NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF LIFE AND
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Department of Production and Investment Management

SOCIAL MANAGEMENT

for applicants of the first (bachelor's) level of higher education
in specialty D3 "Management"
educational and professional program "Management"
full-time and part-time forms of study

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The educational and methodological manual “Social Management” examines the scientific status, subject and functions of social management, the scientific paradigms and concepts of managing the social sphere, the system of social management and the organizational structures of social services. It covers social project design, information support for management decisions, the management of social conflicts and staff stress, the psychological features of business communication, and the organization of advertising campaigns by social sector institutions. Each topic contains a lecture plan, theoretical material, a practical case and self-check questions. The manual is supplemented with self-check tests with an answer key, a glossary and a list of references.

For applicants of the first (bachelor’s) level of higher education in specialty D3 “Management” of the educational and professional program “Management”.

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INTRODUCTION

The social sphere in Ukraine operates today in conditions that no textbook of a decade ago anticipated. The full-scale war, the internal displacement of millions of people, the growing number of persons with disabilities, veterans and their families, the decentralization reform and the transition of communities to providing social services on their own have changed both the content and the scope of the work of social institutions. The head of a territorial centre, a children's service or a civil society organization makes decisions every day about distributing limited resources among people, each of whom needs help immediately. How competently this manager plans, organizes, motivates and controls determines whether a person receives a service on time and whether they keep their dignity in a situation they can no longer cope with alone.

Social management as an academic discipline answers the question of how to manage organizations and processes whose main result is not profit but people's quality of life. It relies on the general theory of management, yet it has its own subject, its own regularities and its own criteria of effectiveness. A social sector manager works with vulnerable groups of the population, interacts with public authorities, donors, volunteers and business, drafts projects and programmes, organizes information work, deals with conflicts and staff stress, conducts business negotiations and quite often prepares social advertising as well. All of this requires a combination of managerial knowledge, psychological training and an understanding of the ethical foundations of assistance.

The educational and methodological manual "Social Management" has been prepared for applicants of the first (bachelor's) level of higher education in the field of knowledge D "Business, Administration and Law", specialty D3 "Management". Its aim is to give future specialists a coherent understanding of social management as a science, a system of management and a type of practical activity, and to develop their ability to apply management technologies in social sector organizations. The manual will also be useful for students of related specialties and for practitioners

who already head social services, civic associations or charitable foundations and wish to systematize their own experience.

The manual covers eight topics. The first topic reveals the scientific status of social management, its object, subject, functions and place among other management sciences. The second topic examines the scientific paradigms and concepts that influenced the formation of the discipline, from the classical school of management to modern approaches of new public management and good governance. The third topic is devoted to the system of social management, its subjects, objects, organizational structures and the regularities that shape managerial influence in the social sphere.

The fourth topic focuses on social project design. Students will become familiar with the logic of the project cycle and will learn to formulate a problem, goals and objectives, build a logical framework matrix, and plan a budget and performance indicators. These skills are needed by anyone who wants to attract grant funding or present an initiative to the community. The fifth topic describes information support for social management, types of social information, methods of collecting and analysing it, management information systems and the requirements for protecting the personal data of service recipients.

The sixth topic deals with the management of social conflicts and stress. It explains the nature of conflict, its types and dynamics, the behavioural styles of the parties, methods of negotiation and mediation, as well as the causes of occupational stress and emotional burnout among social sector specialists and ways of preventing them. The seventh topic reveals the psychological features of business communication, in particular verbal and non-verbal means of communication, active listening techniques, and the rules for conducting business conversations, meetings and negotiations. The eighth topic explains how social sector organizations create and run advertising campaigns, how they define the target audience, formulate the advertising message, choose distribution channels and evaluate results in compliance with ethical requirements and advertising legislation.

The topics are arranged from the general to the specific. Students first master the theoretical foundations and conceptual apparatus of the discipline, then move on to the management system and its tools, and complete the course with technologies applied directly in a manager's everyday work, namely communication, conflict handling and social advertising. This order makes it possible to increase the complexity of the material gradually and to build each time on knowledge already acquired.

Every topic has the same structure. It opens with a lecture plan, followed by theoretical material with tables and figures that illustrate classifications, models and stages of management processes. The theoretical part is followed by a practical case built on a model situation from the activity of a Ukrainian social institution or civil society organization. The case contains several tasks; by completing them, students analyse a problem, propose a management decision and justify it. Each topic ends with twenty self-check questions that help to review the key points before a seminar or final assessment.

Self-check tests are placed at the end of the manual. Ten test items with four answer options, only one of which is correct, have been prepared for each topic, and the answer key is given separately. The glossary contains definitions of the main terms of the discipline arranged in alphabetical order and will be helpful when preparing for classes and writing papers. The list of references brings together legal acts, textbooks, monographs and research articles by Ukrainian and foreign authors cited in the text.

Mastering the material of the manual will help future managers develop a number of professional competencies. These include the ability to analyse social problems and the needs of the population, plan and organize the activities of social institutions, develop social projects and programmes, work with information, establish business communication with partners, colleagues and service recipients, resolve conflicts constructively, take care of the psychological well-being of staff and present the organization's activities to the public. These competencies are needed not only in social services. They are equally valued in local self-government

bodies, in corporate social responsibility departments of businesses and in international humanitarian organizations working in Ukraine.

To work with the manual effectively, we recommend first reading the theoretical material of a topic, paying attention to the highlighted terms and checking them against the glossary, then solving the case, and only after that answering the self-check questions and tests. If an answer proves difficult, return to the relevant section or consult the sources in the list of references. Independent work with the manual complements lectures and seminars and does not replace them, yet it is precisely this work that develops the ability to think in management categories and make responsible decisions in situations where every figure stands for a real person.

Topic 1. Scientific status and subject of social management

Lecture plan

1. The social nature of management
2. The formation and development of social management
3. The content and specifics of social management

1. The social nature of management

Management has accompanied humankind since the earliest forms of joint labour. Yet only in human society does it acquire a social dimension, because only a human being can consciously set goals, choose the means of achieving them and foresee where their influence on others will lead. Social management, one of the main types of managerial activity, rests on precisely this ability [9; 21]. Its object is not a machine or a production line but people, social groups, communities and the relations between them.

The word “social” in this context refers to relations between individuals and social groups regarding their position, place and role in society, their way of life and access to goods. Social management therefore covers not every kind of interaction but the kind that concerns a person’s living conditions and protection [21]. It differs from economic management in its criterion of success. Profit, sales volume or market share give way here to indicators of quality of life, accessibility of services, and reduction of poverty and social tension.

Three basic concepts are needed to understand social management: social policy, the social sphere and social work. Social policy is regarded as the activity of the state and other social institutions aimed at developing the social sphere, improving people’s living conditions and quality of life, meeting their vital needs, and providing support and protection using the available resource potential [9]. The social sphere is the part of society’s life in which this policy is implemented through the distribution of material and spiritual goods, education, health care, social protection, culture, and housing and communal services [9; 21]. Social work is the

practical level at which specialists, civic and state institutions directly help people in difficult life circumstances [23].

The interconnection of these concepts is shown in Fig. 1.1.



Fig. 1.1. The relationship between social policy, the social sphere and social work

Source: developed by the author based on [9; 21; 23]

The constitutional basis of social management in Ukraine is laid down by Article 1 of the Basic Law, which proclaims Ukraine a social state. Article 46 guarantees citizens the right to social protection, including in the event of complete, partial or temporary disability, loss of the breadwinner, unemployment and old age [6]. It follows that social management in Ukraine is not a matter of the goodwill of individual officials. It is a duty of the state, which the state performs through a system of bodies, services and institutions.

Any management combines subjective and objective components. The subjective component is linked to the personality of the manager, their values, experience and decision-making style. The objective component depends little on the individual; it comprises the laws of social development, economic constraints, the demographic structure of the population and legal norms [9]. In the social sphere this combination is especially noticeable. One and the same law on social services produces different results in different communities, and a considerable share of this difference is due to management decisions made locally [5].

The state of social management in Ukraine depends above all on the overall capacity of public administration and on the resources the state can direct to social goals. The full-scale war has sharply changed the structure of budget expenditures. According to N. Syvulska and A. Slavkova, in 2014–2021 the share of social expenditures in the consolidated budget stayed above 50 %, while in 2022–2023 it

fell sharply because defence became the priority [24, p. 677]. The dynamics of the main indicators are given in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1

Share of social and defence expenditures in the consolidated budget of Ukraine

Period	Social expenditures (%)	Social protection and social security (%)	Defence (%)
2014–2017	52.6–62.5	25.9–30.9	–
2018–2021	over 50	–	–
2022	34.0	15.0	over 37
2023	26.8	12.1	about 47

Source: compiled by the author based on [24]

A smaller share of social expenditures does not mean that the population's needs have decreased. On the contrary, the number of people who need support has grown. As of 1 December 2023, 2.6 million internally displaced persons were receiving living allowances, about 1.3 million of them of working age, and more than half of these had no job [24, p. 680]. In 2022 alone, UAH 52.8 billion was allocated from the state budget for this allowance [24, p. 680]. Under such conditions the management task changes. The question is no longer how to distribute growing resources but how to achieve the greatest social effect with limited funds.

The researchers draw attention to one more problem. Most social payments in Ukraine are categorical, that is, they are granted on the basis of belonging to a certain group rather than actual need. For this reason, the growth of social expenditures in previous years did not lead to a tangible reduction in poverty [24, p. 681]. Here a purely managerial flaw becomes apparent: poor targeting and a weak link between the money spent and the result obtained.

Several factors can be identified that held back the development of social management in Ukraine for a long time. First, there was no long-term strategy and no assessment of the social consequences of government decisions. Second, the

forms of citizen participation in managing social processes remained underdeveloped, and the responsibility of public authorities for the population's standard of living was enshrined mostly on paper [21]. Third, powers were divided unclearly between the central and local levels, and funding did not always match the duties assigned to communities [24, p. 682].

Some of these problems began to be addressed by the Law of Ukraine "On Social Services" of 17 January 2019 No. 2671-VIII, in force since 1 January 2020 [20]. It defined social services as actions aimed at preventing difficult life circumstances, overcoming them or minimizing their negative consequences for the persons and families concerned. The law placed the key responsibility for identifying the population's needs, providing information and financing basic social services on local self-government bodies [20]. For social management this is a fundamental change. Management decisions are now made mainly where a person lives, and state, municipal and non-state service providers operate under the same requirements.

Social policy is put into practice through various forms of assistance. These include pensions, scholarships, cash benefits for persons in difficult life circumstances, privileges, in-kind assistance, and social services such as care, accompaniment, counselling, crisis intervention and social adaptation [20; 21]. The very term "social" indicates here that society takes on the care of its members and ensures their protection. In other words, the human factor takes priority over economic benefit.

The subjects of social management are specialized state and non-state bodies, services and organizations working in social protection, labour, education and health care [9]. In a broad sense, the entire population of the country can be considered a subject of social management, since citizens take part in elections, public hearings and the activities of charitable and volunteer associations. The implementation of social policy is coordinated by the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine through ministries, other central executive bodies and their territorial units [9; 21]. At the

community level this coordination passes to the executive bodies of local councils, which under martial law also perform crisis response functions [5].

Social management operates at several levels, and each of them has its own tasks [9; 21]. At the macro level, the state shapes social policy, adopts laws, approves state standards of social services and determines the volume of budget funding. Decisions made here affect millions of people at once, so a mistake at this level is the most costly. The meso level covers regions and territorial communities. Since the decentralization reform, it is the communities that are responsible for identifying the population's needs for social services, planning their provision and setting up the relevant institutions [5; 20]. The micro level is an individual organization, such as a social service centre, a children's service, or a civil society or charitable organization. The head of such an institution plans the work of specialists, distributes the workload, monitors the quality of services and is accountable to the community for the result.

The levels do not exist separately from each other. A state standard adopted at the macro level will change nothing if the community does not find the money to implement it and the director of the centre does not organize staff training. Conversely, the successful experience of an individual organization sometimes becomes the basis for changes in national rules. This happened with many services that were first introduced by civil society organizations with funds from international donors and later included by the state in the list of basic social services.

The activities of the subjects of social management rest on a number of principles. The Law of Ukraine "On Social Services" enshrines, in particular, the principles of targeting and an individual approach, accessibility and openness, voluntary choice to receive or refuse services, humanity, comprehensiveness, legality, social justice, confidentiality and the effective use of budgetary and extra-budgetary funds [20]. Each of these principles has a very practical meaning. Targeting means that help goes to the person who needs it, not to everyone who belongs to a certain category. An individual approach requires taking into account the characteristics of a specific person, their family and environment. Voluntariness

protects a person’s right to decide independently whether they agree to intervention in their life. Confidentiality obliges specialists to keep the information they learned in the course of their work.

These principles sometimes contradict one another, and the manager has to find a balance between them. The principle of the effective use of funds pushes towards group forms of work and standardized solutions, whereas the principle of an individual approach requires time and attention for each case. The head of a centre with a limited budget and a queue of several dozen applicants makes a choice between these requirements every day. Knowing the principles therefore does not relieve the manager of responsibility for a decision, but it does make it possible to explain that decision to service recipients, colleagues and supervisory bodies.

In the social sphere, specific principles are added to the general management principles formulated by the classics of management. Among them is the principle of partnership with the service recipient, who ceases to be a passive object of assistance and takes part in assessing their own needs and planning services [21; 49]. Equally significant is the principle of interagency cooperation, since the problems of one family often concern education, health care, social protection and law enforcement at the same time. Without coordinated action by these bodies, even the well-organized work of one service does not lead to a lasting result.

Thus, the social nature of management manifests itself in three features. Its object is the human being and their relations with other people. Its criterion is quality of life rather than profit. Its subjects act within the constitutional guarantees of a social state and at the same time are limited by the resources that society possesses at a particular stage of development.

2. The formation and development of social management

Ukrainian science still lacks a single interpretation of social management. Some authors regard the social sphere as a whole as its field of influence, while others link it to personnel management and the social development of an enterprise, that is, to the economic sphere [4]. N. Kolenda distinguishes two main approaches

to defining this concept, the theoretical and the process approach, and concludes that a holistic scientific approach to its essence has not yet been formed [4]. This uncertainty complicates the development of both the theory and the practice of social work in Ukraine.

There are objective reasons for this divergence. Social work in Ukraine received the status of a professional activity only in the early 1990s [21; 23]. The term “management” itself entered Ukrainian scientific literature at about the same time, in the late 1980s and early 1990s [9]. Two fields of knowledge that were young for our science thus merged in one concept before each of them had developed its own conceptual apparatus.

The word “management” comes from the English verb to manage (to direct, to cope), whose root goes back to the Latin manus, “hand” [9]. Originally the word meant the ability to keep a situation under control with one’s own hand. Over time its meaning expanded along with the accumulation of knowledge in economics, psychology and sociology, and today management covers a type of activity, an academic discipline and the professional group of people who carry out this activity.

Social management did not arise out of nowhere. It relies on more than a century of history of the general theory of management, in which four approaches are traditionally distinguished. The first is associated with the formation of scientific schools. The second, the process approach, views management as a continuous sequence of interrelated functions. The third, the systems approach, sees the organization as a set of interconnected elements. The fourth, the situational approach, argues that there is no universal way of managing [9; 21].

The school of scientific management is associated primarily with the name of F. W. Taylor. In “The Principles of Scientific Management” (1911), he argued that work operations could be studied, measured and rationalized on the basis of precise observation rather than habit [79]. For the social sphere, the very idea of standardization proved important. Modern state standards of social services, which define the content, scope and quality of a service, are a distant echo of this idea [20].

The administrative, or classical, school shifted attention from a single operation to the organization as a whole. H. Fayol described management through five functions (forecasting, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling) and formulated fourteen general principles of administration [40]. He is regarded as the founder of the process approach. Many of these principles, including unity of command, fair remuneration and stability of personnel, remain relevant for social services, where staff turnover directly affects the quality of help for clients.

The human relations school emerged as a reaction to an overly mechanistic view of the worker. Studies by E. Mayo and his colleagues at the Hawthorne plant showed that productivity is influenced not only by physical working conditions but also by attention to the person, group norms and a sense of belonging to the team [63]. For social management this conclusion has a double significance. It concerns both the employees of social organizations and the people these organizations help.

After the Second World War, the behavioural sciences school and the new school of management science, based on quantitative methods, modelling and statistics, took shape [9]. At about the same time P. Drucker proposed management by objectives, proceeding from the idea that the manager and the subordinate should jointly define the expected results and evaluate work against them [38]. In the social sphere this principle later turned into the requirement to evaluate programmes not by the amount of money spent but by the changes in the lives of those who receive help.

The systems approach views the organization as an open system consisting of people, structure, tasks and technologies and constantly interacting with the external environment [9; 21]. The situational approach complements it with the requirement to analyse internal and external factors before choosing a management method. These two approaches correspond most closely to the nature of social work. Every family, every community and every crisis has its own features, and a template solution rarely works here.

The contribution of the main schools and approaches to the theory of social management is summarized in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2

Contribution of management schools and approaches to the theory of social management

School, approach	Representatives	Key idea	Significance for social management
Scientific management	F. W. Taylor	Rationalization and standardization of work	Standards of social services, workload norms for specialists
Administrative (classical)	H. Fayol	Functions and principles of administration	Structure of social services, division of powers
Human relations	E. Mayo	Influence of group norms and attention to the person	Staff motivation, work with client groups
Management by objectives	P. Drucker	Joint goal setting and evaluation by results	Evaluating social programmes by changes in people's lives
Systems	–	Organization as an open system	Interagency cooperation, consideration of the community environment
Situational	–	The management method depends on the situation	Individual approach to the case, case management

Source: systematized by the author based on [9; 21; 38; 40; 63; 79]

Modern management concepts that reveal the essence of social management have formed on the basis of these approaches [9; 21]. Six propositions stand out among them.

1. The management system is oriented towards innovation, employee motivation, an appropriate leadership style and the philosophy of the organization.

2. The organization acts as an open information, production and socio-psychological system that develops under the influence of internal and external factors.

3. The organization's activity is aimed at meeting the needs of everyone who works in it or uses its services.

4. Modern management is distinguished by flexibility, rapid response and the capacity to adapt.

5. Strategic planning is combined with balanced tactics for solving current problems.

6. The main capital of the organization is its intellectual potential and human resources.

Recent Ukrainian studies increasingly regard social management as a technology of effective management that attracts growing interest from both employers and employees. V. Yevchenko and O. Khloponina-Hnatenko emphasize that social work at the level of the enterprise and the state can increase the effectiveness of the whole organization [2]. Among the principles of such management the authors name the combination of one-person decision-making with collegial discussion, consistency of methods, a combination of sectoral and territorial approaches, the priority of social tasks, a scientific basis, forecasting of social development and responsibility for results [2]. I. Mykolaichuk adds social partnership, social responsibility at different levels of management and monitoring of social processes to the range of issues covered by the discipline [9].

Foreign literature places the emphasis elsewhere. M. Hughes and M. Wearing regard management in social work as everyday action for change that not only the head but also a rank-and-file specialist is capable of [49]. This view is especially valuable for Ukrainian communities, where a social worker often plans their own work, looks for partners and negotiates resources. A vision of social work in an international context, oriented towards global standards of education and practice, is presented in the works of T. Semyhina [23].

Abroad, the management of the social sphere took shape as a separate field of research earlier than in Ukraine. In Great Britain, the discipline of social administration had already formed by the middle of the twentieth century; it studied the organization of public social services, the allocation of resources among them and the consequences of social policy for different population groups [23; 49]. In the United States, researchers focused on the management of non-profit

organizations. It was there that P. Drucker, in “Managing the Nonprofit Organization” (1990), showed that charitable, educational and religious organizations need management no less than commercial firms, and perhaps even more, since they lack such a simple measure of success as profit [36, p. 107]. He advised the leaders of such organizations to begin with a clear statement of mission, to determine who their “customer” is, and to evaluate their activity by the changes in people’s lives.

At the end of the twentieth century the concept of New Public Management spread in many countries. Its supporters proposed transferring business methods to the public sector, namely competition among providers, contracts, evaluation by performance indicators and customer orientation. For the social sphere this concept had mixed consequences. On the one hand, the transparency of expenditures increased and a choice among service providers appeared. On the other hand, the pursuit of quantitative indicators sometimes crowded out concern for quality and human relationships [49]. These concepts are discussed in more detail in Topic 2.

Ukrainian social management has borrowed a great deal from this experience. The Law “On Social Services” allowed communities to commission services not only from municipal institutions but also from non-state providers, in particular through social commissioning [20]. At the same time, Ukrainian practice has its own features. Communities lack specialists able to draft terms of reference competently and assess the quality of services, and the market of non-state providers is only taking shape in most regions [5].

The scientific status of social management is also determined by its links with other sciences. From the general theory of management it takes the functions, methods and principles of management. Sociology gives it tools for studying social groups, needs and inequality. Psychology explains human behaviour in difficult life circumstances, staff motivation and the mechanisms of professional burnout. Economics helps to plan budgets, calculate the cost of services and assess cost-effectiveness. Law sets the limits of what is permitted and defines the rights of service recipients. Social management is most closely connected with social work.

Whereas social work answers the question of how to help a particular person, social management explains how to organize a system in which such help becomes available to everyone who needs it [9; 21].

Its interdisciplinary nature does not deprive social management of its own subject. That subject is the management relations that arise in the process of meeting people's social needs, and the regularities according to which these relations develop [21]. This is why social management can be regarded as an independent branch of management knowledge rather than a mechanical sum of the propositions of related sciences. It has its own conceptual apparatus, its own methods and its own field of practical application.

Summing up, three stages in the formation of social management in Ukraine can be distinguished. During the first stage (the 1990s), the profession of social worker and the first social services took shape, and management borrowed concepts from the general theory of management. The second stage (the 2000s–2010s) was marked by the appearance of textbooks and academic courses on the management of social work. The third stage began with decentralization and the entry into force of the Law "On Social Services" and continues under martial law. Its essence is the transition from centralized administration of payments to the management of services at the community level [5; 20]. This periodization is the author's own and is intended for teaching purposes.

3. The content and specifics of social management

In this manual, social management is regarded as an independent type of professional activity aimed at achieving defined goals in the social sphere through the rational use of material, financial, human and information resources by applying scientifically grounded principles, functions, forms and methods of management. This definition is based on the process approach and takes into account the market environment in which modern social organizations operate [2; 4; 9].

The content of social management is multidimensional, so the literature distinguishes six main meanings of this concept [21]. Together they are shown in Fig. 1.2.



Fig. 1.2. The main meanings of the concept of "social management"

Source: developed by the author based on [9; 21]

The organizational and structural meaning answers the question of who exactly carries out social work, which bodies and institutions are engaged in it and how effectively they work. Management here is organized at several levels, national, regional and local, each of which has its own structures [9; 21]. At the national level there are the ministry and other central executive bodies; at the regional level, the social protection units of regional administrations; at the local level, the executive bodies of communities, social service centres and territorial centres of social care [5; 20]. Civic and charitable organizations are increasingly joining this network, since the law established the same requirements for state and non-state service providers and allowed them to be engaged through social commissioning or public–private partnership [20].

The functional meaning implies that each structure performs a certain set of general and specific functions. General functions do not depend on the level or competence of the subject of management. They include social forecasting, planning, motivation, marketing, public relations, the introduction of innovations, the provision of social services, accounting and control [21]. Specific functions are determined by the position, unit or field of activity of the institution. For example, a social work specialist at a social services centre assesses a family's needs, draws up an individual plan and supports its implementation. The head of the same centre performs other functions, distributing the workload, ensuring staff training and reporting to the local council. The ratio of general to specific functions differs from one position to another.

The professional and activity (labour) meaning defines social management as a special kind of work performed by a separate category of employees, namely managerial staff [21]. They are expected to combine two types of competencies. The first concerns management as such: planning, budgeting and work with personnel. The second is an understanding of social problems, human rights and the ethics of social work. A social sector manager without the second type of competencies runs the risk of turning help for people into meeting formal indicators [49].

The procedural meaning presents social management as a process of setting goals and objectives and organizing practical activity to achieve them [21]. In this process it is important to align goals at different levels and to provide decisions with resources, namely information, material, labour, financial and time resources. A decision without resources remains a declaration. A vivid example of the procedural view is case management, which the Law "On Social Services" enshrined as a sequence of steps from the request and needs assessment to the provision of services and monitoring of their quality [20].

The epistemological meaning regards social management as an academic discipline that studies the regularities, principles, structure, functions and process of management in the social sphere. Like any science, it has its own methodology, theories (structural and functional theories, theories of management decisions and

information) and methods, which may be research, diagnostic or practical [9; 21]. At the same time, part of the knowledge here cannot be reduced to formal rules. The ability to lead people and a team is traditionally called the art of management, and it is formed mainly through experience.

The educational meaning is related to the training of specialists. Social management is part of educational programmes in management, social work and public administration, as well as of advanced training programmes for social protection workers [9; 23]. For applicants in specialty D3 “Management”, the discipline makes it possible to see how universal management tools work where the main result is human well-being.

All six meanings complement one another. When a student analyses the work of a particular social service centre, they inevitably touch upon each of them. They look at the centre’s place in the system, its functions, the qualifications of its managers, the procedure for working with a case, the scientific basis of its methods and, finally, whether the staff are sufficiently trained.

Management in the social sphere has its limitations, which follow from the very nature of social problems [21]. First, every social problem is unique. Stereotypes and standard approaches exist, but in human relations no situation repeats itself exactly. Second, the alternative solutions are usually complex and ambiguous. Third, the consequences of decisions are only partly predictable. Fourth, the situation is influenced by a large number of internal and external factors. Finally, a decision can be made only by a certain circle of persons and organizations that have the authority to do so. The specifics of social management compared with the management of a commercial organization are shown in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3

Comparison of social management and the management of a commercial organization

Feature	Commercial management	Social management
Main goal	Profit, growth in business value	Quality of life, social security

Feature	Commercial management	Social management
Object of influence	Production and sales processes	Person, family, community
Sources of funding	Sales revenue, investment	Budgets, grants, charitable donations, paid services
Criterion of success	Financial indicators	Changes in the lives of service recipients
Consumer and payer	Mostly the same	Often different (the service is paid for by the state or a donor)
Legal framework	Commercial legislation	Social legislation, state service standards

Source: compiled by the author based on [2; 9; 20; 49]

The gap between the consumer and the payer deserves special attention. In a commercial firm, a dissatisfied customer simply goes to a competitor, and the firm quickly sees this in its revenue. The recipient of a social service often has no choice, and funding depends on budget decisions or donor requirements. That is why state service standards, quality monitoring and feedback from recipients themselves are so important in social management [20]. Without them, a manager may not learn for years that the institution is working inefficiently.

Martial law added one more feature to these: the need to restructure work quickly in response to a sudden increase in needs. Communities that received internally displaced persons had to organize accommodation, humanitarian aid and psychological support within a few weeks [5]. This experience proved that the situational approach, flexible structures and partnership with the civic sector are not theoretical wishes but a condition for the survival of the social system.

The specifics of social management also affect the methods the manager uses. Management theory traditionally distinguishes three groups of methods: economic, organizational and administrative, and socio-psychological [9; 21]. Economic methods influence people's interests through material incentives. In the social sphere these are wages, bonuses for good work, programme funding depending on the results achieved, and the allocation of budget funds among service providers. However, the potential of such methods is limited here. The salaries of social

workers in Ukraine remain low, and a manager can rarely raise them significantly by their own decision.

Organizational and administrative methods rely on authority and discipline. They include regulations on structural units, job descriptions, orders, instructions, and standards and protocols for providing services. They ensure order and predictability, without which it is impossible to guarantee the same quality of help for all recipients. Excessive regulation, however, has a downside. A specialist who is afraid to deviate from instructions stops seeing the particular person, and filling in documents takes up the time needed for live work with the client.

Socio-psychological methods influence consciousness, values and relationships within the team. They include persuasion, the manager's personal example, the shaping of organizational culture, support for team spirit, supervision and the prevention of professional burnout. For social organizations this group of methods is of particular importance. People come to work in the social sphere mostly not for high earnings but because they want to help others [49]. A manager who supports this inner drive can achieve more than one who relies only on orders.

The content of social management also makes certain demands on the manager as a person. In addition to managerial knowledge, the manager needs a deep understanding of social problems, knowledge of legislation, the ability to work with data, and negotiation and public speaking skills. Personal qualities are no less necessary, such as empathy, stress resistance, responsibility and respect for the dignity of every person. A social sector manager is constantly caught between several groups of interests. The state demands reporting and savings, donors expect measurable results, service recipients need attention, and staff need protection from overload. The ability to keep this balance without losing sight of the person for whom the organization exists is perhaps the main professional competence of a social manager.

The ethical dimension of social management cannot be ignored either. A manager's decisions here often concern vulnerable people who are unable to defend their rights on their own. Refusing a service, closing a programme or reassigning

specialists between areas of work directly affects the fate of particular families. Therefore, a social manager should be guided not only by efficiency requirements but also by professional ethical standards, which in international social work are based on respect for human rights and social justice [23].

This leads to the author's generalization. The specifics of social management lie in the fact that it deals with unique human situations, evaluates itself through changes in people's lives and operates amid a constant shortage of resources. A social sector manager therefore has to combine the precision of an administrator with sensitivity to the person.

Case "A community that welcomes"

Before 2022, a rural territorial community in central Ukraine had about 12 thousand residents. The community had a social service centre with a staff of 9. Its main recipients were older people living alone and several families in difficult life circumstances. Within three months of the start of the full-scale invasion, about 2 thousand internally displaced persons arrived in the community, many of them children, people with disabilities and older people. Later, veterans and their families began to return to the community.

The centre's budget remained almost unchanged. Two specialists themselves left for other regions. At the same time, two international humanitarian organizations and a local volunteer initiative appeared in the community, acting without a common plan. Some families received assistance from three sources at once, while others received nothing. The head of one of the villages proposed opening a day centre for children in the building of a former school, but there is neither money nor staff for this.

Tasks

1. Identify the subjects and objects of social management in this situation.

2. Which of the six meanings of social management (Fig. 1.2) are most evident in the case? Justify your answer.

3. Propose a way of coordinating the activities of the centre, the humanitarian organizations and the volunteers. Who should become the coordinator and why?

4. Which management approach (Table 1.2) is appropriate for the village head's proposal? Describe the first three steps.

5. Which indicators will help to assess in a year whether social management in the community has improved? Name at least five.

Self-check questions

1. What is the social nature of management?

2. What does the term "social" mean in the context of social management?

3. Define the concepts of "social policy" and "social sphere". How are they related?

4. Which articles of the Constitution of Ukraine form the legal basis of social management?

5. How does the subjective component of management differ from the objective one?

6. How did the structure of social expenditures in the consolidated budget of Ukraine change in 2022–2023, and why?

7. Why does the categorical principle of social payments reduce the effectiveness of social policy?

8. What changes in the management of social services were introduced by the Law of Ukraine "On Social Services"?

9. Who are the subjects of social management in Ukraine, and who coordinates the implementation of social policy?

10. Why is there still no single definition of social management in Ukrainian science?

11. What is the origin of the word "management", and how has its meaning changed?

12. What is the essence of the school of scientific management, and what is its significance for the social sphere?

13. Which management functions did H. Fayol identify?

14. What did the studies of the human relations school reveal, and why is this important for social organizations?

15. How does the systems approach differ from the situational approach?

16. Name the six propositions of modern management concepts that reveal the essence of social management.

17. Formulate a definition of social management as a type of professional activity.

18. Explain the six meanings of the concept of “social management”.

19. How does social management differ from the management of a commercial organization?

20. What limitations of social management follow from the nature of social problems?

Topic 2. Scientific paradigms and concepts of social management

Lecture plan

1. Models of the relationship between subjects and objects
2. Typology of social service structures
3. Laws of social work management
4. Principles of social management
5. Functions of social management

1. Models of the relationship between subjects and objects

A scientific paradigm is a set of initial assumptions through which researchers and practitioners look at their subject. In social management, the key question of any paradigm is how the one who manages is related to the one who, or that which, is managed. The answer determines the distribution of powers, the direction of communication, the style of decision-making and, ultimately, the attitude towards the service recipient [7; 9].

At the level of state and municipal management of the social sphere, three paradigms are distinguished that have succeeded one another. The first is traditional public administration, based on the Weberian model of bureaucracy with its clear hierarchy, written rules and impersonal attitude towards citizens [81]. The second is New Public Management, which spread in the 1980s. C. Hood showed that this paradigm transferred private business tools to the public sector, namely clear performance standards, competition among providers and attention to costs [48]. The third is New Public Governance. S. Osborne describes it as a model in which the state not so much provides services itself as builds a network of interaction with communities, non-governmental organizations and business [70].

The features of the three paradigms are compared in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Paradigms of social sphere management

Feature	Public administration	New Public Management	New Public Governance
Theoretical basis	Theory of bureaucracy	Economic theories, private sector management	Network theory, institutional theory
Service recipient	Petitioner	Client, customer	Citizen, co-participant
Main instrument	Rules and instructions	Performance indicators, competition	Partnership, network coordination
Role of the state	Sole provider	Purchaser and controller	Coordinator and partner
Counterpart in Ukrainian practice	Centralized social protection system of the 1990s	State service standards, social commissioning	Interaction of communities, civil society organizations and donors

Source: systematized by the author based on [20; 48; 70; 81]

The Ukrainian system of social management does not fit fully into any of these paradigms. The Law "On Social Services" introduced social commissioning and equal requirements for all providers, which corresponds to the logic of New Public Management [20]. At the same time, the experience of the war years has shown that a community cannot bear the load without a network of partners, and this is already a feature of governance [21]. That is why, at the level of an individual social service, it is important to understand which model of interaction between the head and the staff prevails in it.

The literature on social work management describes three such models: hierarchical, collective and developmental [3; 9]. They differ in the distribution of powers, the direction of communication and the ability of the service to change.

The hierarchical model is common in many social institutions in Ukraine, in particular in health care facilities and residential care institutions. The authority to make decisions and monitor their implementation is concentrated in the hands of the head. Communication flows mainly from top to bottom in the form of instructions,

employees' competencies are strictly regulated, and the structure is difficult to change [3; 9]. This model is appropriate where a mistake is costly and procedures must be followed unconditionally, for example in work with persons who need constant medical care. Its weak points are a slow response to new situations and low staff initiative.

The collective model has almost no hierarchy. Solidarity prevails among specialists, independence and self-control are highly valued, and decisions are made through discussion. The head acts here as a trusted representative of the team and as a coordinator, and information spreads on the principle of "everyone informs everyone" [3; 9]. This format works well in small civil society organizations and multidisciplinary teams. Informal discussion of cases helps to generalize experience and adjust work with the client in good time. However, as the number of staff grows, decisions are made more and more slowly and responsibility becomes blurred.

The developmental model combines a clearly formulated goal with employees' ability to influence the service's policy. The organization is headed by a leader who retains the final decision. This leader is assisted by a group of strategic and tactical managers [3]. Each subordinate has only one direct superior, which corresponds to H. Fayol's principle of unity of command [40]. At the same time, management remains open, and the head maintains a constant dialogue with the staff of their area. The value of this model lies in combining consistency with flexibility, since the service can respond to changes in the environment without losing manageability.

A comparison of the three models is given in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

Comparative characteristics of models of the relationship between subjects and objects of management

Feature	Hierarchical	Collective	Developmental
Decision-making	By the head alone	In team discussion	By the head after discussion
Direction of communication	Top-down	Horizontal	Two-way

Feature	Hierarchical	Collective	Developmental
Role of the head	Commander and controller	Coordinator	Leader
Capacity for change	Low	High in small teams	High
Typical field of application	Residential institutions, hospitals	Civil society organizations, teams of specialists	Community social service centres

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9; 12]

Each of the models has its own rationale and at the same time is not free of contradictions. The choice between them depends on the type of organization, its size, the nature of its services and the territory in which it operates. This choice reveals the essence of management as conscious influence and a search for the best solution for a particular organization, place and time [9]. Elements of different models often coexist in one institution. For example, in a social service centre the residential care unit may work on the hierarchical principle, while the mobile team for socio-psychological assistance works on the collective one.

2. Typology of social service structures

An organizational structure is the way in which tasks, powers and responsibility are distributed among units and positions. It determines who makes decisions and how quickly, through which channels information flows, and how clearly it is defined who is responsible for the results of work with a particular client. H. Mintzberg reduced any structure to two basic tasks: the division of labour into separate operations and the coordination of these operations with one another [68, p. 2]. A social service solves the same tasks, but its “product”, a service to a person in difficult life circumstances, requires especially careful coordination between specialists of different profiles.

According to H. Mintzberg, coordination can be ensured by several mechanisms. The first is mutual adjustment, when employees agree among themselves directly. The second is direct supervision, when one person gives instructions to others. These are followed by standardization of work processes,

standardization of outputs and standardization of skills [68, p. 3–7]. The last mechanism is especially important for social services. A social worker, a psychologist and a lawyer act independently precisely because they have the same professional training and shared ethical norms. That is why in the social sphere a structure never rests on the head's orders alone.

Ukrainian educational literature distinguishes four main types of social service structure: linear, line-and-staff, functional and matrix [3; 9; 12]. Each of them combines vertical links of subordination with horizontal links of cooperation in its own way.

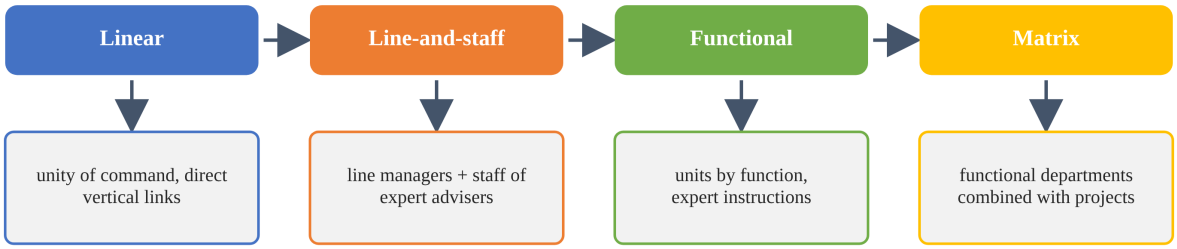


Fig. 2.1. Types of social service structure

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9; 68]

The linear type is the simplest. The service is headed by a manager who performs all management functions personally. Each employee reports only to this manager and carries out only their instructions, while the manager reports to a higher authority. Hierarchy is the main feature here, and clear relationships are established between its links [3]. The advantage of a linear structure is unity of command, that is, a situation in which a subordinate never receives contradictory instructions from different persons. This requirement was formulated by H. Fayol at the beginning of the twentieth century among his fourteen general principles of management [40, p. 24]. Its advantages also include simplicity, economy and the high personal responsibility of the manager.

At the same time, the linear type has obvious limits. The head has to understand everything, from personnel issues to accounting, from methods of working with children to procurement rules. While the service is small, this is possible. When the staff grows to several dozen people, however, the head inevitably

becomes overloaded, decisions are delayed and employees' initiative fades. Therefore, a linear structure is best suited to small units, for example a home-based social care unit in a small community where several social workers work under one supervisor.

The line-and-staff type retains the vertical line of subordination but adds "staff" units to it. These are bureaus, groups, sections or boards that specialize in individual management functions such as analytics, planning, legal support and public relations. Staff units do not make decisions but prepare them to a high standard. The right of signature remains with the line manager [3; 9]. In the practice of managing social protection, such staff units include, for example, a legal section or a service quality monitoring group. They collect data and prepare analytical notes and draft orders, but they cannot give orders to employees of other units.

The advantage of the line-and-staff structure is that the head receives qualified support without losing control. Its drawbacks are linked to the risk of the staff unit turning into a "parallel authority". Sometimes staff employees who have access to the head actually influence decisions but bear no responsibility for them. The opposite also happens, when their recommendations are ignored and the work of the staff unit loses its meaning.

The functional type relieves line managers of the need to know all aspects of management in detail. Each function (personnel, finance, methodological work, information support) is assigned to a separate unit or specialist who prepares qualified decisions within their competence [3; 12]. Unlike a staff unit, a functional unit has the right to issue binding instructions on matters of its function. For example, the accounting department establishes the reporting procedure for all units of a social service centre, and the methodological department determines the form for keeping a client's case file.

The strength of the functional type is the high quality of specialized decisions. Its weakness is the violation of unity of command. A social worker may receive instructions at the same time from the head of the unit, the methodologist and the accounting department, and these instructions do not always agree. For this reason,

the functional structure is rarely found in its pure form. Most often it is combined with the linear one, and in that case one speaks of a line-and-function structure. This is the variant typical of most budget-funded social institutions in Ukraine.

The matrix type emerged in response to the need to launch new services and projects quickly. An organization oriented towards a project or a particular social service (horizontal structuring) is superimposed on the traditional structure divided by function (vertical structuring) [3; 9]. An employee in such a structure has two managers. The first is the head of their functional unit, who is responsible for professional standards. The second is the project manager, who is responsible for deadlines and results. The project manager's task is to align the positions of all participants regarding the service or project and to guarantee accountability for the progress of work.

The matrix type has become especially relevant for Ukraine's social sphere today. Civil society organizations and social service centres implement projects funded by international donors, each with its own budget, timeline and reporting system. For example, one centre may simultaneously run a project of psychosocial support for internally displaced persons and a project of inclusive rehabilitation for veterans. The centre's psychologist is involved in both while remaining subordinate to the head of their department. The flexibility of such a structure makes it possible to mobilize specialists quickly. The price of flexibility is conflicts of priorities and the need for a well-developed culture of agreements.

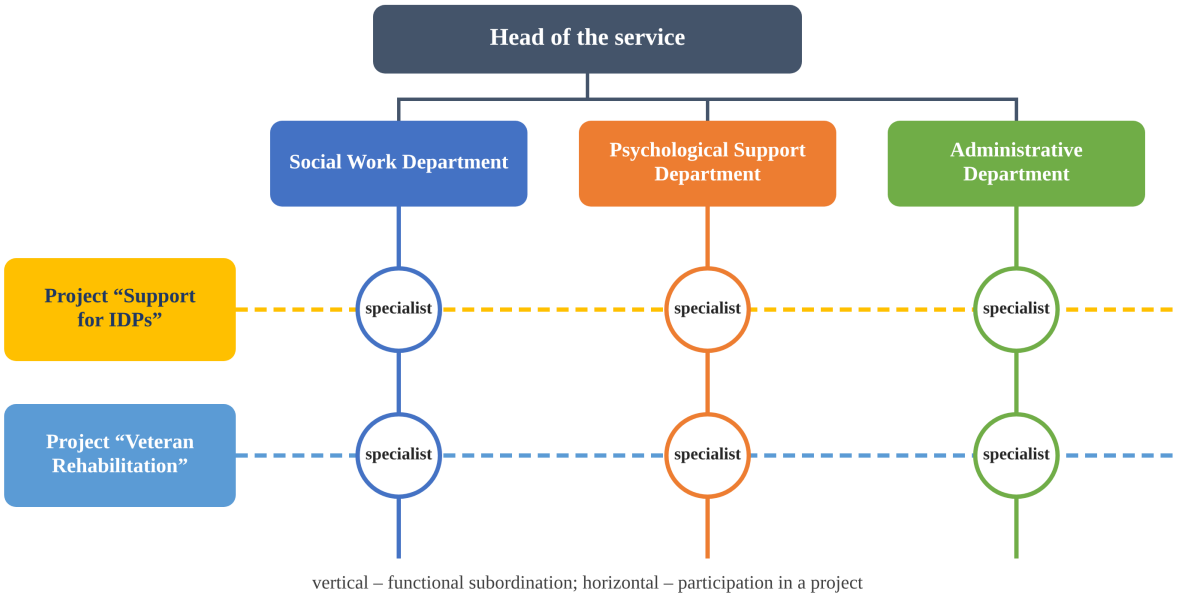


Fig. 2.2. Matrix structure of a social service

Source: developed by the author based on [3; 68]

A comparison of the four types is given in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3

Comparative characteristics of types of social service structure

Type	Main feature	Advantages	Disadvantages	Where appropriate
Linear	A single head performs all functions	Simplicity, unity of command, clear responsibility	Overload of the head, slow decisions	Small units, services of up to 10–15 people
Line-and-staff	Staff units without decision-making rights work under the head	Qualified preparation of decisions	Risk of a “parallel authority” of the staff	Social protection departments, large institutions
Functional	Functional units give instructions within their field	High quality of specialized decisions	Contradictory instructions, blurred responsibility	Mostly in combination with the linear type
Matrix	Dual subordination: functional and project	Flexibility, rapid launch of services	Conflicts of priorities, complex coordination	Service centres and CSOs with grant projects

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9; 12; 68]

Choosing a type of structure is not a one-off decision. An organization changes together with its environment, and a structure that was convenient for a service with ten employees begins to slow down work when the service doubles in size. H. Mintzberg noted that an effective structure achieves internal consistency of its elements and at the same time fits external conditions such as the size and age of the organization, the complexity of its tasks and the nature of its environment [68, p. 216–219]. For a social service, these conditions are the number and diversity of service recipients, the volume and sources of funding, the staff composition and the state's requirements regarding standards.

The Law "On Social Services" stipulates that service providers may be entities of the state and municipal sector as well as non-state organizations and individual entrepreneurs [20]. This has an important consequence for structure. A municipal social service centre tends towards a line-and-function structure, since its activity is regulated by a statute, a staff schedule and a budget estimate. A civil society organization that lives on grants more often chooses a matrix or flexible project structure. These differences should be taken into account when a community builds partnerships with non-state providers. Not only goals but also the very way work is organized have to be aligned.

In a broader perspective, the type of service structure is closely related to the model of the relationship between subjects and objects discussed above. The hierarchical model is naturally embodied in a linear structure. The collective model works best in small teams with a minimum of formal levels. The developmental model requires a combination of the vertical line with horizontal links and is therefore often implemented through a line-and-staff or matrix structure [9; 49].

3. Laws of social work management

A law reflects the most general relations and connections inherent in the phenomena and processes of a particular sphere. In modern science studies, the term "law" is used in two senses. In the first sense, it is a normative act adopted and approved in the established manner by the highest representative body of state

power. In the second, it denotes necessary, essential, stable and recurring relations and causal links between phenomena and processes in society [3; 9]. Social work management deals with both meanings at once. A social service operates within laws in the legal sense, and its managers must take into account objective regularities that do not depend on the will of an individual head.

A law of social management should be interpreted as an essential, recurring, cause-and-effect link between elements of the social management system that ensures its integrity, that is, the orderliness of its structure. Knowing such laws does not guarantee success automatically. However, a manager who ignores them sooner or later faces the consequences: duplication of functions, inconsistent decisions and loss of manageability. Educational literature most often distinguishes four laws of social work management [3; 9; 12].



Fig. 2.3. Laws of social work management

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9; 12]

The law of unity and integrity of the social management system requires the management system to have organizational and functional unity and to contain all the elements needed to achieve the set goals. Functional integrity means that the

system performs all the functions necessary for the development of social and socio-economic systems. If a function drops out, its non-performance eventually affects all the others. Unity, in turn, implies that the system is an integral entity rather than a mechanical sum of disparate parts [3].

A breach of integrity appears in several typical forms. The first is inconsistency, and sometimes contradiction, between acts of the legislative and executive authorities. The second is opposite approaches to shaping the social component of the budget of the state, a region or an organization. The third is a mismatch between local budgets and the real needs of social protection of the population, in particular the funding of social work institutions [3; 9]. Ukrainian decentralization practice provides examples of each of these breaches. After communities were amalgamated, some powers in the social sphere passed to the local level, but financial resources and personnel did not always follow them [21]. A community received the duty to identify the population's needs for social services even though it did not yet have a specialist on its staff capable of conducting such an assessment.

The law of differentiation of social management states that the management system must have the diversity required by the managed system. Social sector institutions and facilities share a certain typological commonality. All of them meet a number of mandatory requirements concerning staff safety, occupational health, reporting and personal data protection [3]. At the same time, a family-type children's home, a centre for comprehensive rehabilitation of persons with disabilities and a territorial centre of social care for older people work with different groups of recipients. Identical management decisions for them are impossible.

This law echoes the principle of requisite variety formulated by W. R. Ashby in cybernetics. According to it, a controlling system can cope with the variety of states of an object only if it itself has at least as much variety of possible responses [28, p. 206–207]. In the social sphere this means that a service working with people in very different life circumstances must have a sufficiently flexible set of methods,

specialists and procedures. Excessive standardization makes management simpler for the head but less useful for the service recipient.

The law of correspondence between controlling and controlled systems (subsystems) means that they must match each other in their functional and structural capabilities, in their levels and in their goals of management and further development [3; 12]. When the controlling subsystem lags behind the controlled one, management loses control over processes. When the controlling subsystem grows excessively, bureaucratization sets in, and resources intended for service recipients are spent on management itself.

A practical manifestation of this law is the span of control, that is, the number of employees one manager can effectively supervise. For routine and homogeneous tasks this number is larger, for complex and heterogeneous ones it is smaller. In social work a manager has not only to distribute tasks but also to provide supervision, discuss difficult cases and support employees in situations of emotional strain. Therefore the span of control here is objectively narrower than in production. Supervision in social work is regarded as a separate type of management activity with administrative, educational and supportive components [49].

The law of organization of social management expresses the objective need to distribute powers, rights and responsibility at each level of the system, both horizontally and vertically [3]. A breach of this law becomes visible when an employee has a duty but no right to make a decision, or when a right is granted but nobody bears responsibility. For example, a social work specialist may be responsible for managing the case of a family with children, but the decision to provide assistance is made by another official who has never seen this family. Such a gap between responsibility and authority weakens the quality of the service.

The history of management shows how this law itself arose. At first the management function was performed by one of the most experienced workers, who at the same time continued to perform some production operations. Later, as the volume of joint labour grew, management separated into an independent sphere of activity carried out by a professional manager released from production operations

[9]. In the social sphere this path is still being followed today. A small civil society organization often starts as an initiative group in which the leader simultaneously counsels clients, writes reports and looks for funding. As activities expand, the need arises to separate these roles.

The link between the laws and the practice of managing a social service is presented in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4

Laws of social work management and the consequences of their violation

Law	Content	Typical consequence of violation
Unity and integrity	The management system contains all necessary elements and functions	Functions dropping out, contradictory decisions of different bodies
Differentiation	The diversity of management matches the diversity of the managed system	Template decisions that ignore the needs of particular groups
Correspondence between controlling and controlled systems	The controlling subsystem matches the controlled one in capabilities and goals	Loss of control or bureaucratization
Organization	Powers, rights and responsibility are distributed at every level	Gap between duties and the right to make decisions

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9; 12]

The laws of social work management do not operate in isolation. A violation of the law of organization usually leads to a breach of integrity, and ignoring the law of differentiation sooner or later affects the correspondence between the controlling and controlled subsystems. It is from these laws that the principles of social management discussed below follow.

4. Principles of social management

A principle (from Latin principium, “foundation, beginning”) is a guiding idea, a rule underlying activity, or an inner conviction that defines a norm of behaviour. The principles of social management are understood as the initial, fundamental propositions of the theory of management activity. They follow directly

from the laws and regularities of management, and managers should be guided by them when directing the work of an organization [3; 9]. The difference between a law and a principle is that a law operates objectively, regardless of whether the head knows about it. A principle, by contrast, is a consciously formulated rule that a person can follow or violate.

The system of management principles has a long history. Towards the end of his practical career, H. Fayol proposed fourteen general principles: division of work, authority and responsibility, discipline, unity of command, unity of direction, subordination of individual interests to the general interest, remuneration, centralization, the scalar chain, order, equity, stability of tenure of personnel, initiative and esprit de corps [40, p. 19–42]. The author himself stressed that the principles are not rigid. Their application is a matter of proportion, which the manager decides with regard to circumstances. This idea still carries weight for the social sphere, where no rule can be applied mechanically.

Ukrainian educational literature includes eight principles among the basic principles of social management [2; 3; 9]. Their list and content are presented in Fig. 2.4.

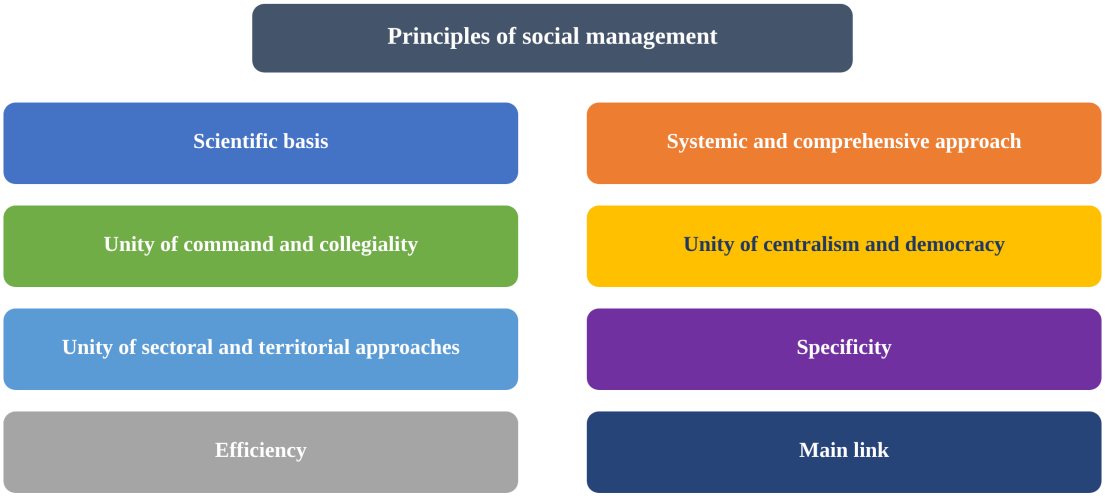


Fig. 2.4. Principles of social management

Source: compiled by the author based on [2; 3; 9]

The principle of a scientific basis requires the system of social management to be built on scientific foundations. This means using proven methods of needs

analysis, evidence-based social work practices, and monitoring and evaluation of results. A manager who makes decisions solely on the basis of personal experience or intuition runs the risk of repeating the same mistakes. A scientific approach also implies continuous staff training and cooperation between services and higher education institutions [9; 21].

The principle of systemic and comprehensive approaches requires both approaches to be combined in the management of social work. A systemic approach means using elements of the theory of large systems and systems analysis in every management decision. A comprehensive approach implies taking into account all aspects of a problem: social, economic, psychological, legal and organizational [3]. For example, help for a family that has returned from an occupied territory cannot be limited to a cash payment. Housing, employment, psychological support and school places for the children are needed. If each of these needs is addressed by a separate service without coordination, the family will receive a set of fragmented measures instead of integrated support.

The principle of one-person management combined with collegiality in developing decisions indicates a combination of two elements. It is advisable to develop any management decision collegially, involving specialists from different fields. At the same time, the collective decision once made is implemented by a specific official, who bears personal responsibility for it [3; 9]. In social services, collegiality is embodied through pedagogical or methodological councils, multidisciplinary teams and case conferences. However, after the discussion someone has to take responsibility for implementation. Without this, the decision risks remaining on paper.

The principle of unity of centralism and democracy means a reasonable combination of centralized and decentralized foundations of management. A balance between them is the most effective, but in management practice a bias towards one of them occurs most often [3]. Excessive centralism stifles local initiative, while excessive decentralization leads to unequal access to services in different communities. The decentralization reform in Ukraine has clearly demonstrated both

threats. Communities gained more opportunities for independent decisions, but the state retained quality standards and control over compliance with them [20].

The principle of unity of sectoral and territorial approaches combines two logics. Sectoral management is driven by the need for further diversification and specialization of social services on the one hand and for their greater concentration on the other. Territorial foundations of management reflect the need to take into account the specifics of a particular territory, such as its demographic structure, economic condition, available resources and traditions [3; 12]. A rural community with a predominantly elderly population and a city that has received thousands of internally displaced persons require different approaches even within the same sector.

The principle of concreteness implies analysing the specific management situation. Managing social work in accordance with this principle means above all taking any management action on the basis of high-quality and reliable information [3]. General recommendations are useful as a guide, but decisions concerning a specific service, a specific team or a specific group of recipients must take their particular features into account. Hence the importance of assessing the community's needs for social services, which legislation defines as a mandatory stage of planning [20].

The principle of efficiency implies that the goal should be achieved in the shortest possible time with minimal expenditure of material, financial, human and other resources [3]. In the social sphere this principle has a special interpretation. Efficiency is not reduced to saving money. It covers the social result: an improvement in a person's situation, the restoration of their independence and the prevention of more complex problems in the future. C. Hood noted that excessive attention to cost indicators in the logic of New Public Management may push other public values, in particular fairness and resilience, into the background [48, p. 11–15]. A manager of a social service therefore always seeks a balance between economy and quality.

The principle of the key link means singling out from all management tasks the main one whose solution makes it possible to advance across the whole set of problems [3]. A manager faces a multitude of facts, events and demands every day, and without the ability to set priorities runs the risk of dispersing their efforts. For example, in the first months after a mass arrival of displaced persons, the key link for a community service may be registration and initial needs assessment. Without this it is impossible to plan housing, payments or psychological assistance.

Comparative characteristics of the principles and typical signs of their violation are given in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5

Principles of social management in the practice of a social service

Principle	How it manifests itself in practice	Sign of violation
Scientific basis	Needs assessment, evidence-based methods, monitoring	Decisions “out of habit” without data analysis
Systemic and comprehensive approaches	Multidisciplinary team, family support plan	Fragmented measures of different services
One-person management and collegiality	Case discussion and an appointed responsible person	A collective decision without anyone to implement it
Unity of centralism and democracy	State standards and community self-governance	Excessive control or unequal access to services
Unity of sectoral and territorial approaches	Specialized services that take into account community specifics	Identical programmes for different territories
Concreteness	Decisions based on reliable information about the situation	Mechanical copying of other people’s decisions
Efficiency	Ratio of social result to costs	Savings at the expense of service quality
Key link	Identifying the priority task	Dispersal of resources on secondary matters

Source: compiled by the author based on [2; 3; 9; 48]

The principles of social management are not a list from which convenient items can be chosen. They form a system, and violating one of them usually entails violating others. For example, ignoring the principle of concreteness renders the

principle of efficiency meaningless, because it is impossible to evaluate a result without knowing the initial situation. On the other hand, principles may come into tension with each other. Collegiality takes time, whereas efficiency demands speed. In this sense the skill of a manager lies in finding an acceptable balance in each specific situation [9; 49].

The system of principles also has a value dimension. The International Federation of Social Workers defines social work as a practice-based profession and an academic discipline that promotes social change and development, social cohesion, and the empowerment and liberation of people [44]. Management principles in the social sphere should support these professional values rather than contradict them. Therefore, even the principle of efficiency is interpreted by the manager of a social service through the prism of human dignity and social justice.

5. Functions of social management

In the theory of social management, a function is regarded as a set of actions of a person or a group of people (heads, managers, social workers) aimed at achieving a defined goal within a broader purposeful activity [3]. Two levels of functions should be distinguished. General management functions are inherent in any organization. They are planning, organizing, motivating, controlling and regulating, and they reveal largely the same features of management activity regardless of the sphere. H. Fayol described management as forecasting, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling [40, p. 5–6]. Special functions, by contrast, depend on the specifics of the object of management. It is they that distinguish social management from the management of a commercial enterprise [3; 9].

In the theory of social management, special functions are grouped into three groups: informational, technological and organizational. Their composition is shown in Fig. 2.5.

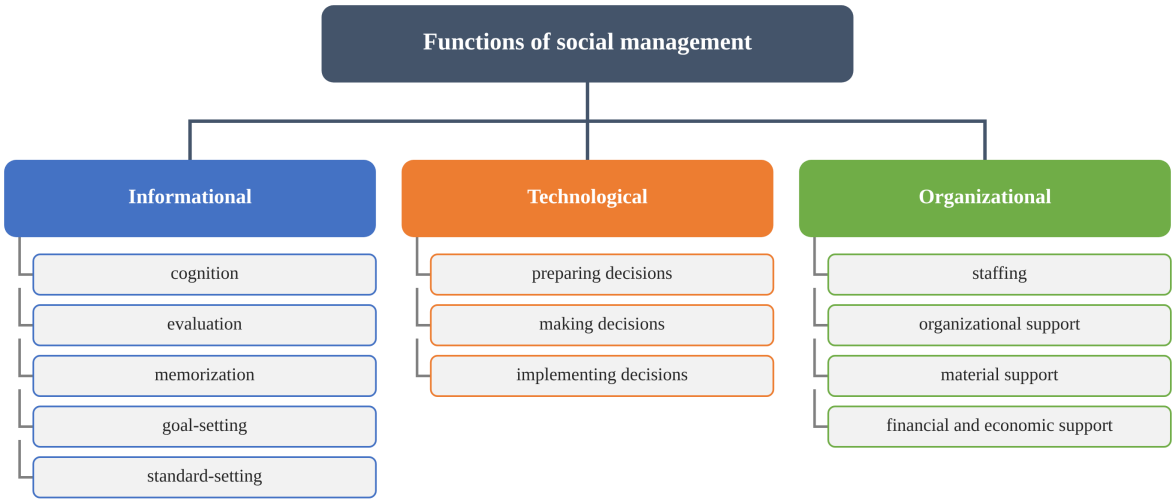


Fig. 2.5. Groups of functions of social management

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9]

The informational group covers five functions: cognition, evaluation, memorization, goal setting and norm setting. They form a logical sequence. A phenomenon is first learned about, then evaluated, recorded in the organization's memory, after which a goal regarding it is defined and, finally, norms are established to regulate action.

The cognitive function is the basis of all management activity. To begin regulating any process or interaction of social communities, one has to study them and obtain reliable knowledge about their nature, state and development trends [3]. For a social service, cognition means above all collecting data about the population of the community, its needs, risks and resources. Such data make it possible to see how many older people in the community live alone, how many families with children are in difficult life circumstances and where internally displaced persons are accommodated. Without this knowledge a manager acts at random.

The function of social evaluation consists in producing well-grounded assessments of the activities of managed objects and in determining their significance and role in the system of social relations. Evaluation in general means comparing the qualities of an object with the needs of the evaluator [3]. A social service evaluates the needs of recipients, the quality of the services provided and the

work of the staff. State standards of social services set an external yardstick for this, and internal monitoring procedures make it possible to apply it [20].

The function of social memorization involves developing and using social technologies for accumulating and storing management information. It can be called the social memory of society. This function is based on a document, above all a state one, which confirms a fact, a right or an obligation [3]. In a modern social service, memorization is implemented through the registration of service recipients, case files and electronic registers. Information technologies for working with documents are discussed in more detail in Topic 5.

The function of social goal setting is formed on the basis of the previous three. Once a phenomenon has been studied and evaluated in terms of its usefulness, the question arises of how to use it. Goal setting is an intellectual activity of establishing the desired result and the ways of achieving it [3]. P. Drucker insisted that objectives should be set for every area on which the survival of the organization depends, and that every manager should understand how their own objectives relate to the common ones [38, p. 62–63]. For a community, a goal of social management may be formulated as ensuring that every older person who needs care has access to the appropriate service within a certain period.

The function of social norm setting involves developing and adopting moral and legal norms for solving a social or management problem. Once a phenomenon has been studied and evaluated and the goal defined, rules must be established by which people will act [3]. Examples of such norms are the internal regulations of a social work institution, the established length of working time and optimal work and rest schedules. This group also includes codes of ethics that define the acceptable limits of a social worker's intervention in a client's life.

The technological group contains three functions: preparing, adopting and implementing management decisions. Preparing a decision covers collecting information, formulating the problem, developing alternatives and assessing their consequences. Adopting a decision means choosing one of the alternatives and giving it legal force in the form of an order, instruction or minutes. Implementing a

decision involves organizing work, communicating tasks to those who will carry them out, monitoring and adjustment [3; 9].

In the social sphere each stage has its own features. At the preparation stage it is important to involve those whom the decision will affect: service recipients, their relatives and civil society organizations. This is a requirement of the law itself, which enshrines the participation of recipients in identifying needs and planning services [20]. At the adoption stage it is important to weigh not only the economic but also the ethical consequences. At the implementation stage, communication with staff and feedback play a decisive role. A decision that the staff do not understand or share is carried out only formally.

The organizational group covers four support functions: personnel, organizational, material, and financial and economic support [3]. *Personnel support* involves selecting, placing, training and motivating staff. In the social sphere it carries particular weight because of the high emotional strain on specialists, and the problems of professional burnout are discussed in more detail in Topic 6. *Organizational support* consists in creating a structure, distributing powers and establishing communication, that is, in implementing the type of service structure discussed above. *Material support* covers premises, transport, equipment and rehabilitation aids. *Financial and economic support* includes budget planning, the search for sources of funding, accounting and reporting. For civil society organizations this function often becomes the most difficult, since donor funding has a limited duration and strict reporting requirements.

Comparative characteristics of the groups of functions are given in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6

Groups of special functions of social management

Group	Functions	Main question	Example from the work of a service
Informational	Cognition, evaluation, memorization, goal setting, norm setting	What is happening and what are we striving for?	Assessing the community's needs for social services

Group	Functions	Main question	Example from the work of a service
Technological	Preparing, adopting and implementing decisions	How should we act?	Decision to open a day care unit
Organizational	Personnel, organizational, material, financial and economic support	With what resources should we act?	Recruiting specialists and seeking funding for a new service

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9; 20]

All three groups of functions are closely connected. Informational functions create the basis for decisions, technological functions turn knowledge into action, and organizational functions provide this action with resources. The loss of any link breaks the cycle. A service that has money and staff but does not know the community's real needs spends resources inefficiently. A service that knows the needs well but is unable to make decisions turns into an analytical centre without practical impact.

The link between functions and the laws discussed in Section 3 is no less important. The law of unity and integrity requires all three groups of functions to be implemented in the management system. The law of differentiation explains why the set and content of functions in a social service centre of a large city and in a small rural community will differ. The law of organization determines who exactly performs each function and with what powers. Functions therefore cannot be studied separately from the laws and principles with which they form a single system of social management [9; 21].

The scientific paradigms and concepts of social management give a manager not ready-made answers but a way of thinking. The model of the relationship between subjects and objects, the type of structure, the laws, principles and functions are the tools with which a manager analyses their organization and looks for ways to make it more useful to people.

Case “The centre that grew”

The social service centre of the fictional Zelenohirsk urban territorial community was established in 2020. At first it employed twelve people: the director, an accountant, eight social care workers and two social work specialists. The director personally distributed calls, checked reports, negotiated with the city council and sometimes even visited clients herself. The team was close-knit, decisions were made at weekly meetings, and everyone knew each other by name.

In 2022 several thousand internally displaced persons arrived in the community. The centre received two grant projects from international organizations, one on psychosocial support and one on the labour market integration of displaced persons. In addition, the city council instructed it to open a day care unit for people with disabilities. Within eighteen months the staff grew to forty-seven people, including psychologists, a lawyer, case managers and project coordinators.

Meanwhile the structure of the centre hardly changed. The director continued to approve every decision, and a queue gathered in her reception room every day. The grant project coordinators gave instructions directly to the psychologists, while the head of the day care unit believed that the same psychologists should work primarily with her clients. The accounting department required everyone to submit identical reports in the city budget format, although the donors had their own forms. Two experienced social care workers resigned, explaining that they “no longer understand whom they report to”. At the last meeting the director admitted that the centre was “drowning in approvals” and asked her deputy to prepare proposals for a new structure.

Case tasks

1. Determine which model of the relationship between subjects and objects of management was characteristic of the centre in 2020 and which model actually took shape by 2023.

2. Which laws of social work management are violated in the situation described? Argue your answer with reference to specific facts from the case.

3. Propose a type of structure for the centre that would suit the new conditions. Draw a diagram and explain who reports to whom.

4. Which principles of social management should the director use as the basis for reorganization? How can one-person management and collegiality be combined in the new structure?

5. Distribute the functions of the informational, technological and organizational groups among the units of the new structure. Which function, in your opinion, suffered most from the growth of the centre?

Self-check questions

1. What is a scientific paradigm, and why is it important for managing the social sphere?

2. Name the three paradigms of social sphere management and their main differences.

3. What role does the concept of New Public Governance assign to the state?

4. What are the features of the hierarchical model of the relationship between subjects and objects of management?

5. In which organizations is the collective model most appropriate, and what are its limitations?

6. What is the value of the developmental model of management?

7. Which coordination mechanisms did H. Mintzberg distinguish?

8. Describe the linear type of social service structure.

9. How does a staff unit in a line-and-staff structure differ from a functional unit?

10. Why is the functional structure rarely found in its pure form?

11. What are the advantages and disadvantages of a matrix structure for a social service?

12. Which factors determine the choice of the type of social service structure?

13. How is the concept of “law” interpreted in modern science studies?

14. Explain the content of the law of unity and integrity of the social management system.

15. How are the law of differentiation and W. R. Ashby's principle of requisite variety related?

16. What is the span of control, and why is it narrower in social work than in production?

17. How does a principle differ from a law of management?

18. Explain the content of the principle of unity of centralism and democracy using the example of the decentralization reform.

19. How do the general and special functions of social management differ?

20. Name the functions of the informational group and explain the logic of their sequence.

Topic 3. The system of social management

Lecture plan

1. The concept and structure of organizations
2. Types of social organizations

1. The concept and structure of organizations

Social management always takes place within organizations. Even a social worker's individual work with a family relies on a job description, the service's internal procedures, the community budget and the norms of the law. Therefore, before discussing the system of social management, one has to understand what an organization is, what elements it consists of and by which features it can be described.

The classic definition of an organization was proposed by the American executive and theorist C. Barnard. He understood an organization as a group of people whose activities are consciously coordinated to achieve a common goal or common objectives. He described a formal organization as a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons [29, p. 73]. Three points are important in this definition. First, an organization is formed not by buildings or documents but by people's actions. Second, these actions are coordinated consciously, that is, someone aligns them. Third, people share a common goal, which justifies their association. C. Barnard also stressed that an organization exists only as long as people are willing to contribute to the common cause, so the manager must constantly sustain this willingness [29, p. 82–83].

Modern literature describes organizations through several general characteristics inherent in all human associations without exception, from a small civic initiative to a ministry [9; 21]. These characteristics are shown in Fig. 3.1.



Fig. 3.1. General characteristics of organizations

Source: compiled by the author based on [9; 29; 52]

The first characteristic is resources. Any organization uses four types of resources. Human resources are employees with their knowledge, skills, experience and motivation. Financial resources are budget funds, grants, charitable donations and fees for services. Physical resources cover premises, transport, equipment and consumables. Information resources are data on service recipients, the regulatory framework, methods and accumulated experience. For a social service, human resources are of decisive importance, since it provides its services precisely through its specialists. If a service lacks qualified staff, no other resources can compensate for it. At the same time, without information resources a specialist does not know who needs what kind of help, and without financial resources has nothing with which to provide it.

The second characteristic is openness. Every organization is an open system. It takes the resources for its activity from the external environment and directs the results of its work back there. D. Katz and R. Kahn, who developed the approach to the organization as an open system, described its activity as an “inputs – transformation – outputs” cycle. Energy, materials and information come from the

environment, are transformed inside the organization and return to the environment as a product [52, p. 19–20]. For a social service, the inputs are people's requests, budget funds, regulatory requirements and personnel. The transformation takes place in the course of providing services. The output is the changed condition of recipients: restored ability to take care of oneself, an overcome crisis, a child returned to the family. An organization that ignores its environment eventually loses the meaning of its existence, because it ceases to respond to real needs.

For social services, openness has a special dimension. Their environment is constantly changing. Legislation, the demographic situation and economic conditions change, and since 2022 the security situation as well. The mass internal displacement of the population, the appearance of a large number of veterans and their families, and the destruction of infrastructure in frontline communities have sharply changed the "inputs" of social services [9; 21]. Services that could read signals from the environment quickly restructured their work within weeks. Those that worked according to established plans long continued trying to perform old tasks in new conditions.

The third characteristic is the division of labour. All organizations carry out horizontal and vertical division of labour. Even if two people work together for a common goal, they have to divide the work between themselves. The division of the overall work into its component parts is called the horizontal division of labour. Its result is separate units such as departments, divisions, sections and groups. Since the work is divided among units and performers, someone has to coordinate their activities. This gives rise to the vertical division of labour, that is, the separation of coordinating work from the work being coordinated [9].

In a social service, the horizontal division of labour usually follows groups of recipients (families with children, older people, persons with disabilities), types of services (home care, day care, social adaptation, counselling) or territory (separate starosta districts of the community). The vertical division determines the levels of management: director, deputies, heads of units and specialists. H. Mintzberg drew attention to the fact that any structure is a way of reconciling two opposite

requirements, to divide labour and at the same time to coordinate it [68, p. 2]. The deeper the horizontal division, the more difficult the task of coordination and the more management levels may be needed.

The fourth characteristic is structure. Every organization has a structure, that is, a set of units and links between them, as well as relationships between management levels and functional areas of activity. It is the structure that gives the organization integrity and the ability to fulfil its purpose [9; 21]. The types of social service structure were discussed in Topic 2. Here it is important to stress that a structure is not just a diagram on paper. It determines whom an employee turns to in a difficult situation, who makes the decision to provide a service and who is accountable to the community for the result.

The overall goal of any organization's activity is success. An organization is considered successful when it achieves its goals. The components of success are survival, that is, the ability to exist as long as possible, as well as effectiveness and efficiency. The distinction between the last two concepts was proposed by P. Drucker. Effectiveness, in his words, means doing the right things, and efficiency means doing things right [37, p. 1–2]. An organization can be efficient but not effective. For example, a service processes documents quickly and cheaply, but the services themselves do not correspond to what people need. The opposite situation is also possible, when a service does exactly what is needed but spends disproportionately many resources on it. To be successful over a long period, an organization must be both effective and efficient.

The content of the components of a social service's success is set out in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Components of organizational success in the social sphere

Component	Content	Example for a social service
Survival	The organization's ability to exist for a long time while preserving its purpose	Keeping funding for a social service centre after a grant project ends

Component	Content	Example for a social service
Effectiveness	Doing the right things, that is, achieving goals that correspond to needs	Providing exactly the services that community residents need according to the needs assessment
Efficiency	Doing things right, that is, achieving results with rational costs	Planning social care workers' routes to reduce travel time

Source: compiled by the author based on [9; 21; 37]

Survival has its own specifics for a social organization. A commercial firm survives if its product is bought. A social service often works with people who cannot pay for the service, so its existence depends on the decisions of other actors: the local council, the state budget and donors. Hence the special importance of reporting, transparency and the ability to show the community and funders the real results of its work [49]. A service that cannot explain what has changed in people's lives thanks to its work runs the risk of losing support even when it works conscientiously.

Social organization. Society is impossible without organizations such as banks, enterprises, universities, hospitals and transport companies. A person is born in a maternity hospital, brought up in a kindergarten, educated at school and university, serves in the army and works in an institution. All these are types of social organizations, and the life of a modern person practically never goes beyond them.

The term "social organization" is used in three senses [9; 21]. In the first sense, it is an element of the social structure of society, that is, a target group, an association of people of an institutional nature who seek to achieve certain goals in an organized way. Examples are an enterprise, a government body or a union. In the second sense, it is the type of activity of a certain group, that is, the ways of managing people, coordinating their functions and aligning efforts for a certain purpose. In the third sense, it is the degree of internal orderliness and coherence in the functioning of the elements of a system. This refers to the system of social control, social roles and values that ensures the coexistence of community members and order in social life.

Combining these three vectors, the following definition can be given. *A social organization* is a large target group created to achieve certain goals by rational means, division of labour and coordination by governing bodies. In a broader sense, it is a set of behavioural patterns, institutions, social roles and means of control. It ensures the coexistence of community members, harmonizes their aspirations and actions in the process of meeting needs and contributes to solving problems and conflicts [8; 9].

All social organizations have their own names, statutes, goals, fields of activity and working procedures. From the point of view of sociology, however, something else is most important. A social organization has a social hierarchy, a system of statuses and roles, and a complex network of social relations. Various forms of power, leadership, prestige, career advancement, rewards and sanctions, and norms and rules of behaviour operate in it. A large social organization resembles a society in miniature. Whereas the social hierarchy consists of large social groups, the organizational one consists of small ones. These are senior management, line and staff managers, junior managerial staff, office employees and rank-and-file workers [9].

A social organization has three main features. The first is *hierarchy*, that is, the vertical arrangement of people by rank. In the social structure of society people are divided into social groups, whereas in an organization hierarchy divides them by position. The second is *management*, that is, a mechanism that orders the interaction of people striving for higher status and position. The third is *simultaneous differentiation and coordination*. Tasks are distributed among participants, but their performance is aligned for the sake of a common result. The largest social organization is the state [9; 21].

In a social organization the basic unit is not the individual but their role. The position of a social worker exists regardless of who exactly holds it and is defined by the job description, rights and duties. A social organization can therefore be defined as a set of roles united into a system of communication. The role-based approach to organization was developed in detail by D. Katz and R. Kahn. They

showed that other people's expectations regarding the behaviour of a person in a position form the stable framework of an organization. When these expectations are contradictory, role conflict arises [52, p. 184–186]. Social workers often find themselves in exactly this situation, when management expects quick reporting from them and the client expects time and attention.

The features of an organization as a tool for achieving a goal also contain a contradiction. The goal of the organization does not necessarily coincide with the goals of the people who work in it. For some, a social service is a calling; for others, it is a stable job close to home. The organization is therefore forced to create systems of incentives and rewards that bring the personal goals of employees closer to the overall goals of the organization. C. Barnard called this the economy of incentives. In his observation, material reward is in many cases weaker than non-material incentives such as prestige, the opportunity to exert influence and pride in the cause [29, p. 142–149].

The structure of a social organization. The differentiation of tasks and the related coordination determine the form of an organization. *Organizational structure* is the accepted way of distributing activity, coordination and control in an organization. It is fixed in a system of interrelated impersonal statuses (positional and professional), legal norms, unit functions, role positions, business communications, and the forms and methods of decision-making [8; 9]. Organizational structures are compared according to a number of criteria listed in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Criteria for classifying the structures of social organizations

Criterion	What it characterizes	Example for a social service
Degree of differentiation and specialization	Number of separate activities and units	Home care, day care and social adaptation units
Degree of centralization of decisions	Level at which decisions are made	Whether the head of a unit can change the work schedule independently

Criterion	What it characterizes	Example for a social service
Number of hierarchical levels	Length of the scalar chain from the head to the performer	Director – unit head – social care worker
Degree of formalization	Extent to which activity is regulated by written rules	State service standards, internal regulations
Degree of employee autonomy	A specialist's freedom in choosing methods	A psychologist's ability to choose working methods independently
Forms and rigidity of control	How and how often results are checked	Monthly reports, supervision, random checks
Means of communication	Channels and directions of information exchange	Meetings, electronic document management, messenger groups

Source: compiled by the author based on [8; 9; 68]

In addition to structure, a social organization is described by other internal elements: goals, strategy, technology, size, personnel and organizational culture [8; 9]. Their interrelation is shown in Fig. 3.2.

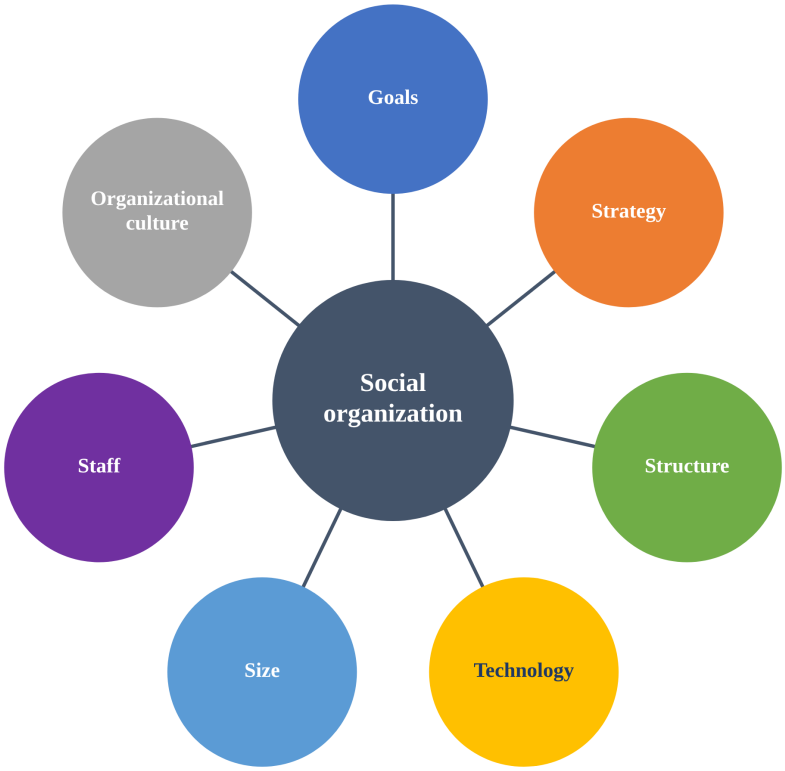


Fig. 3.2. Internal elements of a social organization

Source: compiled by the author based on [8; 9; 74]

The goals of a social organization are an image of the desired future or a planned result. A modern organization has not one goal but a branching system of goals. It includes strategic goals (ensuring access to services for all residents of the community), tactical goals (opening a unit in a starosta district) and operational goals (preparing the premises by the end of the quarter). *Strategy* is a long-term plan for the organization's development, oriented towards the prospects of its relations with the external environment and taking into account real and potential opportunities [9]. *Technology* is an algorithm of activity that ensures the achievement of the planned result. In social work, technologies include case management, social accompaniment, mediation and counselling.

Y. Hasenfeld drew attention to a particular feature of technologies in social organizations. They work with people who have their own values and desires and the capacity to resist influence. Therefore the technologies of such organizations are never fully determinate, and the result depends on the relationship between the worker and the client [47, p. 111–114]. This sets a social service clearly apart from a manufacturing enterprise, where raw materials have no will of their own.

The size of a social organization determines the degree of division of labour, the number of specialized units and the degree of standardization and formalization of activity. *Personnel* is the totality of employees who perform various activities in the organization. Personnel are at the same time the subject of activity and the object of organizational influence, the bearers of skills, knowledge and culture. They have a significant influence on organizational structure and forms of control [8; 9]. A service staffed mainly by experienced specialists with higher education can allow them greater autonomy. A service with high staff turnover has to rely more on detailed instructions.

Organizational culture is an element of the internal environment that determines the forms of organizational behaviour and the ways activity is organized. The best-known definition was proposed by E. Schein. He understands organizational culture as a set of basic assumptions that a group has developed or borrowed in the course of solving problems of external adaptation and internal

integration. These assumptions have worked well enough to be considered valid and are therefore taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel [74, p. 6]. E. Schein distinguishes three levels of culture: artefacts, espoused values and basic underlying assumptions [74, p. 17–29].

In a social service, the artefacts are the design of the premises, the manner of communicating with visitors and the forms of documents. Espoused values are recorded in the statute, mission and code of ethics. Basic assumptions are rarely voiced, although they influence behaviour the most. They include, for example, the belief that the client knows best what they need, or the opposite belief that "the specialist knows better". The gap between espoused values and basic assumptions explains why the right words in a statute do not always change practice [49; 74].

All the internal elements of an organization are interrelated. A change in one of them usually requires changes in the others. If a service receives a new goal, it will have to revise its structure, recruit personnel and master new technologies. Organizational culture changes most slowly, and that is why it often becomes the greatest obstacle to reform.

2. Types of social organizations

Social organizations are classified according to various features: degree of formalization, goals, form of ownership, sources of funding and field of activity. Two classifications are the most important for social management. The first distinguishes formal and informal organizations. The second identifies the organizational forms that take shape in society. The social service is considered separately as a special type of social sector organization.

Formal and informal organizations. Depending on the degree of formalization of relations, formal and informal organizations are distinguished [9; 21]. *Formal organizations* build social relations on the basis of regulated links, statuses and norms. Examples are an industrial enterprise, a firm, a university and a local self-government body. A formal organization is based on the division of labour and its specialization by function. It resembles a pyramid in which tasks are

distributed across several levels. In addition to the horizontal division of labour, it is characterized by coordination, a hierarchy of positions and vertical specialization.

Informal organizations are based on personal relationships and on links chosen by the participants themselves. These are amateur groups, relations of leadership and sympathy, and friendships within a team. An informal organization strongly influences the formal one and seeks to change its relations according to its own needs. Members of an informal group are more independent in achieving individual and group goals and have more freedom in choosing forms of behaviour [9].

C. Barnard argued that a formal organization cannot exist without an informal one. Informal links sustain communication, cohesion and the participants' sense of personal integrity [29, p. 122–123]. Social work practitioners know this well from their own experience. In difficult cases specialists often consult not the person with the higher position but the one with more experience and trust. A wise manager does not fight informal links but uses them for mentoring, onboarding new employees and supporting the team in crises.

One of the criteria by which a formal organization is distinguished from an informal one is the principle of legality. Formal is what is legal, that is, established by orders or by democratic procedures of expressing will [9]. A comparison of the two types of organizations is given in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3

Comparative characteristics of formal and informal organizations

Feature	Formal organization	Informal organization
Basis of relations	Regulations, statuses, written norms	Personal relationships, sympathy, trust
Origin	Created deliberately, registered	Arises spontaneously
Leader	Appointed head	Leader recognized by the group
Control	Administrative, according to rules	Group pressure, approval or condemnation
Legality criterion	Activity recognized by law	Has no legal status

Feature	Formal organization	Informal organization
Example in the social sphere	Social service centre	Mutual support group of parents of children with disabilities

Source: compiled by the author based on [9; 21; 29]

Bureaucracy as a form of formal organization. One of the first to study the nature of organizations scientifically was the German sociologist M. Weber. He showed that as society develops, formal organizations turn into bureaucracies. Management activity in such a system is carried out continuously, documented and broken down into narrow sub-functions, and authority has a clear hierarchy. M. Weber described the features of the ideal type of bureaucracy. They include clearly defined spheres of competence, a hierarchy of offices, the conduct of business on the basis of written documents, special training of officials, work in office as the main occupation, and activity according to general rules [81, p. 956–958].



Fig. 3.3. Features of a bureaucratic organization according to M. Weber

Source: compiled by the author based on [81]

In everyday speech the word “bureaucracy” has a negative connotation, but for M. Weber it was the most rational form of management. Bureaucracy ensures predictability, precision and equal treatment of everyone, since the official acts “without anger or passion”, according to general rules [81, p. 975]. This is of great

importance for the social sphere. A decision to grant assistance should not depend on whether the official likes the person. At the same time, bureaucratic logic has its price. General rules do not always take into account the features of a particular life situation, and formal compliance with a procedure may become more important than helping a person. Excessive bureaucratization of social services manifests itself in endless certificates, queues and refusals "on formal grounds".

Organizational forms of social organizations. Three main organizational forms of social organizations take shape in society [9; 21]. They are systematized in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Organizational forms of social organizations

Form	Source of goals	Mode of regulation	Examples
Business organizations	Set by the founder or a wider system	Administrative, by position	Enterprises, educational and health care institutions, research institutions, social service centres
Public unions (mass organizations)	Formed "from within" as a generalization of members' goals	Statute, elected leadership	Parties, trade unions, associations, condominium associations, social movements
Associative organizations	Arise from shared interests, norms and values	Spontaneous, little formalization	Family, scientific school, informal group

Source: compiled by the author based on [9; 21]

Business organizations are firms and institutions that arise for commercial purposes or are created by wider organizational systems to solve particular tasks. They include organizations producing goods and services, educational institutions, health care, recreation and sports facilities, and research institutions. Social service centres are also business organizations, set up by a local self-government body to implement social policy in its territory.

Public unions (mass organizations) form their goals "from within" by generalizing the individual goals of their members. Regulation in them is ensured by a jointly adopted statute and by the elective principle, that is, the dependence of the leadership on those it leads. There is one subtlety associated with this term. In sociological literature, a "public union" means any voluntary mass association. Ukrainian legislation, however, distinguishes two organizational and legal forms of civic association. A civic organization is founded and formed by natural persons, whereas a civic union is formed by legal entities of private law, which natural persons may join [13]. For a social manager this distinction is of practical importance. For example, partnership with a non-state service provider or participation in a social commissioning tender depends on it.

Associative organizations are the family, a scientific school and an informal group. They have a certain autonomy from the environment, a hierarchy in the form of seniority or leadership, a relatively stable distribution of roles and prestige, and joint decision-making. Regulatory functions here are carried out spontaneously, on the basis of shared interests, norms and values, and the degree of formalization is low [9]. For social work, associative organizations are important above all as an object of assistance (the family) and as a resource of support (mutual aid groups, neighbourhood communities).

Power, authority and leadership. Three related but non-identical mechanisms of influence operate in any social organization. *Power* is a form of social relations characterized by the ability to influence the behaviour of others through administrative and legal mechanisms. *Authority* is a personal characteristic, the generally recognized standing and influence a person enjoys thanks to their own qualities and merits. Authority rests on respect and on others' recognition of the person's merits. Whereas authority implies voluntary submission, power implies forced submission. *Leadership* is a relationship of influence and following within the system of intragroup relations. In other words, it is a socio-psychological process of influencing formally equal people. A leader is a group member to whom the group grants the right to make decisions in the most important situations [9; 21].

The sources of influence in an organization were classified in detail by J. French and B. Raven. They identified five bases of power: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent and expert power [42, p. 155–164]. The first three bases are linked to the position, the last two to the personality. This classification explains well the difference between power and authority. The features of the three mechanisms of influence are compared in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5

Power, authority and leadership in a social organization

Feature	Power	Authority	Leadership
Source	Position, administrative and legal mechanisms	Personal qualities and merits	Recognition by the group
Nature of submission	Forced	Voluntary	Voluntary, through following
Scope	Formal structure	The whole organization and beyond	Mainly the group
Bases of power according to J. French and B. Raven	Legitimate, reward, coercive	Expert, referent	Referent, expert
Risk for a social service	Formal compliance with instructions	Dependence on one person	An informal leader in opposition to the head

Source: compiled by the author based on [9; 21; 42]

The ideal situation for a social service is when the head combines formal power with authority and recognized leadership. In practice this does not always happen. A director appointed “from above” may not be accepted by the team, while an experienced social worker without any managerial position becomes the real centre of gravity. In such cases a wise manager involves the informal leader in decision-making instead of competing with them. Leadership and management styles are discussed in more detail in Topics 6 and 7.

The social service. A social sector organization is a systematized, structured, public and conscious unification of people’s actions to achieve an effective result in solving a social problem [3; 21]. A social service is understood as a certain type of

business organization in the social sphere. It is entrusted with implementing social policy in a certain territory as a whole or in a specific area.

A social service has three main features [3; 21]. The first is the legal status of its activity, defined by the relevant statutes and regulations. The second is an organizational structure that reflects the specifics of its activity and working conditions. The third is the practical provision of social assistance, protection and support within this status. In the legislative logic of Ukraine, a social service is a provider of social services. The Law "On Social Services" distinguishes two groups of providers. The first includes providers of the state and municipal sector, the second those of the non-state sector. The non-state sector includes civic and charitable organizations, religious organizations, enterprises and individual entrepreneurs [20]. All of them operate under uniform state service standards but differ in their sources of funding, structure and organizational culture.

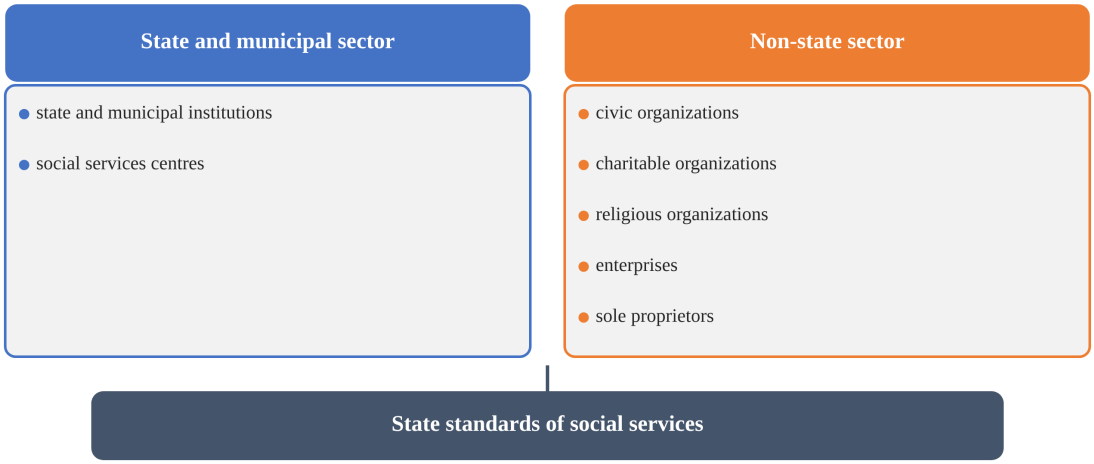


Fig. 3.4. Providers of social services in Ukraine

Source: compiled by the author based on [20]

In foreign literature, the concept of "human service organizations" is used to describe social services. Y. Hasenfeld defines them as organizations whose main function is to protect, maintain or enhance the personal well-being of people. They do this by defining, shaping or altering their personal attributes [47, p. 1]. According to the nature of their technology, he distinguishes three types of such organizations [47, p. 4–6]. The first are people-processing organizations, which confer a status on people that opens access to services. An example is a social protection body that

determines eligibility for assistance. The second are people-sustaining organizations, which prevent people's condition from deteriorating. Such are homes for older people and home care services. The third are people-changing organizations, for example rehabilitation centres or social adaptation services. Each type requires its own structure and its own management style.

Y. Hasenfeld's typology as applied to Ukrainian realities is presented in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6

Types of human service organizations according to Y. Hasenfeld

Type	What it changes in a person	Ukrainian examples	Key management task
People-processing organizations	Status, eligibility for a service	Social protection bodies, administrative service centres, children's services	Speed, accuracy and fairness of procedures
People-sustaining organizations	Prevent deterioration of condition	Territorial care centres, residential care	Quality of care, prevention of staff burnout
People-changing organizations	Behaviour, skills, independence	Rehabilitation centres, social adaptation services for veterans	Client motivation, individual plans, evaluation of results

Source: compiled by the author based on [20; 47]

Contradictions in the activities of social services. Several contradictions are superimposed on the practical activities of social services [9; 21]. The first arises between the requirements of civil servant status and the requirements of professional social work. In the first case, the social worker represents the interests of the state and controls the clients' environment. In the second, the social worker stands primarily on the client's side, respects their worldview and does not depend on the official who disposes of resources.

This contradiction was explored in depth by M. Lipsky in his work on street-level bureaucracy. This is what he called public service workers who interact directly with citizens and have considerable discretion in how they apply rules [61, p. 3].

Social workers, teachers and police officers actually make public policy through their everyday decisions. Working amid a chronic shortage of time and resources, they develop their own informal rules and simplifications. They decide for themselves whom to help first, how much time to devote and how to interpret an unclear norm [61, p. 83–86]. An important conclusion follows for the manager of a social service. The quality of services depends not only on written standards but also on the conditions in which workers make their everyday decisions.

The second contradiction exists between the regularities of command-administrative and market management. Administrative management relies on planned targets, the monopoly of state power, hierarchical relations, the priority of instructions and an authoritarian style. Market management presupposes pluralism of ownership, equal partnership, self-government of organizations, a democratic style and the priority of economic methods [9; 21]. The Ukrainian social sphere is right in the middle of the transition from the first model to the second. Social commissioning, competitions among providers and contracted services coexist here with strict budgetary regulation and traditions of centralized control [12; 20].

The third contradiction lies in the gap between the tasks of social policy and the realities of social work. A law may guarantee the right to a service, but the community has no specialist to provide it. A standard may require regular visits, but the service has no transport for remote villages. Under such conditions, the manager of a social service becomes an intermediary between policy and life. They constantly have to look for resources, partners and non-standard solutions [12; 49].

All three contradictions are compared in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7

Contradictions in the activities of social services and ways of mitigating them

Contradiction	Manifestation in practice	Managerial means of mitigation
Civil servant – professional social worker	Control or support of the client, formal or genuine help	Supervision, code of ethics, clear limits of discretion
Administrative – market management	Planned targets alongside competitions and contracts	Social commissioning, transparent quality criteria

Contradiction	Manifestation in practice	Managerial means of mitigation
Social policy – realities of social work	A guaranteed service without a specialist, a standard without resources	Needs assessment, partnerships, attracting additional sources

Source: compiled by the author based on [9; 21; 49; 61]

As M. Hughes and M. Wearing observe, management in social work cannot be reduced to technical administration. A manager here always works with value conflicts, for example between the client's rights and the organization's requirements, or between professional norms and budget constraints [49]. The ability to recognize these conflicts and work with them openly is one of the key competencies of a social manager.

The system of social management appears as a multilevel formation. At the top level is the state as the largest social organization, which defines social policy and standards. Next come local self-government bodies, which plan and fund social services in communities. At the basic level are social services and other service providers. Alongside them operate civic associations, charitable foundations and associative forms of self-organization of the population [8; 12]. The effectiveness of such a system depends on how coherently all its levels and elements act.

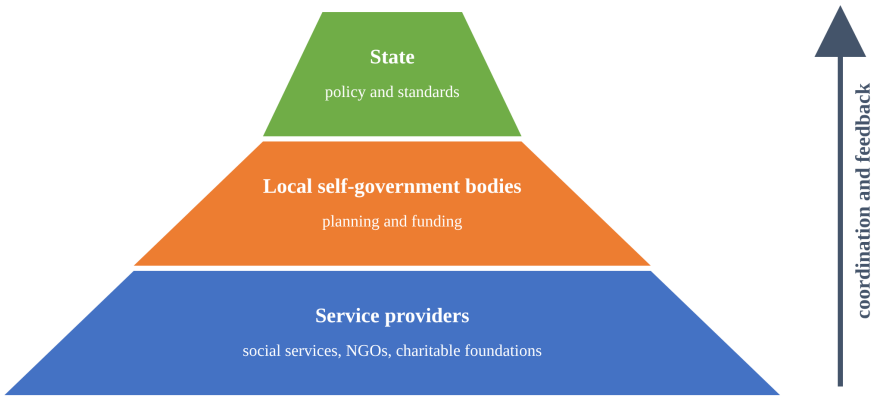


Fig. 3.5. Levels of the social management system

Source: developed by the author based on [8; 12; 20]

The organization, its structure and types, the power and authority within it, and the features of the social service together form the space in which a social

manager operates. Knowing how their organization is built and what its internal order rests on, a manager can consciously change structure, culture and rules rather than merely react to the next crisis [29; 74].

Case “Between protocol and the person”

The municipal institution “Social Services Centre” of the fictional Yablunivka rural territorial community serves twenty-three villages. It has a staff of twenty-six. The director of the centre, a former deputy village head, has a degree in economics and more than ten years of experience in local self-government. He values order, demands timely reports and regularly repeats that “the centre is a budget institution, not a charitable foundation”.

The most experienced employee of the centre is Olena, a social work specialist who holds a master’s degree in social work and has completed training in case management. Colleagues often turn to her for advice, even when the matter formally concerns other units. At meetings it is often her opinion that proves decisive, although she does not hold a managerial position.

In March the centre received a request concerning an elderly man from a remote village. He lives alone, has vision problems, and his only daughter has gone abroad. The home care service standard provides for two visits by a social care worker per week. However, the nearest social care worker lives twelve kilometres away, the centre has no service car, and the bus runs twice a week. Olena suggested reaching an agreement with the local religious community, whose volunteers already deliver groceries to this village, and concluding a cooperation agreement with it. The director refused, saying that such a form is not provided for in the centre’s statute and “the inspectors won’t understand it”.

Meanwhile, the village council announced its intention to introduce social commissioning and hold a competition for the provision of home care. Both the centre and a civic organization set up several years ago by women activists from the same villages can take part in it. Some of the centre’s employees fear that the competition will mean staff cuts. Others, on the contrary, see it as a chance for

partnership. The director instructed Olena to prepare an analytical note for the session of the village council but warned that it “must contain no criticism of the management”.

Case tasks

1. Describe the Social Services Centre of the Yablunivka community as a social organization. Which of its features can you identify from the text of the case? To which type of human service organization according to Y. Hasenfeld can it be assigned?

2. Explain which bases of power (according to J. R. P. French and B. Raven) the director has and which Olena has. Why can Olena’s informal authority become both a resource and a source of conflict?

3. Which contradictions in the activities of a social service became apparent in the situation with the elderly man? How can they be related to M. Lipsky’s idea of street-level bureaucracy?

4. Compare the capabilities of the centre, the civic organization and the religious community as providers of social services under the Law of Ukraine “On Social Services”. Propose a model of interaction between them under social commissioning.

5. Prepare an outline of the analytical note for the session of the village council. How can the problems be shown honestly without violating the requirements of organizational subordination?

Self-check questions

1. How did C. I. Barnard define an organization, and which elements did he consider essential for its existence?

2. Name the four characteristics common to all organizations.

3. According to P. F. Drucker, how does efficiency differ from effectiveness? How does this distinction apply to social services?

4. In what senses is the concept of “social organization” used?

5. Define a social organization and name its main features.

6. What roles do people perform in an organization, and how do D. Katz and R. L. Kahn explain them?

7. By what criteria are the structures of social organizations classified?

8. Name the internal elements of an organization and show how they are interrelated.

9. How do the goal, strategy and technology of a social organization differ?

10. Which levels of organizational culture does E. H. Schein distinguish? Give examples for a social service.

11. How does a formal organization differ from an informal one? How can a manager use informal groups for the benefit of the work?

12. Name the main features of a bureaucratic organization according to M. Weber. Which of them are useful and which are harmful for a social service?

13. Which organizational forms of social organizations do you know?

14. How does a civic organization differ from a civic union under Ukrainian legislation?

15. Distinguish between the concepts of “power”, “authority” and “leadership”.

16. Describe the five bases of power according to J. R. P. French and B. Raven.

17. What is a social service? Name its three main features.

18. Which providers of social services are defined by the Law of Ukraine “On Social Services”?

19. Which three types of human service organizations does Y. Hasenfeld distinguish?

20. Explain the three contradictions in the activities of social services and propose ways of mitigating them.

Topic 4. Social project design

Lecture plan

1. Social project design as a tool of social management
2. Elements of social project design
3. Managerial models in the social sphere

1. Social project design as a tool of social management

Sooner or later every social service faces a problem for which its usual procedures have no answer. New groups of service recipients appear in the community, sources of funding change, and the state introduces new standards. Everyday administration does not cover such changes. What is needed is a tool that makes it possible to think through the future state of an organization or community in advance, choose the path towards it and check whether that path really leads to the goal. Social project design is such a tool.

Social project design was substantiated as a separate branch of sociology in the twentieth century. The initial principles of this field were developed by J. Dietrich, D. Frey, F. Hanyk and other researchers [3; 8]. In essence, design covers practically all spheres of human and social activity, from planning cities and production facilities to creating new educational or social institutions. The distinctive feature of social project design is that its object is not a thing or a technical system but social relations, processes and institutions, that is, people and the links between them.

In applied form, project design expresses the forecasting function of management. When it comes to a future reality, a manager cannot confine themselves to reacting to current events. They have to anticipate. The essence of social project design is that a person or an organization, before doing something, always considers several options for action. After comparing them, one of them is preferred [3; 21]. Design differs from ordinary planning in that it involves creating a new state of the object rather than simply distributing existing resources over time.

Educational literature defines social project design as the process of preparing, developing and implementing one of the options for the future functioning of a social organization and its employees, including members of their families, in newly created conditions, that is, in reorganized social processes and phenomena [3; 21]. This definition has several important components. First, design is a process rather than a one-off act. Second, it covers three stages, from preparation to implementation. Third, the subject of design is not only the structure of the organization but also the lives of the people connected with it.

Alongside the sociological understanding, a project-based understanding is common in management. The Project Management Institute defines a project as a temporary endeavour undertaken to create a unique product, service or result [26, p. 4]. Temporariness means that there is a definite beginning and end. Uniqueness means that the result of the project does not replicate existing ones, even if similar projects have been implemented before. For a social service these features are of practical importance. Opening a new day care unit is a project. The subsequent everyday work of this unit already belongs to ongoing operations.

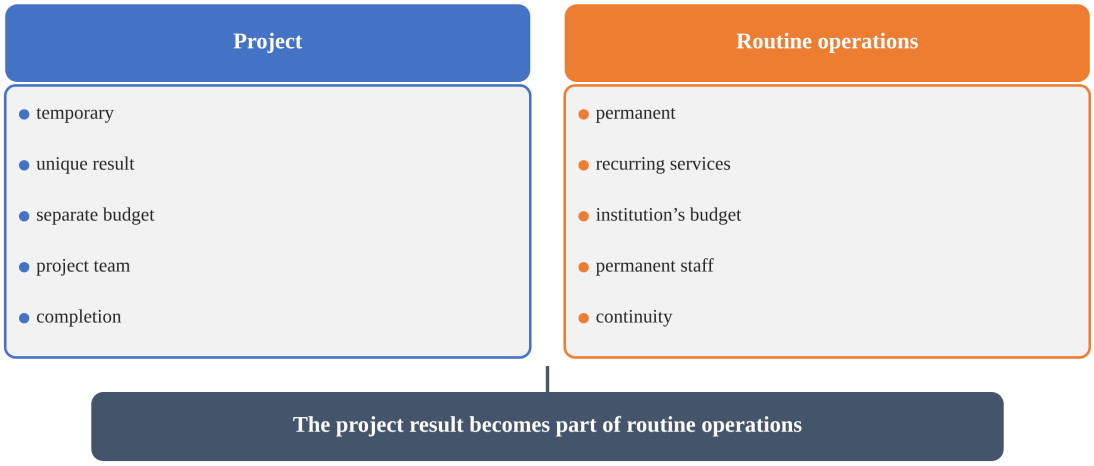


Fig. 4.1. Project management and ongoing operations of a social service

Source: developed by the author based on [9; 26]

Social projects vary in their significance for society as a whole, for a particular community or for certain groups. In any case, however, a social project transforms the existing reality and brings it into a qualitatively new state [3]. This is where both its strength and its risk lie. A project intervenes in established relations and may

therefore have latent consequences that are not always positive. It can provoke a sharp, including negative, reaction from the groups whose interests it affects.

The problem of the unanticipated consequences of purposive social action was described as early as 1936 by the American sociologist R. K. Merton. He identified several reasons why a well-intended action does not produce the expected result [66, p. 898–904]. Among them is ignorance, that is, lack of information about the situation. The second reason is error in appraisal or in applying habitual ways of acting to new conditions. The third is the "imperious immediacy of interest", when the desire for a quick result overrides attention to remote consequences. The fourth is related to basic values that forbid considering certain options. Finally, the fifth reason is that the very publication of a prediction changes people's behaviour and defeats it. All these reasons are easy to recognize in social projects. For example, a programme that provides cash support to families only on condition of official unemployment may imperceptibly encourage people not to look for work.

Therefore, the specifics of designing a social system must be taken into account in project activity. A social system consists of people who have their own interests, values and expectations. They do not simply carry out decisions but interpret them, agree with them or resist them. A project developed without their participation runs the risk of remaining on paper even if its technical preparation is flawless [8; 49].

Forms of existence of a social project. A social project can exist in two main forms [3; 21]. The first is a self-sufficient unit that changes the existing state of an object over time. An example is a project to create an early intervention service in a community for families with children with developmental disorders. It has its own goal, budget and completion date. The second form is part of a social programme consisting of several sub-projects. For instance, a regional programme to support internally displaced persons may include projects on housing, employment, psychological assistance and the integration of children into educational institutions. Separately, each of these projects solves a narrow task, but together they produce a comprehensive result.

The distinction between a project, a programme and a plan is presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

The relationship between the concepts of "plan", "programme" and "project" in the social sphere

Feature	Plan	Programme	Project
Purpose	Distribution of resources and tasks over time	Achieving a strategic goal through a set of measures	Creating a specific new result
Duration	Usually a year or another reporting period	Several years	Limited, from several months to several years
Structure	List of activities and responsible persons	Set of related projects and measures	Goal, objectives, activities, resources, results
Example	Annual work plan of a social service centre	Social protection programme of a community	Opening a day care unit for people with disabilities

Source: compiled by the author based on [9; 26; 39]

Benefits of implementing social projects. For the organization that initiates a social project, it can bring several kinds of benefits [3; 21]. Economic benefits arise when a project generates income or reduces costs. For example, a social enterprise that employs people with disabilities earns income from selling its products and at the same time reduces the community's need for payments. Tactical benefits are related to communication. Presenting a social project in the media is much cheaper than direct advertising on television or the Internet. Strategic benefits consist in building an image. A company that supports social projects establishes itself as a socially responsible business willing to solve more than just its own problems.

These kinds of benefits can be combined harmoniously. An enterprise that funds the renovation of an inclusive space at a school receives positive publications, strengthens the trust of community residents and at the same time attracts future employees. For public and civic organizations the list of benefits is different, but the logic is the same. A community that has implemented a successful project gains not

only a new service but also experience, partners and arguments for subsequent grant applications [12].

Typology of social projects. Social projects are classified according to various features. The most common of them are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Classification of social projects

Feature	Types of projects	Example
Scale	Local, regional, national, international	Community project; regional programme; national reform
Duration	Short-term (up to a year), medium-term (1–3 years), long-term (over 3 years)	Summer camp for IDP children; three-year rehabilitation programme
Content	Educational, social and household, rehabilitation, cultural, human rights	Digital literacy courses for older people
Nature of change	Evolutionary (improving what exists) and innovative (creating something fundamentally new)	Updating a service standard; introducing a new service
Initiator	State, municipal, civic, corporate	A CSO project funded by an international donor

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 8; 21]

Social project design in Ukrainian legislation. In Ukraine, social project design has a clear regulatory basis. The Law "On Social Services" obliges local self-government bodies to identify the population's needs for social services, plan their provision and involve providers of various forms of ownership in this [20]. The Procedure for Organizing the Provision of Social Services approved by the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine details these procedures [18]. In effect, a community goes through the logic of a project every time. First it assesses needs, then it formulates goals, chooses a method of service provision, allocates resources and evaluates the result.

Social commissioning occupies a special place among these mechanisms. It enables a community not to maintain its own institution for every service but to commission the service from a non-state provider on a competitive basis [20]. For a

manager this means a transition from managing an institution to managing projects and contracts. The manager is required to be able to formulate terms of reference, define outcome indicators, evaluate the bids of competition participants and monitor implementation.

In European practice, the Project Cycle Management approach is used for such tasks. The European Commission distinguishes five phases of the cycle: programming, identification, formulation, implementation, and evaluation and audit [39, p. 16]. In the programming phase, general priorities are defined. Identification consists in searching for and pre-selecting project ideas. During formulation, the idea is turned into a detailed project with a budget. Implementation covers carrying out the planned activities and monitoring. Evaluation shows whether the objectives have been achieved, and its conclusions feed back into the programming phase. This approach has spread in Ukraine mainly thanks to European Union grant programmes in which communities and civil society organizations take part.

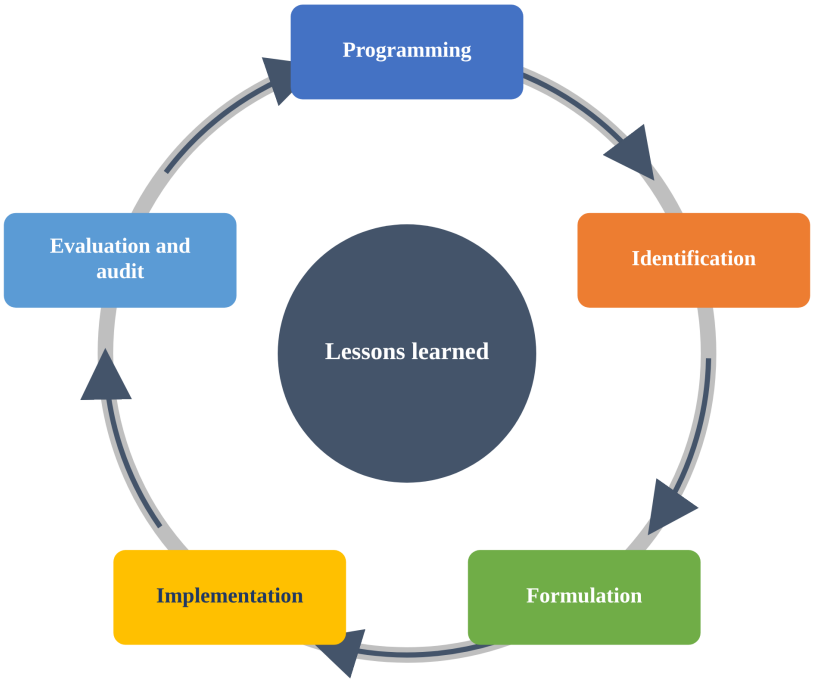


Fig. 4.2. The project management cycle

Source: developed by the author based on [39, p. 16]

The cyclical nature is fundamental here. A social project does not end with a report. Its results and mistakes become input information for subsequent decisions. A service that does not analyse completed projects is doomed to repeat the same failures, even while changing names and donors.

2. Elements of social project design

To design means to consciously select options and a scheme for future action. Social projects are very diverse, but there are a number of general requirements for their preparation, development and implementation [3; 8]. These requirements orient the team towards the final result. They also prevent the main questions from getting lost among everyday matters and operational plans.

In principle, every project resolves three main questions. The first concerns who will design. The second is what exactly needs to be designed. The third is how to organize the design process itself [3]. Behind the simplicity of these questions lie complex management decisions. The answer to the first determines the composition of the team, the distribution of roles and responsibility. The second question defines the subject and boundaries of the project, that is, what is included in it and what is not. The third concerns methods, timelines, resources and ways of making decisions.

The subject of design. An organization that undertakes social project design should ensure that ideas are generated with as many professionally trained people as possible involved in this work [3]. A project developed by one manager in their office is usually weaker than a project in which specialists from different fields took part. It is even better when the service recipients themselves are involved. In social work this principle also has an ethical dimension. The people for whom a service is created have the right to influence what it will be like. That is why participatory design methods are becoming increasingly common, such as focus groups with recipients, public hearings and joint working groups of service and community representatives [12].

The object of design. The answer to the question “what should be designed?” begins with an analysis of the problem. P. M. Kettner, R. M. Moroney and L. L.

Martin emphasize that an effective social service programme should be based on a clearly formulated hypothesis. This hypothesis explains why the problem arose and why exactly the proposed actions should solve it [53, p. 20–25]. If a service cannot explain how its activity is linked to a change in people's situation, it runs the risk of providing services for years that change nothing. The authors propose distinguishing between the direct products of activity (outputs), that is, the number of consultations, visits and trainings, and results (outcomes), that is, changes in the lives of recipients [53, p. 13–15]. It is the outcomes that constitute the real object of a social project.

The "problem tree" method is often used to analyse a problem. The central problem is placed in the middle of the diagram. Causes are placed below and effects above. Next, the problem tree is transformed into an "objective tree". Each negative state is reformulated as a desired positive one, and the causes become means of achieving the goal [39, p. 69–74].

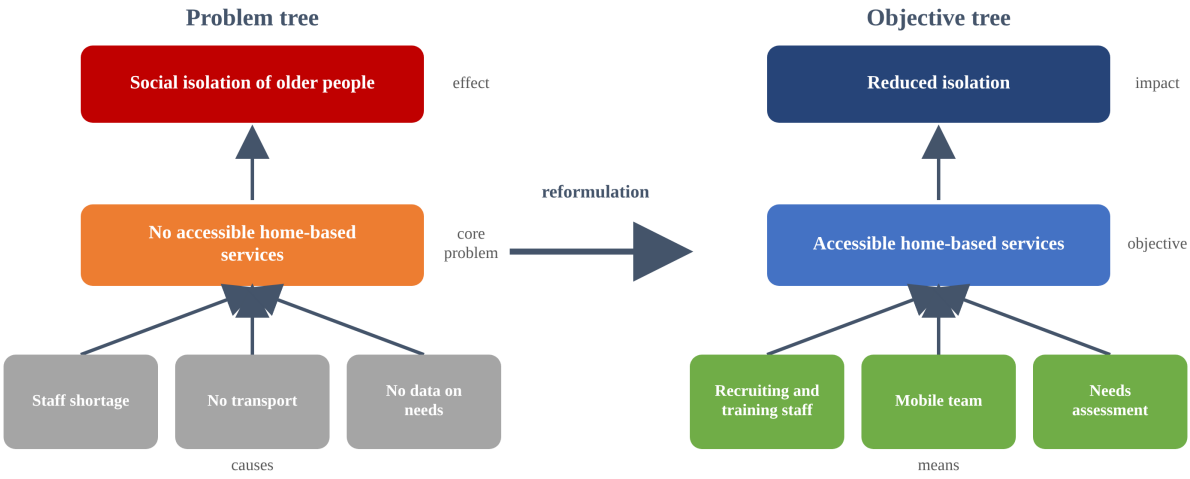


Fig. 4.3. From the problem tree to the objective tree

Source: developed by the author based on [39, p. 69–74]

Formulating objectives. A project objective is formulated so that it can be verified. For this purpose managers most often use the SMART criteria proposed by G. T. Doran in 1981 [35, p. 36]. He wrote that a well-formulated objective should be specific, measurable, assignable, realistic and time-related. Later the literature began to interpret these letters somewhat differently, for example "A" as "achievable", but the essence remained the same. Compare two formulations. "To improve the situation of older people in the community" cannot be verified. "By

December of next year, to provide home care to at least 40 older people living alone in the community's remote villages" is easy to verify.

The SMART criteria are useful, but G. T. Doran himself noted that not every objective has to meet all five requirements at once [35, p. 36]. Some social outcomes are difficult to measure quantitatively. Trust, a sense of security and the quality of family relationships have no simple numerical indicators. Qualitative evaluation methods are used for them, for example interviews, observation or self-assessment scales.

Organizing the design process. The question "how should we design?" is answered by the Logical Framework Approach. Its result is a logical framework matrix, which the European Commission requires from most projects applying for funding [39, p. 57–60]. The matrix has four levels: the overall objective, the specific objective of the project, the expected results and the activities. For each level, objectively verifiable indicators, sources of verification and assumptions are defined, the latter being the external conditions on which success depends. The structure of the matrix is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Logical framework matrix of a social project (using the example of a home care service)

Level	Intervention logic	Indicators	Sources of verification	Assumptions
Overall objective	Reducing the social isolation of older people in the community	Share of older people living alone who have regular social contacts	Surveys, social service centre data	The community maintains funding for the social sphere
Specific objective	Accessible home care in remote villages	Number of recipients, average waiting time for the service	Registration log, reports	Recipients agree to the service
Results	A mobile team has been set up; 6 social care workers have been trained	Number of trained specialists, number of trips per month	Certificates, route sheets	Specialists stay with the service

Level	Intervention logic	Indicators	Sources of verification	Assumptions
Activities	Purchase of a car, training, needs assessment, route planning	Budget, work schedule	Financial reports	Fuel prices are stable

Source: compiled by the author based on [39, p. 57–60; 53]

The left column of the matrix reflects the vertical logic of the project. If the activities are carried out and the assumptions hold, the results will be obtained. If the results are achieved and the assumptions of the next level hold, the specific objective will be achieved, and so on. The horizontal logic shows how to verify each of these statements. The matrix does not replace the project description, but it disciplines thinking. It forces the team to answer honestly whether the planned activities really lead to the declared goal.

Resources and budget. The last element of preparation is planning resources: human, material, financial, information and time resources. The budget of a social project is usually divided into direct costs, that is, wages, equipment, transport and materials, and indirect costs, that is, the administrative expenses of the organization [9; 21]. The contribution of the organization itself and of its partners is considered separately. Donors increasingly require co-financing, because it demonstrates the applicant's commitment and increases the chances that the activity will continue after the grant ends. The question of sustainability, that is, who will fund the service after the project ends, should be thought through at the planning stage rather than in the last month of implementation [39, p. 25–27].

Testing ideas and the possibility of failure. Social project design also takes into account the possibility of an unsuccessful experiment when ideas are tested [3]. If the result does not meet expectations, a careful analysis of the causes is needed. One has to find out whether the discrepancy is due to objective circumstances or to miscalculations during the experiment. In the first case, the idea can be kept and tried under other conditions. In the second, the method of implementation itself will have to be changed.

In the social sphere, the safest way of testing is a pilot project. A new service is first introduced in one starosta district or for a small group of recipients. Then the pilot data are analysed, and only after that is the service extended to the whole community. This approach reduces the cost of a mistake. In addition, it gives staff and recipients time to get used to the new arrangement.

Obstacles to project design. A whole range of factors hinders success [3; 8]. These include distrust of original solutions, the desire to implement a project as quickly as possible and an insufficiently effective system for rewarding initiative. Satisfaction with the existing state of affairs and a focus solely on past achievements also cause harm. As a result, people become unwilling to take risks and prefer to follow previously established canons. In state and municipal institutions, fear of inspections is added to this. Employees often believe that they will be punished for an unsuccessful experiment, whereas nobody will ask them about inaction.

Much also depends on subjective conditions, above all on the personality of the designer. Their ability to think competently and unconventionally, professional skill and commitment to achieving the intended goals are important [3]. Negative consequences often arise from a lack of flexibility in perceiving new ideas and from the habit of acting according to a template.

People's attitudes towards innovations were studied in detail by E. M. Rogers. In his theory of the diffusion of innovations, he showed that members of any community do not adopt something new at the same time. He identified five categories: innovators (about 2.5 %), early adopters (13.5 %), the early majority (34 %), the late majority (34 %) and laggards (16 %) [73, p. 280–281]. For the manager of a social project this typology has practical meaning. First, the manager looks for those in the team and the community who are ready to support the idea. Their experience becomes an argument for the majority. The resistance of the last group is entirely predictable and does not mean that the project is wrong.

The obstacles and ways of overcoming them are summarized in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4

Obstacles to social project design and managerial means of overcoming them

Group of obstacles	Manifestations	Means of overcoming
Organizational	Weak system for rewarding initiative, rigid regulation, fear of inspections	Pilot projects, public recognition of the authors of ideas, permission to make mistakes within an experiment
Psychological	Distrust of original solutions, habit of acting according to a template, fear of risk	Involving employees in development, relying on "early adopters"
Methodological	Haste, lack of needs assessment, vague objectives	Problem tree, SMART criteria, logical framework matrix
Resource-related	Short-term grant funding, shortage of specialists	Sustainability plan, co-financing, partnership with other providers

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 8; 39; 73]

Comprehensiveness and a scientific basis. The distinctive feature of social project design is that it is aimed at solving problems that comprehensively cover all social aspects [3]. Social projects can and should therefore be developed at the level of an organization, a community, a district, a region and the country. A lower-level project must be consistent with higher-level priorities. Otherwise a community may spend its efforts on a service that will later be duplicated by a regional or national programme.

Social project design requires knowledge of the laws and trends of social development and therefore relies on scientific methods. A project concept is usually tested in two ways. The first is theoretical analysis, the second is an experiment [3; 21]. Theoretical analysis answers the question of whether the idea is consistent with known data on the problem and the experience of other communities or countries. An experiment, including a pilot project, tests the idea in real conditions. The two methods complement each other, and neither replaces the other.

The decision as the final stage. At the final stage of design, a decision is made. It takes the form of a specific action programme that, within given parameters,

defines the means of achieving the goal under certain constraints [3]. The decision also contains possible options, timelines, the main stages and the sequence of operations. In the practice of social services, such a decision is formalized as an order of the head, a decision of a council session or an agreement with a donor.

The effectiveness and efficiency of project design. The effectiveness of social project design depends on the nature of social projects and their differences, ranging from projects of evolutionary change to the creation of fundamentally new structures [3]. It also depends to a large extent on how well the project fits the economic needs of society and the region. A project that ignores economic or environmental constraints may be good in its conception but impracticable or harmful. For example, building a large residential institution in a community where few residents remain and there are no staff will result in the expensive upkeep of empty premises.

The efficiency of social project design is determined by its capacity to ensure the comprehensive development of a social object [3; 21]. Modern literature assesses it according to several criteria. The European Commission recommends taking into account relevance, efficiency in the sense of economy, effectiveness, impact and sustainability [39, p. 46–47]. Relevance shows whether the project corresponds to real needs. Efficiency characterizes the ratio between the resources spent and the results obtained. Effectiveness reflects the degree to which the specific objective has been achieved. Impact concerns broader changes, including unplanned ones. Sustainability means that the benefits are maintained after funding ends.

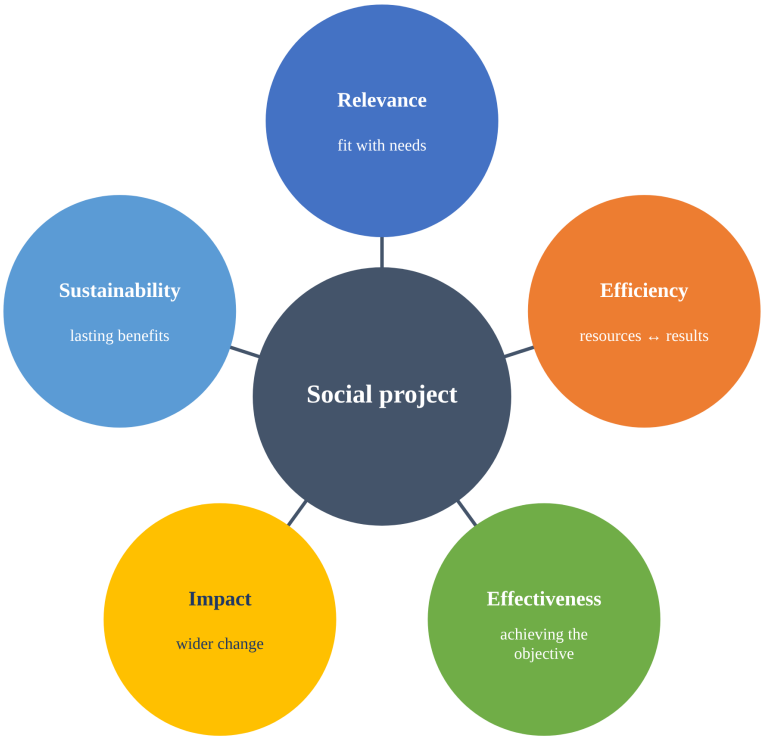


Fig. 4.4. Criteria for evaluating a social project

Source: developed by the author based on [39, p. 46–47]

Social adaptation when designing new organizations. When a new organization is designed, the process of employees' social adaptation becomes very important [3]. It begins with informing people about the nature of their future work and the living and working conditions in the organization. Successful adaptation is linked to job satisfaction and to obtaining or upgrading qualifications. During design it should be remembered that some professions may disappear as the organization develops. Others will change their purpose significantly, and still others will become just one stage in people's socio-professional development. For example, with the digitalization of recipient registration, part of the routine paperwork disappears, while a need for data analytics and case management arises.

As J. P. Kotter observed, most failed organizational changes are not caused by a poor idea. Their cause lies in the mistakes of managers. They failed to create a sense of urgency, did not form a guiding coalition, did not communicate the vision or declared victory too soon [56, p. 4–16]. For a social service this means that a project for a new organization or a new service should contain not only a structure

and a budget. A plan for working with the people affected by these changes is no less important.

3. Managerial models in the social sphere

A project is implemented by people, and the way they interact determines the management model of an organization. The same idea may lead to completely different results in different services. Everything depends on who makes decisions, how information moves and how freely employees can propose changes.

The literature distinguishes three main models of management in the social sphere: hierarchical, collective and developmental [3; 9]. The first two have become the most popular. The hierarchical model is often called American, and the collective model Japanese. These names are conventional, since both approaches are found in modern American and Japanese organizations. Nevertheless, they convey the cultural origins of each model well.

The hierarchical model. This model is typical of many social systems in Ukraine. It is more rational for the system and basic levels of social work, where standard procedures and high responsibility for compliance with norms prevail [3; 21]. The model has the following dominant features. Decision-making and control powers are concentrated exclusively in the hands of the head of the social service. Communication is mainly one-way and takes the form of “orders from above”. The competence of employees is strictly regulated. The potential for changing the organization’s structure is small.

The hierarchical model rests on the tradition of rational bureaucracy discussed in Topic 3. Its strengths are predictability, a clear allocation of responsibility and the equality of all recipients before the rules. Where it comes to granting payments, verifying eligibility for a service or protecting personal data, these qualities are very important. Its weaknesses become apparent when the situation changes rapidly. Information from the “front line” reaches the head slowly, and decisions come too late. Employees, meanwhile, get used to waiting for instructions and do not take responsibility.

The collective model. In the collective model hierarchy is almost absent, and solidarity prevails among specialists [3; 9]. Employees' self-determination and self-control are highly important. Decisions are made through discussion. The function of the head is above all to be a trusted representative of all employees. Their task is modelling and coordination. The path of information is very short, on the principle of "everyone informs everyone". Informal discussion of various work issues within the team helps to generalize experience and adjust the tasks of social work. At the same time, a synergistic effect arises, when the result of joint work exceeds the sum of individual efforts.

The cultural background of the collective model was studied by W. G. Ouchi. In his book "Theory Z" he compared typical American (Type A) and Japanese (Type J) organizations [71, p. 48–58]. Japanese organizations, in his observation, were characterized by lifetime employment, slow evaluation and promotion, non-specialized career paths, collective decision-making and collective responsibility. Control in them was subtle and implicit, and concern for the employee covered their life as a whole. American Type A organizations had the opposite features: short-term employment, rapid evaluation, narrow specialization, explicit control, individual decisions and individual responsibility. W. G. Ouchi proposed Type Z as a combination of the best features of both approaches [71, p. 71–94]. In such organizations decisions are made collectively, but responsibility remains individual.

In the social sphere, the collective model works best in small teams of specialists with a similar level of training. An example is the multidisciplinary team of a rehabilitation centre or a group of psychologists in a civil society organization. The risks of the model are linked to blurred responsibility and slow decisions in crises. If a child is in danger, a lengthy discussion is unacceptable. In addition, in large teams the principle of "everyone informs everyone" quickly turns into information noise.

The developmental model. The developmental model is an interaction between a clearly formed goal and employees' ability to make changes to the organization's social policy [3; 9]. The value of this model lies in combining

consistency with flexibility in responding to internal and external challenges. Such an organization is headed by a top-level manager. This manager is a leader who retains the right to make the final decision and is assisted by a group of strategic and tactical managers. The advantages of the model are that each subordinate has only one superior, which contributes to clear and prompt management. Management is open, and the dialogue between the head and the employees is constant and mutual.

The developmental model is close to the concept of the learning organization developed by P. M. Senge. He described learning organizations as those in which people continually expand their capacity to create the results they desire and where they continually learn together [76, p. 3]. Such an organization rests on five disciplines [76, p. 6–12]. They are personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, team learning and systems thinking. P. M. Senge called the last of them "the fifth discipline", since it is the one that integrates the others into a coherent whole.

For a social service these disciplines have a very concrete meaning. Personal mastery means continuous professional development and supervision. Mental models imply a willingness to revise stereotypes about service recipients, for example about people with disabilities or internally displaced persons. A shared vision is formed by defining the service's mission together. Team learning takes place during case reviews and joint analysis of mistakes. Systems thinking makes it possible to see the link between an individual case and the overall situation in the community.

All three models are compared in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Comparative characteristics of managerial models in the social sphere

Feature	Hierarchical	Collective	Developmental
Who makes decisions	The head alone	The team through discussion	The leader after dialogue with the team
Direction of communication	Top-down	"Everyone informs everyone"	Two-way, open

Feature	Hierarchical	Collective	Developmental
Role of the head	Commander and controller	Trusted representative, coordinator	Leader who shapes the vision
Degree of regulation	High	Low	Moderate, with room for initiative
Capacity for change	Low	High but unsystematic	High and managed
Where appropriate	Granting payments, crisis response, standard procedures	Small teams of specialists, CSOs	Developing social service centres, innovative projects

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9; 71; 76]

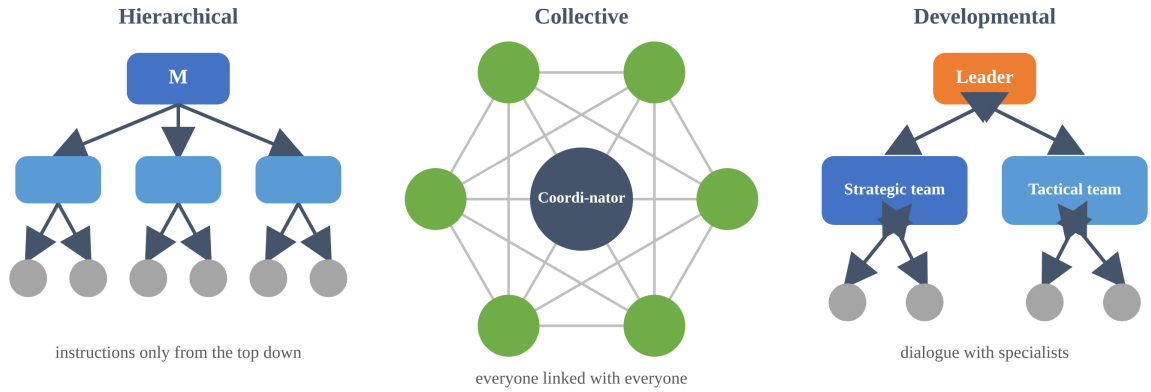


Fig. 4.5. Managerial models in the social sphere

Source: developed by the author based on [3; 9]

Choosing a model. There is no universal model that would suit all social organizations. M. Hughes and M. Wearing stress that the manager of a social service has to combine the requirements of accountability and control with respect for the professional autonomy of employees [49]. In practice, therefore, most services have a mixed model. The administration of payments and documents there follows hierarchical rules. Work on family cases takes place in multidisciplinary teams according to a collective logic. The development of new services and projects gravitates towards the developmental model.

Several factors influence the choice of a model. The first is the size of the organization. The second is the nature of its tasks, that is, the ratio of standard to creative operations. The third is the qualification level of the staff. The fourth is the stability of the external environment [8; 9]. Under martial law, when the situation in

communities changes very quickly, the importance of the last factor increases dramatically. Services that used only the hierarchical model often failed to respond to the needs of internally displaced persons in the first months of the full-scale war. By contrast, services in which specialists had the right to make independent decisions within a clearly defined goal acted noticeably faster [12].

The link between the management model and social project design is obvious. The hierarchical model copes well with implementing a ready-made project but rarely generates new ideas. The collective model generates many ideas but finds it hard to see them through to completion. The developmental model combines both. It corresponds best to the logic of social project design as a consistent cycle from an idea to evaluation and new decisions [56; 76].

Case “A mobile team for remote villages”

The fictional Verbivka territorial community includes a small town and fourteen villages. According to the needs assessment, more than 300 older people living alone reside in the villages, and only a third of them receive home care. The rest are waiting for the service or have not applied at all because they do not know about this opportunity. Social care workers live mainly in the town, and the most remote villages are more than thirty kilometres away.

The director of the social service centre, together with a local civic organization, decided to apply for a grant from an international donor. The idea of the project is to create a mobile team consisting of a social worker, a nurse and a driver, which will travel to remote villages according to a schedule. The donor is ready to fund a car, equipment and salaries for 18 months. It requires a logical framework matrix, a sustainability plan and co-financing from the community of at least 10 %.

Disagreements emerged during the discussion. The deputy head of the community believes that the centre should prepare the application on its own within a week, and that discussing it with village residents will only delay matters. The head of the civic organization insists on focus groups and recalls that three years ago

in a neighbouring community a car bought with a grant has stood without fuel since the project ended. Two of the centre's social care workers fear that the mobile team will mean the abolition of their positions. One of them says that "all this has been tried before and nothing came of it". A young social work specialist, on the contrary, is ready to lead the team and suggests first trying the route in three villages.

The centre still practises the hierarchical model of management. The director makes all decisions, and employees are used to acting according to instructions. The director understands that the new project will require a different style of work. The team will have to make decisions on the spot independently. Six weeks remain before the application deadline.

Case tasks

1. Build a problem tree and an objective tree for the Verbivka community. Is a mobile team the only possible solution? Propose at least two alternative options.

2. Formulate the specific objective of the project and three expected results according to the SMART criteria. Fill in a logical framework matrix following the model of Table 4.3.

3. What obstacles to social project design do you see in the case? Assign the participants in the situation to E. M. Rogers's categories and propose how to work with each group.

4. Develop a sustainability plan for the project. Who will fund the team's work after 18 months, and from what sources? How can the social commissioning mechanism help with this?

5. Which managerial model is appropriate for managing the mobile team, and which should be kept for the rest of the centre? Justify your choice.

Self-check questions

1. What is social project design, and which management function does it express?

2. How does social project design differ from ordinary planning?

3. How does the Project Management Institute define a project, and which two main features of a project follow from this definition?

4. Why can a social project have latent consequences? Name the causes of unanticipated consequences according to R. K. Merton.

5. In which two forms can a social project exist?

6. Distinguish between the concepts of “plan”, “programme” and “project”.

7. What benefits can implementing a social project bring to an organization?

8. By what features are social projects classified?

9. How does Ukrainian legislation on social services encourage a project approach in communities? What is social commissioning?

10. Name the phases of the project management cycle according to the European Commission’s approach.

11. What three main questions does every project resolve?

12. Why is it advisable to involve service recipients in social project design?

13. How do outputs differ from outcomes?

14. How is a problem tree built and transformed into an objective tree?

15. Explain the content of the SMART criteria. Can every objective of a social project meet all these criteria?

16. What elements make up the logical framework matrix of a project?

17. What factors hinder the success of social project design? How does E. M. Rogers’s theory of the diffusion of innovations help to overcome them?

18. By what criteria is the effectiveness of a social project assessed?

19. Describe the hierarchical, collective and developmental models of management in the social sphere.

20. Which five disciplines of the learning organization did P. M. Senge identify, and how can they be applied in a social service?

Topic 5. Information support for social management

Lecture plan

1. The essence and role of information in social management
2. Classification, kinds and types of management information
3. Information technologies for working with text documents and databases in social management

1. The essence and role of information in social management

Most processes of social management are informational in nature. They either consist directly in preparing, transmitting and processing information or depend on it significantly. The management of social services is a complex information process that requires a sufficient amount of information of a certain content, quality and focus [3; 9]. Management tasks are constantly changing and becoming more complex. A manager is therefore required to have the skills to process and classify huge arrays of diverse data, from the personal files of service recipients to budget reports and the results of population surveys.

The word “information” comes from the Latin informatio, meaning “explanation, exposition”. In the broadest sense, information is a set of facts about various events, phenomena and occurrences. The Law of Ukraine “On Information” defines it as any facts and/or data that can be stored on physical media or displayed in electronic form [16, art. 1]. UNESCO documents describe information even more broadly, as a universal substance that permeates all spheres of human activity. It serves as a conductor of knowledge and ideas, a tool of communication, mutual understanding and cooperation, and also of the consolidation of stereotypes of thinking and behaviour [3].

Scientific interest in information as a separate category took shape in the middle of the twentieth century. In 1948 two works appeared that laid the foundations of the modern understanding of information. The mathematician C. E. Shannon proposed a quantitative theory of communication. He regarded information as a measure of the reduction of uncertainty and described the communication

process in terms of a source, transmitter, channel, noise, receiver and destination [77, p. 380–381]. In the same year N. Wiener showed in his book “Cybernetics” that control in technology, living organisms and society is based on one mechanism. It is obtaining information about the state of a system and the feedback that makes it possible to correct actions [82, p. 11–12]. Since then the concept of “information” has been actively used in journalism, mathematics, physics, biology and other sciences. It has occupied a special place in the social sciences: management theory, economics, political science and sociology.

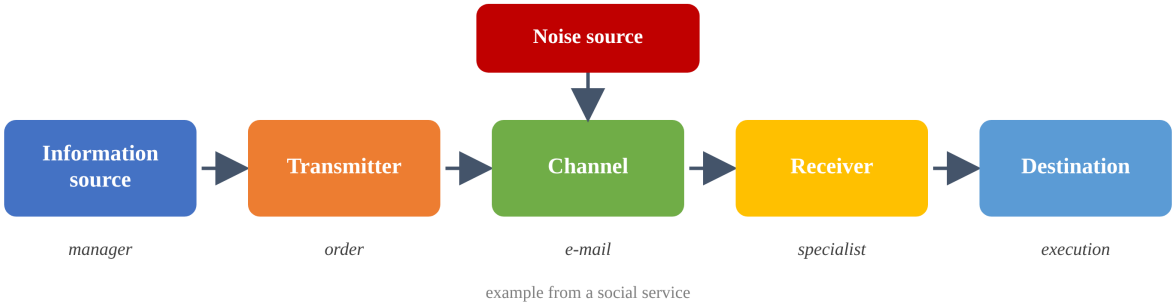


Fig. 5.1. C. E. Shannon’s model of communication

Source: developed by the author based on [77, p. 380–381]

For management it is important to distinguish between data, information and knowledge. The American systems researcher R. L. Ackoff proposed a hierarchy known as the DIKW pyramid (data – information – knowledge – wisdom) [25, p. 3–9]. Data are separate facts, recorded symbols that explain nothing by themselves. Information arises when data are ordered and answer the questions “who?”, “what?”, “where?” and “when?”. Knowledge answers the question “how?”, that is, it makes it possible to use information for action. R. L. Ackoff associated wisdom with the ability to evaluate why a certain action should or should not be taken. Here is an example for a social service. The number “47” is merely data. The statement “47 children with disabilities in the community need day care” is already information. Understanding how to organize such a service is knowledge. Deciding whether to open a unit right now and in this particular place, taking all the consequences into account, requires managerial wisdom.

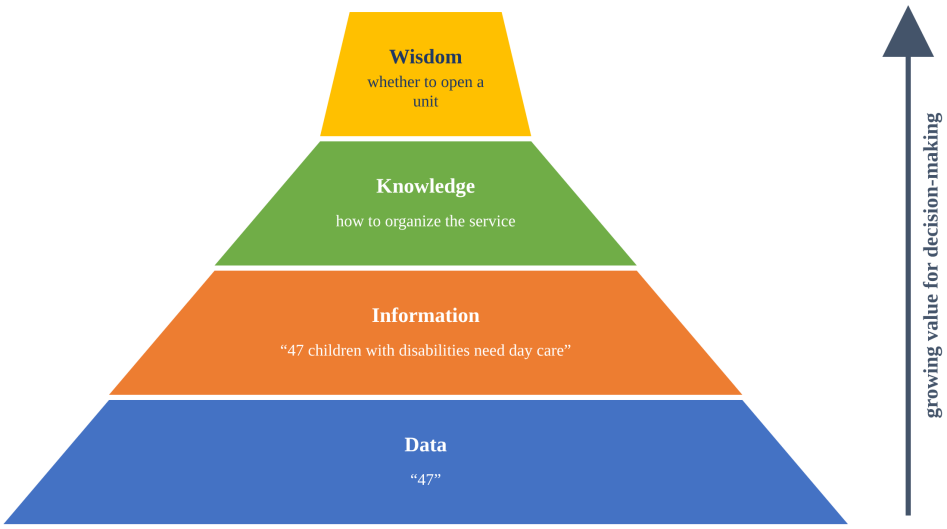


Fig. 5.2. The DIKW pyramid in social management

Source: developed by the author based on [25]

Information is often called a valuable intellectual resource of society. It is regarded as the infrastructure of intellectual property, since any new knowledge originates from information [3; 21]. Unlike material resources, information does not diminish through use. On the contrary, by sharing it an organization may gain more than it had. However, information becomes outdated quickly. Data on the number of internally displaced persons in a community collected six months ago may no longer reflect reality.

Social information. Social information is a special kind of information. It is information about the state of a social system, as well as a means of meeting society’s information needs through the use of information technologies [3; 8]. Social information forms the content of human thinking. Its material carrier is the heard or seen word, sign or language. The primary source of social information is society itself with all its spheres and aspects of life. For a social manager such information has a dual nature. On the one hand, it describes objective characteristics, for example the unemployment rate or the number of service recipients. On the other hand, it reflects people’s subjective assessments, expectations and moods, without which it is impossible to understand why the same service is in demand in one community and not in another.

Information support for management consists in creating an effective system for collecting, processing, storing and transmitting the information needed to make management decisions [9]. **Management information** is a set of various facts about the activity of an organization, brought together into a certain system and used in management. In the management of social work, information is required to be reliable, sufficient, complete in reflecting the situation, accessible and timely [3]. Violating any of these requirements devalues the rest. Reliable but late data are as unsuitable for a decision as timely but incomplete data.

The role of information in management. Any information has a certain purpose. It may serve to inform, to evaluate results or to give instructions. The means of perceiving information are sight, hearing and other senses, and the means of transmitting it are printed sources, video and electronic channels [3]. The significance of information for social management is considered in four aspects [3; 21]. First, to develop and make any decision, a manager must have information. Second, management is a continuous process, so a manager needs a constant flow of data. Third, the subject of management can influence the object only when it receives information about the state, processes and phenomena in the managed system. Fourth, it is precisely by turning the information received into management decisions that a manager carries out management. Here one can easily see N. Wiener's feedback logic transferred to a social organization [82].

Information, especially its automated processing, is an important factor in improving the quality of social work management. An important role here is played by means of processing, accumulating and transmitting data, and by the systematic storage and output of information in the required form [3]. Practice, however, reveals a paradox. In the social sphere, even available information is often not used in decision-making. Decisions are frequently made on the basis of personal contacts and impressions. One gets the impression that the system uses the available data selectively or to a limited extent [3; 9].

An explanation of this phenomenon was offered by H. A. Simon in the concept of bounded rationality. A manager cannot collect and process all possible

information and compare all alternatives. They therefore settle on the first option that seems satisfactory [78, p. 118–120]. H. A. Simon called this behaviour satisficing, as opposed to theoretical optimization. In a social service, bounded rationality is reinforced by a chronic lack of time, emotional strain and weak information systems. The task of information support is to provide the manager not with all possible data but with precisely the data needed for a particular decision, in a form that is easy to grasp.

The manager as an intermediary. For the heads of social organizations, information is the main object of their work. By transforming it, they develop and make the decisions needed to change the state of the managed object [9; 21]. Accordingly, a manager's means of work are above all the means of working with information. The result of their activity is expressed in management actions, and it is evaluated by the achievement of the organization's goals.

At each stage of management activity, the head of a social service needs information about both the external and the internal environment. External information covers changes in legislation, decisions of local authorities, demographic data, the experience of other communities and the terms of grant competitions. Internal information concerns staff workload, the status of cases, budget execution, and complaints and expressions of gratitude from recipients. Working with information includes searching for it, filtering out what is irrelevant and focusing on what is relevant, processing it and making appropriate decisions on this basis [3].

In this work the manager becomes an intermediary between the external and internal environment of the organization. Having received and processed external information, the manager submits it to the staff for consideration. The staff, in turn, process it and return it to the manager in the form of reports, proposals or questions [3; 21]. In the first case information acts as the object of work, in the second as a communicative link between the manager and the staff.

This aspect was studied in detail by H. Mintzberg, who observed the actual work of managers. Among ten managerial roles he identified a group of three

informational roles [67, p. 65–75]. In the role of monitor, the manager constantly collects information about the organization and its environment. In the role of disseminator, the manager passes the information received on to subordinates. In the role of spokesperson, the manager informs external parties about the organization's plans and results. H. Mintzberg observed that managers prefer oral, current information, even if unverified, to formal reports [67, p. 36–38]. This observation is consistent with the fact that decisions in social services often rely on personal contacts.

The informational roles of the head of a social service are presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

H. Mintzberg's informational roles of the manager in a social service

Role	Content	Example of actions of the head of a social service centre
Monitor	Seeking and receiving information about the internal and external environment	Analysing reports, following changes in legislation, talking to employees and recipients
Disseminator	Passing information on to members of the organization	Briefings, internal mailings, explaining new service standards
Spokesperson	Passing information on to external parties	Report at a council session, appearance in local media, communication with donors

Source: compiled by the author based on [67, p. 65–75]

Service recipients as consumers of information. The clients of social work are special consumers of the information resource. For many of them, for example people with disabilities or older people living alone, informatization becomes almost the only channel of communication with the world [3]. A social work manager therefore cares not only about the service's internal information flows. They are also concerned with the informatization of the social environment in which service recipients live and communicate. This means accessible information about rights and services, clear forms, a website with a version for people with visual

impairments and digital literacy training. A person who does not know about their right to a service will not apply for it. As a result, the service will have a false picture of the community's real needs.

2. Classification, kinds and types of management information

Management information is understood as a set of facts about processes within the organization and in its environment that become the basis for making management decisions [9]. Sources of management information may include senior management, subordinate managers and governing bodies, the mass media, information systems and so on. Managers devote a significant part of their time to accounting reports, audit and inspection reports, financial documents and information on staff movements. In social services, these are supplemented by recipients' personal files, needs assessment reports, individual service plans, request registers and reports to donors.

Classification of management information. Information in management is classified according to a number of features [3; 9]. By purpose, it may be single-purpose, that is, related to solving one specific problem, or multi-purpose, used for various tasks. By the possibility of storage, a distinction is made between information that is recorded and must be stored for a certain time and information that is not recorded. By the degree of readiness for use, primary, intermediate and final information are distinguished. Primary information is unsystematized data containing a lot of redundancy. Intermediate information has already undergone preliminary cleaning and systematization. Final information makes it possible to make well-grounded management decisions.

By completeness, information may be partial or comprehensive. Comprehensive information gives all-round facts about an object, while partial information can be used only together with other information. By degree of reliability, it is divided into reliable and probable. The probable nature of information may have several causes [3]. Sometimes it is fundamentally impossible to obtain reliable facts from the available source. Information is often distorted in

transmission, especially in a multilevel hierarchy. Finally, someone may deliberately spread false information. In addition, information is classified by volume, sources, and means of transmission and dissemination. The main criteria are summarized in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2

Classification of management information in social management

Criterion	Kinds of information	Example in a social service
Purpose	Single-purpose, multi-purpose	A certificate for one request; a database of service recipients
Possibility of storage	Recorded, unrecorded	Minutes of a meeting; a colleague's oral message
Degree of readiness	Primary, intermediate, final	Survey questionnaires; a summary table; an analytical note with conclusions
Completeness	Partial, comprehensive	Data only on family income; a full needs assessment
Reliability	Reliable, probable	Register data; rumours about problems in a family
Source	Internal, external	A unit report; a decision of the village council

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9]

Kinds of information under Ukrainian legislation. The main kinds of information are defined by the Law of Ukraine "On Information", adopted in 1992. The first version of this law distinguished seven kinds of information. They were statistical information, mass information, information about the activities of state authorities and local self-government, legal information, information about a person, reference and encyclopaedic information, and sociological information [3; 21]. In 2011 the law was set out in a new version, and the list became broader. Under the current Article 10, by content information is divided into information about a natural person, reference and encyclopaedic information, information about the state of the environment, information about goods (works, services), scientific and technical,

tax, legal, statistical, sociological and other kinds of information [16, art. 10]. Five of them are the most important for a social manager.

Statistical information is documented information that gives a quantitative description of mass phenomena and processes in the economic, social, cultural and other spheres of life [16]. State statistical information is subject to systematic open publication. To plan social services, a community uses such data as the size and age structure of the population, the number of persons with disabilities and the unemployment rate.

Legal information is a set of facts about law, its system, sources and implementation, legal facts, legal relations, the legal order, offences and their prevention [16]. Its sources are the Constitution of Ukraine, laws and by-laws, international treaties and public explanations of legal issues. The social sphere is one of those in which the regulatory framework changes most often. Keeping track of legal information is therefore a constant duty of the head of a service.

Information about a natural person is a fact or a set of facts about a natural person by which that person can be specifically identified [16, art. 11]. The law classifies it as confidential. Collecting, storing, using and disseminating such information without the person's consent is permitted only in cases specified by law. Detailed rules for working with it are established by the Law of Ukraine "On Personal Data Protection" [15]. A social service works with some of the most sensitive data: on health, family relationships, income and experience of violence. A leak of such data causes direct harm to the person and destroys trust in the service.

Reference and encyclopaedic information is systematized, documented or publicly announced information about public and state life and the natural environment [16]. Its sources are encyclopaedias, dictionaries, reference books, guides, cartographic materials and the like. For a social service this is, for example, a directory of the community's social services with the addresses, working hours and contacts of providers.

Sociological information is documented or publicly announced information about the attitude of individual citizens and social groups to public events and

phenomena, processes and facts [16]. It is sociological information that makes it possible to assess recipients' satisfaction with services and identify new needs. This includes, in particular, the data a community collects when assessing needs for social services.

By access regime, information is divided into public information and information with restricted access. The latter includes confidential, secret and official information [16, art. 20–21]. Municipal and state social services, as holders of public information, are obliged to provide it at citizens' requests [14]. At the same time, they must protect the personal data of recipients. Combining openness and confidentiality is one of the subtle tasks of information management in the social sphere.

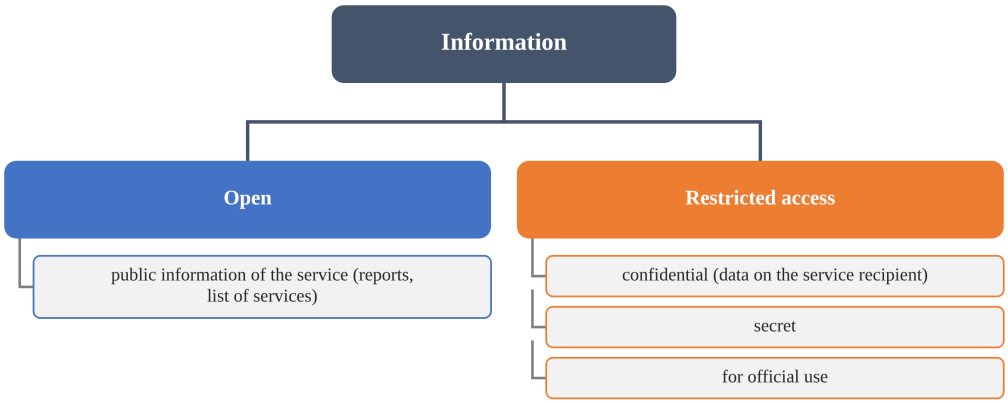


Fig. 5.3. Kinds of information by access regime

Source: developed by the author based on [14–16]

Levels of information support. Information needs depend on the level of management at which the consumer works. The literature on social work management distinguishes four such levels [3; 59]. At the strategic level, the manager needs mainly external information. It concerns changes in legislation, demographic trends, donor policies, decisions of authorities and the actions of other service providers. On its basis, senior management defines the mission, long-term goals and priorities of the service.

At the departmental level, both external and internal information is needed. The head of a home care unit, for example, must know both the new service

standards and the workload of each social care worker. This information makes it possible to manage subordinate units and monitor their activities.

The operational level relies on internal information. Here everyday work is planned, carried out and monitored: visit schedules, the distribution of cases among specialists and the recording of completed visits. The lowest level is the registration of transactions and operations. At this level data are collected on the large number of individual actions the organization performs every day. Every request, every signed service agreement and every handout of a humanitarian kit is recorded here.

Such registration used to be kept in paper logs, on cards and in forms. With the advent of personal computers, the volume of accumulated data increased dramatically. Today social organizations carry out this activity with the help of computer systems, and it becomes the basis for generating all other management information.

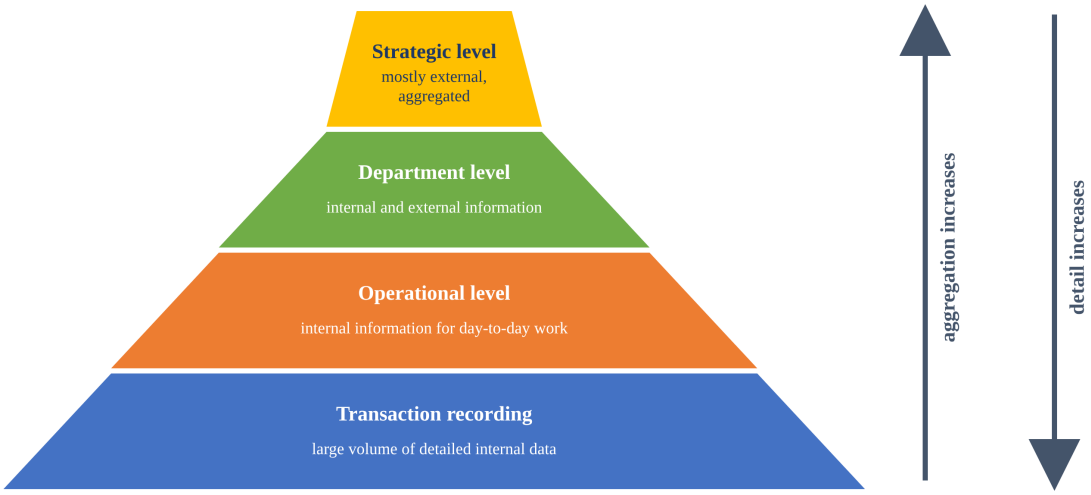


Fig. 5.4. Levels of information support for social management

Source: developed by the author based on [3; 59]

The information subsystem of an organization. Each level has its own information subsystem. Its elements are distributed unevenly between the subject and the object of management. Some belong entirely to the controlling or the controlled subsystem, others are divided between them in certain proportions. The employees who run the information subsystem partly belong to each of them. The total information covers not only facts about the state of the controlled subsystem

and its environment. It also includes normative information, that is, the established procedures for collecting, transforming, using and storing data [3].

Without an information subsystem, a manager cannot set goals, assess the situation, define the problem, prepare and make a decision and monitor its implementation. Information is at the same time the object and the result of the work of management staff. It links the subject with the object of management, and the organization with the external environment.

The information system of a social organization is complex, so in practice simpler parts are distinguished within it. In a social service, for example, separate blocks deal with the registration of recipients and services, the study of demand, personnel management and the management of material and technical resources. Different parts may have common elements. Often the same database of recipients is used simultaneously by needs assessment specialists, the accounting department and the reporting department.

The main tasks of the information subsystem include [3]:

1. coordinating the collection and processing of reports at all levels of management so that information arrives on time and is of high quality;

2. determining the directions for building a system for collecting, processing and storing primary data;

3. choosing directions for developing information processing technologies;

4. multivariate calculations when developing programmes, plans and budgets and in monitoring;

5. developing or selecting software, creating and using databases;

6. determining justified needs for technical equipment for the organization as a whole and for each unit;

7. formulating requirements for the content and form of information depending on its purpose.

The functions of the information subsystem are collecting, processing, transmitting, storing and presenting the information needed for management.

Communication between the controlling and the controlled subsystems is maintained through these functions.

Types of management information by nature of use. As information is processed, a manager needs different types of it. K. C. Laudon and J. P. Laudon emphasize that information needs depend on the level of management and the nature of the decisions made at that level [59]. Five types are distinguished: general, specific, control, allocative and directive information [3].

General information appears randomly or in response to non-specific requests. It answers the questions “What’s new?” or “Is there anything important?”. Because of its breadth it is difficult to define in advance and hard to maintain in computer systems. A strategic manager uses it much more often than an operational one, and at the level of transaction registration it is hardly needed at all.

Specific information meets clearly defined requirements. It is requested when checking the balance of an account, the number of vacant places in a shelter or the date of the last visit to a recipient. Transaction registration is entirely focused on it.

Control information is used to detect deviations from the plan or set tasks, especially unforeseen ones. If the number of visits to clients has fallen by a quarter over a quarter-year, it is the control reports that signal the problem to the manager.

Allocative information helps to decide how to distribute people, time, equipment or money among areas and projects. Having data on planned projects, the manager decides where to direct the resources at their disposal.

Directive information is needed for decisions about the overall course of the organization. This concerns, for example, entering a new service market, launching a new programme, or partnership with business or a donor organization. The types are compared in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3

Types of management information and the levels at which they are used

Type of information	Content	Main level of use	Example in a social service
General	Broad facts not defined in advance	Strategic	Review of changes in social policy and new grant programmes
Specific	Answer to a clearly formulated request	Transaction registration, operational	Number of vacant places in the day care unit
Control	Deviations of actual results from the plan	Departmental, operational	Report on missed visits for the month
Allocative	Data for distributing people, time and funds	Departmental	Workload of specialists broken down by starosta district
Directive	Grounds for decisions on the overall course	Strategic	Analysis of community needs for opening a new service

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 59]

All these types are interconnected. Specific data on individual operations become control information once generalized. Control and allocative information, in turn, become the basis for directive information. The quality of strategic decisions depends on how well the lowest layer of data has been collected. Managers of social organizations constantly use information of different kinds and, by analysing it, make decisions on many socially important problems.

3. Information technologies for working with text documents and databases in social management

In social management, information is interpreted as the sum of necessary, perceived and understood facts that make it possible to analyse a specific situation and comprehensively assess the causes of its emergence and development [3]. Having such facts, the manager chooses the optimal decision and systematically monitors its implementation. From this point of view, management is an information

process in which the governing body, the managed object and the external environment exchange information.

At different stages of management, different properties of information are important. At some stages the volume of data is decisive, at others the speed of its movement, and at still others the possibilities for processing it. The manager receives external information, processes it and submits it to the staff for consideration. They must be able to investigate social and economic factors such as employee motivation, client expectations and the results of their own efforts. Research in an organization usually has three levels. First, information is collected, then it is documented so that it objectively reflects the observed processes, and then statistical analysis is carried out.

Management information becomes valuable only when it begins to be used to achieve the organization's goals. For this purpose it must meet a number of requirements [3; 9]. Accuracy means that data have an unambiguous meaning and do not allow different interpretations. Periodicity and timeliness require information to reach a unit or employee before the situation it describes changes. Otherwise it loses its value. Completeness implies a sufficient amount of data to assess the situation at a certain level of management. Usefulness excludes data that are unnecessary for solving the problem. Accessibility means a form of presentation that does not require additional processing and does not complicate decision-making.

Stages of data processing. To make information more accurate and specific, social work managers process it professionally. The timing, cost and success of management depend on this. Even before data collection begins, it is advisable to decide which methods of analysis will be used and which features will be analysed with them. The collected material is now processed mainly on a computer, and this process has four stages [3].

The first stage is coding. Each answer option is assigned a conventional number, that is, a code. A questionnaire or interview form is, as it were, transformed into an ordered system of numbers. Codes must be continuous and ordered, and they cannot be rearranged. If these requirements are violated, the entire structure of the

information is disrupted. The second stage is entering the data into the computer. The third is checking the entered data and correcting errors. It also includes checking the instruments (questionnaires, forms, interviews) for the accuracy, completeness and quality of their completion. The fourth stage is computation and analysis of the results. The results are presented in the form of tables, which used to be called tabulations.

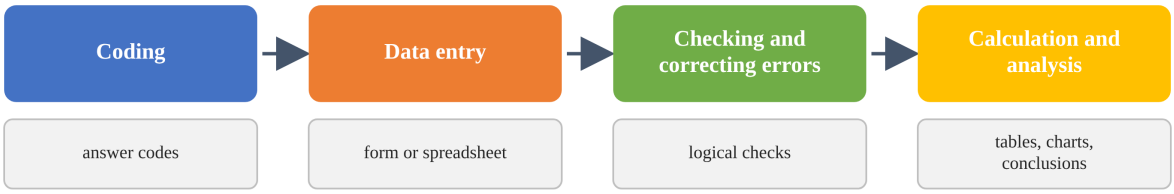


Fig. 5.5. Stages of processing social information

Source: developed by the author based on [3]

Statistical methods. For studying mass phenomena of social life, statistical methods are the main and sometimes the only tool. With their help data are presented compactly and clearly, trends of change are identified and models of social processes are built. In analysing social information they are used for three purposes. Univariate statistics describe information and calculate summary parameters, for example the average age of recipients or the share of families with children. Bivariate statistics measure the relationship between two features, for example between answers to different questionnaire items or between categories in a content analysis of texts. Multivariate statistics make it possible to analyse several interrelated features simultaneously [3].

Before statistical methods are applied, a number of preliminary procedures are carried out. Questionnaires and other primary material are prepared for processing manually or automatically. The level of analysis is chosen, descriptive or explanatory. Finally, specific statistical procedures are determined.

The simplest form of generalizing data is grouping. Statistical information is summarized and grouped to construct variation series of distribution and to divide units by quantitative or descriptive features. The result is presented in tables, and variation series in the form of histograms. A community's social protection

department may, for example, group older people living alone by distance to the nearest outpatient clinic. A histogram of this distribution immediately shows where a mobile team is needed.

Correlation and regression analysis reveals the closeness of the relationship between the variable under study and one or more factors, as well as the direction and form of this relationship. With its help a manager can make sense of the tangle of possible causes of a social situation. In social work it happens that improving one aspect of a person's life has a negative effect on others. Better conditions for sports may, for example, reduce teenagers' interest in studying [3]. Such consequences come as a surprise if nobody has investigated the correlation of factors. At the same time, a manager must remember that correlation by itself does not prove a cause-and-effect relationship. Two indicators may change together because of a third factor that the researcher did not take into account.

Databases and management information systems. A database is a set of interrelated data organized so that they can be used efficiently by various application programs. K. C. Laudon and J. P. Laudon stress that a database management system eliminates the redundancy and inconsistency of data typical of separate files in different departments [59]. If a recipient's address is changed in one place, it changes for all users. The registration department, the accounting department and the case management specialist see the same information.

Management information systems in an organization perform three basic activities: input, processing and output of information, while feedback makes it possible to evaluate and correct the input [59]. The authors emphasize that such a system is not only a technical but also an organizational and managerial solution. A program does not change practice by itself; it is changed by people who revise procedures, train staff and assign responsibility for the data.

Work with text documents in a social service has also moved to a digital format. Orders, needs assessment reports, agreements and reports are prepared in text editors using templates, signed with a qualified electronic signature and stored in electronic document management systems. A template saves the specialist time,

but it also carries a risk. An employee begins to fill in the fields mechanically, and the living person with their particular situation disappears from the assessment report.

The Unified Information System of the Social Sphere. In Ukraine, digital technologies of social protection are developing thanks to the Unified Information System of the Social Sphere (UISSS). In June 2024 the Ministry of Social Policy of Ukraine reported that the system was being used in all regions and that the number of users exceeded 15 thousand social sector workers [10]. The system integrates dozens of registers and databases of the social sphere and exchanges information with other state registers. An applicant no longer needs to collect certificates from different institutions, and an application can be submitted online or in person in any community. Payments to internally displaced persons have already been granted through the system, and applications for social assistance have been accepted through the "Diia" portal. The register of social service providers was digitized for the first time and presented as an interactive map of Ukraine [10].

For a social sector manager this means a transition from scattered spreadsheets to a single digital environment. The head of a community can see which service providers work nearby, and a specialist can obtain information about an applicant more quickly. At the same time, the centralization of data raises the requirements for personal data protection and for the digital skills of staff. A service must determine who has access to which information, how user actions are logged and what to do in the event of an error or leak [15].

Methods of document analysis. Documents are one of the main sources of information for a social manager. Recipients' applications, inspection reports, complaints, partners' reports, legislative acts and media publications contain facts that do not always lie on the surface. Social management practice uses four groups of methods of document analysis: traditional (non-formalized), legal, psychological, and formalized analysis, or content analysis [3].

Traditional analysis is a chain of mental, logical constructions aimed at revealing the essence of the material. It makes it possible to grasp the main thoughts

and ideas of a text, trace their origin, and identify the logic of argumentation and logical contradictions. External and internal traditional analysis are distinguished.

External analysis examines the historical context of a document and the circumstances that accompanied its appearance. The analyst determines the type and form of the document, the time and place of its creation, the author and initiator, the purposes for which it was drawn up and the degree of its reliability. When a service receives a certificate on the condition of a family's housing, the manager first asks questions. Who drew it up? When did the inspection take place? For what purpose was the certificate prepared: for a court, for receiving assistance, for an allocation?

Internal analysis concerns the content of the document. It reveals the difference between the factual and the literary content and establishes the author's competence in the matters they write about and their personal attitude towards the facts described [3]. In essence, most of a social worker's everyday work with documents is internal analysis. A school report describing a child as "difficult to manage" says something not only about the child. It also says something about how the school worked with the child.

Certain types of documents require special methods and the involvement of specialists from related fields. Legal analysis is applied to legal documents such as contracts, court decisions, orders and powers of attorney. Its specific feature lies in the correct use and interpretation of legal terminology. A mistake in interpreting a person's status or a document's period of validity may deprive a person of the right to assistance.

Psychological analysis is mainly applied to personal documents such as letters, diaries and handwritten appeals. Its main task is to assess the client's psychological state and emotional mood [3]. Such an analysis is carried out by a specialist with appropriate training, and its conclusions serve as grounds for an additional conversation but not for a diagnosis.

Content analysis. The formalized method of document analysis, or content analysis, combines qualitative and quantitative approaches. Following a clear algorithm, the researcher identifies certain elements of content in a text in

accordance with the purpose of the study. They then classify these elements according to a conceptual scheme, count them and present the results in quantitative form [3]. K. Krippendorff defines content analysis as a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts to the contexts of their use [57, p. 24]. Replicability means that another researcher applying the same coding rules will arrive at the same results.

The objects of content analysis are books, periodicals, speeches, government resolutions, minutes of meetings, media publications and social media posts. The method is appropriate when high precision and objectivity are required and the body of texts is large. A social service may, for example, analyse all written complaints from recipients over a year. First, the unit of analysis (one complaint) and the categories (queues, rudeness, delayed payment, unclear information) are defined. Next, two employees code the texts independently, and discrepancies are discussed. Finally, frequencies are counted and compared by quarter or by unit. Instead of the impression that "people are always complaining about something", the manager obtains a structure of problems with figures. The methods are compared in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4

Methods of document analysis in social management

Method	Essence	Typical documents	Limitations
Traditional external	Analysis of the context of origin, authorship and reliability	Certificates, references, letters from organizations	Dependence on the analyst's experience
Traditional internal	Study of the content, position and competence of the author	Assessment reports, reports, minutes	Subjectivity of interpretation
Legal	Correct interpretation of legal terms and consequences	Contracts, orders, court decisions	Requires legal qualifications
Psychological	Assessment of the author's emotional and psychological state	Personal letters, appeals, diaries	Requires psychological training and ethical safeguards

Method	Essence	Typical documents	Limitations
Content analysis	Formalized identification, classification and counting of units of content	Complaints, media publications, minutes of meetings	Labour intensity, risk of losing the subtext

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 57]

In real practice, the methods are rarely used separately. A content analysis of complaints shows what worries people most often. A traditional analysis of several typical complaints helps to understand why this happens. A lawyer checks whether the service is violating recipients' rights. One problem is examined from several angles, and the decision turns out to be better grounded.

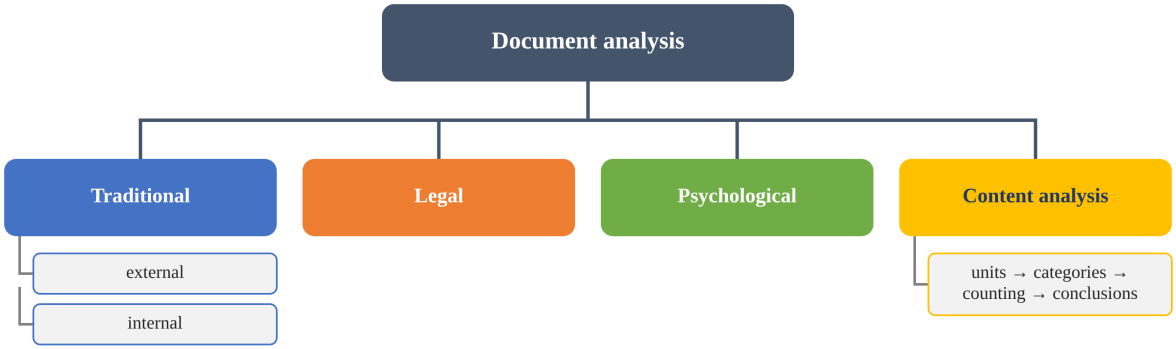


Fig. 5.6. Methods of document analysis in social management

Source: developed by the author based on [3; 57]

Grouping, statistical tables, correlation and regression analysis and methods of document analysis form the basic toolkit of a manager's information work. Using it, a manager identifies trends in the processes studied, builds forecasts and formulates practical recommendations. This is how social information enters social practice. Information support for social management is not reduced to technology or software. It is about the manager's ability to distinguish, in the flow of data, what really matters to the people the organization serves.

Case "Three spreadsheets for one Mrs Nina"

The social service centre of the Vyshnevets rural community serves more than three hundred recipients in nine villages. It has three units. The home care unit keeps

its own spreadsheet of clients. The family social work unit has another spreadsheet, and the accounting department a third, which it uses to charge fees for services. The spreadsheets are stored on employees' computers, and some files on personal flash drives.

In March, the director of the centre, Oksana Melnyk, was approached by the daughter of Mrs Nina, an 82-year-old resident of the village of Haiove. The daughter lives in another region. She complained that the social care worker had not visited her mother for three weeks, yet the fee for a full month had still been deducted from her mother's pension. The director requested data from all three units and received three different versions.

In the home care unit's spreadsheet, Mrs Nina was assigned to a worker who had resigned in February. The list was passed on to the new employee orally, and her name dropped out of it. She was not listed in the family social work unit at all. The accounting department, meanwhile, charged the fee under the agreement, because nobody had informed it of the break in service. When the director cross-checked the spreadsheets in full, it turned out that there were discrepancies in another forty records. Ten of them contained outdated addresses, and in seven the recipient's death had not been recorded.

The director's deputy proposed buying special software, for which there is no money in the budget. A senior social worker believes that checking the spreadsheets manually every month is enough. The village council's IT specialist reminds everyone that the centre already has access to the state information system of the social sphere, but employees use it only for submitting reports. Meanwhile, Mrs Nina's daughter wrote a post in a local social media group, and about fifteen more comments with complaints and thanks appeared under it.

Case tasks

1. Determine at which level of information support the first error occurred and how it spread to other levels.

2. Evaluate the centre's information against the requirements of accuracy, timeliness, completeness, usefulness and accessibility. Which requirements are violated the most?

3. What risks to personal data protection does the current way of storing spreadsheets create? Refer to the Law of Ukraine "On Personal Data Protection".

4. Compare the three proposals (new software, manual cross-checking, full use of the state system) in terms of cost, reliability and the need for staff training.

5. Propose a scheme for a content analysis of the social media comments. Define the unit of analysis and the categories, and explain how the director can use the results.

Self-check questions

1. How does the Law of Ukraine "On Information" define information?

2. What is the contribution of C. Shannon and N. Wiener to the understanding of information?

3. Explain the content of R. L. Ackoff's "data – information – knowledge – wisdom" hierarchy.

4. What are social information and information support for social management?

5. Which four aspects of the role of information in social management are distinguished?

6. Explain H. A. Simon's concepts of bounded rationality and the satisficing decision.

7. Which informational roles of the manager did H. Mintzberg identify? Give examples from the work of a social service.

8. Define management information and name its sources.

9. By what features is management information classified?

10. How does primary information differ from intermediate and final information?

11. Which kinds of information by content are defined by Article 10 of the current version of the Law of Ukraine “On Information”?

12. Why does information about a natural person require special attention in the work of a social service?

13. How are the openness of public information and the confidentiality of recipients’ data reconciled?

14. Describe the four levels of information support for management.

15. What tasks and functions does the information subsystem of an organization perform?

16. How do general, specific, control, allocative and directive information differ?

17. Name the requirements for management information and the stages of data processing.

18. What are univariate, bivariate and multivariate statistics used for? What is the value of correlation and regression analysis?

19. What opportunities and risks does the Unified Information System of the Social Sphere create for a manager?

20. Compare traditional, legal and psychological document analysis and content analysis.

Topic 6. Management of social conflicts and stress

Lecture plan

1. The essence and causes of conflict.
2. Negative and positive social manifestations of conflict.
3. Managing a conflict situation.
4. Stressful situations and their management.

1. The essence and causes of conflict

Conflict is a complex psychological and social phenomenon. It is studied by sociology, psychology, political science and management theory, and each of them sees its own side of it. Most people dislike conflicts and try to avoid them. A person who has not reflected on the nature of conflict mostly believes that it only spoils relationships, harms the common cause and creates tension [3]. Yet social life without conflict is impossible. A social manager encounters conflicts every day: in relations with service recipients, within the team, and in communication with authorities and donors.

The starting point of the modern view of conflict comes down to three statements. Conflict is often a normal phenomenon of social existence. Conflicts arise wherever there are people. Finally, they take place under certain objective conditions, so they can be studied, predicted and directed [3; 9].

Conflict is a system of socio-psychological interaction between people or groups in the form of a clash or confrontation. Its content is determined by contradictions, opposing interests, threats and elements of irrational behaviour [3]. The American sociologist L. Coser, in “The Functions of Social Conflict”, interpreted social conflict as a struggle over values and claims to scarce status, power and resources. In such a struggle the opponents aim to neutralize, injure or eliminate their rivals [33, p. 8]. M. Deutsch gave a broader definition. According to him, conflict exists whenever incompatible activities occur, that is, when an action of one party prevents, obstructs or makes less effective an action of the other [34, p. 10].

This understanding covers both a heated dispute and a hidden clash of interests that has not yet grown into open confrontation.

The precondition of conflict is contradiction. However, not every contradiction develops into a conflict. For this to happen, a person or group must become aware that their interests are opposed to those of the other party and must have sufficient motivation and certain skills of conflict behaviour [3]. Between an objective contradiction and an open conflict lies a conflict situation. It takes the form of a conflict after an incident, that is, an event that triggers open interaction between the parties.



Fig. 6.1. Dynamics of the transition from contradiction to conflict

Source: developed by the author based on [3; 34]

Depending on their dynamics, goals and results, conflicts are divided into constructive and destructive. By the sphere in which the contradictions arise, they can be internal or external [3]. In organizational management, intrapersonal, interpersonal, individual–group and intergroup conflicts are also commonly distinguished [8; 9]. Intrapersonal conflict arises when contradictory demands are made of a person or when their own values diverge from what is expected of them. A social worker who has to serve eight families a day and at the same time listen carefully to each of them experiences exactly this kind of conflict. Interpersonal conflict is the most frequent. It arises between managers, between colleagues, and between a specialist and a client. Conflict between an individual and a group appears when an employee takes a position different from that of the team. Intergroup conflict unfolds between units and formal or informal groups, and in a community also between different categories of the population.

Causes of conflict in a social organization. A manager who wants to influence a conflict must first understand its real cause. The outward occasion of a

dispute often does not coincide with its source. Employees may argue about the holiday schedule, although what really divides them is an uneven distribution of workload. The literature on social work management cites the following main causes of conflict [3; 9; 21].

The first cause is limited resources. Even large organizations have limited resources, and in municipal social services this is felt especially acutely. It is difficult for management to decide how to distribute material, human and financial resources among groups so as to achieve common goals. The second cause is task interdependence. An organization is a system of interrelated elements, and if one unit or employee performs inadequately, others suffer. The third cause is differences in goals. Specialized units form their own goals and sometimes care more about them than about the goals of the organization as a whole.

The fourth cause is differences in perceptions and values. Instead of assessing the situation objectively, people consider only those views and alternatives that they consider favourable to themselves. In the social sphere value differences carry particular weight. One specialist puts the client's independence first, another the client's safety. Every team also has people who show hostility and are ready to argue about anything. The fifth cause is an unclear division of rights and duties. Its consequence is dual subordination, when an employee lacks the time and energy to carry out the instructions of all their superiors. The sixth is an insufficient level of professional training. An untrained employee is not trusted with certain tasks, and these are shifted onto others. As a result, some are overloaded and others underloaded.

The seventh cause is unjustified public humiliation or undeserved praise. This gives rise to "trusted persons" and "favourites". The same group includes the absence of fair criticism and inattention to the needs of subordinates. The eighth is uncertainty about career prospects, which makes a person work without enthusiasm. The ninth is unfavourable physical conditions. Constant noise, cold or a cramped office where three specialists receive clients together gradually build up irritation.

The tenth cause is psychological in nature: feelings of resentment and envy. The eleventh is unsatisfactory communication. Poor transmission of information can be both a cause and a consequence of conflict. It prevents individual employees and the group as a whole from understanding the situation and the views of others (this was discussed in Topic 5). The twelfth cause concerns managers themselves. Making no demands on themselves, they put personal interests above everything and create an atmosphere of permissiveness [3]. The causes are grouped in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1

Groups of causes of conflict in a social organization

Group of causes	Causes	Example in a social service	What the manager can do
Resource and structural	Limited resources; task interdependence; differences in goals	One service car for two units	Transparent allocation rules, common goals
Organizational	Unclear division of rights and duties; career uncertainty; unfavourable working conditions	Two superiors give one specialist contradictory assignments	Job descriptions, a single channel for assignments
Personnel	Insufficient training; unfair assessment of work	A newcomer is not trusted with difficult cases, colleagues are overloaded	Mentoring, supervision, clear assessment criteria
Socio-psychological	Differences in values; resentment, envy; unsatisfactory communication	A dispute over whether to intervene in a client's family situation	Case discussions, regular team meetings
Managerial	The behaviour of the manager themselves	Bonuses only for "one's own" employees	Self-analysis, feedback from the team

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9]

The list of causes is not exhaustive. In real situations several causes intertwine and reinforce each other. A shortage of staff creates overload, overload worsens communication, and tired people react more sharply to any injustice. Conflicts with service recipients and their families form a special type of conflict in the social sphere. A person in crisis often transfers to a service worker anger caused by

completely different circumstances. A specialist who understands this mechanism does not take aggression personally and retains the ability to help.

2. Negative and positive social manifestations of conflict

For a long time, the view of conflict as a defect of the organization prevailed in management theory. The classical school and the human relations school sought ways to eliminate it, the former through a clear structure, the latter through harmonious relationships (see Topic 2). In the middle of the twentieth century this view changed. L. Coser argued that conflict also has positive functions. It can unite a group, define its boundaries more clearly and act as a "safety valve" that releases accumulated hostility and prevents relationships from breaking down [33, p. 33–38, 48–55]. According to L. Coser, the danger threatens precisely those groups that suppress any open disagreement. Unexpressed discontent accumulates and eventually bursts out in the most destructive form.

M. Deutsch proposed distinguishing between constructive and destructive processes of conflict resolution. A constructive process resembles joint problem-solving. The parties exchange information openly, recognize the legitimacy of each other's interests and look for a solution that benefits both. A destructive process tends to escalate. The conflict becomes detached from its original cause, communication becomes unreliable, and the parties increasingly rely on pressure and deception [34, p. 17–32]. M. Deutsch's conclusion is simple and important for a manager. The consequences of a conflict depend not so much on its subject as on whether the parties treat it as a shared task or as a competition.

Negative manifestations of conflict. The negative consequences of conflict include above all the parties' distorted perception of each other, up to a failure to understand basic interests [3]. During and after a conflict, willingness to cooperate decreases. The socio-psychological climate deteriorates, productivity falls and some employees leave. Imaginary, simulated difficulties in interaction arise, and a confrontation forms that prevents the problem itself from being solved. The material, emotional and systemic costs of achieving the organization's goals increase.

In a social service one more consequence is added to these. A conflict between employees harms people who have nothing to do with it. If two units do not pass on information about a family in difficult life circumstances to each other, help comes too late. Authors of works on the organization of social work stress that internal conflicts in a service are ultimately reflected in the quality of services [8].

Positive manifestations of conflict. Conflict stimulates a social system to change, develop and innovate. It contributes to better structuring of the group, its cohesion and organization [3]. Participants in a conflict become more active and develop a sense of responsibility and of their own significance. Role behaviour becomes sharper. Finally, conflict performs a diagnostic function, revealing the true state of relations in the group. A dispute about how to distribute night calls often reveals a flaw in the organization of duty shifts that nobody had noticed before. The consequences are compared in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2

Negative and positive consequences of conflict for a social organization

Area	Negative consequences	Positive consequences
Relationships between people	Distorted perception, hostility, decline in trust	Clarification of positions, release of accumulated tension
Group	Deterioration of the climate, split into factions	Cohesion, clearer role structure
Work results	Lower productivity, delays in services	Search for new solutions, improvement of procedures
Staff	Stress, staff turnover	Activity, responsibility, personal development
Management	Greater expenditure of the manager's time and energy	Diagnosis of hidden problems in the organization

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 33; 34]

Managed constructive conflict. Sometimes it is useful for a manager to initiate a managed constructive conflict deliberately. In this way the manager clarifies the real state of affairs in the group and stimulates its development [3]. The simplest form is to assign one of the meeting participants the role of an opponent

who deliberately looks for weak points in a new plan. Another way is to invite representatives of service recipients to discuss changes, knowing that they will voice opinions that are uncomfortable for the service. A managed conflict has clear boundaries. Its subject is the task, not personalities. It is limited in time and ends with a decision that all participants recognize as shared. If the dispute turns personal, the manager immediately brings it back to the subject.

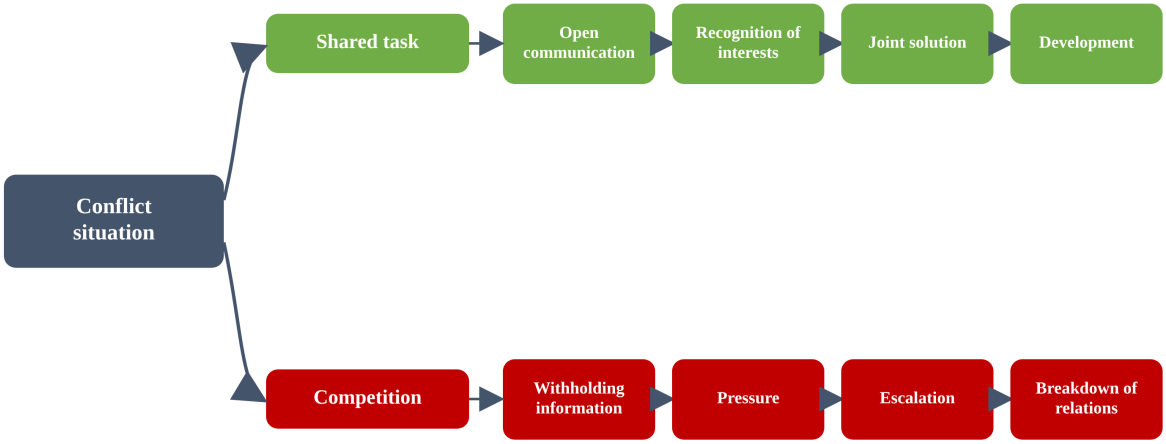


Fig. 6.2. Constructive and destructive course of conflict

Source: developed by the author based on [34]

3. Managing a conflict situation

Conflicts occur constantly, so a manager must be able to manage them in such a way that employees continue to perform their duties productively. Methods of conflict resolution are divided into those planned in advance and those applied when a conflict could not be avoided [3]. Work always begins with an analysis of the actual causes. Only after understanding them does the manager choose a method of influence. For the analysis, it is convenient to answer several questions. Who are the parties to the conflict, and who influences it indirectly? What is its subject? What positions do the parties take, and what interests lie behind these positions? How long has the conflict lasted, and at what stage is it?

Structural methods. Some conflicts disappear when the manager changes the conditions that give rise to them [9]. The first method is clarifying job requirements. Every employee should know what results are expected of them, who provides them

with information and who makes decisions. The second method is coordination and integration mechanisms, including a single hierarchy of authority, cross-unit working groups and joint meetings on managing complex cases. The third is setting organization-wide comprehensive goals that direct the efforts of all units in one direction. The fourth is the reward system. It should not encourage behaviour that benefits one unit at the expense of others.

Interpersonal styles of conflict resolution. The best-known model of behaviour in conflict was proposed by K. W. Thomas and R. H. Kilmann. They described behaviour along two dimensions. The first dimension is assertiveness, that is, the desire to satisfy one's own interests. The second is cooperativeness, that is, the desire to satisfy the interests of the other party. The combination of these dimensions gives five styles: competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding and accommodating [54, p. 309–311]. A widely known questionnaire used in manager training is based on this model. The authors of the model do not consider any style universally best. Each is appropriate in its own situation.

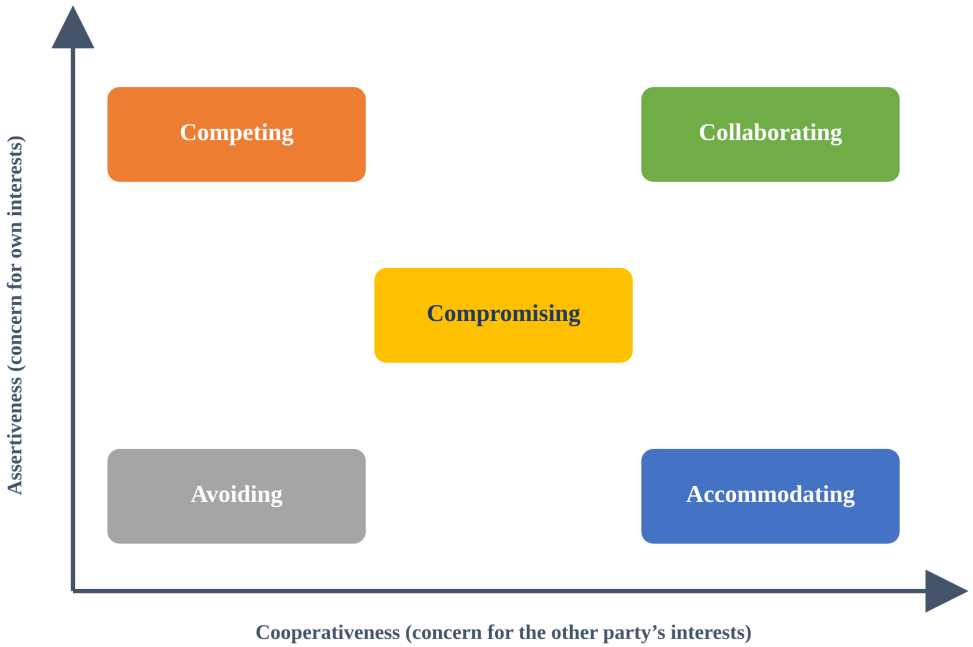


Fig. 6.3. Conflict-handling styles according to K. W. Thomas and R. H. Kilmann

Source: developed by the author based on [54]

Avoiding is chosen when a person cares little about the outcome either for themselves or for the other party. This is the most common reaction to conflict [3].

People often avoid disputes because they fear counter-claims. Avoiding is appropriate when someone else can solve the problem, or when the situation is minor and will resolve itself in time. Competing, or forcing, is chosen by someone who is very interested in their own result and disregards the aspirations of the other party. Accommodating is appropriate when the outcome is unimportant for one party and very important for the other. If both parties are strongly interested in the outcome, collaborating is the best fit. When both parties have a moderate interest, compromising is preferable [3]. The conditions for applying the styles are given in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3

Conflict-handling styles and the conditions for their use

Style	Essence	When appropriate	Risks
Competing	Insisting on one's own position without regard for the other party's interests	A threat to the client's life or safety, the need for a quick decision	Loss of trust, hidden resistance
Collaborating	Joint search for a solution that fully satisfies both parties	Both interests are important, there is time and trust	Expenditure of time and effort
Compromising	Mutual concessions, partial satisfaction of interests	The parties are equally strong, a temporary solution is needed	Dissatisfaction of both, the problem returns
Avoiding	Withdrawing from open confrontation	The issue is minor, emotions are too high, time is needed to think	Accumulation of unresolved problems
Accommodating	Giving up one's own interests for the sake of the relationship	The issue matters more to the other party, one has made a mistake oneself	Loss of influence, hidden resentment

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 54]

Accommodating, collaborating and compromising are among the least confrontational ways of settling a conflict. Forcing works quite differently. It is chosen by people who above all want to defend their interests and "get the upper hand" over their opponent. Its means include unconditional commitments, when a

party announces in advance an unchangeable line of conduct, as well as threats, promises and persuasive argumentation [3]. Threats and promises serve as means of revealing intentions. Argumentation works more slowly but requires great skill and leaves less resentment. In the social sphere, forcing is acceptable only when the protection of human rights requires it, in particular the rights of a child or a person who has experienced violence.

Negotiation. Negotiation is a process of interaction between two or more parties aimed at reaching a common result. Mostly it is direct interaction, face to face, oral or written [3]. People negotiate every day, although they do not always call their activity that. A negotiating situation can be defined as a process in which the parties decide what each of them will lose and what each will gain in the exchange. The parties are interdependent, because each seeks a result controlled by the other.

R. Fisher, W. Ury and B. Patton, in their well-known work “Getting to Yes”, proposed the method of principled negotiation. It is contrasted with positional bargaining and is based on four rules [41, p. 11–15]. The first requires separating the people from the problem, that is, being soft on the people and hard on the substance. The second focuses attention on interests rather than positions. A position is what a person demands; an interest is the reason why they demand it. The third rule advises first inventing several options for mutual gain and only then choosing. The fourth requires insisting on objective criteria such as standards, legal norms, market prices and expert assessment.

There are always alternatives that a party will resort to if negotiations reach a deadlock [3]. R. Fisher and W. Ury called the best of them the BATNA (Best Alternative to a Negotiated Agreement) [41, p. 99–108]. Whoever knows their BATNA understands when it is more advantageous to walk away from the negotiations. The ability to stop negotiations in time without losing the opportunity to use the information obtained is an important negotiating skill. The director of a social service centre negotiating funding with a donor should know in advance what

they will do without this money. Otherwise they will agree to terms that harm the service's mission.

Multilateral negotiations are much more complex than bilateral ones. The more people are involved, the more complex the interpersonal relations and the more signals, gestures and remarks each participant has to interpret [3]. The subject of the negotiations itself also becomes more complex. Some parties consider one issue to be the main one, others something else entirely. This happens at meetings involving the community, the school, the children's service, the social service centre and a civic organization. Even when the parties share information, it is very difficult to find a solution acceptable to all.

Preparing for negotiations matters no less than the negotiations themselves. Their conclusion also has to be prepared, in particular by deciding what information a party will share afterwards [3]. The advantage mostly lies with the party that has prepared better.

Third-party intervention and mediation. Often the parties cannot settle a conflict on their own and need a third party. This may be a senior manager, an independent expert, an arbitrator or a mediator, as well as official state institutions [3]. The difference between them lies in who makes the final decision. An arbitrator or a manager decides the dispute themselves. A mediator only helps the parties reach their own agreement.

In 2021, Ukraine adopted the Law "On Mediation", which entered into force on 15 December 2021. Under this law, mediation is an out-of-court, voluntary, confidential, structured procedure during which the parties, with the help of a mediator, try to prevent or settle a conflict (dispute) through negotiation [17, art. 1]. Mediation is based on the principles of voluntariness, confidentiality, neutrality, independence and impartiality of the mediator, self-determination and equal rights of the parties [17]. For the social sphere the law is of practical importance. Mediation is used in family disputes over parents' participation in raising a child, in school conflicts and in neighbourhood disputes in the community. A social worker who has completed appropriate training can act as a mediator. It is only necessary not to

combine this role with that of the specialist who assesses one of the parties, because neutrality is then compromised.

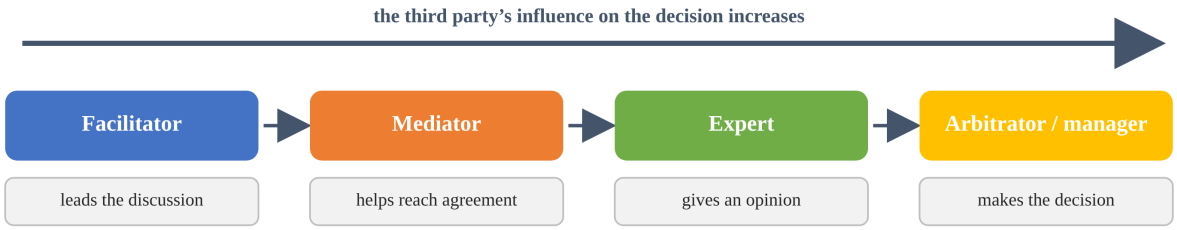


Fig. 6.4. Roles of a third party in conflict resolution

Source: developed by the author based on [3; 17]

Rules for resolving conflicts. In everyday work, simple rules for talking about a conflict help a manager [3].

1. Do not compare the degree of guilt of the participants. The question "who started it?" only aggravates the dispute, and the significance of the conflict should not be exaggerated.

2. Begin the conversation by describing the specific situation that is unsatisfactory, as objectively as possible and with examples. For instance, "We agreed on a visit on Tuesday, but it took place on Friday."

3. Express your feelings about the situation. Many conflicts become more complicated precisely because things are left unsaid, and sometimes clearing this up resolves the conflict by itself.

4. Listen to the other side without interrupting or arguing. This is the most difficult rule. If the conflict is long-standing and fundamental, it is advisable to involve a neutral person.

5. Clarify hidden assumptions and conjectures. The easiest way is to ask about them directly and to answer the partner's assumptions just as frankly.

6. Propose specific changes, for example "Please do not criticize me in front of clients."

7. At the end, discuss the consequences of the changes. A positive prospect works better than an ultimatum, and a person who sees the benefit of an agreement changes their behaviour more willingly.

These rules echo the principles of R. Fisher and W. Ury. In both cases the point is to discuss the problem rather than the personality and to look for a solution rather than someone to blame.

4. Stressful situations and their management

The concept of stress is closely related to the concept of conflict. Stress is often a consequence of conflict, but it can also cause conflict itself. A tired, tense person enters into a dispute more easily and resolves it less well.

Stress (from English stress, “pressure, tension”) is the general reaction of the organism to physical or psychological influence, as well as the corresponding state of the organism [3]. The concept was introduced into science by the Canadian physiologist H. Selye. He noticed that the organism reacts in the same way to very different stimuli and called this reaction the general adaptation syndrome. The syndrome has three stages: alarm, resistance and exhaustion [75, p. 31–33]. At the alarm stage, the organism mobilizes its resources. At the resistance stage, it adapts to prolonged exposure. If the exposure does not stop, the adaptive resources are exhausted and exhaustion sets in. H. Selye also noted that strong positive influences are also stressful and act through the same mechanism. Hence the distinction between eustress, a useful stress that mobilizes, and distress, a harmful stress that destroys.

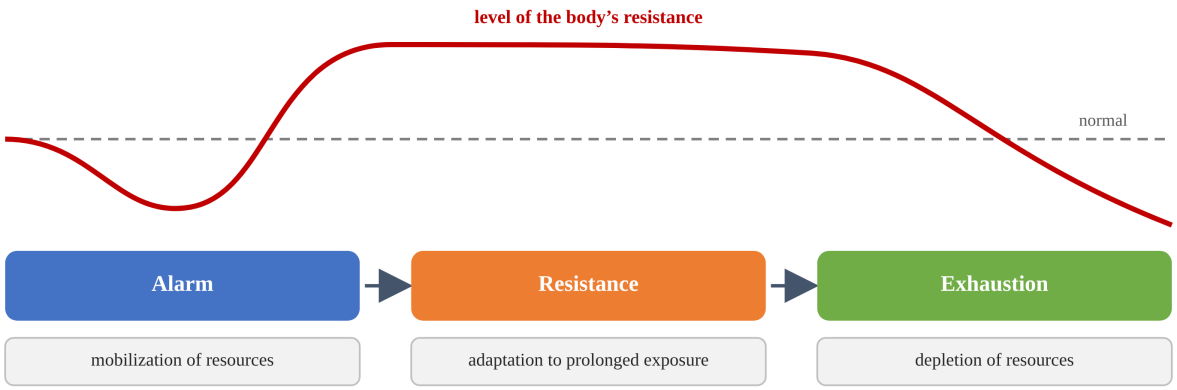


Fig. 6.5. Stages of the general adaptation syndrome

Source: developed by the author based on [75]

The psychological understanding of stress was developed by R. Lazarus and S. Folkman. According to their definition, psychological stress is a relationship between the person and the environment that the person appraises as taxing or exceeding their resources and endangering their well-being [60, p. 19]. The key word here is “appraises”. The same situation becomes a threat for one employee and an interesting challenge for another. The authors distinguish primary appraisal (whether the situation is threatening) and secondary appraisal (whether I have enough resources to cope with it). They divided coping into problem-focused and emotion-focused coping [60, p. 150–153]. In the first case a person changes the situation; in the second, their attitude towards it.

For a manager this model has direct practical meaning. Employees’ stress can be reduced in two ways. One can reduce the demands or increase the resources, that is, time, knowledge, support from colleagues and autonomy in decision-making. The second way is often available even when the first is closed.

K. Albrecht, in “Stress and the Manager”, emphasized that stress is a natural part of human existence. A person should learn to distinguish an acceptable level of stress from an excessive one, since zero stress is impossible [3; 27]. Minor stresses are inevitable and harmless, for example irritability or insomnia before an important event. It is excessive stress that creates problems for the individual and the organization. It costs both dearly. The effectiveness and well-being of the employee decline, and stress-related illnesses shorten life. This applies especially to senior managers, whose responsibility is much greater than that of rank-and-file employees [3].

Symptoms and signs of stress. The symptoms of stress include health problems and sleep disturbances, nervousness, tension and chronic worry. Stress also manifests itself in excessive drinking or smoking, emotional instability and increased vulnerability [3]. Long-term or acute stress can have very serious consequences, including heart attack, stroke, injuries and suicidal behaviour. Attention to changes in an employee’s behaviour is therefore part of a manager’s

responsibility. A manager refers an employee who shows signs of a serious condition to a mental health professional.

Stressors. In management activity, stressors include an excessive or insufficient flow of information for decision-making, lack of time, novelty, conflicts within the team and conflict-prone counterparts [3]. They are joined by personal factors arising from a wide variety of life situations, such as the illness of relatives, moving house or financial difficulties. In wartime, social sector specialists are also affected by threats to life, losses and anxiety for their loved ones, combined with a sharply increased flow of people in need of help. A social worker who is experiencing loss themselves works with people who are going through something similar, and this intensifies the emotional strain.

Organizational stressors. Some stress is generated by the organization of work itself, and these are the factors a manager can change most quickly. The first of them is overload. It causes successive reactions: anxiety, frustration, a sense of hopelessness and the expectation of sanctions [3]. Underload is also stressful. A person feels bored and "sits out" the time, performs unnecessary actions and fears control and punishment.

Role-related factors form a separate group. They were studied in detail by R. L. Kahn and his colleagues in "Organizational Stress" [50]. Role conflict arises when contradictory demands are made of an employee. Typical reactions to it are attempts to reconcile the irreconcilable or falsification of reports [3]. Role ambiguity means that the employee does not know what is required of them and by what system their work is evaluated. In the social sphere, role conflict is almost built into the profession. A specialist simultaneously supports the client and controls them, acts in their interests and observes budget constraints.

R. Karasek proposed the "demand–control" model, which explains why the same workload affects people differently. The highest mental strain arises when high demands are combined with low decision latitude [51, p. 287–288]. If, however, an employee plans their own day and decides how to act, a high workload becomes a source of development rather than exhaustion. A practical piece of advice follows

for the head of a social service. If the workload cannot be reduced, the autonomy of specialists can be expanded.

Stress is also caused by inappropriate performance indicators, for example when an employee is evaluated simultaneously for speed and for quality of service. Such factors include violations of unity of command, a mismatch between the norms of the employee and those of the work group, uninteresting work and unsatisfactory physical conditions. Increased responsibility without the corresponding rights and powers is especially exhausting [3]. The factors and possible management solutions are given in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4

Organizational stressors and management measures

Factor	Typical employee reaction	Management measure
Overload	Anxiety, frustration, hopelessness	Setting caseload limits per specialist, redistributing tasks
Underload	Boredom, imitation of activity, fear of control	New tasks, participation in projects
Role conflict	Attempts to reconcile the irreconcilable, falsification of reports	Clear priorities, a single superior for assignments
Role ambiguity	Anxiety, passivity	Job descriptions, discussion of assessment criteria
Inappropriate performance indicators	Working “for the indicator”, lower quality	Balanced indicators of quantity and quality
Low autonomy	A sense of helplessness	Delegation of authority, participation in planning
Responsibility without authority	Chronic tension, fear of making a mistake	Aligning responsibility with rights

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 50; 51]

Professional burnout. Prolonged unresolved stress at work leads to burnout. In 2019, the World Health Organization included burnout in the 11th Revision of the International Classification of Diseases as an occupational phenomenon rather than a medical condition. Burnout is defined there as a syndrome resulting from chronic workplace stress that has not been successfully managed [31]. Three dimensions of the syndrome are identified. The first is feelings of energy depletion

or exhaustion. The second is increased mental distance from one's job, or feelings of negativism or cynicism related to it. The third is reduced professional efficacy. This definition draws on the research of C. Maslach, who has studied burnout specifically in the helping professions for more than forty years. According to C. Maslach and M. P. Leiter, burnout occurs when the fit between a person and their job is disrupted for a long time in six areas. These are workload, control, reward, community, fairness and values [62, p. 106–107].

An important conclusion follows from the six-area model. Burnout is not just the personal problem of a weak employee. Far more often it is caused by the way work is organized. A specialist who treats clients attentively but sees an unfair distribution of cases and no recognition burns out faster than an indifferent colleague.

Stress management in an organization. Stress management measures are implemented at two levels [8; 9]. At the organizational level, the manager eliminates or weakens the sources of stress. The manager distributes the workload in line with people's abilities, formulates requirements clearly and involves employees in decision-making. Regular supervision, the opportunity to discuss a difficult case with colleagues and staff psychological support programmes also become important tools. The manager also makes sure that employees take their holidays and do not stay at work overtime.

At the individual level, an employee learns to recognize the signs of their own stress and masters self-help techniques. These include time planning and prioritization, physical activity and adequate sleep, relaxation techniques and the ability to say "no" to additional work. According to the model of R. Lazarus and S. Folkman, both types of coping are useful. Problem-focused coping is suitable when the situation can be changed. Emotion-focused coping helps to get through what cannot be changed [60].

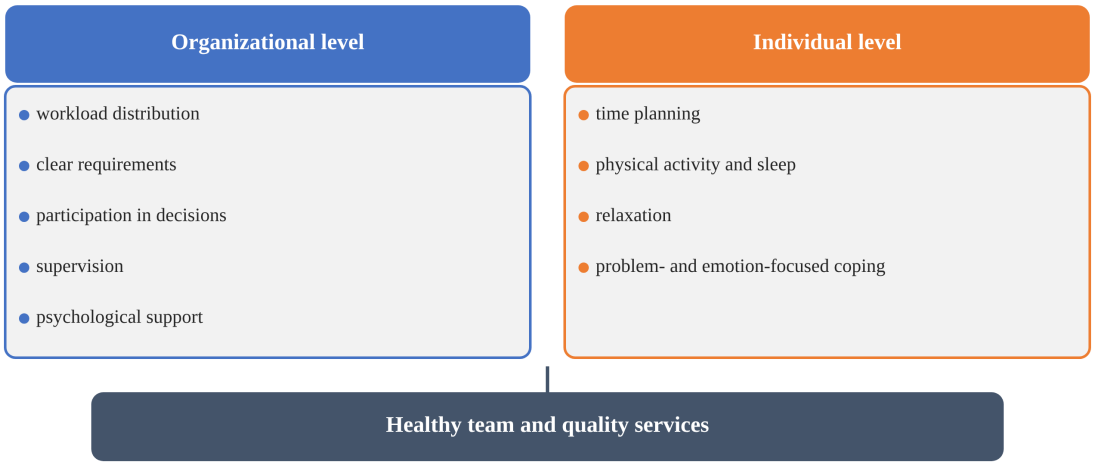


Fig. 6.6. Levels of stress management in a social organization

Source: developed by the author based on [9; 60; 62]

Conflicts and stress accompany any organization, and in the social sphere their consequences are felt not only by employees but also by the people they help. The manager's task is not to eliminate them completely. The manager has to channel conflicts constructively, notice excessive stress in time and create conditions in which people can retain their ability to work with other people's grief for a long time.

Case "Two schedules and one car"

The social service centre of the Berezhany urban community has two units. The home care unit is headed by Halyna Tkach, who has worked at the centre for more than twenty years. The unit for work with families and IDPs has been headed for the past eighteen months by Andrii Rudenko, who came from an international humanitarian organization. The centre has one service car and one driver.

Before Andrii arrived, the car was used mainly by Halyna's unit. Social care workers delivered groceries and medicines to older people in suburban villages. In recent months Andrii's unit has been calling for the car urgently more and more often, for trips to families in crisis. Twice, visits to Halyna's clients were cancelled at the last moment. One of the clients was then left without medicines over the weekend.

At a meeting Halyna said that “the new unit lives by grant rules and has forgotten who has worked here for years”. Andrii replied that a child in danger is more important than a scheduled visit. After the meeting, the staff of the two units stopped having lunch together. Two social care workers from Halyna’s unit went on sick leave. One of them confessed to the director that she walks dozens of kilometres a week and “can’t take it any more”. Andrii’s unit is also tense. Specialists are on telephone duty at weekends, and the donor project manager demands weekly reports that duplicate the reports for the community.

The director of the centre, Larysa Bondar, at first decided not to intervene, hoping that the unit heads would come to an agreement themselves. Now she has to prepare an action plan for the next session of the village council. The centre’s budget for the next year is to be considered there.

Case tasks

1. Identify the parties, the subject and the causes of the conflict. Which causes from Table 6.1 are intertwined here?

2. Was the director’s avoidance appropriate or not? Justify your answer using the model of K. W. Thomas and R. H. Kilmann.

3. Formulate the positions and interests of both unit heads. Propose at least three solutions using the method of principled negotiation.

4. What signs of stress and risk of burnout do you see in both units? Which organizational factors from Table 6.4 cause them?

5. Draw up the director’s action plan for a month. Include structural measures, a conversation with the unit heads and measures to reduce staff stress.

Self-check questions

1. What is conflict? Compare the definitions of L. Coser and M. Deutsch.

2. How does a conflict situation differ from a conflict? What role does the incident play?

3. Under what conditions does a contradiction develop into a conflict?

4. Name the types of conflicts by participants and give examples from the work of a social service.

5. What are the main causes of conflicts in a social organization?

6. Why is unsatisfactory communication both a cause and a consequence of conflict?

7. Which functions of social conflict did L. Coser identify?

8. According to M. Deutsch, how does a constructive process of conflict resolution differ from a destructive one?

9. Name the negative and positive consequences of conflict for an organization.

10. When is it advisable for a manager to initiate a managed conflict, and what boundaries should it have?

11. Which structural methods of conflict management do you know?

12. Describe the five conflict-handling styles according to K. W. Thomas and R. H. Kilmann. Along which dimensions are they distinguished?

13. What are the principles of negotiation according to R. Fisher and W. Ury? What is a BATNA?

14. How do the roles of a mediator and an arbitrator differ? On which principles is mediation based under the Law of Ukraine “On Mediation”?

15. Name the rules for resolving conflicts and explain why the degree of guilt of the participants should not be compared.

16. What is stress? Describe the stages of the general adaptation syndrome according to H. Selye.

17. How do R. Lazarus and S. Folkman explain the emergence of stress? How do the two types of coping differ?

18. Name the symptoms of stress and the managerial and personal stressors.

19. Which organizational stressors are distinguished? What does R. Karasek’s “demand–control” model explain?

20. How does the WHO define professional burnout? What measures help to prevent it in a social organization?

Topic 7. Psychological features of business communication

Lecture plan

1. The essence of business communication.
2. Forms, strategy and tactics of communication.
3. Levels of business communication.
4. Techniques for conducting individual business conversations.

1. The essence of business communication

A manager in the social sphere spends most of the working day in conversations. They negotiate with the community about funding a service, explain new requirements to employees, receive a complaint from a recipient's family and report to a donor. The quality of these conversations matters no less than the budget or the staff schedule. A poorly conducted meeting with a partner may cost the organization a project, and a careless word at a meeting can spoil the climate in the team for months.

Business communication is the process of establishing and developing interaction with communication partners regarding joint activity. It covers the exchange of information, proposals, requirements, views and motivation in order to solve specific problems within the organization and beyond it, as well as to conclude contracts and agreements or establish other relations between enterprises and organizations [1; 3]. This definition contains two ideas. The first concerns the subject. People are brought together by a task, not by personal sympathy. The second concerns the result. A conversation is considered successful when afterwards the parties know what they will do next.

Communication researchers have long sought a way to describe any act of communication with a few simple questions. In 1948 H. Lasswell proposed a formula that is still cited in textbooks: who says what, in which channel, to whom, with what effect [58, p. 37]. For the head of a social organization, this formula is useful as a preparation tool. Before going to a meeting at the social protection department, they can answer each of the five questions for themselves. Who on the

team will speak on behalf of the organization? What exactly are we proposing? Should we send the proposal by letter or come in person? Who makes the decision on the other side of the table? What result do we expect after the conversation?

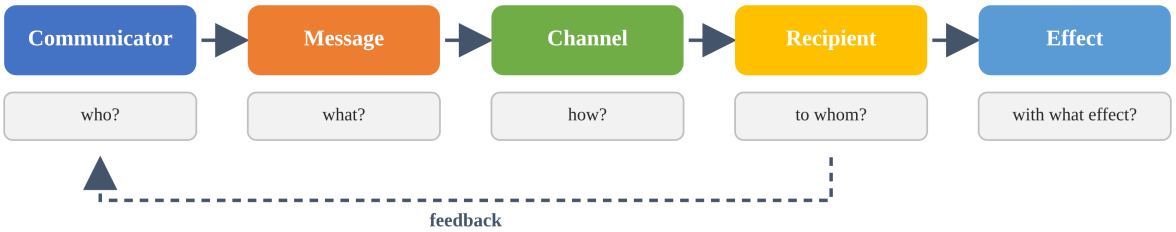


Fig. 7.1. Model of the communicative act in business communication

Source: developed by the author based on [58; 80]

H. Lasswell's formula is linear. The message moves in one direction, from speaker to listener. A business conversation is more complex. The person who sends information (the communicator) and the person who receives it (the recipient) constantly change places in business communication [1, p. 12]. The parties must therefore understand in the same way not only the meaning of words but also the content of the terms they use. The word "case" means a particular family's file for a social worker, a teaching example for a financier and a court case for a lawyer. If nobody clarified at the beginning of the conversation what was meant, the parties may talk about different things for an hour. Effective business communication is not so much an exchange of meanings as an exchange of ideas in search of a common solution [3].

The two-way nature of communication can be understood more deeply with the help of "Pragmatics of Human Communication" (1967) by P. Watzlawick, J. Beavin and D. Jackson. The authors formulated five axioms of communication [80, p. 48–71]. The first of them sounds paradoxical: one cannot not communicate. Silence at a meeting, an averted gaze or being late for a meeting are also messages, and the partner will certainly interpret them. The second axiom distinguishes a content aspect and a relationship aspect in every utterance. The phrase "The report is needed by Friday" contains information about a deadline. At the same time, the tone in which it is said conveys how the speaker regards the listener: as a colleague,

a subordinate or a person who is not trusted. The third axiom concerns the "punctuation" of interaction. Each party defines in its own way where the problem began. The manager believes that the subordinates are passive, so he controls every step. The subordinates believe that the manager controls everything, so they show no initiative. Both versions are internally logical. The fourth axiom distinguishes digital (verbal) and analogue (non-verbal) modalities. The fifth divides interactions into symmetrical ones, where the parties are equal, and complementary ones, where one position complements the other (manager – subordinate, consultant – client).

A practical conclusion follows from these axioms. A manager who cares only about the precision of words and does not pay attention to what they communicate through tone, posture and the choice of time for a conversation controls only half of their message.

Verbal and non-verbal means. The non-verbal component of communication is often described through the so-called "7–38–55 rule". According to it, only 7 % of the meaning is conveyed by words, 38 % by intonation and 55 % by facial expression. These figures do indeed come from the research of A. Mehrabian, summarized in the book "Silent Messages" (1971) [65]. However, the author himself warned against extending them to every conversation. The experiments concerned a situation in which a person expresses feelings or attitudes and their words contradict their tone. Participants heard single words, not connected speech. So the rule does not mean that the content of a business proposal accounts for only 7 %. It means something else. When words and tone diverge, the listener trusts the tone more. An employee who says "yes, I agree" with a tense face tells the manager the opposite.

Features of business communication. The literature identifies a number of features that distinguish business communication from everyday communication [1; 3; 9]:

- a certain official status of the objects and subjects of communication;

- a focus on establishing mutually beneficial contacts and maintaining links between representatives of organizations with mutual interests;

- compliance with generally recognized and generally accepted rules;

- the predictability of business contacts, which are planned in advance with a defined purpose, content and possible consequences;

- the constructive nature of relations, their focus on solving specific tasks, as a rule without going beyond the bounds of business communication;

- mutually agreed decisions, agreement and the subsequent organization of interaction between partners;

- the significance of each partner as a personality.

The last feature deserves special attention in the social sphere. Here the conversation partner is often a person in a vulnerable position: an internally displaced person, the mother of a child with a disability, a veteran who has returned from the front. The official status of a conversation does not cancel its human dimension. A specialist who speaks to such a person only in the language of regulations formally fulfils her duty but does not achieve the goal. The service recipient does not understand what is being offered and does not trust the organization.

Space in business communication. The American anthropologist E. T. Hall introduced the concept of proxemics, the study of how people use space in communication. In “The Hidden Dimension” (1966) he described four zones of interpersonal distance characteristic of North American culture [46, p. 116–125]. The author gave the boundaries of the zones in feet; their approximate metric equivalents are given below (Table 7.1).

Table 7.1

Zones of interpersonal distance according to E. T. Hall

Zone	Approximate distance	Who is admitted	Situations in the social sphere
Intimate	up to 45 cm	close people	supporting a person in acute grief, assistance during personal care

Zone	Approximate distance	Who is admitted	Situations in the social sphere
Personal	45–120 cm	acquaintances, colleagues	individual consultation, conversation with a colleague
Social	1.2–3.6 m	business partners, people one barely knows	receiving visitors, negotiations, meetings
Public	over 3.6 m	audience	speaking at public hearings, presentation

Source: compiled by the author based on [46]

A number of practical rules have been developed for business communication on the basis of proxemics [1; 3]:

- keep a sense of proportion in distancing, that is, do not move too far away from the partner or come too close;

- choose the distance according to the situation;

- do not start a conversation from a distance of more than 4 m, at which only a smile or a nod of greeting is appropriate;

- say the first phrases at the distance of the social zone, depending on how close your relationship with the partner is;

- exchange the most important ideas and information in the personal zone;

- close the distance gradually, without skipping one or two zones, since this makes it easier to reach agreement;

- do not violate the established zone, since this is unacceptable in business relations.

E. T. Hall stressed that the boundaries of the zones depend on culture [46]. In some cultures people tend to stand closer, in others further away. Since 2022, international humanitarian organizations have been working in Ukrainian communities, and their representatives bring their own habits. The head of a local organization would do well to remember that a colleague from another country who steps back is usually not showing coldness. He is simply restoring the distance he is used to.

Phases of business communication. Business communication as a process of interaction between people has its own strategic line, tactics and certain phases [1; 3] (Fig. 7.2).

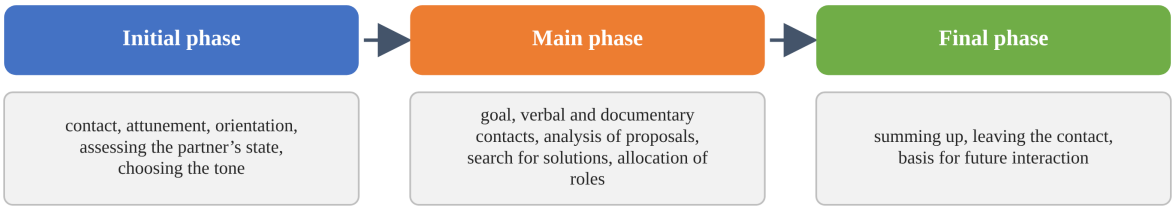


Fig. 7.2. Phases of business communication

Source: developed by the author based on [1; 3]

The initial phase lasts from the first greeting until the parties get down to business. During this time the initial contact is established, the parties tune in to communication and get their bearings in the situation. The task of this phase is to encourage the business partner to talk, to interest them and to create maximum opportunities for discussing problems. Here, too, the partner's emotional state is assessed, the strategy and tactics are determined, the tone of the relationship is chosen, and the partner's self-esteem and the distribution of roles are clarified. A few minutes spent on questions about the journey or the weather are not wasted. They make it possible to understand what kind of person one will have to work with.

The main phase contains a certain sequence of actions. The parties formulate intermediate and final goals, exchange oral and documentary materials, analyse initial and intermediate proposals, look for an agreed solution, distribute roles on the principle of "dominance – subordination" and determine the prospects of communication [3]. It is here that misunderstandings most often arise if the initial phase was skipped and the parties did not clarify how they understand the key terms.

The final phase sums up the business interaction. The partners formulate agreements, end the contact and lay the foundation for further cooperation. Experienced managers repeat aloud at the end of a meeting who does what and by when. A day later they send a short letter with the same points. This habit almost eliminates disputes of the "we didn't agree on that" kind.

2. Forms, strategy and tactics of communication

Contact and interaction. A contact is a single act in which there is no system for coordinating the partners' actions in relation to each other [1; 3]. An employee of an administrative service centre accepts an application and issues a ticket. This is a contact. Relations between business partners rest not on contacts but on interaction. Interaction is the aspect of communication manifested in people's organization of mutual actions aimed at carrying out joint activity and achieving a goal beneficial to both parties. If the same employee draws up an action plan together with the recipient, notices their doubts and checks the following week whether the agreement has worked, we are dealing with interaction.

Social interaction is understood as direct interpersonal communication, including the exchange of symbols. Its important feature is a person's ability to perform a certain role, to imagine how the partner perceives them and to interpret the situation and build their actions accordingly [3; 9]. This idea belongs to the tradition of symbolic interactionism, whose founder is considered to be G. H. Mead. In lectures published after his death under the title "Mind, Self, and Society" (1934), he showed that a person forms their own "self" by taking on the roles of other people [64, p. 135–140]. This transfers quite simply to the business sphere. A manager preparing for a conversation with the head of the social protection department mentally puts themselves in that person's place. They ask themselves to whom this person reports, what they are wary of and which argument they find convincing. This is taking the role of the other, without which communication tactics are impossible.

Types of interaction. Two types of interpersonal interaction are distinguished: cooperation and rivalry (competition). The choice between them depends on the chosen strategy and tactics [1; 3]. M. Deutsch, whose theory of conflict was discussed in the previous topic, showed that the type of interaction is determined by how the parties' goals are linked [34, p. 20–22]. If one party's success brings the other's success closer, people cooperate. They share information, trust each other and accept other people's ideas more easily. If one party's gain means the

other's loss, competition arises, with the concealment of data and suspicion. The head of a social organization can consciously influence this choice. Two units competing for one car stop competing as soon as their performance is evaluated by the common result for the community.

There is a peculiar contradiction in the process of communication. On the one hand, a person adapts to the life of society and absorbs its experience and its scientific and cultural achievements. On the other hand, they separate themselves and form their own uniqueness and individuality [1]. In a work team this contradiction manifests itself every day. An employee wants to be part of the team and at the same time expects their contribution to be noticed individually.

Forms of business communication. In the practice of a social organization, business communication exists in several main forms [1; 8; 9]. They differ in the number of participants, the degree of formality and the channel through which information flows (Table 7.2).

Table 7.2

Main forms of business communication in a social organization

Form	Participants	Purpose	Example in the social sphere
Business conversation	two people or a small group	exchange of views, setting tasks, feedback	a conversation between the head and a new specialist after the probation period
Meeting	the team or part of it	discussing decisions, distributing assignments	weekly briefing of the mobile team
Negotiations	representatives of parties with different interests	reaching an agreement	agreeing social commissioning with the community
Public speech, presentation	one speaker and an audience	informing, persuading	report to local council members
Telephone conversation	two people	quick clarification, reminder	a call to a recipient before a visit
Online meeting	from two to dozens of people	interaction of dispersed teams	consultation with a partner organization from another region

Form	Participants	Purpose	Example in the social sphere
Business correspondence	no limits	recording agreements, official requests	a letter to a donor summarizing a project

Source: compiled by the author based on [1; 8; 9]

After 2020, the share of online communication in Ukrainian social organizations grew noticeably, first because of the pandemic and then because of the war and the displacement of employees. Video communication has its limitations. Some non-verbal signals disappear, a switched-off camera turns a colleague into an unknown quantity, and audio delay makes it hard to take turns. According to P. Watzlawick's axiom that one cannot not communicate, this silence also says something, but it is unknown what exactly [80]. Experienced moderators of online meetings therefore address each participant by name and summarize the decisions in writing in the chat at the end.

Strategy of business communication. Strategy involves setting a goal that stimulates the subject's will to communicate. It makes a person act consciously and intensively, mobilize their abilities, knowledge and experience, and subordinate their own efforts to achieving the goal [1; 3]. Strategy answers the question "why?". The director of a territorial centre going to see the head of the community may have different strategic goals. She may seek additional funding now, she may lay the foundation of trust for years ahead, or she may merely inform him about a problem so as not to be blamed later. The tone, duration and even the place of the meeting depend on this.

Tactics of business communication. Tactics involve choosing the model of behaviour most favourable for achieving the goal in a particular situation. They answer the question "how?". Communication tactics are based on the following principles [1; 3]:

- having several options for behaviour in situations of the same type and being able to use them quickly;

- preventing confrontation or conflict with the business partner;

- skilful use of the mechanisms of human interaction (attachment, sympathy, antipathy, trust, respect);

- paying careful attention to ideas and opinions that seem new and unusual at first glance;

- the ability to present oneself, assess partners' reactions correctly and catch the slightest changes in the situation.

The first principle is the hardest for beginners. A young manager often has one habitual manner and applies it to everyone. A demanding tone works well on a careless contractor but crushes a barely composed employee who asks for a day off after three difficult trips. Situations of the same type require different approaches.

Transactional analysis as a tactical tool. One of the best-known ways of analysing behaviour in conversation was proposed by E. Berne. In "Games People Play" (1964) he described three ego states in which a person may be during communication: Parent, Adult and Child [30, p. 23–28]. The Parent state reproduces learned norms, care or criticism. The Adult state relies on facts and sober calculation. The Child state manifests itself in emotions, spontaneity, resentment or submissiveness. The states are not related to age. An experienced manager may take offence like a child, while a student intern may become the only sober "adult" at a meeting.

The unit of analysis is the transaction, that is, the stimulus of one person and the response of another. A transaction is complementary (parallel) when the response comes from the state that was addressed. Such a conversation can go on indefinitely. A transaction is crossed when an irritated Parent or an offended Child responds to an Adult's question. Then communication breaks off or turns into a quarrel [30]. Fig. 7.3 shows both cases.

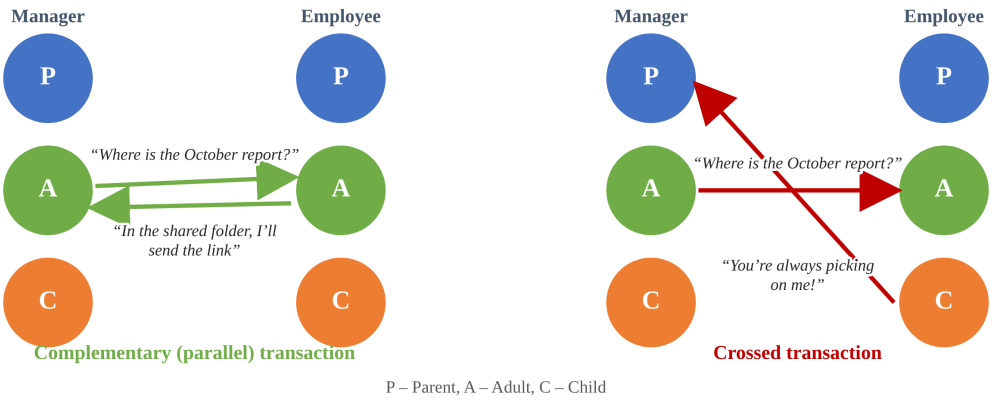


Fig. 7.3. Complementary and crossed transactions in a business conversation

Source: developed by the author based on [30]

For business communication the most productive line is "Adult – Adult". In the social sphere something else often happens. A specialist gets used to caring for people and imperceptibly slips into the position of a protective Parent towards service recipients. Over time, recipients stop taking responsibility and respond from the position of a dependent Child. Modern strengths-based approaches to social work require a partnership position [8]. A manager can support it by personal example by speaking to subordinates as adult professionals rather than as pupils who need to be checked.

3. Levels of business communication

Psychologists who deal with problems of communication offer a great deal of advice and recommendations. Some of them claim to be universal. The well-known advice to "attract a person's attention with a smile" helps little in specific circumstances [1; 3]. Imagine a specialist who has come to inform a family that a service has been refused. A broad smile here would look like mockery. Another popular recommendation calls for "deeply understanding every person". Psychological research shows that a person is able to know and understand deeply only two or three people, and to navigate successfully the behaviour of about ten. The composition of such groups changes depending on the person's individual characteristics and social conditions [1].

These observations are consistent with the “social brain” hypothesis developed by the British anthropologist R. Dunbar. In a joint article published in 2005, W.-X. Zhou, D. Sornette, R. Hill and R. Dunbar analysed data on the sizes of human groups and concluded that social ties are organized in a discrete hierarchy [84]. Each successive circle of relationships is about three times larger than the previous one. The closest circle includes a few people, followed by groups of about a dozen and of several dozen people. The outer limit of stable relationships reaches about 150 people.

Quite practical consequences follow from this for social management. The head of a centre that employs seventy people physically cannot maintain deep personal contact with each of them. They need unit heads who have real contact with small teams. A supervisor with twenty specialists to supervise is also at risk. They will know the few most active ones well, and the rest will remain names on the timesheet. Such a situation creates fertile ground for unfairness and burnout, so it is sensible to take it into account when designing the organization’s structure [8].

Three levels of communication are conventionally distinguished: socio-role, business and personal [1; 3] (Fig. 7.4).

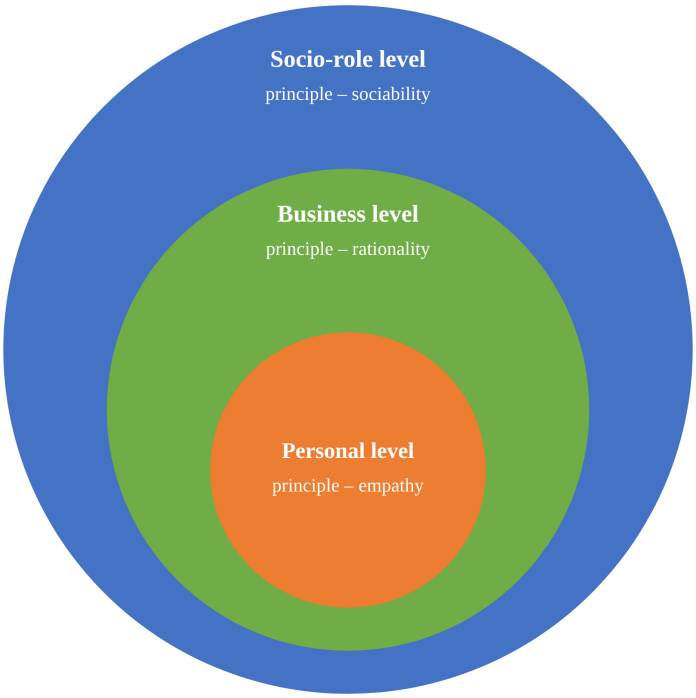


Fig. 7.4. Levels of communication and their main principles

Source: developed by the author based on [1; 3]

The socio-role level. The main principle of relations at this level is sociability, that is, knowledge, internalization and observance of the norms and requirements of the social environment [1]. A person gives up their seat on public transport to older people and passengers with children and treats the requests of strangers patiently. They do this not because they know these people but because such behaviour corresponds to the role of a well-mannered person. In a social organization this level includes greetings in the corridor, a polite answer to a call from a stranger and keeping to the queue at reception.

E. Goffman showed that even such simple actions are ritual in nature. In his collection of essays “Interaction Ritual” (1967) he introduced the concept of “face”. It is the positive image of self that a person claims before others during an interaction [45, p. 5]. Participants in a conversation constantly help each other to “save face”. They overlook small mistakes, choose their words carefully when refusing and give the other person the opportunity to get out of an awkward situation with dignity. A person who breaks these unwritten rules manages to spoil relations before the conversation even gets to the point.

The business level of communication. At this level people are united by the interests of the task and by joint activity aimed at achieving a goal. People enter into business relations with colleagues at work, as well as with those who share common interests in civic associations and informal groups. The main principle of business relations is rationality, that is, increasing the effectiveness of cooperation [1; 3]. Rationality does not equal coldness. It means that the parties evaluate proposals by their usefulness for the common cause rather than by who made them. At the business level people may not like each other but still work smoothly together if each does their part of the work.

The personal level of communication. This level is distinguished by special psychological closeness and concern for other people, above all those close to us (family members, friends). The main principle of such communication is empathy, that is, the capacity for compassion and sharing another's feelings [1; 3]. The American psychologist C. R. Rogers described empathy as a special way of being with another person. A person, as it were, enters the inner world of the other and temporarily lives in it without judging and without losing their own position [72, p. 4]. The last qualification is very important. Empathy does not mean merging with another's experiences. A specialist who lives through other people's grief as their own every day burns out very quickly.

A comparison of the three levels is given in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3

Comparative characteristics of the levels of communication

Feature	Socio-role	Business	Personal
Main principle	sociability	rationality	empathy
What unites people	shared norms	a common task and goal	psychological closeness
Degree of acquaintance	may be strangers	acquainted through work	know each other well
Regulators	etiquette, customs	job descriptions, contracts, code of ethics	trust, mutual expectations

Feature	Socio-role	Business	Personal
Example in the social sphere	receiving a visitor at the centre	a meeting with partners on a shared case	supporting a colleague after a loss
Risk of non-compliance	a reputation as an ill-mannered person	breakdown of cooperation	loss of trust

Source: compiled by the author based on [1; 3; 45; 72]

Boundaries between levels. In real life the levels intertwine. Two colleagues who have worked together for ten years become friends. The head of a small civil society organization often knows many beneficiaries from school days. It is impossible, and unnecessary, to give up such relationships. However, a manager must be clearly aware of the level at which they are making a decision. The distribution of a bonus, the queue for a service or the evaluation of work belong to the business level, and personal sympathy should play no role here. In social work this problem is described as dual relationships, when the specialist and the client are also linked by family, neighbourly or friendly ties [8; 9]. In small communities such situations occur constantly. A sensible way out is to hand the case over to another specialist or at least to discuss it with a supervisor.

The transition from the business level to the personal level should take place at the wish of both parties. A manager who questions a subordinate about her family circumstances without her consent crosses a boundary, even when acting with the best of intentions. Conversely, when an employee herself talks about her father's serious illness, a dry formal response is perceived as indifference. The ability to notice in time which level the other person is inviting you to is part of a manager's communicative competence.

4. Techniques for conducting individual business conversations

The individual business conversation is the most common form of managerial communication. Through it a manager hires people, explains tasks, gives feedback and negotiates with partners. The success of a conversation is laid before it begins.

Textbooks on the psychology of business communication identify three starting positions for shaping a conversation [1; 3].

1. Find out "who is who". Your status and the status of the other person must be defined. Knowing the status indicates the partner's potential capabilities and the degree of their recognition. If the partner's status is lower, your behaviour will be dominant even at a subconscious level, and this will give you the initial initiative. If the partner's status is higher, you need to adjust your own behaviour so as to achieve parity [1].

In the social sphere, status does not always coincide with position. A representative of a small parents' organization may have much more influence on community council members than the director of a large municipal institution. A foreign donor formally manages nobody, yet the existence of the service depends on their decision. Therefore "who is who" means not only position but also the other person's real influence, resources and interests.

2. Choose the meeting place. It is best to receive a business partner on your own premises, since a familiar environment gives confidence and an advantage. If it is not possible to invite the partner to your premises, a meeting is arranged on neutral ground [1; 3]. This advice comes from commercial negotiations and needs to be qualified for the social sphere. A conversation with a service recipient is often better held at their home, because they feel calmer there and the specialist sees their real living conditions. A meeting with a partner organization on its premises shows respect and makes it possible to see its work first-hand. The choice of place depends on the goal. One's own office is suitable for tough negotiations; for a confidential conversation, a place where the other person feels comfortable.

3. Clarify the purpose of the business conversation. In psychological terms, this means understanding who is more interested in the conversation, that is, "who needs it more". If the partner is interested, indirect questions help to find out the degree of their interest and to secure more favourable terms [1]. R. Fisher and W. Ury offered a deeper view of this task. They advise focusing on interests rather than positions [41, p. 42–57]. A position is what a person demands ("we need one more

staff position"). An interest is what they actually seek ("not to lose people because of overload"). One interest can be satisfied in different ways, and it is this that opens up room for agreement.

Structure of the conversation. A business conversation usually goes through several stages that correspond to the phases of communication discussed in the first section [1; 3] (Fig. 7.5).

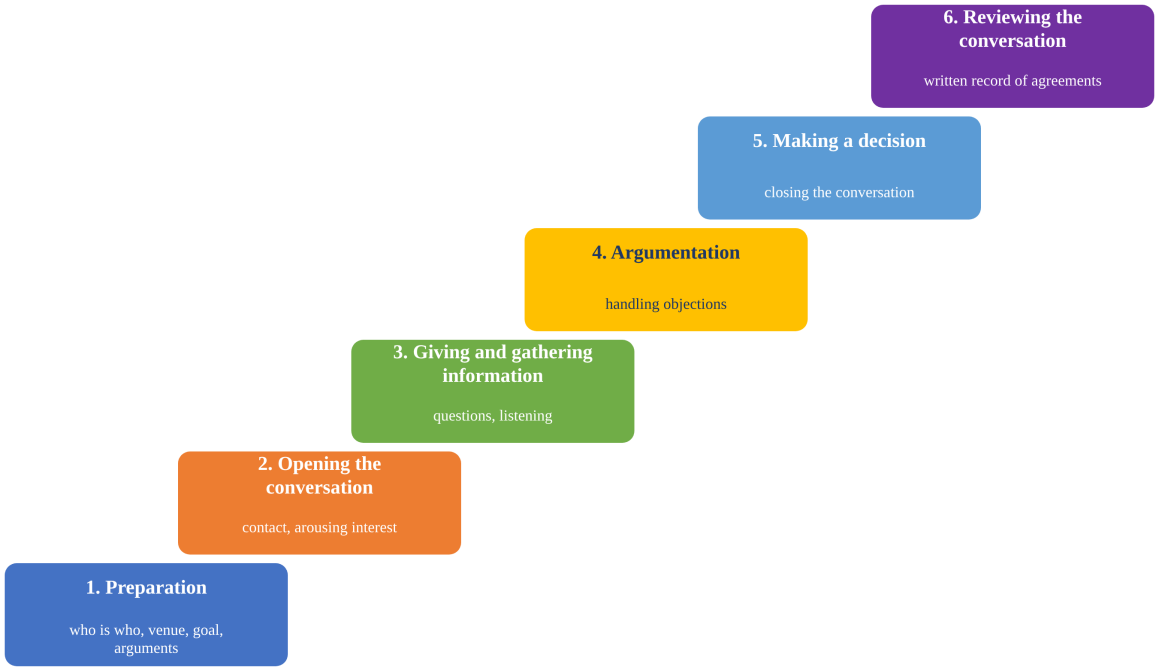


Fig. 7.5. Stages of an individual business conversation

Source: developed by the author based on [1; 3; 41]

The last stage is often skipped. Yet a short analysis after the meeting (what went well, where the partner objected, which questions remained open) takes a few minutes and consistently improves the quality of subsequent conversations.

Questions and listening. Information during a conversation is gathered with the help of questions. Closed questions ("Did you receive our letter?") call for a "yes" or "no" answer and help to clarify a fact. Open questions ("How do you see our cooperation next year?") invite a detailed answer and reveal interests. Alternative questions ("Shall we meet on Tuesday or Wednesday?") speed up decision-making. Rhetorical questions are best limited in a business conversation, as they easily sound like a reproach.

Questions produce results only when a person knows how to listen to the answers. C. R. Rogers, on whose work the concept of active listening is based, showed that a person who is truly heard becomes more open and less defensive [72]. The main listening techniques are given in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4

Active listening techniques in a business conversation

Technique	Essence	Example phrase
Clarifying	asking to clarify what is unclear	"What exactly do you mean when you talk about reporting?"
Paraphrasing	restating the other person's idea in one's own words	"If I understood correctly, you are worried about the deadlines rather than the volume"
Reflecting feelings	naming the emotion heard in the words	"It seems this situation has upset you a great deal"
Summarizing	a brief summary of what has been said	"So we have agreed on three steps…"
Pause	silence that gives time to think things through	a few seconds of silence after a difficult question
Non-verbal support	nodding, eye contact, open posture	phone put aside, eyes on the other person

Source: compiled by the author based on [1; 72]

Techniques for building sympathy and trust. The literature on the psychology of business communication offers a number of techniques that can evoke sympathy and trust in the other person [1; 3]. Each of them is presented below together with a comment on its application in the social sphere.

1. *Notice the partner's positive qualities and mention them without exaggeration.* Two undesirable reactions may arise in the partner. They may decide that you are bowing to them and begin to dominate, or they may suspect insincerity [1]. Specificity protects against both reactions. The phrase "You are a wonderful person" sounds like flattery. The phrase "Your report on the needs of older people helped us to redistribute routes" is perceived as recognition.

2. *Overstate your own demands within reasonable limits so as to have room to "retreat".* The effectiveness of this technique has been confirmed experimentally. In 1975 R. Cialdini and co-authors described the so-called door-in-the-face technique [32]. A person who has first refused a large request is more likely to agree to a smaller one because they perceive it as a reciprocal concession. In 2021 O. Genschow and co-authors conducted a direct replication of this experiment and obtained similarly high compliance rates [43]. At the same time, the effect has a clear limit. If the first demand looks absurd, the partner loses trust in the whole conversation. In communication with service recipients this technique is entirely unacceptable, since a person in crisis is not a party to bargaining.

3. *Criticize only those essential points in the partner's position that may harm the common cause.* It is better to pass over insignificant details you do not like with a neutral expression [1]. Every unnecessary remark uses up the other person's store of goodwill. The same rules apply in business correspondence. A letter with twelve minor complaints hides the one that really matters.

4. *Avoid words that express extreme semantic and emotional poles.* Expressions such as "I am absolutely sure" or "I guarantee it one hundred per cent" create a trap [1]. The very first exception undermines trust in the speaker. In the social sphere, where the result depends on many unpredictable factors, promises without reservations are especially risky.

5. *Let the partner "put a good face on a bad game".* Your behaviour should not show that your arguments proved more convincing or that you have gained a business or moral advantage over the partner [1]. This technique follows directly from E. Goffman's concept of "face" [45]. A person who has lost an argument in a humiliating way will carry out the agreement only formally or will look for an opportunity to get even. A manager who has persuaded a subordinate would do better to say "we reached this conclusion together" than "I told you so".

6. *"Don't slam the door."* If the conversation has not led to success, the defeat should be accepted with dignity and the parties should part on friendly terms. This leaves the possibility of making contact again and preserves one's reputation [1].

For the social sphere this advice carries particular weight. The circle of partners in a community is small, and the person who refused today may chair the funding allocation committee a year from now. R. Fisher and W. Ury's principle of separating the people from the problem is also relevant here [41, p. 19–41]. Firmness on the substance does not contradict respect for the person.

Ethical limits of influence techniques. Some traditional advice on business conversations comes from the world of commercial negotiations. There it is quite acceptable to hide one's own interest or to start with an inflated price. A social manager uses these techniques in conversations with suppliers, sponsors or public authorities. In a conversation with a vulnerable person or with one's own employee, they turn into manipulation. A simple criterion helps to distinguish between these cases. If the other person, on learning about the technique used, would feel deceived, the technique goes beyond the limits of ethical business communication. This approach is consistent with the requirements of honesty and respect for dignity that underlie the ethics of social work [8; 9].

All the techniques discussed have a common basis. A business conversation is a dialogue between two subjects, each of whom has their own goals, status and need for respect. A manager who remembers this does not always get everything they want in a particular conversation. But they preserve over the years the relationships without which a social organization cannot survive.

Case "Half an hour in the deputy's office"

Olha Vasylivna has been heading the civic organization "Poruch" ("Nearby") for three months; it helps older people in the villages of the fictional Berezivka community. The organization has a donor grant for a mobile team, but the grant ends in eight months. For the service not to stop, an agreement with the community on social commissioning is needed. The decision is being prepared by the deputy head of the community, Anatolii Petrovych, a former school principal who has held the post for twelve years.

Olha Vasylivna's predecessor often criticized the community authorities on social media. Anatolii Petrovych has not forgotten this. He replied curtly to the first request for a meeting and invited her to his office on Friday at 16:30, half an hour before the end of the working day.

Olha Vasylivna prepared for two days. She prepared a twenty-slide presentation and decided to begin by asking for full funding of the team from the community budget, although she was counting on half. For the first five minutes of the meeting Anatolii Petrovych looked at his phone. Then he said: "As far as I understand, you have come for money. There is no money."

At that moment Olha Vasylivna put the presentation aside. She asked which complaints from older people most often reached the executive committee. The deputy unexpectedly opened up. He talked about calls about the lack of medicines in remote villages, about council members demanding that "something be done about the old people", and about the fact that the territorial centre's unit itself has no transport. The conversation lasted longer than planned.

At the end, the head of the organization proposed a pilot route to three villages with joint funding and a monthly report for council members. Anatolii Petrovych promised to think about it. On parting he added that he had not expected such a conversation from "Poruch". The second meeting did not take place on the agreed date because the deputy went to a meeting in the regional centre. Olha Vasylivna does not know whether this is a refusal and has not decided what to do next.

Case tasks

1. Identify the messages Anatolii Petrovych conveyed before the conversation even began. How does P. Watzlawick's first axiom explain this?

2. Analyse Olha Vasylivna's preparation in terms of the three starting positions of a conversation. What did she take into account, and what did she miss?

3. Why could the technique of an inflated first demand have backfired in this situation? Draw on R. Cialdini's research and the history of relations between the organizations.

4. Which technique changed the course of the conversation? Explain it through R. Fisher and W. Ury's distinction between positions and interests.

5. Develop Olha Vasylivna's action plan for the next week. Which form of business communication should she choose, and what exactly should she write or say?

Self-check questions

1. What is business communication, and how does it differ from everyday communication?

2. Which five elements of the communicative act did H. Lasswell identify?

3. Why do the communicator and the recipient constantly change places in a business conversation?

4. Formulate the five axioms of communication according to P. Watzlawick.

5. How should the "7–38–55 rule" be interpreted, and within what limits does it apply?

6. Name the main features of business communication.

7. Which zones of interpersonal distance did E. T. Hall describe?

8. Which rules of distancing are observed in business communication?

9. Describe the initial, main and final phases of business communication.

10. How does a contact differ from interaction?

11. What is the significance for business communication of G. H. Mead's idea of taking the role of the other?

12. What determines the choice between cooperation and rivalry in interaction?

13. Name the main forms of business communication in a social organization.

14. How does the strategy of business communication differ from its tactics?

15. Which ego states did E. Berne identify, and how does a complementary transaction differ from a crossed one?

16. Describe the socio-role, business and personal levels of communication.

17. What are the implications for management of the hypothesis that social ties are organized hierarchically?

18. What is empathy according to C. R. Rogers, and how does it differ from merging with another person's experiences?

19. Which three starting positions determine the preparation of an individual business conversation?

20. Where is the boundary between influence techniques and manipulation in a business conversation in the social sphere?

Topic 8. Features of creating and running advertising campaigns by social sector organizations

Lecture plan

1. The concept and essence of social advertising.
2. The main tasks and functions of social advertising.
3. Features of advertising created by social sector organizations.

1. The concept and essence of social advertising

A social sector organization may provide a much-needed service and at the same time remain unknown to those for whom the service is intended. A mother who does not know about a support group for parents of children with autism will not come to it. A teenager who has not heard of an anonymous helpline will remain alone with their problem. For a social manager, therefore, advertising is not an addition to the main work but part of it.

Educational literature defines social advertising as a special type of dissemination of non-commercial information aimed at achieving certain social goals of the state or executive authorities [3; 9]. This definition is too narrow for modern practice, since social advertising is also commissioned by civic and charitable organizations, international foundations, businesses and individual citizens. The Law of Ukraine “On Advertising” in its current version defines social advertising as “a type of advertising that covers socially useful information aimed at the development of the individual and society” [19, art. 1]. Such advertising does not aim to make a profit and does not induce voters to support or not support participants in elections. The key element of this definition is the content and purpose of the message, not who commissioned it.

The main source of social advertising is modern public life with its conflict situations, confrontations between social groups and acute problems that require professional solutions [3]. Social advertising arises within society and reflects the processes taking place in it. From the topics of billboards one can tell quite accurately what a country is living through at a given period. In the 1990s, stories

about HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis prevailed in Ukraine; in the 2010s, about countering domestic violence and human trafficking; and after 2022, mental health, support for veterans and mine safety came to the fore.

Social advertising and social marketing. The theoretical foundation of social advertising was laid by research on social marketing. In 1971 P. Kotler and G. Zaltman published the article “Social Marketing: An Approach to Planned Social Change” in the Journal of Marketing [55]. The authors raised the question of whether brotherhood, safe driving or family planning could be promoted with the same methods used to promote goods. The answer proved ambiguous. The analytical tools of marketing do indeed help to plan social change and monitor its results. However, the “product” of social marketing is an idea or behaviour, and a person “pays” for it not with money but with effort, time and giving up habitual practices.

Social advertising is only one of the tools of social marketing, namely its communication component. Advertising can draw attention to a problem and persuade a person to seek help. But if the service itself is inaccessible, expensive or inconvenient, no video will change the situation. Fig. 8.1 shows the place of social advertising in this system.



Fig. 8.1. The place of social advertising in the social marketing mix

Source: developed by the author based on [3; 55]

Social and commercial advertising. Social advertising uses the same set of tools as commercial advertising, in particular television commercials and print, outdoor and transit advertising [3; 9]. The main difference lies in the goal. A commercial advertiser stimulates a favourable attitude towards a product and growth in sales. The goal of social advertising is to draw attention to a social phenomenon that dominates at a certain stage of the state's development. Whereas the ultimate goal of an advertisement for a new kind of coffee is to change consumer habits, social advertising against child homelessness draws people's attention to the problem and, in the strategic perspective, changes society's model of behaviour. The target audience also differs. For commercial advertising it is a fairly narrow marketing group; for social advertising it is the whole of society or a significant part of it (Table 8.1).

Table 8.1

Comparison of commercial and social advertising

Criterion	Commercial advertising	Social advertising
Goal	sale of a product, profit	a socially beneficial change in attitudes or behaviour
Object	product, service, brand	idea, value, model of behaviour, social service
Target audience	a narrow segment of consumers	society or a large social group
Novelty of information	often announces something new	usually reminds of what is known
Commissioning party	manufacturer or seller	public authorities, civic and charitable organizations, any person
Mention of a product or manufacturer	mandatory	prohibited by law
Criterion of success	sales, market share	change in knowledge, attitudes, behaviour, requests for services
Time to result	relatively fast	long, often delayed

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9; 19; 55]

Unlike commercial advertising, the information in social advertising is not new. Everyone knows that smoking is harmful and that driving while drunk is dangerous. Paradoxically, the more familiar the addressee is with the topic of the message, the more sharply they react and the more effective the campaign [3]. The task of social advertising is not so much to inform as to turn familiar knowledge into a personal decision. Advertising practitioners regard creating social advertising as a measure of professionalism and creativity. Such advertising should evoke strong emotions (shock, fear, joy or indignation) and work more powerfully than an advertisement for washing powder or a new restaurant [3; 9].

Fear as a tool and its limits. Research does not confirm the belief that strong fear automatically changes behaviour. In 1992 the American communication scholar K. Witte proposed the Extended Parallel Process Model [83]. According to this model, a person evaluates two elements of a message. The first is threat, that is, how

serious the danger is and how much it concerns them personally. The second is efficacy, that is, whether the proposed way of protection works and whether the person will be able to use it. If the threat is high and an accessible way of protection is clear, the person changes their behaviour. If the threat is high but no way out is offered, a defensive reaction is triggered. The person denies the danger, avoids the message or becomes angry with its authors [83, p. 337–339].

A simple rule follows from this for social advertising. A shocking image always needs a specific hint about what to do. A poster with a photograph of damaged lungs without the number of a quit-smoking helpline will only irritate many smokers. Fear in social advertising is appropriate only when a way out is offered alongside it.

The goal and components of social advertising. The main goal of social advertising is to present to a person, briefly, clearly and vividly, an idea, a qualified service, a value orientation, an assessment, a model of behaviour or information about a socially important problem [3; 9]. Such a message orients a person's actions towards an ideal enshrined in culture that is perceived as a positive example. Two main components of social advertising are distinguished [3]:

- the informational component, which consists in informing the population about norms and moral values;

- the socio-preventive component, which consists in reducing negative influences on consciousness and, through it, on people's behaviour.

Social advertising has become a component of almost all social programmes of social service centres. It has entered the subject field of the theory of social work and is regarded as one of the working methods of these centres [3; 8]. In modern society, social advertising is gradually becoming an effective mechanism for shaping public opinion and social behaviour. This makes it possible to use it in social work to perform adaptive, culture-transmitting and socio-regulatory functions [3].

Ethical requirements and targeting. When creating social advertising, an organization chooses forms and means that take into account the special sensitivity of children and young people and do not cause spiritual, moral or psychological harm

to a person of any age [3]. The social advertising of social services contains nothing in its text or images that violates ethical and humanistic norms and seeks to emphasize the positive. Depicting the people the organization helps requires particular delicacy. A photograph of a child from a residential institution on a billboard may raise donations but at the same time stigmatize this child in their own village. The law expressly prohibits using the image or name of a specific person in social advertising without their consent [3; 19].

Social work practice shows that many people seek consolation in alcohol, smoking and drugs. The formation of a resilient personality therefore becomes a top priority. This is promoted by targeted social advertising, which helps [3]:

- a teenager to see alternatives to risky behaviour;
- young people to understand their own nature and find their place in society;
- the consumer of advertising to acquire the skills of sober assessment of events;
- any person to evaluate their own behaviour and personal choices sensibly;
- a person in difficult life circumstances to choose an appropriate way of solving the problem.

Models of social advertising products. Several models are used to create social advertising products [3; 9] (Table 8.2).

Table 8.2

Models of social advertising products

Model	Content	Example of a topic
Advertising of moral values	norms and values of society: responsibility, self-fulfilment, culture of communication, health, the image of mother and child	responsible parenthood
Warning	emphasizing dangerous actions that lead to social problems	mine safety, fraudulent job offers abroad
Factual knowledge	disseminating or clarifying knowledge	how to obtain disability status

Model	Content	Example of a topic
Learning	developing skills of self-fulfilment, self-development and communication	how to support a loved one in crisis
Health promotion	encouraging positive habits	preventive check-ups, physical activity

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9]

Print advertising has traditionally been considered the main component of an advertising campaign. It became the model for other types of advertising thanks to its symbolic nature, which formed the basis of television and radio advertising [3]. Today most social messages are disseminated through social networks and messengers, but the principles of building a printed message (headline, image, short text, call to action) apply there too.

The main components of social advertising. Social advertising must meet the general requirements set out in the Law of Ukraine "On Advertising" [19]. The literature identifies the following components [3; 9]:

1. Relevance, that is, important and timely information that corresponds to the most pressing needs of the present.

2. The advertising (social) idea as the main thought for persuading the target audience, the basis of the content of the advertising message.

3. An advertising style that combines an appropriate and harmonious set of colour, graphic, linguistic and design elements.

4. A slogan that formulates the main theme of the message clearly and concisely and corresponds to the content of the information.

5. Originality, which does not allow imitation or copying of texts, images, music and sound effects from other advertising.

6. Production using modern technologies and artistic means, which ensures an expressive appearance.

7. Calculation of the print run with a view to maximum coverage of the target audience.

8. The absence of the image or name of a specific natural person without their consent, as well as of references to a specific product, its manufacturer or the advertiser.

The last requirement is based on Art. 12 of the Law “On Advertising”. The law allows an exception when the advertiser is a civic or charitable organization [19, art. 12]. The same article provides that media outlets funded wholly or partly from the state or local budget shall disseminate free of charge the social advertising of public authorities, local self-government bodies and civic organizations in a volume of at least 5 % of the airtime or space allocated to advertising. Persons who produce and disseminate social advertising free of charge enjoy the privileges provided for charitable activity. For the head of a civic organization, these provisions open up a real opportunity to disseminate a message without an advertising budget of its own, but they are rarely used.

Social advertising is an influential factor in shaping human values and a mechanism for persuading public opinion. That is why higher ethical and legal requirements are imposed on it.

2. The main tasks and functions of social advertising

Criteria of psychological effectiveness. Social advertising shares the same criteria of psychological effectiveness as commercial advertising, namely memorability, attractiveness, informativeness and motivating power. However, they operate with certain limitations and are closely linked to the tasks of social advertising [3; 9]. The attractiveness of commercial advertising often rests on humour and lightness. In a video about domestic violence or the loss of loved ones, humour can easily become inappropriate. Memorability is not an end in itself either. A person may remember a shocking video for years and change nothing in their behaviour.

Tasks of social advertising. The literature formulates the tasks of social advertising as follows [3; 8; 9]:

- shaping public opinion;

- drawing attention to pressing problems of public life;
- stimulating action to solve them;
- forming a positive attitude towards state institutions;
- demonstrating the social responsibility of business;
- strengthening socially significant institutions of civil society;
- forming new types of social relations;
- changing society's model of behaviour.

To achieve these goals, social advertising has to accomplish a number of immediate tasks. It influences the attitude towards a certain problem, phenomenon or facts, directing it towards a positive solution. It orients people towards relevant social values, contributes to the harmonization and social cohesion of society and creates a favourable emotional mood [3].

In wartime the list of tasks has not changed, but their weight has. The role of social cohesion and emotional support has grown considerably. This is evident from a study of the social advertising of the Lviv territorial community conducted by V. Opanasiuk and K. Zavadska [11, p. 182–184]. The authors compared the content of social advertising in 2021 and 2023 (Table 8.3).

Table 8.3

Content structure of the social advertising of the Lviv territorial community, %

Thematic group	2021	2023
Informational	32.1	22.6
Cultural	19.0	26.4
Patriotic	7.1	24.5
Help for people in difficult life circumstances	10.7	9.4
Historical	7.1	3.7

Source: compiled by the author based on [11]

The table shows only the main groups, so the shares do not add up to 100 %. The authors also noted the disappearance of environmental topics and the

appearance of health topics in 2023. The share of patriotic messages almost tripled. At the same time, the share of advertising about help for people in difficult circumstances decreased slightly, although the number of such people has grown. The same study cites data on an increase in the number of persons with disabilities by 300 thousand during the first eighteen months of martial law [11]. For social organizations this is a signal with practical content. The advertising space is occupied primarily by mobilization topics, and messages about specific social services have to be promoted more persistently and inventively.

Principles for increasing the effectiveness of influence. The process of increasing the effectiveness of social advertising is built on several principles [3] (Fig. 8.2).



Fig. 8.2. Principles for increasing the effectiveness of social advertising

Source: developed by the author based on [3]

The principle of intersectorality means that work becomes most effective through the joint efforts of representatives of different sectors. A campaign to prevent early marriage or bullying requires the participation of schools, health care

institutions, the police and social services. Each of them has its own channel of access to the audience.

The principle of multilevel involvement provides for the participation in the programme of representatives of all levels (central, regional and local) as well as of individual organizations. A national campaign sets the framework and the visual style. The community fills it with local contacts and the addresses of services.

The principle of partnership requires that all participants in the programme share common goals, have strong motives for action and use working means that do not contradict their partners but enhance their capabilities [3].

The principle of adaptation emphasizes that any sample of social advertising will produce results only if it is adapted to the local conditions, needs and capabilities of the community or region. A billboard that works well in a regional centre is almost invisible in a village where people learn the news from the postwoman and in the queue at the shop.

The principle of mediation provides that someone ensures intersectoral multilevel partnership, communicates the common ideology to the participants, helps to develop common goals and unites them in joint activity [3]. In practice this role is often performed by the social manager. They know all the participants, understand their interests and can bring them together.

These principles are well illustrated by the All-Ukrainian Mental Health Programme “How are you?” (“Ty yak?”). Its communication campaign was launched on 24 March 2023 on the initiative of O. Zelenska [22]. Its development and implementation were coordinated by the Ministry of Health of Ukraine, the WHO Country Office in Ukraine acted as the expert partner, and the civic organization “Bezbariernist” (“Barrier-Free”) as the implementing partner. The launch announcement cited survey data. 70 % of Ukrainians had recently experienced stress or strong nervousness, but only 2 % had sought psychological help [22]. It is precisely this gap between need and help-seeking that is the field for social advertising. The name of the campaign is itself a call to action. It encourages people to ask one another how they are, and the campaign website offers evidence-

based self-help techniques and the contacts of crisis lines. In this way the stress and anxiety named in the message are complemented by a clear course of action, in line with K. Witte's model [83].

The advertising idea. The advertising idea is the set of arguments and facts, clothed in a certain artistic form, that forms the basis of an advertising message. It convinces the addressee that this particular social service or this model of behaviour will best meet their needs [3; 9]. The idea is the concept of the character, content and direction of advertising influence. A weak idea looks like a list of facts ("the centre provides the following services…"). A strong idea rests on a single thought that is clear without explanation. An example is the message "Asking for help is also strength", addressed to veterans, for whom asking for help is often associated with weakness.

Functions of social advertising. The goals of social advertising are achieved through its main functions, which correlate with the functions of other forms of communication [3; 9] (Table 8.4).

Table 8.4

Functions of social advertising in the activities of social sector organizations

Function	Content	Example
Informational	informing citizens or particular groups about socially significant events and services	where and how an internally displaced person can apply for assistance
Educational	forming new behavioural attitudes	quitting smoking, caring for one's mental health
Image-building	creating a positive image of social services and civic organizations, overcoming a negative image among clients	stories of people the service has helped (with their consent)
Mobilizing	consolidating the efforts of social institutions, sponsors and citizens to solve social problems	recruiting volunteers, fundraising, a call to become a blood donor

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 8; 9]

The image-building function requires a separate comment. Society still holds the notion that only "dysfunctional" families turn to social services and that the service itself may "take the child away". Such an image scares off precisely those who need help most. Social advertising that shows the service as a partner of the family works in the long term and lowers the threshold for seeking help. The mobilizing function, in turn, became one of the most visible in 2022–2024, when social advertising recruited volunteers and raised funds to help those affected.

The tasks and functions of social advertising determine how it is organized and carried out and make it possible to predict the results of its influence on different groups of society [3]. Thanks to them, various social services reach the people whom they help to find a way out of difficult life situations.

3. Features of advertising created by social sector organizations

Stages of an advertising campaign. To prepare and run an advertising campaign, any organization usually goes through four stages, which differ in their programme goals and tasks [3; 9] (Fig. 8.3).

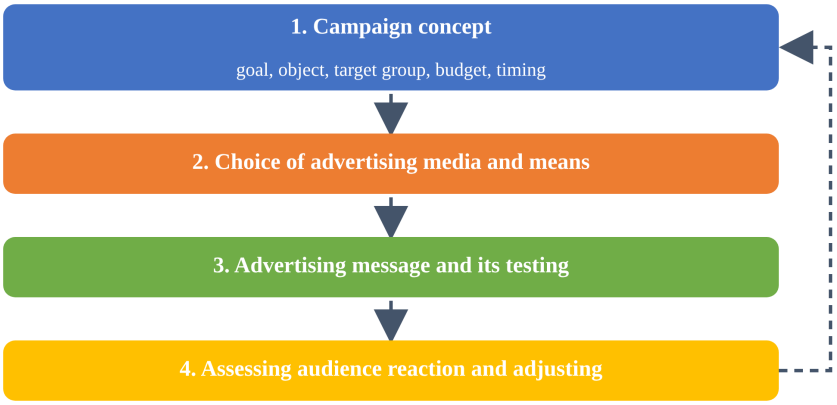


Fig. 8.3. Stages of an advertising campaign of a social sector organization

Source: developed by the author based on [3; 9]

At the first stage the concept of the advertising campaign is developed. The management of the organization determines the goal of the campaign, the object and purpose of the advertising, the target group, the size of the advertising budget, the media and means of advertising, and the timing [3]. For a social organization this stage most often decides the fate of the whole campaign. The most common mistake

is an overly general goal (“to raise public awareness”). Such a goal cannot be verified. A specific goal sounds different, for example, to double within three months the number of requests from parents of teenagers to the school psychologist in three starosta districts. This wording meets the requirements for goal-setting discussed in the topic on social project design.

At the second stage the advertising medium is chosen. It may be newspapers, television, posters, social networks or the notice board by the outpatient clinic. The choice depends on the goals of the advertising and on the medium’s ability to deliver the message to the target group [3]. The means of advertising is the material transformation of the idea of the advertising message, in which expressive and formal components are combined into a whole. Older people in villages are more likely to see a notice in the outpatient clinic or to hear about the service from the starosta. Teenagers will see a short video on social networks.

At the third stage the advertising message is formulated. It is subordinated to the goals of the organization, reveals to clients the benefit of the service and offers something encouraging [3]. The perception of information depends on the interests and ideas of the target group, so pre-testing is desirable at this stage. It is carried out with a test group or through a trial campaign in a limited area. For a small organization the test can be very simple. It is enough to show a poster mock-up to ten representatives of the target group and ask what they have understood and what they are going to do. The answers often surprise the authors.

The fourth stage comes after the content of the advertising has been perceived and understood. Depending on the influence of the advertising on the audience, it takes different forms [3] (Table 8.5).

Table 8.5

Possible results of an advertising campaign and the organization's further actions

Option	Audience reaction	Further actions
First	the message has been perceived, but there is no reaction	revise the campaign concept, re-examine the situation or change the positioning of the service
Second	a favourable attitude towards the service has been formed or reinforced without direct action	clarify the positioning of the organization's services, investigate barriers to seeking help
Third	clients apply for the service, and it becomes habitual for them	assess the achievement of goals; if they are fully achieved, repeat the campaign with adjustments

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 9]

In the social sphere the second option is common. People approve of psychological help but do not seek it because of shame, lack of time or distrust of confidentiality. In such a case the problem mostly lies not in the advertising but in how the service itself is organized. Perhaps evening hours, anonymous registration or online counselling are needed.

Contact frequency and combination of media. Part of the information is lost as advertising is disseminated. A single message is noticed and perceived by only a small part of the target group, so the required frequency of contact between the message and a potential client has to be determined [3; 9]. To enhance the effect, messages are duplicated in several media. Traditionally a printed publication, television and radio are combined, or a booklet, a poster and a presentation at the places where services are provided [3]. A modern campaign of a social sector organization often combines a page on social networks, leaflets in administrative service centres and outpatient clinics, announcements in community chats and a talk at a village meeting. Any combination must be justified by the cost-effectiveness and the goal of the campaign.

Working with advertising copy. Writing advertising copy is preceded by defining the target audience. The author must first of all know exactly whom they are writing for [3]. This concerns not only words but also the needs of the audience, its wishes, values and goals. Youth slang will be out of place in a booklet about home care for older people. In a video about online safety for teenagers, on the contrary, it may work. A text intended for a large amorphous group is poorly received. One should write for a specific person, one of the representatives of the target audience.

The recipient more readily perceives a text whose content and style match their views and habits. Texts that are not devoid of emotion are remembered better [3]. Structuring is of great importance. Even a well-written message risks remaining unread if its visual perception is difficult. Headlines, subheadings, short paragraphs and a well-thought-out page layout help.

The headline. The main elements that attract attention to any text are the headline and the illustration. In the absence of an illustration the headline becomes decisive [3]. According to D. Ogilvy, on average five times as many people read the headline as read the body copy [69, p. 71]. For social advertising this means that the main message, and often the helpline number, must be visible at first glance. Long headlines are perceived worse, although a cut-off quotation sometimes makes the reader move on to the body text [3].

Advertising practice has developed a number of rules for headlines [3; 69]. “Blind” headlines, from which the topic of the body text cannot be understood, are better avoided. Unusual words, phrases and catchphrases quickly attract attention. If the advertisement is placed in a local newspaper or a community chat, it is appropriate to add to the headline a name familiar to local residents. People are always interested in what is happening next door. A headline in capital letters is read more slowly and quickly tires the reader, because people are used to texts set in ordinary type.

The body text. The first sentence of the body text, like the headline, must attract attention. Experienced authors do not repeat in it what the person has already

guessed from the headline and start with the main point [3]. The first paragraphs explain to the reader what useful information they will receive if they read to the end. Emotionality and imagery contribute to success. Dry data and an official business style do not aid perception. It is better to choose a simple style while keeping the author's individual manner.

Particular attention is paid to vocabulary. Some words evoke negative emotions in readers (pain, irritation, fatigue, disappointment, shame, doubt). Others have a positive semantic background (joy, success, love, health) [3]. The negative particle "not" practically does not neutralize the negative influence of a word. The phrases "don't be ashamed to ask" or "you won't regret it" leave precisely shame and regret in the memory. For social advertising this is a particularly sensitive issue, since its topics are often associated with pain. Instead of "don't be ashamed to ask for help", it is better to write "help is near, call us". Incomprehensible words and terms such as "social accompaniment" or "case management", clear to specialists but not to recipients, are also perceived negatively.

A text in which all sentences are roughly the same length sounds monotonous and quickly becomes tiresome. Texts in which long sentences alternate with short and very short ones are the easiest to read [3]. Paragraphs should not be long either. The reader should draw the conclusions from an advertising text themselves, or at least should have that impression. The author does not name but hints, does not call but gently leads to the desired decision. Examples not only illustrate information but also persuade. The story of one family the service has helped works more powerfully than any statistics.

General requirements for the text of social advertising are given in Table 8.6. It can be used as a checklist before printing or publication.

Table 8.6

Checklist for reviewing the text of social advertising

Element	Control question
Addressee	Is it clear whom exactly the text addresses?

Element	Control question
Headline	Does it convey the main idea without the body text?
Idea	Can it be summed up in one sentence?
Call to action	Does the reader know exactly what to do and where to turn?
Vocabulary	Is the text free of professional jargon and words with a negative semantic background?
Emotional tone	If the text frightens, does it offer a clear way out?
Ethics	Is there consent from the people depicted or mentioned in the advertisement? Does the text avoid stigmatizing service recipients?
Legality	Is the text free of references to products or manufacturers prohibited by Art. 12 of the Law “On Advertising”?
Accessibility	Is the font large enough, are there subtitles for the video, is the text understandable to a person with any level of education?

Source: compiled by the author based on [3; 19; 69; 83]

Evaluating the results of a campaign. The main difficulty is that changes in attitudes and behaviour happen slowly and depend on many factors. A small organization cannot afford expensive sociological research. However, it can monitor simple indicators related to the goal of the campaign [8; 9]. These include the number of calls to the hotline, the number of new clients, answers to the question “how did you hear about us?” at the first contact, the number of volunteers or the amount of funds raised. Comparing these indicators before and after the campaign gives an imperfect but quite practical assessment.

Visual design and image. In social advertising an illustration carries no less meaning than the text. A photograph of a specific person attracts attention more strongly than abstract graphics, but at the same time it creates ethical risks [3; 8]. A person shown on a poster about domestic violence or addiction may be recognized by neighbours, even if it is a staged photo with a hired model. For this reason social sector organizations more often choose illustrations, drawings, silhouettes or photos in which the face is not visible. For campaigns that tell the real stories of service

recipients, the person's written consent to the use of their image and story becomes mandatory. This consent must be informed. The person must understand where exactly and for how long the material will be disseminated.

Images of children require particular caution. Even a positive story of a child from a residential institution who has found a foster family may over time become a burden for them. A teenager who finds themselves in an advertising video a few years later is not always grateful for such publicity. It is more ethical to show the situation through adult participants (foster parents, a social worker) or through symbolic images. Colour, composition and typeface likewise serve the content. Dark tones and broken lines heighten the sense of threat, while warm colours and open compositions are associated with support and safety [3].

Appeals to emotions. In the previous subsections we considered K. Witte's model, according to which an appeal to fear works only if a person sees a real and accessible way out of the situation [83, p. 337–339]. At the stage of creating the advertising message, this requirement takes on an entirely practical form. Every material that shows a threat must offer a specific action in the same frame or on the same page. A phone number, an address, a QR code for registration, the consultant's working hours. A poster that shows only the consequences (a broken family, illness, loneliness) leaves the viewer with anxiety and with no hint of what to do about it. With such a reaction a person prefers simply to turn away from the message.

The second common emotional resource is hope and dignity. Stories of overcoming, in which a person received support and was able to change their life, motivate others to seek help without provoking defensive resistance. Humour in social advertising is possible, but it is handled with care. It reduces tension and helps to talk about awkward topics (infection prevention, financial literacy, waste sorting). A joke about people with disabilities, veterans or victims of violence is unacceptable under any circumstances [3; 9].

Advertising on a limited budget. Most social sector organizations, especially small civic associations and municipal institutions in communities, have no funds for television advertising or large billboards. Their main resources are partnerships,

volunteers and their own presence in the community [8; 9]. The Law of Ukraine "On Advertising" gives such organizations certain opportunities. State and municipal media are to place social advertising free of charge in the volume determined by Art. 12 [19]. For a municipal institution or a civic organization working in partnership with the local council, this is a chance to get space in the district newspaper or airtime on local radio at no cost. There is one condition, namely to submit competently prepared material in advance.

Every practitioner knows other inexpensive channels. They include announcements in community groups and in parent committee chats, talks at residents' meetings, and materials in the queues of administrative service centres, outpatient clinics and pension offices. Partnerships with business are also effective. A local supermarket can place information on the receipt or near the entrance, and a transport operator on the doors of a minibus. Partnership with business raises one more question. Mentioning a partner in social advertising must not turn it into hidden commercial advertising, because the law expressly prohibits mentioning specific products or their manufacturers in social advertising [19, art. 12]. The cheapest and most convincing channel remains personal conversation. A social worker who has known a family for many years can do more to spread the word about a service than a hundred posters.

Teamwork on a campaign. In large organizations an advertising campaign is prepared by a group of specialists. It includes a project manager, a copywriter, a designer, a social media specialist and an analyst. In a small institution all these roles are often performed by one person, as in the case below. In such a situation the manager should at least involve in discussing the concept those employees who communicate directly with clients. It is they who know what words people use to describe their problems, where they go and whom they trust [8; 9]. It is also advisable to involve several representatives of the target group in the preparation, for example, a veterans' council, a parent committee or an initiative group of people with disabilities. This approach is consistent with the principles of social marketing,

which Ph. Kotler and G. Zaltman proposed to base on research into the needs and expectations of the addressee rather than on the ideas of the initiator [55].

The creation of advertising by social sector organizations goes through certain stages, each of which has its own goals and tasks. The success of a campaign depends on a clear goal, accurate knowledge of the audience, well-chosen media and a text written for a specific person. But most of all it depends on whether the service the advertising talks about is actually accessible to the person who has finally decided to seek help.

Case "The poster nobody noticed"

The social services centre of a rural territorial community in Poltava region introduced a new service in spring. It was day care for older people with cognitive impairments. Twice a week they could spend the day at the centre while their relatives worked or rested. The service was funded by the community and free of charge for recipients. The centre prepared four places, hired a care worker and completed training under a programme supporting people with dementia.

The director of the centre, Iryna Mykolaivna, entrusted the information campaign to a junior specialist, Daryna. Daryna had experience running the centre's social media page and got down to work quickly. Within a week she ordered one hundred A3 posters and five hundred leaflets from the district printing house. Under the headline "DAY CARE FOR PERSONS WITH COGNITIVE IMPAIRMENTS" the poster carried a description of the service in small print, a list of the documents required to apply and a phone number. At the bottom was the slogan "Don't be left alone with your misfortune". The posters were put up at bus stops, in shops and on the doors of starosta offices. The leaflets lay on the counter at the administrative service centre. Daryna also published the same text on social media.

A month and a half passed. One family signed up for the service, and even that one came from a neighbouring village where the centre's care worker knew the lady of the house personally. Iryna Mykolaivna called a short meeting. Daryna explained that the advertising "was everywhere" and that there was probably no such

need in the community. The social worker Halyna, who has been serving lonely older people for 15 years, disagreed. According to her, in three starosta districts she knows at least ten families where a grandmother or grandfather “is already getting confused”. Relatives talk about it reluctantly and feel ashamed.

Halyna told them a few more things. Hardly anyone in the village uses the words “cognitive impairments”; people say “she’s become forgetful” or “he’s not what he used to be”. The daughters and daughters-in-law who care for older relatives are rarely at bus stops during working hours because they work on a farm or in town. Most of them are in the school parent committee’s Viber group and in the community announcements group. Older people read the newspaper but do not notice posters. Finally, the slogan about “misfortune” read as a hint that something terrible had happened in the family and that everyone would find out about it.

Iryna Mykolaivna decided to relaunch the information campaign. She set the condition that the next campaign would have a measurable goal and that before printing the mock-up would be seen by at least a few of the people it was addressed to. The director also proposed involving the family doctor of the outpatient clinic in the campaign. Families turn to the doctor when they notice changes in an older person’s behaviour.

Case tasks

1. Identify the mistakes Daryna made at each of the four stages of the advertising campaign (Fig. 8.3).

2. Formulate a specific, measurable goal for the new campaign and name the indicators by which the centre will assess its result.

3. Describe the primary and secondary target groups of the campaign and propose a combination of advertising media for each of them.

4. Rewrite the headline, the slogan and the first two sentences of the poster’s body text, drawing on the rules for working with advertising copy and the checklist (Table 8.6).

5. Develop a simple plan for pre-testing the mock-up with 8–10 representatives of the target group. What questions will you ask, and what will you regard as a signal for revision?

Self-check questions

1. How does the Law of Ukraine “On Advertising” define social advertising?

2. How does social advertising differ from commercial advertising in terms of goal, commissioning party and criterion of success?

3. What did Ph. Kotler and G. Zaltman mean by social marketing?

4. What restrictions does the legislation impose on the content of social advertising?

5. What share of airtime or print space must state and municipal media allocate free of charge to social advertising?

6. What conditions for the effectiveness of fear appeals does K. Witte’s model describe?

7. Name the main ethical requirements for the social advertising of social sector organizations.

8. What is targeted social advertising, and to whom is it addressed?

9. What tasks does social advertising address?

10. How have the topics of social advertising in a Ukrainian community changed under martial law?

11. Formulate the five principles of creating social advertising.

12. What did the “How are you?” campaign achieve, and what problems did it point to?

13. What is an advertising idea, and what requirements apply to it?

14. Describe the informational, educational, image-building and mobilizing functions of social advertising.

15. Describe the four stages of an advertising campaign of a social sector organization.

16. Why is an advertising message pre-tested, and how can this be organized on a limited budget?

17. What three types of audience reaction are possible after a campaign, and what should an organization do in each case?

18. Why is a single contact with an advertising message usually insufficient?

19. What rules for writing the headline of an advertising text do you know?

20. Why should the particle “not” and words with a negative semantic background be avoided in social advertising?

SELF-CHECK TESTS

The tests are intended for independent checking of how well the course material has been mastered. Ten items are offered for each topic. In each item only one of the four answers (A, B, C, D) is correct. The answer key is given at the end of the section. If you have made mistakes in three or more items of one topic, go back to the lecture text and the self-check questions.

Topic 1. Scientific status and subject of social management

1. The basic concepts for understanding social management are

A. social policy, social sphere, social work
B. marketing, logistics, financial analysis
C. state budget, taxes, subsidies
D. competition, market, profit

2. The founder of the school of scientific management is considered to be

A. H. Fayol
B. E. Mayo
C. F. W. Taylor
D. P. Drucker

3. The influence of group norms and attention to people on labour productivity was studied by the school of

A. scientific management
B. human relations
C. administrative (classical) management
D. quantitative management (management science)

4. The idea of jointly setting goals and evaluating work by results (management by objectives) is associated with the name of

A. F. W. Taylor
B. H. Fayol
C. E. Mayo
D. P. Drucker

5. The situational approach to management holds that

A. there is one best way of management for all organizations

B. the choice of management method depends on the specific situation

C. management comes down to setting labour standards

D. an organization is a closed system

6. The number of main meanings of the concept of "social management" identified in the literature is

A. three

B. four

C. six

D. eight

7. The epistemological meaning regards social management as

A. a scientific discipline that studies the laws, principles and functions of managing the social sphere

B. a set of social protection management bodies

C. a type of entrepreneurial activity

D. a curriculum for training social workers

8. The main goal of social management, unlike commercial management, is

A. growth in the value of the organization

B. an increase in the volume of services sold

C. staff reduction

D. people's quality of life and social security

9. A specific feature of social management is that

A. services are always paid for by the recipient

B. its activity is regulated only by commercial legislation

C. the consumer and the payer of a service often do not coincide

D. success is measured by financial indicators

10. The subjective component of management is related to

A. the laws of social development

B. the personality of the manager, their values and experience

C. the amount of funding

D. legislative norms

Topic 2. Scientific paradigms and concepts of social management

11. A scientific paradigm is

A. a set of basic assumptions through which researchers and practitioners view their subject

B. a regulatory act governing the activities of social services

C. an organization's development plan for a year

D. one of the survey methods

12. The paradigm in which the service recipient is regarded as a citizen and co-participant is

A. public administration

B. new public management

C. new public governance

D. scientific management

13. In the new public management paradigm the state acts primarily as

A. the sole service provider

B. commissioner and controller

C. network coordinator

D. a consumer of services

14. The developmental model of the relationship between subjects and objects of management is characterized by the fact that decisions are

A. made solely by the manager without discussion

B. made by an external consultant

C. always made by a vote of the whole staff

D. made by the manager after discussion with employees

15. Dual subordination (functional and project) is characteristic of the

A. linear structure

B. line-and-staff structure

C. matrix structure

D. functional structure

16. In a line-and-staff structure, the staff units attached to the manager

A. prepare decisions but have no right to make them

B. issue binding instructions

C. replace line managers

D. supervise the director of the organization

17. The law of differentiation in social management means that

A. the management system contains all the necessary elements and functions

B. the diversity of management corresponds to the diversity of the managed system

C. powers and responsibility are distributed at each level

D. the managing subsystem must be larger than the managed one

18. The number of general principles of management proposed by H. Fayol is

A. seven

B. ten

C. twelve

D. fourteen

19. The principle of the main link provides for

A. identifying the priority task and concentrating resources on it

B. subordinating all employees to one manager

C. distributing funds evenly across all areas

D. copying successful decisions of other organizations

20. The technological group of functions of social management includes

A. cognition, evaluation, goal-setting

B. staffing and financial and economic support

C. preparing, making and implementing management decisions

D. standard-setting and memorization

Topic 3. The system of social management

21. The number of types of resources used by any organization is

A. two

B. four

C. six

D. eight

22. The effectiveness of an organization means

A. the ability to exist for a long time while preserving its purpose

B. achieving a result at the lowest cost

C. the number of structural units

D. the ability to “do the right things”, that is, to achieve goals that meet needs

23. The efficiency of an organization means

A. the ability to “do things right”, that is, to achieve a result at rational cost

B. the ability to retain funding

C. achieving goals that meet the needs of recipients

D. the absence of conflicts in the team

24. The number of hierarchy levels as a criterion of structure characterizes

A. the freedom of a specialist in choosing working methods

B. the extent to which activities are regulated by written rules

C. the length of the scalar chain from manager to performer

D. the channels and directions of information exchange

25. An informal organization, unlike a formal one,

A. is registered with the authorities

B. arises spontaneously, and its leader is recognized by the group

C. operates on the basis of regulations and job descriptions

D. has administrative control over rules

26. Bureaucracy as the most rational form of management was studied by

A. M. Weber

B. E. Mayo

C. F. W. Taylor

D. P. Drucker

27. An example of an informal organization in the social sphere is

A. a social services centre

B. a social protection department

C. a charitable foundation with a registered charter

D. a mutual support group of parents of children with disabilities

28. Associative organizations include

A. enterprises and educational institutions

B. political parties and trade unions
C. the family, a scientific school, an informal group
D. local self-government bodies

29. The source of authority in an organization is

A. position and administrative and legal mechanisms
B. a person's personal qualities and merits
C. the amount of salary
D. length of service in the organization

30. The source of leadership is

A. recognition by the group
B. appointment by order
C. level of education
D. membership of the organization's board

Topic 4. Social project design

31. A social project, unlike a programme,

A. is a set of related measures designed for several years
B. allocates resources and tasks within the reporting year
C. has a limited duration and is aimed at creating a specific result
D. involves continuous activity without a defined end

32. Medium-term social projects last

A. from one to three years
B. up to six months
C. up to one year
D. more than five years

33. By the nature of change, social projects are divided into

A. local and international
B. state and civic
C. educational and rehabilitation
D. evolutionary and innovative

34. The planning approach applied by the European Commission is called

A. management by objectives
B. Project Cycle Management

C. total quality management

D. lean production

35. The logical framework matrix covers the levels of

A. plan, programme, project

B. resources, budget, report

C. overall objective, specific objective, results, activities

D. subject, object, subject matter

36. Methodological obstacles to social project design include

A. short-term grant funding and a shortage of specialists

B. fear of inspections and rigid regulation

C. distrust of original solutions

D. haste, lack of needs assessment, vague goals

37. Resource obstacles to project design are overcome through

A. a sustainability plan, co-financing and partnership with other providers

B. stronger administrative control

C. a reduction in the number of service recipients

D. abandoning the evaluation of results

38. The hierarchical management model is most appropriate for

A. small civic organizations

B. granting benefits, crisis response and standard procedures

C. creative teams developing new services

D. mutual support groups

39. The collective management model is characterized by communication on the principle of

A. top-down

B. bottom-up

C. “everyone informs everyone”

D. through an appointed intermediary

40. In the developmental management model, the manager acts as

A. an administrator and controller

B. a trusted representative of the staff

C. an external expert

D. a leader who shapes the vision

Topic 5. Information support for social management

41. The word “information” comes from the Latin informatio, which means

A. “message, signal”

B. “knowledge, experience”

C. “order, control”

D. “explanation, exposition”

42. In 1948 works were published that laid the foundations of information theory and cybernetics. Their authors are

A. C. Shannon and N. Wiener

B. H. A. Simon and R. L. Ackoff

C. M. Weber and H. Fayol

D. P. Drucker and H. Mintzberg

43. The “data – information – knowledge – wisdom” hierarchy was proposed by

A. N. Wiener

B. H. Mintzberg

C. R. L. Ackoff

D. C. Shannon

44. The concept of bounded rationality was proposed by

A. P. Drucker

B. H. A. Simon

C. E. Mayo

D. F. W. Taylor

45. In the role of “monitor”, the manager

A. transmits information to external parties

B. allocates financial resources

C. transmits information to members of the organization

D. seeks and receives information about the internal and external environment

46. By degree of readiness, management information is divided into

A. primary, intermediate, final

B. internal and external

C. reliable and probabilistic

D. partial and comprehensive

47. Documented or publicly announced information about citizens' attitudes towards social phenomena and processes is

A. statistical information

B. reference and encyclopaedic information

C. sociological information

D. legal information

48. Information showing the deviation of actual results from the plan is called

A. directive

B. control

C. distributive

D. general

49. Content analysis is

A. a formalized method that involves identifying, classifying and counting units of document content

B. an analysis of the authorship and reliability of a document

C. an assessment of the emotional state of the author of a document

D. the interpretation of legal terms

50. Directive information is used primarily at the level of

A. transaction recording

B. operations

C. departments

D. strategy

Topic 6. Management of social conflicts and stress

51. Conflict is

A. any disagreement during a meeting

B. a system of socio-psychological interaction of people or groups in the form of a clash or confrontation

C. a breach of labour discipline

D. a state of psychological tension of one employee

52. The distinction between constructive and destructive processes of conflict resolution was proposed by

A. H. Selye

B. R. Karasek

C. M. Deutsch

D. E. Berne

53. The model of five conflict-handling styles was proposed by

A. K. W. Thomas and R. H. Kilmann

B. R. Lazarus and S. Folkman

C. R. Fisher and W. Ury

D. C. Maslach and M. Leiter

54. The style that involves a joint search for a solution that fully satisfies both parties is

A. compromise

B. accommodation

C. competition

D. collaboration

55. A positive consequence of conflict for a group may be

A. a split into factions

B. cohesion and a clearer role structure

C. staff turnover

D. an increase in the manager's time costs

56. The method of principled negotiation in "Getting to Yes" was proposed by

A. K. W. Thomas and R. H. Kilmann

B. M. Deutsch and L. Coser

C. R. Fisher, W. Ury and B. Patton

D. R. Lazarus and S. Folkman

57. The concept of stress as a general response of the body to an impact is associated with the works of

A. H. Selye

B. M. Weber

C. R. Karasek

D. H. A. Simon

58. The interpretation of psychological stress as the result of a person's appraisal of their relationship with the environment was proposed by

A. R. Fisher and W. Ury

B. K. W. Thomas and R. H. Kilmann

C. C. Shannon and N. Wiener

D. R. Lazarus and S. Folkman

59. The "demand–control" model, which explains the different effects of the same workload, belongs to

A. H. Selye

B. R. Karasek

C. M. Deutsch

D. C. Maslach

60. To reduce stress caused by role conflict, a manager should

A. increase the number of reports

B. give the employee new tasks

C. set clear priorities and a single manager for the task

D. abolish job descriptions

Topic 7. Psychological features of business communication

61. H. Lasswell described the communicative act through the following number of elements

A. five

B. three

C. four

D. seven

62. P. Watzlawick's first axiom of communication states that

A. all communication is symmetrical

B. the content of a message is more important than the relationship

C. one cannot not communicate

D. silence is not a message

63. The so-called "7–38–55 rule" originates from the research of

A. E. Hall

B. A. Mehrabian

C. G. H. Mead

D. E. Goffman

64. According to E. Hall, the personal distance of communication is

A. up to 45 cm

B. 1.2–3.6 m

C. more than 3.6 m

D. 45–120 cm

65. Receiving visitors and negotiations usually take place at the

A. intimate distance

B. personal distance

C. social distance

D. public distance

66. Transactional analysis was proposed by

A. E. Berne

B. C. R. Rogers

C. M. Deutsch

D. R. Fisher

67. A transaction is crossed when

A. the response comes from the ego state that was addressed

B. an Adult message is answered by an irritated Parent or an offended Child

C. the interlocutors communicate in writing

D. the conversation lasts more than an hour

68. The most productive line for business communication is

A. "Parent – Child"

B. “Child – Child”

C. “Parent – Parent”

D. “Adult – Adult”

69. According to W.-X. Zhou, R. Dunbar and co-authors, each successive circle of a person’s social ties is

A. approximately equal to the previous one

B. half the size of the previous one

C. approximately three times larger than the previous one

D. ten times larger than the previous one

70. The main principle of relationships at the socio-role level of communication is

A. sociability, that is, knowledge of and compliance with the norms of the social environment

B. emotional closeness of the interlocutors

C. shared interest in solving the task

D. complete frankness in expressing feelings

Topic 8. Features of creating and running advertising campaigns by social sector organizations

71. The Law of Ukraine “On Advertising” defines social advertising as

A. any advertising commissioned by a state body

B. advertising of goods for social purposes

C. a type of advertising that covers socially useful information aimed at the development of the individual and society

D. a free announcement by a civic organization

72. The concept of social marketing as an approach to planned social change was proposed in 1971 by

A. D. Ogilvy and K. Witte

B. Ph. Kotler and G. Zaltman

C. R. Fisher and W. Ury

D. H. Lasswell and A. Mehrabian

73. According to K. Witte's model, a fear appeal works if

A. the threat is shown as realistically as possible

B. the advertisement is placed on television

C. the message contains no advice at all

D. a person sees a real and accessible way to avoid the threat

74. State and municipal media are obliged to allocate free of charge to social advertising at least this share of advertising time or space

A. 5 %

B. 10 %

C. 15 %

D. 20 %

75. The Law of Ukraine "On Advertising" prohibits in social advertising

A. using illustrations

B. stating a hotline phone number

C. mentioning specific products and their manufacturers

D. addressing a particular target group

76. The communication campaign "How are you?"

A. is aimed at preventing road accidents

B. was launched in 2023 within the All-Ukrainian Mental Health Programme

C. is a commercial campaign of a pharmaceutical company

D. concerns only military personnel

77. At the first stage of an advertising campaign

A. the text of the advertising message is formulated

B. the audience reaction is assessed

C. materials are printed and distributed

D. the concept is developed: goal, target group, budget, timing

78. According to D. Ogilvy, the headline of an advertisement is read by

A. five times as many people as the body copy

B. as many people as the body copy

C. half as many people as the body copy

D. people only when it is set in capital letters

79. A "blind" headline is one that

A. is printed in small type

B. contains a local name

C. does not make it possible to understand the topic of the body text

D. consists of a quotation

80. If after a campaign the audience has formed a favourable attitude towards a service but people do not apply for it, the organization should

A. repeat the same campaign without changes

B. clarify the positioning of the service and investigate barriers to seeking help

C. abandon the service

D. double the number of posters

Answer key

Topic	Item number – correct answer
1	1 – A; 2 – C; 3 – B; 4 – D; 5 – B; 6 – C; 7 – A; 8 – D; 9 – C; 10 – B
2	11 – A; 12 – C; 13 – B; 14 – D; 15 – C; 16 – A; 17 – B; 18 – D; 19 – A; 20 – C
3	21 – B; 22 – D; 23 – A; 24 – C; 25 – B; 26 – A; 27 – D; 28 – C; 29 – B; 30 – A
4	31 – C; 32 – A; 33 – D; 34 – B; 35 – C; 36 – D; 37 – A; 38 – B; 39 – C; 40 – D
5	41 – D; 42 – A; 43 – C; 44 – B; 45 – D; 46 – A; 47 – C; 48 – B; 49 – A; 50 – D
6	51 – B; 52 – C; 53 – A; 54 – D; 55 – B; 56 – C; 57 – A; 58 – D; 59 – B; 60 – C
7	61 – A; 62 – C; 63 – B; 64 – D; 65 – C; 66 – A; 67 – B; 68 – D; 69 – C; 70 – A
8	71 – C; 72 – B; 73 – D; 74 – A; 75 – C; 76 – B; 77 – D; 78 – A; 79 – C; 80 – B

GLOSSARY

Active listening – a communication technique in which the listener shows attention and understanding to the other person by clarifying, paraphrasing, reflecting feelings and summarizing what has been heard.

Advertising campaign – a system of interrelated advertising activities united by a common goal, target group, budget and timing, which passes through the stages of concept development, media selection, message formulation and assessment of audience reaction.

Advertising headline – the most prominent text element of an advertisement, which attracts attention and conveys the main idea of the message. It is read by far more people than the body text.

Advertising idea – the main thought of an advertising message embodied in a certain artistic form. It can be summed up in one sentence, and it unites all the elements of the campaign.

Advertising message – the content of advertising (text, image, sound) that reveals to the addressee the benefit of a service or desired behaviour and prompts them to act.

Advertising pre-testing – checking an advertising message on a small group of representatives of the target audience or through a trial campaign before its wide dissemination.

Associative organization – an association that arises on the basis of shared interests, norms and values with little formalization of relations (a family, a scientific school, an informal group).

Authority – a person's influence in an organization based on their personal qualities, experience and merits rather than on their position alone. Authority is voluntarily recognized by other members of the team.

"Blind" headline – an advertising headline from which the reader cannot understand the topic of the body text.

Bounded rationality – the concept proposed by H. A. Simon, according to which a manager, because of incomplete information and lack of time, chooses not the optimal but a satisfactory decision.

Bureaucracy – a form of formal organization based on clearly defined spheres of competence, a hierarchy of positions, written rules and the impersonal performance of duties. In M. Weber's interpretation, it is the most rational form of management.

Business communication strategy – the overall plan of interaction that defines its goal, the desired result and the sequence of steps towards achieving it.

Business communication tactics – the choice of specific techniques, phrases and reactions in each particular situation of a conversation in line with the chosen strategy.

Business communication – interaction between people aimed at solving shared professional tasks, in which the participants observe status roles, ethical norms and procedures.

Business conversation – a form of business communication that takes place orally between two or more interlocutors and aims at exchanging information, reconciling positions or making a decision.

Business organizations – firms and institutions whose goals are set by their founders or by wider organizational systems and whose relations are regulated administratively, by position.

Case management – a social work technology in which a specialist assesses the needs of a person or family, draws up an individual support plan, coordinates the services of different providers and monitors the result.

Collective management model – a model in which decisions are made in team discussion, hierarchy is almost absent and the manager acts as a coordinator. It is typical of small teams of specialists and civic organizations.

Communication – the process of exchanging information and meanings between people or groups, which includes the source, message, channel, recipient and effect.

Conflict situation – accumulated contradictions that contain the real cause of a conflict. It becomes an open conflict after an incident.

Conflict – a system of socio-psychological interaction of people or groups in the form of a clash or confrontation that arises from incompatible interests, goals or values.

Conflict-handling style – a person's typical way of acting in a conflict. The K. W. Thomas and R. H. Kilmann model distinguishes competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding and accommodating.

Constructive conflict – a conflict in the course of which the parties maintain cooperation, clarify their positions and find new solutions that improve the organization's work.

Contact frequency – the number of times a representative of the target group encounters an advertising message over a certain period.

Content analysis – a formalized method of document analysis that involves identifying, classifying and counting semantic units of a text with subsequent interpretation of the results.

Control information – information about deviations of the actual results of activity from the planned ones.

Data – recorded facts and details without interpretation. They become information after processing and being given meaning for a specific task.

Database – a set of interrelated data organized according to certain rules so that they can be stored, searched and updated by means of computer tools.

Day care – a social service provided to people in need of constant supervision on the provider's premises during the daytime. The recipient's relatives can work or rest during this time.

Destructive conflict – a conflict accompanied by hostility, distorted perception and a desire to harm the opponent, which worsens relationships and work results.

Developmental management model – a model that combines a clearly formulated goal with employees' ability to make changes in the ways of achieving it. Decisions are made by the leader after dialogue with the team.

Effectiveness – the ability of an organization to achieve precisely those goals that meet the needs of its recipients and of society ("doing the right things").

Efficiency – the ratio of the result obtained to the resources spent. In social management the result is measured primarily by changes in the lives of service recipients.

Empathy – the ability to understand another person's inner world, their feelings and meanings, without losing one's own position.

Ethics of social advertising – a set of norms requiring respect for people's dignity, avoidance of stigmatizing service recipients, obtaining consent to use a person's image and story, and not frightening the audience unnecessarily.

Extended Parallel Process Model – the model proposed by K. Witte, according to which a fear appeal prompts protective behaviour only when a person believes in the efficacy of the recommended actions and in their own ability to perform them.

Feedback – information about the recipient's reaction to a message or action that makes it possible to adjust the further steps of a manager, specialist or organization.

Formal organization – an organization created deliberately and registered in the established manner, in which relations are governed by regulations, statuses and written norms.

Functional organizational structure – a structure in which functional units have the right to give instructions to performers within their sphere of competence.

Functions of social management – the main types of management activity, which are grouped into three groups: informational, technological and organizational.

General adaptation syndrome – the typical response of the body to prolonged exposure to a stressor, described by H. Selye, which passes through three stages: alarm, resistance and exhaustion.

Goal-setting – a function of social management that consists in justifying and formulating the goals of an organization or programme on the basis of an assessment of needs and available resources.

Goals of a social organization – an image of the desired future or a planned result of activity for the sake of which the organization was created and towards which its resources are directed.

Hierarchical management model – a model in which decisions are made solely by the manager, communication flows from the top down and activities are highly regulated. It is appropriate for standard procedures and crisis response.

Informal organization – a group that arises spontaneously on the basis of personal relationships, sympathy and trust, has a leader recognized by the group and has no legal status.

Information (from Latin informatio – explanation, exposition) – data about objects, phenomena and processes that reduce uncertainty and serve as a basis for decision-making.

Information about a natural person – details or a set of details about a person by which they can be specifically identified. In the social sphere it requires particularly careful protection.

Information support for management – the creation and maintenance of a system for collecting, processing, storing and transmitting the information needed to make and implement management decisions.

Knowledge – information that has been made sense of and tested in practice and that a person is able to apply to solve new tasks.

Law of differentiation – a law of social management according to which the diversity of management influences must correspond to the diversity of the managed system and of the needs of different population groups.

Law of social management – an essential, recurring cause-and-effect relationship between the elements of the social management system that determines its structure and development.

Leadership – a person's ability to influence a group by virtue of recognition by its members rather than by position alone.

Levels of business communication – the socio-role, business and personal levels, which differ in the degree of formality, trust and emotional closeness between the interlocutors.

Line-and-staff organizational structure – a linear structure supplemented by staff units (specialist consultants) who prepare decisions but have no right to make them.

Linear organizational structure – a structure in which each unit is subordinate to one manager who performs all management functions. It is distinguished by simplicity and clear responsibility.

Logical framework matrix – a project planning tool in the form of a table that links the overall and specific objectives, results and activities with indicators, sources of verification and assumptions.

Management by objectives – the approach proposed by P. Drucker in which the manager and employees jointly set goals and work is evaluated by the result achieved.

Management information system – a set of people, procedures, databases and technical means that provides managers at different levels with the information they need.

Management – the process of planning, organizing, motivating and controlling that is necessary to formulate and achieve the goals of an organization through other people.

Matrix organizational structure – a structure with dual subordination of employees, to a functional manager and to a project manager. It provides flexibility but complicates coordination.

Mediation – a way of resolving a conflict with the participation of a neutral third party (a mediator), who helps the parties reach agreement on their own but does not make decisions for them.

Negotiations – a process of interaction between two or more parties aimed at reaching a joint decision when their interests partly coincide and partly diverge.

New public governance – a management paradigm in which the state acts as a coordinator and partner of provider networks, and the service recipient is regarded as a citizen and co-participant in decision-making.

New public management – a management paradigm that transfers private management methods to the public sector. The state becomes the commissioner and controller of services, and the recipient becomes a client.

Non-verbal communication – the exchange of information without words, through facial expressions, gestures, posture, intonation, gaze, distance and the organization of space.

Organizational culture – a set of values, norms, traditions and patterns of behaviour shared by the members of an organization that determines the ways they interact with one another and with service recipients.

Organizational structure – the way tasks, powers and responsibility are distributed among the units and positions of an organization, as well as the links between them.

Power – the ability to influence the behaviour of other people by virtue of one's position and the administrative and legal mechanisms established in the organization.

Principle (from Latin principium – basis, beginning) – a guiding idea or rule underlying an activity, or an inner conviction that determines norms of behaviour.

Principle of specificity – a principle according to which a management decision is made on the basis of reliable information about the specific situation rather than by mechanically copying other people's decisions.

Principle of the main link – a principle of social management that requires identifying the priority task and concentrating the main resources on it instead of dispersing them on secondary matters.

Principled negotiation – a method of negotiation proposed by R. Fisher, W. Ury and B. Patton. It requires separating the people from the problem, focusing on interests rather than positions, inventing options for mutual gain and relying on objective criteria.

Professional burnout – a state of emotional and physical exhaustion, a cynical attitude towards work and a reduced sense of one's own effectiveness that results from prolonged unresolved stress at work. It is particularly common in the helping professions.

Project cycle – the sequence of phases in the life of a project, from defining the problem and planning to implementation, evaluation and use of the results in subsequent projects.

Proxemics – the field of research that studies the use of space in communication. E. Hall distinguished intimate, personal, social and public distances.

Psychological stress – according to R. Lazarus and S. Folkman, a state that arises when a person appraises the demands of a situation as exceeding their resources and endangering their well-being.

Public administration – a paradigm of managing the public sphere based on the theory of bureaucracy. The state is the sole service provider, and the recipient acts as a petitioner.

Public distance – according to E. Hall, a distance of more than 3.6 m at which a public speech before an audience takes place.

Reference and encyclopaedic information – systematized, documented or publicly announced information about society, nature and their regularities (encyclopaedias, dictionaries, reference books).

Scientific paradigm – a set of basic ideas, assumptions and values through which researchers and practitioners perceive their subject and determine ways of solving problems.

Social advertising – according to the Law of Ukraine "On Advertising", a type of advertising that covers socially useful information aimed at the development of the individual and society.

Social governance – purposeful influence on social processes and relations in order to regulate, preserve or transform them.

Social information – information about the state and development of social relations and the needs and attitudes of the population that is used to manage social processes.

Social management – a branch of management science and a type of practical activity aimed at the effective management of organizations and processes in the social sphere in order to improve people's quality of life and social security.

Social marketing – the application of marketing principles and tools to spread social ideas and change people's behaviour for their own good and the good of society. The concept was proposed by Ph. Kotler and G. Zaltman.

Social organization – a large purposeful group of people created to achieve socially significant goals, with a clear division of labour, a structure and coordination mechanisms.

Social policy – the activity of the state, local self-government bodies and civil society aimed at ensuring people's well-being, social security and equal opportunities.

Social programme – a set of related projects and measures designed for several years and aimed at achieving a strategic goal in the social sphere.

Social project design – the activity of creating a model of desired social change and a plan for achieving it, which includes defining the subject, subject matter, goals, resources and evaluation criteria.

Social project – a time-limited set of interrelated actions and resources aimed at creating a specific result that changes the situation of a certain group of people or a community.

Social service recipient – a person or family in difficult life circumstances who receives social services from state, municipal or non-state providers.

Social service – an organization or its unit that provides social services to certain population groups and carries out social work in a certain area.

Social sphere – a set of sectors and institutions that ensure human reproduction and development (education, health care, social protection, culture, housing and utilities).

Social work – professional activity of helping individuals, families and communities to overcome difficult life circumstances and to restore and develop their capacity for independent living.

Sociological information – documented or publicly announced information about the attitudes of individual citizens and social groups towards social events and phenomena, processes and facts.

Statistical information – documented information that gives a quantitative description of mass phenomena and processes in the economic, social, cultural and other spheres of life.

Stress (literally “pressure, strain”) – the general response of the body to a physical or psychological impact, as well as the corresponding state of tension.

Stressor – a factor that causes stress. In the work of a social organization, stressors include overload, role conflict and role ambiguity, responsibility without authority, and contact with other people’s suffering.

Target group – a part of the population with common characteristics and needs at which a social service, project or advertising campaign is aimed.

Targeted social advertising – social advertising aimed at a clearly defined target group (teenagers, veterans, parents, older people) that takes into account its needs, language and habitual information channels.

Transaction – a unit of communication consisting of one person's stimulus and another person's response. Transactions may be complementary (parallel), crossed or ulterior.

Transactional analysis – the approach developed by E. Berne to analysing communication through three ego states (Parent, Adult, Child) and the transactions between them.

Verbal communication – the exchange of information by means of words, orally or in writing.

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