НАЦІОНАЛЬНА АКАДЕМІЯ ПЕДАГОГІЧНИХ НАУК УКРАЇНИ
ДЗВО «УНІВЕРСИТЕТ МЕНЕДЖМЕНТУ ОСВІТИ»

НАВЧАЛЬНО-НАУКОВИЙ ІНСТИТУТ МЕНЕДЖМЕНТУ ТА ПСИХОЛОГІЇ
Кафедра публічного управління і проектного менеджменту

ЗАТВЕРДЖЕНО
Вченою радою ННІМП ДЗВО
«Університет менеджменту освіти»
31 серпня 2023 року, протокол № 7
Голова Вченої ради ННІМП ДЗВО
«Університет менеджменту освіти»

_____Т.Є. Рожнова

ПРОФЕСІЙНА ІНОЗЕМНА МОВА

РОБОЧА ПРОГРАМА
навчальної дисципліни

(ОК10 – - дисципліна циклу обов'язкових освітніх компонент)

Рівень вищої освіти: другий (магістерський)
Галузь знань: 28 Публічне управління та адміністрування
Спеціальність: 281 Публічне управління та адміністрування
Освітньо-професійна програма: Публічне управління та адміністрування

Київ 2023

Робоча програма навчальної дисципліни «Професійна іноземна мова» складена відповідно до навчального плану освітньо-професійної програми «Публічне управління та адміністрування», спеціальності 281 Публічне управління та адміністрування галузі знань 28 Публічне управління та адміністрування.

Автор-укладач робочої програми навчальної дисципліни
В. М. Івкін, к.психол.н., доцент, доцент кафедри публічного управління і проектного менеджменту менеджменту Навчально-наукового інституту менеджменту та психології ДЗВО «Університет менеджменту освіти»

Розглянуто і схвалено на засіданні кафедри
публічного управління і проектного менеджменту
Навчально-наукового інституту менеджменту та психології
ДЗВО «Університет менеджменту освіти»
(протокол № 01 від 30 серпня 2023 р.)

Затверджено Вченою радою
Навчально-наукового інституту менеджменту та психології
ДЗВО «Університет менеджменту освіти»
(протокол № 7 від 31 серпня 2023 р.)

1.Опис навчальної дисципліни

Найменування показників	Галузь знань, напрями підготовки, освітньо-кваліфікаційний рівень	Характеристика навчальної дисципліни	
Кількість кредитів, відповідних ECTS – 6	**Галузь знань:** 28 Публічне управління та адміністрування **Спеціальність:** 281 Публічне управління та адміністрування **Спеціалізація/ Освітньо-наукова програма:** Публічне управління та адміністрування	**Рік підготовки**	
		I	
		Семестр	
		I, II	
		Лекції	
		денна	**заочна**
		30	0
		Практичні заняття	
Загальна кількість годин – 180	**Рівень вищої освіти:** третій (освітньо-науковий)	**денна**	**заочна**
		30	6
		Самостійна робота	
		денна	**заочна**
		120	168
		Вид контролю – залік	

Примітка: співвідношення кількості годин аудиторних занять до самостійної та індивідуальної роботи становить – 12 % : 88 %.

2. Мета та завдання навчальної дисципліни

Метою викладання навчальної дисципліни «Професійна іноземна мова» є формування необхідної комунікативної спроможності в сферах професійного та ситуативного спілкування в усній і письмовій формах, навичок практичного володіння іноземною мовою в різних видах мовленнєвої діяльності в обсязі тематики, що обумовлена професійними потребами; оволодіння новітньою фаховою інформацією через іноземні джерела.

Основними завданнями вивчення дисципліни «Професійна іноземна мова» є розвиток та удосконалення різних видів мовленнєвої діяльності: аудіювання, говоріння, діалогічного мовлення, читання, письма та перекладу.

Здобувачі вищої освіти мають набути **загальних компетентностей:**
ЗК04. Здатність удосконалювати й розвивати професійний, інтелектуальний і культурний рівні;
ЗК05. Здатність приймати обґрунтовані рішення та використовувати сучасні комунікаційні технології;
ЗК07. Здатність генерувати нові ідеї (креативність).
В процесі вивчення навчальної дисципліни здобувачі вищої освіти мають набути також певних спеціальних (*фахових) компетентностей*:
СК01. Здатність налагоджувати соціальну взаємодію, співробітництво, попереджати та розв'язувати конфлікти;
СК05. Здатність представляти органи публічного управління у відносинах з іншими державними органами та органами місцевого самоврядування, громадськими об'єднаннями, підприємствами, установами і організаціями незалежно від форм власності, громадянами та налагоджувати ефективні комунікації з ними;

CK07. Розробляти та проводити комунікативні заходи задля забезпечення громадської підтримки прийняття управлінських рішень на всіх рівнях публічного управління та адміністрування;

CK12. Набуття мовних компетентностей, достатніх для представлення та обговорення результатів наукових досліджень іноземною мовою (англійською або іншою мовою Європейського Союзу) в усній та письмовій формі, а також для повного розуміння іншомовних наукових текстів.

Програмні результати навчання:

РН05. Демонструвати навички наукової комунікації, міжнародного співробітництва в професійній та освітній галузі, представляти широкій науковій спільноті та громадськості результати досліджень державною та іноземними мовами в усній та письмовій формі;

РН08. Уміти здійснювати ефективну комунікацію, аргументувати свою позицію, використовувати сучасні інформаційні та комунікаційні технології у сфері публічного управління та адміністрування на засадах соціальної відповідальності, правових та етичних норм;

РН10. Представляти органи публічного управління й інші організації публічної сфери та презентувати для фахівців і широкого загалу результати їхньої діяльності;

РН12. Уміти продуктивно працювати в команді, відігравати за потреби провідну роль провідну роль в організації командної роботи, у томі числі, у міжнародній та мультикультурній групі.

У результаті вивчення навчальної дисципліни «Професійна іноземна мова» здобувачі вищої освіти повинні:

знати:

- фонетичні норми англійської мови;
- властивості слова і словотвір;
- лексичний мінімум;
- граматичний матеріал в обсягах, передбачених програмою.

*уміти***:**

- артикулювати англійські звуки;
- практично володіти лексичними одиницями в межах лексичного мінімуму та тематики передбачених програмою;
- працювати з різними типами словників;
- практично володіти запланованим граматичним матеріалом;
- висловлювати свою думку та отримувати інформацію у співрозмовника;
- писати резюме, приватний та офіційний лист, документ або твір відповідно до тематики курсу.

3. Програма навчальної дисципліни

Тема 1

Phonetics. Sounds absent in Ukrainian. Rhythmic characteristics. Word order. Clauses (affirmative, negative, questions). Text: *Defining public administration*

Тема 2

Modal verbs. Irregular verbs. Text: *Historical overview of public administration. Public administration activities*

Тема 3

Simple (indefinite) tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Public administration activities*

Тема 4

Continuous (progressive) tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Business management and public administration*

Тема 5

Perfect tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Public administration as an academic discipline*

Тема 6

Phrasal verbs. Text: *Managerial, political, and legal approaches to public administration*

Тема 7-8

Sequence of tenses. Indirect speech. Text: *Some theoretical aspects of public administration*

Тема 9

Conditionals. Text: *The environment of public administration*

Тема 10

Conditionals (Continued). Text: *Civil service systems*

4. Структура навчальної дисципліни
Денна форма

Назви змістових модулів і тем	Кількість годин			
	Усього	у тому числі		
		л	практ.	с/р
Тема 1 Phonetics. Sounds absent in Ukrainian. Rhythmic characteristics. Word order. Text: *Defining public administration*	15	1	1	5
Тема 2 Modal verbs. Irregular verbs. Text: *Historical overview of public administration.*	15	3	3	10
Тема 3 Simple (indefinite) tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Public administration activities*	20	3	3	10
Тема 4 Continuous (progressive) tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Business management and public administration*	20	5	5	15
Тема 5 Perfect tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Public administration as an academic discipline*	20	5	5	15
Тема 6 Phrasal verbs. Text: *Managerial, political, and legal approaches to public administration*	20	2	2	15
Тема 7-8 Sequence of tenses. Indirect speech. Text: *Some theoretical aspects of public administration*	30	5	5	20
Тема 9 Conditionals. Text: *The environment of public administration*	20	3	3	15
Тема 10 Conditionals (Continued). Text: *Civil service systems*	20	3	3	15
Разом	180	30	30	120

Заочна форма

Назви змістових модулів і тем	Кількість годин			
	Усього	у тому числі		
		л	практ.	с/р

Тема 1 Phonetics. Sounds absent in Ukrainian. Rhythmic characteristics. Word order. Text: *Defining public administration*	**15**	**0,5**	**0,5**	**8**
Тема 2 Modal verbs. Irregular verbs. Text: *Historical overview of public administration.*	**15**	**0,5**	**0,5**	**20**
Тема 3 Simple (indefinite) tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Public administration activities*	**20**	**0,5**	**0,5**	**20**
Тема 4 Continuous (progressive) tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Business management and public administration*	**20**	**0,5**	**0,5**	**20**
Тема 5 Perfect tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Public administration as an academic discipline*	**20**	**1**	**1**	**20**
Тема 6 Phrasal verbs. Text: *Managerial, political, and legal approaches to public administration*	**20**	**0,5**	**0,5**	**20**
Тема 7-8 Sequence of tenses. Indirect speech. Text: *Some theoretical aspects of public administration*	**30**	**0,5**	**0,5**	**20**
Тема 9 Conditionals. Text: *The environment of public administration*	**20**	**1**	**1**	**20**
Тема 10 Conditionals (Continued). Text: *Civil service systems*	**20**	**1**	**1**	**20**
Разом	**180**	**6**	**6**	**168**

5. Теми лекційних занять

№ з/п	Назва теми	Кількість годин	
		денна	**заочна**
1	**Тема 1** Phonetics. Sounds absent in Ukrainian. Rhythmic characteristics. Word order. Text: *Defining public administration*	**1**	**0,5**
2	**Тема 2** Modal verbs. Irregular verbs. Text: *Historical overview of public administration.*	**3**	**0,5**
3	**Тема 3** Simple (indefinite) tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Public administration activities*	**3**	**0,5**
4	**Тема 4** Continuous (progressive) tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Business management and public administration*	**3**	**0,5**
5	**Тема 5** Perfect tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Public administration as an academic discipline*	**3**	**1**
6	**Тема 6** Phrasal verbs. Text: *Managerial, political, and legal approaches to public administration*	**3**	**0,5**

7	**Тема 7-8** Sequence of tenses. Indirect speech. Text: *Some theoretical aspects of public administration*	**5**	**0,5**
8	**Тема 9** Conditionals. Text: *The environment of public administration*	**3**	**1**
9	**Тема 10** Conditionals (Continued). Text: *Civil service systems*	**3**	**1**
	Всього	**10**	**5**

Плани лекційних занять

Тема 1. Phonetics. Sounds absent in Ukrainian. Rhythmic characteristics. Word order. Clauses (affirmative, negative, questions).

DEFINING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

When people think about government, they think of elected officials. The attentive public knows these officials who live in the spotlight but not the public administrators who make governing possible; it generally gives them little thought unless it is to criticize "government bureaucrats."

Yet we are in contact with *public administration* almost from the moment of birth, when registration requirements are met, and our earthly remains cannot be disposed of without final administrative certification. Our experiences with public administrators have become so extensive that our society may be labeled the "administered society".

Various institutions are involved in public administration.

Much of the policy-making activities of public administration is done by large, *specialized governmental agencies* (micro-administration). Some of them are mostly involved with *policy formulation*, for example, the Parliament or Congress.

But to implement their decisions public administration also requires numerous profit and nonprofit agencies, banks and hospitals, district and city governments (macro-administration).

Thus, public administration may be defined as a complex political process involving the authoritative implementation of legitimated policy choices.

Public administration is not as showy as other kinds of politics. Much of its work is quiet, small scale, and specialized. Part of the administrative process is even kept secret. The anonymity of much public administration raises fears that government policies are made by people who are not accountable to citizens. Many fear that these so-called faceless bureaucrats subvert the intensions of elected officials. Others see administrators as mere cogs in the machinery of government.

But whether in the negative or positive sense, public administration is policy making. And whether close to the centers of power or at the street level in local agencies, public administrators are policy makers. They are the translators and tailors of government. If the elected officials are visible to the public, public administrators are the anonymous specialists. But without their knowledge, diligence, and creativity, government would be ineffective and inefficient.

Тема 2. Modal verbs. Irregular verbs.

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Large-scale administrative organization has existed from early times. The ancient empires of Egypt, Persia, Greece, Rome, China, and later the Holy Roman Empire as well as recent colonial empires of Britain, Spain, Russia, Portugal, and France – they all organized and maintained political rule over wide areas and large populations by the use of quite a sophisticated administrative apparatus and more or less skilled administrative functionaries.

The personal nature of that rule was very great. Everything depended on the emperor. The emperor in turn had to rely on the personal loyalty of his subordinates, who maintained themselves

by the personal support from their underlings, down to rank-and file personnel on the fringes of the empire. The emperor carried an enormous work load reading or listening to petitions, policy arguments, judicial claims, appeals for favors, and the like in an attempt to keep the vast imperial machine functioning. It was a system of favoritism and patronage.

In a system *based on personal preferment*, a change of emperor disrupted the entire arrangements of government. Those who had been in favor might now be out of favor. Weak rulers followed strong rulers, foolish monarchs succeeded wise monarchs – but all were dependent on the army, which supplied the continuity that enabled the empire to endure so long. In the absence of institutional, bureaucratic procedures, government moved from stability to near anarchy and back again.

Modern administrative system is *based on objective norms* (such as laws, rules and regulations) rather than on favoritism It is a system of *offices* rather than officers. Loyalty is owed first of all to the state and the administrative organization. Members of the *bureaucracy,* or large, formal, complex organizations that appeared in the recent times, are chosen for their qualification rather than for their personal connections with powerful persons. When vacancies occur by death, resignation, or for other reasons, new qualified persons are selected according to clearly defined rules. Bureaucracy does not die when its members die.

Тема 3. Present (indefinite) tenses: formation, usage.
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION ACTIVITIES
Public administration is difficult to define, though we all have a sense of what it is.

In part, this is because public administration covers a vast amount of activity. Public administration jobs range from the exploration of outer space to sweeping the streets. Some public administrators are highly educated professionals; others possess few skills that differentiate them from the mass of the citizenry. Some public administrators make policies that have a nationwide impact and may benefit millions of people; others have virtually no responsibility for policy-making and simply carry out the mundane governmental tasks of filing and record-keeping. Public administrators are doctors, lawyers, scientists, engineers, accountants, personnel officers, managers, clerks, manual laborers and individuals engaged in many other occupations and functions. But knowing what public administrators do does not resolve the problem of defining what public administration is.

One can find a wide variety of helpful definitions of public administration. They usually state that public administration involves activity, is concerned with politics and policy-making, tends to be concentrated in the executive branch of government, and is concerned with implementing the law.

One more specific definition of it is that public administration is the use of managerial, political, and legal theories and processes to fulfill legislative, executive, and judicial governmental mandates for the provision of regulatory and service functions for the society as a whole or for some segments of it.

Тема 4. Continuous (progressive) tenses: formation, usage.
BUSINESS MANAGEMENT AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
In the studies of the 1880s and later scholars have collected an impressive body of data how best to carry out and manage routine operations to gain productivity in industry. Principles of scientific *business management* were worked out and people were trained to follow them.

Later successful business was seen as the model for the proper *management of government*, and the field of *public administration* was seen as a field of business, because management of all organizations in both the fields involves planning the activities and establishing goals; organizing work activities; staffing and training; directing or decision-making; coordinating to assure that the various work activities come together; reporting the status of work and problems to both

supervisors and subordinates; and budgeting to assure that work activities correspond to fiscal planning, accounting, and control.

Some scholars argued that *administration* is a more general term and a more generic process than *management. Administration* takes place at factories, schools, hospitals, prisons, insurance companies, or welfare agencies, whether these organizations were *private* or *public.* Accordingly, they started speaking about *business and public administration.*

There is an obvious difference between *administration of business*, or private organization, and *administration of public organizations.* Thus, the word *public* in 'public administration' is meaningful, and the study of public affairs will have to take into account not only management subjects common to both public and private sectors, but also the special environment in which *the public servant* has to live, an environment constituted of the mix of administration, policy making, and politics. And then, public organizations are more dependent on government allocations, more constrained by law, more exposed to political influences, and more difficult to evaluate than business organizations. These differences suggest caution in applying business management techniques to government agencies.

Тема 5. Perfect tenses: formation, usage.
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AS AN ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE
Originally the discipline of public administration was not strong on theory. Early public administration was marked by a concern for applying the principles of business management to a higher level of business – public affairs. The method of case study was borrowed from business schools and applied to public administration. It was a prescriptive method and it told the student what he "ought to do" and what he "should not do" in specific situations of managing of public agencies. But by and by public administration developed a theory and a method of investigation of its own.

In the 1950s it began to borrow heavily from sociology, political science, psychology, and social psychology that led to the formation of *organization theory* that helps to understand the nature of human organizations.

Then, the 1950s and 1960s witnessed a dramatic upsurge of professional and academic participation in *comparative administration* studies. Comparative administration was focused on the developing nations and the analysis of "transitional societies". Considerable attention was paid to studies of particular areas of the world. There were detailed case-by-case examinations of administrative situations in both the developing countries and the older, established bureaucracies of the industrialized world. They developed elaborate and highly generalized models of development administration and managed to explain many development situations.

Another situation that has drawn from the management science traditions is the emergence of *public policy analysis* as a major branch of public administration studies. Writings on *decision-making* took into account economic, political, psychological, historical, and even nonrational, or irrational processes. The National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) advocates public policy analysis as one of the subject areas that should be included in any comprehensive program in administration.

An interesting development in American public administration in the late 1960s is known as *the New Public Administration* which was a reaction against the value-free positivism that had characterized much of American public administration thought since World War II. It reasserted the importance of normative values, particularly social justice. The disclosures of the Watergate scandals have reinforced these positions and stressed anew the importance of integrity, openness, and accountability in the conduct of public affairs. This concern for the needs of human beings in the modern world can be seen in the growth of consumer and environmental protection functions domestically, and pressure for human rights around the world.

The politics of public administration becomes increasingly interesting. Citizens, students, and scholars all round the world have come to understand the enormous impact of public administration on all of us, which is an important reason for the renaissance of their interest in public administration.

Тема 6. Phrasal verbs.

MANAGERIAL, POLITICAL, AND LEGAL APPROACHES TO PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration involves a number of complex concerns and functions. It is not surprising, therefore, that as an academic discipline or theory, public administration lacks coherence.

Some of scholars viewed it as a *managerial* endeavor, similar to practices in the private sector. Others emphasized its *political* aspects. Still others viewed it as a distinctively *legal* discipline, noting the importance of constitutions and regulations in public administration.

Those who defined public administration in *managerial* terms, viewed public administration essentially the same as big business and accordingly ought to be run according to the same managerial principles. They promoted the *bureaucratic* organizational structure of public administration. Bureaucracy requires a highly *specialized* division of labor which enables each worker to become an expert at what he or she does. Then, specialization requires coordination and hierarchy, that creates a chain of authority to manage and coordinate the work. Data were gathered and statistically analyzed. The selection of public servants was recommended to be based according to their efficiency and performance. They believed that public employees should be prohibited from taking an active part in politics as "administrative questions are not political questions", and to become businesslike they had to be come nonpolitical. Law was deemphasized: as Leonard White (1923) stressed, "the study of administration should start from the base of management rather than the foundation of law". In making decisions public administrators were to choose most cost-effective.

The managerial approach tends to minimize the distinction between public and private administration.

Public administration differs from private administration in many significant ways, such as:

1. Separation of powers, that is their division into chief executives, legislature, and courts, helps to avoid different political pressures and to save people from autocracy. At the same time it may frustrate coordination between them that often creates a very complex environment for contemporary public administration. This situation is not observed in the private sector.

2. Constitutional concerns frequently run counter the values of private management.

3. The profit motive is not central to the public sector. The governmental obligation to promote the public interest distinguishes public administration from private administration and management.

4. Public agencies do not face free, competitive markets in which their services done. This remoteness makes it difficult to evaluate the efficiency of public administrators. If government agencies produce a product that is not sold freely in open markets, then it is hard to determine what the product is worth.

5. The actions of public administrators have the force of law while the private sector must turn the public sector's courts and police power for the enforcement of contracts.

Public administration viewed as a problem in *political theory* placed a different set of values: representativeness, political responsiveness, and accountability of elected officials to the citizens. They stress political pluralism within public administration. Public administration is to reflect public choice, which may or may not coincide with generalizations that are scientifically derived.

The *legal* approach emphasizes the rule of law and views public administration as applying and enforcing the law in concrete circumstances to protect an individual from malicious, arbitrary, erroneous, or unconstitutional deprivation of life or administrative action.

In contemporary public administration the elements of all the three approaches can be found.

Тема 7-8. Sequence of tenses. Indirect speech.
SOME THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
Though there are different approaches to the field of public administration, this interdisciplinary subject nowadays has a quite strong theory that tries to take into account not only *management subjects*, but also the mix of *administration, policy making,* and *politics*.

Let us consider some issues of this theory and start with *organization theory* common to both public and private sectors.

The basic aspects of organization theory
The terms *public* and *private* convey very different connotations to the general public. Public organizations are commonly pictured as large mazes that employ bureaucrats to create red tape; private organizations, on the other hand, are viewed to be run by hard-nosed managers who worry about profit and consumers. Public organizations are pictured as wasteful; private organizations are often presented as efficient. Yet these perceptions of their differences do not withstand careful scrutiny. Both types of organizations have much in common.

Organization as bureaucracy
Whether in business or government organizations, *a dominant form of any administration is bureaucracy.* Bureaucracies are generally defined as organizations that (1) are large, (2) hierarchical in structure with each employee accountable to the top executive through a chain of command, (3) provide each employee with a clearly defined role and area of responsibility, (4) base their decisions on impersonal rules, and (5) hire and promote employees taking into account their skills and training related to specific jobs. Bureaucracy has promise but it may also create problems and abuses of power, especially in the absence of effective coordination.

Organization as a dynamic change
Then, *both* public and private *organizations have a dilemma – the need for both stability and change.* All organizations resist change as organizational change is often painful and destructive. Despite the need for new ideas, new approaches, and new types of employees, stability need usually dominates in organizations. And the forces of stability are stronger in public organizations. These institutions are generally insulated from survival concerns by legal mandates. Few of them declare bankruptcy despite serious doubts about their efficiency.

Organization as human relations
Both organizations, especially public organizations, are crowded with individuals.

Individuals bring to organizations a complex mix of needs (both *fundamental needs*, as food, shelter, health care, and future security which are bought with money earned through work, and our *highest spiritual needs* to belong to a social group and to contribute to it, the need of self-actualization, esteem and recognition). To attract and keep people and to encourage dependable and innovative performance, organizations must take into account individual needs and motivation and satisfy them.

Organizations should also make a system of various rewards that are powerful incentives for above-average performance. Pay, promotions, recognition, and others rewards *are distributed by managerial staff.* Social rewards like friendship, conversation, impact, satisfaction received from meaningful work *appear in the process of work itself*.

The social rewards of some jobs are more obvious than others. Jobs with greater variety, responsibility, and challenge are inherently more rewarding while routine can generate lack of interest and boredom, and managers should take it into account.

Organization as a structure of subgroups

Most work in organizations depends on ensemble rather than solo effort, and is a mix of collaboration and interdependence.

There are two basic groups in organizations: formal and informal.

Formal groups (departments, committees) are identified and selected by organizational leaders, and their major characteristics are organizational legitimacy and task orientation.

Informal groups (sport groups, common lunch hours, etc.) are not created by management but evolve out of the rich social environment. Though people in these groups get together to share common interests, not to work, their activities in them (supporting friends, trading rumors, and so on) have profound effects on work and are as important as formal assignments.

Organization as a cultural product

Organizations have not only tangible dimensions such as an office building, an organizational chart, products and services, specific individuals and groups. Organizations *are cultural and meaning systems* as well as places for work.

The concept of culture is difficult to define. But when comparing organizations in different countries, their *cultural differences* are extremely vivid and important. Despite similar work and procedures, police departments, for example, in India, Germany and Japan differ greatly. Offering a small gift to a policeman may be considered corruption in one nation and a sign of respect in another.

Organizations are also *meaning systems* as they provide meaning to our lives. Feelings and emotions as well as purpose are very important to work life of an organization. The despair of the unemployed goes deeper than financial worries; many feel lost, without significance.

Both culture and emotions influence structure, effectiveness, and change in organizations. Organizations are not only places of production; they are also sites rich with symbols and bureaucrats and executives act as tribal leaders: they tell stories, repeat myths, and stage rites and ceremonials. The symbolic and cultural dimensions of organizations are increasingly viewed as essential to understanding individual organizations and their role in society.

Тема 9. Conditionals.
THE ENVIRONMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

When many people think of public administration as an activity, they visualize large offices crammed with rows of faceless bureaucrats sitting at desks and producing an endless stream of paperwork. But this view captures only few of the important things that professional civil servants actually do.

Public administration also has many more participants, such as the *executive, the legislature, the courts, and organized groups*, which are involved in the formulation and implementation of public policy. And if a public administrator focuses the attention on only some of them then others may become neglected and that may lead to the jeopardy of the entire program.

Summing up what has been said, it is important to underline that the theory of public administration is very diverse, is rapidly developing and depends much on what we know about *why* humans behave as they do when they interact with each other.

Тема 10. Conditionals (Continued).
CIVIL SERVICE SYSTEMS

Civil service organizations exhibit different organizing principles. The four widely accepted principles are:

The intricacies of administrative work require expert knowledge and the organization of a special workforce.

The civil service is now recognized as a profession all over the world, even in countries that previously did not differentiate politics and administration from other kinds of work.

Entry into the civil service and subsequent promotions should be based on merit and fitness alone.

While the merit principle is accepted universally, issues often arise about the definition of merit. Many countries hold competitive examinations for recruitment to the managerial posts, but how far these examinations and tests can measure future potential and qualities such as integrity, commitment to duty and impartiality is debatable.

The civil service should provide a secure career on a lifetime basis.

In almost all countries, civil service systems provide a secure lifetime career. It is only in rare cases that incoming governments have been known to dismiss officials. The reasons given were usually corruption, unsatisfactory performance and abuse of authority, and the numbers involved were extremely small in relation to the overall size of the civil service.

The civil service should strictly adhere to political neutrality.

Civil services usually continue to serve governments, irrespective of how the latter came into power. There are few instances of officials disagreeing with government policies or resigning in protest. In fact, the civil service has been generally ruler dominated and willing to serve all governments, especially when their interests are not threatened. In rare instances where their interests have been threatened, they have recouped their lost position through subsequent regimes.

(Abridged from *Rethinking Public Administration: Overview*: pp. 69-70)

6. Теми та зміст семінарських/практичних занять

Семінарські/практичні заняття мають на меті розвиток володіння граматично правильною англійською мовою (читання, писання, говоріння) у визначених межах.

Готуючись до семінарського заняття, здобувач вищої освіти повинен покладатися на зміст дисципліни, засвоїти відповідний обсяг матеріалу, використовуючи методичні матеріали, рекомендовану, довідкову та навчальну літературу до тем семінарських занять.

№ з/п	Теми практичних занять	Форма контролю	Кіл. год. денна/заочна
1	**Тема 1** Phonetics. Sounds absent in Ukrainian. Rhythmic characteristics. Word order. Text: *Defining public administration*	Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах	**1/0,5**
2	**Тема 2** Modal verbs. Irregular verbs. Text: *Historical overview of public administration.*	Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах	**3/0,5**
3	**Тема 3** Simple (indefinite) tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Public administration activities*	Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах	**3/0.5**
4	**Тема 4** Continuous (progressive) tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Business management and public administration*	Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах	**5/0,5**
5	**Тема 5** Perfect tenses: formation, usage. Text: *Public administration as an academic discipline*	Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах	**5/1**
6	**Тема 6** Phrasal verbs. Text: *Managerial, political, and legal approaches to public administration*	Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах	**2/0,5**
7-8	**Тема 7-8** Sequence of tenses. Indirect speech. Text: *Some theoretical aspects of public administration*	Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах	**5/0,5**
9	**Тема 9** Conditionals. Text: *The environment of public administration*	Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах	**3/1**

10	**Тема 10** Conditionals (Continued). Text: *Civil service systems*	Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах	**3/1**
	Всього		**30**

7. Самостійна робота

№	Назва теми	Кіл. год. денна/заочна
1	Public administration personnel: role-types, role conflicts, role overloads	**5/8**
2	Classification, cadres and grades	**10/20**
3	Meeting personnel needs	**10/20**
4	Personnel selection	**15/20**
5	Promotion of public administration personnel	**15/20**
6	Incompetence as promotion mistakes, or the peter principle	**15/20**
7	Elements and models of a decision-making process	**20/20**
8	Administrative decision-making	**15/20**
9	Leadership	**15/20**
10	The relation between policy, administration, and leadership	**5/20**
11	Gorbachev's leadership	**10/20**
12	Organizational culture	**10/20**
13	Management	**15/20**
14	Motivation	**15/20**
	Разом	**168/120**

Завдання для самостійної роботи студентів

Завдання для самостійної роботи студентів подані у **Додатку**.

Питання поточного контролю
з навчальної дисципліни «Англійська мова» »

1) Present continuous (I am doing)
2) Present simple (I do)
3) Past simple (I did)
4) Past continuous (I was doing)
5) Present perfect (I have done)
6) Present perfect continuous (I have been doing)
7) Past perfect (I had done)
8) Past perfect continuous (I had been doing)
9) Have and have got
10) Used to (do)
11) Present tenses (I am doing/I do) for the future
12) (I'm) going to (do)
13) Can, could and (be) able to
14) Could (do) and could have (done)
15) Must and have to
16) Must mustn't needn't
17) Passive
18) Reported speech (He said that ...
19) Questions

20) Question tags (do you? isn't it? etc.)
21) Be/get used to something (I'm used to ...
22) See somebody do and see somebody doing
23) Countable and uncountable nouns
24) Singular and plural
25) There ... and it ...
26) Some and any
27) No/none/any
28) Much, many, little, few, a lot, plenty
29) Both/both of neither/neither of either/either of
30) All, every and whole
31) Each and every
32) So and such
33) Comparison -cheaper, more expensive etc.
34) Comparison -as ... as than
35) Superlatives-the longest/the most enjoyable etc.
36) Word order -verb + object; place and time
37) Word order -adverbs with the verb
38) Although/though/even though In spite of despite
39) In case
40) By and until By the time ...
41) At/on/in (time)
42) Phrasal verbs (get up/break down/fill in etc.)

Методичні рекомендації для самостійної роботи студентів (СРС)

Особливістю вивчення іноземної мови на заочному відділенні є те, що більша частина мовного матеріалу має вивчатися самостійно. Послідовна робота над матеріалом - запорука успіху. Звертайтеся до граматичного довідника, якщо вам незрозумілий той чи інший матеріал. Навчальний матеріал треба засвоювати не механічно, а свідомо, практично оволодіваючи кожним правилом граматики, вимови, читання.

Правила читання

Перш за все необхідно навчитися правильно вимовляти та читати слова і речення. Опануйте правила вимовлення букв та буквосполучень, а також правила наголосу у словах та реченнях. Вивчіть правила читання наголошених. Радимо постійно слухати радіо, записи, телепрограми англійською мовою, що допоможе вам краще оволодіти навичками правильної мови.

Для того, щоб розуміти тексти англійською мовою, треба оволодіти новим запасом слів та виразів. Для цього рекомендується регулярно читати англійською мовою навчальні тексти, газети та літературу з фаху. Добре завчіть алфавіт: це полегшить пошук слів у словнику. Тренуйте свою пам'ять на засвоєння нових слів. Нові слова та вирази записуйте в зошит чи на окремих картках. Доцільно на такі картки заносити по 5-10 слів чи виразів. Звертайтеся до цих карток якомога частіше, доки не запам'ятаєте їх зміст.

Як працювати над текстом

У зв'язку з тим, що метою заочної форми навчання є формування вміння отримати корисну для фахівця інформацію на іноземній мові, особливу увагу треба приділити читанню текстів. Робота над текстом має здійснюватись у такій послідовності:

• Уважно прочитайте текст, намагаючись зрозуміти його загальний зміст;

• Випишіть слова у словниковий зошит, вивчіть їх. Читання кожного слова перевірте за транскрипцією, яка дається у словнику. Якщо слово читається не за правилами, запишіть його транскрипцію. Поряд запишіть рідною мовою значення іноземного слова, яке найбільше підходить до даного контексту;

• Прочитайте текст ще раз, намагаючись схопити не тільки його загальний зміст, а й деталі;

• Опрацюйте кожне речення тексту, щоб зрозуміти його зміст.

Стислі рекомендації

1. Практикуватися кожного дня (хоча б по півгодини). В ідеалі має сформуватися потреба у заняттях (коли відчувається дискомфорт, якщо хоч трохи не позаймався).

2. Не боятися товстих словників. Пам'ятати, що для зрозумілого спілкування достатньо лише 1,5 – 2,0 тис слів.

3. Постійно тренувати вуха (слухати мову, навіть коли нічого не розумієте).

4. Намагатися перекладати все, що „зустрічається на шляху". Розвивати вміння виплутуватися, коли трапляються невідомі слова. Тренувати перекладацьку здогадливість, винахідливість, кмітливість.

5. Розвивати перекладацьку цікавість („Цікаво, а як це буде англійською?")

8. Методи навчання

Дисципліна передбачає навчання із застосуванням наступних методів: метод наукового пізнання, метод критичного аналізу, методи оцінки і синтезу комплексних ідей, інтерактивні методи (робота в парах та малих групах), дистанційні методи (online-сервіси), мультимедійний метод (презентація), діалогові методи, неімітаційні методи (проблемна (дискусійна) лекція, ситуаційні (дискусійно-дослідницькі) практичні завдання, дискусія, ситуаційні вправи), імітаційні методи (формування системного підходу до вирішення наукових проблем, виділення варіантів гіпотез розв'язання проблем, налагодження ділових та особистих контактів).

Лекції забезпечують здобувачів вищої освіти теоретичними знаннями у визначеному обсязі.

На **практичних заняттях** формуються мовленнєві навички.

Самостійне навчання реалізується також у підготовці до практичних занять, у виконанні індивідуальних творчих завдань, у роботі з підготовки мультимедійних презентацій, що будуть проаналізовані, обговорені та оцінені в академічних групах.

Під час підготовки до занять здобувачі вищої освіти розвиватимуть навички самостійного навчання, критичного аналізу наукової літератури та матеріалів інформаційних ресурсів, синтезу та аналітичного мислення.

9. Методи контролю

Поточний контроль, який здійснюється у формі фронтального, індивідуального чи комбінованого контролю знань здобувачів вищої світи під час перевірки активності протягом аудиторних занять (усне чи письмове опитування), виконання теоретичних та практичних завдань, тестування, інтерактивної бесіди, ситуаційних завдань, індивідуальних творчих практичних завдань.

Підсумковий контроль – залік.

Розподіл балів, які отримують здобувачі вищої освіти

Поточний контроль та самостійна робота				ІТПЗ 1/ІТПЗ 2	Всього
Тема 1	Тема 2	Тема 3	Тема 4	30/30	100
10	10	10	10		

Шкала оцінювання: національна та ECTS

Сума балів за всі види навчальної діяльності	Оцінка ECTS	Оцінка за національною шкалою	
		для екзамену, курсового проекту (роботи), практики	для заліку
90 – 100	**A**	відмінно	зараховано
82-89	**B**	добре	
75-81	**C**		
64-74	**D**	задовільно	
60-63	**E**		
35-59	**FX**	незадовільно з можливістю повторного складання	не зараховано з можливістю повторного складання
0-34	**F**	незадовільно з обов'язковим повторним вивченням дисципліни	не зараховано з обов'язковим повторним вивченням дисципліни

10. Рекомендована література
Основна
1. Кащук М. Г., Запотічна Р. А. English Course for Law Enforcement Professionals. Part III (Курс професійної англійської мови для правоохоронців. Частина III) : навчальний посібник. Львів : Львівський державний університет внутрішніх справ, 2023. 128 с. https://dspace.lvduvs.edu.ua/bitstream/1234567890/5541/1/English-Course%20Part-III.pdf
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PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION PERSONNEL:
ROLE-TYPES, ROLE CONFLICTS, ROLE OVERLOADS

Large organizations employ many individuals. Charismatic leaders, caring supervisors, innovative program directors, and numerous street-level employees lend individuality to the collective and character to the whole organization. One should also remember that higher moral and ethical standards are expected of public employees than of private employees, and that public managers work within very strict limits of legislation, executive orders, and regulations surrounding government. But unique contributions of individuals do not obscure their general patterns of behavior, or roles.

A role is a predictable set of expectations and behaviors associated with an office or position. Like an actor assigned a part, cabinet secretaries, police officers, and policy analysts step into roles that are already largely defined.

A person usually performs several roles and it may become a source of stress and overload. *Role overload* is more than just too much work, or overwork. Role overload exists when the demands of various roles overwhelm an individual's ability to balance expectations, when the demands of one role make it difficult to fulfill the demands of others. The lawyer who must cancel an appointment to care for a sick child or the professor who neglects his students to fulfill administrative obligations is experiencing a role conflict.

Viewing organization as a system of roles helps to identify rights and obligations of each employee. Roles provide the consistency that holds an organization together. An organization that falls apart when individuals leave has not built an adequate structure of roles.

Although public organizations contain many specific roles, *five role-types* – the political executive, desktop administrator, professional, street-level bureaucrat, and policy entrepreneur – are the most common.

Political executives

Political executives (the secretary of a State Department, the city manager, or the county administrator) occupy the top of public organizations. Although their jobs and responsibilities are different, they all perform the functions of a political aide, policy maker, and top administrator.

In most cases, political executives are political appointees – elected officials give them their jobs. That is why, their position, their tenure, and their influence while in office derive from the authority of elected officials. The official who wins the election most commonly appoints loyal supporters. They are *advisors* for selected officials.

Elected officials cannot do everything. They can do little more than point the general direction and scrutinize the final result. That is why political executives appointed by them are also *policy makers*. The political executive initiates, shapes, promotes, and oversees policy changes. They may also have responsibility for major decisions. The ultimate authority, however, rests with the elected official.

Political executives are also *top-level administrators*. It is a difficult role. Public executives are legally responsible for implementing policy They must cut through the red tape, resistance of change, intra-organizational conflict to assure that the public is served well. Those political executives who fail to reach down and get the support and enthusiasm of their agency personnel will effect little change in policy. But if they completely disregard the preferences, knowledge, and experience of their agencies, stalemate ensues. If they uncritically adopt the views of their elected officials or their agencies, they may lose influence with elected officials.

Desktop administrators

Desktop administrators are career civil servants down the hierarchy a few steps from political executives. They are middle managers and closely fit the general description of a bureaucrat. Whether a social worker supervisor or the director of a major government program, the desktop administrator spends days filled with memoranda and meetings.

The desktop administrators are torn between the promises and practicality of governing. Desk administrators guide policy intentions into policy actions that actually change, for better or worse, people's life.

If there is, for example, a public and political consensus that the government should assist poor blind people, the definition worked out by a desktop administrator to answer the question who is poor and who is blind, has a dramatic influence to the nature of the program.

Desktop administrators differ fundamentally from political executives in that most of them are career civil servants. After a short probation period, most earn job tenure, and usually are not fired. Tenure insulates the civil service from direct political interference in the day-to-day working of government. Job tenure protects civil servants from losing their jobs, but they may be reassigned to less important jobs of equal rank if they lose favor with political executives.

Professionals

Professionals make up the third major role-type in public organizations. The original meaning of the term profession was a ceremonial vow made when joining a religious community. This vow followed years of training and some certification that the acquired knowledge and appropriate norms of behavior justified an individual's initiation.

Modern professionals receive standard specific training that ends with certification. They also learn values and norms of behavior.

Increasingly the work of public organizations depends on professionals and more and more professionals are involved in public administration. The work of professionals involves applying their general knowledge to the specific case and requires considerable autonomy and flexibility.

An important difference between professional and non-professional work is who evaluates performance. Nonprofessionals are evaluated by their immediate supervisors. Professionals assert their independence from supervisors. Their work is evaluated by peer review of their colleagues and that has flaws: fellow professionals are sometimes more willing to overlook the mistakes of colleagues for different reasons.

Street-level bureaucrats

Street-level bureaucrats (social workers, police officers, public school teachers, public health nurses, job and drug-counselors, etc.) are at the bottom or near the bottom of public organizations.

Their authority does not come from rank, since they are at the bottom of hierarchy, but from the discretionary nature of their work. They deal with people and people are complex and unpredictable, they are not the same and require individual attention. A common complaint about public bureaucrats is that they treat everyone like a number; they ignore unique problems and circumstances. But there are only general guidelines how to deal with people (an abusive parent, an arrested, poor, old or sick person), and it is impossible to write better guidelines to make everyone happy. Street-level administrator must use judgment to apply rules and laws to unique situations, and judgment requires discretion.

Given limited resources, public organizations want fewer, not more clients, and this is an important difference between public and private organizations, which attract more clients to earn more profit. And dependence of clients on street-level bureaucrats often create conflicts.

Street-level bureaucrats work in situations that defy direct supervision. Even when supervisors are nearby, much work with clients is done privately. Most paperwork and computerized information systems attempt to control street-level bureaucrats, who in turn become skilled in filling out forms to satisfy supervisors while maintaining their own autonomy.

Street-level bureaucrats are also policy-makers. They often decide what policies to implement, their beliefs can affect their work with clients, they may interpret the policy to benefit clients and vice versa, and thus they may change the policy while implementing it.

Policy entrepreneurs

The policy entrepreneur is generally considered to be the charismatic person at the top, though they can exist at all levels of an organization. They are strongly committed to specific programs and are strong managers. They are skilled in gathering support and guiding an idea into reality. The role requires conceptual leadership, strategic planning, and political activism. This role

is both necessary and dangerous. They take risks and push limits, which is necessary for a dynamic government, but they also bend rules and sometimes lead policy astray.

CLASSIFICATION, CADRES AND GRADES

Almost all countries have some system of service classification. While the system may be simple or elaborate, it is essential for organizing the civil service and establishing a salary plan.

Classification systems broadly follow two models. One may be described *as a position classification* system, where the starting point is the position required and its duties, responsibilities and qualifications. All comparable positions are graded at the same level with the emphasis on equal pay for equal work. This system does not have a career structure for automatic upward mobility, although people move to higher responsibility and higher-paying positions if they meet the qualification requirements of the new assignments.

The second model is known as *a rank system*, where the emphasis is on a career structure and personal status. The cadre comprises a series of posts that have certain functional features in common (for example, civil administration, agriculture service, tax administration, customs, foreign affairs, and police). The cadre is divided into several grades, with each grade assigned a salary. Promotion to the next higher grade may depend on seniority alone or on the seniority-cum-merit principle.

Among developing countries at present, the rank system is more prevalent than the position classification system. But the two systems are not mutually exclusive.

(From *Rethinking Public Administration: Overview*: pp. 72)

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION: STAFFING AND TRAINING THE AGENCY

An important task in the management of any enterprise, private or public, is the *recruiting, selecting, promoting, and terminating of personnel and employee training.*

Recruiting

Once jobs have been created, the recruitment starts, i.e. finding people to fill those jobs.

Public administration in the United States has come a long way from the time of Andrew Jackson, when, in the popular view, government jobs could be performed by any individuals (or at least any *men*) with normal intelligence. Under Jackson and his successors, frequent rotation on office was encouraged; no particular prior training or experience was necessary for most jobs. Merit systems were designed for the most part to keep out the grossly incompetent, not to attract the highly qualified.

Gradually, the pattern changed. The government began attracting especially competent applicants. Openings were more highly publicized, recruiting visits were made to college and university campuses, and wages were made more nearly competitive with those in the private sector. Active efforts were made to attract individuals who, in earlier times, would have been excluded from public employment because of their ethnic or racial backgrounds or because they were women.

Examining and selecting

Once applications have been received, the next step in the personnel process is examination. The term *examination* does not refer only to a pencil-and-paper test.

Some judgments are made on the basis of an *unassembled* examination. That is, the application form itself may require sufficient information to permit the assignment of a score based on reported experience and education and on references.

Another possibility, especially important for jobs requiring particular skills, is *performance examination*. Some jobs call for *an oral examination*, particularly those for which communication skills are especially important.

One examination of special importance is the *Professional and Administrative Career Examination (PACE)*. PACE is intended to select candidates for federal government *careers* rather than for particular jobs.

The personnel agency (e.g. Civil Service Commission) considers the list with the names of the individuals with the highest examination scores from which it chooses the new employee. Considerable discretion is allowed in making the final choice.

Following selection, the new employee is likely to serve a probationary period, often six months, during which removal is relatively easy. Personnel managers encourage supervisors to see this as an extension of the testing procedure, but few employees are, in fact, dismissed during this period.

Evaluation

The evaluation of employee performance is a further personnel function. Recently, the trend has been to formalize rating schemes and to regularize feedback to employees. Where possible, objective measures of the work completed are employed. In jobs where this is not possible, supervisors are encouraged to judge performance as accurately as possible using impressionistic techniques.

By supplying a continuing record of performance, such evaluation can protect employees from capricious actions of a subjective supervisor.

Continuing education in the public service

Government is deeply involved with the further education and training of the employees. This involvement may range from relatively simple, in-house training sessions – even on-the-job training – to the financing of undergraduate or graduate education.

Many universities, in cooperation with government agencies, have developed special programs for public employees, and the courses typically lasting for a week, may be conducted either at a university campus or at an agency site.

The *Federal Executive Institute* in Charlottesville, Virginia, established in 1968, operated by the Civil Service Commission, provides managerial training for high-level federal executives. The commission also has regional training centers located throughout the country.

Public personnel are also often given leaves for a semester or a year by their agency to pursue a degree at the doctoral level (the Doctor of Public Administration) or to fulfill a master's program.

MEETING PERSONNEL NEEDS

The national educational system is the main source of recruitment for the civil service. Thus, the quantity, quality and specialities of graduates become important variables for civil service and personnel administration.

A serious problem which has become an issue nowadays especially in developing countries is the emergence of a dual educational system. Some institutions catering to general education lack the proper facilities and competent teaching staffs in adequate numbers. The other stream comprises local elite institutions or education abroad. Many fields of study continue to be dominated by foreign textbooks and methodologies. The result of the dual system is that graduates of local elite institutions or educational facilities abroad have an edge in competitive examinations over the graduates from indigenous institutions. Thus, the civil service comes to be dominated by graduates of certain institutions, regions and social groups. This runs counter to the declared government policies to make the civil service a representative institution.

PERSONNEL SELECTION

Personnel selection is the process used to hire (or, less commonly, promote) individuals. Although the term can apply to all aspects of the process (recruitment, selection, hiring, acculturation, etc.) the most common meaning focuses on the selection of workers.

The professional standards of industrial psychologists require that any selection system be based on a job analysis to ensure that the selection criteria are job-related. The requirements for a selection system are knowledge, skills, ability, and other characteristics, known as *KSAO's*. U.S. law also recognizes *bona fide occupational qualifications* (BFOQs), which are requirements for a job which would be discriminatory were they not necessary -- such as only employing men as

wardens of maximum-security male prisons, or enforcing a mandatory retirement age for airline pilots, or a religious college only employing professors of its religion to teach its theology.

The goal of personnel selection, as all business processes, is to ensure an adequate return on investment. In the case of selection, this entails assurances that the productivity of the new hires produce more value than the costs of recruiting, selecting, and training them. Within industrial psychology, the area of utility analysis specifically addresses this issue.

Several screening methods exist that may be used in personnel selection. Examples include the use of minimum or desired qualifications, resume/application review, scored biodata instruments, oral interviews, work performance measures (e.g., writing samples), and tests (cognitive ability, personality, job knowledge). Development and implementation of such screening methods is sometimes done by human resources departments; larger organizations hire consultants or firms that specialize in developing personnel selection systems.

Selection into organizations has as ancient a history as organizations themselves. Chinese civil servant exams, which were established in 605, may be the first documented, modern selection tests. As a scientific and scholarly field, personnel selection owes much to psychometric theory and the art of integrating selection systems falls to human resource professionals.

Much of the US research on selection is conducted by members of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP). Primary research topics include:
- The practicality, reliability, validity, and utility of various forms of selection measures
- Methods for demonstrating return on investment for selection systems
- Assessing fairness and making selection systems as fair as possible
- Legal issues—such as disparate treatment and disparate impact—and overall compliance with laws
- The generalizability of validity across different work contexts
- Alternative methods of demonstrating validity, such as synthetic validity
- The predictive validity of non-traditional measures, such as personality

PROMOTION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION PERSONNEL

Like other human beings, civil servants should have opportunities to realize their full potential. They should be able to attain higher positions commensurate with their capabilities and demonstrated achievements.

Promotions are generally made on the basis of written examinations and/or performance appraisals. The promotional examination resembles the merit entrance examination except that it is open only to those employees who qualify for consideration for promotion.

Promotion remains a controversial aspect of public personnel management. In hierarchical organizations there are fewer positions at the top than at the bottom. Therefore, there is a limit on how high up an employee can rise. Most employees will always be lower down in the organization's ranks. What is one employee's gain (promotion) is another's lost opportunity. The competition can be fierce and can lead to discord among employees. Thus, a written promotional examination has certain virtues and helps to avoid favoritism. Trade unions often stress the principle of seniority. However, seniority is not necessarily the best indicator of productivity. Sometimes merit-oriented promotion and seniority are combined.

INCOMPETENCE AS PROMOTION MISTAKES, OR THE PETER PRINCIPLE

Occupational incompetence is everywhere. Every organization contains a number of persons who could not do their job. Have you noticed it? Probably we all have noticed it.

We see indecisive politicians posing as resolute statesmen. Limitless are the public servants who are indolent and insolent, and governors whose innate servility prevents their actually governing. In our sophistication, we virtually shrug aside the immortal cleric, corrupt judge, incoherent attorney, author who cannot write and English teacher who cannot spell. At we are often droning lectures from inaudible or incomprehensible instructors.

Seeing incompetence at all levels of every hierarchy – political, legal, educational and industrial – I hypothesized that the cause was some inherent feature of the rules governing the placement of employees.

For my scientific data hundreds of case histories were collected, and all of them had a common feature. The employee had been promoted from a position of competence to a position of incompetence. Sooner or later, this could happen to every employee in every hierarchy – an organization whose members are arranged in order of rank, grade or class.

Many of them may win a promotion or two, moving from one level of competence to a higher level of competence. But competence in that new position qualifies them for still another promotion. For each individual the final promotion is from a level of competence to a level of incompetence. In time, every post tends to be occupied by an employee who is incompetent to carry out its duties.

But you will rarely find a system in which *every* employee has reached his or her level of incompetence. And work is accomplished by those employees who *have not yet reached* their level of incompetence.

("The Peter Principle" by Lawrence J. Peter & Raymond Hull // *Rethinking of Public Administration,* pp. 15-16)

ELEMENTS AND MODELS OF A DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

We all make decisions all the time. Some are small; some will have ramifications throughout our lives. Sometimes we make snap judgments that in retrospect seem wise. Other times we carefully weigh the pros and cons but are betrayed by fate. Often the most important decisions are nondecisions: we put things off, choose to ignore problems, or to avoid situations or people and later discover that inaction has consequences just as important as those resulting from action.

Four processes of decision-making

Whether small or large, short- or long-term, studied or impulsive, decision-making involves four major elements: *problem definition, information search, choice,* and *evaluation.* They are not sequential, they occur simultaneously. And it is often difficult to identify when a decision process begins and ends as most important choices are ongoing.

Problem definition

The first step in defining a problem is recognizing that it exists.

Then, problems are plentiful; attention is scare. Selecting a problem for attention and placing it on the policy agenda is the most important element in policy making. When a problem is given attention, it gains focus and takes shape.

How a problem is defined affects how it is addressed. The problem of the homeless is a good example. The people without home have always been with us. Most often they have been seen as people who because of their own weaknesses could not find work and afford homes. They were dismissed as drunks and drifters. So defined, the homeless remained a problem in the background – a problem for the Salvation Army, not the government. But as their number grew, we began to take a closer look. We saw individuals discharged from mental institutions, the unemployed whose benefits had expired, and families unable to afford decent home. And we started seeing "the homeless" as people in desperate situations. This change in our perception altered the decision process. Homelessness is now a focus of policy debate.

Information search

When we are only vaguely aware that a problem exists, our first step is often to learn more about it, and this learning is an important step in the decision-making. Acid rain is a good example. First in Europe and then in North America, people noticed that trees were dying, and a few scientists began to ask why. Pollution and changes in climate were explored. Out of this active search for information the problem gained definition: air pollution is killing trees. Then, the solutions were considered. Reducing acid rains requires costly reduction in pollution created in regions often at great distance from the dying trees. Thus, the information defined the nature of the policy-making.

Information has always been central to governing, and governments are primary sponsors of research both in the sciences and humanities. Such research is driven by the interests of scholars and may not have immediate relevance to policy debate. But it may have important policy implications. For example, advances in lasers and genetic engineering influence defense and social policy in ways unanticipated by scientists or their government sponsors.

Choice

As problems are defined and information about problems and outcomes is examined, choices emerge. Weighing options and selecting are the most visible decision-making processes.

Sometimes choices are difficult and taking decisions is very hard, especially when choices are not clear and their results are unpredictable. Should we negotiate with terrorists? Do we want to save the lives of hostages, as family members prefer, or do we want to eliminate any incentive for future terrorism?

The selection process does not necessarily require reasoned judgments; the compromises of group decision-making often produce results that only few individuals prefer; satisfying single interests often means ignoring the interests of others.

Evaluation

Decisions do not end with choices among alternatives. Decision-making involves evaluating the effects and actions. Evaluation may be formal (an official study of the results produced by a new government program) or informal (scanning the news, talking to colleagues).

Whether formal or informal, evaluation is another form of information gathering after the choice.

The distinction between information search and evaluation is arbitrary. Before decision makers reach conclusions, most try to anticipate outcomes.

The most difficult aspect of evaluating choices is establishing the criteria. The most common criterion is the result – if things turn out well, we feel that we made the right choice. But in this case, we may confuse good luck with good decision-making (consider the decision to have a surgery: all surgery involves risk, and if a person chooses to take the very slight risk to remove a small tumor and dies during surgery, was the decision wrong?). Results are not universal criteria for the quality of a decision. The evaluation of any decision-making must involve looking at results and processes as well as the situation faced by decision makers.

Models of decision-making

There is no right or wrong way to make decisions. Sometimes cautious deliberation is the best path; at other times risks are required. But scholars speak about two broad categories of models of decision-making: rational and nonrational models.

Rational decisions are choices based on judgment of preferences and outcomes. They are not always turn out best and they do not eliminate the possibility of failure. Sometimes the goal is so important that it is rational to choose an option with little promise of payoff. Opting for experimental surgery is a rational choice over a life of pain.

In **nonrational** models choices do not result from the deliberate balancing of pros and cons. These models share the assumption that the mix of rules and participants shape choices, and that decisions result from the varying (though not necessarily accidental) mix of ingredients. Most of governmental decisions are within these models. The decision process there is too complex to take into account multiple goals, alternatives and impacts of every alternative; the time required to take a decision is too short; the finances are too thin to provide long researches.

Taken to extremes, rational models reduce human judgment to computation, and nonrational models portray decision outcomes as the result of forces beyond individual control.

Both rational and nonrational models of the decision process are products of value-neutral social science. Values enter rational decision models only in the form of preferences, but they are generally defined in terms of *self-interest*. An emerging view of decision-making places a stronger emphasis on decisions as value statements.

ADMINISTRATIVE DECISION-MAKING

Decision-making in public administration is a much-debated subject. For one thing, there is confusion about the vocabulary. Expressions such as strategic planning, policy making and decision-making are used indiscriminately and interchangeably. There is also no consensus on what constitutes a decision. It is generally agreed that a decision involves a choice among alternative courses of action. But this does not really help in selecting which decisions should be the focus of study for administrative purposes.

The varying roles of administrators add to the difficulty of understanding decision-making. In most developing countries, administrators describe their role in terms of implementing the laws and policies enunciated by the Government. In some countries, administrators would describe their role in managerial terms.

Different points of view about decision-making also complicate attempts at generalization. Four such points are mentioned by way of example.

1. Decisions are the result of the dynamics of a highly complex social phenomenon in which different values, interests, institutions and individuals interact in a variety of ways.

1. An elite makes the decisions. It may include persons inside or outside government. When it comes from inside, it may be concentrated in certain institutions, to the exclusion of others.

2. An inspired and charismatic leader makes the decisions.

3. Technocrats make the decisions, supposedly based on some concept of utility.

Complications grow when formal structures and informal channels for making decisions are considered. It is probably fair to conclude that decision-making occurs in all these instances.

Many public administrators think that decision-making is considered the responsibility of leaders, or political or special organizations, and they view their work in terms of «dealing with files», «carrying out assigned tasks» and «enforcing rules». But all administrators are decision-makers – to varying extents and for different levels of issues.

(Abridged from *Rethinking Public Administration: An Overview*, pp.39-40)

LEADERSHIP

Leadership is the direction and guiding of other participants in the organization.

Leadership differs in degree. ***Transactional leaders*** exchange rewards for services. They guide subordinates in recognizing and clarifying roles and tasks. They give their subordinates the direction, support, and confidence to fulfill their role expectations. They also help subordinates understand and satisfy their own needs and desires. They encourage better than average performance from their subordinates. They are good managers.

Transformational leadership is more dramatic. ***Transformational leaders*** change the relationship of the subordinate and the organization. They encourage subordinates to go well beyond their original commitments and expectations. If transactional leaders expect diligence, transformational leaders foster devotion. These leaders have the ability to reach the souls of others to raise human consciousness. They raise the level of awareness and encourage people to look beyond their self-interest.

Both forms of leadership are important. When people in positions of authority encourage subordinates to believe that their work is important – not merely a fair exchange of pay for work – motivation, commitment, and performance surpass routine expectations.

Leadership is required for major changes and new directions, and without leadership government easily stagnates. When things go well or poorly, we credit or blame the leader. We look for leadership in candidates for high office. But can we determine which job candidates are "natural born" leaders? Can we train employees so that they develop the required personality characteristics to become effective leaders?

Over many years, investigators have hoped to identify leadership traits. It is extremely difficult to know precisely what traits such diverse political leaders as Napoleon Bonaparte, Luther King, Vladimir Lenin, Joseph Stalin, Indira Ghandi, and Adolf Hitler shared in common. Yet many

researches have attempted to identify universal characteristics of leadership and the following *classification* of *the **leadership traits*** is suggested:

- capacity (intelligence, verbal facility, originality, judgment);
- achievement (scholarship, knowledge, athletic accomplishments);
- responsibility (dependability, initiative, persistence, aggressiveness, self-confidence, desire to excel);
- participation (activity, sociability, cooperation, adaptability, humor);
- status (socioeconomic position, popularity).

Yet this list is not very helpful. Particular traits are neither necessary nor sufficient to become a leader. There are brilliant thinkers and talkers who are not leaders, and there are people who are not very intelligent and not blessed with verbal facility who are obvious leaders. The holding of a degree does not say enough of the holder and whether he would fit into a particular situation. In some situations, the manager's superior education may be even resented by less well-educated organization members.

It is obvious that some managers are better leaders than others, and if psychological traits do not explain the variations, what is the explanation?

Some investigators emphasize the ***situational character*** of leadership. ***The ingredients*** of this parameter of leadership are the following:

- status, or position power – the degree to which the leader is enabled to get the group members to comply with and accept his or her leadership (but leadership should not be confused with high position – holding high office does not guarantee impact; despite the leader's formal power, he or she did not always get from subordinates the performance that was desired);
- leader-member relations – acceptance of the leader by members and their loyalty to him or her;
- task-structure – the degree to which the jobs of the followers are well defined;
- ability to recognize the most critical needs for organization members at the moment (physiological needs for food, sleep, etc. or safety needs for freedom from fear, for security and stability; needs for love, friends and contact; esteem needs for self-respect and the respect of others or needs for self-actualization, for achieving one's potential).

Defining leadership is a very difficult task but rejecting the study of leadership would impoverish our understanding of governing.

THE RELATION BETWEEN POLICY, ADMINISTRATION, AND LEADERSHIP

A public manager cannot pursue a leadership approach independent of existing policy. Fortunately, such policies are usually (and necessarily) vague, giving a manager some flexibility in establishing a mission, in setting goals, and in achieving them.

Having established mission and goals, the manager may still need some new policies. For example, when the state of Washington developed its new welfare, training, and employment program, it designed one that actually required new federal legislation. If given a choice, however, most public managers prefer to function with existing (albeit inadequate) legislation, rather than open their agency to additional legislative scrutiny and perhaps to legislation that creates as many new constraints as opportunities.

Similarly, adopting a leadership strategy does not mean that the agency head can ignore administrative systems. They are critical for any organization. But they do not come first. Rather, as the line units answer their headquarters' question, "What resources does your unit need to achieve your objectives?" headquarters can begin to provide those resources, including the supporting administrative systems.

But to make the existing administrative structure achieve the policy, a public administrator needs a leadership strategy.

(Abridged from: Behn, Robert D. *Leadership Counts,* pp. 207-208).

GORBACHEV'S LEADERSHIP

Gorbachev entered Communist Party work as a bureaucrat at age 24. He became chairman of the USSR Supreme Soviet in October 1988.

Gorbachev then introduced a presidential system that culminated in the new office of President of the USSR established in March 1990. The new presidency was created by a simple amendment to the Soviet Constitution of 1977, the fourth Soviet constitution.

Gorbachev established an unusual and unwieldy legislative structure. In place of the bicameral Supreme Soviet that had been created by Stalin in 1937 but had exercised extraordinary little political authority, Gorbachev established a large Congress of People's Deputies of 2,250 members elected for five-year terms. The Congress, in turn, was to elect the two chambers of the Supreme Soviet, the Soviet of the Union and the Soviet of Nationalities, each with 271 members. In contrast to the Supreme Soviet of 1937-1989, which met for only about one week of the entire year to approve policies already decided, the new legislative bodies were to hold both spring and autumn sessions of several months' duration. The Supreme Soviet was subordinate and accountable to the Congress of deputies, but it elected the USSR Supreme Court and appointed the Procurator General, the highest legal officer of the government.

Gorbachev's legislative creation proved to be cumbersome and soon it started to lose legitimacy.

As the principal Soviet executive and head of state, Gorbachev was unable to gain adequate control over the central government although he often presided over parliamentary sessions. He was also ineffective in attempting to abrogate laws and acts of republic authorities.

By late 1990 Gorbachev found himself the target of attacks from both the conservatives and the democratic reformers and finally was given up by them and replaced by Boris Yeltsin.

(Abridged from Michael Curtis. *Introduction to Comparative Government*, pp.350-351)

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Organizational culture is an idea in the field of organizational studies and management which describes the psychology, attitudes, experiences, beliefs and values (personal and cultural values) of an organization. It has been defined as "the specific collection of values and norms that are shared by people and groups in an organization and that control the way they interact with each other and with stakeholders outside the organization."

This definition continues to explain **organizational values**, also known as "beliefs and ideas about what kinds of goals members of an organization should pursue and ideas about the appropriate kinds or standards of behavior organizational members should use to achieve these goals. From organizational values develop organizational norms, guidelines, or expectations that prescribe appropriate kinds of behavior by employees in particular situations and control the behavior of organizational members towards one another.

Strong culture is said to exist where staff respond to stimulus because of their alignment to organizational values. In such environments, strong cultures help firms operate like well-oiled machines, cruising along with outstanding execution and perhaps minor tweaking of existing procedures here and there.

Conversely, there is **weak culture** where there is little alignment with organizational values and control must be exercised through extensive procedures and bureaucracy.

Where culture is strong—people do things because they believe it is the right thing to do—there is a risk of another phenomenon, Groupthink. "Groupthink" was described by Irving L. Janis. He defined it as "...a quick and easy way to refer to a mode of thinking that people engage when they are deeply involved in a cohesive in-group, when members' strive for unanimity override their motivation to realistically appraise alternatives of action." This is a state where people, even if they have different ideas, do not challenge organizational thinking, and therefore there is a reduced capacity for innovative thoughts. This could occur, for example, where there is heavy reliance on a central charismatic figure in the organization, or where there is an evangelical belief in the organization's values, or also in groups where a friendly climate is at the base of their identity

(avoidance of conflict). In fact group think is very common, it happens all the time, in almost every group. Members that are defiant are often turned down or seen as a negative influence by the rest of the group, because they bring conflict.

Innovative organizations need individuals who are prepared to challenge the status quo—be it group-think or bureaucracy, and also need procedures to implement new ideas effectively.

Several methods have been used to classify organizational culture. Some are described below:

Hofstede (1980[2]) demonstrated that there are national and regional cultural groupings that affect the behavior of organizations.

Hofstede looked for national differences between over 100,000 of IBM's employees in different parts of the world, in an attempt to find aspects of culture that might influence business behavior.

Hofstede identified five dimensions of culture in his study of national influences:

- *Power distance* - The degree to which a society expects there to be differences in the levels of power. A high score suggests that there is an expectation that some individuals wield larger amounts of power than others. A low score reflects the view that all people should have equal rights.

- *Uncertainty avoidance* reflects the extent to which a society accepts uncertainty and risk.

- *Individualism vs. collectivism* - individualism is contrasted with collectivism, and refers to the extent to which people are expected to stand up for themselves, or alternatively act predominantly as a member of the group or organization. However, recent researches have shown that high individualism may not necessarily mean low collectivism, and vice versa. Research indicates that the two concepts are actually unrelated. Some people and cultures might have both high individualism and high collectivism, for example. Someone who highly values duty to his or her group does not necessarily give a low priority to personal freedom and self-sufficiency

- *Masculinity vs. femininity* - refers to the value placed on traditionally male or female values. Male values for example include competitiveness, assertiveness, ambition, and the accumulation of wealth and material possessions.

MANAGEMENT

Management in business and organizations means to coordinate the efforts of people to accomplish goals and objectives using available resources efficiently and effectively. Management comprises planning, organizing, staffing, leading or directing, and controlling an organization or initiative to accomplish a goal. Resourcing encompasses the deployment and manipulation of human resources, financial resources, technological resources, and natural resources.

Since organizations can be viewed as systems, management can also be defined as human action, including design, to facilitate the production of useful outcomes from a system. This view opens the opportunity to 'manage' oneself, a prerequisite to attempting to manage others.

Theoretical scope

Management involves the manipulation of the human capital of an enterprise to contribute to the success of the enterprise. This implies effective communication: an enterprise environment (as opposed to a physical or mechanical mechanism), implies human motivation and implies some sort of successful progress or system outcome. As such, management is not the manipulation of a mechanism (machine or automated program), not the herding of animals, and can occur in both a legal as well as illegal enterprise or environment. Based on this, management must have humans, communication, and a positive enterprise endeavor. Plans, measurements, motivational psychological tools, goals, and economic measures (profit, etc.) may or may not be necessary components for there to be management. At first, one views management functionally, such as measuring quantity, adjusting plans, meeting goals. This applies even in situations where planning does not take place.

Basic functions:

Planning: Deciding what needs to happen in the future (today, next week, next month, next year, over the next five years, etc.) and generating plans for action.

Organizing: (Implementation)pattern of relationships among workers, making optimum use of the resources required to enable the successful carrying out of plans.

Staffing: Job analysis, recruitment and hiring for appropriate jobs.

Leading/directing: Determining what must be done in a situation and getting people to do it.

Controlling/monitoring: Checking progress against plans.

Motivation: Motivation is also a kind of basic function of management, because without motivation, employees cannot work effectively. If motivation does not take place in an organization, then employees may not contribute to the other functions (which are usually set by top-level management).

Communicating: is giving, receiving, or exchange information.

Creating: ability to produce original ideas through the use of imagination

Basic roles:

Interpersonal: roles that involve coordination and interaction with employees

Informational: roles that involve handling, sharing, and analyzing information

Decisional: roles that require decision-making

Management skills:

Political: used to build a power base and establish connections

Conceptual: used to analyze complex situations.

Interpersonal: used to communicate, motivate, mentor and delegate

Diagnostic: ability to visualize most appropriate response to a situation

Technical: Expertise in one's particular functional area.

Formation of the business policy

• The mission of the business is the most obvious purpose—which may be, for example, to make soap.

• The vision of the business reflects its aspirations and specifies its intended direction or future destination.

• The objectives of the business refer to the ends or activity that is the goal of a certain task.

• The business's policy is a guide that stipulates rules, regulations and objectives, and may be used in the managers' decision-making. It must be flexible and easily interpreted and understood by all employees.

• The business's strategy refers to the coordinated plan of action it takes and resources it uses to realize its vision and long-term objectives. It is a guideline to managers, stipulating how they ought to allocate and use the factors of production to the business's advantage. Initially, it could help the managers decide on what type of business they want to form.

Implementation of policies and strategies:

• All policies and strategies must be discussed with all managerial personnel and staff.

• Managers must understand where and how they can implement their policies and strategies.

• A plan of action must be devised for each department.

• Policies and strategies must be reviewed regularly.

• Contingency plans must be devised in case the environment changes.

• Top-level managers should carry out regular progress assessments.

• The business requires team spirit and a good environment.

• The missions, objectives, strengths and weaknesses of each department must be analyzed to determine their roles in achieving the business's mission.

• The forecasting method develops a reliable picture of the business's future environment.

• A planning unit must be created to ensure that all plans are consistent and that policies and strategies are aimed at achieving the same mission and objectives.

All policies must be discussed with all managerial personnel and staff that is required in the execution of any departmental policy.

Organizational change is strategically achieved through the implementation of the eight-step plan of action established by John P. Kotter: Increase urgency, get the vision right, communicate the buy-in, empower action, create short-term wins, don't let up, and make change stick.

Policies and strategies in the planning process

They give mid and lower-level managers a good idea of the future plans for each department in an organization.

A framework is created whereby plans and decisions are made.

Mid and lower-level management may add their own plans to the business's strategies.

Some people, however, find this definition useful but far too narrow. The phrase "management is what managers do" occurs widely, suggesting the difficulty of defining management, the shifting nature of definitions and the connection of managerial practices with the existence of a managerial cadre or class.

One habit of thought regards management as equivalent to "business administration" and thus excludes management in places outside commerce, as for example in charities and in the public sector. More broadly, every organization must manage its work, people, processes, technology, etc. to maximize effectiveness. Nonetheless, many people refer to university departments that teach management as "business schools". Some institutions (such as the Harvard Business School) use that name while others (such as the Yale School of Management) employ the more inclusive term "management".

English speakers may also use the term "management" or "the management" as a collective word describing the managers of an organization, for example of a corporation. Historically this use of the term often contrasted with the term "Labor" - referring to those being managed.

MOTIVATION

Motivation is the driving force which causes us to achieve goals. Motivation is said to be intrinsic or extrinsic. The term is generally used for humans but, theoretically, it can also be used to describe the causes for animal behavior as well. This article refers to human motivation. According to various theories, motivation may be rooted in a basic need to minimize physical pain and maximize pleasure, or it may include specific needs such as eating and resting, or a desired object, goal, state of being, ideal, or it may be attributed to less-apparent reasons such as altruism, selfishness, morality, or avoiding mortality. Conceptually, motivation should not be confused with either volition or optimism Motivation is related to, but distinct from, emotion.

Workers in any organization need something to keep them working. Most times the salary of the employee is enough to keep him or her working for an organization. However, sometimes just working for salary is not enough for employees to stay at an organization. An employee must be motivated to work for a company or organization. If no motivation is present in an employee, then that employee's quality of work or all work in general will deteriorate.

When motivating an audience, you can use general motivational strategies or specific motivational appeals. General motivational strategies include soft sell versus hard sell and personality type. Soft sell strategies have logical appeals, emotional appeals, advice and praise. Hard sell strategies have barter, outnumbering, pressure and rank. Also, you can consider basing your strategy on your audience personality. Specific motivational appeals focus on provable facts, feelings, right and wrong, audience rewards and audience threats.

At lower levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, such as physiological needs, money is a motivator, however it tends to have a motivating effect on staff that lasts only for a short period (in accordance with Herzberg's two-factor model of motivation). At higher levels of the hierarchy, praise, respect, recognition, empowerment and a sense of belonging are far more powerful motivators than money, as both Abraham Maslow's theory of motivation and Douglas McGregor's theory X and theory Y (pertaining to the theory of leadership) demonstrate.

Maslow has money at the lowest level of the hierarchy and shows other needs are better motivators to staff. McGregor places money in his Theory X category and feels it is a poor motivator. Praise and recognition are placed in the Theory Y category and are considered stronger motivators than money.

- Motivated employees always look for better ways to do a job.
- Motivated employees are more quality oriented.

- Motivated workers are more productive.

The average workplace is about midway between the extremes of high threat and high opportunity. Motivation by threat is a dead-end strategy, and naturally staff are more attracted to the opportunity side of the motivation curve than the threat side. Motivation is a powerful tool in the work environment that can lead to employees working at their most efficient levels of production.

Nonetheless, Steinmetz also discusses three common character types of subordinates: ascendant, indifferent, and ambivalent who all react and interact uniquely, and must be treated, managed, and motivated accordingly. An effective leader must understand how to manage all characters, and more importantly the manager must utilize avenues that allow room for employees to work, grow, and find answers independently.

The assumptions of Maslow and Herzberg were challenged by a classic study at Vauxhall Motors' UK manufacturing plant. This introduced the concept of orientation to work and distinguished three main orientations: instrumental (where work is a means to an end), bureaucratic (where work is a source of status, security and immediate reward) and solidaristic (which prioritises group loyalty).

Other theories which expanded and extended those of Maslow and Herzberg included Kurt Lewin's Force Field Theory, Edwin Locke's Goal Theory and Victor Vroom's Expectancy theory. These tend to stress cultural differences and the fact that individuals tend to be motivated by different factors at different times.

According to the system of scientific management developed by Frederick Winslow Taylor, a worker's motivation is solely determined by pay, and therefore management need not consider psychological or social aspects of work. In essence, scientific management bases human motivation wholly on extrinsic rewards and discards the idea of intrinsic rewards.

In contrast, David McClelland believed that workers could not be motivated by the mere need for money—in fact, extrinsic motivation (e.g., money) could extinguish intrinsic motivation such as achievement motivation, though money could be used as an indicator of success for various motives, e.g., keeping score. In keeping with this view, his consulting firm, McBer & Company, had as its first motto "To make everyone productive, happy, and free." For McClelland, satisfaction lay in aligning a person's life with their fundamental motivations.

Elton Mayo found that the social contacts a worker has at the workplace are very important and that boredom and repetitiveness of tasks lead to reduced motivation. Mayo believed that workers could be motivated by acknowledging their social needs and making them feel important. As a result, employees were given freedom to make decisions on the job and greater attention was paid to informal work groups. Mayo named the model the Hawthorne effect. His model has been judged as placing undue reliance on social contacts at work situations for motivating employees.

In *Essentials of Organizational Behavior*, Robbins and Judge examine recognition programs as motivators, and identify five principles that contribute to the success of an employee incentive program:

- Recognition of employees' individual differences, and clear identification of behavior deemed worthy of recognition
- Allowing employees to participate
- Linking rewards to performance
- Rewarding of nominators
- Visibility of the recognition process