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ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

Organizational behavior is a polydisciplinary branch of knowledge that developed in the second half of the twentieth century. Currently, organizational psychology has become a field of scientific knowledge related to the practice of effective management of modern organizations.

The discipline «Organizational psychology in education» reveals the theoretical foundations of human behaviour in social organized systems of various types and levels of organization, the essence, principles, patterns and methods of organizing human activity and behavior in such communities, as well as the features of the implementation of various types of organizational activities related to pedagogical practice.

Actual changes occurring with people and organizations, the emergence of new types of organizations, and a change in the behavioral paradigm to a humanistic one necessitate the development and implementation in practice of models of organizational behavior that meet the requirements of the time. These models embody the ideas of partnership (from intra-organizational to international), teamwork, involvement, self-control, orientation to the satisfaction of higher-order needs, self-realization, and development of corporate culture.

Recently, there has been an acute understanding of the need to study the characteristics of cross-cultural, gender, confessional differences and their impact on organizational behavior in multinational companies and projects, when developing methods for increasing the effectiveness of intercultural interaction, adaptation, motivation, leadership, and decision-making.

Purpose studying the academic discipline «Organizational psychology in education» is the acquisition of theoretical knowledge, skills and abilities to solve professional problems in the field of organizational work (in particular educational, teaching, leisure, etc.), the ability to participate in the management of individual, group constructive behavior of people or a program of organizational change in educational organizations. The academic discipline has practice-oriented character and is intended for the effective development of various communicative and organizational competencies of undergraduates.

The main *objectives* of studying the discipline:

- professional familiarity with the content of the «Organizational Psychology in Education» program with a view to using it in managing change at the organizational level;
- formation of skills for the development of corporate culture and a system of professional communication in organizations of the educational system;
- acquiring practical skills to improve and transform functional organizational structures;
- mastering techniques for analyzing the degree of influence of internal and external factors on people, the influence of organizational, socio-psychological, administrative technologies for managing behavior in an organization;
- analysis of the consequences of the use of specific individual strategies and technologies, organizational situations in order to select adequate technologies for managing organizational behavior;

– formation of a tolerant perception of social and cultural differences, understanding of a number of issues of communication and membership in organizations in the field of their professional activities.

The knowledge formed during the study of the discipline «Organizational Psychology in Education» is necessary for mastering the fundamental ideas of management as managing people in an organization and the scientific foundations of modeling an organization; the role of the manager, the system of management decisions, methods of their adoption; psychological aspects of small groups, patterns of joint activities to achieve organizational goals; strategies for behavior in conflict situations and optimization of business communication.

This will require the acquisition of skills and abilities necessary to use the acquired knowledge in organizational and managerial activities, directing organizational behavior to solve professional problems; carrying out scientific analysis of phenomena and processes of social practice in order to optimize the organizational behavior of an individual, group, organization; formation and improvement of organizational culture in public and business management systems; active communications, cooperation with colleagues, teamwork, resolution of real conflict and controversial situations; compliance with professional ethics.

Mastering this academic discipline will ensure the formation of professional competencies in the areas of design and assessment qualities of the educational environment, psychological support (diagnosis, adjustment, implementation) of management tasks and organization of group work in the interests of consumers of educational services and organizations-customer of personnel.

1 THEORETICAL SECTION

Instructions for working with section materials. In the text of the lecture notes, reference to the sources used is given according to the end-to-end list of basic and additional literature from paragraph 2.4 of the complex. Visual materials (2 schemes, 14 tables and 13 slides) are presented, including for self-study, as reference. The basic concepts of topics are highlighted in regular italics, and certain accents are established that the author asks you to pay attention to. As for the selection of fragments of primary sources, their use in seminars and/or for independent work depends on the constantly changing interests and tastes of both teachers and students.

1.1 LECTURE NOTES

Topic 1. Introduction. Foundations of the theory of organizational behaviour in psychology

Organizational psychology can be considered as the application of psychological theories and research methods to problems of organization, management and business (organizational development, selection, training, motivation, personnel certification, personnel management, training management, consulting and coaching, business training, PR (public relations), HR (human resources), conflict resolution, etc.) with the aim of constructing / modeling effectively functioning social entities capable of coping with the challenges of our time. Also, organizational psychology has recently become an applied branch of psychology, studying all aspects of mental activity and behavior of people in existing organizations in order to optimize their activities and create favorable conditions for work, individual development and mental health of organization members.

In turn, the education sector, which is experiencing further difficulties in the «production» of attributive human qualities, in conditions of a high level of consumption and the predominance of the service sector over the production sector, is faced with the phenomenon of degradation of basic values. And the process of education (according to thinkers of predominantly «leftist» persuasions) already in the twentieth century breaks down into several autonomous, but still ineffective technologies:

- education as a process of oppression and alienation, the ignorance of students justifies the existence of teachers (P. Freire);
- education as a ritual and sacred act, diligently obtaining certificates and diplomas (I. Illich);
- education as a surrogate for science, i.e. school should be separated from both religion and science (T. Kuhn, P. Feyerabend);
- education as self-education, if you want to help a person, don't be a teacher, i.e. education without an education system (K. Rogers), etc.

According to G.M. McLuhan, a Canadian communicologist, left-hemisphere or right-hemisphere thinking is replaced by mosaic thinking, which reduces logical-intellectual abilities and the ability to critically comprehend (reproduce) the

information received. The development of electronic means of communication and education is defined as the «amputation» of human consciousness.

Studying the discipline «Organizational Psychology in Education» will help a specialist in the field of education address human resource management as the most important condition for achieving competitive advantages of an organization on the «playing field» of the global economy.

In the twentieth century, sociological theory was enriched with management technologies for the production of social life (see [13, 14]), the concepts of the «achieving worker» (F. Taylor), «human relations» (E. Mayo), and the scientific organization of labor (A.A. Bogdanov, O.A. Yermansky, A.K. Gastev, etc.), but also faced the phenomena of restrictionism (conscious limitation of production standards), bureaucratic impersonality, underdevelopment of the hierarchy of needs, etc. The named results and factors allow us to understand the emerging situation in the theories and management practice, temporally and meaningfully dependent on the organizational complexity of society.

The directive program is the first in terms of accessibility to execution, a kind of illusion of correspondence between socio-cultural and historical experience and personal interests, it establishes not only educational guidelines, but also criteria for organizational behavior (management). In the traditions of classical management, the directive strategy becomes decisive, providing effective management methods through directives in large organizational systems (communities, factories, factories, banks, etc.) that contribute to the growth of life and labor productivity: *F. Taylor* developed the concept of rationalization, an effective methodology labor productivity management and created a system for the best training of workers («the sweat-squeezing system» according to V.I. Lenin), put forward four scientific principles of management (the introduction of economical work methods, professional selection and training of personnel, rational placement of personnel, cooperation between administration and workers); *M. Weber* developed a bureaucratic concept of the organizational structure of production (rational bureaucracy), where he paid special attention to the study of the problem of leadership and power structure in the organization, formulated the principles of building an ideal organization (hierarchical system of building an organization; specialization and division of labor by function; a clear system of procedures and rules ensuring uniformity in the execution of production processes; the promotion and tenure system is based on skill and experience, and is measured by standards; the communication system both within and outside the organization is characterized by a focus on established rules); *A. Fayol* expanded the framework of organizational management methods to a structural-functional approach (administrative concept), distinguished management functions and management principles, functions (foresight, planning, organization, coordination and control) answer the question of *what* the leader does, and the principles – *how* he does it.

The centered program that follows the first is a kind of illusion of choice, although it presupposes all kinds of cooperation (specialist and «client»), removing the discrepancy between the experience and the self of the «client», taking responsibility for solving his own problems by activating personal potential. Here it is appropriate to pay attention to several hypotheses for constructing the professional

and personal properties of an employee: the hypothesis of identity (makes a connection between behavior and its result), the hypothesis of abstraction (the connection between reality and the accepted standard), the hypothesis of disposition (cause-and-effect relationship) and, finally, the hypothesis of projection (the relationship between the environment and the individual).

The penetration of psychological ideas into management and organizational science has led to the fact that the classical approach to management (organizational behavior) began to be viewed as dehumanitarian and mechanistic (E. Mayo, K. Levin, A. Maslow, D. McGregor, etc.), attention is focused on the humanization of the working environment, relations in organizations begin to be managed based on the results of employees. In the concept of «human relations», based on the results of the famous Hawthorne experiments, it was shown that the effectiveness of an organization's management is determined by its informal structure and, above all, by the interaction of people and general control, self-discipline and opportunities for creative growth, collective reward, rejection of narrow specialization and unity of command, democratic style management, compliance of the organization's structure with the people working in it, and not vice versa.

However, the rapid exhaustion of the reproducible human resource in modern highly automated, information-overloaded and intensive production leads to the fact that in the requirements for the employee, the method (technology) comes to the fore, the personal begins to break away from the professional («lose» to the professional). Management by method - was implemented in the concept of sociotechnical systems, where it is the system, and not individual tasks, that become the object of study. Management theory began to focus on work groups (teams) and the sense of responsibility of group members.

The last program in this series is a «*non-directive*» program that generates the illusion of self-determination (both personal and professional), requires not only the refinement of existing methods and techniques for the professional and psychological construction of the required qualities of an employee, but also a professional, expert assessment of the characteristics of modern reality : on a personal level – pragmatism, activism, mercantilism, careerism, individualism, etc. and professionally (especially in IT and «high» technologies) – creativity, operability, integrativeness, teamwork, etc. The split unity of the professional and personal gives rise to many expectations from using «non-directive» programs. In organizational management, process, situational, target, etc. approaches are proposed, the task is to maximize the use of all management capabilities from complete merging with the environment to complete independence from it (based on mathematical modeling using BigData), where the priority of professional over personal and no more. The ultimate goal of professional and personal self-determination is the rejection of the listed illusions and the ability to make an independent decision about the choice of life strategy.

The strategy of organizational behavior, as a management style and a set of tactical actions, is directly related to the «human factor», but it can also be «anti-human». *The classical paradigm* of organizational behavior requires a directive strategy, an authoritarian style and is based primarily on manipulative actions that sharply increase labor productivity (vertical communication predominates: top-

middle-low) – the basic principle: **subject** \equiv **object of management**. The necessity to develop the classical paradigm was associated with the low efficiency of monopolized and resource management in the new economic conditions in the twentieth century. *The cybernetic paradigm* of organizational behavior requires a collegial strategy and «humanization» of the work environment, a democratic style and is built on cooperation (horizontal type communications predominate, negative feedbacks are implied while maintaining the sustainability of production, and therefore consumption, to external factors) – basic principle: **subject** \succ **object of management**. The necessity to develop the cybernetic paradigm, in turn, was associated with the formation of a consumer society and the expansion of economic markets to a global scale. *The synergetic paradigm* of organizational behavior requires a liberal strategy, a free management style and should be built on the interaction and trust of the parties to the production process (production of goods and services). Communication, along with interactive and perceptual actions, rises to equal communication (there is an appropriate level of legal protection and copyright for both the consumer and the manufacturer); professional freelancing will require self-organization and self-management: the basic principle is the postmodernist guideline – «**neither subject, nor object**».

On these grounds, it is possible to formulate *the essence of the organizational process* and formulate the following principles of a static (reaching the threshold of insensitivity and liquidation) and dynamic (functioning within the life cycle) organization.

Principles of priority:

- principle of goal priority: the goal has the highest priority, then the task and then the function;
- the principle of priority of functions over structure when creating organizations: the creation of new organizations is carried out to achieve a certain set of goals;
- the principle of priority of structures over functions in existing organizations;
- the principle of priority of the subject of management over the object when creating a structural unit;
- the principle of priority of the object of management over the subject.

Compliance principles:

- the principle of correspondence between set goals and available resources;
- the principle of correspondence between management and subordination: subordination, coordination, reordination;
- the principle of correspondence between production efficiency (goods, services) and efficiency;
- the principle of an optimal combination of centralization and decentralization of production and management;
- the principle of rhythm and proportionality: production and information processes must proceed evenly according to schedule.

As a result, the organizational process should be aimed at achieving goals, and not at eliminating disturbing influences; when identifying a problem, it is necessary to take into account as many controllable and uncontrollable factors affecting the

process as possible; the influence of the subjective factor on the process should be minimized; the process must be supported by an optimal information environment.

The main criteria of organizational management are *rationality* and *expediency*. However, the general patterns of management identified by cybernetics, biology and psychology show the irrational and spontaneous nature of making management strategies and decisions:

- the law of response uncertainty – establishes the relationship between external influences (already formed stereotyping) and internal psychological conditions (apperception);
- the law of information distortion – the proportional dependence of the degree of information distortion on the number of links in the chain of its transmission;
- the law of self-preservation – the need to protect personal status, social viability, and self-esteem in any interaction;
- the law of compensation – compensation for shortcomings, difficulties, problems in one area of activity with successes, achievements and results in another;
- the law of inadequacy of mutual perception and self-esteem – in the process of interaction, people tend to follow role behavior and situational expectations, which does not provide sufficient predictability of the behavior of both themselves and others.

Thus, the current state of life in society (where the sphere of services and offers, including the educational sphere, is actively developing) is closely connected with the difficulties of the formation of a person, with the complexity of organizing his private and public life. There is an objective need to satisfy the ethical, cultural, political-economic, social and psychological foundations of human life, the search for «human» technologies for such satisfaction, and awareness of social responsibility. In this regard, it is useful to get acquainted with the products of mythologizing ideas about the activities of a manager (see the corresponding fragment of primary sources – 1.2.1), as well as turn to the analysis of the organizational management model (see Table 1).

Table 1

<i>Traditional (directive)</i>	<i>Achieved (economic)</i>	<i>Becoming (promising)</i>
Power	Economic compulsion	"Creative" participation
Authority Directive	Material encouragement	Corporate spirit "moral" incentives
Personal addiction	Motivation	Commitment
"Taylorism"	Economic incentives	Economic and socio-psychological incentives
Performance	Initiative	Heuristic activity

Table 1. Models of organizational management

Psychological theories of organizational management and managerial activity:

- *psychoanalytical* (S. Freud, C. Jung, E. Bern): the effectiveness of unconscious reactions depends on the natural potential, the individual's psychotype and the chosen social role;
- *theory of learning* (I.P. Pavlov, D.B. Watson, B.F. Skinner): the effectiveness of adaptation and voluntary actions depends on the system of rewards and punishments, and depends on individual abilities;
- *theory of management styles* (K. Levin, R. Blake and D. Mouton): management effectiveness depends not only on the manager's work style (authoritarian, democratic, neutral), but also on the combination of attention to production and concern for people. Development of K. Lewin's theory: *theory of rational management* (T. Kono) – four types of management are described in management (innovative-analytical, innovative-intuitive, conservative-analytical and conservative-intuitive); *theory of participatory management* (employee is involved in making management decisions); *theory of situational leadership* (P. Hersey and K. Blandad understand leadership as the ability to use available resources (including human ones) to obtain results).

Organizational structure

The content of the process of forming an organizational structure is largely universal. It includes the formulation of goals and objectives, determination of the composition and location of units, their resource provision, development of regulatory procedures, documents, regulations, fixing and regulate the forms, methods, processes that are carried out in the organizational management system.

The structure of an organization is a logical relationship between levels of interaction: the structure is determined by strategy (A. Chandler's principle for industrial enterprises).

According to the forms of streamlining management processes in the structure of an organization, specific management models are subordination, coordination and reordination.

Subordination (lat. subordinatio – co-subordination) is a model of ordering in which one of the elements of the management structure plays the role of a leader, determining the principles in the activities of all the others and subordinating them to itself. The most important features of subordination as a form of activity management are the following: 1) in the conditions of these connections, some elements of the hierarchical structure have a guiding effect on others, as a result of which the latter begin to perform functions that were not previously characteristic of them; 2) a significant change in functions by dependent elements can lead to a change in their overall characteristics and even qualities in general; 3) new functions and new qualities of structural elements create the prerequisites for the emergence of new subordination dependencies, characterized by even greater complexity. Consequently, subordination cannot be understood as a simple mechanical structuring and rigid hierarchy in relationships. Subordination dependence should not be understood one-sidedly; it is always a two-way process.

In contrast, *coordination* (lat. coordinatio – co-arrangement) is such ordering in which the sides, parts and elements of the same structure or the interaction of several substructures are characterized by identity and equal size. Their influence on each

other does not assume one-sided dependence and subordination. The balance between them is maintained by equal opportunities and equal influences. The activities of each of them are ordered in accordance with the activities of the others.

It should be noted that in the block with coordination and subordination it is advisable to mention such a management model as *reordination* (lat. reordination – re-subordination). Reordination is usually called a management model in which the legal or organizational re-subordination of one community to another, or some parts and elements of a community to others, is carried out, both horizontally and vertically.

Coordination, subordination and reordination are widespread in living nature and social reality. It can be noted that they are equally capable of imparting stability and durability to biological, social, intellectual, etc. systems. Recently, in connection with the consideration of dynamic, complex, super-complex and open, adaptive and developing systems in management theories, attention has also been drawn to such a type of management as «self-government», or «self-regulation», or «self-organization». The specificity of self-government is that it is always connected with the internal problems of an integral organization or system, and is aimed at solving the problems of this organization or the system of relations of its elements in it.

Purposeful communality in the organization determines the need to introduce hierarchy and management (*vertical section, relations of power and subordination, subordination*); distribution of functions, functional division of labor (*horizontal section, relations of balance and cooperation, coordination*); establishing stable connections and organizing them; coordination, leadership, planning, motivation, execution, control (in this aspect it is functionally the same as *management*).

If an organization builds an adaptive management structure (not a bureaucratic one), then it is functionally necessary to organize its work according to the type of *reordination*. In unity of purpose, division of labor, coordination, *the organizational effect, or organizational order*, is manifested (see Table 2 and Slides 1, 2).

Table 2

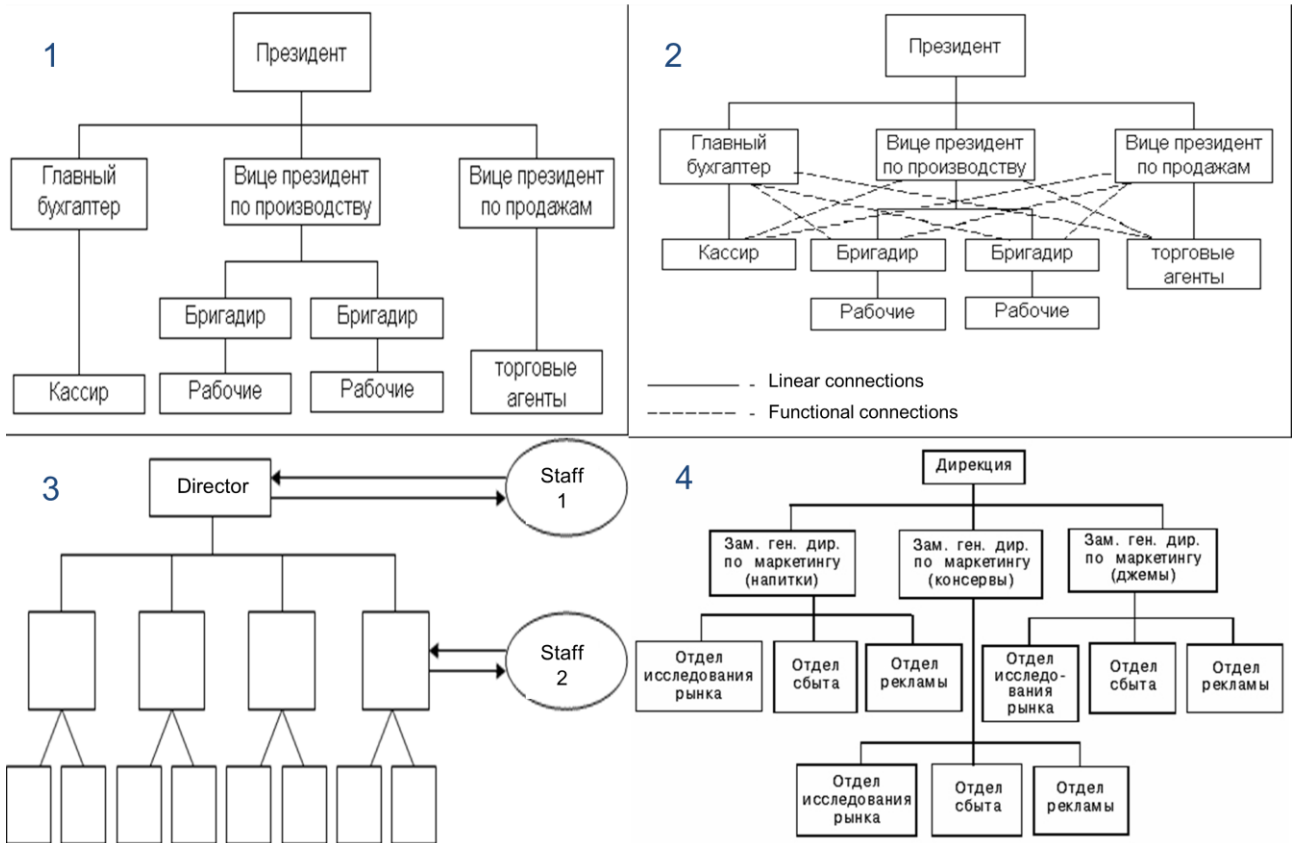
Bureaucratic organizational structures	Organic (adaptive) organizational structures
- linear (1)	- matrix (5)
- functional (2)	- design
- line-staff (3)	- problem-target
- divisional (4)	- network (6)

Table 2. Types of organizational structures

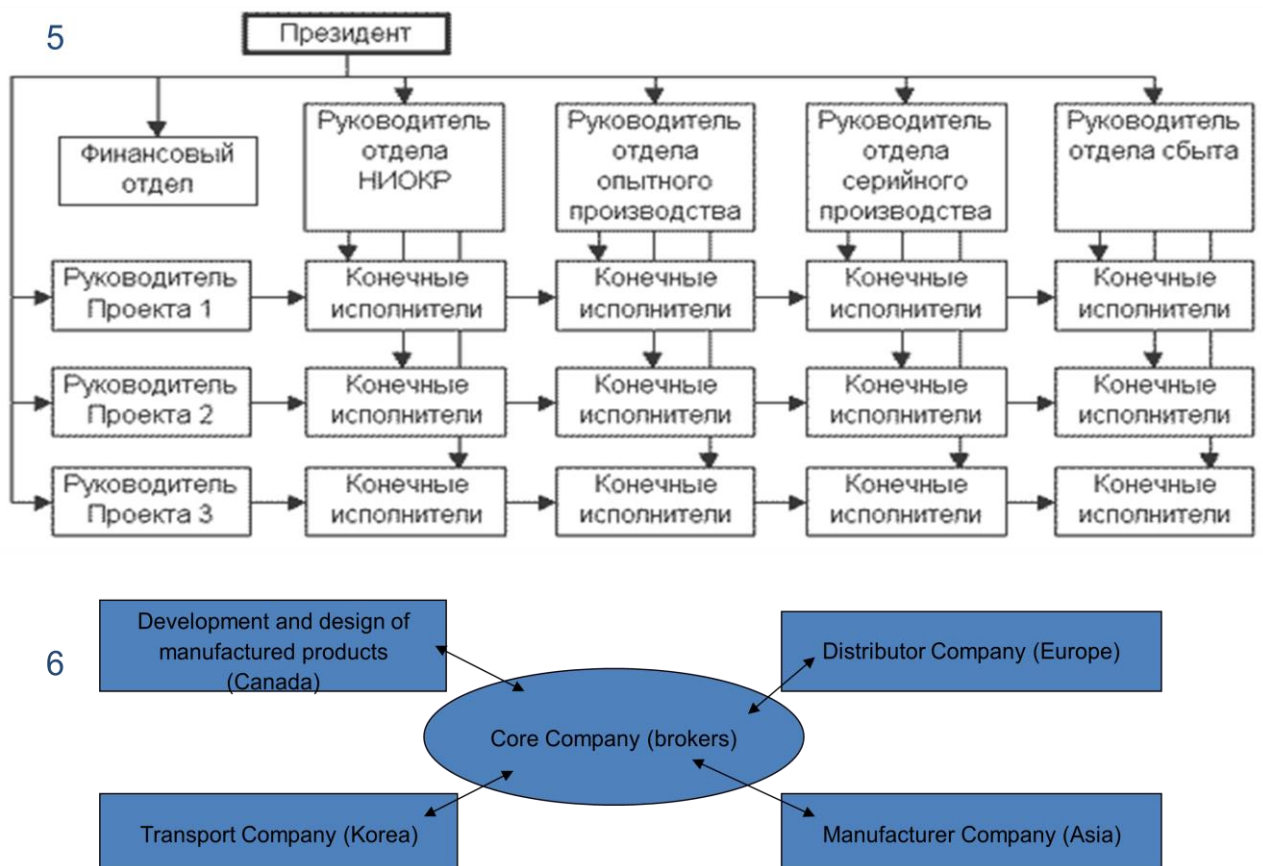
The main characteristics of the types of management structures:

- *Bureaucratic type*: a clearly defined hierarchy, a system of duties and rights, the division of each task into a number of procedures, impersonality in relationships, a rigid division of labor functions.
- *Organic type*: constant changes of leaders (group or individual) depending on the task being solved; a system of norms and values formed in the process of discussions and approvals; a process approach to problem solving; the possibility of self-expression, self-development; temporary assignment of work to integrated project groups.

Examples of bureaucratic organizational structures



Some examples of adaptive organizational structures



Topic 2. Management of organizational changes, the life cycle of the organization and organizational development

The need to respond to changes occurring in the external environment (for example, competition, changes in legislation, reforms in education, etc.) or to internal problems (increasing productivity in production, introducing new educational programs, etc.) leads to one or more other changes in an organization are decisions by its management to change something in the internal conditions of the organization's functioning (goals, structure, tasks, technology, personnel).

Changes in an organization are innovations (the introduction of progressive material and intangible innovations), dictated by strategic plans for changes in production and organizational structures, internal events of a local nature (upgrading or replacing equipment and/or technologies, reconstruction of buildings, etc.), requiring adjustments to the usual operating mode. The most important condition for change management is not only the presence of a change leader, but also the leader's ability to achieve consent for their implementation from the organization's employees.

There are two known principles for bringing people into compliance and structural changes in an organization – *principles of compliance*:

- *the first principle states*: «people must be selected to fit the existing structure»;
- *the second says*: «the structure must be created for well-chosen people».

The principles of correspondence complement each other, although they contradict. They are complementary within the same organization, but *at different stages of its development*.

At the same time, the usual algorithm of changes involves first developing a transformation strategy, then introducing new system solutions and, finally, training of personnel to work in new conditions. Often the last stage is not implemented, and employees are forced to adapt to new conditions through trial and error, therefore, the hidden resistance of personnel is not a random phenomenon, but an objective one.

Thus, in the process of developing innovations, there are: delays in the start of the change process under any «plausible» pretexts; unexpected obstacles and various difficulties that require a revision of the very idea of transformation, or increase costs compared to planned or available; attempts to sabotage changes or «drown» them in the flow of other priority matters.

After completion of the transformation, resistance may manifest itself in the form of: a lag in actual results from planned ones; attempts to attribute the effects obtained to «pre-perestroika» efforts; introducing the opinion that the new is the old, but only in other words (on this basis – a return to the old); proposals to «further increase» the effect of innovations by connecting elements of the old to the new system.

The speed of managing organizational change largely depends on the prevailing circumstances against which the changes are being carried out (see Table 3). Proven techniques for reducing (eliminating) resistance to change include: open discussion of ideas and measures for change, convincing employees of their necessity; involving subordinates in decision-making, creating an atmosphere of openness; stimulating the consent of those who resist; co-opting (inclusion) of

skeptics in the innovation acceptance committee; maneuvering and selective use of information in relation to different people (requesting support, approving proposals, etc.); coercion (threat of dismissal, deprivation of promotion, bonuses, etc.).

Table 3

Method	Conditions of use	Advantages	Flaws
Forced	Time limit for reform	Speed of change	Strong resistance
Adaptive	Lack of urgency	Weak resistance	Slow and disorganized reform
Crisis	Threat to the existence of the enterprise	Weak resistance, and in the initial stages – support	Severe time pressure and risk of failure
Resistance Control	Medium urgency or cyclical reform	Adjustable resistance and timing	Complexity of planning and implementation

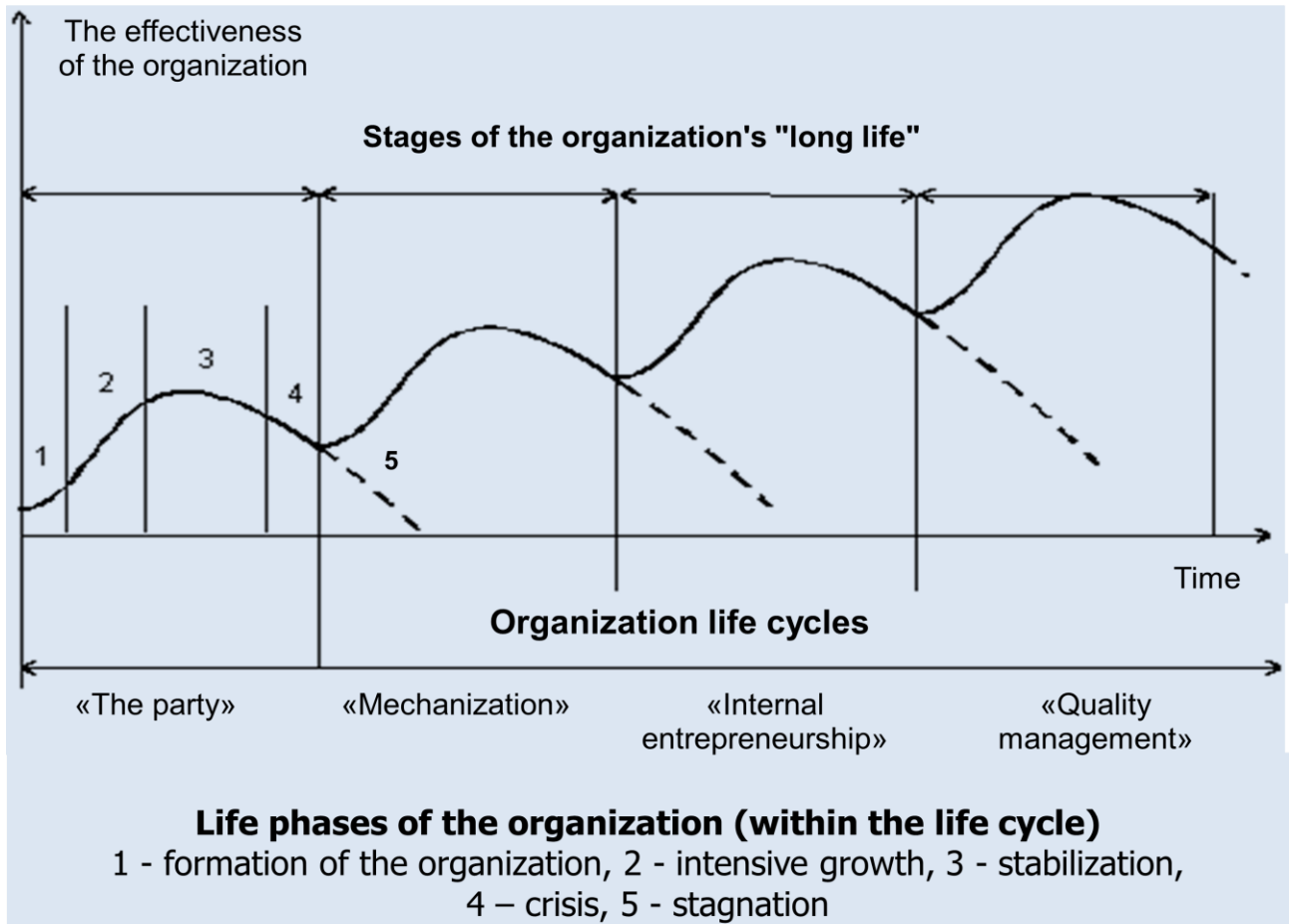
Table 3. Comparison of methods implementation of changes

If we consider the functioning of an organization in the logic of life strategies, identifying *life cycles* (beginning – end, content – form, structure – functions, etc.), then managing the organization will be reduced to ensuring the continuity and sustainability of its life cycle, searching for correspondences of idealized strategies (classical, cybernetic, synergetic) and management styles (authoritarian, cooperative, liberal) with features of solving current tactical problems that a specific leader of a specific organization is already facing (and will still face). Throughout the «long life» of an organization, one can observe phase, cyclic and stage changes in the functioning of the organization (see Slide 3).

Stage (phase) of creating an organization. The organization is in its infancy, the goals are not clear enough, the creative process flows freely. The main efforts are aimed at creating a product and surviving in market conditions. The organization is usually small, and relationships between employees are informal. The type of leader is innovator. At this stage, the organizational structure of management is most often formed, and the division and specialization of managerial labor is weakly manifested. The highest level of management is represented, as a rule, by the founder, to whom production and finance are directly subordinate. He bears full responsibility for the decisions made.

At this stage, the organization faces two main tasks: access to the necessary resources; mastering the mechanism of competition.

Management should focus special attention on studying consumer demand for manufactured products and services in competitive markets; collecting and analyzing information about the activities and intentions of competitors, comparing them with the capabilities and resources of your organization; identifying the need and feasibility of building the organization's capacity and making appropriate adjustments to the strategy; rationalization of the management process, including the placement of personnel, the creation of a reliable decision-making mechanism, and a motivation system; taking all possible measures to attract additional resources from internal and external sources.



Stage (phase) of growth of the organization. At this stage, innovative processes intensively develop, and the mission (purpose) of the organization is finally formed. Communication and control remain informal. As the organization grows, the processes of division and specialization of managerial labor intensify, which in turn causes the formation of new structural divisions. Consequently, the organizational structure becomes more complex, the number of hierarchy levels increases, and the share of administrative management methods increases due to the creation of new instructions, regulations, procedures, and standards.

At this stage, the organization faces the following tasks: to ensure conditions for economic growth; achieve high quality goods and services.

The management of the organization must choose a type of management that will ensure maintaining a stable balance between stability and innovation, carrying out effective activities in the current period while simultaneously planning for the future. At the growth stage, the following tasks come to the fore in the manager's activities: solving the social problems of the team, which makes it possible to consolidate and develop the interest of employees; ensuring a balance between current and future innovation activities, between improving the quality of products and services and searching for new areas of investment of capital; optimization of the relationship between centralization and decentralization in the management of an organization, the introduction of progressive management structures and information technologies.

Stage (phase) of the organization's maturity. The structure of the organization becomes hierarchically more complex and formal, new rules and procedures are introduced. The degree of division of labor and specialization of workers is increasing, and the role of top management is strengthening. The decision-making process is becoming increasingly conservative. The roles are so clarified that the departure of certain employees does not pose a serious threat. The emphasis is on innovation efficiency and sustainability. At this stage, it is very likely that the organization's management apparatus will become bureaucratic. To prevent this, it is necessary to decentralize management and adjust the motivation system.

The organization faces the following tasks: to ensure overall strategic capacity; maintain and strengthen a stable position in the market.

At the maturity stage, the head of the organization must: organize in advance the work on the creation and development of new products in order to avoid a decrease in work efficiency as a result of the obsolescence of manufactured goods; monitor the organizational management structure and periodically adjust it to ensure greater flexibility; constantly analyze the behavior of competitors and, if necessary, make changes to the organization's development strategy; use the possibilities of technical re-equipment of production, increasing the level of technological preparation of production; create the necessary conditions for maintaining and strengthening the intellectual potential of the organization, the effective work of individual employees and teams, and the use of matrix organizational management structures.

Stage (phase) of decline of the organization. An organization is experiencing a decrease in demand for its products or services. Leaders are looking for ways to retain markets and seize new opportunities. The need for workers with the most valuable specialties is increasing. The number of conflicts is often growing. The mechanism for developing and making decisions is centralized. The organization becomes overly bureaucratic and conservative. Top management at this stage often changes, new people come in trying to contain and slow down the decline.

Characteristic symptoms of this stage: a decrease in demand tightens competition and changes the forms of competition; the dictatorship of suppliers is increasing; the role of price-quality ratio in competition is increasing; the complexity of managing production assets is increasing; the process of creating product innovations becomes more complicated; profit decreases.

At the stage of decline, it is necessary to breathe new life into the organization, sharply adjust the strategy, and make the necessary organizational changes. In these conditions, the manager will have to: consider the possibilities of rational use of all types of resources and focusing the organization's activities on the direction that promises the greatest return in the shortest possible time; explore the possibilities of consolidation, merger with other organizations, narrowing the range of products, if this will allow maintaining and effectively using the existing potential with minimal losses; begin to implement changes in the organization, establish relationships with new markets and suppliers.

The evolution of the organizational structure according to the stages of the life cycle of a «long-lived» company is the creation of a small enterprise, then the transition to a large company, with the inevitability of launching the process of

decentralization (creation of branches) or the process of creating a matrix structure (powerful system of temporary working groups). They (branches, temporary working groups) have a lot in common, because their task is to save the organization from «destruction».

Thus, organizational development is, on the one hand, an organizational strategy based on the ideas of group dynamics, as well as on the theory and practice associated with planning for change; and, on the other hand, the process of teaching people how to solve problems (management, production, communication...) using advantages and opportunities.

Topic 3. Professional suitability and professionalism. Personality in the organization and labour motivation

General theories of personality offer many options for considering the structure of personality and, depending on the problem being solved, you can turn to the option that sufficiently reveals the essence of the problem. Thus, the presence of an individual in an organization creates socio-psychological tension, which affects both changes in the characteristics of the organization and changes in the parameters of the individual. The diagram depicting the structure of a person's personality (see Table 4) highlights universal human properties (a resource for professional and personal development), individual unique (the current result of what has been achieved in development) and socially specific (parameters requested by society) traits.

Table 4

Structure of human personality		
Panhuman properties	Socially-specific features	Individual unique features
Sensations Perception Thinking Memory Will Emotions	Social attitudes Roles Value orientations	Temperament Self-awareness A combination of roles

Table 4. Human personality structure

A personality in the process of its formation is immersed in the cyclical nature of life processes (constructing life scenarios, plans and meanings), going through several phases in its development:

- *socialization* and the «determining» technologies corresponding to this process with access to the internal plane of the emerging personality and its ability for interactive-communicative-perceptual actions, the imperative principle of behavior is characterized by the socio-natural *necessity* of behavioral acts – the modal form «NEED»;
- *personification*, with access to self-reflexive, actually discursive practice, imperativeness is characterized by the socio-psychological *possibility* of acts of behavior – the modal form «MAY»;

- *individualization*, with access to the external plane, of the actually formed, i.e. already socially-full-fledged and legally responsible personality, with the individual psychological *arbitrariness* of imperative behavior – the modal form «WANT»;
- *universalization*, with access to the actually morality and, as a consequence, the moral, i.e. ethically autonomous human essence, characterized by the socio-cultural *effectiveness* of human activity – the modal form «MUST».

As a result, the personality structure is divided into an internal subsystem (consciousness) and an external subsystem (activity). The personality acts as an integrity that observes the principle of the unity of consciousness and activity (S.L. Rubinstein).

The collision, conflict of internal (socio-psychological) and external (social) personality structures occurs constantly in the process of personality development and intensifies during the period of minimum social maturity (K.K. Platonov reflects on the stages and boundaries of personality development in his concept of the dynamic functional structure of personality) when at this stage of personality development there is a radical change in the priorities and goals of individual personal development to professional development, accompanied by a search for ways to resolve and overcome internal conflicts.

Thus, social maturity is associated with the inevitability of fulfilling a social and civil role, legal responsibility, which reinforces on the part of society the priority of professionalism over the personal, leading to an aggravation of *intrapersonal conflict*, the need to overcome a number of obstacles (inertia and stereotypical thinking, «learned helplessness», etc.), the formation of a complex of rational and productive ways of future professional activity will require directed mobilization of efforts, management of one's own time resources, and determination of a «life perspective».

Using the example of the life cycle of an idea, enterprise, initiative, organization, one can clearly see the divergence of the modalities «want» and «need» (desires and reality), changes in role (social, professional, «conventional», interpersonal, as well as intrapersonal) positions.

Crises of professional (career growth: unrealisation , devastation, futility, their combination; social and professional self-actualization, fading) and personal (at the maturity stage) development can and should be used as a tool for monitoring development, monitoring compliance, assessing the success of the formation of one or another personality trait . Crises of professional development are overcome, just as professional development itself is made possible, provided that the factors influencing personal and professional growth are consistent (moral and mental health of the individual and society, socio-legal and economic conditions for sustainable development, awareness of goals and the availability of means to achieve them).

Professionalization refers to the process of an employee becoming a professional, that is a person who is fluent in the skills, knowledge, and abilities necessary for a certain type of activity. Professionalism is reflected in a person's authority, the quality and efficiency of his work, the ability to convey his experience to other people, and the ability to cope with non-standard work situations. The process of an employee becoming a professional depends on the employee's personal abilities, working conditions, work motivation and the interests of the employee

himself. Professionalization depends on experience in a given industry, on a person's education and the employee's quality output.

Main stages and phases of professional development

(according to E.A. Klimov, strategy of professional guilds)

The first stage is finding your place in life, professional self-determination and education; career appears as an emotionally rich, but poorly structured image:

- *optant phase* – a person is forced to make a professional choice;
- *adept phase* – the choice is made, professional activity is mastered (professional knowledge is mastered).

The second stage is entry into the position and professional adaptation; characterized by the formation of a person's real attitude to the chosen activity:

- *adaptation phase* – adaptation to the profession, professional activity (mastering professional skills).

The third stage is becoming a position; characterized by the formation of skills, the acquisition of forecasting skills and the specification of social expectations associated with a given professional activity; experience is accumulated, qualifications are improved, new algorithms for solving professional problems are mastered, readiness to work in non-standard situations increases:

- *internal phase* – an experienced worker, independent, entered the profession.

The fourth stage – a person evaluates his professional career as a personally significant fact and is satisfied with the results of his own activity:

- *mastery phase* – capable of solving the most complex professional tasks, has its own individual style of activity; has formal qualification indicators;
- *authority phase* – a master in a professional circle, he is well known; has high formal qualifications, his opinion is taken into account in professional circles, and can act as a professional expert;
- *mentoring phase* – transfer of experience that can be adopted, the highest level of any specialist, professional expert consultant.

Applying the approach of E.A. Klimov's understanding of professional development to assess the effectiveness of group work (against the background of the dynamics of group development, see Slide 4 and further), we see not only an increase in the capabilities of a specialist (and his working conditions) when acquiring professional qualifications, but also a direct interconnection of this qualification with forms of organizational complexity of a group: from its formation to professional self-realization of both the group and its members.

The relationship between needs, motives and incentives

A. Maslow's classification of needs and motives is widely known, providing a choice of moral incentives on the part of management and depending on the method of satisfying a particular employee's needs (see Table 5)

The leader himself, when managing the organizational behavior of a professional group, effectively fulfills his role if he knows the psychological characteristics of his subordinates; creates a favorable atmosphere in the team, transmits corporate values through actions; suppresses «unnecessary» conflicts and looks for ways to resolve emerging conflict situations; demonstrates fairness in

decision making; identifies people's internal motivators; gives feedback, responds to employee requests; encourages initiative and ensures adequate compensation.

Slide 4

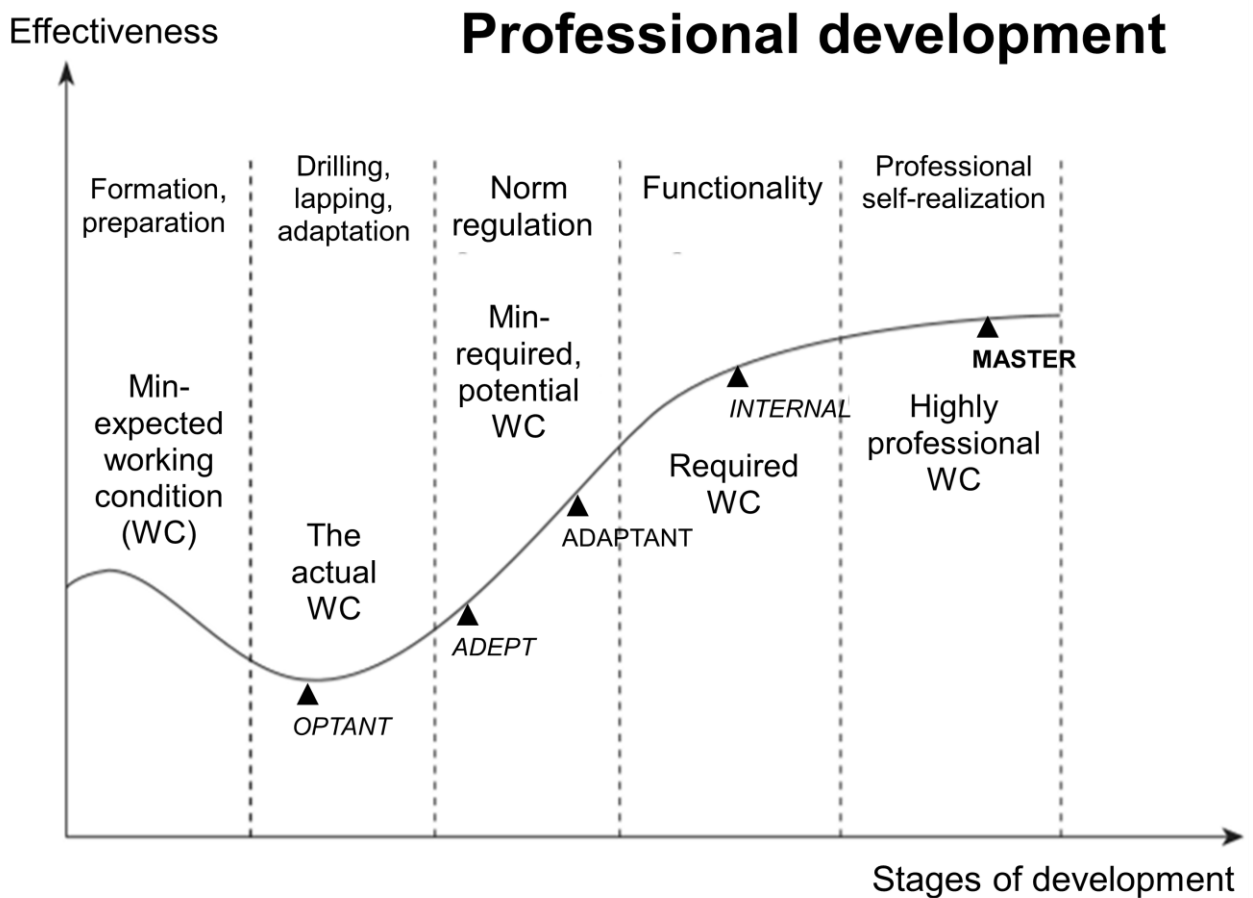


Table 5

Needs	Ways of Satisfaction
Self-expression, self-respect	Realizing your potential, gaining new knowledge, career growth, expanding your scope of authority, responsibility and influence
Respect and recognition from others	Competence in one's profession, independence, the right to make decisions, a sense of usefulness of one's work
Social (involvement, support, interaction, affection)	Belonging to a group of kindred spirit, contact with others, communication, competitive effect
Safety, security, confidence in the future	Maintaining sustainability, providing cash income to meet physiological needs
Physiological	Working environment (comfortable workplace, good physical working conditions, etc.), food, housing, clothing

Table 5. Ways to satisfy needs according to A. Maslow

Topic 4. Personal development in the organization. Career management, personal and professional growth

Culture has established the effect of parallelism-the unity of personal and professional. These aspects of socio-humanitarian practice are so closely connected that they make it possible to create technologies for management, development, and the impact of each required component of practice through another. That is why in the pedagogical triad (knowledge, proficiency, skills) it is necessary to distinguish between the problem of subjectivity and the problem of disciplinarity, and if the content of the competencies of any activity is reduced to knowledge, proficiency and skills, then knowledge has (takes on) a subject-specific character, and proficiency and skills – disciplinary. And if the subject-disciplinary approach is directly addressed to the socio-humanitarian technology of professionalization, then the competency-based approach is mediated by institutional assistance in the implementation of choice programs (the formation of a number of competencies), and the assessment corresponding to the approach indicates the degree of involvement of the subject of professionalization in the career guidance process.

Let us designate the stages of awareness of the existing system of professional and personal growth as a process of internalization of culture in a person:

Stage 1. Analysis of the objective structure of requirements (assessment of the social and cultural certainty of society, assessment of the production and consumption market, professions, labour and their dynamics).

Stage 2. Analysis of the subjective psychological structure (components) of professional activity in the course of fulfilling various types of systems of requirements (professionalography and professional diagnostics).

Stage 3. Establishing correlations between mental components when implementing different types of activities (analysis of suitability, interests and inclinations).

Stage 4. Reconstruction of individual mental structures of activity in accordance with various types of requirements (vocational selection and career counseling; search for matching suitability, interests and inclinations).

Stage 5. Derivation of a stable personality structure as a generalized mental structure of activity (enlightenment: awareness, generalization, expression, stability of the qualities of the profession).

Based on the identified parameters of professional identification and assessment of the organizational and structural-functional effectiveness of the professional environment and appropriate training, a professional examination is carried out, standards and benchmarks, goals and means of career guidance work are established.

Formally, this understanding is subsumed under the content of the pedagogical triad, taking into account all known types of human activity (play, learning, labour, communication) and returns us to the question of the role of disciplinarity in relation to the problem of professionalism. On the substantive side, the idea of disciplinarity connects various levels (educational), categories (age), statuses (sociocultural) into a single development problem, which is important in itself, because it makes it possible

to see not only the problem of development in a new way, but also possible ways to resolve it.

Formation and development of a professional's personality, professionally important personality traits. In connection with the need for production, we can propose the so-called points of growth of professionalism and a kind of hierarchy of professionalism, i.e. a certain algorithm for stimulating personal self-determination and a program of «immediate zones of development» of the individual [14]:

- *do-disciplinarity* – a game as a quasi-activity, cyclicity prevails and is present, the formation of stable patterns, images of activity, personal involvement;
- *monodisciplinarity* – the subject of activity has already been determined (from the outside), performing culture is standardized, professionalism of a highly specialized nature is specified;
- *disciplinarity* – the subject of activity is still being determined, performing culture is being normalized, specialized professionalism is being specified;
- *adjacency* – due to the subject uncertainty of the activity, a request arises for the required level of personal manifestation of the performer, professionalism is personified;
- *interdisciplinarity* – **professionalism as such**: not only the interdisciplinary nature of the activity, requiring qualifications of a certain level, but also mandatory certification (legal and/or corporate protection) of professional activity;
- *integrality* – the need and readiness for autonomous activity, the level of personal and professional manifestation, satisfaction of needs through amateur performances, true freelancing, the necessary destruction of performing culture;
- *polydisciplinarity* – professional self-actualization, access to professional universality;
- *transdisciplinarity* – personal universality...

In areas with high requirements for professional training, for example, research, there are several levels of implementation of a career guidance strategy. Level one is interdisciplinary: the transition from classical methods of cognition and activity to non-classical ones is based mainly on a directive career guidance program, often at the request of the employer. The second level is the rejection of interdisciplinarity in favor of integration (presuming some kind of cooperation between the employer and the contractor): if interdisciplinarity is an external condition for a scientist, a research worker, a requirement of science itself, then integration is the path of self-determination of a scientist, a condition for choosing his professional and personal growth. Level three (projective, blurring the line between the employer and the performer) – rejection of integrality in favor of transdisciplinarity: the transition from post-classical methods and means in research activities to neoclassical ones.

The formation of professionalism allows, as a result, to discover the ability for an autonomous existence of a professional (the ability to independently set a task and solve it, that is, to perform several functions simultaneously and successfully), to expand the range of professional and social roles (for team work this is the possibility of interchangeability, thereby drawing attention on the essence of team work, where it is not the formal-quantitative, but the content-qualitative characteristics of the team

composition that can only ensure the effectiveness of the work. See here Table 6 and further).

Table 6

Professional and/or social roles	Information and communication activity	Communicative actions
"Employee"	«Existence» is possible	Inter-sublimation
"Non-specialist"	«Reaction» is possible	Mutual reflection
"Specialist"	«Informing» is possible	Mutual information
"Professional"	«Agreement» is possible	Interaction
"Individualist"	«Contract» is possible	Mutual satisfaction
"Universal"	«Dialogue» is possible	Mutual understanding

Table 6. The role picture of professional communication

The real picture of social relations in an organization is subordinated to a complex of social actions, regardless of the professional and/or social role actually performed, and one can only talk about the accentuation of a particular role in the implementation of the requested opportunity for social and/or professional activity.

In connection with the identified problems of personal development and self-determination, there is a need to develop and widely implement a system of training and pedagogical practices to overcome social and psychological barriers and increase the effectiveness of social actions through the targeted development of the subject(s), where ethical and psychological problems of interaction in parts of the reflexive side of communication: features and advantages of informal communication, inadmissibility of interference in the personal life of the interlocutor, intimization of the dialogue form of communication. In such developmental practices, the requirement to consistently overcome obstacles to personal growth is met, and the implementation of a program of self-realization through the growth of communicative, social and other competence is ensured: from primary socialization to self-actualization. Attention is drawn to the issues of overcoming and using manipulation (at the level of selection and implementation of professional training), expanding the targeting and «vectorization» of updating individual capabilities and abilities; the necessary skills are mastered and techniques, methods, and methods of successful business communication are developed:

- perception of communicative actions (seeing, hearing, kinesthetic perceptions) and self-presentation (attractiveness, success, satisfaction);
- implementation of social-role actions (identification, presentation, performance), «understanding» and evaluation of such actions (empathy, involvement, compliance);
- motivational and value presentation of the parties to communication (initiative, confidence, competence) and the effectiveness of their interaction (overcoming stereotypes, consistency, effectiveness).

Topic 5. Group interaction, team building, organizational communication, decision making and implementation

The psychological structure of the formed small group presupposes the presence of several relatively independent substructures: compositional, interpersonal preferences, communicative and a substructure of functional relations. Along with these specific characteristics that define a small group, one can include a number of psychological factors that set group dynamics and reflect the specifics and features of its management: group cohesion and compatibility, leadership and group decision-making, intragroup conflict, stages of group development (team formation), stages of formation temporary (project) group (adaptation, identification, integration and disintegration), empathy, conformism, group pressure, etc.

Group dynamics is a set of dynamic processes that simultaneously occur in a group at some unit of time and which mark the group's movement from stage to stage (its development or degradation).

Dynamic processes:

- the process of formation of small groups (the phenomenon of group pressure on the individual, the development of group cohesion);
- processes of leadership (formation of group structure) and group decision-making (norm formation, resolution of group contradictions);
- the process of development of a small group (sustainable work, team formation) or stagnation, regression and collapse.

The presence of groups can be judged by the manifestation of the characteristics of the socio-psychological climate (see Table 7) in the organization (working groups of the organization). The content of the concept of *socio-psychological climate* (SPC) of a group includes: the totality of socio-psychological characteristics of the group; a prevailing positive and stable psychological mood; the business nature of relationships in the group; integral characteristic of the state of the group (compatibility, cohesion, etc.).

Table 7

Positive climate	Negative climate
Promotes productivity growth and job satisfaction	Worsens the economic indicator of the group
Unites the group	It separates people and leads to the collapse of the group
It is able to compensate for even unattractive work	It is not always compensated even by very high wages

Table 7. Characteristics of the socio-psychological climate

Factors determining the socio-psychological climate: job satisfaction, group compatibility and harmony, team cohesion, the nature of communications, leadership style, the nature of the activity performed, the degree of participation in the decision-making process, the objectivity of the evaluation of the work, professional and qualification promotion.

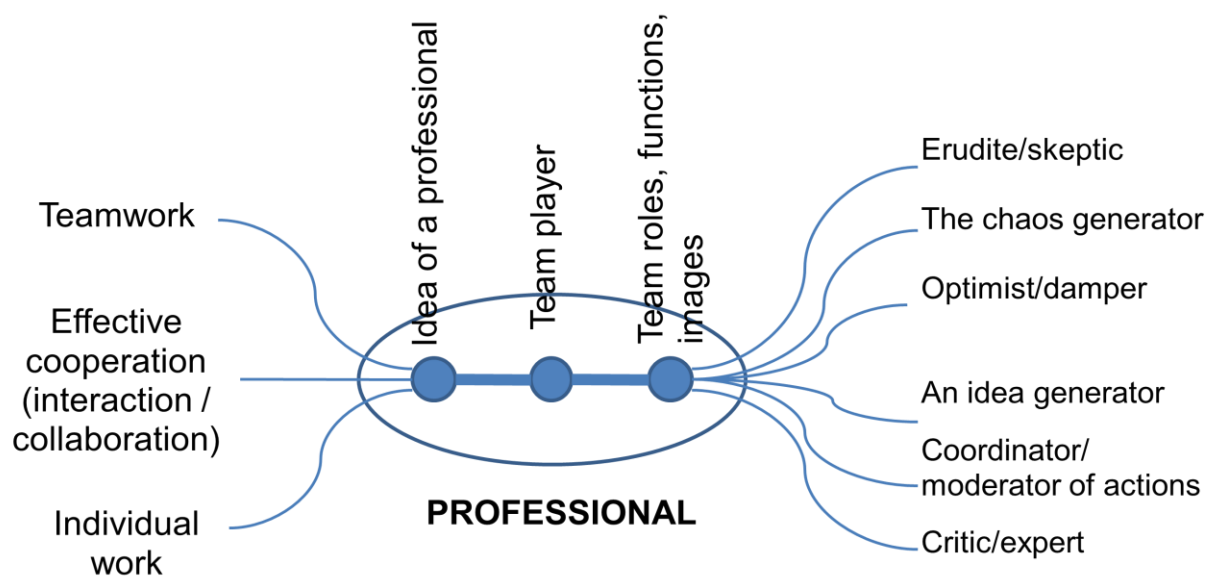
Stages of group development:

- zero level – *conglomeration* – state of aggregation, nominal existence of a group, situational communication, the group exists as a real one, but there is no connection between its members;
- first level – *diffuse group* , the group begins to exist as a real one, the beginning of targeted communication, interaction and contacts (the goal is to make a good impression);
- second level – *association* – a feeling of belonging to a group appears (search for similarities, establishment of community), the beginning of joint activities;
- third level – *cooperation* – normative level (development and adoption of norms, achievement of activity results), know each other well (the goal is to achieve trust). Three development paths are possible: *autonomy* (satisfying individual interests through participation in group activities), *corporation* (satisfying group interests at the expense of group members, other groups, society), *team* ;
- fourth level is the highest (harmonization of individual, group and public goals and interests), in the forms of a team and a collective. Properties: use their capabilities to the maximum; can work without direction; very close-knit groups.

Recently, serious attention has been paid to organizing teamwork, including researchers, developers and expert consultants. This team actually creates an intermediate field where all contradictions among specialists, project investors and product consumers are smoothed out. Along with the figure of the coordinator or organizer of the search for a solution, for the effective work of the expert body a number of other participants are needed (depending on the task being performed): an erudite, an idea generator, a critic, etc. (see Slide 5).

Slide 5

The "professional – team player" mental map



This map draws attention only to the role attitudes of professional activity and «self-concept», where each attitude is accepted and the essence of the role positions becomes the multi-multiplicity of individual choice, the full spectrum of which is set

by the usefulness complex (in the presented mental map the reference goes to the position of E. de Bono, where knowledge of all roles is mandatory – who supports and/or criticizes and how, and the mastery of roles occurs as professional improvement, and the individual psychology of A. Adler, for whom «Creative Self» is a maxim, an active principle, the meaning-forming root cause of a person).

The use of teams allows you to obtain a synergistic effect, that is, a new quality of the result of joint work, creates conditions for the realization of the creative potential of employees, is extremely useful for the organization, but, like any other method, cannot be effective for all types of organizational activities. In a modern organization, a creative combination of individual and team work is advisable, and the construction of creative structures should be based on goal-oriented management, since all activities of the organization are determined by setting goals, and the essence of management influence is the achievement of the planned result. System-target management is based on a competent breakdown of leading goals into subgoals, which allows you to link the tasks of each employee with the mission and vision of the organization and take into account the needs of stakeholders.

Experience shows that for project teams to work successfully, they must be formed not only from people of different specializations who can influence the result, but also from different cognitive preferences or thinking styles (right- and left-hemisphere). At the same time, the team leader must clearly understand both his cognitive preference and his employees and use it correctly. When working with project teams, it is necessary to allocate time for two stages: divergent, when various options for solving the problem are formulated, and convergent, when a compromise is developed and the best solution is selected.

Communication in the organization

Let's consider the types of communications within the organization. Interlevel (*vertical*) communications can occur downward (communication to subordinate levels about a management decision made) and upward (reports, proposals, explanatory notes). Vertical communications include communications of the type «manager – subordinate», «teacher – student» (at the stages of issuing tasks, control, etc.), ensuring the involvement of participants in interaction in solving tasks, discussing problems, obtaining information about the ideas and proposals of subordinates; as well as communications between the leader and the working group (teacher and student – at the stage of joint research activities, for example), increasing the effectiveness of the group's actions.

Horizontal communications ensure coordination of tasks and actions, exchange of information between departments and are considered significantly more effective (see Table 8).

Separately, we should consider informal communications – a channel for the spread of rumors, which are transmitted much faster than through formal communication channels and play a significant role in the formation of corporate sentiment.

The main obstacles to intra-organizational communications: distortion of messages, information overload, unsatisfactory structure about the organization. Ways to overcome them: analysis and regulation of information flows, organization of feedback, organization of collection of proposals, introduction of information

technologies, etc. Obstacles and barriers to interpersonal communications include barriers caused by perception, personal experience, poor feedback and inability to listen; to barriers – semantic, verbal and non-verbal.

Table 8

Type of communication	Efficiency	Losses
Horizontal	$\leq 90\%$	$\geq 20\%$
Vertical	$\leq 20-25\%$	$\leq 70\%$
Rising	$\leq 10\%$	
Descending	$\leq 20\%$	

Table 8. Communication effectiveness in organizations

An example of the variety of limitations of nonverbal communication:

- characteristics of interpersonal space: distance, saturation, framing, foreshortening;
- optical-kinesthetic characteristics: appearance of the interlocutor, facial expressions, pantomime;
- paralinguistic (near-speech) characteristics: vocal qualities of the voice, vocal range, tonality, timbre;
- extralinguistic (non-speech) characteristics: rate of speech, pauses, laughter, etc.

And we will additionally consider several issues of business ethics and etiquette in the process of *business communication*. Business communication is a form of corporate activity with a predominance of imitative actions, and carries a semantic aspect of social interaction; it is aimed at a result that eliminates the so-called «conflict of expectations»; performs managerial, informative, expressive (relieving excessive tension) functions (see [13, 15]).

Business ethics is a generalization of human experience in the field of entrepreneurship, creating various business strategies (both vertically top-, middle-, low- levels, and in organizational style: directive, collegial, liberal), and *business etiquette* is subject to the situational context of the business and therefore is capable of solving only tactical problems. As a result, it is not difficult to formulate several cyclically interrelated (technically reflective) rules for autonomous or negotiated business communication:

First rule: value your own and other people's time, there is never enough time.

Second rule: don't say too much, otherwise we remember the first rule.

Third rule: the speaker cannot hear, think not only about yourself, otherwise we remember the second rule.

Fourth rule: let the listener hear, think and understand, otherwise we remember the third rule.

Rule five: «This too shall pass» (Solomon), any conversation must end. You can immediately return to the first rule.

Rule six (additional): no one should be prevented from using these rules.

On the essence, patterns of behavior, psychological foundations of the negotiation process in the activities of a leader, see the corresponding Fragment of primary sources, paragraph 1.2.4.

Making organizational decisions

Decision making is an integral part of any management function [13] and see the corresponding Fragment of primary sources – 1.2.2. The need to make decisions permeates everything a leader does, setting goals and achieving them. Therefore, understanding the nature of decision making is extremely important for anyone who wants to succeed in the art of management. The famous American management specialist Herbert Simon called decision making «the essence of management».

Developing solutions for managers is a core professional competency and is included in their functional responsibilities, within which they have a set of requirements and obligations, rights and responsibilities (see Table 9).

Table 9

Decision at the individual level	Organizational solution
Availability of individual skills	Create an appropriate environment
The decision-making process itself	Making a decision at a certain point
The decision is determined by the individual style used	The decision is of a group nature. Group process management
Creation and selection of alternatives	Managing creativity and innovation
Taking risks	Delegation of powers and responsibilities

Table 9. Two levels of decision making in an organization

Most often, there are three stages (phases) in the development of management decisions. This is *preparation, adoption and implementation* of a decision. However, the number of specific steps within these stages varies significantly. Considering that the algorithm under consideration is basic, the number of such *steps* should be as large as possible, and the algorithm itself should not only be *logically consistent*, but also *quite detailed*.

Decision preparation stage:

1. Formation of a team to prepare a solution.
2. Diagnosis of the situation.
3. Development and justification of a system of goals.
4. Definition of the problem.
5. Problem analysis.
6. Formulation of criteria and restrictions.
7. Promotion of alternatives.
8. Analysis of alternatives.
9. Assessing alternatives and consequences.

Decision stage:

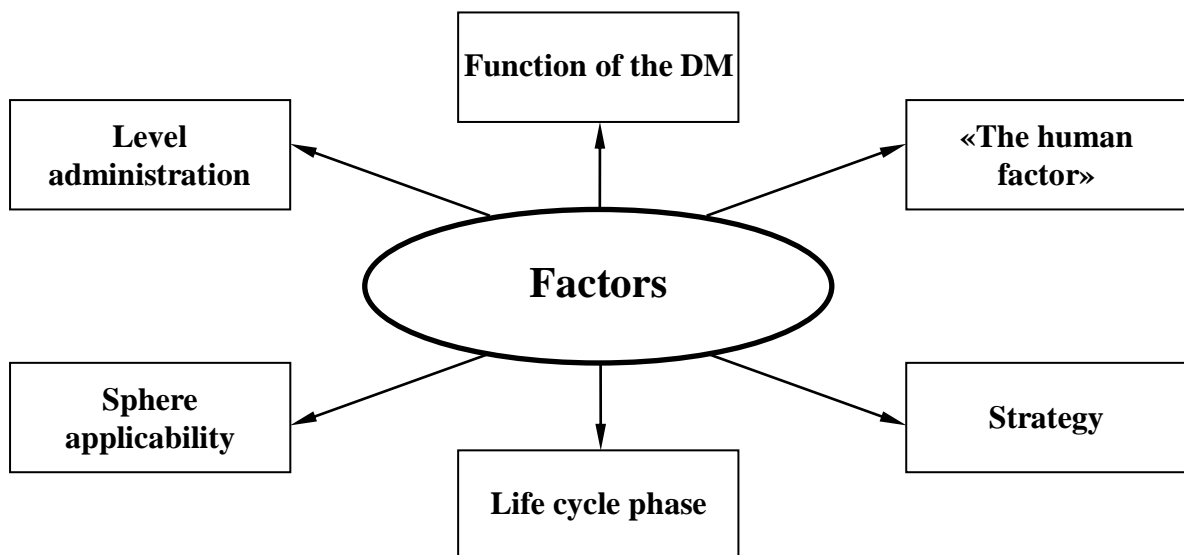
1. Choosing an alternative.
2. Decision making by the manager.
3. Concretization of the solution for lower levels of management.
4. Bringing decisions to the executors.

5. Decision making by the executor.
6. Development of an action plan.
7. Experimental verification.
8. Clarification and adjustment of decisions made.

Solution implementation stage:

1. Organization of execution of decisions.
2. Determine results and impacts.
3. Evaluation and analysis of results and impacts.
4. Organization of feedback.

The main factors influencing decisions made include the following (see Scheme 1). The levels of the management hierarchy at which decisions are made include top-, middle-, low- levels (strategic decisions – business strategy, this group includes crisis management, tactical – corporate strategy, operational – functional strategy). The sphere of applicability of decisions includes production, social sphere, education, personnel management, financial management, etc. The «human factor» in decision making consistently increases over time, becoming dependent not only on the individual psychological characteristics of the subject of management, but also on his professional competencies. The decision-making strategy directly depends on the level of management, scope of applicability, functions of the decision maker (DM), the phase of the life cycle (phase of group formation, team building) and can differ into classical, cybernetic, synergetic (see above) depending on the structure of the organization (team), circumstances (primarily resource ones) and management style.



Scheme 1. Main factors influencing decision making

General issues of technology for solving organizational problems include: analysis and forecast of the development of a problem situation; «generative» thinking as the basis for developing alternatives; methods of multicriteria evaluation of alternatives, selection of an optimal (rational) solution to a problem; the concept of efficiency (effective thinking and effective decisions); search for management solutions in situations of multitasking, uncertainty, excess or lack of information; creative methods of making management decisions (rational and intuitive).

A certain list of typical errors (anthropogenic and situational, subjective and objective) made in the decision-making process is presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Subjective	Objective
1. The habit of making decisions according to the chosen template («We have always done it this way»)	1. Oversaturation of decisions made, which are therefore not always implemented
2. Overestimation of possible success («I will definitely be lucky»)	2. New decisions contradict those already made
3. Attitude towards what is subjectively desired («I really want this»)	3. New decisions duplicate those that were made earlier, but do not «work»
4. Appeal to your own experience («My experience will help you make the right choice»)	4. The decisions made contain unrealistic deadlines, everyone understands this, but accepts them
5. Underestimating risks («This won't happen to me!»)	5. The decisions made turn out to be «half-hearted» due to circumstances
6. Setting to the most feasible option («But we'll do it quickly»)	6. New solutions contain a certain dose of conflict
7. The desire to prove that you are right («In the end, I always turned out to be right»)	7. New decisions are made by the majority, although the minority opinion may be correct
8. Tailoring information to your solution plan («My idea should work»)	8. Decisions are made taking into account that all mistakes will be corrected later
9. Abstract development of a solution («The meaning is clear, but we'll figure it out»)	9. The step-by-step decision-making procedure is ignored because there is no time
10. The pressure of failure («I've already been burned more than once»)	10. There is no one to prepare the necessary information for making a decision

Table 10. Subjective and objective errors of decision makers

The human factor assumes that in the complex process of developing and implementing management decisions, a key role is played by the coordinated work of all employees of the organization and implies:

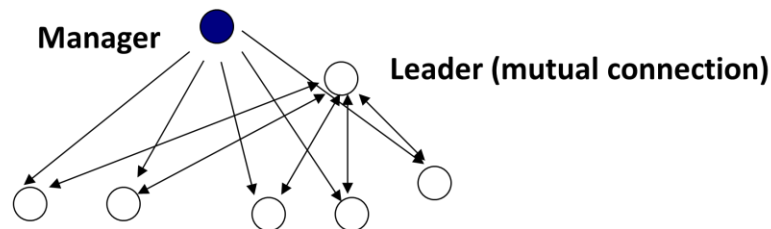
- skillful delegation of authority;
- implementation of full communication, availability of feedback with staff and consumers;
- behavioral characteristics of the managers themselves, their organizational culture;
- management style, attitude towards personnel, their selection and organization of teamwork for the purpose of developing and monitoring the implementation of management decisions;
- timely prevention of conflict situations.

Topic 6. Leadership in the organization. Delegation of authority and responsibility

Organizational building of groups is carried out on the basis of the free integration of function-oriented (characteristic of the classical approach to management), process-oriented (characteristic of the market approach) and system-targeted (allowing to combine organizational requirements based on the implementation of social responsibility, improvement and training) approaches. And managing temporary (project) groups and teams is primarily associated with problems of leadership, delegation of authority and responsibility, and resistance to innovation (see Topic 2 and Slide 6).

Slide 6

The leader and the manager in the system of interpersonal relations



Patterns of a social group:

- **The density of connections within an organization or a small group should be higher than the density of connections of members of these communities with the outside world.**
- **In any large community, an individual does not behave as he does alone (or a group is something more than the mechanical sum of its constituent individuals).**
- **A fairly large small group (more than 10 people) may break up into subgroups or cliques.**
- **A group of 5-7 people is considered optimal.**

The leader of an organization is an individual who harmoniously combines leadership and management qualities (manager qualities, see Table 11). As a manager, the leader of the organization exercises his legal authority and status power to effectively solve organizational problems, and as an informal leader, he uses the power of personal influence on subordinates. Combining the competencies of a leader and a manager is the key to the successful functioning of an organization and the development of its competitive advantages in a dynamically changing environment. Thus, the personal qualities of a professional and creative manager include: preference for a free management style, high learning ability, efficiency and

combinatorial nature of decision-making, stress resistance, integrity and consistency in status positioning.

Table 11

Key manager competencies	Key competencies of a leader
Planning (setting goals and objectives, planning actions and preliminary calculation of resources)	Determining direction (shared vision of the goal, strategy, formation of organizational culture)
Management of subordinates (formation of the organizational structure, determination of each person's positions, establishment of a control system)	Bringing people together (forming and managing communication, creating coalitions, networking)
Exercising control (monitoring activities, identifying problems and eliminating them)	Motivation and inducement (stimulating activity and creativity, maintaining values and emotions, learning)

Table 11. Difference between leadership and management competencies

Successful leadership requires communicative competence, pronounced intellectual qualities and social responsibility of the leader and includes two forms of influence on performers: administration and leadership (see Table 12).

Table 12

Level	Sphere of activity		
	Management	Interpersonal relationships	Subject area
Organization	Decision-making	Information interaction	Problem solving
Group	Planning	Cooperation, mediation	Training, consulting
Individual	Control	Motivation	Grade

Table 12. Matrix of manager's functions

Delegation of authority and responsibility is one of the most important activities required for organizational leadership in a managerial (as opposed to bureaucratic and providing socially beneficial synergy, i.e. the fullest use of personnel potential in a changing business environment) organization.

Empowerment is part of the process of encouraging staff to develop professional skills and knowledge in solving organizational development problems. It involves providing workers with the resources, power and information to effectively complete a task:

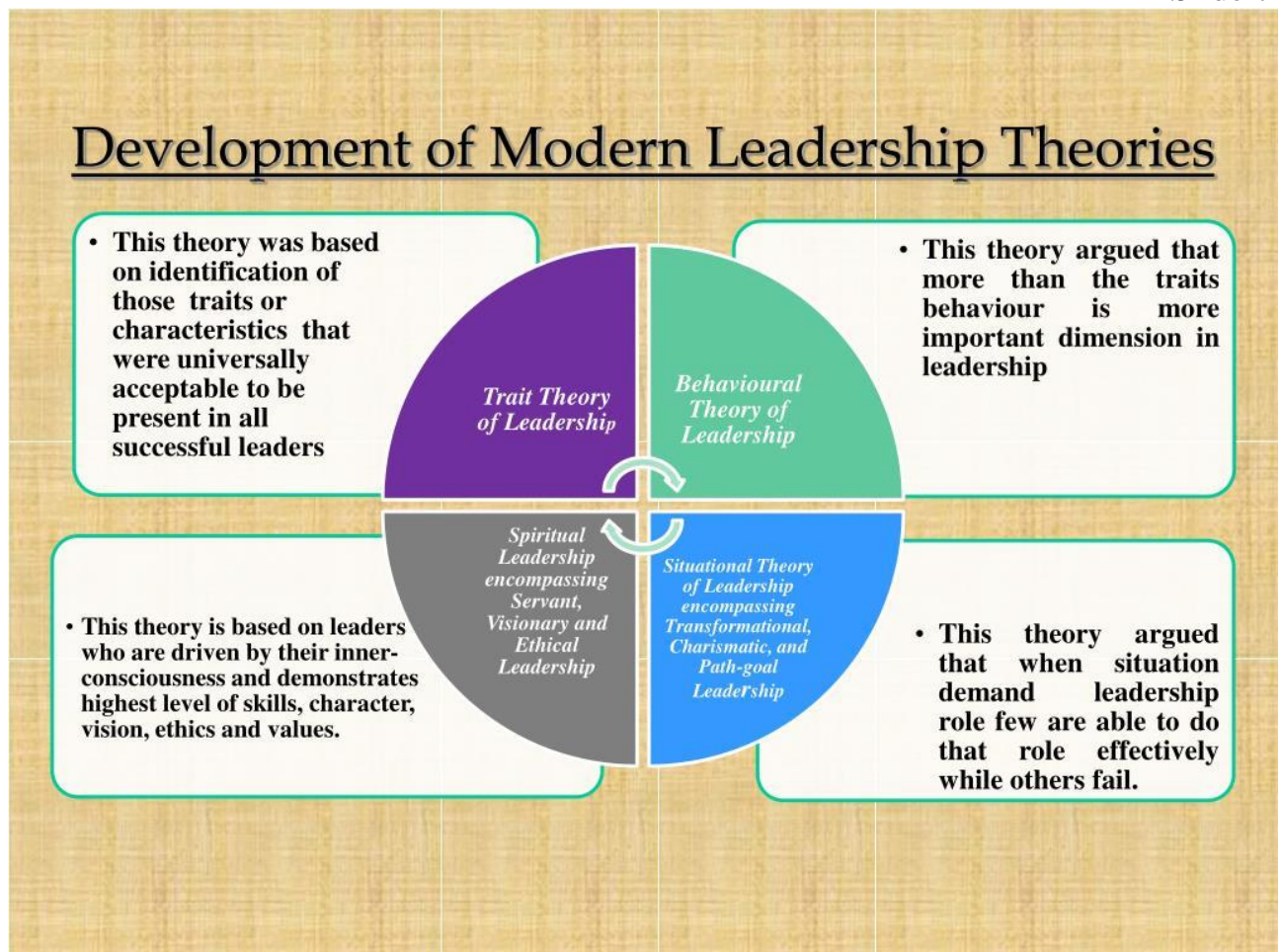
- encouraging and facilitating the manifestation of initiative by subordinates (putting forward ideas and proposals regarding the best solution to problems);
- providing freedom of action to subordinates (within the limits of job responsibilities and the set of tasks performed by members of the organization);

– attracting more intensive participation of subordinates in various forms of activity (decision making, participation in projects, etc.).

Theoretical approaches on the nature of leadership (see Slide 7):

- «*Trait theory*» (sometimes called «charismatic») focuses on the innate qualities of a leader. In American psychology, sets of these traits were especially carefully compiled, but it turned out that the task of compiling such lists was not solvable.
- «*Situational Leadership Theory*». In specific situations in the life of a group, individual members stand out as superior to others in at least one quality. If this quality turns out to be necessary in this situation, then the person possessing it becomes a leader.
- «*Synthetic theory of leadership*» (compromise version) considers leadership as a process of organizing interpersonal relationships in a group, and the leader is the subject of managing this process. Leadership is a function of the group, but the personality traits of the leader are also important.

Slide 7



Leadership styles (generally accepted classification, according to K. Lewin, see Table 13):

- *Directive* (authoritarian) leader himself determines the goals of the group, informing only about immediate tasks; emotional tension in the group leads to the fact that in the absence of an authoritarian leader, a group of this kind, as a rule, disintegrates.

- *Collegial* (democratic) style involves instructions in the form of proposals, and complementary communications are friendly.
- «*Non-interfering*» (liberal, «anarchic») style is characterized by the fact that things in the group go by themselves, the leader does not give instructions, and there is no purposeful cooperation.

Table 13

Parameters of interaction between a manager and subordinates	Authoritarian	Democratic	Liberal ("anarchist")
<i>The way of making decisions</i>	Decides alone	Advises or makes decisions jointly with subordinates	Waits for instructions from management or meeting decisions
<i>Information message</i>	Brings some information to the attention of employees	Provides complete information	Provides complete information
<i>The form of bringing decisions to the executor</i>	Communicates his decision in the form orders	Uses sentence form requests	Acts with the help of a request, persuasion
<i>Distribution of responsibility</i>	Takes over or delegates to subordinates	Distributes in accordance with delegated powers	Absolves himself of all responsibility
<i>Attitude to the initiative</i>	Suppresses fully	Encourages, uses	Hands over subordinates
<i>Attitude to recruitment</i>	Afraid of qualified workers	Picks up professionals	Selection doesn't practice
<i>Attitude towards the lack of one's own knowledge</i>	Knows everything, can do everything	Constantly improves skills	Increases his knowledge and encourages his subordinates to do so
<i>Position in relation to the group</i>	Keeps distance, uncommunicative (position above the group)	Friendly, sociable (within the group)	Afraid of communication (away from the group)
<i>The nature of relationships with subordinates</i>	Behavior is dictated by mood	Smooth in behavior (self-control)	Soft, flexible

Table 13. Matrix of management styles

Mental processes and states (emotional-volitional, cognitive), and intellectual basis and motivating the activities of managers and staff play an important role in management activities. At one time (60s of the twentieth century), the concept of need-motivational behavior was proposed, which formed the basis of modern ideas about motivational activities in management: Alderfer's ERG theory (existence needs, communication needs, growth needs), McClelland's theory of acquired needs (the

need for achievement, the need for complicity, the need to dominate), Herzberg's theory of two factors (hygienic factors (health factors), motivating factors).

Thus, in A. Maslow's personology, determined by a holistic view of a mentally healthy person, motivated to search for personal goals and reveal his creative potential, a hierarchical theory of needs is created, dividing needs into basic – constant (the need for reproduction, security, positive self-esteem, etc.) and derivatives, or meta-needs – changing (in justice, well-being, organization of social life). Meta-needs, according to Maslow, are value-equivalent and have no hierarchy.

Basic needs, according to the principle of hierarchy, are located in ascending order from the «lowest» material to the «highest» spiritual, and at each new level they become relevant (urgent, dominant, requiring satisfaction) for the individual only as they are satisfied. The first two types of basic needs were called innate, the other three – acquired: 1) the needs of immediate biological survival – *physiological*; 2) security and protection needs – *existential*; 3) needs of affection and love – *social*; 4) the needs of self-esteem and recognition – *personal*; 5) self-actualization needs – *spiritual*. Maslow does not consider «personalization» as the completion of the development of the «Self», but considers it an intermediate goal, a step towards self-actualization as more significant than the need for self-realization and independence.

In this connection, it is proposed to independently consider (expand) intangible motivational factors that contribute to increasing the efficiency of management and production activities, based on the following proposals (see Table 14):

Table 14

Needs	Ways of satisfaction
Self-expression, self-respect	Realizing your potential, gaining new knowledge, career growth, expanding your scope of authority, responsibility and influence
Respect and recognition from others	Competence in one's profession, independence, the right to make decisions, a sense of usefulness of one's work
Social (involvement, support, interaction, attachment)	Belonging to a group of kindred spirit, contact with others, communication, competitive effect
Safety, security, confidence in the future	Maintaining sustainability, providing cash income to meet physiological needs
Physiological	Working environment (comfortable workplace, good physical working conditions, etc.), food, housing, clothing

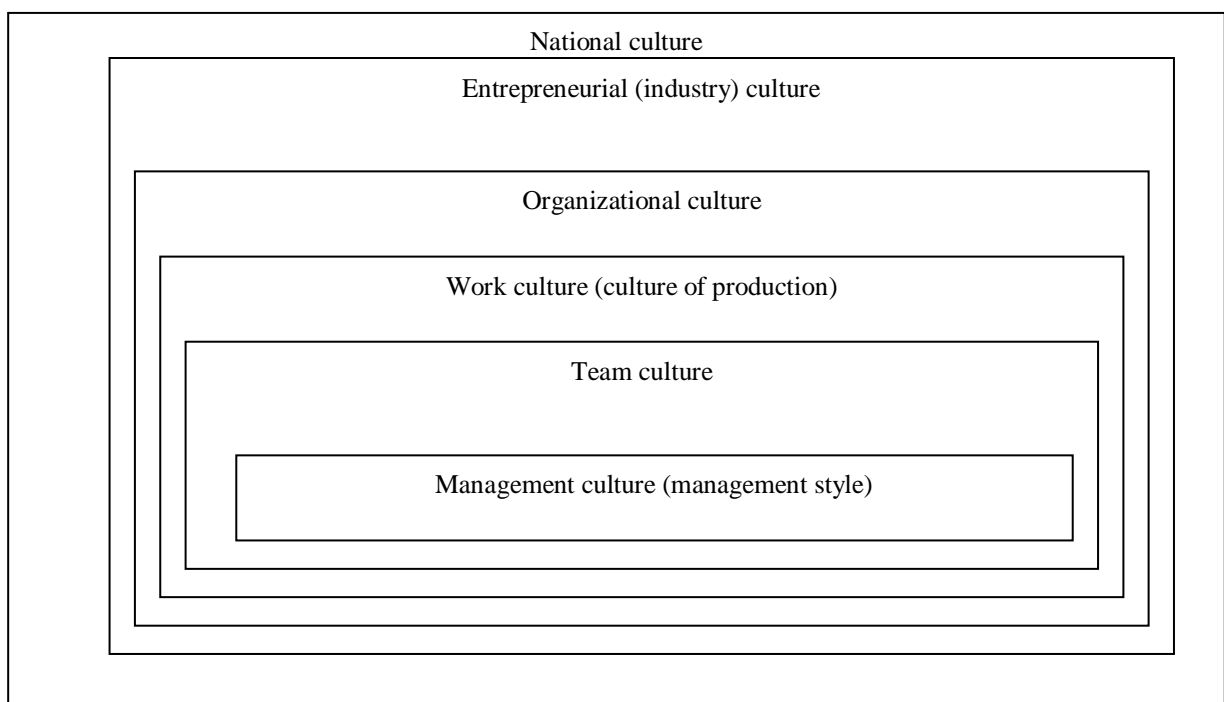
Table 14. Ways to satisfy needs according to A. Maslow

- satisfaction of physiological needs – a more comfortable workplace, a spacious place, air conditioning;
- satisfying the need for safety and security – insurance policy, medical care, long-term contract;
- satisfaction of social needs – praise, communication, friendly participation, offer of joint recreation;
- satisfying the need for respect – «a photograph on the honor board», a diploma, a ceremonial award;
- satisfying the need for self-expression – participation in a new, promising project, discussion of the employee's ideas.

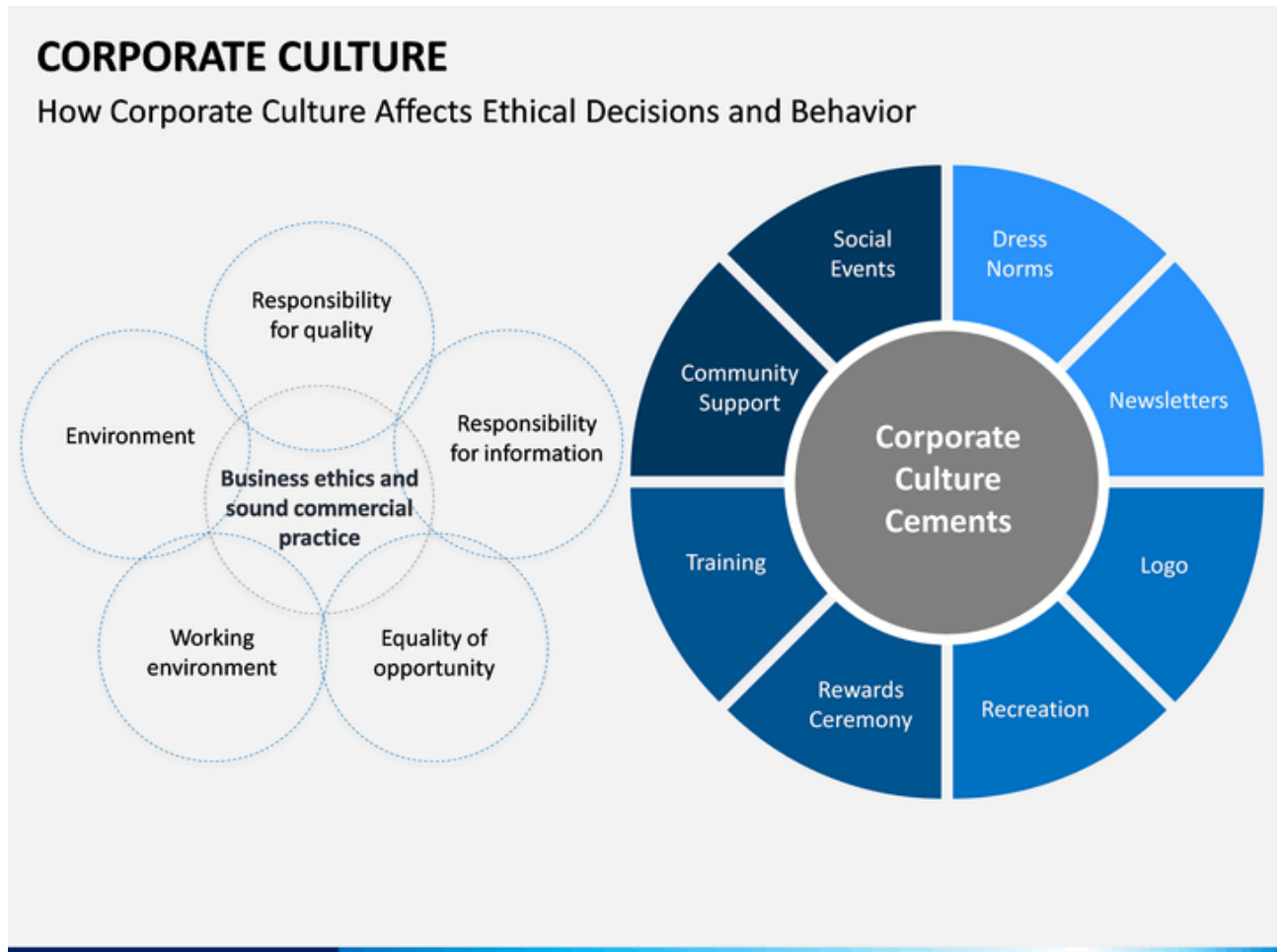
Topic 7. Corporate culture and its role in the organization. Formation of the organization's reputation and image of the institution

Culture performs the most important social functions: *integrative* – unites physically isolated people into certain systems of interactions and *regulatory* – with the help of a normative system, culture orders, directs, informs, orients, controls the actions of people.

In addition to the norms accepted in society, each group of people, including organizations, develops their own cultural patterns, which are called *organizational culture*. Organizational culture is formed under the influence of national (business) and entrepreneurial (industry) cultures and is oriented towards production culture (see Scheme 2). Moreover, the specificity of this type of culture is associated, first of all, with the mission of the organization, its subject and the nature of its activities. In turn, organizational or corporate culture influences the formation of the culture of departments, workers and employees, management groups and teams (see Slide 8).



Scheme 2. Correlation and mutual influence of cultures at different levels



Organizational culture in the field of education has a number of specific functions:

- *Protective function.* Its essence lies in the fact that organizational culture constructs an additional system of values, norms and rules, codes of conduct, which serves as a barrier to the penetration of undesirable tendencies and negative values from the environment.

- *The adaptive function* is that new employees of the organization, who do not have the culture of this organization, painlessly and easily (with proper support from the organization) fit into the social and production systems of the organization and into the existing system of relations. Thus, their loyalty to the organization is usually strengthened.

- *Educational and developmental functions* are manifested in the fact that the level of organizational culture influences accordingly (open classes, mutual visits, exchange of experience, etc.) on the formation of professional compliance and the educational level in the organization. The higher the general educational level in an organization, the greater the desire, as a rule, for individual employees to raise their educational level. Thus, a high organizational culture contributes to the improvement of «human capital» and social stability in the organization.

- *Quality management function.* The essence of this function (displayed by the organization's Quality Management System) is that the quality of organizational culture directly determines the quality of work, the working environment, and the

microclimate in the organization, which in turn determine the quality of the organization's services.

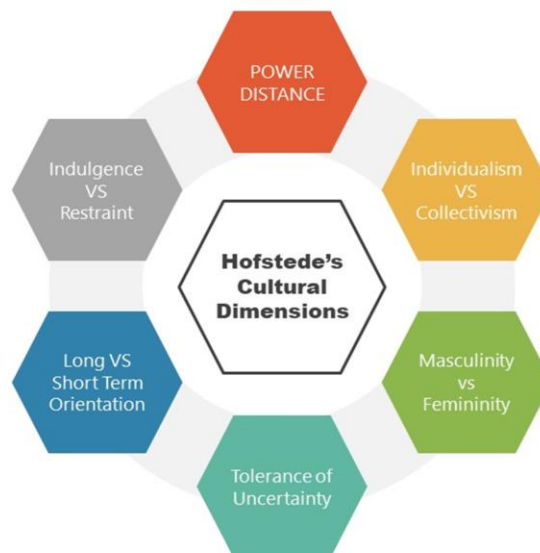
Organizational culture has a number of important characteristics: observable regular forms of behavior, norms, dominant values, «philosophy» (policies developed by the organization), rules, organizational climate. It creates positive benefits – it connects people and stimulates them to common achievements that could not be achieved only with the help of structural connections and changes, but it also has a negative manifestation – inertia, it is difficult to change.

One organization may have several «local» cultures: the prevailing culture in the organization and the culture of its parts – levels, divisions, professional, national, age, gender and other groups. These different subcultures may coexist within the same organization and require different corrective actions from management.

Let's look at several models and typologies of corporate culture (see Slides 9-13). Thus, the categorization of culture according to G. Hofstede (see Slide 9-10) in the concept of «mental programs» is based on the fact that the sources of the formation of sensations, thoughts and behavior, called mental programs in cultural anthropology, are culture and the social environment, that is, the conditions in which socialization and inculturation take place person.

Slide 9

Cultural dimensions theory (Geert Hofstede, 1928-2020)

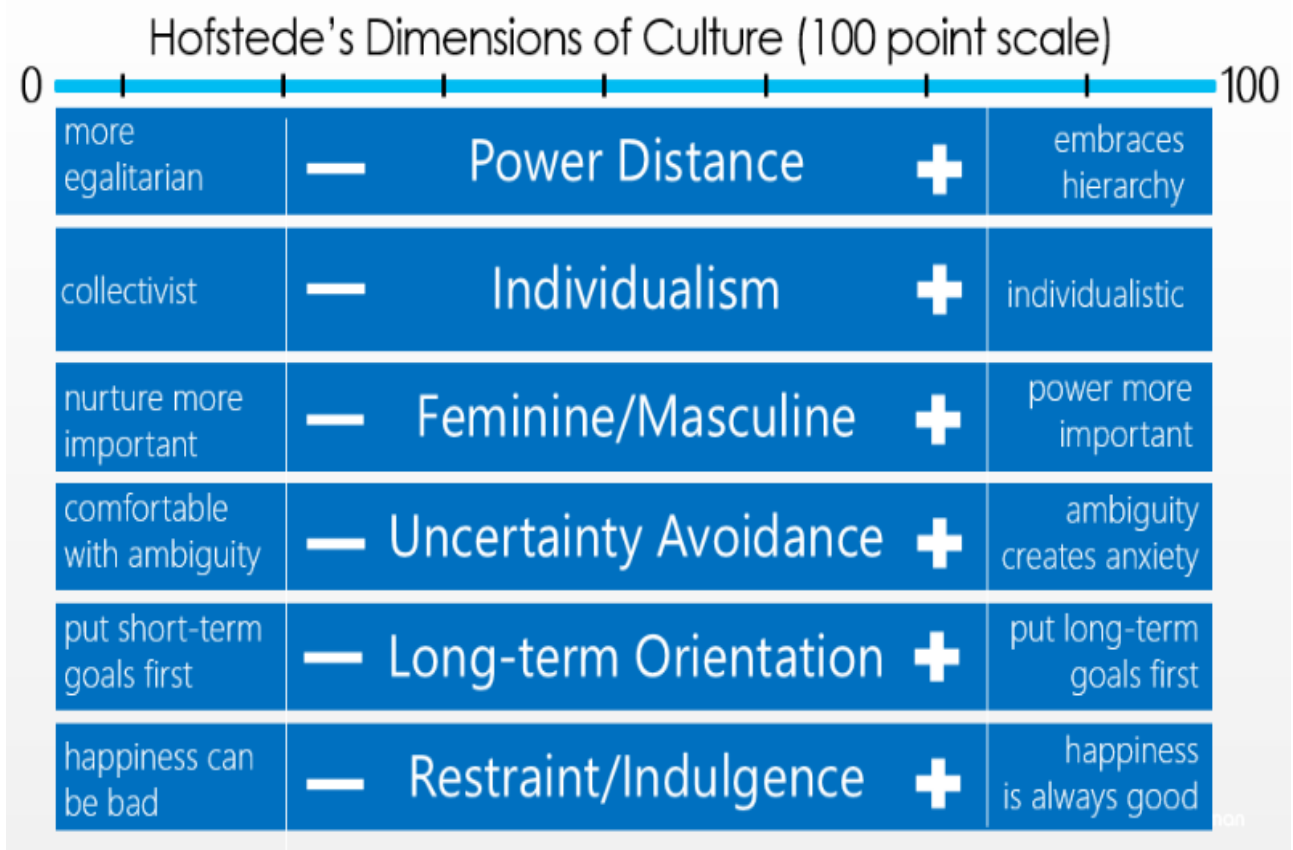


This means that mental programs are determined by the so-called dimensions of culture, which include:

- *power distance* (*high*: authoritarianism, inequality as a given, hierarchical distance, centralization of power; *low*: equality in relationships, consultative style of communication);
- *individualism* – *collectivism* (preference for independence or group membership);

- *masculinity* (masculinity: perseverance, strict division of roles, rivalry, success and competition, aggressiveness, etc.) – *femininity* (femininity: caring for others, mutual dependence, the importance of personal relationships, understanding, etc.) in business relationships;
- *uncertainty avoidance* (*high*: risk-averse, prefer clear goals and actions, formal or informal rules of behavior; *low*: value initiative, novelty of ideas, ready to take risks);
- *strategic thinking* (short-term or long-term orientation to the future);
- *indulgence* (indulgence towards weaknesses) *or restraint* (strict social rules and norms are based on restraint as a value).

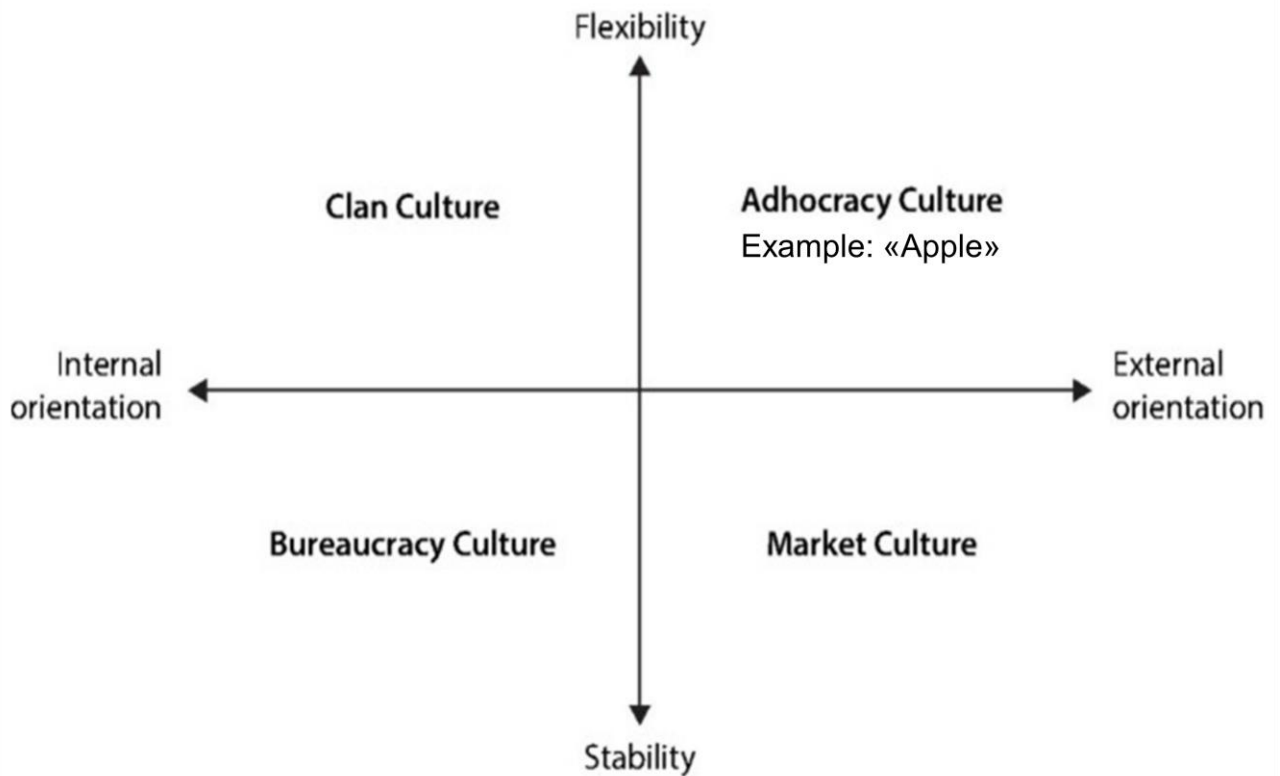
Slide 10



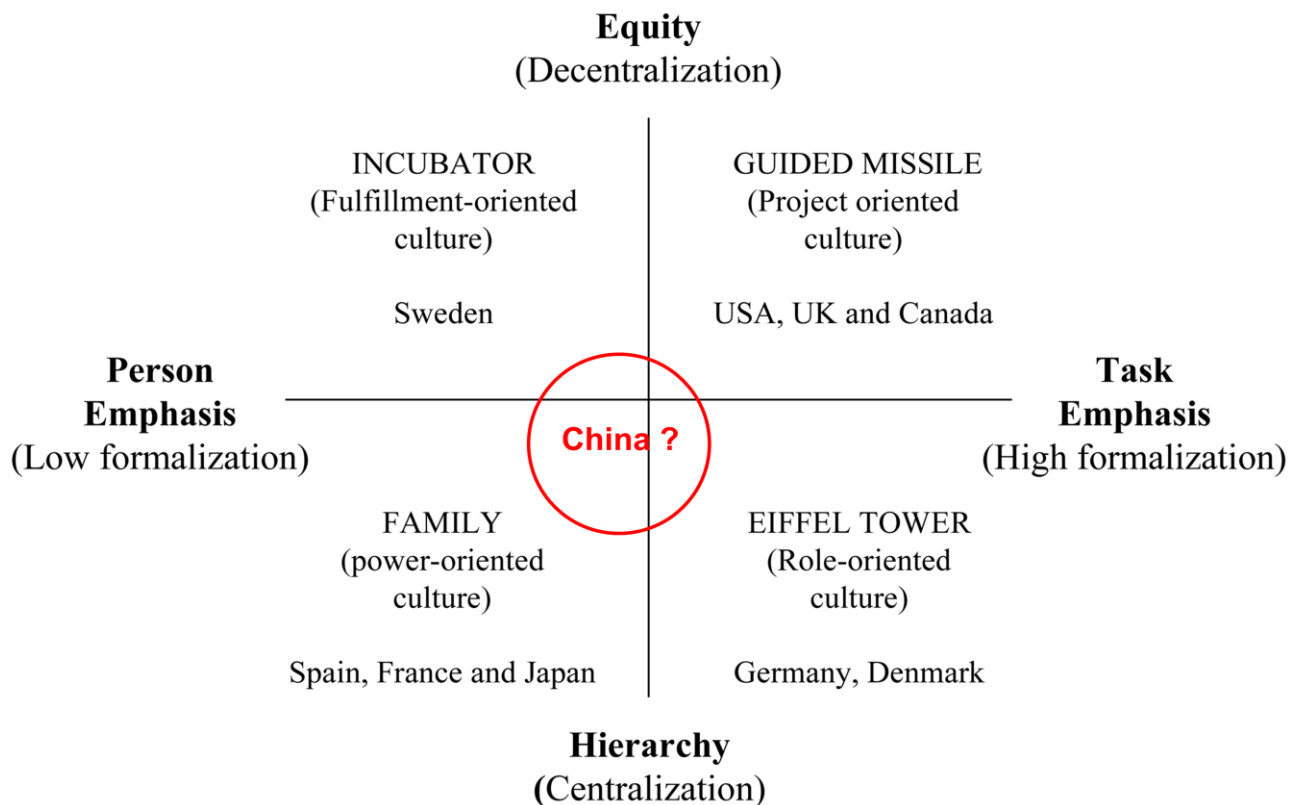
Typology of corporate cultures by K. Cameron and R. Queen (see Slide 11). In this model, cultures are characterized by competing role leadership styles and performance criteria:

- *clan culture*: leader – Educator, Parent; effectiveness criteria – cohesion, moral climate, human resource development; motto: participation strengthens commitment;
- *bureaucratic (hierarchical) culture*: leader – Coordinator, Mentor, Organizer; performance criteria – profitability, timeliness, smooth functioning, motto – control contributes to profitability;
- *market culture*: leader – Tough taskmaster, Rival, Producer; performance criteria – market share, goal achievement, defeat of competitors; motto: competition promotes productivity;
- *adhocratic culture*: leader – Innovator, Entrepreneur, Visionary; performance criteria – cutting-edge results, creativity, growth; motto: innovation breeds new resources.

**Typology of corporate cultures by K. Cameron and R. Queen.
The framework of competing values of different cultures**



**Four Types of Corporate Culture
Fons Trompenaars (born 1953, Amsterdam)**



Characteristics of Trompenaars' Four Types of Corporate Culture

Variables	Family	Eiffel Tower	Guided Missile	Incubator
Relationship between employees	Diffuse relationships to organic whole to which one is bonded	Specific role in mechanical system of required interactions	Specific tasks in cybernetic system targeted upon shared objectives	Diffuse, spontaneous relationships growing out of shared creative process
Attitudes toward authority	Status is ascribed to parent figures who are close and powerful	Status is ascribed to superior roles, which are distant yet powerful	Status is achieved by project group members who contribute to targeted goals	Status is achieved by individuals exemplifying creativity and growth
Ways of thinking and learning	Intuitive, holistic, lateral, and error-correcting	Logical, analytical, vertical, and rationally efficient	Problems centered, professional, practical, cross-disciplinary	Process oriented, creative, an hoc, inspirational
Attitudes towards people	Family members	Human resources	Specialists and experts	Co-creators
Ways of changing	"Father" changes course	Change rules and procedures	Shift aim as target moves	Improvise and attune
Ways of motivating and rewarding	Intrinsic satisfaction in being loved and respected	Promote to greater position, larger role	Pay or credit for performance and problems solved	Participating in the process of creating new realities
Management style	Management by subjectives	Management by job description	Management by objectives	Management by enthusiasm
Criticism and conflict resolution	Turn other cheeks, save others' faces, do not lose power game	Criticism is accusation of irrationalism unless there are procedures to arbitrate conflict	Constructive task-related only, then admit error fast and correct	Must improve creative idea, not negate it

The construction of models of production culture or organizational behavior in the production process indicates that the «life cycle» of any organization is directly related to a change in the leading type of organizational culture. It remains only to understand how and why the «clan culture» is replaced by a «bureaucratic one», when the time comes for a «market culture» and what the advantages of «ad hoc» are manifested at the final stage of the organization's «life cycle» (see Slide 3).

A comparison of various theories of corporate cultures and an analysis of «life cycles» in «long life» organizations is proposed to be carried out independently.

Topic 8. Cross-cultural, gender, confessional and other features organizational behaviour in the educational environment. Practical activities of a psychologist in an organization

It is proposed to continue your acquaintance with world management cultures and carry out their analysis independently, using the materials presented in the Fragments of primary sources of this educational and methodological complex (see point 1.2.3).

As for communications and the negotiation process in the international environment, for this you should refer to the Fragment of primary sources of this educational and methodological complex (see point 1.2.4).

Psychological service in educational organizations

Psychological service is an independent and effective structural unit in the management apparatus of an educational institution, using psychological methods to solve problems of psychological and mental health of employees and students, personnel work, organizational development, complex tasks of psychological examination, diagnostics, consultation and correctional work, psychological support of the pedagogical process in an educational institution, conducting psychological and educational activities, forming requests and comprehensively promoting professional and personal growth.

In turn, pedagogical activities in an educational institution can differ on many grounds, limited here by the purpose of interaction, its direction, the type of interaction connections – we can propose the following classification of professional pedagogical activities.

Educational activity: the goal is the intimization of interaction, i.e. the search for the basis for the formation of the «Self» and distinguishing it from the «not-Self»; orientation – emotional; connection – vertical (family – in the literal and figurative sense) type.

Teaching (teacher) activity: goal – actualization (implementation, productivity) of interaction; orientation – «mental-thinking» (smart is not the one who knows, but the one who knows how); connection – horizontal (kinship, kindred-spiritual) type.

Activities of an educational practical psychologist: the goal is accentuation (in the Rogers sense: not only «here and now», but also necessarily «client-centered») interaction; focus – diagnostic and correctional; communication is of a pragmatic (i.e. depending on the applied task) type.

It is clear that for no reason do these professional activities in the field of education intersect. However, these activities are still combined into a single process of pedagogical interaction: the well-known position that learning should be ahead of development is not enough. It is necessary that upbringing precedes learning. The meaning of the process of pedagogical interaction will be the search for necessary and sufficient conditions for the implementation of the super task – the adequate development of the individual «Self». More specifically, this unity is transformed for a practical psychologist into the principle of unity of diagnosis and correction, manifested in the forms of: counseling, setting a research problem, training, etc., and the process of activity itself, in view of the heterochronicity of diagnostics, correction, training, education, takes on the meaning of specially organized preventive work, the main vector of which becomes the psychological protection of the subject of pedagogical influence.

The moral and ethical principles of the work of an organizational psychologist include: the principle of respect for the individual, the principle of professional competence, the principle of confidentiality, the principle of responsibility, the principle of professional independence.

In the activities of the educational psychological service when working with students, two directions can be distinguished – actual and prospective.

The actual direction is focused on solving pressing problems associated with certain difficulties in the training and education of students, deviations in their behavior, communication, and personality formation.

The prospective direction is aimed at the development, formation of the personality and individuality of each student, at the formation of his psychological readiness for self-determination, for a creative life in society. The psychologist introduces the basic psychological idea into the activities of the teaching staff of the institution: the possibility of harmonious development of the personality of each student and the creation of psychological conditions for the development of the abilities of each and every one.

These two areas are inextricably linked: the psychologist, solving promising problems, systematically provides specific assistance to those in need, coordinating his actions with parents, educators, and teachers.

A practical psychologist in an educational institution must become a full member of the teaching staff and actively cooperate with the social and educational services of the institution. The activities of a practical psychologist should be aimed at organizing effective pedagogical interaction.

The main task of a practical psychologist in working with teachers is to help them organize the educational process as a process of free personal development of each student to the extent of his individual abilities, interests and inclinations. At the same time, the psychologist does not interfere with the private teaching methods used by teachers.

The psychologist achieves all this through active promotion of modern psychological and pedagogical theories of learning, development and education, careful study of the course of the educational process from the point of view of the nature of the educational activity of students, the motivation of this activity, its educational and developmental results. The psychologist pays great attention to studying the nature of relationships and interactions between teachers and students, as well as students among themselves. He strives for relationships to become humane, democratic, aimed at achieving the goals of education and personal development of students.

The psychologist also studies interpersonal relationships in the teaching staff and takes care of establishing moral and business relationships. The problem of professional relationships is a problem on the solution of which the effectiveness of the work of both a practical psychologist and the entire teaching staff as a whole depends.

In order for the interaction between a practical psychologist and the teaching staff (employees of the organization) to become effective, it is necessary to purposefully formulate requests to the psychologist, because one of the important principles of the professional ethics of a practical psychologist can be expressed in the words: «Without request – no action».

Psychological requests are divided into constructive (the client knows, approximately, what he wants, and his intentions to solve the problem are sincere) and non-constructive.

Some constructive requests:

- request for symptom relief, taking into account the principle of professional competence;
- request for information, taking into account the principle of confidentiality;

- request for help in self-realization and/or self-knowledge, taking into account the principle of respect for the individual;

- request for transformation, taking into account the principle of responsibility...

Unconstructive requests include: manipulative requests, unrealistic requests (or requests with extreme generalization), vague requests.

As an example, we can offer a list of requests to a psychologist from teachers (from the problems of educational institutions):

- psychological characteristics of different age periods;
- conditions for increasing educational motivation;
- diagnostics and methods for developing unformed learning skills in students;
- psychological reasons for difficulties in students' assimilation of material in individual academic disciplines;
- feedback on your professional skills and ways to expand them (professional and personal growth);
- communication with peers and problems of forming relationships;
- methods of career guidance work with students;
- features of communication with parents of students;
- conflicts in the system of organizational relations (with students, with the class, with colleagues, with the administration);
- prevention of emotional burnout...

The questions of the program, not included in the lecture notes are studied independently and discussed in laboratory classes or individual consultations.

FRAGMENTS OF PRIMARY SOURCES

1. Авилов А. В. Рефлексивное управление. Методологические основания: Монография. – М.: ГУУ, 2003. – С.35-39.

2.2 Mythologization of perceptions of the manager's activity

Currently, they speak of *mythologization* as the unconditional and reverent acceptance of ideas that, although they cannot be rationally justified, are widely known and in common use. Accordingly, they also talk about *demythologization* – the desire for a rational, logical explanation or refutation of the essence of inherited views and ideas. One of the motives of our work unfolds precisely in this direction. The activity of a leader is a mythologized area, since in many ways it developed not as a result of scientific research or engineering design, but only as a tribute to tradition and experience. Consequently, management is not free from error. Noteworthy is the so-called Feller's law, which states: «*The first myth of management science is that it exists*».

Below we present probably only a few of the existing management myths, but undoubtedly these are some of the most persistent myths. Naturally, many of them are not considered such today, but we will just try to point out the groundlessness and inconsistency of a number of ideas about management, and thereby their mythical nature.

[1] The myth of feedback control.

In professional management culture, there is an idea of management activity as an activity focused on a certain object (enterprise, organization, ...), and often implies the use by the manager of a so-called *feedback control scheme* (FC), including the receipt by the subject of control (manager) information about the state of the object, making decisions and performing control actions on the object. Let us note some points that make it doubtful to attribute the OS scheme to the essential, integral properties of management activities (at the same time, we do not deny the «workability» of this scheme in technical fields and cybernetics, in which it first appeared in a formalized form).

1. Since in a management scheme with FC everything is based on the constancy of the functions characterizing the object (which allows us to build schemes for maintaining stable behavior of the object under changing external conditions), then in management activities that involve a constant change in the «nature» of the situation (structure, composition of significant parameters, object functions, etc.), such a scheme fundamentally does not work. This is precisely the situation in the actual practice of a leader.

Let us quote Drucker again /63, 62/: «*A commercial enterprise – in general, any modern organization – must be built in such a way that changes are the norm for it and that it itself provokes changes, and does not search for new forms and solutions after changes have already happened. Entrepreneurial activity is initiated by the external environment and is aimed at the external environment. This does not fit into traditional ideas about the scope of management*».

2. In the hierarchical decomposition of the enterprise, the activities of the manager and his subordinates unfold in different «times», therefore asynchronously, the dynamics of their decision-making are also different.

Since the FC scheme is a «synchronous» scheme, because of this it turns out to be of little use in organizational management. Naturally, our statement is valid only if the principles of hierarchical decomposition are observed; however, in practice they are rarely observed, which is why our critical thesis may cause confusion.

3. The topology of the circuit with FC does not have the asymmetry in the «manager-subordinate» relationship that is fundamental for managing the asymmetry. Therefore, after a simple renaming of the information connections of the circuit, when the FC signal becomes an influence signal and vice versa, the interpretation of the «inverted» circuit as a circuit with FC is no less consistent than the original one. In practice, there are numerous cases where a leader is so predictable for his subordinates that the latter simply begin to manipulate (according to an «inverted» scheme) his actions. Thus, the FC scheme is not, at least, a sufficient control condition.

The idea of feedback has become unreasonably more widespread than would be expected from a technical concept.

The modern French philosopher J. Ellul in his work «Technological Bluff» explains this by the significant pressure that the so-called philosophy of the absurd puts on modern thinking /155+, 267-268/: *«The philosophy of the absurd has had some impact on scientific reflection. This may seem incredible. And yet, if we consider the hypotheses of the last twenty years in physics and biology, starting with cybernetic structures, the idea of feedback and the main concepts of communication, then the intrusion into research of such concepts as feedback loops, vorticity, turbulence is surprising. ...How, however, is the connection with the absurd manifested in this? The simple fact is that there is a complete revolution in the understanding of the order of phenomena. ... Noise becomes an important factor, if not a decisive factor, in communication. ... Disorder becomes a positive phenomenon that must be integrated into physical research. And they begin to say: order can only be born from disorder (just as information is ultimately born from noise). ... And I fear that introducing the notion of feedback loops into economic theory ends up justifying a certain economic absurdity».*

[2] The myth about the control object.

With the traditional separation in control schemes of *the object* and *the subject* of control, all attention, all emphasis is shifted to the object. That is, there is often no moment of *reflection* when the subject himself becomes the object. Part of the consequence of this division in management is the already noted above alienation of the manager (subject) from the enterprise (object) he manages.

It should be taken into account that in reality the need for management arises not only due to the introduction of uncertainty into the action on the part of the personnel (object) carrying it out and due to the reaction of the external environment, but primarily due to the uncertainty and variability that, due to its human nature, the subject of management is the manager. Thus, the manager must be the object of his

management activities to no less an extent than the enterprise he heads, which significantly changes the entire «picture» of subject-object relations in management.

[3] The myth of management as a «behavioral» activity.

In the traditionally organized activities of a leader, there is a strong emphasis on the «behavioral» (behavioral, psychological, ethical, moral and other motivational) components of the activity.

The ability to understand a person's character, motivate his professional activity, create a favorable moral climate in a team, etc., etc., etc. – these are aspects (often even the main, priority) of a manager's activity in a traditional management scheme. Hence his emphasis on the motivational component in many enterprise problems. This is noticeable in journal articles and literature devoted to management problems.

Here are some excerpts from a collection of sayings and aphorisms about management /132/, illustrating the spirit and letter of the prevailing view of management:

- *«The ability to deal with people is a commodity that can be bought in the same way as we buy sugar, coffee ... And I will pay more for such a skill than for anything else in the world» /J. D. Rockefeller/*
- *«My secret to success is the ability to understand the other person's point of view and see things from both his and my points of view» /G. Ford/*
- *«Pick up a master key for everyone. This is the art of managing people» /B. Gracian/*

In fact, such a psychological, behavioral character is more likely to be characteristic of the subject of management of such a professional group in which his own professional activity coincides with the activities of subordinates. Management in this case is only an accompanying characteristic of some basic professional activity; management here is almost degenerate and unprofessional. These are, for example, the activities of: a foreman among workers – he is also a worker and of the same profession; leading specialist among engineers (senior engineer) – he is also an engineer and of the same specialty; junior commander among soldiers (sergeant) – he is also a soldier and of the same type of troops. We do not classify such activities (foreman, sergeant, ...) as professional in their managerial component, and accordingly, we do not classify them as the subject of this work.

But as soon as management activity becomes professionally distinguished, that is, it is fundamentally different in nature (subject and method) from the activities of other persons – for example, the head of an enterprise – then management moves from the area with a predominance of motivational, behavioral influence and control over subordinates to the area of specific professional management mechanisms.

Behavioral management imposes on the subject of management a kind of guarantee (inadequate responsibility) for the subordinate. We find a warning on this point in the Book of Proverbs of Solomon (6:1-5):

*My son! if you have stood surety for your neighbor and given your hand for another,
You have entangled yourself with the words of your mouth.*

Do this, my son, and save yourself,

Since you have fallen into the hands of your neighbor:

Go, fall at your feet and beg your neighbor;

Do not let your eyes sleep and your eyelids slumber;

Save yourself like a chamois from a hand and like a bird from a fowler's hand.

Comment. Even for a foreman, his own skills and authority in the basic profession (in construction, for example) are comparable in influence on subordinates with his ability to influence them through motivation, and often even professionalism turns out to be more significant, since indirectly motivation is largely determined by him. And for the head of an enterprise, an attempt to implement management functions through motivational and behavioral mechanisms can generally be considered ineffective or even a negative, undesirable aspect of his activity.

[4] The myth about the necessary broad erudition of an executive.

It is generally accepted that the head of an enterprise must be competent in a variety of professional activities carried out by specialists of the enterprise he heads. However, this is nothing more than an attractive feature of a leader, which actually has no direct relation to his professional activity. It is necessary to understand that such competence of a leader is achieved at the expense of the inferiority of his own, very specific professional activity. The trouble is that he does not always understand it, and in an extremely bad case, which is often found in modern management practice, the manager does not build his own professional activities at all, and carries out some kind of «pseudo-management» on the «ground» of the professional activities of his subordinates. Despite all his erudition, as a subject of unique activity (management), the leader in this case disappears altogether.

[5] The myth of ease of management.

Contrary to the popular saying – *«nothing is as cheap and at the same time as useful as good management»* – the cheapness (and simplicity) of management is as deceptive as the ease of achieving a virtuous life. It would seem that keep only 10 biblical commandments and salvation will be achieved, but it's surprising how not many people do this!

It is naive to think that the design and construction of, for example, any «machine» (vacuum cleaner, car, information system, etc.) exceeds the complexity of constructing the activities of an enterprise manager. At the same time, it is believed that to create a machine it really takes months or even years and a team of several (and sometimes tens and hundreds) specialists, and the manager is practically not provided with resources for building his activities, although it is in management – unlike many other professions – you always have to deal with a significantly new «machine», which must not only be mastered, but also first built. Most often, it is expected that the control mechanism upon the appearance of a manager (for example, a new manager), as if by order, should immediately act satisfactorily, which is never expected from a fundamentally new machine.

[6] The myth about the possibility of human control.

What constitutes the «human» in a person, in principle, cannot be subjected to management in the traditional management paradigm that we are analyzing. As G. Hagemann noted /145/: *«You can force a person to do something, but you can never force a person to want to do it»*. Therefore, traditional management is implemented either with a significant limitation of the activities of a subordinate within the framework of formalized actions, or under psychological influence on the subordinate (*«with psychological despotism»* in Drucker's words). Both of these

situations have a lot of negative things; in fact, in traditional management, *without violating professional ethics*, in principle one cannot count on the «inclusion» of truly human, creative qualities – the only ones that create effective work.

2. Ларичев О. И. Теория и методы принятия решений, а также Хроника событий в Волшебных Странах: Учебник. – М.: Логос, 2000. – С. 16-17, 21-22, 24-25.

2. People and their roles in the decision-making process

People can play different roles in the decision-making process. We will call the person who actually makes the choice of the best course of action *a decision maker* (DM).

Along with the DM, *the owner of the problem should be identified as a separate personality* – a person who, in the opinion of others, should solve it and is responsible for the decisions made. But this does not always mean that the owner of the problem is also the DM. Of course, he can be, and history gives us numerous examples of the combination of these two roles. But there are situations when the owner of the problem is only one of several people taking part in solving it. He may be the chairman of a collective decision-making body, forced to make compromises to reach agreement.

Sometimes the personalities of the DM and the owner of the problem simply do not match. We all know families in which the nominal head of the family does not decide anything (see the above dialogue between the spouses). In the same way, some managers seek to delegate decision-making to others: the head of the company relies on his deputy, and presidents sign orders prepared by others (and sometimes contradictory). Thus, the owner of the problem and the DM can be either the same or different personalities.

The third role that a person can play in the decision-making process is that of a leader or member of *an active group* – a group of people who have common interests and try to influence the choice process and its outcome. Thus, trying to influence the country's economic policy, some active groups organize strikes, others – a noisy campaign to support the government in the press, and still others allocate funds to support the government – give loans.

A person makes a responsible choice, being in the position of *a voter* who must decide for which person or political party to vote. In this case, the voter is one of many participants in the collective decision-making process.

If decisions are made by a small group, whose members formally have equal rights (jury, commission), then the person is *a member of the decision-making group*. The main thing in the activities of such a group is to reach agreement when developing joint decisions.

In the decision-making process, a person can act as *an expert*, i.e. a professional in a particular field, to whom all people involved in this process turn for assessments and recommendations. So, when restructuring an organization, the DM turns to an experienced administrator for advice. Experts can help a businessman assess the economic efficiency of releasing new products, etc.

When making complex (usually strategic) decisions, *a decision consultant* is sometimes involved in their preparation. Its role comes down to the reasonable organization of the decision-making process: helping the DM and the owner of the problem in correctly setting the problem, identifying the positions of active groups, and organizing work with experts. A consultant (or analyst) usually does not bring his preferences and assessments into decision-making; he only helps others weigh the pros and cons and work out a reasonable compromise.

In addition, the decision-making environment implicitly involves the DM's environment, employees of the organization on whose behalf the DM makes decisions. Usually this group of people has common views and common values. It is to this group that the DM primarily explains the logic, reasonableness, and validity of his decision. In this regard, although the DM makes individual decisions, he takes into account the policies and preferences of this group of people...

...

7. Decision making process

One should not think that decision-making is a one-time act. Very often this is a rather long and painful process. G. Simon [1] distinguishes three stages in it: searching for information, searching and finding alternatives, and choosing the best alternative.

At the first stage, all information available at the time of decision-making is collected: factual data, expert opinion. Where possible, mathematical models are built; sociological surveys are conducted; views on the problem on the part of active groups influencing its solution are determined. The second stage is associated with determining what can and cannot be done in the current situation, i.e. with identifying solutions (alternatives). And the third stage includes comparison of alternatives and selection of the best solution option (or options)...

...

9. Typical decision making problems

Of the three stages in the decision-making process above, the third stage has traditionally received the most attention. Recognizing the importance of searching for information and identifying alternatives is followed by the understanding that these steps are highly informal. The methods of passing through the stages depend not only on the content of the decision-making task, but also on the experience, habits, personal style of the DM and his environment. Although these same factors are present when comparing alternatives, their role here is noticeably less. Scientific analysis of decision-making problems begins from the moment when at least some of the alternatives and/or criteria are known.

Multicriteria choice problems occupy a central place in modern decision science. It is believed that taking into account many criteria brings the formulation of the problem closer to real life. Traditionally, it is customary to distinguish between three main decision-making tasks.

1. *Ordering of alternatives.* For a number of problems, the requirement to determine the order on a set of alternatives seems quite justified. Thus, family members order future purchases according to the degree of necessity, company managers order investment objects according to profitability, etc. In general, the

requirement to order alternatives means determining the relative value of each of the alternatives.

2. *Distribution of alternatives by class of solutions.* Such tasks often occur in everyday life. Thus, when buying an apartment or a house, or when exchanging an apartment, people usually divide alternatives into two groups: those that deserve and those that do not deserve more detailed study, which requires the expenditure of effort and money. Product groups vary in quality. The applicant divides the universities into which he seeks to enter into groups. In the same way, people often identify groups of books for themselves (based on their attractiveness for reading), tourist routes, etc.

3. *Identifying the best alternative.* This task has traditionally been considered one of the main ones in decision making. It often occurs in practice. Choosing one item when purchasing, choosing a place to work, choosing a project for a complex technical device – these examples are very familiar. Moreover, such problems are common in the world of policy decisions, where alternatives are relatively few but difficult to study and compare. For example, a better option for organizing money exchange is needed, a better option for carrying out land reform, etc. Note that a feature of many political decision-making problems is the construction of new alternatives in the process of solving problems.

3. Ермолович Д. В. Психология управления: учеб.-метод. комплекс для специальности первой ступени 1-19 01 01 «Дизайн» (по направлениям): [Электронный ресурс] / Сост. Д. В. Ермолович. – Минск: Институт современных знаний имени А. М. Широкова, 2022. – С. 13-20.

World management cultures: American, Japanese, European, Chinese, Soviet.

Using the chronological example of organizational politics, here only, of Western civilization, one can identify, if not causality, then the sequence of political transformations, and at the same time the pragmatics of the sustainability of social organization (it is proposed to independently consider the organizational principles of the political economic life of Japan and China):

1. British version (liberalism, bourgeois democracy) of social organization (Hobbes's position on the malevolence of human nature and the need for a «social contract»): an independent state superstructure and the ability to manage the future while observing the principle of separation of powers (Locke) with «delegation» of decision-making to elites (public, intellectual, inherited, acquired)...

2. Austro-Hungarian version (statism, corporatism, conservatism) of social organization: federalization (from the Statute of L. Sapieha) and delegation of management powers, preservation of national and cultural responsibility, group (social) tolerance and group isolationism (depth psychology and justification of national tradition)...

3. French version (utopianism) of social organization (Rousseau's position on the virtue of human nature and the necessity of the «social contract»): declaration of independence and priorities of natural human rights, a prerequisite for the formation

of civil society and control over the state, bourgeois democracy and the republican form of government, tolerance (psychological) personal...

4. The American version (statism, liberalism, confederation) of social organization: the first synthesis (emigrant), pragmatic, entrepreneurial individualism and the priority of rights, as a result – a declaration of self-government and a supranational community – the American people (behaviorism, cognitivism and humanistic psychology)...

5. German version (reactionism, social-imperialism) of social organization: post-romantic-sentimental, missionary, «corrective» (like «heirs of the Holy Roman Empire»), a tendency to idealize and justify the means used by higher goals (the predominance of cognitive-analytical psychology)...

6. Russian version (fundamentalism) of social organization: communal («conciliar») self-sufficiency, reaching the point of isolationism, missionary (unity as a third way), tendency to extremes: «domostroy» and reflection, as a result – high inertia and self-destructive determination (psychology of synthesis and harmony against the background of the everyday psychology of rebellion and humility)...

7. Soviet version (neo-Marxism, people's democracy) of social organization: the second synthesis (international), «heroic», waning social-synergistic enthusiasm, as a result – the declaration of humanistic avant-garde, socialist ideology and supranational community – the Soviet people (the predominance of «dogmatic» psychology personality and activity)...

8. European (European Union) version (utopian consensus, eclecticism, neoliberalism, confederation) of social organization: third synthesis (cultural-historical), parliamentary-institutional, civil-democratic, as a result – a declaration of «adaptive» tolerance, openness, balance of rights and responsibilities (the predominance of existential psychology inevitably turning into postmodern psychology)...

In addition, 40 years ago, the Dutch professor G. Hofstede conducted a study of the characteristics of the manifestation of 64 national cultures according to the criteria: power distance (hierarchy level, vertical/horizontal management cultures), individualism/collectivism (the predominance of certain values in the mass consciousness), masculinity/femininity (orientation towards results, competition, struggle or quality of life, harmony, tolerance, mercy), the desire to avoid uncertainty (organized/disorganized management structures). These studies formed the basis for understanding management culture (management model, national stereotype) as dominant in a given society and having a direct impact on organizational (corporate) culture.

1. American management culture

1. Rigid pragmatism, focus on real, beneficial work, respect and desire for material wealth.
2. A kind of target dynamism: goal – action – achievement – new goal.
3. Rational use of time as the most important business resource: «time is money».
4. Deepest individualism and self-confidence; independence in making and implementing decisions, as well as the willingness to bear all the necessary responsibility for them, a skeptical attitude towards state assistance.

5. Communication skills: general friendliness, frankness and sincerity, willingness to cooperate and find reasonable compromises, the desire to obtain all the necessary information and the willingness to exchange it with partners. They react painfully to any manifestations of dishonesty, be it a partner's insincerity, concealment of information, or simply banal deception.
6. The distribution (and even a fairly strict division) of business and personal in American business practice and behavior.
7. Quite understandable patriotism and pride in the successes and position of the United States in the world turn into certain manifestations of ethnocentrism.

2. Japanese management culture

The main conditions of the Japanese management system include a lifelong employment system, a collective decision-making process, and the concept of continuous learning, which leads to the need for a long-term strategy for the life of the enterprise; gradualism in the formation of an innovative management culture while maintaining its originality; rapid mastery of the most advanced examples of world technological culture and quality control; highlighting modernization and development of the human factor as priority resources.

The Japanese national stereotype is based on a belief in collectivism and the desire to achieve harmony:

1. Endless hard work and patience combined with an equally endless inner desire for beauty and perfection.
2. Discipline and devotion to a sense of duty to the community (group), recognition of unconditional group authority, willingness to sacrifice personal needs and interests to it.
3. Traditionalism and healthy practicality.
4. Politeness and delicacy, extreme neatness and cleanliness, natural oriental devotion to self-control and absolute control over personal behavior and emotions.

3. European management culture

The concept of «European management model» has become widely used in connection with the development of the European Union. If the Japanese management culture is dominated by an orientation towards the human factor, then in the Western culture it is focused on the final result. But each European state has its own historical, cultural and economic development paths. In this regard, the European model is presented as a set of national models.

3.1. English national stereotype.

1. Pragmatism, business and action orientation, common sense in life.
2. Rejection of abstract projects.
3. Self-esteem.
4. Respect for traditions (national, state, family, etc.) and conservatism.
5. Hidden, correct ethnocentrism does not manifest itself in forms that humiliate the national feelings of other people.
6. The ability to conduct business in different countries, perceive and adapt foreign cultures in the interests of business, and harmoniously build relationships with local authorities and the population.

3.2. French national stereotype.

1. Intellectualism, love of art, harmony and beauty.

2. The flip side of the above is a kind of timidity and indecisiveness of the French in the implementation and practical implementation of planned projects.
3. Tendency to conflicts and disputes when solving various problems and, as a result, dislike of compromises.
4. Effect of compensation. The need to comply with strict schemes, laws and regulations in the business sphere is compensated by the style of communication, behavior in the family and private life, which are expressed in freedom from conventions, liveliness of character, humor, and quick wit.

3.3. German national stereotype.

1. Stimulating professional training.
2. Respect for professionalism and competence, self-discipline and self-control.
3. Technical and expert preparedness of managers.
4. Expanded scope of responsibility and authority.
5. Corporate loyalty of managers.
6. Quality and innovation as competitive advantages.
7. Effective, stable and sustainable labour relations.

4. Chinese management culture

The Chinese national stereotype is influenced by Confucianism and Taoism, the former is based on the image of a «noble husband»: humanity, sense of duty, delicacy, intelligence (knowledge), fidelity; the second is based on the unity of opposites (Yang and Yin), incomprehensible to the mind.

1. A combination of obedience, patience and perseverance.
2. However, at the same time, there is a lack of a strong enough desire for truth, honesty, contractual obligations, i.e. the Chinese strives not only to do everything his own way, but can also ignore the demands of his partner regarding some changes in work, technology, or product.
3. The combination of the above two qualities of the stereotype: Chinese hard work is a derivative of patience and perseverance (including in doing work), but, being deprived of sufficiently high criteria of honesty and integrity (like the Japanese), it can often lead to poor-quality work results.

5. Soviet management culture

Attempts to implement the principles of Scientific Organization of Labour (SOL) were made at a number of factories already in the 20s of the twentieth century, but they never became systematic. Soviet management culture was characterized by high efficiency and effectiveness in extreme conditions (thanks to the enthusiasm of both managers and workers in production) and relatively low in «normal» times (rigid hierarchical management system, protectionist policies, narrow specialization of government agencies, statistical unreliability and bureaucratization office work). Management activities were not always scientific and well-founded; there was a large share of voluntaristic decisions. In general, the priority of state problems in relation to the problems of the individual was characteristic.

Some of the peculiar features of the Eastern European mentality inherent in everyday Soviet management culture include:

1. Contradiction, extremes and fluctuations.
2. Vitality and mobility.

3. A tendency to rush into emergency situations (avrals) and impulses in activity, reluctance to plan the future, hope for «maybe».
4. Unpredictability of actions and behaviors.
5. Flexibility (dodgy), willingness to make non-standard decisions and actions.

5.1. Social attitudes of the Russian archetype in management

1. Individual responsibility and direction of management, clear distribution of responsibilities (often responsibility): desire to participate in management, but not take responsibility; short-term stress (avral).
2. The primacy of corporate (state) interests over the individual: impersonal collectivism; the need for some external «model» that tells where to go; replacing the concept of freedom in the mentality of the Russian person with the concept of will, which blocks any individuality, unprogrammed activity of individual people.
3. Rigid management structure, slow feedback: the habit of patiently struggling with adversity and hardship; looking back more than looking forward; notice consequences more than setting goals; tendency towards evaluative reflection.

4. Ермолович, Д. В. Электронный учебно-методический комплекс по учебной дисциплине «Этика и психология делового общения» для специальности 1-27 01 01 «Экономика и организация производства» [Электронный ресурс] / Д. В. Ермолович. – Минск : БНТУ, 2023. – С.48-54.

Cross-cultural features of the negotiation process

Knowing the general principles of preparing, organizing and conducting the negotiation process, summing up their results and consolidating the latter in certain documents, it is also necessary to keep in mind that representatives of different countries have developed their own characteristics and traditions of negotiations, which must be known and taken into account when working with partners (compare the proposed material with the previous fragment – see point 1.2.3).

Features of negotiating with Europeans. Germany. German rationalism is a commonplace in all more or less authoritative descriptions of their business communication. One of the indicators of the national peculiarities of doing business is the highest professionalism. The list of obligations that a German company assumes is always fulfilled. If a German writes down some promise in a notebook, he will definitely fulfill it.

The German partner who calls will be as brief as possible in order to save on telephone fees. Among German business people, carelessness is very rare. German partners prefer to discuss issues during negotiations strictly in the order in which they are written down in the previously agreed upon program. You can safely exchange letters with German partners to establish business connections.

Business attire standards are strictly adhered to. Removing the jacket during negotiations is not accepted. If during a break in negotiations you are invited to a restaurant, then be prepared for the fact that perhaps everyone will pay for themselves. It is not customary to have conversations of a political nature at the table.

France. Before negotiating with the French, it should be borne in mind that they would like to know in advance the subject of negotiations, receive possible draft

documents or advertising materials, catalogs, etc., which should be presented in French. They believe that everyone else should learn their language. Having sent the relevant materials, it is customary to call and express hope for a speedy response. Otherwise, you may not receive an answer.

During negotiations, the French are not inclined to take risks and defend a fundamentally tough position. They do not make any compromises and remain true to their principles until the very end. They do not like to encounter any surprises during negotiations, they do not like sudden changes in position. It costs them nothing to interrupt their interlocutor. They do not consider this a big sin, primarily due to the liveliness of the national character and great emotionality. For them, the main thing is calculation and their own interest.

Large French enterprises place the technical characteristics and durability of their products first. Small and medium – tangible material benefits from the transaction. Changes in negotiations are sensitive. They prefer preliminary elaboration by experts and agreement on the main points. During negotiations with the French, they may consider the main issue as if «between the lines», but this does not mean that they attach the same importance to it.

During a business reception, it is customary to talk about business only after coffee has been served. An invitation to dinner should be considered a major business victory. It is customary to give: flowers, champagne, expensive wine, boxes of chocolates.

The French are very scrupulous when it comes to distance. You should limit yourself to a handshake only. If your business card is filled out in French, this is very good. In France, a good education is highly valued. And it is recommended to note this on the business card.

England. In negotiations with the British It should be borne in mind that their qualifications in negotiations are one of the highest in the world. The British are especially strong in short- and medium-term forecasting. In business, preference is given to transactions that bring immediate benefits.

In negotiations, it is customary to start with a conversation about the weather, sports, children. It is important during negotiations to emphasize goodwill towards the English people and interest in universal human values. Showing human qualities is highly valued in the UK. Therefore, sending greetings to people close to your friend will be received with gratitude. The British only accept shaking hands at the beginning of negotiations. In the future, they are limited to verbal greetings.

In negotiations, English partners rarely take a single rigid point of view or position; they use a huge amount of economic and political information. The British prefer detailed agreements or contracts outlining all the terms and conditions, a detailed listing of the responsibilities of the parties, which must subsequently be strictly fulfilled. They make decisions slower than other foreign partners, but at the same time they discuss not only this document, but also the possibility of expanding further cooperation.

Giving hasty answers is not in the British tradition. Therefore, in conversations they usually have long pauses, which should not be feared. There is no need to fill them with conversation. Regarding the one who talks a lot, they consider that he

behaves rudely, imposing himself on others. They are also hostile to any open expression of feelings. Hence the thesis about the famous British equanimity.

Negotiations with the British require careful preparation and coordination. Improvisations are not allowed here. You can completely rely on their word of honor. The British try to avoid sharp corners and know how to do it.

Italy. When working with Italians, you need to keep in mind the following characteristics:

- more active than representatives of other countries in establishing contacts. Private small firms are especially dynamic and open to all kinds of business proposals;
- to establish connections with Italians, it is enough to exchange official letters. Moreover, to speed up the process of establishing business relationships, it is recommended to contact agency and intermediary firms;
- it is acceptable to meet someone without a business card if you apologize and send it soon.

Italians attach great importance to a person's status and strive to learn as much as possible about their partner so that people of approximately equal status take part in negotiations.

Italian businessmen are quite strict in observing the basic rules of business etiquette, but they attach great importance to informal communication with representatives of the business community. There is a tradition of smoothing out emerging contradictions in more personal, non-work relationships.

Peculiarities of negotiating with partners from America. Americans are characterized by extreme pragmatism. They are strong enough to have a confident negotiating position. They do not do anything that does not bring them benefits, and are not inclined to do «extra» work. Bargaining with the Americans is not only possible, but also necessary, since they themselves not only can, but also love to bargain.

They are characterized by extreme concentration on those problems that are subject to discussion. Always committed to intensive and fruitful work. They strive to identify commonalities in approaches to solving certain problems. They try to avoid costs that can be avoided. They keep their word. Traditions are easily neglected. They organize any business carefully.

The division of functions has been elevated to an absolute level: everyone does only their own thing. «Little things» are given great attention. The Americans are confident that if you are dealing with them, you have carefully familiarized yourself with all the features of the issue under discussion. According to their concepts, you must be well prepared for a business contact, so they expect you to respond quickly to their information. They themselves react quickly.

Americans place great importance on recommendations. If anyone has someone to recommend you, take advantage of it. Whenever appropriate, it is useful to mention people you already know.

Americans showing friendliness is their usual manner. The results of the negotiations will depend only on whether the proposal under discussion is so beneficial for them.

In the United States, real achievements are valued more than expected ones. The following circumstances will have a positive impact: high position now, proximity to power both now and in the previous period, fame, appearance on television, your connections with any American publishing house or university. Other circumstances will have virtually no effect on your partners.

The value of a foreigner for Americans is formed primarily at home. It is believed that if a person has not achieved anything significant in his homeland, where he has lived for many years, then in another country, even more so, he has little chance.

Americans are not used to complaining. They have a good understanding of perceptual effects such as the halo effect and the underdog effect. Americans respect law, authority and force. Therefore, your confrontation with the current government will not be approved.

Unforeseen circumstances are perceived negatively by American business people. They are used to calculating everything and taking into account the share of risk. They classify unforeseen circumstances as either the result of the partner's incompetence or foul play. Both have a repulsive effect on them.

Americans are accustomed to «promoting» themselves and will not «promote» anyone. It should be remembered that the entire educational system in the United States is aimed at developing a strong, sociable, independent personality, the ability to see problems and successfully solve them. The ability to firmly defend one's interests is cultivated.

Asking for help will have a negative effect, since they believe that turning to the other party is necessary only when everything that can be done without a partner has been prepared and calculated. And if this does not repel them, then it will be done only for a fee.

Deliberate negligence is the style of many Americans. For Americans, a distance of 120 cm is considered close for communication. The comfortable distance for the Slavs is smaller, and our norm can be interpreted by an American as unnecessary familiarity. Conversely, the American norm is often interpreted in our country as a sign of strained relations.

Features of negotiating with representatives of Asian countries. Japan. One of the main characteristics of Japanese society is corporatism and caste. According to Japanese tradition, a person cannot have any value. Just as in our country people are judged by their clothes, so in Japan they are judged by what group or corporation you belong to. The degree of prestige of a university is the main quality that determines the career of a Japanese person.

The spirit of partnership, which is cultivated in the Land of the Rising Sun, is also manifested in the fact that managers try not to interfere in the actions of their subordinates, completely trusting them.

The Japanese are perhaps the most active in the world. They prefer personal contacts to all methods of establishing business relationships. When you meet, you will be immediately given a business card; you must submit yours. If you don't do this, it will be perceived extremely negatively – as disrespect or even an insult. Therefore, it is necessary to take all measures to prevent this from happening, so that the cards are always with you. For the Japanese, the company where he works is his

«big family». Therefore, he first names the company, then the position, and only then his name.

The position of a partner in negotiations plays a very important role for the Japanese. If the status of one partner is lower, then this is perceived as disrespect for the other party. If the other party has a higher status, then he is considered to be «losing face», disrespected, or acting as a supplicant. Hence the requirement: before the start of negotiations, obtain detailed information about the status of the Japanese partners and «set up» a composition equal to them.

In Japan, great importance is attached to consensus among all participants in the work, including among members of their delegation. Breaks in negotiations are arranged by the Japanese side, in particular, in order to harmonize the opinions of members of their delegation.

The Japanese take the negotiation process extremely seriously and believe that the more time spent on them, the better: the parties got to know each other better and discussed as many details as possible.

In Japan, it is customary to listen to your interlocutor in complete silence, no matter how long you talk. By nodding to the speaker, the Japanese show that they understand him, but this does not mean that they agree with him. Discussing minor details means taking the subject of negotiations seriously. They are in no hurry to move on to the main issue, as if preparing the ground with conversations, including on topics not directly related to the purpose of the negotiations.

The Japanese decision-making system includes a lot of coordination with everyone related to a specific decision – from a major manager to an ordinary executive. This system is called «rings». As a result, decisions are made rather slowly, but they are executed brilliantly, because they are thought out from beginning to end, taking into account all the details. The Japanese should never be rushed, nor should they be reminded. They will not leave the proposal unanswered. If they said they would give it, then so it will be.

Concessions on your part raise you in the eyes of your Japanese partners. They see it as a sign of respect for themselves. Moreover, a party that makes concessions on one issue can count on a counter-concession on another.

In an informal setting, the discussion of the subject of negotiations continues, only more casually and frankly. Often agreements are concluded in a restaurant, in a bar, and then they are written down and signed at the negotiating table. It follows that you can relax only after signing the documents.

Japanese conversations never begin with the main thing. They approach him gradually, often using hints to find out the attitude of the interlocutor. With their hyper-politeness, the Japanese often lull their partner's vigilance. Having thoroughly calculated all the nuances and options, they, as a rule, fool those who have «melted» from flattery and compliments. The first meeting is usually devoted to getting to know the functions of the members of the partner delegation. Serious issues are discussed only starting from the second meeting.

In business circles it is not customary to say «no». When a Japanese businessman wants to make it clear to you that the deal will not go through, he will say, «It's difficult». They express their disagreement with a smile. During

negotiations, it is not recommended to resort to any threats. This is unlikely to be successful.

China. The Chinese consider the formation of the so-called «spirit of friendship» to be paramount in business negotiations at any level, i.e. establishing personal relationships with your partners. During negotiations, they will never allow themselves to be the first to outline their point of view. Only when the negotiation situation reaches a dead end can the Chinese side offer a number of concessions.

The initial tactics of the Chinese boil down to first of all differentiating their partners in relation to the attitude of one or another member of the delegation to the Chinese as a nation; maximum weight and authority among all members of the delegation. The «work» is primarily carried out through these identified people.

The Chinese are extremely sincere in their interest in you not only as business partners, but also as simply people with their own hobbies, beliefs and views. They are welcoming and you will most likely receive a decent reception after successful negotiations.

It is advisable to present gifts not to an individual, but to the entire delegation with which negotiations are being conducted.

As for *the Belarusian* (Slavic) style of negotiation, many experts note a focus on a common goal, little attention to detail, fear of risk and reluctance to make a joint compromise. There is also a generalized assessment of the position of the Belarusian negotiator: «I don't want what's best for everyone, but I want it myself», «I don't want what's best, but I want it not to be worse», «I want it quickly».

To improve ourselves, we would need to take from the arsenal of strong qualities of foreign partners: persistence, freedom of action, the right to take risks; loyalty to the company; organization and prudence; opinion innovation; shameless assertiveness and demonstrative friendliness, as well as determination, orientation towards the future, independence.

PRACTICAL SECTION

SUBJECTS AND CONTENT OF LABORATORY WORK

Laboratory work No. 1. Business game «Overcoming resistance to management» (Topic: «Management of organizational changes, the life cycle of the organization and organizational development»)

Purpose: Development of skills to overcome resistance to management.

Based on the original source: Зильберман М. Консалтинг: методы и технологии / Пер. с англ. – СПб.: Питер, 2006. – 432 с. (см. 310-320 стр.).

Description of the course of the business game:

1. Participants in the game are determined from the group of students – 6 people. Roles are assigned (the set of roles may vary depending on the objectives of the course and the interests of the participants): developer-speaker (A), dean of the faculty (B), trade union representative (C), vice-rector for academic affairs (D), accountant (E), boss educational department (F);
2. All participants in the game prepare their roles (preparation time 20 minutes);
3. Students who are not direct participants in the game will watch the progress of the game as observers;
4. Participants in the game receive role scripts, each with their own script form;
5. Experts are offered the «Observer Card» (G);
6. The situation is played out within 30-40 minutes;
7. Discussion and summing up (speeches by participants and observers) – time 25-30 minutes.

Questions:

Questions for the «developer-speaker»:

- describe his own attitude to this role-playing game;
- what emotional reactions were manifested in;
- did the played scenario look realistic?
- is this simulated situation familiar in real life?
- did you feel that your colleagues' opposition was a personal insult;
- whether the report was completed on time;
- what are the results (according to his assessment);
- what was successful;
- what could have been done differently.

Questions for «management representatives»:

- whether they were satisfied with respect to those issues that caused them concern;
- whether the plan presented by the speaker inspires confidence in them.

Questions for observers:

- what is the meaning of the position taken by the participants;
- whether the participants in the game tried to understand each other's position and values.

Questions for all participants and observers:

- whether the status discrepancy of the participants affected the outcome of the role-playing game;

- what could be considered the ideal outcome of this role-playing game – a decision developed on the basis of consensus; a unanimous decision to undergo a program of additional study of the issue; suspension of discussion about revising the strategic plan for the development of an educational unit?

Equipment:

1. Role scripts (forms A, B, C, D, E, F).
2. Observer Card (Form G).
3. Paper, markers.

Report format: round table and individual report on the results of a business game using (arithmetic, vector, organizational) analysis of the status («role») position and actual activity of the participants.

Laboratory work No. 2. Research of purposeful behavior and professional activity (Topic: «Professional suitability and professionalism. Personality in the organization and labour motivation»)

Questions:

- «success» and «efficiency» in management;
- managerial and executive professionalism (standards);
- development management (attitudes, motivation, aspirations and self-esteem).

Fill in tables A and B

Table A

Psychological characteristics		
Personality characteristics of a successful manager	Problems of developing the personality traits of a successful manager	Ways of development/correction
1.	1.	1.
2.	2.	2.
...

Table B

Psychological characteristics			
Personality characteristics of an effective employee	Problems of developing the personality traits of an effective employee	Ways of development/correction	The role of the manager in developing the personality traits of an effective employee
1.	1.	1.	1.
2.	2.	2.	2.
...

Report format: round table and individual report based on the results of the discussion in the form of completed tables and necessary explanations.

**Laboratory work No. 3. Designing a trajectory of individual development
(Topic: «Personal development in the organization. Career management,
personal and professional growth»)**

Questions:

- «minimum program» (plan and algorithm for professional and personal growth – development models);
- «maximum program» (opportunities and prospects for human development);
- a real plan for professional development (periodization, life cycle, movement «step by step»).

Self-diagnosis test «Are you an organized person?» (see on-line test: Psylist.net)

Organization is an important part of the professionalism of a leader, manager, and teacher. This test (13 questions) allows you to determine your level of personal organization. It is proposed to choose one of the formulated answer options for each question.

1. Do you have major, main goals in life that you strive to achieve?

- a) I have such goals;
- b) is it necessary to have any goals? After all, life is so changeable, it constantly throws up tasks that need to be solved;
- c) I have main goals, and I subordinate my life to achieving them;
- d) I have goals, but my activities contribute little to achieving them.

2. Do you draw up a work plan for the week, using a weekly planner, a special notebook, etc.?

- a) Yes;
- b) no;
- c) I can't say «yes» or «no», because I outline the main things to do in my head, and the plan for the current day is in my head or on a piece of paper;
- d) I tried to make a plan using a weekly planner, but then I realized that it didn't give anything.

3. Do you reprimand yourself for not achieving what you set for the week or day?

- a) I reprimand in those cases when I see my guilt, laziness or slowness;
- b) I report, regardless of any subjective or objective reasons;
- c) now everyone scolds each other anyway, why else scold yourself?
- d) I adhere to the following principle: what I managed to do today is good, and what I failed to do, I will do, maybe another time.

4. How do you keep your notebook with phone numbers of business people, acquaintances, relatives, friends, etc.?

- a) I am the owner (mistress) of my notebook. I write down phone numbers, last names, first names as I want. If you need someone's number, I'll definitely find it;
- b) I often use notebooks with phone records, as I use them mercilessly. When copying phone numbers, I try to do everything «according to science», but with further use I end up making arbitrary entries;
- c) I keep records of telephone numbers, surnames, and first names «in the handwriting of my mood». I think it is important that the phone number, last name,

first name, patronymic be written down, and on what page or piece of paper it is written down, straight or crooked, it doesn't matter;

d) I use the generally accepted system: in accordance with the alphabet, I write down the last name, first name, patronymic, telephone number, and if necessary, additional information (address, place of work, position).

5. You are surrounded by various things that you often use. What are your principles for arranging things?

a) Every thing lies where it wants;

b) I fundamentally adhere to the principle in everything: «every thing has its place»;

c) periodically I put things in order, objects, then I put them where I have to, so as not to overload my head with «arrangement»; after some time I put things in order again, etc.;

d) I think that this issue has nothing to do with self-organization.

6. Can you say at the end of the day where, how much and for what reasons you had to waste time?

a) I can talk about lost time;

b) I can only speak about the circumstances and place where time was wasted in vain;

c) if lost time turned into money, then I would count (count) it;

d) I always have a good idea of where, how much and why time was wasted;

e) I have a good idea of where, how much and why time was wasted in vain, and I look for ways to reduce wasted time in the same situations.

7. What are your actions when at a meeting, at a meeting, «pouring from empty to empty» begins?

a) I propose to pay attention to the essence of the issue;

b) any meeting or meeting is a combination of both «full» and «empty». When the empty comes, you wait for the full. When the full stretch approaches, you get a little tired. The meeting takes place in this rotation. And there's nothing you can do about it;

c) I plunge into «nothingness»;

d) doing those things that I prudently took with me.

8. You have to give a report. When preparing, will you pay attention not only to the content of the report, but also to the duration?

a) I will pay the most serious attention to the content of the report. I think that the duration should be determined only approximately. If the report is interesting, they will give time to finish it;

b) I pay equal attention to the content and duration of the report, as well as its variations depending on time.

9. Do you try to use literally every minute to accomplish your plans?

a) I try, but I don't always succeed due to personal reasons (loss of strength, mood, etc.);

b) I don't strive for this, because I believe that there is no need to be petty in relation to time;

c) why strive if you still can't beat the clock;

d) I try and try, no matter what.

10. What system of recording (memorizing) instructions, tasks and requests do you use?

- a) I write down in my weekly planner what to do and when;
- b) I record the most important instructions, requests, tasks in my weekly journal. «Little things» I'm trying to remember. If I forget about «little things», I don't consider it a drawback;
- c) I try to remember instructions, tasks and requests, as this trains my memory. However, my memory often fails me;
- d) I adhere to the principle of «reverse memory»: let the one who gives them remember the instructions and tasks. If the order is necessary, then they will not forget about it and will call me for urgent execution.

11. Are you punctual (when going to a business meeting, meeting, conference, session)?

- a) I arrive 5-7 minutes earlier;
- b) I arrive on time, exactly at the beginning of the meeting, meeting or meeting;
- c) unfortunately, I am often late;
- d) I'm always late, although I try to arrive earlier or on time;
- e) if the popular science guide «How not to be late» had been published, then I, quite possibly, would have learned (learned) not to be late.

12. What importance do you attach to the timeliness of completing tasks, instructions, requests?

- a) I believe that timely completion is one of the important indicators of my ability to work, a kind of triumph of organization. However, there are some things I can't always get done on time;
- b) timeliness of completion is a beast that can «bite» exactly the minute the task is completed. It is better to delay the task completion a little;
- c) I prefer to talk less about timeliness and complete tasks and instructions on time;
- d) completing a task or assignment in a timely manner is a sure chance of getting a new one. Performance is always «punished» in some way.

13. Suppose you promised to do something or help another person with something. But circumstances have changed in such a way that it is quite difficult to fulfill this promise. How will you behave?

- a) I will inform the person about the changed circumstances and the impossibility of fulfilling the promise;
- b) I will try to tell the person that circumstances have changed and it is difficult to fulfill the promise. At the same time, I will say that there is no need to lose hope for what was promised;
- c) I will try to fulfill my promise. If I fulfill it, well, if I don't fulfill it, it's also not a problem, since I quite rarely did not keep (did not keep) my promises;
- d) I will not tell the person anything. I will fulfill my promise, no matter what.

Key to the test. To calculate points and determine your result, use the following «key»:

- 1) a – 1, b – 0, c – 6, d – 2;
- 2) a – 6, b – 0, c – 3, d – 0;
- 3) a – 4, b – 6, c – 0, d – 0;

- 4) a – 0, b – 0, c – 0, d – 6;
- 5) a – 0, b – 6, c – 0, d – 0;
- 6) a – 2, b – 1, c – 0, d – 4, e – 6;
- 7) a – 3, b – 0, c – 0, d – 6;
- 8) a – 2, b – 6;
- 9) a – 3, b – 0, c – 0, d – 6;
- 10) a – 6, b – 3, c – 1, d – 0;
- 11) a – 6, b – 6, c – 0, d – 0, e – 0;
- 12) a – 3, b – 0, c – 6, d – 0;
- 13) a – 2, b – 0, c – 0, d – 6;

Up to 63 points – your lifestyle, your environment taught you to be organized in some ways. Organization appears in your actions and then disappears. This is a sign of the absence of a clear system of self-organization. There are objective organizational laws and principles. Try to analyze your actions, time spent, and work technique. You will see things that you are not even aware of at the moment.

From 63 to 71 points – you consider organization an integral part of your job. This gives you a definite advantage over those people who call the organization «under arms» in case of emergency. You should take a closer look at self-organization and improve it.

From 72 to 78 points – you are an organized person. The only thing I can advise you is not to stop at the achieved level, continue to develop self-organization. Don't feel like you've reached your limit. An organization, unlike nature, gives the greatest effect to those who consider its resources to be inexhaustible.

Report format: round table on the issues of constructing individual development programs and an individual report based on the results of the discussion in the form of individual plans for professional and personal growth (with reference to the results of individual self-diagnosis for the proposed test).

Laboratory work No. 4. Sociometric study of interpersonal and business relationships (Topic: «Group interaction, team building, organizational communication, decision making and implementation»)

Research plan:

1. Determining the goals and objectives of sociometric research.
2. Conducting a sociometric questionnaires. Construction of a combined sociomatrix.
3. Construction of combined circular sociograms.
4. Processing of the results obtained: calculations of the main sociometric indices.
5. Interpretation of the results obtained: conducting a comparative analysis of the results, summing up the results of the study, presenting conclusions.

Laboratory work No. 5. Study of the connection between leadership style and management model and tactics (Topic: «Leadership in an organization. Delegation of authority and responsibility»)

Fill in tables C and D

Table C

Psychological characteristics			
Manager		Leader	
"+"	"-"	"+"	"-"
1.	1.	1.	1.
2.	2.	2.	2.
...

Table D

Characteristics of Leadership Style			
"Liberal"		"Democratic"	
"+"	"-"	"+"	"-"
1.	1.	1.	1.
2.	2.	2.	2.
...

Questions:

- formal and informal status of group membership;
- group roles and role conflicts;
- team building: cohesion, compatibility, team spirit;
- «human factor» in group decision-making.

Real relationships are not reduced to formalized ones, but have a number of additional variables: gender, intergenerational, role, team, individually reactive, etc.

It is proposed to independently individualize the task, for example: «Woman Manager», «Sixty-year-old Leader»; «Liberal-introvert», «Democrat-fun»...

Report format: round table and individual report based on the results of the discussion in the form of completed tables and necessary explanations.

Laboratory work No. 6. Study of the connection between the type of organizational culture and the organization's field of activity (Topic: «Corporate culture and its role in the organization. Forming the reputation of the organization and the image of the institution»)

Task: Based on established cultural differences, explain the forms of behavior when interacting and/or solving joint problems (offer behavior scenarios of your choice: production, management, negotiations, family relationships, etc.).

Table E

Cultural differences (G. Hofstede model)		
Mental aspects of culture	Country/culture	Other country/culture
Power distance		
Uncertainty avoidance		
Individuality		
Masculinity		
Long-term orientation		

Questions:

- the influence of culture on organizational effectiveness. G. Hofstede's theory of cultural dimensions;
- models of corporate culture: culture of power, «bureaucratic» culture, task culture, personality culture;
- corporate social policy: corporate events, adaptation of new employees.

Report format: round table and individual report based on the results of the discussion in the form of solving an individual problem / developing an individual scenario (country/culture of choice).

Laboratory work No. 7. Construction of a program for generating a request/anti-request (on the issues of the master's thesis) based on diagnostic results (Topic: «Cross-cultural, gender, confessional and other features of organizational behavior in the educational environment. Practical activities of a psychologist in an organization»)

Task:

- Specify the topic of your master's thesis.
- Determine a strategy for implementing the research results.
- Define a request/anti-request.

Questions:

- How do the hypotheses and research results relate to the formation of the request?
- What could be the scenario for generating a request?
- What difficulties do you see in implementing the planned scenario?

Example request: self-education. One of the opportunities for self-development that can be used to communicate more effectively with the outside world: other cultures, different lifestyles, new friends...

Report format: round table and individual report based on the results of the discussion in the form of solving an individual problem / developing a strategy for implementing the results of the master's research.

METHODOLOGICAL MATERIALS FOR INDEPENDENT WORK

Methodological recommendations for organizing and performing independent work of students

Independent work of students involves studying and taking notes of theoretical material based on the list of literature sources given in this program, conducting individual research with the presentation of the results of work in the study group.

Extracurricular independent work of students involves preparing students for laboratory classes and exams.

The main teaching methods and technologies that meet the objectives of studying this academic discipline are:

1) methods of problem-based learning (search, analytical and research methods);

2) personality-oriented (developmental) technologies based on active forms and methods of learning (brainstorming, business, role-playing and simulation games, case technology, etc.);

3) information and communication technologies that ensure the problem-based and research nature of the learning process and the activation of students' independent work.

When studying the discipline, it is recommended to use the following forms of independent work:

- solving individual tasks (problems);
- preparation of abstracts on individual topics;
- preparation of messages, thematic reports, presentations on given topics;
- compiling a thematic selection of literary sources and Internet sources;
- elaboration of topics (questions) submitted for independent study.

Approximate topics of abstracts

1. Leader training as a condition for the effective implementation of organizational strategies.
2. Ways to establish interaction between a person and an organization.
3. Assimilation of norms and values by a new employee.
4. The role aspect of interaction between a person and an organization.
5. Analysis of foreign and domestic areas of research in organizational behavior.
6. Basic psychological characteristics of the individual from the point of view of the formation of behavior (features of the manifestation of these personality characteristics in the organization).
7. Conditions for the psychological and economic involvement of an employee in joint activities.
8. Problems of combining individual expectations and organizational expectations.
9. Modification of the behavior of an individual and groups under the influence of the organization to achieve set goals.

- 10.The relationship between motivation and stimulation of the individual and the group in the context of public service.
 - 11.Self-organization of the individual (in various status roles).
 - 12.Managing conflict interactions (in a specific organization).
 - 13.Leadership tasks to create conditions for effective strategic management in the organization.
 - 14.Communications in the life of a specific organization.
 - 15.Analysis of the characteristics of an organization's behavior at various stages of its life cycle.
 - 16.Organizational benefits of a team.
 - 17.Basic conditions for effective team performance.
 - 18.Team life factors.
 - 19.Self-managing team: distinctive features, role structure, development directions.
 - 20.Formation and development of organizational culture for the preservation (survival) of the organization.
 - 21.Reputation of the organization and ways of its formation (using specific examples).
 - 22.Organizational culture as a system of values, norms and rules of behavior, philosophy and beliefs (corporate code of conduct of the organization).
 - 23.Stress management at the organizational level and at the individual level.
 - 24.The process of managing an individual's career carried out in an organization.
 - 25.Problems of combining the needs of the organization with the potential of employees and their career aspirations.
- ...

**SAMPLE LIST OF QUESTIONS FOR THE EXAM IN THE DISCIPLINE
«ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN EDUCATION»**

1. The place of organizational psychology among psychological disciplines.
2. Organizational behavior as a branch of knowledge.
3. General characteristics of early theories of organization: F. Taylor, A. Fayol, M. Weber, E. Mayo, D. McGregor.
4. General characteristics of system theories of organization: theory Glacier, I. Ansoff, G. Simon.
5. General characteristics of situational theories of organization: J. Woodward, T. Burns, J. Stalker, P. Lawrence, J. Lorsch.
6. Object and subject of organizational behavior. Purpose and main objectives of the course.
7. The concept of organization. Organization as a process and as a phenomenon. General features of the organization. Types of organizations.
8. Organizational life cycle models.
9. Behavior and its sources. Facts, levels and types of behavior.
10. The concept of «organizational behavior». Sources and factors determining organizational behavior and their characteristics.
11. Types of organizational relationships.
12. Formal and informal organizations: types, criteria, features of organizational relations.
13. Synergetic concept of self-organization in organizational behavior.
14. Basic theories and concepts of organizational behavior.
15. Internal socio-psychological structure of personality.
16. External social structure of personality.
17. Personality in the organization. Psychological structure of personality.
18. Personal characteristics of an employee that influence an individual's organizational behavior.
19. Individual characteristics of an employee influencing an individual's organizational behavior.
20. Personal and professional development in the organization.
21. Role behavior of a person in an organization.
22. The concept of a group and human group behavior in an organization.
23. Processes and methods for studying group dynamics.
24. Situational characteristics influencing group behavior in an organization.
25. Formation of groups as management teams.
26. Management team effectiveness.
27. Content and process theories of motivation.
28. Applied significance of motivation theory for managing organizational behavior.
29. Correspondence between motives and incentives of organizational behavior in management.
30. Methods of making management decisions.
31. Leadership and authority in the organization.
32. Characteristics of organizational management models and tactics.

33. Business communication as the basis of communicative behavior.
34. Dissatisfaction with work in the organization: absenteeism, staff turnover.
35. Organizational reputation: concept, structure.
36. Barriers to communicative behavior in organizations and ways to overcome them.
37. Conflicts in an organization: essence, classification, stages of development.
38. The concept and content of organizational culture.
39. Concept and main functions of organizational culture.
40. Modern methods of formation, maintenance and development of organizational culture.
41. Characteristics of world management cultures.
42. Psychological service in an organization: concept, goals, objectives, moral and ethical principles of the work of a psychologist.
43. Principles and rules for using psychological information in an organization.
44. The main activities of a psychologist in an organization.
45. Tasks of psychological and educational activities of psychologists in educational institutions.
46. Features, basic techniques and methods of correctional and developmental work of a practical psychologist in educational institutions.
47. Features of the diagnostic work of a psychologist in educational institutions.
48. Negotiations as a method of conflict resolution.

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