

Министерство образования и науки РФ

**Нижегородский государственный университет им. Н. И. Лобачевского**

**Л. В. Ерушкина**

**Психология менеджмента**

**Учебно-методическое пособие**

Рекомендовано методической комиссией  
факультета иностранных студентов  
для студентов ННГУ, обучающихся по программе подготовки магистров  
38.04.02 «Менеджмент»

**Нижний Новгород  
2014**

УДК 159.9:35; 159.9:658.013

Е-79 Ерушкина Л.В. Психология управления: Учебно-методическое пособие. – Нижний Новгород: Нижегородский госуниверситет, 2014. – 58 с.

Рецензент: доцент кафедры общей психологии и психологии развития Университета Российской Академии образования, кандидат псих. наук Крамаренко **Н.С.**

Учебно-методическое пособие предназначено для изучения курса «Психология управления» на английском языке иностранными студентами, обучающихся по программе подготовки магистров 38.04.02 «Менеджмент». Задача пособия – структурировать систему практико-ориентированных семинаров, проводимых в форме активных методов.

Пособие состоит из 7 основных разделов. В учебно-методическом пособии приведены задания для практических работ, вопросы для дискуссии, игровые ситуации, психологические тесты, методика проведения интервью, использования специальных психологических технологий, направленных на эффективное межличностное взаимодействие и на самоопределение, список рекомендуемой литературы по учебной дисциплине «Психология менеджмента».

УДК 159.9:35; 159.9:658.013

© Ерушкина Л.В.

© Нижегородский государственный университет им. Н.И. Лобачевского, 2014

# Contents

<b>Section 1. Structure of the course .....</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>Section 2. Management Theories and Practice.....</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Section 3. Personality and its potential in Management.....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>Section 4. Communication Skills.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>Section 5. Stress Management.....</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>Section 6. Decision-Making Techniques.....</b>	<b>23</b>
<b>Section 7. Leadership Skills.....</b>	<b>31</b>
<b>Section 8. Team Management Skills.....</b>	<b>33</b>
<b>Section 9. Referrences .....</b>	<b>54</b>

## Раздел 1. Structure of the course

Topic	Lecture	Seminar	Independent work, grades	Quizzes
<b>Psychology of Management as a science</b>	V			
<b>Management as social relations. Management Theories and Practice</b>	V	V	Readings, Group presentation	
<b>Personality and its Potential in Management</b>	V	V	Personality tests	
<b>Communication skills</b>	V	V	Group Presentation	Class test
<b>Stress Management</b>	V	V	Readings	
<b>Decision-Making Techniques</b>	V	V	5-min talk	
<b>Leadership skills</b>	V	V	Essay	Class test
<b>Team Management</b>	V	V	Readings, Writing resume	
				Final Exam

## Раздел 2. Management Theories and Practice

### Homework:

#### 1. Readings:

“Speech Analysis #1: How to Study and Critique a Speech”  
<http://sixminutes.dlugan.com/speech-evaluation-1-how-to-study-critique-speech/>

“The Art of Delivering Evaluations”: <http://sixminutes.dlugan.com/speech-evaluation-2-art-of-delivering-evaluations/>

“10 Common Presentation Mistakes”  
<http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/presentation-mistakes.htm>

#### 2. Make a group of 2- 3 students and prepare a PP presentation about one of the following Management Theories:

1. Scientific Management Theory;
2. Bureaucratic Management Theory;
3. Human Relations Movement ( “X” , “Y” and “Z” theory);
4. Contingency Theory;
5. Systems Theory;
6. Chaos Theory.

The requirements for presentation:

- 10-15 slides, 10 min
- Topics to be covered: the author (s), period of appear, main ideas, “+ “ and “ –“ of the theory, a contemporary view.

#### In class

#### 3. Brainstorming: “Why do we need to learn Management Theories?”

#### 4. Group Presentations.

#### 5. Listening to the students’ presentations groups work according the following algorithm:

Presentation Group #	Presentation analyse Group #	Make an outline of the topics Group #
1	2, 6	3, 5
2	1, 3	4, 6
3	2, 4	5, 1
4	3, 5	6, 2
5	4, 6	1, 3
6	5, 1	2, 4

## 1) Outlines

1)

2)

3)

4)

5)

6)

2) For Presentation analyse full fill the form<sup>1</sup>:

	<b>Speaker: Speech Title:</b>		<b>Speaker: Speech Title:</b>	
<b>Area</b>	<b>Strengths</b>	<b>Recommendations</b>	<b>Strengths</b>	<b>Recommendations</b>
<b>Impact</b> Educate Motivate Entertain Audience?				
<b>Opening</b> Approach Hook? Clarity Clear intent				
<b>Structure</b> Logical Support Examples Bridging				
<b>Closing</b> Concise Summary Memorable?				
<b>Technique</b> Enthusiasm Humor Visual Aids Staging				
<b>Physical</b> Posture Gestures Hands Eyes				
<b>Voice</b> Volume Pace Pitch Pauses				
<b>Words</b> Articulation Grammar Rhetorical				

<sup>1</sup> <http://sixminutes.dlugan.com/wp-content/uploads/2008/01/speechevaluationform.pdf>

Devices				
---------	--	--	--	--

3) Discussions of the presentations: the outlines and the quality of presenting information.



## Раздел 3. Personality and its potential in Management

### Home tasks:

1. Make a self-esteem test at the webpage <https://personality-testing.info/tests/rse.php>. Write down your score\_\_\_\_\_.
2. Get prepared for answering questions:
  - a. What is Personality?
  - b. Which Personality theories do you know?
  - c. What is a temperament?
  - d. What is a character?
  - e. How important can temperament and character be in choosing profession, workplace?
  - f. What is self-esteem?
  - g. What types of self-esteem do you know?

### In Class:

3. Class discussion “Personality and its potencial in Management”.
4. Examine yourself, using Eysenck Personality Inventory Test<sup>2</sup>.

### **The EPI Instructions:**

Here are some questions regarding the way you behave, feel and act. After each question is a space for answering YES or NO. Try to decide whether YES or NO represents your usual way of acting or feeling. Then put a tick in the box under the column headed YES or NO. Work quickly, and don't spend too much time over any question, we want your first reaction, not a long drawn-out thought process. The whole questionnaire shouldn't take more than a few minutes. Be sure not to omit any questions. Start now, work quickly and remember to answer every question. There are no right or wrong answers, and this isn't a test of intelligence or ability, but simply a measure of the way you behave.

### **Form A**

<b>QUESTIONS</b>	<b>YES</b>	<b>NO</b>
1) Do you often long for excitement?		
2) Do you often need understanding friends to cheer you up?		
3) Are you usually carefree?		
4) Do you find it very hard to take no for an answer?		
5) Do you stop and think things over before doing anything?		
6) If you say you will do something do you always keep your promise, no matter how inconvenient it might be to do so?		
7) Do your moods go up and down?		
8) Do you generally do and say things quickly without stopping to think?		

<sup>2</sup> <http://ru.scribd.com/doc/21799155/Eysenck-Personality-Inventory-Interpretation-of-Scores>

9) Do you ever feel 'just miserable' for no good reason?		
10) Would you do almost anything for a dare?		
11) Do you suddenly feel shy when you want to talk to an attractive stranger?		
12) Once in a while do you lose your temper and get angry?		
13) Do you often do things on the spur of the moment?		
14) Do you often worry about things you should have done or said?		
15) Generally do you prefer reading to meeting people?		
16) Are your feelings rather easily hurt?		
17) Do you like going out a lot?		
18) Do you occasionally have thoughts and ideas that you would not like other people to know about?		
19) Are you sometimes bubbling over with energy and sometimes very sluggish?		
20) Do you prefer to have few but special friends?		
21) Do you daydream a lot?		
22) When people shout at you do you shout back?		
23) Are you often troubled about feelings of guilt?		
24) Are all your habits good and desirable ones?		
25) Can you usually let yourself go and enjoy yourself a lot at a lively party?		
26) Would you call yourself tense or 'highly strung'?		
27) Do other people think of you as being very lively?		
28) After you have done something important, do you come away feeling you could have done better?		
29) Are you mostly quiet when you are with other people?		
30) Do you sometimes gossip?		
31) Do ideas run through your head so that you cannot sleep?		
32) If there is something you want to know about, would you rather look it up in a book than talk to someone about it?		
33) Do you get palpitations or thumping in your ear?		
34) Do you like the kind of work that you need to pay close attention to?		
35) Do you get attacks of shaking or trembling?		
36) Would you always declare everything at customs, even if you knew you could never be found out?		
37) Do you hate being with a crowd who play jokes on one another?		
38) Are you an irritable person?		
39) Do you like doing things in which you have to act quickly?		
40) Do you worry about awful things that might happen?		
41) Are you slow and unhurried in the way you move?		
42) Have you ever been late for an appointment or work?		
43) Do you have many nightmares?		
44) Do you like talking to people so much that you never miss a chance of talking to a stranger?		
45) Are you troubled by aches and pains?		
46) Would you be very unhappy if you could not see lots of people most of the time?		
47) Would you call yourself a nervous person?		
48) Of all the people you know, are there some whom you definitely do not like?		
49) Would you say that you were fairly self-confident?		
50) Are you easily hurt when people find fault with you or your work?		
51) Do you find it hard to really enjoy yourself at a lively party?		
52) Are you troubled by feelings of inferiority?		
53) Can you easily get some life into a dull party?		

54) Do you sometimes talk about things you know nothing about?		
55) Do you worry about your health?		
56) Do you like playing pranks on others?		
57) Do you suffer from sleeplessness?		

## 5. Analyze your results

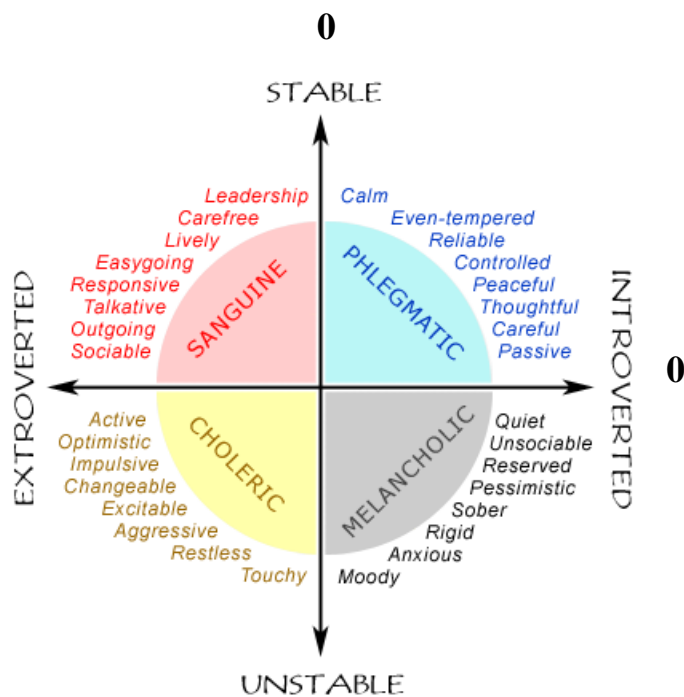
### Scoring for Form A of the E.P.I.

Check through your answers to Form A and place an E by the side of any answers which match those given in the E score table below. If your answer does not match that in the table write nothing. For example, if you have answered YES to question 1, place an E beside your answer. If, however, you answered NO, write nothing and move on to score the next question.

E		N		Lie Scale
1 Yes	29 No	2 Yes	31 Yes	6Yes
3 Yes	32 No	4 Yes	33 Yes	54No
4 No	37 No	6 Yes	35 Yes	48No
5 No	38 Yes	7 Yes	38 Yes	12No
10 Yes	39 Yes	9 Yes	40 Yes	18No
13 Yes	41 No	11 Yes	43 Yes	24Yes
15 No	44 Yes	14 Yes	45 Yes	30No
17 Yes	46 Yes	16 Yes	47 Yes	42No
20 No	49 Yes	19 Yes	50 Yes	36Yes
22 Yes	51 No	21 Yes	52 Yes	
25 Yes	53 Yes	23 Yes	55 Yes	
27 Yes	56 Yes	28 Yes	57 Yes	

- When you fill out Eysenck's Personality Inventory (EPI) you get three scores.
- The 'lie score' is out of 9. It measures how socially desirable you are trying to be in your answers. Those who score 5 or more on this scale are probably trying to make themselves look good and are not being totally honest in their responses.
- The 'E score' is out of 24 and measures how much of an extrovert you are.
- The 'N score' is out of 24 and measures how neurotic you are.
- To interpret the scores, your E score and your N score are plotted on a graph from which you can read your personality characteristics. The nearer the outside of the circle you are, the more marked are the personality traits. Please note that the EPI is a very simplistic type of personality measurement scale, so if you have come out as a personality that does not match what you thought before you took the test, you are probably right and the test is probably wrong!

24



24

6. Every person has his/her own picture of What I am. Do other people think about you the same way? Let's complete one more quiz.

*Instructions:* give 10 descriptions about yourself, do it quickly, without overthinking, write them down in the form they come to your mind.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.
9.
10.

Answer the same questions, from your mother/father's position.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.

9.
10.

Answer the same questions from your friend's position

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.
9.
10.

Compare 3 sets of answers and answer the following questions:

Did you find any similarity?	
Differences?	

<p>If there are differences how can you explain it? Does it depend on the roles you act with different people? Which roles do you act?</p>	
<p>How can these differences be explained on the assumption of peoples' individual characteristics and their expectations</p>	
<p>Which of your answers are about your appearance?</p>	
<p>Which of your answers are about your psychological characteristics?</p>	
<p>Which of your answers are about your social roles (job, family)?</p>	

## Раздел 4. Communication Skills

### Homework

**1. Make a group of 3 students and prepare a PP presentation about one of the following topic:**

- 1) Negotiation;
- 2) Communicating in Person;
- 3) Feedback;
- 4) Meetings;
- 5) Presentations;
- 6) Communicating in Writing.

**2. Take a short quiz to find out about your communication skills:**  
[http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newCS\\_99.htm](http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newCS_99.htm)

### In Class

**3. Answer the questions:**

- What is communication?
- What are the barriers of communications?
- How is knowledge of good communication important in Management?
- Which forms of communication can be used in Management?
- How does the communication plan change in different auditorium?

**4. Brainstorming “How to give a compliment”**

**5. Read the text**

How To Give A Good Compliment<sup>3</sup>

There’s nothing like a warm, sincere compliment to make your day. Instead of waiting for one, why not give one out?

**1) Make your compliment specific.**

“That necklace looks really good on you” makes a bigger impact compared to “you look really good today”. The more specific the better, it makes the person feel like you notice them.

**2) Back up your compliment.**

---

<sup>3</sup> <http://lifecoachesblog.com/2007/02/13/how-to-give-a-good-compliment/>

Don't just stop at "that necklace looks really good on you". Your compliment becomes stronger when you say why you think so; "that necklace looks really good on you because it matches your eyes".

**3) Ask a question with your compliment.**

And if you want to use it as a conversational starter, ask a question about the subject of your compliment; "that necklace looks really good on you because it matches your eyes. Where did you find it?"

**Why Giving Compliments Raises Your Self-Esteem**

It takes confidence and self-esteem to notice good things about others and to make the first caring move to tell them about it.

There will be those that reject it or will even argue with you, but that's usually their problem and not yours. A compliment is like a gift, if someone doesn't want your gift you'll still end up owning it. The best way to accept one is also like a gift, just say 'thank you'.

You'll also find when you start noticing good things about people, you'll notice more good things about yourself, too! And the more you do, the more your own self-esteem will grow.

**6. Practice in giving compliments.**

**7. Group Presentations.**

**8. Listening to the students' presentations and group work according the following algorithm:**

Presentation Group #	Presentation analyse Group #	Making a plan/scheme of topic Group #
1	2, 6	3, 5
2	1, 3	4, 6
3	2, 4	5, 1
4	3, 5	6, 2
5	4, 6	1, 3
6	5, 1	2, 4

**1) For Presentation analyse fill out the form<sup>4</sup>:**

Area	Speaker: Speech Title:		Speaker: Speech Title:	
	Strengths	Recommendations	Strengths	Recommendations
Impact Educate Motivate				

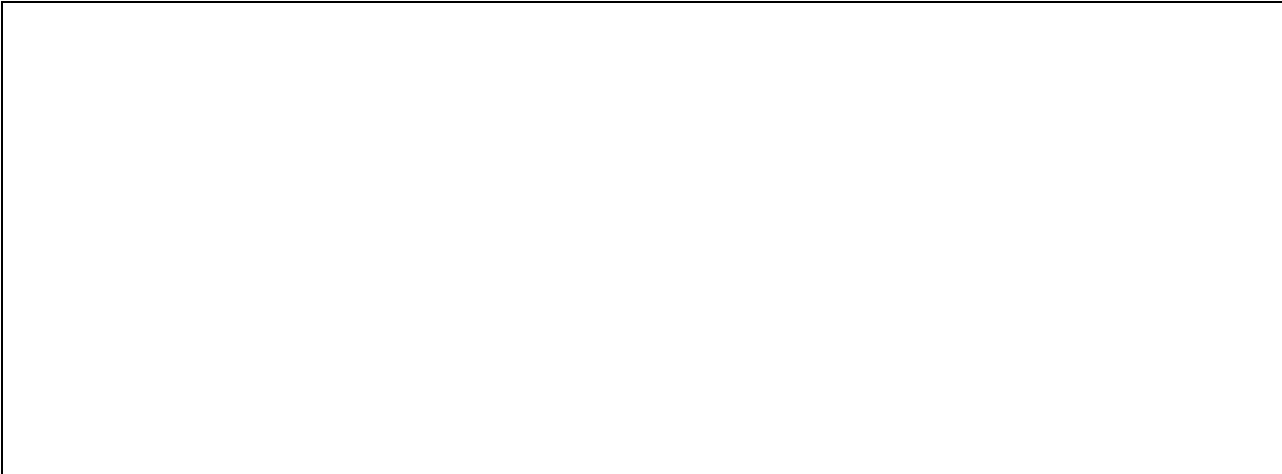
<sup>4</sup> <http://sixminutes.dlugan.com/wp-content/uploads/2008/01/speechevaluationform.pdf>



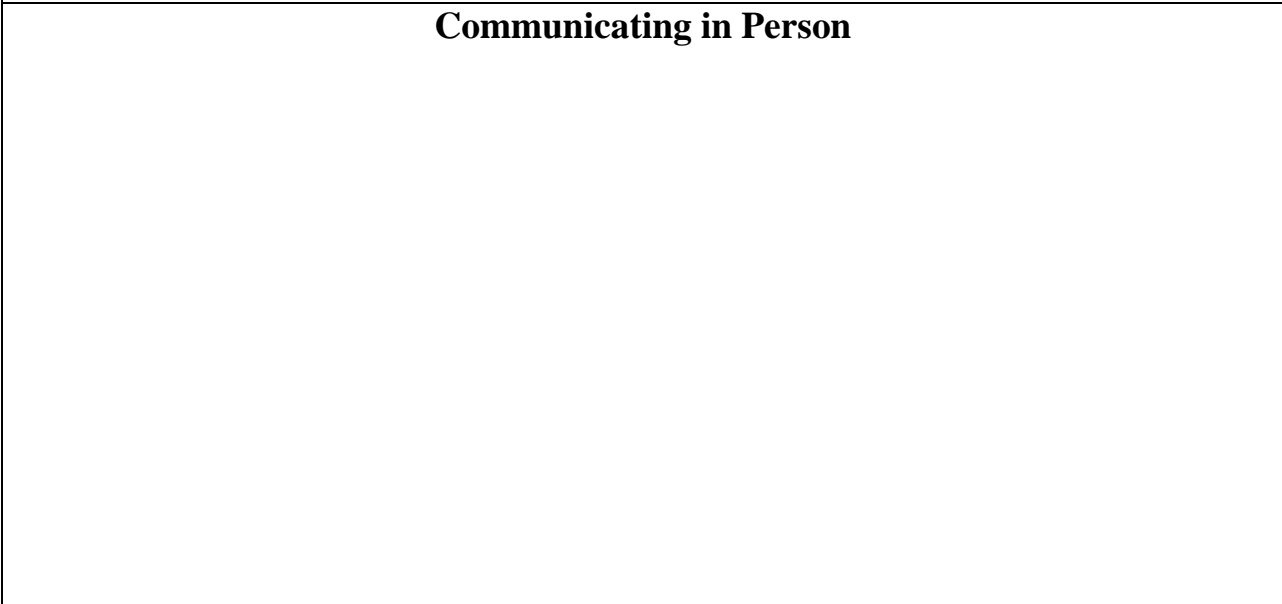
Entertain Audience?				
<b>Opening</b> Approach Hook? Clarity Clear intent				
<b>Structure</b> Logical Support Examples Bridging				
<b>Closing</b> Concise Summary Memorable?				
<b>Technique</b> Enthusiasm Humor Visual Aids Staging				
<b>Physical</b> Posture Gestures Hands Eyes				
<b>Voice</b> Volume Pace Pitch Pauses				
<b>Words</b> Articulation Grammar Rhetorical Devices				

2) For Making a plan/scheme use a Table.

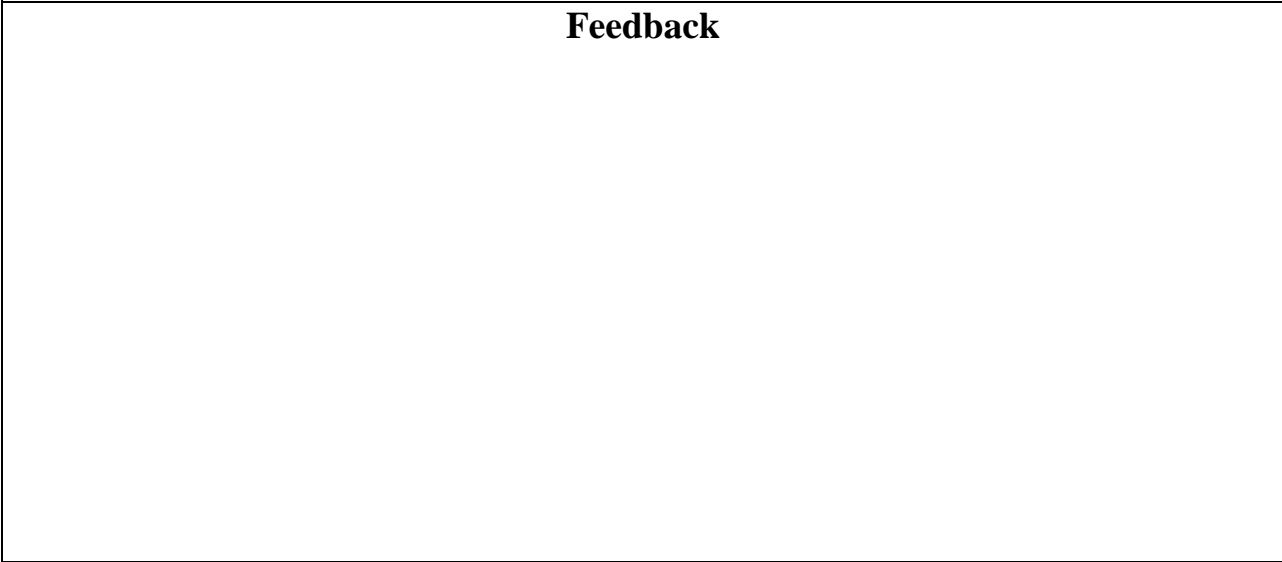
<b>Negotiation</b>
--------------------



**Communicating in Person**



**Feedback**



**Meetings**



**Presentations**

**Communicating in Writing**

- 9. Discussions of the quality of presentations. Analyzing the changes. Outlines/Scheme/Pictures discussion. Conclusions.**

## Раздел 5. Stress Management

### Homework:

#### 1. Reading:

1) “Job stress”

[http://www.zeepeedia.com/read.php?job\\_stress\\_distress\\_and\\_eustress\\_burnout\\_general\\_adaptation\\_syndrome\\_organizational\\_psychology&b=93&c=31](http://www.zeepeedia.com/read.php?job_stress_distress_and_eustress_burnout_general_adaptation_syndrome_organizational_psychology&b=93&c=31)

2) “Stress Management and Time Management“

<http://managementhelp.org/personalproductivity/time-stress-management.htm>

### In class

2. Brainstorming “Is stress good or bad for work?”
3. Make a “home” group of 3-4 students and chose a number for every person.
4. Make “Expert” groups #1- #4 and read offered texts according to the group’s number. Discuss the article in ‘expert’ group and make up 3 questions to make sure that the students understood the text.
5. All experts come back to home groups and explain the material they have read, using schemes, asking the questions they have prepared.
6. Make up names of categories that can be defined in today’s topic
7. Preparing 3-types of questions according to Bloom’s taxonomy:



Remember - questions (for remembering information)

Understand - questions (for understanding connections)

Apply - questions (for understanding how it can be apply in practice)

**8. Full fill the table:**

Remember - questions				
Understand - questions				
Apply – questions				

**9. Groups ask each other questions following the algorithm:**

- One group names the category of information and type of question they would like to answer.
- The group that made up this question asks it, listens to the answer and expresses their opinion about the answer.
- Other groups may add to the answer.
- When a question has been asked and answered, it should be crossed out on the blackboard.
- Then the group who asked the question is allowed to choose the category of information and type of question they would like to answer.
- The cycle repeats until all the questions have been answered.

## Раздел 6. Decision-Making Techniques

**Home task: Prepare** 5-min talk about any 2 topics from the following list, using the material provided by the teacher:

1. The Vroom-Yetton-Jago Decision Model;
2. Stakeholder Analysis;
3. Stepladder Technique;
4. Groupthink / Avoid groupthink;
5. 5 Whys technique;
6. Brainstorming;
7. Reverse Brainstorming;
8. Charette Procedure;
9. Crawford Slip Writing Technique;
10. Reframing Matrix;
11. Appreciative Inquiry;
12. Six Thinking Hats;
13. Impact Analysis;
14. Starbursting;;
15. Cost-Benefit Analysis;
16. Plus, Minus, Interesting;
17. Decision Matrix Analysis;
18. Paired Comparison Analysis;
19. Decision Trees;
20. Ladder of Inference.





















### **Class tasks:**

1. **Group work:**
2. **Look at the pictures on the next page. Read 4 parts of one of the decision making schemes<sup>5</sup> and choose a name for every picture using the expressions below:**

Stay calm; Find out everything you can; Ask friends for advice; Ask for neutral advice; Ask an expert for help; Do your own research; Get as much information as possible; Weigh risk vs. gain, Think about who's affected; List all of your options; Weigh the possible outcomes, Balance reward and risk; Give it time; Consult your intuition; Trick yourself into deciding; Play a game/Play devil's advocate; Think about the future; Don't over-think it; Have a backup plan; Make a choice.

---

<sup>5</sup> <http://www.wikihow.com/Make-Decisions>

Making Quick Decisions					
Evaluating the Decisions					
Getting Information					
Searching Your Feelings					

3. Compare your variation to Wikihow's variation, discuss each part in your group.
4. Each group presents one part of the sheeme commenting on every picture. Express the group's opinion about it.
5. Read the following text making marks:

+	I knew that	-	I did not know this	?	I doubt it, needs a deep explanation
---	-------------	---	---------------------	---	--------------------------------------



## Decision Making Skills<sup>6</sup>

Some decisions are relatively straightforward and simple: Is this report ready to send to my boss now?

Others are quite complex: Which of these candidates should I select for the job?

Simple decisions usually need a simple decision-making process. But difficult decisions typically involve issues like these:

- **Uncertainty** – Many facts may not be known.
- **Complexity** – You have to consider many interrelated factors.
- **High-risk consequences** – The impact of the decision may be significant.
- **Alternatives** – Each has its own set of uncertainties and consequences.
- **Interpersonal issues** – It can be difficult to predict how other people will react.

With these difficulties in mind, the best way to make a complex decision is to use an effective process. Clear processes usually lead to consistent, high-quality results, and they can improve the quality of almost everything we do. In this article, we outline a process that will help improve the quality of your decisions.

### A Systematic Approach to Decision Making

A logical and systematic decision-making process helps you address the critical elements that result in a good decision. By taking an organized approach, you're less likely to miss important factors, and you can build on the approach to make your decisions better and better.

There are six steps to making an effective decision:

1. Create a constructive environment.
2. Generate good alternatives.
3. Explore these alternatives.
4. Choose the best alternative.
5. Check your decision.
6. Communicate your decision, and take action.

Here are the steps in detail:

#### 1. Step 1: Create a constructive environment

To create a constructive environment for successful decision

---

<sup>6</sup> [http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newTED\\_00.htm](http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newTED_00.htm)

making, make sure you do the following:

- **Establish the objective** – Define what you want to achieve.
- **Agree on the process** – Know how the final decision will be made, including whether it will be an individual or a team-based decision. The **Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model** is a great tool for determining the most appropriate way of making the decision.
- **Involve the right people** – **Stakeholder Analysis** is important in making an effective decision, and you'll want to ensure that you've consulted stakeholders appropriately even if you're making an individual decision. Where a group process is appropriate, the decision-making group – typically a team of five to seven people – should have a good representation of stakeholders.
- **Allow opinions to be heard** – Encourage participants to contribute to the discussions, debates, and analysis without any fear of rejection from the group. This is one of the best ways to **avoid groupthink**. The **Stepladder Technique** is a useful method for gradually introducing more and more people to the group discussion, and making sure everyone is heard. Also, recognize that the objective is to make the best decision under the circumstances: it's not a game in which people are competing to have their own preferred alternatives adopted.
- **Make sure you're asking the right question** – Ask yourself whether this is really the true issue. The **5 Whys** technique is a classic tool that helps you identify the real underlying problem that you face.
- **Use creativity tools from the start** – The basis of creativity is thinking from a different perspective. Do this when you first set out the problem, and then continue it while generating alternatives. Our article **Generating New Ideas** will help you create new connections in your mind, break old thought patterns, and consider new perspectives.

## 2. Step 2: Generate Good Alternatives

This step is still critical to making an effective decision. The more good options you consider, the more comprehensive your final decision will be.

When you generate alternatives, you force yourself to dig deeper, and look at the problem from different angles. If you use the mindset 'there must be other solutions out there,' you're more likely to make the best decision possible. If you don't have reasonable alternatives, then there's really not much of a decision

to make!

Here's a summary of some of the key tools and techniques to help you and your team develop good alternatives.

### **Generating Ideas**

- **Brainstorming** is probably the most popular method of generating ideas.
- Another approach, **Reverse Brainstorming**, works similarly. However, it starts by asking people to brainstorm how to achieve the opposite outcome from the one wanted, and then reversing these actions.
- The **Charette Procedure** is a systematic process for gathering and developing ideas from very many stakeholders.
- Use the **Crawford Slip Writing Technique** to generate ideas from a large number of people. This is an extremely effective way to make sure that everyone's ideas are heard and given equal weight, irrespective of the person's position or power within the organization.

### **Considering Different Perspectives**

- The **Reframing Matrix** uses 4 Ps (product, planning, potential, and people) as the basis for gathering different perspectives. You can also ask outsiders to join the discussion, or ask existing participants to adopt different functional perspectives (for example, have a marketing person speak from the viewpoint of a financial manager).
- **Appreciative Inquiry** forces you to look at the problem based on what's 'going right,' rather than what's 'going wrong.'

## **3. Step 3: Explore the Alternatives**

When you're satisfied that you have a good selection of realistic alternatives, then you'll need to evaluate the feasibility, risks, and implications of each choice. Here, we discuss some of the most popular and effective analytical tools.

### **Risk**

In decision making, there's usually some degree of uncertainty, which inevitably leads to risk. By evaluating the risk involved with various options, you can determine whether the risk is manageable.

- **Risk Analysis** helps you look at risks objectively. It uses a structured approach for assessing threats, and for evaluating the probability of events occurring – and what they might cost to manage.

### **Implications**

Another way to look at your options is by considering the

potential consequences of each.

- **Six Thinking Hats** helps you evaluate the consequences of a decision by looking at the alternatives from six different perspectives.
- **Impact Analysis** is a useful technique for brainstorming the 'unexpected' consequences that may arise from a decision.

#### **Validation**

Determine if resources are adequate, if the solution matches your objectives, and if the decision is likely to work in the long term.

- **Starbursting** helps you think about the questions you should ask to evaluate an alternative properly.
- To assess pros and cons of each option, use **Force Field Analysis**, or use the **Plus-Minus-Interesting** approach.
- **Cost-Benefit Analysis** looks at the financial feasibility of an alternative.

### **4. Step 4: Choose the Best Alternative**

After you have evaluated the alternatives, the next step is to choose between them. The choice may be obvious. However, if it isn't, these tools will help:

- **Decision Matrix Analysis**, also known as a decision matrix, is a key tool for this type of evaluation. It's invaluable because it helps you bring disparate factors into your decision-making process in a reliable and rigorous way.
- Use **Paired Comparison Analysis** to determine the relative importance of various factors. This helps you compare unlike factors, and decide which ones should carry the most weight in your decision.
- **Decision Trees** are also useful in choosing between options. These help you lay out the different options open to you, and bring the likelihood of project success or failure into the decision making process.

For group decisions, there are some excellent evaluation methods available.

When decision criteria are subjective and it's critical that you gain consensus, you can use techniques like **Multi-Voting**. These methods help a group agree on priorities, for example, so that they can assign resources and funds.

The **Delphi Technique** uses multiple cycles of anonymous written discussion and argument, managed by a facilitator. Participants in the process do not meet, and sometimes they don't

even know who else is involved. The facilitator controls the process, and manages the flow and organization of information. This is useful where you need to bring the opinions of many different experts into the decision-making process. It's particularly useful where some of these experts don't get on!

## **5. Step 5: Check Your Decision**

With all of the effort and hard work that goes into evaluating alternatives, and deciding the best way forward, it's easy to forget to 'sense check' your decisions. This is where you look at the decision you're about to make dispassionately, to make sure that your process has been thorough, and to ensure that common errors haven't crept into the decision-making process. After all, we can all now see the catastrophic consequences that over-confidence, groupthink, and other decision-making errors have wrought on the world economy.

The first part of this is an intuitive step, which involves quietly and methodically testing the assumptions and the decisions you've made against your own experience, and thoroughly reviewing and exploring any doubts you might have.

A second part involves using a technique like Blindspot Analysis to review whether common decision-making problems like over-confidence, escalating commitment, or **groupthink** may have undermined the decision-making process.

A third part involves using a technique like the **Ladder of Inference** to check through the logical structure of the decision with a view to ensuring that a well-founded and consistent decision emerges at the end of the decision-making process.

## **6. Step 6: Communicate Your Decision, and Move to Action!**

Once you've made your decision, it's important to explain it to those affected by it, and involved in implementing it. Talk about why you chose the alternative you did. The more information you provide about risks and projected benefits, the more likely people are to support the decision.

And with respect to implementation of your decision, our scheme will help you get off to a good start!

**6. 5-min students talks. Listen to the students, make notes and be ready for the discussion.**

**7. Discussion Mind tools' model.**

**8. Make a SWOT analysis.**

<b>Strengths</b>	<b>Weaknesses</b>
<b>Opportunities</b>	<b>Threats</b>

## Раздел 7. Leadership Skills

### Tasks and exercises:

1. Start by analyzing your performance in specific areas of leadership. Complete the quiz at the website

[http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newLDR\\_50.htm](http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newLDR_50.htm) below to identify where you already lead effectively, and to explore where your skills need further development.

2. Write down your score\_\_\_\_\_.
3. Read your score interpretation in the analysis section and comment on your results, whether you agree or not with the recommendations on how you can become an exceptional leader.
4. Prepare a one page essay: “The Personality of a Manager. What is it?” Answering following questions will help you:
  - a. Is manager considered to be a leader?
  - b. Who do you consider to be a good leader? Why?
  - c. Which personal characteristics do successful leaders tend to have?

### In class

5. Make a group of 4-5 students and complete the following tasks:
  - Read a text and discuss it.
  - Make a 5 min talk for the class.
  - Prepare 5 multiple-choice test questions.
6. Listening to group talks. Every group asks at least one question.
7. Class discussion. Conclusions.
8. Test

#### 1) Multiple-choice test.

Topic	1	2	3	4	5

**2) Read the scenarios from the “What’s Your Leadership Style?” at the PRSSA 2012 Leadership Rally<sup>7</sup> and write down your ideas.**

**Scenario 1: Working an Event**

Your team is required to put on the annual communication award ceremony. This is an annual event and your communication department relies on you heavily to ensure that the event is successful. After you’ve delegated tasks, you have one team member who cannot order the invitations, because the designer missed the deadline (now by 4 days) and hasn’t submitted the final design and copy. In addition, you have another team member whose work on the logistical plan is enormously flawed. *As the leader, how are you going to get your team back on track?*

**Scenario 2: Multi-tasking/Getting Things Accomplished**

You and your team are working on your campaign book for the Bateman competition. You have separated your team into four different leadership responsibilities: researcher, budget/logistics, framer and team leader. As you near completion of the final campaign book, your research lead experiences many issues with graphing in Microsoft Excel but is proactive about asking you numerous questions. In addition, your budget plan has not been completed because that person has not responded to emails in 2 weeks. Lastly, your framer is waiting on all these materials to finish the book’s layout.

*How can you get your team to accomplish the book with the final submission date being in just two weeks?*

**Scenario 3: Personality Differences**

Everyone knows that personalities differ, and for followers, it can be hard to separate your feelings, from what must get done. Here’s a situation to test your people management skills, rather than your public relations skills. You are the Chapter president at your school and you have a team of five (a total of six including the president). After selection of your Regional Conference bid, you determine a plan of action and delegate responsibilities among your executive board members that will help your event become successful. As you jump into logistics, your PR Director has issues with the session/speaker coordinator, inhibiting his/her ability to actively promote RC plans. In addition, your Treasurer does not agree with your plan of action for securing sponsorships and raising funds, and aggressively expressed his distaste for your plan during a Chapter meeting. Lastly, your Chapter members are reluctant to assist with plans because although your secretary specifically describes her volunteer needs, she is not able to act as a leader and delegate tasks.

*Describe how you would work with each of these members and how you can assist them to ensure that your Regional Conference is successful.*

---

<sup>7</sup> <http://www.prssa.org/events/past/Rally/2012/WhatsYourLeadershipStyle.pdf>



## Раздел 8. Team Management Skills

### 1. Homework: Read the following text

#### Team and group as the objects of management

##### A) Team size, composition, and formation

A team comprises a group of people linked in a common purpose. Teams are especially appropriate for conducting tasks that are high in complexity and have many interdependent subtasks.

A group in itself does not necessarily constitute a team. Teams normally have members with complementary skills and generate synergy through a coordinated effort which allows each member to maximize his or her strengths and minimize his or her weaknesses. Team members need to learn how to help one another, help other team members realize their true potential, and create an environment that allows everyone to go beyond their limitations<sup>8</sup>.

Theorists in business in the late 20th century popularized the concept of constructing teams. Differing opinions exist on the efficacy of this new management fad. Some see "team" as a four-letter word: overused and under-useful. Others see it as a panacea that finally realizes the human relations movement's desire to integrate what that movement perceives as best for workers and as best for managers. Still others believe in the effectiveness of teams, but also see them as dangerous because of the potential for exploiting workers — in that team effectiveness can rely on peer pressure and peer surveillance.

Team size and composition affect the team processes and outcomes. The optimal size (and composition) of teams is debated and will vary depending on the task at hand. At least one study of problem-solving in groups showed an optimal size of groups at four members. Other works estimate the optimal size between 5-12 members. *Belbin* did extensive research on teams prior to 1990 in the UK. This clearly demonstrated that the optimum team size is 8 roles plus a specialist as needed. Fewer than 5 members results in decreased perspectives and diminished creativity. Membership in excess of 12 results in increased conflict and greater potential of sub-groups forming.

*David Cooperrider* suggests that the larger the group, the better. This is because a larger group is able to address concerns of the whole system. So while a large team may be ineffective at performing a given task, Cooperrider says that the relevance of that task should be considered, because determining whether the team is effective first requires identifying what needs to be accomplished.

Regarding composition, all teams will have an element of homogeneity and heterogeneity. The more homogeneous the group, the more cohesive it will be. The

---

<sup>8</sup> Davis, Barbee. 97 Things Every Project Manager Should Know: Collective Wisdom from the Experts. Beijing: O'Reilly, 2009. Print. "Build teams to Run Marathons, Not Sprints" By Naresh Jain pg 96

more heterogeneous the group, the greater the differences in perspective and increased potential for creativity, but also the greater potential for conflict.

Team members normally have different roles, like team leader and agents. Large teams can divide into sub-teams according to need.

Many teams go through a life-cycle of stages, identified by Bruce Tuckman as: forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning.

## **B) Types of teams**

### **1) Independent and interdependent teams**

Of particular importance is the concept of different types of teams. A distinction is usually drawn between "independent" and "interdependent" teams. For example, a rugby team is clearly an interdependent team:

- successful play requires co-operation between team members
- within that team members typically specialize in different tasks (running the ball, goal kicking & scrum feeding), and
- the success of every individual is inextricably bound to the success of the whole team. No Rugby player, no matter how talented, has ever won a game by playing alone.

On the other hand, a chess team is a classic example of an independent team:

- matches are played and won by individuals or partners,
- every person performs basically the same actions, and
- whether one player wins or loses has no direct effect on the performance of the next player.

If all team members each perform the same basic tasks, such as students working problems in a math class, or outside sales employees making phone calls, then it is likely that this team is an independent team. They may be able to help each other — perhaps by offering advice or practice time, by providing moral support, or by helping in the background during a busy time — but each individual's success is primarily due to each individual's own efforts. Chess players do not win their own matches merely because the rest of their teammates did, and math students do not pass tests merely because their neighbors know how to solve the equations.

Coaching an "interdependent" team like a football team necessarily requires a different approach from coaching an "independent" team because the costs and benefits to individual team members — and therefore the intrinsic incentives for positive team behaviors — are very different. An interdependent team benefits from getting to know the other team members socially, from developing trust in each other, and from conquering artificial challenges (such as offered in outdoors ropes courses).

Independent teams typically view these activities as unimportant, emotion-driven time wasters. They benefit from more intellectual, job-related training. The best way to start improving the functioning of an independent team is often a single question, "What does everyone need to do a better job?"

## **2) Self-managed teams**

Normally, a manager acts as the team leader and is responsible for defining the goals, methods, and functioning of the team. However, inter-dependencies and conflicts between different parts of an organization may not be best addressed by hierarchical models of control. Self-managed teams use clear boundaries to create the freedom and responsibility to accomplish tasks in an efficient manner<sup>9</sup>.

The main idea of the self-managed team is that the leader does not operate with positional authority. In a traditional management role, the manager is responsible for providing instruction, conducting communication, developing plans, giving orders, and disciplining and rewarding employees, and making decisions by virtue of his or her position. In this organizational model, the manager delegates specific responsibility and decision-making authority to the team itself, in the hope that the group will make better decisions than any individual. Neither a manager nor the team leader make independent decisions in the delegated responsibility area. Decisions are typically made by consensus in successful self-managed teams, by voting in very large or formal teams, and by hectoring and bullying in unsuccessful teams. The team as a whole is accountable for the outcome of its decisions and actions.

Self-managed teams operate in many organizations to manage complex projects involving research, design, process improvement, and even systemic issue resolution, particularly for cross-department projects involving people of similar seniority levels. While the internal leadership style in a self-managed team is distinct from traditional leadership and operates to neutralize the issues often associated with traditional leadership models, a self-managed team still needs support from senior management to operate well.

Self-managed teams may be interdependent or independent. Of course, merely calling a group of people a self-managed team does not make them either a team or self-managed.

As a self-managed team develops successfully, more and more areas of responsibility can be delegated, and the team members can come to rely on each other in a meaningful way<sup>10</sup>.

## **3) Project teams**

A team used only for a defined period of time and for a separate, concretely definable purpose, often becomes known as a project team. Managers commonly label groups of people as a "team" based on having a common function. Members of these teams might belong to different groups, but receive assignment to activities for the same project, thereby allowing outsiders to view them as a single unit. In this way, setting up a team allegedly facilitates the creation, tracking and assignment of a group of people based on the project in hand. The use of the "team" label in this instance often has no relationship to whether the employees are working as a team.

---

<sup>9</sup> Ken Blanchard. pg 7. "Go Team! Take your team to the Next Level." Beret-Koestler publishing Inc. San-Francisco, CA. 2005

<sup>10</sup> Davis, Barbee. 97 Things Every Project Manager Should Know: Collective Wisdom from the Experts. Beijing: O'Reilly, 2009. Print. "Build teams to Run Marathons, Not Sprints" By Naresh Jain pg 96

#### **4) Sports teams**

A sports team is a group of people which play a sport together. Members include all players (even those who are waiting their turn to play) as well as support members such as a team manager or coach.

#### **5) Virtual teams**

Developments in communications technologies have seen the emergence of the virtual work team. A virtual team is a group of people who work interdependently and with shared purpose across space, time, and organization boundaries using technology to communicate and collaborate. Virtual team members can be located across a country or across the world, rarely meet face-to-face, and include members from different cultures<sup>11</sup>. Many virtual teams are cross-functional and emphasis solving customer problems or generating new work processes. The United States Labor Department reported that in 2001, 19 million people worked from home online or from another location, and that by the end of 2002, over 100 million people worldwide would be working outside traditional offices (Pearson & Sounders, 2001).

#### **6) Interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary teams**

Teams, such as in medical fields, may be interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary<sup>12</sup>. Multidisciplinary teams involve several professionals who independently treat various issues a patient may have, focusing on the issues in which they specialize. The problems that are being treated may or may not relate to other issues being addressed by individual team members. Interdisciplinary team approach involves all members of the team working together towards the same goal. In an interdisciplinary team approach, there can often be role blending by members of the core team, who may take on tasks usually filled by other team members<sup>13</sup>.

#### **7) Not all groups are teams**

Some people also use the word "team" when they mean "employees." A "sales team" is a common example of this loose or perhaps euphemistic usage, though interdependencies exist in organizations, and a sales team can be let down by poor performance on other parts of the organization upon which sales depend, like delivery, after-sales service, etc.. However "sales staff" is a more precise description of the typical arrangement.

---

<sup>11</sup> Kimble et al. (2000) Effective Virtual Teams through Communities of Practice (Department of Management Science Research Paper Series, 00/9), University of Strathclyde, Strathclyde, UK, 2000.

<sup>12</sup> Ferrell, Betty; Nessa Coyle (2006). Textbook of Palliative Nursing (2 ed.). Oxford University Press US. p. 35. ISBN 0195175492.

<sup>13</sup> The same

## **8) From Groups to Teams**

Groups develop into teams in four stages. The four stages are: dependency and inclusion, counter dependency and fighting, trust and structure, and work. In the first stage, group development is characterized by members' dependency on the designated leader. In the second stage, the group seeks to free itself from its dependence on the leader and groups have conflicts about goals and procedures. In the third stage, the group manages to work through the conflicts. And in the last stage, groups focus on team productivity<sup>14</sup>.

### **C) Group development**

The goal of most research on group development is to learn why and how small groups change over time. To do this, researchers examine patterns of change and continuity in groups over time. Aspects of a group that might be studied include the quality of the output produced by a group, the type and frequency of its activities, its cohesiveness, the existence of conflict, etc.

A number of theoretical models have been developed to explain how certain groups change over time. Listed below are some of the most common models. In some cases, the type of group being considered influenced the model of group development proposed as in the case of therapy groups. In general, some of these models view group change as regular movement through a series of "stages," while others view them as "phases" that groups may or may not go through and which might occur at different points of a group's history. Attention to group development over time has been one of the differentiating factors between the study of ad hoc groups and the study of teams such as those commonly used in the workplace, the military, sports and many other contexts.

### **1) Theories and Models**

In the early seventies, Hill and Grunner (1973) reported that more than 100 theories of group development existed. Since then, other theories have emerged as well as attempts at contrasting and synthesizing them. As a result, a number of typologies of group change theories have been proposed. A typology advanced by George Smith (2001) based on the work of Mennecke and his colleagues (1992) classifies theories based on whether they perceive change to occur in a linear fashion, through cycles of activities, or through processes that combine both paths of change, or which are completely non-phasic. Other typologies are based on whether the primary forces promoting change and stability in a group are internal or external to the group. A third framework advanced by Andrew Van de Ven and Marshall Scott Poole (1995), differentiates theories based on four distinct "motors" for generating change. According to this framework, the following four types of group development models exist:

---

<sup>14</sup> Wheelan, S. (2010). *Creating Effective Teams: a Guide for Members and Leaders*. Los Angeles: SAGE. Print.

**Life cycle models**: Describe the process of change as the unfolding of a prescribed and linear sequence of stages following a program that is prefigured at the beginning of the cycle (decided within the group or imposed on it).

**Teleological models**: Describe change as a purposeful movement toward one or more goals, with adjustments based on feedback from the environment.

**Dialectical models**: Describe change as emerging from conflict between opposing entities and eventual synthesis leading to the next cycle of conflict

**Evolutionary models**: Describe change as emerging from a repeated cycle of variation, selection and retention and generally apply to change in a population rather than change within an entity over time.

Below are descriptions of the central elements of some of the most common models of group development.

## **2) Kurt Lewin's Individual Change Process**

The first systematic study of group development was carried out by Kurt Lewin, who introduced the term "group dynamics" (Arrow et al., 2005). His ideas about mutual, cross-level influence and quasi-stationary equilibria, although uncommon in the traditional empirical research on group development, have resurged recently. His early model of individual change, which has served as the basis of many models of group development, described change as a three-stage process: unfreezing, change, and freezing<sup>15</sup>.

**Unfreezing**: This phase involves overcoming inertia and dismantling the existing "mind set". Defense mechanisms have to be bypassed.

**Change**: In the second stage change occurs. This is typically a period of confusion and transition. One is aware that the old ways are being challenged but does not have a clear picture to replace them with yet.

**Freezing**: In the third stage the new mindset is crystallizing and one's comfort level is returning to previous levels. This is often misquoted as "refreezing" (Lewin, 1947).

## **3) Tuckman's Stages model**

Bruce Tuckman reviewed about fifty studies of group development (including Bales' model) in the mid-sixties and synthesized their commonalities in one of the most frequently cited models of group development (Tuckman, 1965). The model describes four linear stages (forming, storming, norming, and performing) that a group will go through in its unitary sequence of decision making. A fifth stage (adjourning) was added in 1977 when a new set of studies were reviewed (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977).

---

<sup>15</sup> Lewin, K. (1947). Frontiers in group dynamics: Concept, method and reality in social science; social equilibria and social change. *Human Relations*, 1 (1), 5-41.

Forming: Group members learn about each other and the task at hand. Indicators of this stage might include: Unclear objectives, Uninvolvement, Uncommitted members, Confusion, Low morale, Hidden feelings, Poor listening, etc.

Storming: As group members continue to work, they will engage each other in arguments about the structure of the group which often are significantly emotional and illustrate a struggle for status in the group. These activities mark the storming phase: Lack of cohesion, Subjectivity, Hidden agendas, Conflicts, Confrontation, Volatility, Resentment, anger, Inconsistency, Failure.

Norming: Group members establish implicit or explicit rules about how they will achieve their goal. They address the types of communication that will or will not help with the task. Indicators include: Questioning performance, Reviewing/clarify objective, Changing/confirming roles, Opening risky issues, Assertiveness, Listening, Testing new ground, Identifying strengths and weaknesses.

Performing: Groups reach a conclusion and implement the solution to their issue. Indicators include: Creativity, Initiative, Flexibility, Open relationships, Pride, Concern for people, Learning, Confidence, High morale, Success, etc.

Adjourning: As the group project ends, the group disbands in the adjournment phase. This phase was added when Tuckman and Jensen's updated their original review of the literature in 1977.

Each of the five stages in the Forming-storming-norming-performing-adjourning model proposed by Tuckman involves two aspects: interpersonal relationships and task behaviors. Such a distinction is similar to Bales' (1950) equilibrium model which states that a group continuously divides its attention between instrumental (task-related) needs and expressive (socioemotional).

As Gersick (1988) has pointed out, some later models followed similar sequential patterns. Examples include: define the situation, develop new skills, develop appropriate roles, carry out the work (Hare, 1976); orientation, dissatisfaction, resolution, production, termination (LaCoursiere, 1980); and generate plans, ideas, and goals; choose&agree on alternatives, goals, and policies; resolve conflicts and develop norms; perform action tasks and maintain cohesion (McGrath, 1984).

#### **4) Tubbs' Systems model**

Stewart Tubbs "systems" approach to studying small group interaction led him to the creation of a four-phase model of group development:

Orientation: In this stage, group members get to know each other, they start to talk about the problem, and they examine the limitations and opportunities of the project.

Conflict: Conflict is a necessary part of a group's development. Conflict allows the group to evaluate ideas and it helps the group avoid conformity and groupthink

Consensus: Conflict ends in the consensus stage, when group members compromise, select ideas, and agree on alternatives.

Closure: In this stage, the final result is announced and group members reaffirm their support of the decision.

## 5) Fisher's theory of decision emergence in groups

Fisher outlines four phases through which task groups tend to proceed when engaged in decision making. By observing the distribution of act-response pairs (a.k.a. "interacts") across different moments of the group process, Fisher noted how the interaction changed as the group decision was formulated and solidified. His method pays special attention to the "content" dimension of interactions by classifying statements in terms of how they respond to a decision proposal (e.g. agreement, disagreement, etc.).

*Orientation*: During the orientation phase, group members get to know each other and they experience a primary tension: the awkward feeling people have before communication rules and expectations are established. Groups should take time to learn about each other and feel comfortable communicating around new people.

*Conflict*: The conflict phase is marked by secondary tension, or tension surrounding the task at hand. Group members will disagree with each other and debate ideas. Here conflict is viewed as positive, because it helps the group achieve positive results.

*Emergence*: In the emergence phase, the outcome of the group's task and its social structure become apparent. Group members soften their positions and undergo an attitudinal change that makes them less tenacious in defending their individual viewpoint.

*Reinforcement*: In this stage, group members bolster their final decision by using supportive verbal and nonverbal communication.

Based on this categorization, Fisher created his "Decision Proposal Coding System" that identifies act-response pairs associated with each decision-making phase. Interestingly, Fisher observed that the group decision making process tended to be more cyclical and, in some cases, almost erratic. He hypothesized that the interpersonal demands of discussion require "breaks" from task work. In particular, Fisher observed that there are a number of contingencies that might explain some of the decision paths taken by some groups. For instance, in modifying proposals, groups tend to follow one of two patterns. If conflict is low, the group will reintroduce proposals in less abstract, more specific language. When conflict is higher, the group might not attempt to make a proposal more specific but, instead, because disagreement lies on the basic idea, the group introduces substitute proposals of the same level of abstraction as the original.

## D) Group dynamics

Group dynamics is the study of groups, and also a general term for group processes. Relevant to the fields of psychology, sociology, and communication studies, a group is two or more individuals who are connected to each other by social relationships<sup>16</sup>. Because they interact and influence each other, groups develop a number of dynamic processes that separate them from a random collection of

---

<sup>16</sup> Forsyth, D.R. (2006) Group Dynamics



individuals. These processes include norms, roles, relations, development, need to belong, social influence, and effects on behavior. The field of group dynamics is primarily concerned with small group behavior. Groups may be classified as aggregate, primary, secondary and category groups.

In organizational development (OD), or group dynamics, the phrase "group process" refers to the understanding of the behavior of people in groups, such as task groups, that are trying to solve a problem or make a decision. An individual with expertise in 'group process, such as a trained facilitator, can assist a group in accomplishing its objective by diagnosing how well the group is functioning as a problem-solving or decision-making entity and intervening to alter the group's operating behaviour.

Because people gather in groups for reasons other than task accomplishment, group process occurs in other types of groups such as personal growth groups (e.g. encounter groups, study groups, prayer groups). In such cases, an individual with expertise in group process can be helpful in the role of facilitator.

Well researched but rarely mentioned by professional group workers, is the social status of people within the group (i.e., senior or junior). The group leader (or facilitator) will usually have a strong influence on the group due to his or her role of shaping the group's outcomes. This influence will also be affected by the leader's sex, race, relative age, income, appearance, and personality, as well as organizational structures and many other factors.

### **1) Dimensions of group process**

Aspects of group process include:

- Patterns of communication and coordination
- Patterns of influence
- Roles / relationship
- Patterns of dominance (e.g. who leads, who defers)
- Balance of task focus vs social focus
- Level of group effectiveness
- How conflict is handled
- Emotional state of the group as a whole, what Wilfred Bion called basic assumptions<sup>17</sup>.

Groups of individuals gathered together to achieve a goal or objective, either as a committee or some other grouping, go through several predictable stages before useful work can be done. These stages are a function of a number of variables, not the least of which is the self-identification of the role each member will tend to play, and the emergence of natural leaders and individuals who will serve as sources of information. Any individual in a leadership position whose responsibilities involve getting groups of individuals to work together should both be conversant with the

---

<sup>17</sup> Irvin D. Yalom, *The Theory and Practice of Group Psychotherapy*, third edition, Basic Books (1985), hardback, page 194 to 196, ISBN 0-465-08447-8

phases of the group process and possess the skills necessary to capitalize on these stages to accomplish the objective of forming a productive, cohesive team.

Various theories of group development exist. The model below combines elements of theories by Jones (1973), Tuckman (1965), and Banet (1976). In this model, each phase of group development is looked at with respect to group members' concerns with task and personal relations (process) functions<sup>18</sup>.

<b>Phase</b>	<b>Task Functions</b>	<b>Personal Relations Functions</b>
1	Orientation	Testing and Dependence
2	Organizing to Get Work Done	Intragroup Conflict
3	Information-flow	Group Cohesion
4	Problem-solving	Interdependence

Group dynamics is a critical factor in group performance. Understanding how the group works and if and how it is developing will help the team leader to lead the team better. In organizational development context, the need for managing or improving the group dynamics will lead to an intervention based consulting project, where tools such as team building or Sociomapping are used.

### **E) Group communication**

The first important research study of small group communication was performed by social psychologist Robert Bales and published in a series of books and articles in the early and mid 1950s<sup>19</sup>. This research entailed the content analysis of discussions within groups making decisions about "human relations" problems (i.e., vignettes about relationship difficulties within families or organizations). Bales made a series of important discoveries.

1. Group discussion tends to shift back and forth relatively quickly between the discussion of the group task and discussion relevant to the relationship among the members. He believed that this shifting was the product of an implicit attempt to balance the demands of task completion and group cohesion, under the presumption that conflict generated during task discussion causes stress among members, which must be released through positive relational talk.
2. Task group discussion shifts from an emphasis on opinion exchange, through an attentiveness to values underlying the decision, to making the decision. This implication that group discussion goes through the same series of stages in the same order for any decision-making group is known as the linear phase model.
3. The most talkative member of a group tends to make between 40 and 50 percent of the comments and the second most talkative member between 25

<sup>18</sup> The CEDA Meta-Profession Project. Group Process. Retrieved on: September 27, 2008.

<sup>19</sup> Bales, R. F. (1950). Interaction process analysis. Page 33. Cambridge, MA: Addison-Wesley.

and 30, no matter the size of the group. As a consequence, large groups tend to be dominated by one or two members to the detriment of the others.

### **1) Linear phase model**

The most influential of these discoveries has been the latter; the linear phase model. The idea that all groups performing a given type of task go through the same series of stages in the same order was replicated through the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s; with most finding four phases of discussion.

For example, communication researcher B. Aubrey Fisher showed groups going sequentially through an orientation stage, a conflict stage, a stage in which a decision emerges and a stage in which that decision is reinforced<sup>20</sup>. Much of this research (although not necessarily Fisher's) had two fundamental flaws.

First, all group data was combined before analysis, making it impossible to determine whether there were differences among groups in their sequence of discussion.

Second, group discussion content was compared across the same number of stages as the researcher hypothesized, such that if the researcher believed there were four stages to discussion, there was no way to find out if there actually were five or more.

In the 1980s, communication researcher Marshall Scott Poole examined a sample of groups without making these errors and noted substantial differences among them in the number and order of stages<sup>21</sup>. He hypothesized that groups finding themselves in some difficulty due to task complexity, an unclear leadership structure or poor cohesion act as if they feel the need to conduct a "complete" discussion and thus are more likely to pass through all stages as the linear phase model implies, whereas groups feeling confident due to task simplicity, a clear leadership structure and cohesion are more likely to skip stages apparently deemed unnecessary.

### **2) Social influence in groups**

Work relevant to social influence in groups has a long history. Two early examples of social psychological research have been particularly influential. The first of these was by Muzafer Sherif in 1935 using the autokinetic effect. Sherif asked participants to voice their judgments of light movement in the presence of others and noted that these judgments tended to converge<sup>22</sup>. The second of these was a series of studies by Solomon Asch, in which naive participants were asked to voice their judgments of the similarity of the length of lines after hearing the "judgments" of several confederates (research assistants posing as participants) who purposely voiced the same obviously wrong judgment. On about 1/3 of the cases, participants voiced the obviously wrong judgment. When asked why, many of these participants reported

---

<sup>20</sup> Bales, R. F., and Strodtbeck, F. L. (1951). Phases in group problem-solving. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 46, 485-495.

<sup>21</sup> Poole, M. S., & Roth, J. (1989). Decision development in small groups IV: A typology of group decision paths. *Human Communication Research*, 15, 323-356.

<sup>22</sup> Sherif, M. (1935). A study of some social factors in perception. *Archives of Psychology*, 27(187).

that they had originally made the correct judgment but after hearing the confederates, decided the judgments of several others (the confederates) should be trusted over theirs<sup>23</sup>.

As a consequence of these and other studies, social psychologists have come to distinguish between two types of social influence; informational and normative. Informational influence occurs when group members are persuaded by the content of what they read or hear to accept an opinion; Sherif's study appears to be an example. Normative influence occurs when group members are persuaded by the knowledge that a majority of group members have a view. Normative influence should not be confused with compliance, which occurs when group members are not persuaded but voice the opinions of the group majority. Although some of the participants in the Asch studies who conformed admitted that they had complied, the ones mentioned above who believed the majority to be correct are best considered to have been persuaded through normative influence.

### 3) Group decisions

By the end of the 1950s, studies such as Sherif's led to the reasonable conclusion that social influence in groups leads group members to converge on the average judgment of the individual members. As a consequence, it was a surprise to many social psychologists when in the early 1960s, evidence appeared that group decisions often became more extreme than the average of the individual predisposed judgment<sup>24</sup>.

This was originally thought to be a tendency for groups to be riskier than their members would be alone (the risky shift), but later found to be a tendency for extremity in any direction based on which way the members individually tended to lean before discussion (group polarization). Research has clearly demonstrated that group polarization is primarily a product of persuasion not compliance. Two theoretical explanations for group polarization have come to predominate. One is based on social comparison theory, claiming that members look to one another for the "socially correct" side of the issue and if they find themselves deviant in this regard, shift their opinion toward the extreme of the socially correct position<sup>25</sup>. This would be an example of normative influence.

The other 'persuasive arguments theory' (PAT), begins with the notion that each group member enters discussion aware of a set of items of information favoring both sides of the issue but lean toward that side that boasts the greater amount of information. Some of these items are shared among the members (all are aware of them), others are unshared (only one member is aware of each). Assuming most or all group members lean in the same direction, during discussion, items of unshared

---

<sup>23</sup> Asch, S. E. (1956). Studies of independence and conformity: 1. A minority of one against a unanimous majority. *Psychological Monographs*, 70(9), Whole #416.

<sup>24</sup> Wallach, M. A., Kogan, N., & Bem, D. J. (1962). Group influence on individual risk taking. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 65, 75-86.

<sup>25</sup> Baron, R. S., Dion, K. L., Baron, P. H., & Miller, N. (1971). Group consensus and cultural values as determinants of risk taking. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 20, 446-455.

information supporting that direction are voiced, giving members previously unaware of them more reason to lean in that direction<sup>26</sup>.

PAT is an example of informational influence. Although PAT has strong empirical support, it would imply that unshared items of information on the opposite side of the favored position would also come up in discussion, canceling the tendency to polarize. Research has shown that when group members all lean in one direction, discussion content is biased toward the side favored by the group, inconsistent with PAT. This finding is consistent with social comparison notions; upon discovering where the group stands, members only voice items of information on the socially correct side. It follows that an explanation for group polarization must include information influence and normative influence.

The possibility exists that the majority of information known to all group members combined, supports one side of an issue but that the majority of information known to each member individually, supports the other side of the issue. For example, imagine that each member of a 4-person group was aware of 3 items of information supporting job candidate A that were only known to that member and 6 items of information supporting job candidate B that were known to all members. There would be 12 items of information supporting candidate A and 6 supporting candidate B but each member would be aware of more information supporting B. Persuasive arguments theory implies that the items of information favoring A should also come up, leading to each member changing their mind but research has indicated that this does not occur. Rather, as predicted by the merging of PAT and social comparison theory, each member would come into discussion favoring B, that discussion would be heavily biased toward B and that the group would choose B for the job. This circumstance, first studied by Stasser and Titus, is known as a "hidden profile" and is more likely to occur as group size increases and as the proportion of shared versus unshared items of information increases<sup>27</sup>.

**2. Choose 4 ideas you liked and fill out the table:**

	Citation	Comments
1		
2		

<sup>26</sup> Vinokur, A., & Burnstein, E. (1974). Effects of partially shared persuasive arguments on group induced shifts: A group problem-solving approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 29, 305-315.

<sup>27</sup> Stasser, G., & Titus, W. (1985). Pooling of unshared information in group decision making: Biased information sampling during discussion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 53, 81-93.

3		
4		

3. Prepare your resume. Use Internet resources (<http://how-to-write-a-resume.org/>, for example)

**In Class**

4. Discussion of Homework reading in groups. Be ready to answer the following questions:
  - a. What is the main idea of the text?
  - b. Which thoughts were new for you?
  - c. Did the author find the right arguments to prove his ideas?
  - d. Why did you choose those citations?
5. Brainstorming: “Interview: Hiring people / Searching for a job”.
6. Reading text with marks

+	I knew that	-	I did not know this	?	I doubt it, needs a deep explanation
---	-------------	---	---------------------	---	--------------------------------------

**Sample Job Interview Questions<sup>28</sup>**

- Why do you want to work for this company? Why are you interested in this job?

The interviewer is trying to determine what you know and like about the company, whether you will be willing to make a commitment to the job, and if your skills match the job requirements. Your research will be a big help in formulating your answer to this question. Say as many positive things about the company as possible,

---

<sup>28</sup> [http://www.ceswoodstock.org/job\\_search/intervuquest.shtml](http://www.ceswoodstock.org/job_search/intervuquest.shtml)

show your interest in whatever products/services they sell and explain why the position fits with your career goals.

- **Have you done this kind of work before?**

The interviewer wants to know if you can learn to do the job in a reasonable time and how much training you will need. Never say "no" to this question. Instead, stress the experience you do have that will assist you in learning the new job quickly and efficiently. No two jobs are alike and you never do exactly the same work. In all jobs, new skills, rules and details have to be learned. Be sure to mention the following:

- Your past work experience.
- Your education and training related to the job.
- Volunteer work that might relate to the job.
- Any transferable skills - e.g. organizational skills, people skills.
- Your ability to learn quickly and how quickly you learned that type of work in the past.

- **What kind of training or qualifications do you have?**

The interviewer is trying to find out what school credentials you have. If you have no formal school qualifications but have a lot of experience, you might say:

- I didn't get formal school training for this job but I have (number) of years of experience in the field. I'm willing to learn new skills or go to school to get further training if I am offered the job. I learn quickly and I like to keep upgrading my skills.

If you have just completed a training course but have little work experience, you might say:

- I took a one year training program in (name of program) at (name of school) which is related to the job I'm applying for. I look forward to working in the field and putting into practice what I learned. I don't have a lot of work experience in this area but I learn quickly. I know you will be happy with my work.

- **Tell me about yourself. Why should we hire you?**

The interviewer is trying to find out about you, your job skills and how well you express yourself. Do not dwell on personal issues. State your best qualifications for the job. Be specific and include examples to support your statements. Try to show that you meet the employer's expectations. For example:

- I am punctual, dependable and can be counted upon to finish what I start. I get a great deal of satisfaction from knowing that I have done something well and

on time. For example, at my present job, I was given different work orders every day. It was my responsibility to finish the orders and make sure they all met quality and safety standards within a specific deadline. On occasion, I had to familiarize myself with the product and the production process. I was always able to learn quickly and carry out my job responsibilities. Our company was known for making excellent processed food products. In 1990, it received an award for being one of Canada's top companies in the field. I feel I can use the same skills and hard work to do well on this job too.

- **What do you do in your spare time?**

Interviewers ask this question to see if your activities and hobbies might help the company and to get an idea of what kind of person you are outside your work life. Describe any volunteer work you do and any hobbies or interests that might relate to the job in some way. Stick to active hobbies, such as playing sports, carpentry, gardening, etc. Avoid mentioning inactive and non-creative activities such as watching television.

- **What do you think of working in a group?**

The interviewer is trying to find out about your ability to get along with others. Focus on the following:

- The advantages of working in a group. Explain how the various individuals in a group complement one another in carrying out certain tasks.
- Give specific examples of your personal experience in a group

- **How do you react to instruction and criticism?**

The interviewer is trying to find out how you get along with Supervisors and how you feel about authority. You might say:

- I appreciate getting instruction and criticism when it is done fairly and constructively.

- **With the kind of work experience you have had, do you think this job would bore you?**

The interviewer may think you are over-qualified and want this job only until something better comes along. Stress that no job is ever boring because you always learn new skills. Mention how you would benefit by working for the company and vice versa.

- **Why did you choose this line of work?**



The interviewer is trying to find out about your commitment to your career choice. In other words do you do it because you love the work or just take any job you can get for the money. If you did this work for many years and stopped due to a layoff, you might say:

- I have done this for (number) of years. I like my work. The only reason I left my last workplace was because I was laid off.

- **How well do you work under pressure or tight deadlines?**

This question indicates that the job you're applying for will involve working under pressure. Give examples of volunteer and paid work that involved pressure and deadlines. You could mention that we are always faced with pressure and deadlines in our lives and you do not mind the stress. Stressful situations are a learning and challenging experience. You might mention the following:

- How you handled large rush orders at your last workplace.
- How you prepared for exams and homework assignments while working full-time and attending school part-time.
- How you managed a crisis situation. (For example: a car accident)

- **How often were you absent from work in your last job? Have you every had any serious illness or injuries? Do you have any health problems?**

The interviewer is trying to find out if you have any health issues which will cause you to take a lot of sick days. You do not have to go into your health history for the interviewer. If you have health problems that do not interfere with your work performance, do not give the interviewer details about them. If you had a previous health problem that interfered with your work in the past, but is no longer a problem, do not volunteer this information. It no longer affects your work, therefore the employer does not have to know.

If you have a health problem that will affect your work performance, explain your situation briefly and stress the positive points. I will be helpful to have a positive reference letter from your previous employer. This letter should explain the type of duties you did and stress that you are a steady worker who is responsible, hardworking and punctual.

- **Are you bondable?**

This question indicates that the job involves working with money or valuable merchandise. Very likely the employer's insurance company requires that only bondable people be hired as a condition of their insurance policy. As long as you do not have a criminal record, and you have not previously been denied a bond, you should answer "yes" to this question. Caution: If you answer yes when you are not legally bondable it is very likely that the employer will discover this.

- **Have you ever been fired or quit a job?**

The interviewer is looking for clues to any problems you have had in previous jobs and if you may have the same problems in a new job. Try to:

- Avoid saying anything negative about yourself or your previous employer. If you had problems, explain them without being negative.
- Be careful not to use the word "fired" or "quit". Instead use words such as: "I changed jobs", "I was laid off", or "I needed a more challenging job".
- If you were fired and are not on good terms with your previous employer, explain the reason why you were fired. Stress that you learned something from the previous situation.

- **Why haven't you worked recently?**

The interviewer is looking for clues to serious problems or job difficulties that could carry over to a new job. You might say:

- Since I was laid off from my previous employer, I have been actively looking for a job. However, as you know, there are many people looking for work and applying for the same jobs. I have always worked steadily but I haven't been able to find a job in the present job market.
- After I got laid off from my previous employer, I decided to go back to school to upgrade my skills so I can get a better, more secure job.

- **What are your long-term goals or career plans?**

The interviewer may want to know if you are ambitious, plan ahead, or if you set goals for yourself. The interviewer may also want to know what expectation you have of the company. You might say:

- I hope to become very good at my job and perhaps take some schooling to become more skilled in my field of work.
- I intend to learn (name of area or skills) very well so that I can be promoted to a higher position in (name skill or department).

- **What do you feel are your greatest strengths?**

This is your opportunity to brag a little bit. It is important that you have done your research about the type of work that you are applying for. For example if you are applying as a production labourer and from your research you understand that this type of work required people that have the ability to meet quotas, work as a team and make improvement suggestions, then it is important for you to incorporate this into your strengths.

- Example:

My greatest strength is that I have a lot of initiative. I am always looking for a better way to do things at work that I feel would save the company money and I can always achieve my production quotas. For example one time I was working at my station and I felt that I was wasting time by always having to walk to the other side of my station to get some parts. So I reorganized the station and my supervisor was really impressed as it increased my quota.

- **What do you feel are your weaknesses?**

You never want to give any indication of any weaknesses that you have. Turn your weaknesses into strengths by working it to the employer's advantage.

- Example:

I am the type of person or is very hard on myself. I am always expecting myself to do a little bit more. However, I guess this works out well for my employer.

Or

I never like to leave work until I have every thing finished completely. Sometimes this bothers me but I feel inside that it is important.

Or

I am the type of person who always takes my work home with me. This sometimes interferes with my personal life but I feel that work comes first.

- **How would you describe your last employer?**

Never run down or say anything negative about anybody or anyone. The employer will feel that you will do it to them. You should state the positive things such as he had high expectations and I really respected him for that. He was down to earth and really knew the job I was doing, if I had any problems he was approachable and would always give me suggestion or he gave the responsibility to do a good job.

- Example:

I liked my employer. He/she treated me fairly and respected my work

Or:

I appreciated my previous employer having given me the opportunity to acquire a lot of skills and experiences in (name area of work skill).

- **What five words would be describe you?**

These should be your transferrable skills such as reliable, punctual, organized, friendly, honest, cooperative, outgoing, easy to get along with, hardworking, energetic, take pride in my work, responsible, respected, dedicated.

- **What did you like about your last job?**

Say only positive things that you feel could transfer across to the position your are applying for.

- Example:

I liked my last job because I got along well with my co-workers and the work was challenging, fast paced and I was given a lot of responsibility to do a good job.

- **Why did you leave your last position?**

Keep this answer simple. If you were laid off simply say so, If your company downsized, simply say so. Do not go into a lot of detail. If you were terminated you will have to say you were let go but always follow up that as a result you have learned how to overcome this and feel it will not affect you in the future.

- **What are your long range goals?**

The interviewer is trying to figure out whether or not you are going to be a long term employee or whether or not you will be using this job as a stepping stone to another objective. So, you should try to assure him/her that your intention is to stay with the company and to grow in your career within the company. You should respond "I am looking for a position with a company where I can stay and grow with and I feel this position would give me this opportunity."

- **What kind of machines or equipment have you worked with?**

This is your opportunity to give some detail of what actual work skills you have. Don't be vague, supply all of the information that you have to offer.

- **What type of salary are you looking for?**

Do not get into this subject unless you are forced to. Even then you want to leave an impression that you are flexible in this area.

- **What do you know about our company?**

This is your opportunity to show them that you have taken the time to research their company in particular.

- **Do you have any other skills or experiences that we have not discussed?**

List any other skills that you have that are related to the position. You can also discuss any hobbies or volunteer experience you have and discuss any interest courses or educational upgrading you have.

**7. Divide into pairs. Interview your partner.**

**8. Class Discussion. Conclusions.**

## Раздел 9. References

1. A Glossary of Political Economy Terms. Paul M. Johnson, Department of Political Science, 7080 Haley Center, Auburn University: <http://www.auburn.edu/~johnspm/gloss/rational-comprehensive>
2. Administration industrielle et générale - prévoyance organization - commandment, coordination – contrôle, Paris : Dunod, 1966
3. Amaral, L.A.N. and B. Uzzi. (2007) Complex Systems — A New Paradigm for the Integrative Study of Management, Physical, and Technological Systems. *Management Science*, 53, 7: 1033–1035.
4. Anderson, C. (2007). *The Long Tail*. Random House Business Books, pp. 23, 53.
5. Armstrong, Thomas. *7 Kinds of Smart: Identifying and Developing Your Many Intelligences*, New York: Plume, 1993: [http://www.thomasarmstrong.com/books\\_videos.htm#7 Kinds of Smar](http://www.thomasarmstrong.com/books_videos.htm#7%20Kinds%20of%20Smar)
6. Arthur F. Carmazzi "Lessons from the Monkey King - Leading Change to Create Gorilla Sized Results" — Veritas Publishing, 2007.
7. Asch, S. E. (1956). Studies of independence and conformity: 1. A minority of one against a unanimous majority. *Psychological Monographs*, 70(9), Whole #416.
8. Bales, R. F. (1950). *Interaction process analysis*. Page 33. Cambridge, MA: Addison-Wesley.
9. Bales, R. F., and Strodtbeck, F. L. (1951). Phases in group problem-solving. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 46, 485-495.
10. Baron, R. S., Dion, K. L., Baron, P. H., & Miller, N. (1971). Group consensus and cultural values as determinants of risk taking. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 20, 446-455.
11. Borg, John. *Body Language: 7 Easy Lessons to Master the Silent Language*. Prentice Hall life, 2008
12. Braha, D. and Y. Bar-Yam. (2007) The Statistical Mechanics of Complex Product Development: Empirical and Analytical Results. *Management Science*, 53, 7: 1127–1145.
13. Burman, R. & Evans, A.J. (2008) Target Zero: A Culture of safety, *Defence Aviation Safety Centre Journal* 2008, 22-27. <http://www.mod.uk/NR/rdonlyres/849892B2-D6D2-4DFD-B5BD-9A4F288A9B18/0/DASCJournal2008.pdf>
14. Charles W. L. Hill, and Gareth R. Jones, (2001) *Strategic Management*. Houghton Mifflin.
15. Chemers, M. M. (2002). Meta-cognitive, social, and emotional intelligence of transformational leadership: Efficacy and Effectiveness. In R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, F. J. Pirozzolo (Eds.), *Multiple Intelligences and Leadership*.

16. Cialdini, Robert B. Influence: Science and Practice. 4th ed. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 2000. ISBN: 9780321011473
17. Davis, Barbee. 97 Things Every Project Manager Should Know: Collective Wisdom from the Experts. Beijing: O'Reilly, 2009. Print."Build teams to Run Marathons, Not Sprints" By Naresh Jain pg 96
18. Deal T. E. and Kennedy, A. A. (1982) Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life, Harmondsworth, Penguin Books.
19. Dr. Bart Barthelemy (1997). The Sky Is Not The Limit - Breakthrough Leadership. St. Lucie Press.
20. Engleberg, Isa N. Working in Groups: Communication Principles and Strategies. My Communication Kit Series, 2006.
21. Erik Erikson in Personality Synopsis at ALLPSYCH Online: <http://allpsych.com/personalitysynopsis/erikson.htm>
22. Ferrell, Betty; Nessa Coyle (2006). Textbook of Palliative Nursing (2 ed.). Oxford University Press US. p. 35. ISBN 0195175492.
23. Forsyth, D.R. (2006) Group Dynamics
24. Goldberg, L. R. (1981) Language and individual differences: The search for universals in personality lexicons. In L. Wheeler (Ed.), Review of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol. 2. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage. ·
25. Gomez-Mejia, Luis R.; David B. Balkin and Robert L. Cardy (2008). Management: People, Performance, Change, 3rd edition. New York, New York USA: McGraw-Hill. pp. 20. ISBN 978-0-07-302743-2.
26. Greenberg, Jerald. Managing Behavior in Organizations. 4th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 2004. ISBN: 9780131447462.
27. Groups and Teams: Richard Field, Management and Information Science: [www.bus.ualberta.ca/rfield/Groups%20and%20Teams.htm](http://www.bus.ualberta.ca/rfield/Groups%20and%20Teams.htm)
28. Groups versus Teams: [www.rapidintellect.com/AEQweb/6jan2118j2.htm](http://www.rapidintellect.com/AEQweb/6jan2118j2.htm)
29. Groups, Teams and Effectiveness: [www.csupomona.edu/~wcweber/301/301slide/ch14301/index.htm](http://www.csupomona.edu/~wcweber/301/301slide/ch14301/index.htm)
30. Handy, C.B. (1985) Understanding Organizations, 3rd Edn, Harmondsworth, Penguin Books
31. Heckscher C. (Editor), Donnellon A. (Editor), 1994, The Post-Bureaucratic Organization: New Perspectives on Organizational Change, Sage Publications
32. Hofstede, G. (1980) Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work Related Values, Beverly Hills, CA, Sage Publications
33. <http://www.mindtools.com/>
34. <http://www.oracle.com/oramag/profit/07-feb/p17andrew.html>
35. [http://www.zeepedia.com/toc.php?organizational\\_psychology&b=93](http://www.zeepedia.com/toc.php?organizational_psychology&b=93)

36. Huczynski, Andrzej & Buchanan, David. (1991). *Organizational Behaviour: An Introductory Text (Second Edition)*. Prentice Hall. New York.
37. Irvin D. Yalom, *The Theory and Practice of Group Psychotherapy*, third edition, Basic Books (1985), hardback, page 194 to 196, ISBN 0-465-08447-8
38. Johnson, G. (1988) "Rethinking Incrementalism", *Strategic Management Journal* Vol 9 pp75-91.
39. Ken Blanchard. pg 7. "Go Team! Take your team to the Next Level." Beret-Koestler publishing Inc. San-Francisco, CA. 2005
40. Kimble et al. (2000) *Effective Virtual Teams through Communities of Practice (Department of Management Science Research Paper Series, 00/9)*, University of Strategical, Strategical, UK, 2000.
41. Kogut, B., P. Urso, and G. Walker. (2007) *Emergent Properties of a New Financial Market: American Venture Capital Syndication, 1960–2005*. *Management Science*, 53, 7: 1181-1198.
42. Kotter, John P. & Dan S. Cohen. (2002). *The Heart of Change*. Boston: Harvard Business School Publishing
43. Kouzes, J., and Posner, B. (2007). *The Leadership Challenge*. CA: Jossey Bass.
44. Lewin, K. (1947). *Frontiers in group dynamics: Concept, method and reality in social science; social equilibria and social change*. *Human Relations*, 1 (1), 5-41.
45. Lewin, K.; Lippitt, R.; White, R.K. (1939). "Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created social climates". *Journal of Social Psychology* 10: 271–301.
46. Luthans, Fred. (2005). *Organizational Behaviour (Tenth Edition)*. United States: McGraw Hill Irwin.
47. Matthew McKay, Martha Davis, Patrick Fanning [1983] (1995) *Messages: The Communication Skills Book, Second Edition*, New Harbinger Publications, ISBN 1-57224-592-1, 9781572245921, pp.56-57
48. McCrae, R.R., & Costa, P.T. (1987) *Validation of the five-factor model of personality across instruments and observers*. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52.
49. McGuire, Stephen J.J. (2003). *Entrepreneurial Organizational Culture: Construct Definition and Instrument Development and Validation*, Ph.D. Dissertation, The George Washington University, Washington, DC.
50. Mejia, Gomez. Balkin, David & Cardy, Robert. (2006). *Managing Human Resources (Fourth Edition)*. India: Dorling Kidersley Pvt. Ltd., licensee of Pearson Education in South Asia.
51. Montana, P., and Charnov, B. (2008) *Management (4th ed.)*, Barrons Educational Series, Hauppauge:NY



52. Moorhead, Gregory & Griffin, Ricky. (2001). *Organizational Behaviour* (First Edition). A.I.T.B.S. Publishers & Distributors. Delhi. · Decision making: Retrieved from: <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/unssc/unpan022443.pdf>
53. *Personality Theories: psychology*: <http://brainmeta.com/personality>
54. Poole, M. S., & Roth, J. (1989). Decision development in small groups IV: A typology of group decision paths. *Human Communication Research*, 15, 323-356.
55. Raymond E. Miles, Charles C. Snow, *Causes of Failure in Network Organizations*, *California Management Review*, Summer 1992
56. Robbins, P., Stephen. (1996). *Organizational Behaviour* (Seventh Edition). India: Prentice Hall, Delhi.
57. Robbins, S.F., Judge, T.A. (2007). *Organizational Behaviour*. 12th edition. Pearson Education Inc., p. 551-557.
58. Schein, E.H. (1985-2005) *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, 3rd Ed., Jossey-Bass ISBN 0-7879-7597-4
59. Sherif, M. (1935). A study of some social factors in perception. *Archives of Psychology*, 27(187).
60. Stasser, G., & Titus, W. (1985). Pooling of unshared information in group decision making: Biased information sampling during discussion. *Journal of*
61. *Vocational Business: Training, Developing and Motivating People* by Richard Barrett - Business & Economics - 2003. - Page 51
62. Wallach, M. A., Kogan, N., & Bem, D. J. (1962). Group influence on individual risk taking. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 65, 75-86.
63. Wheel an, S. (2010). *Creating Effective Teams: a Guide for Members and Leaders*. Los Angles: SAGE. Print.

Лилия Владимировна **Ерушкина**

**Психология управления**

*Учебно-методическое пособие*

Государственное образовательное учреждение высшего  
профессионального образования «Нижегородский государственный  
университет им. Н.И. Лобачевского».  
603950, Нижний Новгород, пр. Гагарина, 23.

Подписано в печать . Формат 60x84 1/16.  
Бумага офсетная. Печать офсетная. Гарнитура Таймс.  
Усл. печ. л. **3,0**. Уч.-изд. л.  
Заказ № . Тираж 100 экз.

Отпечатано в типографии Нижегородского госуниверситета  
им. Н.И. Лобачевского  
603600, г. Нижний Новгород, ул. Большая Покровская, 37  
Лицензия ПД № 18-0099 от 14.05.01