dramatic improvement, we mean incremental amounts, not just small increments.

M. Vakola, interpreting the thought of the above-mentioned authors, believes that managers focus their attention on tasks, and ignore the processes that take place as a result of which the customer receives a product of a given value. In every company, a certain hierarchy of processes can be distinguished, for example: subprocesses, main processes and megaprocesses. In subprocesses, a specific level of efficiency is taken care of. In main processes, efficiency is increased, while in mega processes, the aim will be a radical change

of the process, i.e. reengineering (Vakola, 1999, pp. 13-15). Megaprocesses consist of supply, production, services, employees and customers, i.e. all functions of the company. Changing the orientation of the organization from function to process enables the use of systemic thinking and action, and consequently, a more complete satisfaction of customer needs (Stadelmann, Lux, 1995, p. 33).

Reengineering has divided the world of managers and management theorists into strong supporters and categorical opponents of reengineering. Supporters claim that this concept enables holistic thinking and action, as well as increased efficiency and shortened process duration. Opponents, on the other hand, note the following weak points: during the implementation of this concept, an authoritarian management style appears and employees are omitted (during reorganization), there are very high costs of its implementation, it causes strong resistance from employees to omitting the cultural aspect (Stadelmann, Lux, 1995, p. 35).

3.2 Benchmarking

The concept of benchmarking comes from the innate human desire to imitate and match the better, to compete, to compete. It is a certain point of reference, allowing us to find out where a given company is. Many authors provide different definitions of benchmarking, for example, AG Goncharuk et al. provide successive stages of understanding this phenomenon (Goncharuk, Lazareva, Alsharf, 2015, pp. 28-29):

- . redesign or retrospective analysis of products based on competitive comparative tests (turn of the 1970s/1980s),
- . comparing oneself with companies that are successful in the market (late 1980s),
- . introducing into the company processes for evaluating effective strategies developed by other organizations (early 21st century),
- . benchmarking, as a tool for exchanging experiences, taking into account international processes (modern years).

PH Meade explains benchmarking as a formal and structured research process leading to excellent results through observation and exchange of information about these studies and then adapting them to the needs of one's organization (Meade, 2007, pp. 4-5). Z. Martyniak (1996, p. 331) cites the following definitions of the benchmarking method:

- . searching among other companies for the most efficient methods for a given activity,
- . comparing products or services with their equivalents in competing companies,
- . learning from others and using their experience,
- . evaluation of products, services or methods in the light of competitive achievements in a given industry.

Benchmarking can compare structures, goals, products, components, services, employee activity and many other features that will create a specific and general picture of the company and its products against the background of other companies. On this basis, the following three types of benchmarking activities can be distinguished: functional, competition-oriented and internal. The first method, functional benchmarking, allows for relatively cheap finding of innovative solutions and this purpose, activates the staff to search for new ideas. However, due to time-consuming analysis, problems with comparability and difficulties related to the implementation of new ideas or technologies, this benchmarking model is not widely recognized. On the other hand, competition-oriented benchmarking allows for determining one's position on the market, high acceptance by the staff and obtaining information on the comparability of products, which is not easy in practice. The third method, internal benchmarking, allows for easy access to information to be compared, but as a result, the results can be very subjective and often misleading (Goncharuk et al., 2015, pp. 31-32).

One of the limitations of the use of benchmarking is the search for ideal solutions by companies, which does not occur in practice. Selecting a partner and its analysis also poses great difficulties, because no ideal indicators are used in which it is possible to select a model partner or determine the best process. Access to information is also of great importance, which

is often blocked due to the competitiveness of companies. In such a case, organizations can exchange sensitive information (Pieske, 1994, p. 21).

Some authors point out the value of comparisons between companies, which are made using specific parameters, and these do not allow for discovering the whole truth about the partner, for example, they do not show the differences between the partner's practice and one's own. As a result, there is no certainty that success will be achieved, and one can suffer large losses. The use of benchmarking at the operational level is less risky than at the strategic level (Fuser, 1999, p. 95).

3.3 Outsourcing

The concept of outsourcing appeared in the eighties of the last century, as "external resources", "using external sources". M. Trotsky provided the following definition of outsourcing: "it is an undertaking which consists in excluding from the organizational structure of an enterprise the functions performed by it and transferring them to external economic entities for execution" (Trotsky, 2001, p. 13). Outsourcing therefore consists in transferring one or more business processes to an external supplier or in using services provided by a third party (Dad, Scholar, 2013, p. 92).

Outsourcing is a new approach to supply, which consists in abandoning the production of small components in favour of the most important ones. The remaining components are supplied by business partners. Supply relations have therefore been subordinated to the company's strategy (Eversheim et al., 1993, pp. 82-83). Suppliers have found themselves in a completely new situation, which is characterized by the following features (Fredriksson, 2011, pp. 15-17):

- . Deliveries are accompanied by certain services, such as maintaining machinery and equipment in operation,
- . the range of products supplied changes from simple, individual parts to complex components,

. and the way suppliers work is changing, as they begin to focus on solving problems rather than just seeing them.

Outsourcing enables a company to smoothly go through seasonal fluctuations and also contributes to better use of its potential over time (Eversheim et al., 1993, p. 83). Despite this, many companies do not use outsourcing because they want to have the largest possible share in a given product, which is mainly explained by the fact that cooperators will not ensure the highest quality of manufactured products. The participation of external parts in products causes the company's brand to be "blurred" and the company loses its own identity.

When part of the outsourcing services is transferred to another country, then it is said that the so-called offshoring has taken place, which can take place in the form of internal activities, by a foreign branch of the company or external - by a foreign partner (Oczkowska, 2012, pp. 180-188). Both outsourcing and offshoring are most often used to reduce the costs of the company's operations, an additional advantage of these management concepts is the reduction of risk associated with technological progress, as well as the development of core activities and the acquisition of resources that the company did not have, for example, knowledge (Corbett, 2004, p. 11).

3.4 Lean management

The term "Lean management" was born in Japan around 1978 and referred to the Japanese car production system (Worley, Doolen, 2006, pp. 228-245). The meaning of this management method is understood in various ways, for example, as the systematic removal of waste from all areas of the organization by all its members; as a management system that brings the best results in the long term; as a socio-technical system that aims to eliminate waste by simultaneously reducing or minimizing internal, supplier and customer variability; as a system of continuous reduction of waste in the company, resource optimization and establishment of a certain corporate culture that involves increasing customer satisfaction; it can also be a

system that requires less time, lower costs, less human effort or fewer errors (Jedynak, 2015, pp. 51-64).

By eliminating waste, production resources are freed up that can be used for other orders. Delivery times are also shortened, financial resources frozen in inventories are freed up, and manufacturing costs are reduced. The characteristic features of the Lean management concept include (Jakubiec, Brodnicka, 2016, p. 93):

- . teamwork,
- . the market nature of production,
- . Total Quality Control,
- . direct contact with suppliers,
- . the way of managing human resources,
- . Simultaneous Engineering,

Teamwork is one of the main conditions of Lean Management, each team member is responsible for the successes and failures of the group, the principles of division of labour are observed, and tasks are changed in each team so that everyone gets to know all the activities performed in the team, remuneration is differentiated in the team depending on qualifications. The market nature of production is based on direct cooperation between sellers and producers. Total Quality Control is based on eliminating errors during assembly and finding their sources. The method of managing human resources is based on: creating an appropriate atmosphere at work, constant exchange of information, ensuring the possibility of improving qualifications, co-decision and initiative of employees, and naturalness of conflicts between employees and the company. The concept of Simultaneous engineering is based on: the parallel development of products and means of production, early market determination of the features of a new product, direct communication between team members, planning and coordination of tasks, including future suppliers and wholesale customers in the creation of a new product (Kobyłeczka, 2007, pp. 47-49).

There are important differences between companies managed according to traditional principles and those managed using the Lean concept in the areas of production, supply and sale, and organization and management—Table 1.

Table 1 Differences between traditionally managed and Lean-managed companies management (Bajjou, Chafi, Ennadi, 2017, pp. 118-132)

Traditionally managed enterprises	Enterprises managed according to lean concepts
specialized plants	plants with variable production processes
orientation towards partial processes	orientation towards product execution
long machine changeover time	short changeover time
long production cycle time	short cycle time
complex and unclear technological processes	very transparent technological processes
cooperation with many suppliers	long-term cooperation with regular suppliers
deliveries are dependent on suppliers	delivery times are set by the manufacturer
recipients have limited influence on processes	recipients are involved in improving processes
extensive organizational hierarchy	flat organizational structure
management based on supervision and control	Supportive management by employees
the limited scope of employee training	permanent training and improvement of qualifications

Source: Author

The group of projects implemented within the Lean Management concept includes decentralization of management, optimization of manufacturing processes, implementation of restructuring projects, improvement of materials and warehouse management, counteracting

production defects, striving to reduce costs and improve professional qualifications of employees, care for high quality, creating the right climate in the organization and stimulating employee motivation (Karim, Arif-Uz-Zaman, 2013, pp. 169-196).

3.5 Time-based management

Time-based management is a management concept based on the following five assumptions (after Mason-Jones, Towill, 1999, pp. 61-73):

- . orientation towards a quantitative leap (small improvements are not enough, the large scale counts),
- . orientation to the time factor,
- . process orientation (optimization of processes, determining where they intersect with functions,
- . team orientation (the team resolves conflicts),
- . value orientation (elimination of conflicts – liquidation of valueless activities).

In many companies, time is an extremely important category. New phenomena in the market cause characteristic changes, such as: shortening the product life cycle and the cycle of preparing new products, changes in sales markets, short supply lead times, increasing productivity, and increased requirements for meeting deadlines (Sapkauskiene, Leitoniene, 2010, pp. 205-213).

Some authors believe that time can give companies a clear competitive advantage (Hässig, 1994, p. 250). Time management itself is not a new phenomenon (H. Ford's just-in-time delivery system (after Wee, Wu, 2009, pp. 335-341)). According to K. Hassig, the concept of time management appeared in parallel with Lean management and reengineering, with the difference that in this concept time became a priority in all areas of the company. The organization's orientation to time began to mean that the company attaches great importance to the implementation of processes "on time" and to the quality of cooperation between the

company's departments, as well as to the understanding of customer requirements in terms of timeliness or punctuality (Hässig, 1994, p. 255).

Time-based management concept, wasting time is a waste. To eliminate it, one should: get rid of warehouses and unnecessary stocks, constantly improve processes and raise the quality of products (Sapkauskiene, Leitoniene, 2010, pp. 205-213).

Conclusion

The directions and trends of contemporary science in the area of management are characterized by many research aspects aimed at developing new theories or concepts - in accordance with the expectations and needs that result from the increasingly rapid transformations in the environment.

The aim of the study included in this article was to analyse various directions and trends in management theory, which will be an introduction to further research on schools and approaches in the area of management.

The article discusses classical management theories, such as: scientific and administrative work organization, human relations theory and quantitative theories, as well as integrative approaches, presented as system and situational theories and contemporary management concepts, including reengineering, benchmarking, outsourcing, lean management, and time management. Based management.

The main research method was the analysis of literature, including foreign ones, which described the phenomena discussed, often supported by empirical research.

Based on the obtained research results, it can be assumed that the area of interest of management sciences will concern directions and trends related to new technologies, innovations and adaptation to work in conditions of deep digitalization.

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