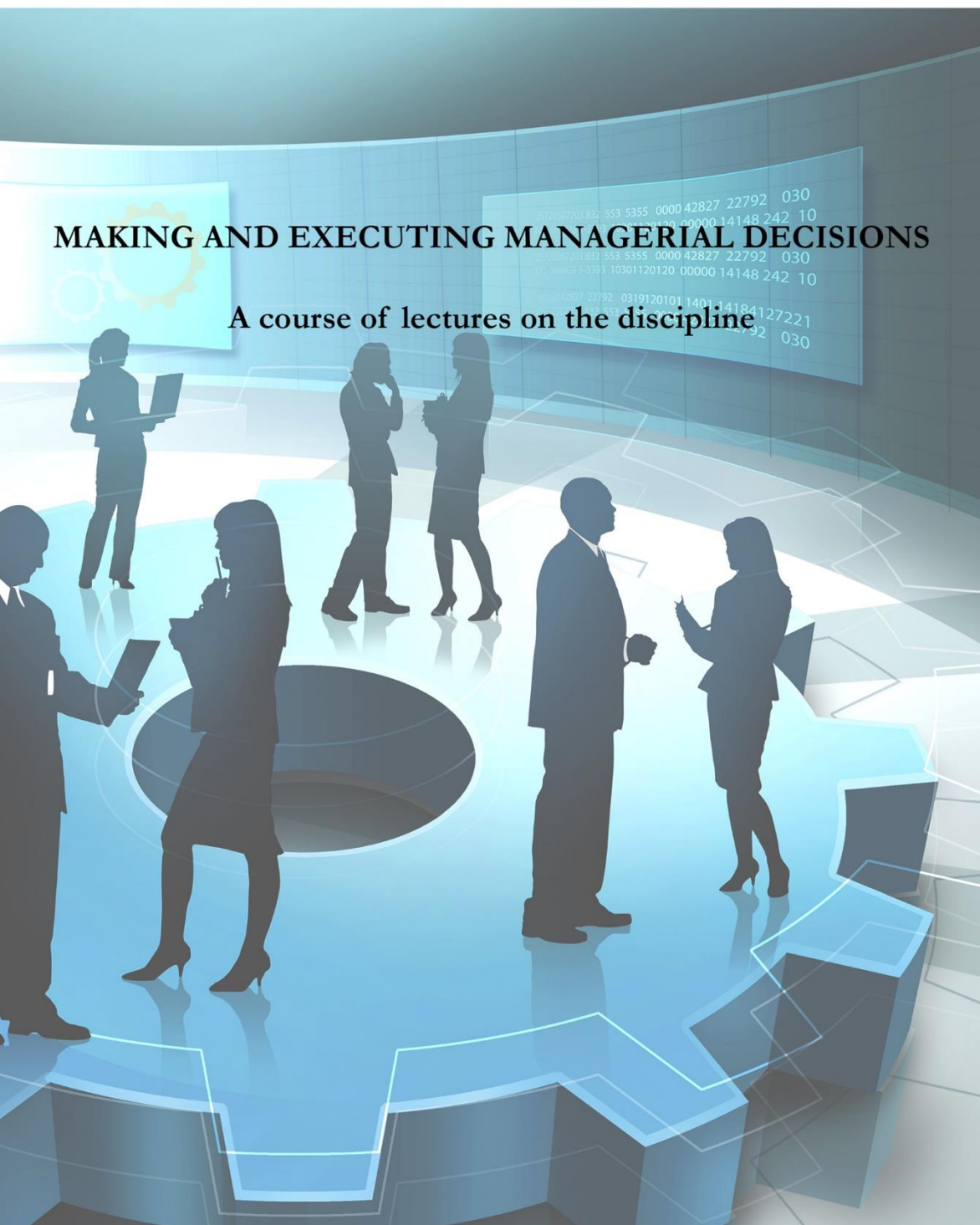


Nina N. Gontar & Sergey N. Baranets

# MAKING AND EXECUTING MANAGERIAL DECISIONS

A course of lectures on the discipline



Tuculart Edition & European Institute for Innovation Development



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## **MAKING AND EXECUTING MANAGERIAL DECISIONS**

**A course of lectures on the discipline**

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Reviewer:

*E.A. Kitin*, Ph.D. in Law Sciences, Deputy Director, North-West Institute of Management, Russian Academy of National Economy and Public Administration

The course of lectures on the direction of Making and Executing Managerial Decisions presents the philosophical, theoretical, and practical aspects of the peculiarities of creating and implementing managerial decisions at the state and municipal level in the Russian Federation. The course authors used materials from well-known Russian and foreign researchers. The course has been tested and positively accepted in the scientific world. This work will be of interest to scientists, researchers and students in the field of philosophy of public administration, public administration of Russia, the history of Russia and international relations.

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## Introduction

Having decided to prepare this course of lectures, the authors believe that this joint action of theirs makes a certain contribution to the creation of textbooks that can be in demand by the current generation of students, including those who have mastered professional competencies in the field of teaching Russian officials of the future the basics of public and municipal management. The authors set as their goal, if not a symbiotic, then at least a synthetic combination of professional thinking styles of legal science and scientific social studies, which, unfortunately, is not so often encountered in the educational process. The course of lectures on the discipline, which at the moment is called “Making and executing managerial decisions”, has changed its name several times in our memory, remaining essentially focused on developing modern Russian students’ abilities and needs that would allow a meaningful approach to understanding the complexities and paradoxes that take place in the real process of managerial decisions in public administration, in business processes and socially oriented activities of the active part of Russian society. Each of us has his view of the world and his place in it for each of us, the process of making managerial decisions, including in public and municipal service, was a familiar environment some time ago, and each of us has not too long, but also not so short experience of teaching this subject disciplines in various branches of the RANEPА.

This is not a textbook, but it is educational material from higher education, lecture material of the course structure intended for undergraduate students. For this reason, we did not strive for excessive originality of the text but tried to cover as much as possible the set of issues that, with all the substantive and formal developments in the disciplinary field, the topics of managerial decisions, considering the ongoing changes in Russian society, its mental and value spheres, remained, if not invariant, then at least relatively stable. For the same reason, we have minimised the scientific apparatus, considering, if necessary, the possibility of transposing this lecture course to the level of students’ requests at the master’s degree level.

We are grateful for the attention given to our lecture courses by students of different departments and forms of study at the Northwestern Institute of Management, a branch of the RANEPА, just like the Vyborg branch of the Presidential Academy. We express confidence that in our work, there are not only grains of truth but also grains of truth. We hope that the work we have done will be usefully to those who want to master the basic course of a significant discipline both theoretically and practically, without which the existence of any state at any

stage of its development and in any part of the world is unthinkable and simply impossible shortly.

We are grateful to our colleagues – teachers of the Department of Public and Municipal Administration of the Faculty of the same name of the RANEPA Institute of Management in St. Petersburg for their understanding and assistance in their work.

## **Part One.**

### **Philosophical and methodological foundations of management decision-making and execution**

- 1.1 The decision-making process
  - 1.2 A public person in the decision-making process
  - 1.3 Management decisions and their features
  - 1.4 Government decisions: concept, signs, grounds
  - 1.5 Government decisions in the structure of public administration
- List of information sources

#### **1.1 The decision-making process**

The decision-making process plays a significant role in the life of any person. It occurs in various situations when it is necessary to choose the best solution from several possible options. The decision-making process can be divided into several stages, each of which requires certain skills and knowledge.

Decision-making is, firstly, the final activity that analyses and identifies different options for future developments to identify the best. Secondly, in a broad sense, it is a step-by-step process that takes place over time. Thirdly, it is the result of special human efforts related to the resolution of cognitive and practical contradictions, which, as is known, are the driving force of any development.

The result of decision-making is the achievement of a goal that was previously set before the decision-maker.

The objectives of the research on the development of management decisions can be:

- determine the decision-making situation (problem situation);
- search for common patterns of the development of management decisions in problem situations;
- identification of the sequence in the process of modelling the main elements of a problem situation.

The tasks that need to be solved when making decisions depend on the field of activity in which they arise. For example, in business, decision-making tasks may include decisions related to the company's development strategy, marketing, financial performance, etc. Decisions that have to be made in public administration are specific and most complex to implement. Of course, in daily

activities, a person also makes decisions, and sometimes his survival and existence depend on them.

In medicine, decision-making tasks can be associated with diagnosis, choice of treatment methods, etc. In politics, decision-making tasks are related to choosing the right course of retaining and exercising power, passing laws, etc. When managing technical systems or production processes, decision-making also has its characteristics.

When making decisions, various issues arise that need to be resolved. For example, what alternatives to choose from exist, how to define the selection criteria, how to evaluate each alternative, and how to assess the risks and probabilities of different outcomes.

The initial stage of decision-making is the development and setting of goals and objectives adequate to the situation. Then, it is necessary to identify possible options, their advantages and disadvantages. Next, you should analyse each option, compare one with the other and choose the best one.

There are many different methods and technologies used to make decisions. They can be divided into two main categories: qualitative and quantitative.

Qualitative (qualitative) methods include the study of a problem or issue using expert opinion and the view of third parties, personal experience and intuition. These methods can be especially useful in situations where there is not enough accurate data for quantitative analysis.

Quantitative methods are used to obtain quantitative information and analyse it. They can include mathematical models, statistical methods, modelling, and data analysis.

The main set of decision-making methods includes the following.

SWOT analysis is a method that allows you to assess the strengths and weaknesses of a company, just like the opportunities and threats facing it.

A decision tree is a method that allows you to visualise alternatives and evaluate them based on criteria.

The Support Vector Machine (SVM) method is a method that is used in machine learning to evaluate and classify data.

A decision based on a priority matrix is a method of evaluating alternatives based on certain criteria.

The analysis of expert assessments is a method based on the opinion of experts regarding the problem.

Thus, decision-making is a significant process that occurs in any field of activity. Correct decision-making has a huge impact on success in achieving your goals. To do this, it is significant to know to formulate goals correctly, choose the most appropriate options and trajectories for the deploying events, analyse them and choose the best possible one.

## **1.2 A public person in the decision-making process**

In modern decision-making theory, there is a division into two components: normative and psychological. The psychological approach tells how people living in society and entering into relationships with each other can act and behave in situations of choice, paying attention to the psychological mechanisms of decision-making.

The process of making managerial decisions is often very complex and largely depends on the socio-psychological characteristics of the leader, worldview, value system and other personal factors that reflect his individual qualities and identify ways of perceiving problems. In perception, based on sensations and representations, a person's attitude to everything happening around them is manifested, and people make decisions based on a subjective perception of an objectively existing situation. Sometimes, such a perception can interfere with making decisions rationally and with a favourable outcome.

Subjective rationality is a rationality that is limited to only one person, only his position and vision. "Rational" means impartial, based only on logic, and expedient. So, the leader, characterised by subjective rationality, thinks and reasons logically but within the framework of his thinking.

People do not make optimal decisions but satisfactory ones (corresponding to the level of claims) due to their limited ability to process information. This concept was proposed by Herbert A. Simon is currently the most popular in the study of the decision-making process.

Stereotypes are significant components of perception – a schematised, stable and simplified image of a phenomenon that reflects only a part of the characteristics. A popular stereotype among business owners (organisations) is that all problems arise because of managers and, therefore, the appearance of problems means it is time to change the leadership. Stereotypical solutions to problems from the management are also known as salary cuts and (re)staff training. Stereotypical thinking affects the choice of a vector of action, the development of all kinds of plans, various alternatives, and even the formulation and vision of the problem.

However, it often happens that persistent stereotypes easier make the decision-making process.

The decision-making process is a socially organised, but at the same time socio-psychological phenomenon, as it proceeds in acts of communication and communication, in the form of relationships between participants in the organisational process. The effectiveness of a decision depends on how arguments are analysed, incoming and outgoing information, how the chain of reasoning is built and what emotional and motivational factors influence the person (person, person, etc.) making the decision. Mental processes, states and properties directly affect the activities of managers and the nature of decision-making processes. The various managers may make different decisions with the same data, depending on the complex of personal decision-making factors.

There are many roles in the decision-making process. The person making the choice of the optimal option and making a decision is, as a rule, the decision maker (DM). The DM is responsible for the decisions taken by its authority. It is an active subject on which decision-making and the process of its execution (implementation) depend.

The decision-making process is the search for possible alternatives and the choice of the best option for the most effective solution to a particular problem, and most often the choice is based on the preferences and values of the DM.

The owner's role is very specific. As a rule, this is a person who, in the opinion of society, should see the problem, purposefully solve it and be responsible for the decisions made. As a rule, this is the head of an organisation typical for a given society, but he can also delegate the solution to a specific problem to his representatives. It happens that one person can be the owner. However, it may also be that the owner of what creates problems is only one of several characters forced to jointly (collectively) negotiate with each other to participate in a managerial way in solving the problem that has emerged. The owner may be, e.g., the chairman of a collective decision-making body, and therefore, is forced, e.g., to make concessions to reach an agreement. Thus, the DM and the owner can be either the same or different personalities.

The leader is independent in making decisions or can act as an active group member in the decision-making process. Active groups are people, having common interests and are interested in influencing the problem-solving and decision-making process. So, trying to influence decisions, these groups can create obstacles, oppose, organise counter-actions and strikes, make appeals, write supportive articles, invest money in attracting supporters, etc. As a rule, active groups are other organisations that are somehow involved in an urgent problem



and defend their interest in solving it. Here is an example. The person, being in the voter position, makes a choice for which he is responsible. However, at the same time, the voter is one of the many participants in the collective decision-making. If the group makes the decision, the main thing is to reach an agreement when developing joint solutions that suit all or most of them. An example of an active group may be an environmental organisation that opposes the construction of enterprises in an ecologically clean area.

Also, expertise is involved in the modern decision-making process, which means that the role of the expert (expert community) is increasing. An expert is a professional in relation to the scope of a specific problem and is approached for assessments of the situation and recommendations by people involved in the decision-making process. The expert, as a rule, understands a particular aspect of the problem much better than the DM and acts as a source of true information. For example, when changing the structure of an organisation, the DM can seek advice from an experienced administrator, an expert in processes, including from the scientific community, or experts, as specialists, who can help a businessman assess the economic efficiency of new products, etc.

A management solutions consultant is a person who can organise the decision-making process itself, structure it, and also help the DM and the owner of the problematic property in correctly setting the task, identifying the positions of active groups, and organising work with experts. A consultant acting as an analyst usually does not give his estimates when making a decision but only helps to weigh all the pros and cons, to clarify his preferences to the DM. The bearer of the management consultant's competencies participates in making complex, complex, strategic decisions.

In addition to all the above roles, the DM's environment, employees and leaders of the organisation run by the DM are also involved in the decision-making process. Usually, this group of people has common views, common interests, and common values. To this group, the DM primarily explains the expediency and validity of his decision. Although the DM individually makes a choice and makes a final decision regarding the problem that has arisen, at the same time, he takes into account the policies and preferences of a group of people close to him.

### **1.3 Management decisions and their features**

Management decisions are one of the core aspects of managing any company or organisation. Every day, managers are faced with the need to make decisions aimed at achieving certain company goals organising appropriate actions and

improving their effectiveness. Management decisions are related to a variety of factors, including finance, personnel, production processes, marketing, and technology. They can be adopted based on incomplete or uncertain information, involve risks and require an assessment of possible consequences. Successful management decision-making is a core factor affecting the competitiveness and success of an organisation, enterprise, or company, and the effectiveness of decisions is directly related to their effectiveness in solving urgent social problems.

Managerial decisions are decisions made by the heads of organisations within the framework of their activities to determine the mission, purpose, and strategic directions of development, just like to solve current problems related to business management and public affairs.

There are several approaches to defining the concept of “management decisions”. One of the most common approaches defines management decisions as “the process of choosing the optimal course of action in conditions of uncertainty, taken by the management of the organisation to achieve the set goals” (A.A. Perfiliev, V.A. Svistunova, V.N. Vereshchagin).

Another approach to defining management decisions focuses on “the decision-making process and includes not only the choice of the optimal option but also planning, organisation and control” (X. Simon, D. March, J. Herbert).

The third approach to defining management decisions considers “not only the management of the organisation but also other participants in decision-making, such as employees, partners and customers” (A. A. Karpov).

Other approaches pay more attention to various aspects of management decisions, such as their organisational, technological and social aspects.

The managerial making-decisions process begins with determining the essence of the problem, or, in other words, the goal, to achieve which necessary to make a specific decision. This decision should be expedient and purposeful. For this reason, the manager collects information, analyses it, highlights what is significant to achieve a certain goal, formulates possible solutions and chooses the best way to move towards the goal based on his experience, knowledge and intuition.

Management decisions can be of different levels and scales. Several ones may be related to long-term strategic plans, while others may be related to more short-term goals and objectives, such as proper management of finances, personnel or production processes.

Managerial decision-making is one of the core elements of successful business, public and public affairs management. It requires highly qualified managers, risk

analysis and assessment skills, just like the ability to make decisions in conditions of uncertainty and quickly adapt to changing circumstances.

In this context, it is significant to keep that the signs of managerial decisions become crucial tools for understanding and determining the distinctive characteristics of such decisions.

The most significant features of management decisions are listed below.

*Goal orientation:* Management decisions are made to achieve certain goals of a company, institution or organisation.

*Complexity:* management decisions are related to different aspects of the company's activities and can cover many factors and variables.

*Regularity:* Management decisions are made regularly and an integral part of management activities.

*Future orientation:* management decisions are made considering the prospects for the development of the organisation and its strategic goals.

*Team approach:* management decisions are often made collectively with the participation of managers and specialists at different levels.

*Uncertainty:* Management decisions are made on the basis of incomplete or uncertain information, which means they cannot be exhaustive.

*Risks:* Management decisions may involve certain risks and require an assessment of their possible consequences.

*Periodicity:* management decisions can be cyclically made, both within the framework of the company's current activities and in connection with long-term plans and strategies.

*Personal responsibility:* Managers, as the DM, are personally responsible for the management decisions they make.

*Result orientation:* Management decisions should be result-oriented and benefit the organisation.

Signs of managerial decisions (as decisions of a special kind) include a focus on achieving goals, spatial and temporal characteristics, limited resources, uncertainty, riskiness and consistency. Successful management decision-making depends on how effectively all these features are considered and how they combine with each other.

The basis of management decisions is somehow organised (ordered) information about real processes and expected (desired) results. The reasons for decisions for management purposes can be different and depend on the specific situation and

the guidelines set by the head of the organisation. Some of the reasons for management decisions may include the following.

*Data analysis:* Management decisions can be made based on the analysis of data on past and present business trends, financial performance, markets, competitors, customers and other significant aspects.

*Experience and knowledge:* Managers can use their experience and their own knowledge to make managerial decisions, especially in cases where data is limited or unclear.

*Strategic goals:* Management decisions should be aimed at achieving the company's strategic goals, which can be determined based on mission, values and long-term plans.

*Risks and opportunities:* Management decisions can be made based on an assessment of the risks and opportunities associated with various alternatives. This will help reduce risks and at the same time increase opportunities for the company.

*Competition:* Management decisions can be made based on an analysis of competition and an understanding of what actions can help a company maintain its competitiveness.

*Personnel:* Management decisions can be made based on the knowledge, skills and experience of personnel who can be specially selected, grown and organised to complete tasks and achieve goals.

*External environment:* Management decisions can be made based on consideration and understanding of external factors, such as changes in legislation, changes in the economic situation, technological changes, shifts in customer requirements, etc.

In general, management decisions, based on a comprehensive analysis of various factors, which can affect business, public, and government processes, should be made.

In general, management decisions are complex processes that require informed decisions, consideration of many factors and readiness to adapt to changing conditions.

To summarise the above, management decisions are a significant element of any organisation's activity allowing it to function and successfully develop. However, making effective management decisions can be a difficult task that requires considering many factors and characteristics of the organisation and its environment.

The basis of management decisions may include an analysis of the current situation, opportunities and risks, an assessment of resources and priorities, strategic plans and management knowledge. At the same time, management decisions have several features, including focus on achieving specific goals, time characteristics, limited resources, uncertainty, riskiness and consistency.

Successful management decision-making requires considering all these factors and features, just like choosing the best options for action and reducing the risks associated with incorrect decision-making. In addition, it is significant can make decisions based on analysis and expert opinion, just like considering changes in the environment that may affect the effectiveness of decisions.

In general, management decisions are, as shown above, a complex and significant process that requires the management of an organisation to analyse and understand the situation in depth, just like to be ready to make risky decisions to achieve common goals.

#### **1.4 Government decisions: concept, signs, grounds**

A significant component of public administration is the process of making public decisions, the responsibility for which is assigned to government officials and civil servants. This responsibility is distributed unevenly and not always rationally: final decision-making traditionally puts the DM at a higher level of social status compared to those who develop, prepare and formalise these decisions. It is worth noting that the process of preparing and adopting government decisions of a managerial orientation at the current stage of statehood formation is largely formalised. It is due to the fact that government decisions do not extend their effect to a limited number of people but often to all citizens or any sphere of public life in general. As a rule, government decisions are made in response to the emergence of a problematic situation in a particular area of public relations.

A state decision is “the choice and justification of a certain project of actions by state bodies aimed at achieving public goals”.

Researchers have identified features that distinguish government decisions from the entire range of management decisions. These include the following:

- the specifics of the subject, which is responsible for both the process of making a state decision and the process of its implementation. Such a subject, as a rule, is a public administration body. And it is the peculiarities of the subject’s status that determine the following signs;

- the external orientation of the state decision. Often, the role of the object of government decisions is performed by people who are not part of the public authority making decisions, and in most cases are not at all related to the sphere of public administration. Thus, the action of the state decision is directed outward, into the social environment;
- public authority is the basis of the state decision. The essence of this feature is manifested in the fact that such solutions are implemented in the form of prescriptions, prohibitions and permits;
- the existence of a legal form for public-power influence;
- the impact of government decisions is aimed at social processes and social communities;
- the result of government decisions is expressed through social changes.

However, at the same time, it is significant to remember that not in all cases the decisions of any state body will have the characteristics listed above. An example is acts regulating issues of an intra-organisational nature: despite the fact that a legal form expresses them, they do not have such a feature as an external orientation.

Another point that we need to highlight is the need to emphasise a number of differences between such types of decisions as political and administrative.

The need for political decisions lies in the fact that they are designed to reflect the actions of the top leadership, which are political, i.e., in fact, imperious in nature. Administrative decisions in any organisations and public authorities are made because they are the instrument by which the activities of a state-type organisation and affiliation are regulated.

The former is adopted by the political leadership, i.e., by the highest authorities, or leaders who directly exercise the powers of the government on the most significant issues of public interest (the president, Prime Minister, Speaker of Parliament, heads of regional legislative and executive bodies, ministers and some others).

Political decisions are the primary stage of government management decisions, while administrative decisions are secondary and auxiliary.

In turn, administrative decisions differ from political ones in that they are aimed at preparing, making and implementing decisions, made by the political leadership.

A characteristic feature of government decisions of a managerial nature at the administrative level is their depersonalisation. Plenty of specialists are involved in

their conceptual (programmatic) design, adoption and implementation, so the authorship here belongs to the state and is not tied to a specific employee. Although specific individuals (developers) prepare most of these decisions, they ultimately cannot be decisions of a private nature since they are made on behalf of government agencies. Hence, the task of their legislative regulation in an appropriate form arises.

So, the implementation of public administration is a coherent, consistent, expedient series of public decisions taken and implemented by state (and partly) municipal authorities. The peculiarity of public administration is that government decisions do not affect one person or even a group of people but society as a whole. Government decisions are made as managerial decisions in problematic cases (situations) that are specifically identified and evaluated. The possibility of making public decisions to manage socially significant phenomena and processes is determined by the availability of adequate powers for public administration bodies and officials, accompanied by responsibility for implementing these powers or inaction connecting with the need to use the available power resource.

### **1.5 Government decisions in the structure of public administration**

An integral and significant part of any organisation is the management processes that take place within it. These processes are implemented through various kinds of management decisions. The same thing happens in public and municipal administration – managerial decisions made and implemented by certain persons and bodies are of core significance. Nowadays, public management decisions seem to be the most significant since the consequences of these decisions will ultimately affect the quality of life and well-being of each individual.

In their work course, managers and management bodies make managerial decisions. It is how at the state and municipal government system, the processes are organised (of course, considering its peculiarities). A management decision is understood as an action of a management entity, in which an analysis of the activity (state) of the management object is used. Ultimately, such an action makes the choice of a goal, strategy and work methods for the team, which must not only be justified but also considered as a permanent factor so that it is possible to purposefully solve the problem or revise the goal in the future.

Like many other concepts from management, “decision-making” is divided into a definition in a narrow and broad sense. A narrow value implies making a decision to find the best option from a sample of all the options. If we consider this concept from a broad viewpoint, then decision-making becomes equivalent

to the entire management procedure. Almost unanimously, the researchers concluded that it is impossible to fully focus on the meaning of this concept in a narrow sense because decision-making, in their opinion, implies their implementation, analysis of results and consequences. A socially significant management decision is both a word, a deed, and the state's responsibility.

According to their content, management decisions made on behalf of the state are divided, as mentioned above, into political and administrative. The political solution carries several functions aimed at preventing and resolving issues related to the most global aspects of the state's activities. For example, these are sovereignty, territorial integrity, state development strategies and security. Political management decisions are fixed, e.g., in the President's messages to the country's parliament, national projects, regional projects, targeted programmes, etc. Administrative management decisions are inextricably linked with political ones and aimed at their preparation, implementation and implementation. Administrative decisions are reflected in the relevant presidential decrees, government decisions, federal laws, regional laws, etc.

Civil servants, through a political decision, can influence the object of management. Public officials are responsible for making political decisions in public and municipal administration and are endowed with the necessary competence and authority to do so.

Speaking about the stages by which decisions are made and implemented in public and municipal administration, significantly, the authors propose various approaches. For example, these are the stages proposed by American scientists Patton and Savicki:

- detecting, defining and detailing a problem;
- identification of criteria for evaluating alternatives;
- development of alternative solutions to the problem;
- evaluating alternatives;
- choosing the best alternative;
- assessment of the consequences of the decision.

Based on this understanding, it is significant that the management decisions made by state and municipal authorities have features related to the nature of power and, therefore, the need to meet several requirements.

State and municipal authorities must respond quickly and effectively to emerging problems and find appropriate solutions.



The authorities should know their powers and comply with them within the framework of the law. It helps to prevent violations of citizens' rights and preserve law and order.

State and municipal authorities should analyse the situation and accept decisions based on facts and research. It helps to make the right choice and reduces the likelihood of negative consequences.

The authorities should consider the experience of the past years and use it in their work to avoid mistakes and improve the efficiency of their activities.

It is significant to note that municipal government is a form of localised popular power. Therefore, in addition to the effectiveness of management decisions, it is also significant to ensure their support from the public. To do this, it is necessary to consider the opinions and interests of citizens, hold consultations and discuss significant issues, just like ensure the openness and transparency of the decision-making process.

Government management decisions are almost always formalised in the form of a regulatory legal act. Creating a regulatory legal act is a complex process that includes several stages. Let us consider them in the example of preparing a Federal law in the Federal Assembly of the Russian Federation.

*Legislative initiative.* The competent authorities develop and submit a legislative initiative, i.e., a proposal to create a new law or amend the current law.

*Consideration of the draft law in the State Duma.* After the bill is submitted, it is submitted to the State Duma of the Russian Federation for consideration and adoption. At this stage, the bill may be amended, supplemented or rejected.

*Approval of the draft law by the Federation Council.* After the adoption of the law by the State Duma, it is sent to the Federation Council of the Russian Federation for approval. If the Federation Council approves the law, it is submitted to the President of the Russian Federation for signature.

*Signing and publication of the law.* After the law is signed by the President of the Russian Federation, it is officially published in the relevant publications (mass media) and comes into force.

In addition, it is significant to note that before adopting the law, public discussion and consultations with interested parties are held to consider different opinions and interests. In form, laws must comply with constitutional norms and principles just like international treaties ratified by the Russian Federation.

When State and municipal authorities make decisions, they must consider the competence of their governing bodies. There should be no situations when

regional decisions conflict with federal ones and municipal ones do not agree with regional ones. The governing entities of the legislative level are responsible for the development of state decisions, and the executive bodies are responsible for their implementation. This procedure allows you to include a labour division between developers and performers.

Because most government decisions have an external orientation, it is hard to assess their socio-economic effectiveness. Such decisions are usually made on behalf of a government agency and are not related to a specific person. They are mandatory for execution and are officially published in writing so that both citizens and executive officials can familiarise themselves with them.

State and municipal bodies cannot develop, adopt and implement decisions except according to the current legislation. It requires high responsibility, reasonableness and high-quality decision-making. The people will support such decisions. If they are adopted by legislative authorities, the form of administrative acts or legal norms can record them.

From all the above-mentioned features, it follows that management decision-making by state and municipal authorities is a complex process that requires high qualifications and responsibility. Such decisions play a significant role in the life of society and ensure the proper functioning of the state and municipalities. Making responsible, timely, informed and implementable decisions is a significant element of state and municipal management system, which has many features. To ensure the effectiveness and quality of the decisions taken, it is necessary, if possible, to consider all the requirements and features associated with their adoption.

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## Part Two.

### Theoretical foundations of making and executing managerial decisions in the modern state and society

- 2.1 The mechanism and factors of making and executing government decisions
  - 2.2 Basic theories of making and executing government decisions
  - 2.3 Synthetic theories of decision-making
  - 2.4 The current stage in the study of government decisions
  - 2.5 Cognitive model of making and executing government decisions
- List of information sources

#### **2.1 The mechanism and factors of making and executing government decisions**

Continuing to comprehend the conclusions from the third question of the previous topic, the public administration system can also be represented as an institutionalised environment of a decision-making mechanism, ultimately aimed at purposeful regulation of public relations in the interests of the entire population and society as a whole.

The communications and relations produced by this management system are based on plenty of norms and standards of managers, and activities, presuppose the existence of some rules for their mutual active communication, procedures for coordinating positions and interests, and the nature of inclusion in the developing goals process. Collectively, these actions are aimed at the most optimal assessment and reconciliation of the interests and needs of the population and various groups of citizens, just like the public administration apparatus. In this aspect, Professor A.I. Solovyov states that the specifics of government decision-making are given by “... immersion, embedding of institutionalised management structures into the system of power dominance of a particular social group using coercive means to ensure its positions”. Thus, the mechanism of government decision-making is distinguished by a subtle combination of power distribution and management technologies, which is not covered either by the mechanical refraction of some ideal model of decision-making in the public sphere or by ideal forms of the “thought process” of political leaders.

Thus, using power tools, the state evaluates and solves its problems as an institution that creates a form of government and the organisation of public order in some territory. In this regard, decisions are made to streamline the relationships

of various segments of the population in this territory, maintain relations and joint activities of people to distribute power, ensure the security and law and order of society, exercise supreme sovereignty, etc.

At the same time, as the source and support of the actual management mechanisms, the state is focused on solving problems in terms of the production of public goods, compensation for market flaws, restrictions on natural monopolies, compensation for income inequality, bridging the information gap in society and other social issues. The implementation of these functions demonstrates that the governing influence of the state is associated with a limited range of facilities and the solution of the following tasks:

- maintaining the socio-political order in society, the way of government, maintaining stability and orderliness of basic social relations;
- purposeful regulation of various fields, spheres, relations, processes and phenomena in accordance with the interests of society and the ruling stratum;
- creating prerequisites for the future development of social objects by imposing or, conversely, removing restrictions for certain variants of their evolution.

In solving these tasks, the state invariably applies both methods of macro social, long-term, strategic impacts on the relevant management objects (assuming constitutional and legislative consolidation of the existing order), just like their operational regulation, dynamic adjustment of connections and phenomena.

Various factors that affect the process of making and executing state decisions influence the solution of state tasks. It means the following.

1. A decision maker (DM) is a person or group of people who have the necessary authority to make a decision and are responsible for it.
2. Controlled variables covered by the problem of the situation, i.e., a set of factors and conditions that cause the appearance of a particular problem, which can be controlled by the DM.
3. Unmanaged variables – situations covered by the problem that cannot be controlled by the DM, but which can be controlled by other persons. Together with managed variables, unmanaged variables can influence the outcome of a choice, forming the background of a problem or its environment.
4. Restrictions (internal and external) on the values of controlled and unmanaged variables, which together determine the scope of acceptable solutions.
5. A criterion (or criteria) for evaluating alternative solutions. The criterion can be set by a quantitative model or qualitatively (in terms of individual preferences or in terms of fuzzy logic).

6. The decisive rule (or the system of decisive rules) – the principles and methods of choosing a solution, as a result of which recommendations or a recommended solution are obtained (although the final choice remains with the DM).
7. Alternatives (possible outcomes), depending both on the values of qualitative or quantitative controlled and unmanaged variables, and on the choice itself.
8. A decision assuming the existence of at least two alternatives to behaviour (outcomes); otherwise, the problem of decision-making does not arise due to the lack of choice.
9. The possibility of implementing the chosen or adopted decision.

The degree of influence of one or another factor on the process of making public decisions depends on the type of political system of society. For example, democracy or authoritarianism demonstrate completely different conditions for government decision-making, depending on the presence (absence) of competitive or homogeneous systems of power organisation in society, the degree of people's trust in the ruling class, the availability of sufficient rights and freedoms among citizens, etc. This duality of the mechanism of state decision-making also means that government is just one, sometimes far from the most significant, and sometimes just a subordinate aspect of the work of the entire political system.

In other words, administrative and managerial tasks are integrated into the work of the system of political ties and relations, not only preserving its basic parameters but also sometimes provoking due attention of the authorities to their problems. For example, it is well known that a few months before (and after) parliamentary and especially presidential elections, managerial tasks seem to fade into the background, and the entire state apparatus switches to ensuring either the continuity of power or its transformation due to the arrival of a new political team. Such positioning of administrative and managerial tasks in the political system indicates, according to political scientist A.I. Solovyov, that the state power uses decision-making mechanisms to govern the state only for some purposes and only under very specifically circumstances.

From this, it can be concluded that the decision-making mechanism seems to contain a kind of social switch of the cyclical reorientation of the state from tasks in management to tasks of strengthening power and vice versa. And yet, even though governance is only one of the functions of the state and not always the main one, it is its implementation that is an indicator of the effectiveness of the government as a regulator of public interests. Such a two-part nature of the

decision-making mechanism in the public administration system shows that it synthesises quite different, and sometimes even poorly interconnected methods.

Thus, the use of power to consolidate the dominant positions of a particular social group is necessarily associated with violence, struggle and distribution of values, the use of means to ensure the binding execution of decisions, legitimacy, and the preservation of several group priorities in the activities of the authorities (which somehow implies the arbitrary nature of the actions of the ruling circles). At the same time, management tasks, as a rule, involve to use legal means, focus on legality and legal methods of interaction, achieving universal consent, compliance with rules and procedures, and the legal responsibility of managers.

This internal two-part nature of the state decision-making mechanism is reflected in the functional orientation of its institutions. Thus, some institutions perform mixed power-management functions (e.g., parliament), others are purely administrative (in particular, ordinary ministries and departments), and others are purely political (e.g., the institute of the president or presidential administration). Due to the variety of tasks, the mechanism of government decision-making may not adequately respond to changes in external conditions. Thus, the process of making state decisions can function both in the mode of maintaining the existing system of government and undermining the existing power and political foundations of the regime (e.g., when rational planning methods undermine the volitional nature of government under dictatorial regimes).

Thus, it should be recognised that the mechanism of government decision-making may also have a dysfunctional character regarding tasks solved both from the viewpoint of reproducing the system of government and from the viewpoint of solving managerial tasks properly.

As practical experience shows, no state can overcome this dual internal orientation of its decision-making mechanism. Just as political figures are unable to professionally perform the administrative and managerial tasks of civil servants, the administrative and managerial apparatus cannot compensate, much less assume the functions of a mechanism for the conquest and use of state power. Moreover, regardless of the level of professionalism of the management apparatus and the level of political engagement of the bureaucracy. Today, (due to the historical evolution of this institution of power and the formation of the information society) the nature of the political system in modern states is changing, and at the same time (under the influence of competition with the private sector, rising consumption standards, etc.), the transformation of the actual management structures of society inevitably evolves and the mechanism of government decision-making. Therefore, perhaps after some time, new

components and factors of mechanism reproduction will be indicated in the issue of the mechanism of decision-making and execution in public administration.

## **2.2 Basic theories of making and executing government decisions**

In the first government decision-making concepts' development phase, which laid the foundations for fundamental theories, new models and theories appeared:

- the behavioural model of G. Lasswell;
- the cognitive concept of "limited rationality" by G. Simon;
- the theory of "incrementalism" by C. Lindblom;
- "organisational institutionalism" by J. March and J. Olsen.

Let us analyse each of these theories.

1. At the centre of the behavioural concept is the idea of interpreting government decision-making as human behaviour regulated by such psychological mechanisms as stimuli and motives, attitudes and reactions. The "behavioural" concept translation into Russian allows Russian scientists to call this area a behavioural approach. Thus, the initial basis of behavioural theory is the denial of adequate, rational human abilities to assess emerging complex and, as a rule, complex problems. The actual goals formulated by the state are too complex to be reduced to clear indicators, including quantifiable. There are significantly more possible alternatives to solve the problem or those that, in principle, could be included in considering the problem than is known – and generally can be known – to a person. So, the latter possibilities turn out to be fundamentally limited in comparison with the actual existing problems and the circumstances accompanying them. Therefore, at best, a person can only count on a successful combination of circumstances, rather than on the positive consequences of the steps he has calculated in advance.

In other words, such an attitude to a person's managerial capabilities interprets government decision-making as a process that is fundamentally open to all kinds of consequences, including completely unexpected consequences for a person. The process in which the conscious efforts of power and management subjects are insufficient to implement their planned action programme is there. In this sense, government decision-making acts as that type of interaction of specific actors who form their target programme in an environment that fundamentally exceeds their ability to rationally set goals and consciously achieve goals. Ultimately, it is the situation, which belittles human capabilities that formats the specific manager actions and their use of decision-making procedures and



technologies. For obvious reasons, there are few or no methods of quantitative programming of managerial actions, and therefore, qualitative methods of describing the situation and making decisions completely prevail. In the 1930s and 50s, G. Lasswell's works formulated the classical behavioural model. In its most general form, this model can be described in three dimensions – at the macro, meso, and micro levels.

The macropolitical process consists of the distribution of core resources among people through the action of state institutions. Based on their expectations and requirements, participants in the political process develop and implement strategies in various fields of struggle, where situations arise of solutions and step-by-step achievement of the results and effects expected according to these decisions.

At this meso level, G. Lasswell also raises the question of the relationship of “private motives” with the public interest as a connecting meso level of politics. In the decision-making course, statesmen have to sublimate their feelings, redefining and freeing their personal “ego” and thereby solving their problems, exposing them as a solution to public problems. According to the theory of G. Lasswell, institutions related to power, education, welfare, etc. can solve this contradiction.

At the micro level, decision-making is related to the individual behaviour of many people having personal motives, feelings, emotions and attitudes. In other words, personal psychological traits have a great influence on any decision developed, adopted and implemented by the so-called “political person”, to whom G. Lasswell referred activists, administrators and advisers. Thus, the government decision-making mechanism should consider the psychological characteristics of the decision-maker's personality.

In general, the behavioural approach attempts to combine a macro analysis of the role of public institutions, interests and values with an assessment of such psychological parameters of the behaviour of individuals involved in government decision-making as irrational motives and emotions, perceptions and attitudes, considered to be the dominant factors of the political and managerial process. For many political scientists and psychologists involved in government decision-making analysis as an individual and group process, this model has acted as a basic approach.

2. Another approach in the theoretical analysis of the adoption and execution of government decisions was proposed in the 1940s by the American political scientist G. Simon in the form of the concept of “limited rationality”. The principle of rationality, developed by G. Simon, is the basis for a normative

approach to the government decision-making process. Within the framework of this approach, it is assumed that a person can rationally identify problems related to him in the current situation, accurately diagnose them and calculate the decisions made. Having the opportunity to identify all the variables necessary for a comprehensive understanding of the task (dependent and independent), a person, as a rule, uses a variety of methods of mathematical simulation, calculation of alternatives, operations research, just like other research models based on the use of formal logical means.

In short, within the framework of such an understanding of the issue, a person has all the information necessary to solve the problem and is armed with the necessary tools of cognition, and, therefore, the goal-setting process can be properly detailed and operationalised to find optimal solutions.

In other words, within the framework of the normative approach, decision-making acts as a set of rationally determined technologies and procedures that make up an algorithmised chain of actions and determine effective (and, as the correct methods are selected, optimal) decision-making. This understanding turns the theory of government decision-making into an integral part of praxeology, the science of rational action. It is characteristic that such ideas somehow appeal to views suggesting that a person and society are a single interconnected system, a set of predictable and calculated relationships and actions in principle.

According to this, society – and with it the state – is considered as a kind of organic, systemically organised integrity, functioning according to laws known to man and, consequently, whose tendencies he can consider when making his decisions. At the centre of the “bounded rationality” theory is G. Simon's statement about the cognitive (cognitive) mechanism as a basic component in government decision-making. The American scientist points out the dependence of the effectiveness of government decision-making on the intellectual activity that precedes and accompanies them. Continuing the thought, Mr. Simon argues that the mental work of designing solutions is ahead of the performance activity, determining what needs to be done before producing a real action.

The state organisation within which government decisions are made looks like a kind of integrated production for the collection processing and analysis of information, at the output of which prepared decisions are produced and executed. According to G. To Simon, despite the rather complex formal hierarchical relationships and often informal conflict interactions between individual departments and departments, groups and individuals, a state organisation is an integrated system with common goals and principles, “mind and memory”, values and resources. At the same time, Mr. Simon compares the

civil service to an information system that consists of people with diverse interests and tasks but, at the same time, forming a kind of unified “supercomputer”. It is worth noting that G. Simon does not imagine administrators and people, in general, to be rational beings, but rather sees them as striving for rationality. Rationality, as understood by a scientist, is associated with the choice of alternatives preferred for a given behaviour in the context of some value system, with the help of which it is possible to assess the consequences of options. It follows from that government decision-making is not just the processing and production of information but a set of operations to form some solution set, followed by reduction to one alternative according to predetermined goals and performance criteria.

3. In general, the concept of “bounded rationality” has caused many critical responses, one of which was the alternative “incrementalist” approach developed in the 1960s by Professor Ch. Lindblom.

The term “incrementalism” comes from the English word “increment”, meaning the gradual increase or intensification of a process. The incrementalist model of government decision-making includes the following provisions:

- it is necessary to move moderately, “in small steps”, breaking down large problems into smaller ones and using the “trial and error” method;
- instead of dividing the content of solutions into expected results and means, it is necessary to proceed from their unity, mutual adaptation and interchangeability when comparing acceptable alternatives;

The general role in choosing decisions is not so much a rationalised analysis, as the presence of different (and often opposite) interests involved in the adoption of a particular state act of individuals and groups.

It is necessary to achieve not so much effective as “marginal” solutions that do not give a radical change but some approximation to improving the political situation and the state of the problem.

In conditions of separation of powers, when several government decisions are taken jointly by bodies of various departments and different interest groups, the approval of such acts looks like a process of mutual adaptation and competition of players forced to wage a difficult struggle and a long bargain among themselves, but eventually still coming to a common denominator.

Analysis in decision-making plays a very limited role due to the constant shortage of knowledge and information, limitations and norms, resources and time, insufficient abilities of human intelligence to cope with problems, just like the state of constant uncertainty and weak control of the external social environment.

The latter provision became a central theme in further research by Charles Lindblom, who emphasised that there are severe limitations on the potential of scientific analysis and other rational methods of studying social problems. The reason for this state of affairs is the uncertainty and inconsistency of the fundamental facts of political life, which cannot be discounted even with the most rigorous analysis.

4. A different viewpoint on political relations and the political process is held by the theorists of “organisational institutionalism” (neo-institutionalism), developed by American scientists J. Marcham and J. Olsen in the 1970s. About the process of government decision-making, these scientists, together with M. Cohen, proposed the so-called “trash can model”, which assumes the presence of the following components of government decision-making:

- the problem;
- ways to solve them;
- decision makers,
- ranges of choice.

Since the emergence of problems does not always coincide in time with the appearance of solutions and the arrival of capable managers with the opening of appropriate “windows of opportunity”, institutions often “dump” problems and solutions into a kind of “trash can”. Decisions are often made before the problem is clearly defined and structured or when, for one reason or another, the very possibility of approving a prepared alternative has passed. In other words, the dynamics level of parallel flows that make up government decision-making differs in pace and phases, and therefore “the formation of public policy is somewhat similar to filling a trash basket”.

However, over time, the authors of this concept recognised that government decision-making has been still performed within a well-known institutional framework. Institutions set cultural, symbolic and regulatory formats for the activities of decision-making agents. Since political factors build their behaviour by choosing various options, they have to act with clear ideas about alternatives and their consequences, about priority interests and strategic goals, and these latter are largely determined by the institutional context within which these players operate.

The most significant place in the concept of J. March and J. Olsen is interested in the “institutional order” concept. Scientists emphasise that traditional political theory interprets the problem of order from the perspective of either a “political contract” reflected in constitutions, laws and other stable rules or a “moral duty”,

more often based on religious norms. At the same time, another two types of order remain out of sight: the order based on reasonableness and the order established in the course of “competition and coercion”.

According to the “new” institutionalism methodology authors, all these four types of order are inextricably linked. The political order, they believe, should be considered as a joint activity and communication of people based on contract and duty, rationality and goal-setting, rivalry and conflict, and only then be concretised in the concepts of historical, temporal, endogenous, normative, demographic, and symbolic orders.

### **2.3 Synthetic theories of decision-making**

In the second question on this topic, we examined the fundamental theories of government decision-making, according to many scientists, each of which is not without flaws and controversial points. To minimise the weaknesses and use the strengths of the fundamental theories, researchers have attempted to develop a model combining the advantages of well-known concepts, i.e., to develop a kind of “synthetic” theory.

Among the most famous of these attempts is the “normatively optimal” model developed in the 1960s by Israeli political scientist I. Dror and the “mixed scanning” model by George Washington University professor A. Etzioni.

Rather than critically evaluating the models of G. Simon and C. Lindblom, I. Dror suggests supplementing them with several elements and provisions:

*Firstly*, it is necessary (following G. Lasswell) to add to the rational justification of decisions also the consideration of extrarational components: emotions and feelings, motives and intuition, creativity and imagination, mood, etc.;

*Secondly*, it should combine behavioural and normative approaches into a single “normative optimalism” theory.

I. Dror introduces into his model a set of dominant values of society, within which all government decisions are made, although he pays modest attention to the public itself, considering it marginal. But the “political and managerial staff”, which includes bureaucrats and experts, plays core roles in decision-making and, therefore, it is here that scientific knowledge and information technologies should be introduced, organisational structures should also be improved, and the management process optimised.

In turn, the concept of “mixed scanning” by A. Etzioni differs from the rather technocratic model of J. Drora along several lines. First, the normal adoption and

implementation of state decisions are not limited to the activities of the political elite and bureaucracy but expressed in the combined activity of all social communities, which A. Etzioni calls an “active society”.

In the active society concept, the scientist includes the entire social context of government decision-making, namely collective social processes and societal consciousness, the structure of power and the distribution of knowledge between different communities of people, social norms and values.

A. Etzioni offers his logic for constructing a model of government decision-making, trying to combine elements of rationalist and incrementalist approaches. At first, it is necessary not to have a detailed, but a wide range of “horizontal” scanning of the “problem through” to select the most significant sectors quickly but then it is possible to rationally scan alternatives in detail and “vertically” within some selected and core areas of the problem.

It is worth noting that in his later works, A. Etzioni moves away from the “old rationality” associated with the dominance of “logical-empirical” decision-making factors (scientific knowledge and empirical information), and highlights the so-called “normative-affective” factors (values and emotions). Etzioni notes in this regard that the old understanding, according to which people strive to find the most effective means to achieve their goals, has been replaced by a new decision-making model, in which it is argued that people mainly choose these means on a broad basis of emotions and value orientations and, secondarily, based on logical and empirical conclusions. These are the main conclusions of synthetic theories of government decision-making.

## **2.4 The current stage in the study of government decisions**

If, nevertheless, we try to perform, in the most general terms, a periodization of the still very brief history of the development of the modern theory of political decision-making, then, in our opinion, we could distinguish three main periods:

- the formation of initial approaches and concepts in the period from the 1950s to the mid-1960s;
- institutionalization of university academic and scientific disciplines from the late 1960s to the 1970s.

Development of theoretical and empirical directions “in breadth” and “in-depth” in the 1980s and 90s: differentiation and specialization of directions and sub-sectors.

In the first stage, G. Lasswell raises the question of the need to allocate political and managerial sciences to a specific area of social knowledge. During the period of the 1950s and 1960s, G. Lasswell published a series of works devoted to the substantiation and promotion of this idea: “Political and Managerial Sciences” (1951), “Decision-making Process: seven categories of functional analysis” (1956), “The emerging concept of political and managerial sciences” (1970) and completing the fundamental work cycle “Preliminary discussions on political and managerial sciences” (1971). Many scientists are involved in the so-called “Political and Managerial Movement”: political scientists, economists, psychologists, jurists, etc. Initial approaches are developed and theoretical concepts are discussed, such as the discussion on such models of government decision-making as “rationalism”, “incrementalism” and “mixed scanning”, which was attended by famous scientists G. Simon, C. Lindblom, I. Dror, A. Etzioni and others.

During the above-mentioned second and third periods, such political and managerial disciplines as “Political Analysis”, “Political Decision-making”, and “Public Policy” have been officially recognised as university courses in most faculties of political science and schools of public administration. Hundreds of dissertations are defended on this issue, and thousands of scientific publications are published. The internal specialization of scientists working on this issue is gradually developing. Consequently, many scientific journals on public policy and decision-making are published.

At the present stage of development of the theory of decision-making and government decisions, the almost monopoly of the United States on conducting research and teaching courses on public policy is ending. Academic courses on this topic are appearing in Europe (Great Britain, France, Germany, the Netherlands, the Scandinavian countries, etc.). Magazines corresponding to the direction are starting to be published. Today, political and managerial disciplines are already taught on almost all continents – in Asia, Africa, Australia and Latin America, although at the same time, there is still a “hegemony” of scientists from the United States and a well-known gap created by them over several decades of advance in the development of problems. Russian scientists are also actively involved in these processes.

## **2.5 Cognitive model of making and executing government decisions**

Regardless of various theories, including synthetic models, the problem of determining the initial grounds for modelling the government decision-making process remains open. In this regard, some scientists call the polemic of rational

and incremental approaches “artificial” to a certain extent. After all, the actions of the “manufacturers” of solutions, in principle, cannot be described based on only one theoretical model or within the framework of a single methodology. In general, ideal models cannot realise a complete and adequate interpretation of such complex institutional complexes as government decision-making. It is also impossible to combine explanatory and prescriptive functions in one theory.

Another thing is the search and definition of an initial cognitive model that can interpret the nature of the government decision-making process to show the fundamental limitations and possibilities of its functioning and development.

According to Professor A.I. Solovyov, the nomination of relevant provisions should somehow consider the following initial attitudes:

- the theory of public decision-making and public administration in general is for the most part a political theory and thus presupposes the application of appropriate concepts and categories, semantic guidelines;
- this theory should be extremely sensitive to practical changes in the sphere of power, i.e., the basic regulatory system of collective action;
- the theory itself cannot but have some fundamental limitations that do not give it the opportunity to comprehensively describe this process.

The construction of theoretical models that make it possible to interpret and describe the process of government decision-making is not limited only to the deployment of the fundamental methodological guidelines outlined above. Theoretical modelling of this process is associated with the identification and interpretation of the external and internal parameters of this process, the interrelation of which makes it possible to capture the essential and semantic connections between them, generalise these connections and processes, thereby capturing the elements of repeatability, and demonstrate the specifics of this range of phenomena. In short, theoretical models should consistently describe the order of changes in this area in a formal and logical sense, formalizing its main links and processes as much as possible.

The construction of theoretical models that make it possible to interpret and describe the government decision-making process is not limited only to the fundamental methodological guidelines’ deployment outlined above. Theoretical modelling of this process is associated with the identification and interpretation of the external and internal parameters of this process, the interrelation of which makes it possible to capture the essential and semantic connections between them, generalise these connections and processes, thereby capturing the elements of repeatability, and demonstrate the specifics of this range of phenomena. In



short, theoretical models should consistently describe the order of changes in this area in a formal and logical sense, formalizing its main links and processes as much as possible.

Theoretical modelling should be based on more significant and distinctive characteristics of the process and mechanism of government decision-making. These are the indicators make it possible to specify government decision-making in the public administration system and among other types of goal achievement.

In particular, indeed, despite the qualitative differences with other social institutions and agents, the state, like all other decision-making entities, has some properties set. It may be a known resource and time deficit in a full-fledged analysis of the problem, costs in the institutional and personnel design of the solution, and others. However, along with them, the state also has such decision-making components that have a very specific character. Considering these and other parameters, it is possible to identify those structural components that constitute the theoretical modelling of the decision-making process:

- the specifics of the state as a subject of management,
- the main factors of this process,
- the specifics of the object of public administration,
- the specifics of the environment external to the state,
- the forms of behavioural activity of the state,
- the nature of interaction between the state and the object of management,
- the nature of the tasks solved by the state tasks,
- stages of decision-making and implementation.

Let us take a closer look at some of the essential components of the structure. Other components will be studied in the following topics.

*The object and the external environment of government decision-making.* In this case, it is worth noting that, by making and implementing its decisions, the state somehow interacts not only with social objects but also with objects of natural origin. In other words, the state not only compensates for various social costs of the easy impact of physical, geographical and easy factors in general (e.g., earthquakes, environmental disasters, floods and other cataclysms) but also tries to have a direct impact on nature by transforming the landscape, mastering near-Earth orbit, transforming certain viral cultures, etc. It is known well that any predictive or planning activity of the state is inextricably linked with indicators that consider the specifics of the deployment of natural processes and human adaptation to the part of the landscape mastered by man. Disaster risk reduction activities, regulation of human organ cloning, etc. are also typical.

Thus, in the most general form, we can state that the object of state decisions, along with social processes, contains natural components. Thus, we can argue that the object of public administration is not purely public but combined, bio-geosocial or natural-anthropogenic in nature. Such features of the management object determine the use of some procedures for evaluating and calculating management decisions. Thus, in the decision-making process, computational models, diagnostic procedures, and coordination technologies must necessarily be guided by the logic of complex (i.e., including the effects of natural factors) determinism.

When characterizing an object, it should be emphasised – against the background of that comprehensive nature – and the essential limitations inherent in it. It means that the state cannot manage many – even socially significant – entities on its territory. So, e.g., while maintaining the most general forms of responsibility (in particular, for monetary allowances for rangers) for national reserves, the Russian government has not created a single body for monitoring and managing these facilities over the past 15 years, has not developed a single government programme, has not proposed a single project for the development of this area of life.

*Environmental factors.* Here, it is most often advisable to distinguish between the macro (general) and the near (business) external environment. As noted above, the first category includes such elements as physical and geographical components, biological components of wildlife, and social and socio-cultural elements. We can see that the component-content composition of this “remote” environment is more structured than the near environment, i.e., the “business” environment. These components determine the general possibilities of maintaining stability in the state concerning nature and other parameters equally essential for its vital activity. At the same time, it is impossible not to see that the increased uncertainty level about these factors condition provokes constant threats to the management system. But in general, the nature of the macro environment demonstrates how some society type and nature affects the state.

The “near” environment, in addition to its more differentiated (hence less structured) nature (which includes the type of political system, regime of government, socio-economic, cultural and many other parameters), also determines the profile of the impact on the state of the factors of the “remote” environment, demonstrating what influences and which structures of the state; what the mechanisms of such positive or negative influence; whether it is of a long-term or short-term nature. At the same time, we can state that both components of the external environment are incorporated. For the near

(business) variety of the external environment, this means that the state is surrounded by a very heterogeneous atmosphere and any, of the most diverse and differing factors can be included there. In part, this is reflected in the fact that we can include in the area of responsibility of the state any issues affecting common collective interests. At the same time, the mechanism regulating the volume of managerial claims of the state is the property of “penetration” of political objects. This is the transforming politics area, showing that a wide range of problems and issues penetrate the area of state responsibility.

The forms of behavioural activity of the state deserve special attention. Considering the nature of the state decision-making mechanism, it can distinguish various purposeful state activity types. These include influence, domination, regulation, management, and control, just like actions in force majeure circumstances.

*Thus*, the influence shows the secondary place and role of the state in some social systems (located either on the territory of a given state or having an extraterritorial character) and the corresponding – secondary in nature – impact on the development of the goals being developed there. For example, sometimes the state cannot only dominate but also have a great impact on the promotion of any goals by corporate factors involved in a joint project with it, in the settlement of intra-family conflicts, etc.

In turn, domination is inextricably linked with the use by the state of technologies of coercion, command, domination, and authorization, which, ultimately, often turns into ignoring the opinions of subordinates. Domination, as a rule, is used to balance large (for society) asymmetric relations and from a technological viewpoint, it becomes a prerequisite and organises the entire process of government.

It is characteristic, e.g., that in the Middle Ages this format of state activity, when the upper classes did not so much care about the effectiveness of management as about depriving their main rival, the church, of advantages in the struggle for dominance in society, was, in fact, the main one. Significantly, this claim of the church to spiritual domination in society deprived the institution of the state of the opportunity to exercise its supreme power, to act as a bearer of sovereignty. The existence of such a format of state activity shows that various political regimes (e.g., a republic or a monarchy as a form of organisation of power) create completely certain limits and opportunities for implementing managerial activities. So, in conditions of authoritarianism, the upper classes, using appropriate forms of regulation of social space, as a rule, build a system of public administration “for themselves”, i.e., to ensure the passage of the laws they need,

just like for their implementation. At the same time, democracy, stimulating pluralistic orders, always faces a more complex and by no means guarantees the “fulfilment of their desires” for the upper classes by the order of coordinating interests and realizing the will of the upper classes. However, in any case, the type of power regulation is always formed depending on the balance of forces and inextricably linked with the so-called accumulative effect, i.e., the desire of the centre of power to unlimited expansion of its powers.

It is also characteristic that it is the format of power, which determines the different levels of representation of civil interests and the corresponding organisation and the allocation of status positions to factors. For example, in several countries, the majority of the population represents their interests through the lower house of parliament, the aristocracy through the upper house, and the executive power structures are designed for the actions of leaders, sovereigns and monarchs. The mildest form of targeted government influence is control. This form mainly involves actions aimed at monitoring the situation, which, in turn, ultimately, helps to keep the situation from collapsing, processes that are not amenable to conscious influence, and the subject loses any possibilities of conscious influence on it. The next type of state activity in decision-making can be called regulation, which assumes a partially targeted effect on some parameters of the object of management and is designed to reduce tension in certain areas of social life (socio-natural relations).

Another, the most common form of purposeful activity designed to subordinate the situation to a pre-developed plan is management. Government is some form of using power to solve a narrower range of tasks and with the help of a wider range of means. The power absence makes it impossible to rule, and in turn, the lack of development of the system of government deprives the government of its advantages. It is also significant that the priorities and attitudes to social values of these forms of state activity are also different. So, relative stability is necessary for the government. And stability for the government is the core to maintaining the positions of the ruling elite. In short, if domination involves the conquest of dominant positions by the highest structures in the state, then management involves their use to solve more specific tasks by coordinating interests, streamlining ties and relationships, coordinating actions and other similar actions. When considering this type of activity, the main thing is to ensure that the organisation of the apparatus for the board corresponds to the object of regulation. For example, the separation of powers is the most indicative form of the institutional division of labour in the state.

Thus, modern-style governance (just like governance) is associated with recognising broader rights and freedoms of the governed people and their ability to act more independently and autonomously. Hence, the other balance of power underlying the decisions made, and the structures set structures necessary for implementing management. Aristotle also said that the principles of management organisation, existing structures, and institutions of supervision of actions should be present in the state. It generally corresponds to presenting legislative, executive and judicial authorities (“branches of government”) in the State.

The format of actions in conditions of force majeure (or anti-crisis activities) is also of fundamental significance for the state. Later, we will describe the state actions in risk conditions. However, at the moment, we will note that this kind of purposeful action acquires distinctive features with a qualitative increase in dangers and deviations of the activities of his institutions from their goals. In this case, it means that force majeure conditions drastically reduce the state’s ability to take any conscious actions concerning the object of management. The interaction itself is destroyed, the nature of which is changing to a mode of sporadic communication. The instability of the current situation often forces the state to switch from external objects to internal ones, i.e., the task of stabilizing its own position. So, in this case, the goal is not so much to purposefully influence the external management object as to prevent threats to the existence of the management apparatus itself. Thus, despite its efforts, the state usually cannot properly structure the public space and implement external management strategies.

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## **Part Three.**

### **The state as a subject of decision-making and implementation for the management of society**

- 3.1 The state as the main institution of the political system
  - 3.2 Public management: theory and practice
  - 3.3 The state as a specific subject of decision-making and execution
  - 3.4 Objective grounds for government decisions
  - 3.5 The subjective side of government decisions
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#### **3.1 The state as the main institution of the political system**

The central element of the political system is the state. In everyday life, the term “state” is usually identified with a country or society. In the scientific literature, there are three general meanings of this term:

- the state is presented as a social mechanism for forcing citizens to comply with the laws and rules established in society;
- the state is interpreted as a set of government institutions, i.e., society management apparatus;
- the state is understood as a specific type of political and legal organisation of the power of society. The third definition is common in political science.

The state is perceived as an organisation of political power that extends over the entire territory of the country and its population, influences their activities and has a specific management apparatus for this, issues mandatory orders for everyone and has independence in solving internal and external problems.

To define the concept of “state” in this course, we will use the definition of the Spanish political scientist L. Sanisteban: “A state is a certain type of legally standardised social behaviour that exists in specific spatiotemporal conditions”.

There are several concepts of the origin of the state.

1. The theological concept explains the emergence of the state just like all its decisions, by the actions and sanctions of the divine will.
2. The patriarchal concept interprets the power of the ruler in the state as the father power in a large family and the relationship between subjects and rulers

as family relations. A reflection of such views was, e.g., the Russian tradition of calling the ruler “Tsar-Father”, or “Father of the People”. The origin of the state can be seen as the family growth to the state size.

3. The contractual concept is based on the fact that the emergence of the state is preceded by the natural state of society and man, characterised by unlimited freedom. Only after the conclusion of the social contract was unlimited freedom introduced into reasonable limits through the creation of the state as an organisation designed to ensure a balance of various public interests, rights and individual freedom.
4. The psychological concept is based on the fact that the state exists due to a person’s psychological need to live within an organised community, in a sense of the need for collective interaction.
5. The class (Marxist) concept interprets the state as a class in origin (appears along with the division of society into classes) and in essence (an organ of class domination and an organ of oppression of one class by another).
6. The theory of conquest (violence) considers the origin of the state as the result of the conquest of strong tribes by weak ones. The origin of class exploitation is interpreted similarly.
7. Organic theory draws an analogy between the state and a living organism in structure and function.
8. Irrigation theory connects the origin of the state with the need to build large irrigation structures. This approach is used to explain the history of several countries in the East.

As studies by modern historians and ethnographers show, there is no one reason for the emergence of the state. Most of the above theories reflect certain groups of factors that became the reasons for the genesis of the state. The state appears as a result of the decomposition of the tribal system when the power of the leaders is isolated from society. This process was influenced by various circumstances: the emergence of private property and property inequality, the growth of population size and density, the conquest of some peoples by others, defense needs, the transition to a sedentary lifestyle, the social division of labour and the allocation of management to a special type of activity, the needs of organising irrigation and other joint works.

The state has its own specific features that distinguish it from all other institutions and organisations existing in society (parties, movements, etc.). The main ones are listed below.



The separation of public power from society, its discrepancy with the entire population, and the emergence of a layer of professional managers. It distinguishes the state from a tribal organisation based on the principles of self-government. The exercise of public power requires certain bodies to exercise power – a special apparatus (officials, judges, army, etc.). The modern state combines a professional administrative apparatus with a representative system formed through elections, just like a system of courts.

*Availability of territory.* The laws and powers of government bodies apply to people living within the boundaries of state territory. The state is built based on the territorial community of people, and not on the principles of consanguinity or other principles, including religious ones.

*Sovereignty (sovereignty).* This is a property of state power, expressed in its supremacy and independence concerning any other authorities within the country, just like in independence in the sphere of interstate relations. They distinguish between internal sovereignty, which means the right of the government to pass or change laws binding on the entire population, and external sovereignty (in the context of international relations), which implies the state's freedom from outside control.

*Monopoly on the legal use of force, physical and other coercion.* The range of state coercion extends from restriction of freedom to physical destruction of a person. To perform coercive functions, the state has specific means (weapons, prisons, police, etc.), just like bodies – the army, police, security service, court, prosecutor's office, and executors.

*Monopoly's right to collect taxes and fees from the population.* Taxes are necessary to maintain the administrative apparatus and to provide material support for state policy. It is the legal withdrawal of part of the funds of individuals and groups to benefit society as a whole.

*Organisation of public life on a legal basis.* Without law and legislation, the state cannot effectively lead society and ensure law and order, just like the unconditional implementation of its decisions. In any modern society, there are many subjects of power (family, business, church, parties, etc.) but, the undeniably supreme power, the decisions binding on all citizens, organisations and institutions without exception, is the state. Only he has the right to issue laws and norms of a generally binding nature just like applying them uniformly.

*The claim is to represent society as a whole and to protect common interests and the common good. No other force, institution or organisation can represent and protect all citizens or has the necessary means to do so.*

The essence of the state is the main thing that determines the objective necessity of its (the state) existence as a social subsystem, just like whose interests it serves. Traditionally, researchers pay attention to two main reasons determining the state – class and general society.

Indeed, the state as a historical phenomenon has a dual nature. Being an organisation of political power of the economically dominant class (class essence), it is at the same time the organiser of “common affairs”, i.e., ensures security, economic, political and cultural conditions for people’s life (general social essence).

As the experience of modern democracy shows, the scope of manifestation of the general social purpose of the state has expanded significantly. The state can act as a supra-class arbiter, trying to consider diverse, sometimes antagonistic interests in its policies and placing emphasise on regulating potential and natural conflicts within the state and outside it. The “removal” of the functions of class violence and the expansion of the regulating relations functions between social groups, the expression of their interests through the mechanisms of democracy allows us to speak about the tendency to format a modern state as a truly legal and social one. The place and role of the state in the political system of society are revealed in its functions. Traditionally, they are divided into internal and external.

The internal functions of the state include the following:

1. *Economic function*, i.e., protecting the existing mode of production, regulating economic processes through tax and credit policies, stabilizing the economy and creating incentives for economic growth, and regulating “natural monopolies” (communications, energy). The question of the limits of government intervention in the economic sphere is one of the most difficult issues in modern theory and practice. On the one hand, the practice of direct directive intervention of the state in the economy (USSR) showed complete inconsistency. On the other hand, a completely free market carries with it an element of spontaneity. A modern state must use economic levers (taxes, benefits, loans) to regulate economic processes.
2. *Social function*, i.e., development of the social sphere: healthcare, education, various types of social programmes (pensions, benefits, positive discrimination), meeting people’s needs for work, housing, maintaining health, providing social guarantees to socially vulnerable groups of the population (youth, pensioners, the unemployed, orphans, disabled people,

large families, etc.). Through this function, the state corrects the negative social consequences of reforms associated with the transition to a market.

3. *Political function*, i.e., protection of the existing political system, maintenance of prevailing relations in all spheres of social life, order and legality in the country, safety of life and property of citizens. Ensuring political stability, developing a political course that meets the needs of the widest possible segments of the population, or the needs of maintaining the political dominance of the owning class.
4. *Educational and cultural-educational function*, i.e., organisation and control of the activities of the media, scientific, cultural and educational institutions, religious organisations, implementation of a holistic cultural and educational policy. These functions are aimed at creating conditions for obtaining generally accessible general and secondary vocational education, just like conditions for meeting the cultural needs of the population;
5. *Environmental function*, protection of the natural environment, creating conditions for its sustainable reproduction in the interests of current and future generations.

The external functions of the state include the following:

1. Protecting the interests of society and its individual representatives in the international arena, defending the rights of citizens in other countries, protecting borders or, on the contrary, foreign policy expansion.
2. Economic cooperation with other countries, policies of protectionism and lobbying for the interests of national industry, imposing goods and services on other countries.
3. Scientific, technical and cultural exchange, borrowing experience, values, achievements and exporting cultural samples.

To perform these functions, the state uses some means (resources of state power) and relies on specific bodies set that make up the structure of the state. The state can use all political power resources, but the exclusive state monopoly includes the interpretation and use of laws, and other legal norms, just like power resources. The multi-vector nature of the functions of the state indicates a wide range of goals and tasks to be solved and, therefore, the right to make one's own decisions regarding ways of self-affirmation in the internal and external environment.

Project, programme and planning guidelines (problems, tasks, issues) can be classified, including focusing on the functions of the state in solving various

problems: economic, social, political, environmental, cultural, educational, etc. We will consider the types of government tasks in more detail in the next section of the topic.

### **3.2 Public management: theory and practice**

Serious changes in the socio-economic organisation of public life contributed to the formation of the market and market relations developed in world-developed countries of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Since the 1980s, market rules have begun to extend to other social spheres, including the political system of society. The change result was the transition from public administration to public management. Concerning the theory of organisation, two main points characterise the latter: increasing the independence of the lower floors of hierarchical state organisations and shifting the emphasis from the actual construction of the organisation to its relationship with the environment. It is necessary to consider that with the transition in modern society to a new model of public administration as a whole, the approach to the adoption and execution of government decisions has noticeably changed. The transition to a public management model had a great influence on the very mechanism of government decision-making. In particular, there has been a qualitative improvement in the diagnosis of problems there has been an increase in the creative nature of problem-solving, and an increase in the demand for consulting services has changed the role of the expert community. At least the ideological prerequisites were created for reducing the number of intermediaries in the management system. Control from the execution of decisions began to move more consistently to check the quality of the results obtained. The concept of public management justified the emergence of new decision-making centres, contributed to the spread of mechanisms of deregulation and decentralisation, encouraged a departure from hierarchical principles of decision coordination, and justified the spread of polycentric management methods. What are the public management principles and its internal mechanisms of functioning?

Features of the transition to public management are expressed in the following principles:

- in a commitment to action and change rather than adherence to a certain norm;
- in the subsidiarity of a modern management organisation, which should be closer to the client, characterised by decentralisation and relative freedom of all its links;

- in the active choice by a manager at any level of activity area that would serve the public interests and the interests of a particular person;
- in new criteria for the effectiveness of the public administration system, focused on the quality of services and profitability.

The core issue of implementing these principles in the theory and practice of public administration is the search for a model of an effective state and a new administration system. New public management is based on the premises of rational choice theory and market attitudes towards public affairs, emphasizing competition and choice, exchange of resources and optimality. Although there are different approaches within this trend – quantitative analytical, political science, market-managerial – each of them is influenced by the economic approach to management. As a result, rational choice theory and neo-institutional economics have become almost synonymous with public management theory. Another intellectual source of the new public management is managerialist doctrines that emphasise the “freedom to manage”, including through performance measurement.

A well-known book on this issue, published by David Osborne and Ted Gabler, is “Rethinking Management. How the Entrepreneurial Spirit Is Transforming the Public Sector?”. Its content is organised around ten principles on which the new model is based:

- leading others rather than performing their functions;
- providing choice to consumers rather than serving them;
- incorporating competition into service provision;
- organisation through tasks rather than rules;
- investing in results rather than intentions;
- intense customer focus;
- encouraging entrepreneurial earning rather than bureaucratic spending;
- focus on prevention rather than treatment;
- decentralisation of organisations and increased collaboration;
- achieving change through market-oriented intentions.

This book uses the term “entrepreneurial management” to describe the proposed model. An entrepreneur, the authors write, uses resources in new ways to maximise productivity and efficiency. New public management has much in common with old public management but it also has significant differences from the latter.

Lawrence Jones and Fred Thompson also point this:

1. The new public management emphasises piecemeal, assignments and processes, while the old one emphasised functions, execution and tasks. The building blocks of old public administration were bureaucracy and hierarchy. The basic building block for new public management is a multi-professional team whose members work together from the beginning until the completion of a given task.
2. In the new public management, decision-making authority is delegated to a team that performs organisational work and controls in accordance with the project being implemented.
3. New public management defines economy and efficiency entirely in terms of customer satisfaction.
4. The new public management is less interested in organisations and is based on institutional design and choice.

Proponents of public management point to certain positions that determine the nature of the decision-making system:

- the need to consistently reduce the managerial role of the state and reduce the management agenda for it;
- the need for a global vision of even specific problems, correcting the collection of information and diagnosis of the situation;
- strengthening the flexibility of the management system, implying an increase in the share of reserve development plans, reserve resource centers, etc.;
- constant use of new (adapted to the situation) management methods;
- orientation towards the fragmentation of public management, which involves reducing differences in the diagnosis of problems by the private and public sectors;
- stimulating real transformations in society itself or, in other words, an emphasis in management activities on forms of implementation of decisions;
- strengthening the accountability of administrative structures or increasing vertical forms of coordination and correction of decisions.

Among the supporters of this managerial revolution, the concepts of “reinventing government” and “new management model” were and are perceived as answers to all problems of public administration in modern society. However, practice (even apart from structural counter-trends) has demonstrated many factors that constrain and fundamentally limit the application of such an approach to public administration and the mechanism for making public decisions. As K. Koenig

rightly emphasises, “Due to the redistributive nature of the public sector, free choice cannot be an appropriate mechanism for harmonising the contradictions in demand for public resources”. All this demonstrates that consumerism cannot be the general mechanism for resolving the issue of choosing goods and services available to citizens, just like the only way to organise power systems and bodies.

Bureaucracy is a costly structure. Therefore, without conscious rationalization of the civil service, privatization and savings policies, neither public administration as a whole nor the decision-making process can be optimised. In a word, the state must reform consciously, stopping spontaneously occurring deformations and paying primary attention to coordinating the activities of its bodies. Of course, through its policies, the state can strengthen or weaken the ability to regulate the market. However, it does not necessarily become a complete market structure itself.

It also became clear that in conditions of democratic representation of the interests of citizens, the responsibility of the government and authorities cannot be completely transferred to the state apparatus, to employees temporarily performing their duties. In other words, elected politicians have their sector of responsibility, which cannot be eliminated through commercialization, and a group of management functions when making decisions. A significant drawback of the application of managerial principles in practice has been the differentiation, or more precisely, the fragmentation of the civil service, which has demonstrated that some structures receive the right to use market approaches, while others (e.g., special services or security forces) cannot afford it.

An obvious consequence of introducing managerial principles was a decrease in the level of coordination of actions of government agencies. However, the main thing is that due to the redistributive nature of the public sector, free consumer demand did not – and could not become – a mechanism for coordinating demand for public services. In other words, commercialization and managerialism could not de facto become the dominant mechanisms for setting and implementing state goals. The contract type of management came possible only in some areas of the public sector.

Thus, the concept of public management, developed in the 1980s and '90s, is being seriously criticised in our time for its economism, lack of interest in ethical issues, quantitative emphasis in assessing public administration and belittling the significance of the specifics of the public sphere. However, until recently this concept was at the heart of administrative reforms in many countries; it was an

effective response to the crisis of the bureaucratic model of governance, the administrative state and the costly nature of the welfare state. Today, it is clear that new public management is not a panacea for solving all problems of public administration but it has taken its place among the theories and practices of modern management of the public sphere.

### **3.3 The state as a specific subject of decision-making and execution**

The state historically developed as a large-scale institution that tried to strengthen the unity of citizens in some territory. The most significant condition for this evolution was and remains the continuous development of the power and management apparatus and the improvement of the organisational structure, characterised by heterogeneous territorial and functional diffusion. However, as a result of the long-term improvement of its structures and in connection with its function improvement, the state failed to achieve unambiguous internal homogeneity. So, it represents, on the one hand, a holistic, internally integrated (by territory, laws, traditions, etc.) structure and a type of aggregate set of people, on the other hand. People in the state solve various problems while having their motivations, histories and paths of behaviour just like very high autonomy concerning authorities and management. It is clear that in this sense, the attitude of the state's counterparties to the solutions it develops constantly varies, and the goals put forward often do not have a stable social basis. Furthermore, the differentiated type of development contributed to the state formation, along with the officially recognised centre of power and control, of many other – territorial, local, opposition and other – centres of influence, i.e., those structures that de facto position themselves as participants in considering alternatives, putting forward goals, agreeing on decisions, etc. In other words, due to territorial and functional diffusion and differentiation of management structures, the official “Center of Power” is forced to constantly interact with informal, regional and other centres of influence when making decisions.

The established practice of a modern state makes it possible to state that its institutional organisation is represented by the set of various linear functional and network forms that use many procedures and decision-making technologies. On the one hand, this is due to the presence of bodies that perform varied functions, have their forms of developing and putting forward initiatives, and demonstrate one or another degree of autonomy and independence of action at the same time. On the other hand, such an internally differentiated state of government



structures demonstrates that government and management bodies are in a state of some internal competition with each other and often fragmentation, expressed in an almost constant desire to intercept the functions and resources of their partners and contractors. In this sense, the process of making government decisions has a kind of genetic disequilibrium, which, in turn, presupposes the constant concern of the authorities about strengthening the internal integrity of the state, i.e., reliable coordination and coordination of the positions of government and management bodies. So, in this case, we can only talk about the constant, but only claims of the state to synchronise the actions of its structures and sub-institutions.

One of the general means of compensating for this organic fragmentation of the state, it seems, is the virtualization of its appearance and, above all, the creation and maintenance of an image that affirms the homogeneity and stability of power. In other words, image is a permanent management construct, the most significant means of legitimizing power and increasing the mechanism integrity for making (and implementing) government decisions. The lack of a stable connection between maintenance costs and the effectiveness of government bodies, which qualitatively reduces and even eliminates the material and practical orientation (and with its responsibility) of the activities of government bodies, also plays a significant role. For example, regardless of whether the police protect citizens poorly or well, the corresponding ministry will receive budget funds for its maintenance. This feature is closely related to the need for accurate diagnosis of the functions of certain bodies, clarification of their powers, and targeted support of their efforts.

The public nature of the state's activities presupposes that authorities and management are forced to design and implement their goals in an open discursive environment where varied counterparties operate (both partners and opponents of the line pursued by the authorities). Such properties shift the main emphasis to the government decisions implementation stage, in which the public is always assigned one role or another. It is also significant that the state provides the population with several monopoly services (occupying a dominant position in such areas as defence, security, foreign policy, etc.), which significantly influences the nature of opposition to the goals put forward and the promotion of solutions. In other words, the state can use more simplified procedures for calculating goals in these public sector segment types.

It is also worth mentioning that the state can transfer a number of its functions to society (e.g., in the field of adaptation of persons on parole, patients with

serious illnesses, etc.) and also, on the contrary, to take certain functions under its responsibility. Thus, the state can artificially narrow (expand) the range of objects and subjects of decision-making. The centuries-old practice of the existence of the state as a social institution has also demonstrated the presence of several very characteristic “diseases”, in particular, the desire of state officials to increase their budgetary resources, the bureaucracy’s desire to formalise and inflexibly their actions, and distortion of management information that can cast doubt on their functions, etc.

As a consequence of the above-mentioned state's activity parameters, one can see that the processes of government decision-making include both institutionally established forms of activity of people (government bodies) performing their role tasks and arbitrary actions and interactions of various subjects, i.e., formal and informal, institutional and non-institutionalised behavioural forms. At the same time, for both those and others, the state acts as a special apparatus of management as an imperious force, and as a unique environment for decision-making. Since all these forms of activity are subject to either power or organisational-administrative dependencies, the decision-making process involves the interaction of both isomorphic and invariant structures, group and individual actors, institutional and non-institutional structures (teams and individual politicians, ruling and opposition forces, etc.).

Thus, the mechanism for making government decisions, although generally subordinate to the institutionally established management cycle, in general, it is a process repeatedly mediated by formal and informal structures, the quality and nature of which are directly determined not so much by procedurally agreed norms but by the actions and style of behaviour of managers.

Considering the public nature of the state’s activities and its location in society, the mechanism for making management decisions demonstrates that the goals being developed are formed not only by professional structures (politicians and civil servants), but also, as already mentioned, under the pressure of third parties and, above all, civil, expert, non-profit, non-governmental, including international structures. Moreover, among the four most significant actors already mentioned, it is possible to describe in more detail the list of the most significant counterparties that constantly influence the adoption and implementation of government decisions (the so-called “stakeholders”, i.e., “stakeholders” or, in other words, those who have a permanent interest in maintaining contacts with the state in solving managerial problems). These include:

- politicians (as an elected part of the ruling state elite);
- state apparatus, bureaucracy, state bureaucracy (as an unelected part of the ruling state elite);
- the largest business corporations;
- political opposition;
- parties;
- mass media including media owners and advertisers;
- expert and academic community;
- influential civic structures (and public opinion);
- international structures (largest national states and international organisations).

All of the above actors (each in their way) interact with specific subjects of government, just like objects of its attention, whose specific parameters also need to be determined. In this case, it is necessary, in our opinion, to note two points.

*First.* The range of such actors is limited since the state projects its actions concerning only certain phenomena that are predetermined by its rights and powers. In particular, these may not be all organisations but only relevant public sector structures. The methods of influence of the state on managed objects are appropriately defined and secured (including by legislative means).

*Second.* The interaction of various public, corporate and other agents is not just a necessary component of government decision-making. It simultaneously testifies to a joint, cooperative way of making government decisions, which, in turn, presupposes constant communication between the state and its counterparties on some social problems.

It is characteristic that this kind of statement of characteristics of states increasingly influences the positions of scientists dealing with problems of public administration in general. Under the influence of increasingly complex ideas about the mechanisms for making government decisions, the scientific community has become increasingly confident that the state needs to be separated from both “society” and “government” today. According to the general opinion of researchers on the issue, the state consists of “many large and small parts”. At the same time, the state includes at least the following five subsystems:

- maintaining and operating common collective values;
- the use of special measures related to his powers;
- having a history of its development;

- presence of organisational structures;
- presence of power structures.

At the same time, the assessments of theorists, and, in particular, E. Laumann and D. Knoke, are increasingly understood, who argue that the state is not a unitary actor but a complex phenomenon, covering many areas of decision-making and including both government organisations and those general representatives of the private sector whose interests must be considered. They write that this form of human interaction is characterised by “close consultation and lobbying, frequent exchanges of personnel, and open channels of communication between government and interest groups”, ultimately creating the inextricably intertwined institutions that make up the modern state.

The combination of various factors that determine the positions of actors operating in a state, the nature of the resources they use when solving problems, and many other essential parameters of public decision-making are expressed in multiple types and varieties of this process. More precisely, the characteristics of the state as a subject of decision-making make it possible to identify several modifications of decision-making as a process.

The state is an institution that simultaneously belongs to the national-territorial forms of maintaining the life of local communities and also acts as a based element of the system of international relations. In this regard, internal and external factors that determine its dynamics and transformation, including changes in the decision-making mechanism, influence the state.

In this regard, let us pay attention to a brief description of the impacts currently experienced by the state from the world system of international relations. As is known, in the modern world, there are many trends simultaneously operating that affect the functions and nature of the state’s activities (e.g., increasing imbalance in the social environment, increasing competition between government agencies and the private sector, increasing expectations of the population for services of a new quality, etc.). At the same time, the leading trend of our time is globalization, giving rise to new forms of world order. As the system of global connections and interactions includes an individual state, various areas of attention begin to appear in its decision-making mechanism, and therefore, the responsibility of national and world centres, regional and local governments, and national and corporate structures. Consequently, when making decisions, special target programmes, projects, and plans are multiplying, claiming their place in the authority activities. Ultimately, as several experts believe, this leads to the emergence of the so-called.

“broad”, “multi-stage”, and “multi-level” management, stimulating, among other things, the formation of alternative decision-making mechanisms.

Certain advances are also taking place in the substantive part of the decision-making process, or more precisely in some change in the criteria for problematization and even the agenda. Thus, due to the sharp increase in the cost of solving many problems familiar to the state, the criteria for assessing the attractiveness of projects, achieving global profits, and assessing the cost nature of the task are changing. The focus on financial and economic issues (determination of interest rates in credit policy, manipulation of capital, etc.) is also significantly increasing in government activities. The exceptional fluidity of the situation, mainly assessed in terms of costs and benefits, predetermines increased attention to short-term goals and programmes. There is also an increase in the significance of control structures designed to protect the interests of the national state.

Thus, as the state integrates into the relations of the global world, but in essence its simultaneous existence in different historical dimensions, the decision-making mechanism becomes a very sensitive tool for responding to all these transformations. In the final form, as a result, both the management mechanism and the decision-making process, just like the form of the state as an institution, a way of organising the joint life of people, are transformed.

### **3.4 Objective grounds for government decisions**

State decisions have a very definite meaning in the arrangement of human affairs, not only due to the imperious, forceful, coercive nature of the state machine itself but also in connection with the influence that state actions can have on that part of reality that does not need government intervention due to the ability to self-organise. The state, as we know, cannot do everything, or, more precisely, it cannot do everything. Its power does not initially rest on its foundation: this institution, like others, arises in response to a very specific social needs set – not so much those generated by the nature of power as such, but those (and only those) that generate the ability to power to manifest itself where and when it is no longer possible to do without it. The need for power, supervising, punishing and only then, much later, managing, being generated by very specific circumstances, appears as an objective need, i.e., one that, being a product of human relations, is alienated from them as an independent force, embodied in the corresponding mechanisms and begins to dominate everything capable of fearing it or being horrified by its irresistible power.

State power can make reasonable decisions (i.e., according to a well-known expression, to make decisions with knowledge of the matter) under the influence of necessity arising from external circumstances and in this case, its decisions are like reaction, adaptation, adaptation to what cannot be changed seems possible. It is justified by the fact that it can intervene initially in any situation created by human creativity, activity and rationality (just like their antipodes), resolving the contradiction contained in it (dispute, conflict, problem) in favour of the side that, from the viewpoint of the bearer this power deserves to be supported. To decide to make a decision that deprives one of the parties of the confrontation from the right to overcome possible doubts about its fairness, to win the right to recognise government decisions as infallible from the viewpoint of common sense or even rationalistic reason, to turn a seemingly insoluble situation into one overcome by a win for one party (by forcing the consent of the who is wrong) or reconciliation of the parties (enforcement of peace), to establish and maintain the right to independence in determining what is considered right/wrong when making decisions regarding the fate of one's subjects is a long road that was started and paved long ago but as before, to this day, we find it in a state of construction or, in any case, improvement.

At the same time, state power, represented by its governing bodies and officials who are capable of developing management potential, has the opportunity to organise its activities in such a way as to be ready to offer its options for solving emerging problems or its approaches to how these problems can be dealt with cope. By overcoming contradictions and conflicts that arise again and again, one way or another, resolving them and developing action algorithms to obtain just such a result, the government capable of making (reasonable) decisions from the viewpoint of those whom they directly concern, gradually becomes in the eyes of everyone involved in these processes, a force that exists independently of them. The transition moment from the power of authority to the power of authority is the most interesting and, we note, the core problem of the origin of the state as the power embodiment, capable of reproducing itself in some forms.

The validity of state decisions for managing reality, which to a certain extent does not depend on the power of the state (i.e., objective reality, one that exists in itself and not because it is a manifestation of someone's conscious will), seems to have the nature permanent readiness to act "in the name of peace, goodness and justice" where and when such peacemaking is necessary to preserve and reproduce the foundations of the existence of human civilization in certain specific historical communities of people, their communities and groups of

collectivist nature. Initially, this purpose is not recognised as an attributive feature of state power (it is rather a force capable of reconciling warring parties under the threat of punishment, rather than a reasonable decision about the boundaries and conditions of its use). A state of the modern type, we note, must already be dependent on

The state arises and exists as a centralising force, pulling into itself that in the fabric of social reality that enslaves people, makes them dependent, incapable of free and reasonable expression of will. In other words, the state is initially a governing force, i.e., capable of coercively, with the help of certain techniques (technologies), to organise people so that the problems, questions and tasks that confront them are resolved properly. By accumulating socio-historical, cultural-cognitive and military-political experience in solving pressing human problems, government bodies, structures and persons with authority simultaneously accumulate experience in making decisions that are not only relevant to the current situation but also capable of being applied, so to speak, on advance, in the future, designed considering the past.

Government decisions are successful not so much when they are accepted by society as a guide to action, but mainly because of the achieved managerial effect. The latter means that the result of decisions made is their implementation in such a way that reality, subjected to “editing” according to the decisions taken for execution, takes on a form that generally corresponds to people’s expectations and does not cause a reaction of rejection or disagreement with what it worked out in the end. The state can be as convincing as it likes in justifying the legitimacy and legality of its decisions, but its efforts to streamline social life, its foundations and most refined manifestations will be useless if the results of the implementation of the decisions made and forcedly implemented turn out to be unsatisfactory in the eyes of a significant part of society.

Society as a product of relations between people in the processes of activity and cognition, the result of their interaction with each other against the backdrop of a natural, albeit cultivated, habitat, itself acts as an external environment and an objective factor in the existence of state forms of its organisation. Emerging as a resulting component of purposeful actions and expedient cognitive and at the same time creative efforts of individuals forced to interact by the conditions of their existence, society (sociality?) are the embodied efforts of people and their communities aimed at changing what is given by nature, culture and thinking towards its adaptation to human needs. Human claims to own the world essentially boil down to being able to manage every no matter how small part of

it and, accordingly, manage any no matter how large part. The human dimension of control efforts, supplemented by experience and insights, multiplied by the correspondence of the power of technological influences to challenges from the external and internal circumstances of human life and shaping responses to them in a reasonable way, can generate synergistic effects when combining efforts but inevitably leads to the degradation of sociality in conditions of disunity and alienation.

The objective need of people to live according to general rules in a natural-historical manner contributes to the individualization of human beings, and this, in turn, produces the emergence of intentional deviations for the evidential establishment of tendencies to find a common good and a common goal through stability and order. The practical results of the objectification of common goals, minimising the influence of private interest, and the emergence on this basis of a pragmatic mismatch between a person and society, reaching the point of contradiction, confrontation and counteraction – this is perhaps the only reliable criterion that we can use to justify, understand and criticise various management efforts embedded in decisions of national scale and significance during their preparation and acceptance for execution.

### **3.5 The subjective side of government decisions**

Those who live and act separately from the systems of managing public affairs must be convinced that the state “knows what it is doing”. If these beliefs are weakened and subjected to various kinds of tests from the viewpoint doubts among citizens and their communities about the correctness of administrative and other decisions taken in the state by its leadership then it is not far from this to the emergence of opinions about the illegitimacy of people in power and institutions, the inadequacy of the efforts they make, the falsity of supporting ideas, ideals and values, the incorrectness of the chosen guidelines for social movement and development. Government decisions of a managerial nature and orientation contain an irresistible subjective component, i.e., they not only reflect reality as it is but also introduce into its understanding elements of possible distortions, incorrect interpretation of what is happening and false ideas about what to expect in the future.

Subjective, i.e., to one degree or another, depending on the will, desire and interests of people personifying the state, its institutions, organisations and institutions, manifestations in the development, adoption and implementation of



decisions cannot be eliminated from the currently existing state mechanisms. Subjectivism is an integral characteristic of any human activity, not only because human history has not yet developed the corresponding “error-free” technologies and management practices but also due to the presence in any state affairs of personal interest in one or another outcome. The priority of statehood does not always, not always and not for everyone mean the unshakable and undoubted primacy of state (public) interest in comparison with private (personal) interest. This is where all the features of the content of managerial and other decisions in government structures arise, which turns out to be focused not only on resolving the problem situation as such but also on the choice of exactly how it will be resolved and whether the interests of a very specific circle of people will be considered, who is not indifferent to what the result of the decision made and implemented will be.

Subjectivism as an attribute, an integral part, a substantive and formal component of the making and executing management decisions process by the state apparatus does not always mean obvious bias, the manifestation of some kind of personal interest or the persistent imposition of one’s viewpoint. For the bearer of state competencies, the manifestation of the volitional principle is a natural-historical consequence of the evolution of the idea of statehood and the centuries-old practice of public administration: do as you should, and so come what may – this is a kind of motto of a bureaucrat, to whom the entire human (and natural) world seems potentially manageable – in the sense of influence, regulation and control.

The world, fortunately, or unfortunately, is not like that, and what is controllable in it is much less than what is not subject to control influences and will never be subject to control. The world of human relations, society, and social matter is something that carries within itself not only the beginnings of constant disobedience to superior orders but also the possibility of interaction, competitive cooperation and communication / connection / communication – of course, always mediated by limited, but at the same time expanding and changeable linguistic means. It is impossible to avoid subjectivity in one form or another when developing, adopting, implementing / implementing management decisions, neither in the private nor in the public sphere but any socially responsible subject of action is obliged to try to avoid subjective deviations, no matter what role he plays in the decision-making process, and in whatever mode he is present in these processes. This statement, in our opinion, acts as an imperative attitude of a modern type of official, and it is by how this attitude is

implemented in practice that one can judge whether the management style of the decision-making and execution processes corresponds to modern requirements.

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## Part 4.

### Types and forms of government decisions

- 4.1 Classification of government decisions
  - 4.2 Multilevel nature of government decisions
  - 4.3 Complex nature of government decisions
  - 4.4 Direction of government decisions
  - 4.5 Purpose of state decisions
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#### 4.1 Classification of government decisions

The tasks of regulating various spheres of society's life by the state pose the need for it to make a wide variety of decisions. The classification of government decisions makes it possible to systematise them on various grounds: by subjects of management, time and scope of action, content and form, etc.

Summarising existing data, government decisions can be classified as follows:

By subjects of management:

- national (elections, referendum);
- federal, regional (federal subjects), local;
- legislative power, executive power, judicial power;
- individual, collegial.

By purpose and time of action:

- strategic (long-term);
- tactical (medium-term);
- operational (short-term).

By scale of action:

- national;
- local (within an administrative-territorial unit);
- intradepartmental;
- interdepartmental.

By normative nature:

- general (normative);
- private (non-normative).

By legal force:

- higher (constitutional);
- legislative;
- subordinate.

By type of public administration:

- civil;
- special;
- military.

According to the forms of legal acts:

- laws (constitutional, codes, federal, federal subjects);
- decrees (royal, presidential);
- resolutions (of parliament, chamber of parliament, government, court, prosecutor's office);
- orders (of the president, government, heads of legislative and executive authorities);
- orders (of heads of government agencies and their structural divisions; military);
- verdicts (courts);
- sanctions (investigative, prosecutorial authorities);
- decrees;
- directions, instructions, instructions, etc.;
- programmes, declarations, regulations, charters;
- interstate treaties and agreements.

According to the order of adoption – the method of registration and giving legal force:

- primary, i.e., directly acquiring legal force (laws, decrees, regulations, etc.);
- secondary, i.e., put into effect and approved by other decisions (e.g., an instruction approved by order of the minister; a regulation approved by a resolution of the head of administration, etc.).

By development methods:

- typical (similar);
- atypical (original).

By content:

- political;
- administrative;
- economic;
- organisational;
- technological;
- others.

In terms of presentation:

- written;
- oral.

According to the mechanism of action:

- direct (immediate) action;
- frame (of a referential nature).

By significance for execution:

- mandatory;
- recommendatory.

By the nature of the impact:

- stimulating;
- protectionist;
- motivational;
- restrictive;
- prohibitive;
- others.

By degree of publicity (openness):

- common use;
- official use;
- secret, top secret.

Finally, concerning public management decisions they should be distinguished by forms representing ways of external expression of specific legally or organisationally significant provisions in which they are clothed.

Forms of public management decisions are divided into legal and non-legal. Legal are those in which decisions entail some legal consequences, among which specialists emphasise:

- legal acts (decisions);

- legal contracts;
- acts confirming the implementation of legally significant decisions.

Regulatory legal acts contain decisions that establish new legal norms change or cancel old ones, i.e., formalise the law-making activities of government bodies. Legal management acts contain decisions with the help of which new legal relations are formed, previously existing ones are changed, terminated, legally significant actions are performed and recorded, i.e., law enforcement activities of government agencies are formalised. For example, a legal fact is to issue an order (instruction) on appointing a civil servant to a position since this event is associated with the emergence of some scope of powers for him. The significance of a legal fact is the decision of the relevant body (official) to impose an administrative penalty on the person guilty of committing an offense.

Regulatory and individual law-making and law enforcement acts are the general and most significant government decisions forms of government. There are others, e.g., those that formalise various types of activities of government agencies in connection with decisions on registration, licensing, issuance of documents confirming the presence or deprivation of any special rights (e.g., driving a car, hunting, entrepreneurship), reports on control and supervision, inspection, audit and other activities. In all such cases, the legal will of the government agency (official) is expressed, which is typical in most of them for decisions made in the executive and administrative activities course. Solutions developed in the contractual practice course are also becoming widespread: the forms of employment contracts, administrative contracts-agreements between different management entities, contracts for service in government bodies, state legal agreements between constituent entities of the Russian Federation, interstate and other agreements.

Non-legal forms are registration of organisational measures and material and technical operations performed in the process of public administration, which do not directly entail legal consequences. Their organisational forms are as follows:

- meeting decisions;
- results of discussions;
- inspection results;
- dissemination of best practices;
- development of forecasts and programmes;
- development of methodological recommendations;
- accounting and statistical reporting;
- other.

The material and technical forms of the solution relate to record keeping, paperwork, financial accounting and reporting, information and communication, reference and analytical and similar supporting activities.

Non-legal forms of government decisions are not associated with the publication of legal acts and the commission of legally significant actions. They do not create, change or terminate legal relations. Such decisions and actions cannot be considered as forms of legal regulation. However, they may have a different meaning (e.g., the issuance of a certificate) or be the authoritative physical actions of a government body (representative) (e.g., the suppression of an offence by the police). Non-legal forms of public management decisions can precede or follow legal ones. At the same time, unlike legal forms, they do not require full and strictly defined legal support; and are auxiliary in management activities. The division of all management decision forms on any basis is arbitrary since they are closely interrelated and overlap one another. However, they still are different in their legal meaning. The effectiveness of management activities depends to a large extent on their skillful combination.

These are the main approaches to classifying government and public management decisions. As follows from the above, their diversity is due to the need to resolve many problems in various spheres of state activity. In addition to diversity and division depending on one or another criterion, government decisions also include certain levels, which we will begin to consider in the next section of the topic.

#### **4.2 Multilevel nature of government decisions**

Many conditions, logic and motivations for achieving goals influence the government's decision-making process simultaneously. Such goals are set not only by the interests of specific industries, departments, organisations, pressure groups and even individuals involved in making relevant decisions but also by political traditions, attitudes in the public administration system, the values of public opinion, the norms of current legislation and other factors.

Consequently, one can see that in the state, some institutions and bodies are focused on the implementation of general social tasks and the corresponding coordination of big group interests but others are focused on the implementation of private programmes and projects of a substantive (territorial) nature, and still others perform auxiliary functions. Based on this, the most optimal, according to Professor A.I. Solovyov, it seems that there are three levels of government



decision-making: political, macroeconomic and administrative. Let us look at each of these levels.

1. The political level of government decision-making reflects the fundamental goals and objectives of society that are solved by it. The developing management goals process at this level is not a one-time choice of decision but a form of confrontation between all participants in the political process. Participants or factors in the political process involved in the implementation of decisions include:

- constant factors (government, parliament, parties, media, etc.);
- associated participants (individual pressure groups interacting with the authorities to resolve a specific issue);
- “occasional” players (sporadic individuals and organisations involved in interaction with power structures).

Thanks to the penetration of various participants into this process (and not only legal but shadow and even criminal structures that have their resources of pressure on the authorities), the decision-making system becomes (at this level) an incorporated environment, presupposing the presence of various centres of political pressure on the state and which includes varied mechanisms of spontaneous self-correction of centralised decisions. However, even in these conditions, management structures still have the task of obtaining maximum support for their goals, both from the general public and “problem audiences” (i.e., those groups and organisations that are directly interested in this issue and can influence management and power structures).

The political level of government decision-making shows the dependence of the formulation of goals, mobilization of resources, coordination and other parameters of this process on the existing nature and methods of organising power. Political procedures for coordinating interests and the negotiation process organically associated with it, led to the satisfaction of a wider range of interests, as opposed to the needs of “this or that group.” This situation, as we already know, follows from the essence of politics itself and its difference from other forms of regulation of social life.

2. At the macroeconomic level, the process of government decision-making does not function for the sake of preserving the power of one or another group of the ruling class but serves the population and integrates society as a socio-economic whole. Therefore, the dominant relationship style between government agencies and the public today is not the relationship between those in power and the ruled but between managers and the governed. This format of relations assumes that

governing bodies will act by stimulating the required behaviour of citizens, who, in turn, will have the opportunity to deviate, agree, or demonstrate other reactions to the state's challenges. In this case, the state is already using methods of control and stimulation, but not exclusively coercion.

At this level, politically designated assessments of the problem are transferred to the practical plane, providing them with additional indicators. At this level, the government, executive and regulatory bodies become the main active subject, and the main content of the functions of their structures is the implementation of the goals of economic and administrative activities. In turn, this provides that the decision-making body's structure is of a linear-staff nature (including the presence of certain elements of network associations) in this case. The relevant ministries, departments, divisions and departments, just like other state bodies, form unified chains of management actions that rationalise and even algorithmise this management process.

The specificity of this decision-making level is also manifested in the fact that two main types of regulators are used here: political priorities and values, just like current legislation. Moreover, it is the latter that is the general regulator of the setting and implementation of public goals. At the same time, political responsibility, as a rule, lies with senior officials and part of the middle level of the state apparatus. Civil servants here are focused on ensuring that the decisions they make bring maximum benefit to the widest possible range of citizens. Thus, executive and administrative bodies strive to build their activities on the principles of an objective situation vision. Hence, the macroeconomic nature of this level of government decision-making.

3. The administrative level of government decision-making is lower than the other two and is aimed at implementing auxiliary functions. At this level, government structures organisationally serve higher-level decisions but, at the same time, they also develop their own goals, which relate, as it were, to the micro level of government activity. As part of the first task, the following are supported here:

- intra- and inter-organisational relationships between executive and legislative structures;
- intradepartmental processes of preparation, discussion and approval of projects;
- passing documents on various stages of management and other aspects of management relations of this type.

In other words, this level of decision-making implements special hardware laws and decision-making technologies, thereby forming a certain specific logic of

official and human relations. Often, such forms of activity can have a very significant scale, influencing the implementation of state goals and even state policy as a whole (e.g., when the commander of a military unit, contrary to the instructions of even the political leadership, can provoke the continuation of a military conflict with a neighbouring state). However, in general, these organisational actions are auxiliary to the development and accompanying nature of the implementation of government decisions.

Essentially, the same nature of management actions is preserved when ensuring communications with the civilian population and individual citizens as individuals. All micro-decisions made here, strictly speaking, are also forms of implementation of broader goals set by higher authorities. All actions of administrative structures are specific and always measurable (in time, transferred resources and other indicators) in nature. Since these actions are non-public, the corresponding technologies (debates, opposition, etc.) of decision-making are thereby excluded from their range of actions. In this regard, it is necessary to emphasise a certain independence of the administrative elite from the public, its structuring around goals, mainly determined by higher authorities. We will discuss administrative decisions in more detail in the last section of the topic.

Political decisions take precedence over all others. It is fundamentally significant to understand this. From the first topic of this course, we know that political decisions are those decisions that are made on the most significant socially significant problems by the political leadership. Political leadership includes the highest bodies of state power or leaders directly exercising the powers of state bodies (president, chairman of the government, the parliament chamber chairs, legislative and executive regional authority heads, ministers and some others). However, such a general definition should, in our opinion, be specified and turned into a more detailed scientific analysis of this type of government decision.

Where do you need to start? First, how do political decisions differ from other government decision types? It is necessary to clarify the substantive features of political decisions and provide examples of such decisions from political practice during the analysis. To begin answering the questions posed, it is necessary to distinguish between a broad and narrow approach to the interpretation of political decisions:

According to the first, “narrow” approach, the class of political decisions includes only those decisions that are made by officials or collegial government bodies simultaneously involved in the preparation of economic, administrative and other types of decisions.

The second approach assumes a broader view of identifying the range of political decisions. Within this approach, political decisions are understood not only within state institutions but also by decisions of political parties and pressure groups that have significant resources and have a big influence on the political process.

In many Western countries (Great Britain, Sweden, Germany, etc.), public and political organisations, according to the neo-corporatism model, must participate together with authorities in preparing significant government decisions. In our country during the USSR period, for a long time, there was a practice of making joint decisions of state, party and public bodies, such as the Resolutions of the Presidium of the Supreme Council, the Council of Ministers, the Central Committee of the CPSU, the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions and the Central Committee of the Komsomol.

Thus, a significant criterion in determining the boundaries of political decisions is the agent characteristics making them. In other words, as noted by A.A. Degtyarev, we need to answer the question: who makes the decision, or by whom the decision is made? It is not so easy to simply answer this, because in politics, some people prepare decisions, others agree on them, others approve and sign them, implement them, and others monitor their proper execution. Generally supporting a “broad” approach to identifying a class of political decisions, A.A. Degtyarev proposes to dwell in more detail on the “narrow” circle, and at the same time concentrate attention on the decisions of the legislative and executive authorities. We will follow the author in this scientific field. However, it should be remembered that the judiciary and the prosecutor’s office also make political decisions. This happens when resolving conflicts in the electoral process or as a result of a protest or reversal of a decision of some government body.

In general, scientific analysis of political decisions requires answering the following questions:

- Who makes the decisions? (Agent/subject)
- What is the solution aimed at? (Goal/object)
- What is regulated by the decision? (Or what is the solution for?)
- Who is the solution addressed to? (Or who is the solution for?)
- What type of solution? (Or what is the nature of the decision?)
- What is the significance of the decision? (Or how much significance does the decision have?)

Let us turn, first, to the question of agents. In terms of parliamentary and administrative law, at first glance, everything is more or less clear here. There are also known subjects of legislative initiative at the federal and regional levels, and

officials who sign government acts, and administrators or their colleagues who approve resolutions and orders of executive bodies. However, if we look at this issue in more detail and in-depth, at least two problems are revealed:

- hierarchy and contingency of statuses of decision agents;
- heterogeneity and relativity of the functions they perform.

The first problem leads to the fact that government decisions are laid out not only along the “branches” of state power but also along the “sectoral horizontal” (departmental and sectoral decisions) or the “territorial vertical” (central, regional and municipal decisions). The second problem is the variety of functions performed by government agencies as agents who prepare, approve, implement or control certain decisions.

No decision, even in a despotic or dictatorial state, can ever be made “absolutely alone,” simply because someone must simply write the tyrant’s decree or promulgate the dictator’s order and then ensure its proper implementation. This is what distinguishes the “sole” decisions of certain figures in public policy from the purely “personal” decisions of people regarding their private lives. In addition, the process of making political decisions is not at all reduced to a fleeting moment, for which an electronic vote in parliament or the signing of a government resolution by the prime minister can occur. Consequently, as noted by A.A. Degtyarev, a more specific formulation of the question of “who makes the decisions” is required. The heterogeneity of functions and the multiplicity of participants in political decision-making lead to the fact that questions must be posed more specifically: “Who prepares the decision?”, or “Who implements the decision?”, or “Who approves the decision?” and so on.

In addition, a fairly typical situation is when the same official performs several functions in parallel in making government decisions process. Let us assume that the vice-governor of the region, who is responsible for the economic policy block, must simultaneously monitor the execution of the regional budget, prepare decisions of the regional administration, initiate and discuss draft regional laws, and also monitor the compliance of the activities of the institutions subordinate to him with the norms and requirements of federal laws and administrative acts. It implies the role-related relativity of the position of participants in state decision-making, creating unique functional and communicative combinatorics of agents within a hierarchically organised state mechanism where there is subordination and double subordination.

Further, the question of the object of regulation is very significant for determining the essential features of political decisions. In the first section of the topic, we

distinguished government decisions by areas of managerial influence (economy, social sphere, defence, foreign and domestic affairs, etc.). Researchers also call these areas “subjects of jurisdiction” and “areas of competence” of the state. In that way, defence, security, justice, internal and foreign affairs are classified as the so-called “management of the administrative-political sphere”. Based on this, it turns out that in a “narrow” sense, political decisions seem to be performed within the framework of the so-called “political departments” (e.g., decisions of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on the implementation of some foreign policy strategy in Ukraine). In this case, what to do with decisions in economic, educational, environmental, scientific, technical and other policies? They can also be classified as political decisions in the “broad” sense of the word since the relevant spheres of social life are subject to managerial influence from government bodies to regulate and optimise social processes, distribution and redistribution of public resources.

Of course, in political decisions, it is always necessary to consider the “formula of interests” of certain social groups that make up the country’s population, i.e., to determine the “social addressees” of the decision, who act as a kind of consumers of its results. There are different types of social recipients:

- internal and external;
- general social, group and individual;
- regional and local.

In the first case, a decision may be made to provide economic assistance to the area affected by the natural disaster within the country and humanitarian and military assistance to foreign citizens, as is happening in Ukraine. A political decision in another context may affect the interests of almost all residents of the country (as is the case with the national budget) or may concern only one person (personal personnel transfers) or be addressed to individual social communities and groups (students, pensioners, military, disabled people, mothers of many children, doctors, teachers, peoples of the North, etc.). Finally, in the third variant of division, government body decisions can be addressed to some territorial communities: regions (transfers and subsidies), federal districts (development programmes), and municipalities (tax benefits in closed administrative-territorial entities).

It is reasonable to determine the specifics of a political decision, it is necessary to clarify the social significance of its content and the nature of the consequences. It is one thing to decide to change the country’s prime minister, and quite another to decide on the car he drives. In Russia in the mid-1990s, the question of what kind of cars top administrators should drive also became, in a sense, a subject of

political debate. Perhaps, it is this last indicator of the social significance of a particular decision notably needed to clarify the difference issue between political decisions and other decision types.

It is worth noting that in American political science, to limit the most significant decisions, the dichotomies of “policy decisions, routine decisions” or “non-programmed decisions and programmed decisions” are introduced, i.e., substantive and managerial acts that actually regulate public relations, and acts of an auxiliary, organisational, technical or routine procedural nature (e.g., technical support for maintaining minutes or transcripts of a meeting of a collegial body).

At the same time, this general attribute of the social significance of a particular decision of a government body requires significant clarification. To reveal this fairly broad indicator, A.A. Degtyarev introduces several more specific criteria for the social significance of political decisions:

- political decisions must formulate common objectives that address the basic values and fundamental interests of the main social groups and political actors (interest groups, elite groups, bureaucratic corporations, etc.);
- such decisions should influence the preservation and (or) change of normative and institutional parameters of the socio-political order (e.g., changing the design of certain state institutions);
- political decisions are concerned with the regulation, allocation and redistribution of society’s core resources.

Together, these features provide some opportunity to distinguish decisions of a political and managerial nature from purely organisational and technical acts.

To conclude the question of political decisions, we should define the concept of “political-managerial decision”, since it more specifically reflects the meaning of the type of government decisions we are studying. Thus, a political-administrative decision is public-state decision type characterised by:

- formulating common objectives that express the basic values and fundamental interests of the main social groups and political actors;
- reproduction (change) of normative and institutional parameters of the socio-political order;
- regulation and distribution of core public resources.

Of course, the personnel decisions of the city mayor affect, first of all, the interests of elite groups of the local community, but new tariffs for housing and communal services affect the interests and resources of the city population as a whole since updated city standards are being introduced. It follows that the last two

characteristics indicated above are quite unstable, while the first requires more strict consideration, although in real acts of political and organisational decision state policy elements are often intertwined.

These are the essential characteristics and differences between political decisions and other types of government decisions. Let us now move on to a more detailed consideration of administrative decisions.

Administrative decisions are derived from political ones and are aimed at ensuring the implementation of decisions of a political nature. Hence, the auxiliary nature of administrative decisions. Moreover, without them, there is and cannot be effective management. Such management decisions are of a normative-legal, official nature, contain rules of law, are adopted according to special procedures by competent state bodies, and represent government regulations of the state that are subject to mandatory execution by all entities to which they are concerned. They are either “internal” (concerning the problems of organising the mechanism of state and municipal governance), or they are directed “externally” – to the control object, ensuring the interaction of the control subject with the external environment. Some are aimed at executing the decisions of higher-level management entities – these are executive decisions. Others are proactive, i.e., taking on their initiative based on identified problems and independent task setting to overcome them.

Administrative and managerial decisions are consolidated in the form of federal and regional laws, decrees of the President of the Russian Federation, government decrees, decisions of governors and governments of constituent entities of the Russian Federation, orders of ministers and heads of other executive authorities. Administrative management decisions, as a rule, are operational-tactical. However, like political ones, they can sometimes be strategic (e.g., a decision to perform administrative reform). Likewise, many political decisions are operational-tactical. Not everything involves long-term programmes; many are implemented in the medium and short term.

Within the administrative level of government decision-making, the public administration system solves two problems.

On the one hand, the state, as it were, maintains its “organisational backbone”, which allows it to provide all the decision-making functions necessary for it as a specific institution.

On the other hand, the administrative level allows the state to establish business communications with its citizens as consumers (clients), who are strongly or



weakly interested in receiving certain goods and services from specific government organisations and institutions.

Moreover, at the administrative level of government decision-making, some fundamental problems are solved, in particular, those related to the relationship between the administration's prerogatives and society. Thus, focusing on a purely local context, government agencies can completely shift the solution of some tasks to the shoulders of various public organisations. For example, this may concern some issues of nature conservation in hard-to-reach regions; services for people with serious illnesses; patronage of some category of persons on parole or deviant behaviour, etc., on the contrary, government bodies may, for one reason or another, "take away" the solution to some problems from the public.

The general regulators of the implementation of administrative decisions are office instructions, business technologies, a system of professional knowledge and internal (ethical) codes. At the same time, there are also opportunities for the formation of mechanisms of self-organisation and self-government that expand the influence of administrative structures in ensuring government decisions. At the same time, these types of methods and technologies of action allow them to consider the habits and demands of citizens and the traditions of society better, thereby more optimally regulating state intervention in relevant social processes.

Thus, by analysing different types and levels of government decisions, one can see how each of the selected levels of the decision-making process maintains its balance of relations between the state and society and other counterparties. However, the main thing is that at each of these levels, there are specific criteria for diagnosing the problem, principles for determining the effectiveness of decisions made, its priorities and technologies for developing alternatives, signs of competence and the power of influence of management bodies. Representatives of these management levels also have different relationships. For example, politicians can control a very wide range of relations in the state. It is logical that, in this case, they develop a "preferential partnership" concerning the bureaucracy. At the same time, despite their positions in the state, as a rule, they temporarily occupy such positions. While the bureaucracy, represented by professional managers, has a more stable position in the administrative apparatus and can survive more than one cabinet of ministers. And this already makes politicians dependent on the apparatus.

Along with the certainty of decision-making levels, the state also has some border zones between them, areas of a kind of level "blurring". This, in particular, manifests itself when officials perform political functions (e.g., with a sharp increase in the public significance of the activities of the Ministry of Emergency

Situations or the sports department during significant events such as the Olympic Games).

Consequently, if we talk about some single form of resolving inter-level contradictions, then, for this, we can only use a mechanism for maintaining flexible cooperation between elected politicians and civil servants. This, in turn, could be facilitated by:

- compliance of the nature of power with the type of economic growth and organisational principles of the structure of the state;
- institutionalisation of more intensive interaction (in diagnosis, selection of alternatives) between politicians and senior officials (especially core decision-making figures);
- a more organic division of powers between senior (middle) level officials and elected politicians;
- strengthening the value integration of the management system; reducing structural fragmentation of power;
- limiting the practice of political appointments in the civil service;
- increasing the election period for the most significant political structures;
- introduction of a qualitative assessment of the qualifications of officials, etc.

It appears that the proposed measures can only reduce the level of inconsistency (conflict) in relations between levels of decision-making. However, despite any expansion of interrelations between the levels of government, its political and administrative components, and especially its structures, will never merge and form an organically unified decision-making mechanism. In particular, the bureaucratic apparatus will never, even in conditions of collapse of the regime and the state as a whole, take on the functions of the political segment of management. Consequently, the process of government decision-making will continue – as long as this social institution exists – “doomed” to be a field of collision between different formats and approaches to decision-making.

### **4.3 Complex nature of government decisions**

State decisions in the sphere of managing the processes of existence, functioning and development of society, its spheres and institutions cannot but consider at the present stage the need to formally or informally, by established tradition or for other reasons, degrees of freedom, acquired rights and voluntarily accepted responsibilities of citizens. The procedural side of social development, mnemonically present in everyday experience, persistently and urgently reminds

a reasonable person of the currently achieved degree of maturity of the system of public relations, social relations and communicative organisational and activity games for a common or individual gain (aka success, aka recognition, aka victory).

The achievement pathos of human nature (at least the variety with which we currently identify ourselves) allows us to imagine the future path and break it down into steps-phases that more or less correctly lead to the goal while observing a conventionally established set of rules. Ultimately has to be entrusted with the right to develop and apply criteria to affirmatively agree with the correct observance of the rules or inevitably punish for violating these rules recognised as unjustified. The state must be equipped with solutions for all real, conceivable and imaginary situations in life. The multidimensionality of cognitive situations generated by the interaction of a limited but still large set of subjects with an unlimited, potentially, managerial influence objects set, and even more so, the circumstances of interaction, connectivity and dependence between the carrier of activity and one or another of its recipients, the scale and intensity of manifestation of these circumstances as surmountable or irresistible force gives rise to the complex nature of decisions that are forced or voluntarily taken by state power in the person of the bearers of its prerogatives, influencing situationally related circumstances, objects and subjects, drawn towards each other by common interests to the same extent as they are divided, divides and separates particular interest. It is the peculiarity of social processes, it is the basis of their management component; from this complex nature of social reality comes the complex nature of decisions, without which in this reality, (fortunately or unfortunately) most often it will not be possible to do without.

The political environment, administrative resources, the degree of maturity of civil society, the characteristics of the existing management style, the political regime and forms of government demanded by the majority of society – all this make the process of developing and making state management decisions integrated, multidimensional, and complex. The complexity of management objects with which a civil servant has to deal, their belonging to the social sphere of public relations, the nuances of these relations and other socio-psychological phenomena imposed on the activities of institutions of the state and municipal government system, leads to an understanding of the objective circumstance that in the system of human There are no simple solutions and there cannot be. On the other hand, government mechanisms become more effective when, one way or another, involuntarily or on their fad they try to minimise these complexities, avoid excessive detail and thereby obviously (and, of course, not always correctly) simplify the content of real processes, thus, to try to squeeze them into the rigid

framework of typical possible, expected and, for these reasons, with the great degree of probability (at least from the viewpoint of an ordinary official in a typical government body) management decisions that work “as they should”.

The systemic nature of the organisation of state activities in managing the affairs of society stems from the interpretation of society as a system of connections and relationships that arises in the process of implementing the basic forms of communication between people and disappears where and when forms of communication that have become familiar for some reason of a natural, sociocultural and mental nature experience deformations are disrupted or become intolerable. In this regard, it would be correct to urge every time the developer, appraiser and potential user of management decisions in the field of government regulation and control to consider all the complexities and small details, to keep in mind all, without exception, possible and impossible (as we think here and now) future (and not only the general and most obvious) consequences of the implementation of decisions made by a limited number of people for use concerning an unlimited number of interested parties. As a rule, it is impossible, and that is why the management decision-making process “dies” into a result that, in the end, is always a little different from what was expected, and vice versa, the result does not “turn off” the process, they continue, it is difficult to stop, and in this process, the form, content, and final meaning of decisions taken in favour of the common good by government bodies, institutions and officials, to put it mildly, are poorly predictable, and if they can be calculated at all, then usually with a minimal degree of accuracy.

#### **4.4 Direction of government decisions**

Any and every government decision that carries a very specific, transparent and more or less understandable managerial meaning since it launches and maintains, up to some time, the process of moving towards the designated goal, which is achieved by what was established in the preparation process, discussed and accepted by all agreeing parties as the correct (correct) relationship between the guiding idea, available funds and results achievable with optimal expenditure of resources. Of course, the process of managing public affairs also has its procedural side, which is by no means reduced solely to the developing, adopting and implementing state decision processes, which must be applied imperatively or can be interpreted and understood from the viewpoint of the executor or executors. It is clear that, as mentioned earlier, there is a significant subjective factor here: the speed of decision-making, the content and depth of the state management decision descriptive and prescriptive components cannot always be

made consistent with the standards of optimality (and these standards themselves are sometimes quite speculative). Nevertheless, striving for an ideal state in this area is not just the wish of some abstract “boss”, but an internal psychological attitude and an active motivation arising from the nature of state power as demandingly as from the objectively formed by the actions of individuals, their groups and massifs, social forces, institutions and actors – in a word, everything that is commonly called the “current state of society”.

Russian history and the experience of Russian statehood (at least over the last three hundred years) have accustomed people to perceive government decisions as an external factor in people’s lives, to which, if it is worth paying attention, it is only when necessary. Only, perhaps, in the present century, the scientific concept of management decisions as an organic and integral part of the life of socially organised people began to gain the upper hand not only in the circles of active, conscious and responsible citizens of the country but also among the general public. Both “physicists” (individuals) and “jurists” (legal entities) involuntarily, and often of their own free will, have to comply with the decisions of government officials, bodies and institutions, building their economic, political and social life according to the patterns of a legal state, in which democracy manifests itself in a strict style of compliance with those adopted to strengthen the foundations of the common good by those who have the authority to do so, and the correlation of the actions of any actor of social change (and the governing subject) with a holistic view of the body of decisions of the state to manage the affairs of society – and those that have already been adopted and are in effect, and those that are expected to be adopted, and those that, for one reason or another, will have to be abandoned in the foreseeable future.

The target component arises as a product of a conscious need for social change (in other words, changes in social reality created by people but which have become independent of them). These changes are shifts in the real state of affairs, which may have signs of a conservative, evolutionary or revolutionary (innovative) nature. The expected result of these changes, as we see it, is not only what exactly people can or cannot do, what they will try to influence, and what challenges they will be able to cope with, but also what will happen (can happen or be done) with these same people. In other words, one must be able to predict in a managerial manner what internal processes and changes in the external environment will lead to. In addition, one must decide whether the decision in its meaning, and in particular the action that this movement generates and brings to the final phase, is worth the effort expended on it and whether this collective process of creating a new reality through a new decision can be justified from the viewpoint of the

general advancement of society along the path of progressive development of human civilization – at least in the aspect of a small but noticeable and tangible decrease in social entropy and an increase in the degree of orderliness of the human existence of human beings in human society.

However, of course, it becomes understandable and lends itself to scientific reflection if we understand management and management decisions of national significance in the broad word sense. Of course, the role and significance in the implementation of imperious public administration of those whose responsibility (significant, but not always recognised) is the so-called organisational and activity reflection, which presupposes, among other things, a critical attitude to any action taken within the framework of the expanded cyclical reproduction of management decisions that are capable of producing an expected, considered good and relatively stable result in the changing conditions of human existence.

#### **4.5 Purpose of state decisions**

Management decisions are made not so much to understand the world better but to change it in an expedient and targeted manner. However, in what direction (for the better or worse) of this world change will be accomplished, whether it will be so successful as to be prolonged as a general rule or at least remain in the annals of history as an isolated, albeit quite significant and worthy of mentioning, precedent is unlikely. Is it possible to predict (foresee, guess, etc.) accurately and unambiguously.

The state can be considered an instrumental structure, an instrumental “device” intended for the development, adoption and implementation of smart and some believe – exceptionally wise decisions. However, we should not forget the state is a product of specific historical circumstances in which it appears in history as a previously unknown phenomenon and begins to act for the common good in such a way that no one has the desire to express doubts about this role, just like the fact that no one else is better than the state in the person of its highest leaders, bodies and institutions, just like a cohort of figures who correctly, legally and professionally perform their duties, no one else is capable of.

Do not forget the classical alphabet, from which it follows that “everything flows...” and, therefore, “everything passes...”. In some way, that very moment between the past and the future is filled with decisive actions that can solve the problem that has arisen (contradiction, conflict, confrontation), removing the obstacle to further movement in the right direction, at the right pace and with the right results.

The need for management-type decisions arises as an expectation of an answer to questions, as they say, posed by life itself, i.e., produced by those aspects of it that form the potentially revealed content of a possible future through making decisions about cutting off other possible trajectories of this forward movement. The fact that this “forward” may turn out to be a return, as it were, to the old, or even simply slowing down the overdue evolutionary moves in finding ways out of all kinds of dead ends, must also be kept in mind – if only because many times in our joint history It happened that the adopted and implemented management decisions generated not at all expected, but quite unexpected (unexpected) results.

The history of humanity is not only the history of correct decisions (with the adoption of which life continues happily, and occurring in it, the changes can be assessed as positive), but also the history of catastrophes of various scales, ultimately resulting from incorrect ones, at the wrong time and/or out of place arbitrary decisions made by someone endowed with the power, or necessary, what is called “desperately”, those in which there is a clear interest of everyone or at least many, but, alas, not made due to the prevailing circumstances of decisions, followed by discord, clashes and successful battles for the mutual destruction of opponents. Learning to foresee, identify and overcome these threatening catastrophes without straining ourselves has been the eternal desire of people since the state, in the form of an apparatus for coercing goodness, law and beauty, began its existence among socially organised human beings. Whether the existence of humanity will last long enough to once and for all learn the science and art of making the only right decisions is an open question. It will be hoped, however, that the history of the future will provide answers to this question in an optimistic manner and an affirmative mode.

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## Part 5.

### The preparatory stage of government decision-making

- 5.1 Highlighting the stages of making and executing government decisions
  - 5.2 Goals and objectives of the preparatory stage
  - 5.3 Methods and tools for preparing government decisions
  - 5.4 Assessment and diagnosis of the problem
  - 5.5 Information support of the preparatory stage
- List of information sources

#### **5.1 Highlighting the stages of making and executing government decisions**

It's time to move on to the fundamental topic of our discipline, dedicated to the preparation stage for making and implementing management decisions. We will consider five subtopics that, in detail, reveal the issue that interests us. The first we will start with is the answer to the following question: "How are the stages of the process to which training hours are devoted within our discipline identified?"

Many foreign and domestic management school researchers have studied this human knowledge area. Let us begin our consideration of phasing with the conclusions of K. Patton and D. Savitsky, researchers from the USA. They decided to distinguish six stages.

First, the problem must be discovered, defined, and detailed. Secondly, criteria are established that allow the evaluation of alternatives. Thirdly, the person or persons involved in management must formulate other options for solving the problem. Fourth, you can then begin to evaluate alternatives. Fifth, you should decide on an alternative, choosing the best one. The final stage is the evaluation of the consequences of the decision made.

One can ask a completely logical question about the existence of a common criterion that allows the process under consideration to be staged most effectively. Yes, there is such a criterion. It, quite predictably, consists of minimising the sequence of actions for making decisions. However, some management researchers believe that in this matter, multivariate sets of shares and communications of the subjects involved in the process are allowed. Let us turn to the experience of three groups of scientists. The first group includes the representative of the American school R. Denhardt. He identifies them as stages processes, in one way or another, connected with political programmes: their development, application and subsequent implementation evaluation. The next

group is represented by two prominent figures D. Lalumbo and S. Moody. These scientists distinguish into separate stages the definition of a problem, the search for information, the determination of a goal, and the stage associated with the assessment of the consequences often found in many areas of human knowledge. And the last group that I would like to draw attention to is L. Plunket and G. Hell. Their findings led to the identification of six stages. In their opinion, in making management decisions, everything begins with identifying and posing a problem. Next, you need to start looking for a solution to the problem. Then make and implement decisions and evaluate the result obtained.

Let us touch on the domestic school of management. A.T. Zub, a professor at the Department of Theory of Control Technologies at Moscow State University, offers a rather interesting identification of stages. There are exactly four of them. According to him, the decision-making process begins with defining the problem and then collecting facts. It ends with the solution identification, its implementation and verification.

The above approaches to identifying stages are only part of a variety of proposals to address the issue of phasing the process of making and executing management decisions. Further narrative within our discipline will be based on four stages. Firstly, preparatory. Secondly, the stage is associated with the development and adoption of decisions. Thirdly, the process of execution of decisions. And finally, fourthly, control over the implementation of decisions.

Which of these stages can be considered the most significant? Without a doubt, the preparation stage for making decisions. The rationality of decisions made and the effectiveness of their implementation largely depend on the organisation of this process. Next, we will study the preparatory stage more thoroughly.

## **5.2 Goals and objectives of the preparatory stage**

The preparatory stage of making and executing management decisions has its goals and objectives.

The preparatory stage purpose is to identify the problem situation that needs to be solved.

Many dictionaries define the concept of a problem situation, but in general, it can be defined as a contradiction that arises in the process of human activity. In addition, in the process of resolving a problem situation, a person acquires new skills and abilities.

Defining the problem is incredibly significant since the correctness of its interpretation determines the format of the actions taken and the resources that need to be spent, just like other actions of government bodies and officials.

Before initiating a solution, it is necessary to determine the specific range of issues to be resolved. It is because all the tasks facing the state are complex.

The tasks of the preparatory stage of the management decision-making process can be considered:

- assessing the scope of the problem;
- selection of problems facing the state by degree of significance;
- comparison and hierarchization of emerging problems (to determine the urgency and priority of solving a particular problem);
- problem identification (determining the nature and content of the main problem);
- determining the main problem statement.

All these tasks in the management process are divided into more specific actions of different groups of managers. In cases where the solution to one problem falls within the powers of varied departments, they need to divide these powers. At the same time, it is significant to find a compromise between the positions of different departments if they have different viewpoints.

### **5.3 Methods and tools for preparing government decisions**

Having understood what stages the process of making and executing management decisions consists of, and what goals and objectives are set in its process, let us move on to a significant component, namely the methods and tools for preparing management decisions at the preparatory stage.

To understand how complex the decision-making process is, we can compare it with the process of travel: initially, we decide where we need to arrive, our final destination, then we choose how, in what way we will get to our destination, we choose a route, with whoever moves along this route, having arrived at our destination, we need to check, using specific methods, whether this is really the place where we wanted to be.

From the above comparison, we can conclude that the process of making management decisions is very complex, as it depends on many factors, namely:

- availability of a resource such as time;

- volume of information, its completeness and timeliness;
- personal qualities of the decision maker etc.

To solve an issue or problem, the preparatory stage, in which the cause(s) of this problem is determined, performs analytical studies. After all, having identified what a particular problem is, we are more likely to be able to solve it in the future.

Analytical research is an in-deep comprehensive study of an object, processes, etc. not only for descriptive purposes but also to identify the reasons that gave rise to these phenomena.

Such research includes some set of methods for obtaining information:

- document analysis;
- observation;
- mass survey;
- method of expert assessments;
- social experiment.

Let us look at each of these methods in more detail.

Document analysis is used when working with secondary data. This method is the basis for the rest since without it, it is impossible to conduct applied research.

Observation is a method of collecting primary information about the object being studied. It can be aimed at achieving various goals and be a source for constructing hypotheses.

Disadvantages of this method: the behaviour of only a small group of people is studied under certain conditions, which raises the question of the representativeness of the data obtained and the inaccuracy of the result due to the human factor.

A mass survey consists of collecting primary information by directly asking respondents questions regarding their knowledge and attitudes level towards the problem being studied. It is worth noting that the survey is a quantitative method and requires less material expenditure than others.

Types of mass surveys according to the degree of coverage of the population being studied:

- continuous (the entire population being studied is surveyed);
- selective (the respondents make up only some part of the number of members of the population being studied).

Advantages of this method:

- ease of implementation;
- the ability to conduct in-depth analysis thanks to the ability to ask clarifying questions;
- high level of standardisation.

Types of mass survey are interviewing, polling on social networks, questionnaires, etc.

The expert assessments method is used to make a forecast of future events, subject to the absence of statistical data or their insufficiency. This method is used both for quantitative measurement of events in the present and for forecasting purposes.

It is worth noting that, given the limited possibilities for using mathematical methods in management and the lack of statistical and other types of information, the expert assessments method is the only available means of solving many problems.

Disadvantages of the method:

- the question of the reliability of the assessment obtained;
- the difficulty of conducting a survey of experts and the data obtained;

A social experiment is the collection of primary information about quantitative and qualitative changes in the performance indicators and social object behaviour as a result of the influence of some controllable factors on it.

This method is aimed at experimenting in natural social relations.

#### **5.4 Assessment and diagnosis of the problem**

The preparatory stage of making management decisions involves actions forming a goal aimed at developing decisions.

The preparatory stage begins with identifying problems related to the powers of the state and includes setting the agenda, and actions to solve and formulate a specific problem.

According to N.S. Smolenkova and A.V. Kuptsova, setting the agenda is the main point of the preparatory stage, i.e., identifying a list of priority issues necessary to resolve problems.

At this stage, the following phases can be distinguished:

1. Identification of problems considering various alternatives for solving them and preliminary assessment of the consequences of possible solutions;

2. Classification of problems to discover existing precedents for resolving similar conflicts and processes;
3. Determining the real significance of the problem for the state and society, and therefore, prioritising their future solution (such selection can be based on either strategic, tactical, or opportunistic criteria that are usually used by the authorities);
4. Determination of specific parameters of the problem that determine the specific place and role in the development of the industry, territory, state and society;
5. Identification of a priority problem from its accompanying indirect characteristics, secondary and tertiary indicators.

In general terms, the problem can be defined as a subjectively negative attitude of the subject himself to reality. There are two factors to consider:

1. Objectiveness of the problem: this means that the problem really exists and it can be measured or described in terms of objective criteria.
2. Subjectivity of the problem: this means that each person can perceive the problem differently depending on his beliefs, values and experiences.

Therefore, when analysing a problem, it is necessary to consider both objective and subjective factors to develop an effective strategy for solving it. Often, when solving problems, they concentrate on the possibility of changing the real situation, and do not even remember about the second possibility. However, it is also significant to consider subjective factors, since they can affect people's motivation to solve a problem, their attitude towards it and the choice of the optimal solution. To develop an effective strategy for solving a problem, it is necessary to consider not only objective data, but also the opinions and beliefs of the people who are affected by the problem.

The desired state is always a subjective idea tied to a specific person. Therefore, the deviation between the true and desired state of affairs cannot always be reliably and objectively determined. In addition, the deviation must be significant enough that there is great interest in eliminating it.

Identifying problems in government structures is not always paid due attention because they do not want to notice them or hope that everything will work out on its own. Therefore, it is significant to conduct regular analyses and assessments of the situation in various areas of life to identify problems and look for ways to solve them. It can work at the government agencies and public levels, where everyone can contribute to improving the situation. It is significant to remember that problems do not solve themselves, and only active participation and joint efforts can lead to positive changes.

Primary attention is paid to the situational approach since it allows you to analyse specific situations and find optimal solutions based on knowledge, experience, and expertise. It also helps to consider the specifics of each situation and consider the many factors that may influence its development.

To analyse the situation, it is necessary to collect and analyse information about the problem, determine its causes and consequences, and develop a solution strategy. This process may include working with experts, communicating with stakeholders, and other methods to help gain a complete picture of the situation.

The situational approach allows you to make decisions based on analysis, the dynamics of its changes, and understanding of the situation, and not based on the principle of “trial and error” – it allows you to reduce time and resources that can be spent on wrong decisions. In addition, the situational approach promotes the development of critical thinking, analytical and communication skills, which are significant for personal and professional development. Generally, using a situational approach allows you to solve problems and achieve your goals more effectively.

The entire process of the situational approach consists of:

- 1) analysing the situation and identify the problem;
- 2) definition of goals and objectives for its solution;
- 3) identification of factors influencing the problem;
- 4) estimates of the significance of each of these factors;
- 5) developing a strategy to solve the problem;
- 6) implementation of the action plan and monitoring their implementation;
- 7) evaluating results and adjusting the strategy if necessary.

It is significant to understand that the situational approach is not a universal solution for all problems but it can be a very effective tool for analysing and solving complex situations, especially in business and managing organisations.

To identify the factors determining the development of the situation, specially developed methods can be used. Such as factor and correlation analysis, multidimensional scaling and others. When analysing the situation, it is significant to highlight the core problems that need to be addressed first when purposefully managing the process, just like the nature of their influence. It is the task of diagnosing the situation.

After identifying the causes of the problem, you can proceed to specific measures to eliminate or correct the identified causes:

- lack of awareness and misunderstanding of the situation among the participants in the process;
- discrepancy between expectations and reality;
- lack of coordination between participants in the process;
- insufficient resources to solve the problem;
- bad decisions;
- low motivation of process participants.

INI analysis allows you to identify these and other factors, just like determining which of them are most significant for solving the problem. It helps to develop an effective strategy to solve it and determine what actions need to be taken to achieve this goal.

INI analysis is a problem research method that allows you to identify relationships between process participants and determine their role in the occurrence and resolution of the problem. The INI analysis evaluates the stakeholder network, their goals, interests, resources and interactions with each other. It helps to understand what factors influence the problem and what actions can lead to its solution.

Problem analysis takes place in several stages:

1. *Gathering information about the problem.* It involves determining its characteristics, causes and consequences and identifying the factors influencing it.
2. *Information analysis.* At this stage, the significance of each factor and their relationship with each other is assessed.
3. *Strategy development.* Based on information analysis, goals and objectives for solving the problem are determined, and the most effective ways to achieve these goals are selected.
4. *Implementation of the action plan.* At this stage, the chosen strategy is implemented, just like monitoring the implementation of the action plan.
5. *Evaluating results.* After implementing the action plan, the results are evaluated and the strategy is adjusted if necessary.

Returning to management decision-making, it is necessary to indicate that they also go through certain stages:

- defining the problem or problem that needs to be solved.
- collecting and analysing information about a problem, including data about its causes, consequences and possible solutions.
- determining the goals and objectives that need to be achieved when solving the problem.



- developing alternative solutions to the problem, considering all factors and limitations.
- evaluating each alternative in terms of its effectiveness and compliance with goals and objectives.
- selecting the best alternative and developing a detailed plan for its implementation.
- implementing the chosen alternative and monitoring its implementation.
- evaluating the results of problem solving and adjusting plans if necessary.

It is significant to understand that each stage of the management decision-making process requires careful analysis and deliberation, just like considering many factors, including economic, social, political and others.

### **5.5 Information support of the preparatory stage**

A sufficient information supply allows us to choose a management decision that will be optimal for a particular situation. Also, a sufficient information supply allows you to monitor the implementation of the decision made. Information in management includes the necessary information and data about the state of control and managed systems, just like the state of the external environment. Based on reports and during inspections, information is collected and analysed regarding the current situation in which a decision will be made. Despite the advisability of presenting as complete a picture as possible, if an innovative solution is planned, during its development, some facts may not be considered at all: a deliberate truncation of the information field occurs.

The primary sources of managerially significant information are contracts, statements, orders, instructions, orders, decisions, and interviews. Management information is contained in primary and secondary sources (the same primary information but which has been interpreted or processed). The development of various ways to obtain information contributes to the search for non-standard approaches to developing a solution, as it becomes possible to look at the situation from different viewpoints. In this regard, there are many sources of information, including data from independent and internal experts, scientific literature, foreign and domestic media, own informants, travelling around the country and the world, opinions of foreign politicians, etc.

One of the most significant problems of information support in the preparatory stage is misinformation. The correct approach to stopping the use of misinformation in the making management decision process allows government agencies to avoid negative consequences, primarily legal ones. A particular risk is

posed by the search and use of information obtained, including through intelligence and illegal means, i.e., from confidential sources. Sometimes such information may have priority, but it is difficult to integrate into government decisions due to the perceived legal implications.

As a rule, the reliability of information used in the management decision-making process is determined by the intuition of the manager who receives this information. In this situation, a specific role is given to the manager's trust and respect for the source of information. There is a risk of the manager losing control over the content of information necessary to understand the situation and the decision-making process, which often happens in practice. Especially in states with an authoritarian or totalitarian political regime, the following exists: senior leaders can control all the primary sources of political information. By their actions, managers can disrupt the functioning of the entire decision-making system. And in conditions of such "permissiveness", political recommendations cannot only form the basis of economic decisions but also become these very decisions. It is explained by the specific conditions within the state, where its top officials' recommendations are perceived as not subject to criticism and verification. In conditions, where managers can block the information necessary for the functioning of the decision-making system, the response to such actions can be the massive spread of fakes, rumours and speculation, which certainly affects the formation of the information climate for making management decisions.

For better results in the management decision-making process, it is necessary to eliminate the shortcomings of the organisational information system, for which modern computer technologies, just like more powerful technical means, should be used. Government officials involved in the decision-making process must be well aware of the issues.

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## Part 6.

### The stage of development and adoption of government decisions

- 6.1 The significance of planning in the development of a government decision
  - 6.2 The programmatic basis of government management decisions in the Russian Federation
  - 6.3 Methods and technologies for the development of a government decision
  - 6.4 Choosing alternative solutions
  - 6.5 Objectives in the development of the solution
- List of information sources

#### 6.1 The significance of planning in the development of a government decision

Planning in management is the process of determining goals, objectives and ways to achieve them, just like determining the resources necessary to implement the plan. Planning is one of the main elements of management, which allows us to organise the work of an organisation and achieve its goals.

Types of planning in management:

- strategic planning is long-term planning that determines the organisation strategic goals and objectives for a period of three to ten years;
- tactical planning is planning for a shorter period (from one to three years), which determines the specific actions and activities necessary to achieve strategic goals;
- operational planning is short-term planning (from several months to a year) that defines specific tasks and actions for each day.

Planning process flow:

- defining the problem and solution goals;
- situation analysis and data collection;
- assessment of possible solution options;
- choosing the most effective option;
- developing an action plan and resources;
- consultation with stakeholders and consideration of their views;
- making a decision and implementing an action plan;

- monitoring and evaluating the solution effectiveness;
- making adjustments and adapting the solution to changing conditions;
- communication of results and feedback with stakeholders.

In the planning process, the creative and analytical thinking role is very significant. A creative approach allows you to find non-standard solutions and propose new ideas that can significantly improve the situation. The analytical approach allows for in-depth data analysis and assessment of the possible risks and benefits of each solution option. A creative and analytical approach combination allows you to develop the most effective action plan considering all factors and potential consequences. What are the signs of a good plan?

Signs of a good and effective plan:

- *realism*, i.e., the plan must be based on the real capabilities of the enterprise and consider risks and uncertainty;
- *specificity*, i.e., the plan must be clearly defined and contain specific goals, objectives and activities;
- *flexibility*, i.e., the plan must be flexible and subject to adjustment depending on changes in external and internal conditions;
- *responsibility*, i.e., the plan must be associated with the responsibility of specific performers for its implementation;
- *integration*, i.e., the plan must be linked to other functional areas of the enterprise and consider their interaction.

Management decisions are actions taken by governing entities in various fields of activity, including public administration by government bodies, to resolve significant issues in an organisation or society. Development of management decisions includes the following stages:

*Problem analysis.* Government agencies conduct research and analyse information about the problem to understand its nature and scope.

*Setting goals.* Based on the analysis of the problem, government agencies determine the goals that must be achieved to solve the problem.

*Choosing strategy.* Government agencies choose the strategy that best suits the achievement of their goals.

*Developing a plan.* Government agencies develop an action plan that defines the steps necessary to implement the chosen strategy.

*Implementing the plan.* Government authorities are beginning to implement the action plan using various tools and mechanisms.

*Evaluating results.* Government agencies evaluate the results of the action plan implementation and determine how successfully the set goals were achieved.

*Adjustment of strategy.* If the results are not satisfactory, government agencies can adjust the chosen strategy and develop a new action plan.

A management decision involves interaction with all stakeholders. As A.A. Degtyarev rightly noted: “The success of the implementation of any government (as part of a management) decision depends on how widely various groups of the population, business structures and public organisations were involved in the development and adoption process”.

Therefore, it is significant to consult and discuss with stakeholders to consider different views and opinions when developing action plans.

The quality of management decisions is determined by their compliance with the goals set, just like the stakeholders’ satisfaction level. The effectiveness of decisions is determined by achieving maximum results at minimum costs.

Methods for assessing the quality and effectiveness of management decisions can be different. One of them is expert assessment when experts express their opinion on the quality and solution effectiveness in some field. Another method is data analysis when data on the results of implementing a solution is collected and analysed.

Evaluating the effectiveness of decisions can be performed using multi-criteria assessments, when various criteria are considered, such as economic effect, social effect, environmental effect, etc. Requirements for criteria systems include their objectivity, sufficiency and relationship with the goals of the decision.

Assessing the quality and effectiveness of management decisions is a significant management stage, allowing one to determine the strategic goals implementation effectiveness and make the necessary adjustments in further work.

Planning plays a significant role in management decision development, especially government ones, as it allows you to define goals and select the most effective strategies to achieve them. The action plan helps governing and management structures just like government bodies, structure their actions and identify the necessary resources to implement the solution. In addition, planning allows you to foresee possible problems and risks associated with the management decision implementation and develop measures to prevent or eliminate them. In general, planning is a significant tool for ensuring the effectiveness and success of management decisions.

*Development of a regional development strategy.* Planning allows you to determine the goals and priorities for the region's development, and select the most effective measures to achieve these goals, just like determining the necessary resources and implementation deadlines.

*Development of a social support programme for the population.* Planning helps to identify categories of the population that need social support and select the most effective measures to provide it, just like determining the necessary resources and time frames for implementation.

*Development of an action plan to combat corruption.* Planning allows you to determine the main directions of the fight against corruption and select the most effective measures to combat it, just like determining the necessary resources and deadlines for implementation.

*Development of a programme for the economic development of the country.* Planning helps to determine the main directions of economic development and select the most effective measures to achieve this goal just like determining the necessary resources and deadlines for implementation.

*Development of an environmental protection action plan.* Planning allows you to determine the main directions of environmental protection, and select the most effective measures for its protection, just like determining the necessary resources and implementation deadlines.

*Development of an action plan to improve the healthcare system.* Planning helps to identify the main problems in the health care system, select the most effective measures to solve them and determine the necessary resources and time frames for implementation.

*Development of an action plan for tourism development.* Planning allows you to determine the potential of the tourism industry and select the most effective measures for its development just like determining the necessary resources and deadlines for implementation.

*Development of an action plan for infrastructure development.* Planning helps to identify the main problems in the infrastructure, select the most effective measures to solve them and determine the necessary resources and implementation timelines.

*Development of an action plan to improve the level of education.* Planning allows you to identify the main problems in the education system and select the most effective measures to solve them just like determining the necessary resources and deadlines for implementation.

*Development of an action plan to improve the quality of life of the population.* Planning helps to identify the main problems faced by residents of the region, select the most effective measures to solve them and determine the necessary resources and time frames for implementation.

For example, to assess the quality and effectiveness of the infrastructure development action plan in the Russian Federation, the following methods can be used:

- *Expert review.* Infrastructure experts can provide feedback on how realistic and effective the proposed activities are.
- *Data analysis.* Data is collected on the current state of infrastructure in the Russian Federation and what measures have already been implemented. The results of their implementation are analysed and it is determined which activities were the most effective.
- *Multicriteria assessment.* Various criteria are assessed, such as economic effect, social effect, environmental effect and others, and it is determined which activities will have the greatest effect for each criterion.

Thus, assessing the quality and effectiveness of the action plan for infrastructure development in the Russian Federation allows us to determine which activities will be the most effective and realistic for implementation.

Planning plays a significant role in management decisions, especially in government decisions, which, among other things, affect the infrastructure development area. It allows you to determine goals and objectives, select the most effective measures, estimate their cost and resource costs, and predict the results of their implementation.

Planning also allows for the interests of different population groups to be considered and the rights and interests of minorities to be protected. It contributes to more efficient use of government resources and improves the population life quality.

In addition, planning is a tool for reducing corruption and increasing the transparency of management decisions. It allows you to establish clear criteria for assessing the effectiveness of activities and monitor their implementation.

Thus, planning is of great significance in management decisions, especially in government decisions, which, among other things, affect the area of infrastructure development and is a necessary condition for achieving set goals and objectives.

Currently, information technologies play a huge role in governing the state and ensuring its functioning. Various systems of electronic document management,



automation of accounting and taxation, management of public resources, control over the implementation of legislation and the fight against corruption, ensuring security and protection of information and other systems can significantly increase the efficiency of government agencies.

Forecasting the implementation of the programmatic basis of government decisions is a complex task that depends on many factors, including political will, availability of funding, level of technical training of specialists and others. However, it can be assumed that in the future, more attention will be paid to protecting information and ensuring its security. We can also expect improvements in monitoring and analysis systems for socio-economic processes, simplification of public procurement and contract management systems, and automation of personnel and education management systems. In general, the development of information technologies in the public sector will be aimed at improving the efficiency of government agencies and improving the citizens' life quality.

One of the most significant areas of development of information technology in the public sector is the creation of systems for monitoring and analysing socio-economic processes. These systems allow you to receive up-to-date information about the state of the economy, social sphere, healthcare, education and other areas of citizens' lives. Based on this information, decisions can be made about the need to adjust current policies and develop development strategies for a longer period. Another significant area of information technology development in the public sector is the creation of public procurement and contract management systems. These systems make it possible to simplify the procurement procedure and make it more transparent and efficient. In addition, they reduce the likelihood of corruption schemes and increase competition between suppliers.

## **6.2 The programmatic basis of government management decisions in the Russian Federation**

The software basis for government management decisions is a software product and technologies used by government agencies to solve various problems and manage varied processes. These can be programmes for the automation of accounting, personnel management, electronic document management, data processing and much more. The programme basis for state decisions is significant for increasing the efficiency of government bodies, speeding up decision-making processes and improving the quality of services provided.

In the Russian Federation, the programme basis for government management decisions includes several core areas.

The first direction is the development and implementation of e-government systems. It allows citizens to receive services from government agencies electronically simplifying the process of receiving them and reducing the time it takes to contact the offices of government agencies.

The second direction is the creation and development of a state information resource system. These resources allow government agencies to quickly and conveniently exchange information among themselves increasing the efficiency of their work.

The third area is the development and implementation of information security systems. It allows government agencies to protect their data from cyber-attacks and leaks just like ensuring the security of civilian data.

The fourth direction is the creation of systems for monitoring and analysing socio-economic processes. These systems allow government agencies to collect and analyse data about various aspects of society, which helps them make more informed decisions.

The fifth direction is the automation of personnel and education management systems. It allows you to simplify the hiring and firing employee process, just like increasing the efficiency of their work.

In general, the programme for developing information technologies in the Russian public sector is aimed at increasing the government agencies' efficiency and providing better quality services to citizens.

The development of information technology in the public sector can significantly increase the government agencies' efficiency and improve the citizens' life quality. However, for the successful implementation of these projects, it is necessary to create an appropriate software framework and ensure its reliability and security.

As B. Milner noted, the need to make one or another management decision arises under the following conditions:

- the gap between the desired and existing levels of development;
- the gap is large enough to be noticed and therefore deserves attention;
- the decision maker seeks to close the gap;
- the decision maker is confident that the gap can be closed.

Signs of development of the software framework:

- availability of various software products and technologies for solving problems and managing processes;
- focus on improving the efficiency of government agencies;
- accelerate decision-making processes;
- improving the quality of services provided;
- use of modern technologies and tools;
- ensuring data security and protection;
- integration of various systems and applications to provide a unified information environment;
- maintain system scalability and flexibility to adapt to changing needs and requirements;

There are possible development objects:

- electronic document management systems;
- information systems for managing public resources;
- automation systems for accounting and taxation;
- systems of electronic voting and Internet referendums;
- systems for monitoring and analysis of socio-economic processes;
- public procurement and contract management systems;
- personnel and education management systems;
- electronic health and medical statistics systems;
- systems for monitoring the legislation and combating corruption implementation;
- security and information protection systems.

The development strategy for the software basis for management decisions should be aimed at increasing the efficiency, reliability, security and flexibility of systems just like meeting user needs and meeting market requirements. It is also significant to consider new technologies and industry trends just like ensuring the existing systems' support and development.

In the modern world, software solutions play a huge role in government management. They allow you to optimise business processes, increase government agencies' efficiency, and improve the citizens' life quality.

Currently, information technologies play a core role in the government structure development and the service provision to the population. They allow speeding up decision-making processes, increasing the efficiency of government services and providing better services to citizens.

One of the main directions of the information technologies development in the public sector is information protection and ensuring its security. Given the growing threat of cyber-attacks and data leaks, government agencies must pay great attention to modern information security systems development and implementation.

In addition, we can expect improved systems for monitoring and analysing socio-economic processes. With the help of modern information technologies, it is possible to collect and analyse large volumes of data, which will make it possible to make more informed decisions and predict the possible consequences of measures taken.

We can also expect simplification of public procurement and contract management systems in the future. With the help of electronic platforms and automation systems, it is possible to significantly reduce the time required for procurement and reduce corruption risks.

Automation of personnel and education management systems will also be one of the core areas of information technology development in the public sector. With the help of modern HR management systems, you can simplify the hiring and firing of employees' processes, just like increasing the efficiency of their work.

In general, the development of information technologies in the public sector will be aimed at increasing the efficiency of government agencies and providing better quality services to citizens. However, the successful implementation of these tasks requires political will, funding availability and a high level of technical training of specialists.

One of the main directions for software-based development for government management decisions is the automation of public services. With the help of e-government, citizens can receive services without visiting offices, which saves time and reduces service costs. In addition, automation of public services can reduce corruption and increase the transparency of processes.

Another significant area of the programme-based development for government management decisions is urban infrastructure management. Traffic and route management systems can reduce traffic jams and improve road safety. Energy resource and environmental management systems can reduce energy costs and reduce harmful emissions into the environment.

In addition, software solutions are used to manage projects and tasks, customer relations and sales, logistics and warehousing, production processes and equipment. With the help of investment project and portfolio management systems, you can effectively distribute investments and minimise risks.

The development of a programmatic basis for government management decisions faces some problems. One of the main problems is the high cost of developing and implementing systems. In addition, it is necessary to ensure data security and protection from cyber-attacks.

The forecast for the government programme decisions' implementation includes an increase in the number of electronic government services, further development of urban infrastructure management systems and increased efficiency of business process management. Using artificial intelligence and data analytics for decision-making is also expected to increase. However, to realise these predictions, it is necessary to solve problems associated with security and the high cost of developing and implementing systems.

As in any area of information technology development, predicting the implementation of the programme basis of management decisions for the public sector is quite difficult. This is because the implementation of such projects depends on many factors, including political will, availability of funding, level of technical training of specialists and others.

It is safe to say that the development of information technology in the public sector will continue in the future. Systems for monitoring and analysing socio-economic processes will improve and become more accurate and reliable. Public procurement and contract management systems will be simplified and more transparent. HR and education management systems will become automated and more efficient.

In addition, it can be assumed that there will be greater emphasis on protecting information and ensuring its security in the future. It is because with the information technology development, the number of threats and risks associated with the storage and transmission of confidential information increases.

*Thus*, the development of information technologies in the public sector will continue and, in the future, will be aimed at improving the efficiency of government agencies and improving the citizens' life quality.

### **6.3 Methods and technologies for the development of a government decision**

Management decisions are an integral part of the management process in any organisation. They are aimed at solving specific tasks and problems, just like achieving set goals and strategic plans. Various methods and technologies are used to successfully develop management decisions.

Methods for developing management decisions are ways of performing the necessary operations.

These methods can be classified into the following groups:

- recognition methods;
- analysis methods;
- assessment methods;
- measurement methods;
- calculation methods;
- modelling methods;
- selection methods;
- presentation methods.

A special group consists of methods of information work:

- information search methods;
- information transfer methods;
- information aggregation methods;
- structuring information methods;
- information processing methods;
- storing information methods;
- information distribution methods.

The management decisions' development includes the use of organisational methods for its implementation:

- functional duties and responsibilities distribution methods;
- rationing methods;
- coaching methods;
- consultation methods;
- control and monitoring methods;
- motivation methods.

It should remember that a decision is not only an option or a formula for business behaviour, it is the activity itself to resolve the problem.

However, if we summarise the above, then all methods for developing management decisions can be divided into intellectual and social-organisational activity methods groups.

Methods of intellectual activity are methods for developing management decisions based on using different ways of thinking and creativity to generate ideas

and find optimal solutions. These methods help managers find new approaches to problems and solutions that may not be obvious when using traditional methods.

Many methods of intellectual activity can be used to develop management decisions. Some of them include:

*Association methods.* They are based on the analysis of associations that arise in a person's thoughts. The manager starts with one concept and relates it to many other concepts that may be related to the original problem.

*Brainstorming Method.* It is based on generating many ideas and proposals that could be potential solutions to a problem. Managers use techniques, e.g., free-associative thinking and prototyping to generate as many ideas as possible.

*Design Thinking Method.* It is based on the use of a design approach to solving problems. The manager analyses the problem using techniques used by designers, such as prototyping, testing, and iterative improvement.

*Social-organisational activity methods.* They are used to analyse and manage social processes within an organisation and interaction between its members. These methods can help managers develop management decisions that consider the social structure and culture of the organisation just like the opinions and needs of its members.

One of the methods of social-organisational activity is the interviewing method, which can be used to obtain information from employees of the organisation. During the interview, the manager asks employees to find out their opinions and suggestions about current problems and processes in the organisation. This information can be used to develop management decisions that better meet employee needs and expectations.

Another method is the focus group method, which brings together a group of people to discuss specific topics and issues. A manager can use this method to identify the opinions and suggestions of a group of people who may be affected by a management decision. This information can be used to develop solutions that better meet the needs and expectations of focus group participants.

There are also sociometric methods allowing you to study the relationships between employees in an organisation. This method can be used to identify group dynamics and conflicts that may impede management decision-making. The manager can use this information to develop management decisions that consider social aspects and help improve relationships between employees.

Generally, social and organisational activity methods allow managers to consider social aspects when developing management decisions. Each method has advantages and disadvantages, and the choice of a particular method depends on the goals and needs of the organisation.

*Thus*, each of these methods can be an effective tool for developing management decisions but depending on the specific tasks that arise in the organisation, you can use different methods for developing management decisions, combining them and adapting them to the situation.

Management decision development technologies are methods and tools that help managers make effective decisions in the organisation. They are used to analyse data, evaluate alternatives, predict outcomes, and select optimal strategies.

Technologies for developing management solutions help managers analyse information, make informed decisions and improve the organisation's efficiency.

Technologies used in management decision development include several principles and patterns related to the organisation and management of business processes, methods and tools for collecting and processing information, just like control systems and methods of effectively influencing personnel.

Unlike technocratic technology, which can be deterministic, management decision-making technology requires considering many factors related to the individual needs and preferences of people, teams, offices, etc. Therefore, to achieve the best result in this process, the ability to make decisions is based on analysing a variety of data and considering the individual needs and preferences of each recipient. It is worth noting that technologies for developing management decisions are one of the significant links in the theory and practice of management.

Technologies for developing management decisions can be classified as follows, dividing them into target and process.

Target technology is a technology based on the priority of goals over situations. It helps you focus on what really matters and develop the most effective strategies to achieve your goals instead of reacting to unpredictable situations. In addition, targeted technology for developing management solutions is a core element in creating effective management solutions, allowing process managers to control the development process, ensuring high-quality solutions and maximum return on invested resources.

Target technology usually includes the following steps:

- determining the goals and objectives of management decisions;



- collecting and analysing necessary data and information;
- developing a concept and prototype of a management solution;
- testing and finalizing the prototype;
- developing and implementing the final version of the management decision;
- implementing and supporting management decisions.

The target technology for developing a management solution can use different methods and tools for each of these steps. For example, market research methods, surveys, interviews, data analysis, etc. can be used to collect and analyse data. Design methods, design thinking, prototyping, etc. can be used to develop a concept and prototype of a management solution.

*Thus*, this type of technology (target technology) is a significant tool for creating effective management solutions that contribute to the achievement of set goals and objectives.

Target technologies include:

- programme-targeted;
- initiative-target;
- regulatory technology.

Initiative-target technology is based on the issuance of tasks without strict connection to specific means and methods of their implementation, allowing the performer to use his professional potential and initiative. One of the main conditions for successful technology implementation is a high level of personnel professionalism and trust on the part of management.

The principle of proactive-target technology is that management decisions and processes should be focused on achieving set goals and objectives, and new initiatives and technologies can be applied to achieve them. This approach allows the team to freely choose the optimal means and methods to solve the problem, which can lead to more effective results. However, for the successful implementation of initiative-targeted technology, it is necessary to ensure the presence of highly qualified specialists in the team, just like existing a trusting relationship between management and staff.

Software-target technology consists of issuing tasks (tasks, goals) for execution, indicating the means, methods and time of their implementation, and methods of external or internal control of the intermediate stages of this implementation.

Regulatory technology is based on the issuance of clear instructions and regulations providing not only goals and objectives but also available means, possible limitations, optimal methods and approximate execution time. This

technology involves strict control of each stage of the development and management process improving the quality and reliability of management decisions.

The main advantages of regulatory technology for developing management decisions include:

- standardising the development process, which ensures uniformity and improves the quality of management decisions;
- optimising time and resources, thanks to clear organisation of work and determination of deadlines for completing tasks;
- reducing the likelihood of errors and omissions through the use of proven techniques and procedures;
- ensuring transparency and responsibility in the development of management decisions, thanks to a clear distribution of tasks and responsibilities between participants in the process.

Regulatory technology is an effective tool for creating high-quality and effective management decisions, considering the quality requirements and work completion time.

Each target technology for developing a management decision has its own process technologies set, representing the mechanism for implementing the target technologies.

Process technologies for developing management decisions serve the target ones, being a toolkit concerning them. There are different types of process technologies; let us look at each of them in more detail.

The process technology “Management by Results” focuses on achieving final goals and focuses on adjusting actions and decisions based on the results obtained, instead of lengthy planning and forecasting. The general task of the manager in this technology is to adjust and coordinate actions based on the analysis and interpretation of the results obtained, which allows for achieving goals more effectively.

The use of process technology “Management by Results” in management decision development allows you to create a clear action plan and ensure effective control over the process. It helps managers make informed decisions based on evidence rather than guesswork or intuition.

One example of the “Results Based Management” technology application in management decision development is the process of forming a company strategy. In this case, Results-Based Management can help you define outcomes, develop

an action plan, select performance indicators, and track them to measure progress and adjust strategy as needed.

The process technology “Management based on needs and interests” is based on the priority of creating good relationships between employees and putting motivation in the first place as a tool for forming interaction between them in achieving a common goal. It uses various management methods and approaches to achieve this goal.

The main idea of the technology “Management based on needs and interests” is that to achieve an effective result, it is necessary to consider the interests of all stakeholders and satisfy their needs. It means that when developing a management decision, it is necessary to consider the opinions and interests of all stakeholders, such as clients, partners, employees, investors, etc.

Using the technological process “Management Based on Needs and Interests” when developing management decisions allows you to create a management solution that will consider the needs and interests of all stakeholder groups. It helps managers create solutions making work more enjoyable and efficient.

One example of applying the technology “Management Based on Needs and Interests” in management decision development is the managing change process in an organisation. In this case, Needs-Based Management can help identify the needs and interests of various stakeholder groups, develop an action plan, organise work and evaluate results to adjust actions if necessary.

The process technology “Management through constant checks and instructions” is one of the methods for developing a management decision. This technology involves systematic checks and analysis of the current situation, which helps managers make decisions based on current information.

The process technology “Management in Exceptional Cases” refers to situations that may create obstacles to the execution of assigned tasks within the specified time frame and to the required level of quality. Such situations represent a stable set of circumstances that may arise periodically. Exceptions are situations not covered by force majeure, such as illness, employee retirement, or product defects.

This management technology assumes that the manager helps his subordinates to be in equal positions with them. He uses his knowledge and experience to help them work more efficiently and solve problems. For this, it is significant that the performers are professional and can make decisions independently, and the manager must be able to eliminate obstacles that interfere with work. This type of process technology helps to develop effective management decisions in

indeterminacy conditions and unexpected situations, ensuring quick response and minimising losses.

The process technology “Management Based on Artificial Intelligence” uses feedback, statistics and modern economic and mathematical methods, which are implemented in the form of knowledge bases or databases using modern computer technologies.

The main goal of this technology is to create a model that is used to analyse data and make management decisions based on artificial intelligence algorithms. This model, based on artificial intelligence, allows you to process large data volumes and identify patterns that cannot be detected by traditional methods. When similar situations arise, the expert system can independently issue the optimal management decision, without the need for employee participation. After this, the computer transmits the necessary actions to the control object to implement the management decision.

Each of these technologies has its characteristics and is used depending on the specific task or problem. These technologies help managers make decisions based on objective data, analyse risks and opportunities, improve business processes and increase company performance.

Developing a management solution is a complex and responsible process that requires the use of various methods and technologies. In addition, each method and technology for developing a management decision has its advantages and disadvantages, so the choice of a particular method or technology must be justified and based on the specific situation and tasks. It is also necessary to consider factors that may affect the implementation of the decision, such as political, economic, social and others.

Generally, the named methods and technologies are not an exhaustive list, and other approaches can be used in developing management decisions. However, their proper use can significantly improve the efficiency of your decision-making process and help you achieve your goals and objectives.

#### **6.4 Choosing alternative solutions**

Decision-making involves choosing one alternative from several available ones. In the absence of the alternatives, we can talk about the absence of choice and, accordingly, of decisions.

When developing management decisions, it is significant to correctly assess the circumstances of the problem and alternative solutions to select the most effective solution that will meet the goals of the decision-maker and the organisation.

Alternatives are mutually exclusive options for solving a problem, options for management decisions being subject to evaluation and selection. Each alternative is characterised by the number of resources required, and the likelihood of an effective solution to the problem, just like possible consequences. It is not always possible to accurately predict these values so they are predictive.

In decision theory, three languages have been formed to describe alternatives:

- criterion-based, in which alternatives are assessed using criteria;
- binary relationships, in which evaluation occurs in pairs with an alternative;
- choice functions in which the choice between a pair of alternatives depends on other possible alternatives.

The first step in the process of finding the best solution is to identify a complete list of alternatives. There are several ways to generate them:

- Advice from competent specialists;
- Groups (commissions, councils, committees);
- External sources of information, i.e., specialised literature, communication with other managers;
- Past experience. In this case, decisions are made based on judgment. An excessive focus on experience often precludes the consideration of new alternatives and the adoption of unconventional solutions.

If there are a large number of alternatives, it seems difficult to evaluate each of them. To optimise the choice, restrictions and criteria for selecting alternatives are worth introducing. In this way, it will be possible to first find acceptable solution options, which may include a decision on inaction, and then the best of them,

These restrictions do not imply complex calculations; first of all, their accounting is based on the method of expert assessments. As limitations, one can indicate factors of the external and internal environment independent of the decision maker. They can be legal, resource, social, moral ethical and so on. Examples of limitations include insufficient qualifications of workers or the bankruptcy of the general supplier. As a result of introducing restrictions, the decision maker receives only acceptable alternatives, which reduces the time for making a decision.

Next, it is necessary to determine the criteria for evaluating alternatives. They can be both quantitative and qualitative. If an alternative is evaluated according to one criterion, the evaluation will be single-criteria; if according to several, it will be multi-criteria. The minimum or maximum value of the selection criterion should be set. The criteria include the cost of resources, time, minimising risks, achieving some goal, compliance with specific conditions, etc. As a result of the assessment, the decision maker receives the optimal solution.

So, alternatives that satisfy the constraints are valid and alternatives satisfying the criteria are optimal.

In practice, almost all decisions in the management of social systems are multi-criteria, which is why the decision maker has to choose the most significant criterion for him and reject the rest or determine the weight of each criterion and take it into account when making a decision. Previously, only analytical and evaluative methods were used when making decisions, but the creativity role has recently been increasing.

When choosing a solution, the decision maker can also consider additional points based on personal preferences. To do this, he analyses several solution options, indicates their advantages and disadvantages, and selects the best option. For example, when choosing the best option for transporting an enterprise's products to various regions, system analysts chose the option that met the condition of minimal transport costs but the decision maker, considering the additional requirements for reliability of supplies, compliance with their deadlines, personal acquaintance with the heads of several transport enterprises, chose a different transportation option, not the most efficient in terms of transport tasks, but the most reliable.

Thus, the choice of an alternative includes an analysis of the problem situation, the formulation of restrictions, alternative solutions, and their evaluation according to criteria, just like selecting the optimal solution.

The process of choosing an alternative is influenced by the following factors:

- number of alternatives considered;
- a way to evaluate alternatives;
- selection mode (sole, collegial, for some decisions the selection procedure is fixed by regulations, etc.);
- consequences of choice;
- responsibility of the decision maker;
- degree of consistency of goals.

When making a decision at all core stages, factors associated with the individual perception of the problem also appear – personal:

- The anchoring effect manifests itself in initial estimates given earlier or obtained randomly. For example, budget expenditures in the current year are a reference for determining expenditures for the next year;
- The effect of risk perception is expressed in an increase in the propensity to take risks when making voluntary decisions and a decrease in the propensity to take risks when making forced risks;
- The effect of reactance is manifested in the resistance to make a decision when it is imposed or strongly recommended from the outside;
- The inertial effect manifests itself in the revaluation of the first alternative that comes to mind, which is why, in many cases, the generating alternatives' process ends there, or subsequent alternatives are evaluated in comparison with the merits of the first, which negatively affects new ideas.

In cases where it is difficult to make a clear final choice between options, if possible, experimental testing of some most favourable options can be performed. In management, examples include market testing of a new product, testing of various options for organisational management structures, remuneration and bonus schemes, and control organisation.

Then, it is necessary to select the optimal alternative, make a final decision, set deadlines, and intermediate stages, assign executors, and implement the decision including the tasks of coordinating and monitoring the decision implementation. The final result is the achievement of set goals within a specified time frame and using some resources.

In emergencies, decisions are made. This is classified as urgent. Due to the lack of time, at best it is possible to evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of quickly identified alternative solutions. If there is some time, it is recommended to develop and select alternatives through collective expert assessment. The method is based on discussing a problem through brainstorming, in which experts offer as many alternative options as possible, then discuss their pros and cons, draw up a table, collectively compare the results and select an alternative for which the advantages prevail over the disadvantages.

Forming alternative solutions in state and municipal government bodies is one of the most significant stages of their activities.

An alternative management decision is a comprehensive idea of resolving a problem situation, containing general targets for action and a forecast of the result

of this action. Here, the development of alternatives includes not only analytical procedures but also an assessment of the political approaches of management.

The sources of a management alternative may be some problematic situation, the opinion of the head of a government agency, precedent, religious and ideological ideas, features of the procedures of a government agency, the experience and logic of an analyst and so on.

The successful development and promotion of an alternative management solution in public authorities is influenced not only by the previously mentioned factors but also by some specific ones:

- the alternative must be technologically justified, i.e., include measures that eliminate the causes that led to the emergence of the problem situation;
- the alternative must be financially and economically justified, i.e., the costs of making and implementing the decision must be commensurate with the level of the task;
- the alternative must be politically acceptable, i.e., it must be approved not only by the leadership, but also by the majority of the population.

These conditions significantly limit the number of potentially generated alternatives.

Currently, there are various options for identifying the stages of formation of management decisions in government bodies. According to L.G. Evlanov, the selecting alternatives' stages are:

- determining the boundaries of the decision area;
- determining the type of solution;
- formulating goals and decision priorities;
- identification of solution constraints;
- formulation of extreme alternatives (best and worst);
- generation of a common set of alternatives;
- assessing the advantages and disadvantages of each alternative;
- assessment of the likelihood and effectiveness of the implementation of options;
- conducting an analysis of preferences for solutions to achieve goals;
- reducing the set of alternatives to acceptable ones;
- reduction of feasible alternatives to effective options;
- choosing the optimal option.



Choosing the best option depends on the criteria chosen but there are some typical techniques that authorities can use to make the final decision:

- comparing the alternatives based on benefits and costs;
- selecting the best option based on the agreement of the majority of political or social groups;
- choosing the best option using voting (referendum);
- ranking the alternatives from the viewpoint of consumers;
- choosing a solution that satisfies the majority of citizens.

Risks associated with the policy solutions' development are associated with changes in a specific object or process, variability in the choice of actions, and possible developments in the future. To assess them, it is necessary to select criteria or risk indicators, determine their level and compare the risks for various alternative solutions.

Also, when developing decisions, public authorities can turn to experts and create specific councils or analytical departments within the body.

The significance of identifying alternatives lies in the fact that when analysing them, different views and ideas, advantages and disadvantages of each alternative are considered, judgments are made and conditions are created for choosing the most effective and optimal solution to the problem. Given the circumstances and the number of resources available, the decision-maker tries to find as many alternative solutions as possible and evaluates them according to various criteria. At the same time, alternative choices are possible at all stages of the decision-making process, starting with the goal choice and ending with the method of evaluating results.

### **6.5 Objectives in the development of the solution**

Goals are the most significant element of any process of developing management decisions. Correctly set goals help determine exactly what result is worth achieving just like what measures would be taken to achieve it.

The goals should be:

- properly formulated;
- achievable;
- measurable;
- relevant;
- limited in time.

For a management decision to be effective and bring actual benefits to society, goals must be defined based on an analysis of the problems that need to be solved. Such analysis is worth basing on facts and practical results of previous activities.

The goals when developing management decisions can be varied:

- security;
- the economic growth;
- increasing quality of life;
- environment protection;
- fight against corruption;
- education reform;
- improvement of healthcare, etc.

By area of life, goals can be divided into:

- social goals are aimed at improving the well-being of the population, increasing social security, covering the population with public services, etc.;
- economic goals are aimed at accelerating economic growth, increasing investment, improving the investment climate, increasing the country's competitiveness and others;
- environmental goals are related to environmental protection, energy efficiency, pollution reduction and other measures;
- political goals are aimed at strengthening political stability and security, improving the quality of governance;
- cultural goals are focused on the preservation and development of cultural heritage, strengthening national identity and national spirit;
- technological goals are aimed at developing innovations in technology, increasing the reliability and availability of information, ensuring security on the Internet and the IT sector.

However, when defining goals, it is necessary to consider what measures will be implemented to achieve them, what resources will be used, and whose interests will be affected.

To achieve the set goals, management decisions must be aimed at solving specific problems. One of the process stages of developing management decisions is the identification of specific tasks that need to be solved to achieve the goals. Tasks must be related to goals and, at the same time, be solvable.

When developing management decisions, it is necessary to consider that goals and objectives may change as the process progresses. It may happen due to a change

in the situation, an increase in the priority of some tasks, or the emergence of new problems. Therefore, monitoring and results analysis are necessary to assess the effectiveness and timely adjustment of management goals and objectives.

Methods for developing and setting goals for management decisions are used in the development of management decisions to determine the final results that have to be achieved. These goals may be related to economic, social, political and environmental aspects.

One goal method is the SMART goal method, which means that goals should be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-bound. This approach helps provide clarity and guidance for achieving goals.

Another method is the multiple goals method, which involves developing a hierarchy of goals in levels, ranging from general goals to specific final results. This approach helps ensure that goals are connected and prioritised.

The SWOT analysis method is also used, which allows you to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the state, just like opportunities and threats to achieve goals. It helps identify the core areas that need to be addressed to achieve your goals.

It is significant to consider that targeting methods should be selected depending on the specific situation and objectives, just like considering social, economic and environmental aspects.

Developing goals for management decisions is the process of determining the ultimate goal or intention that should be achieved consequently implementing public policy or making a management decision.

When developing goals in a state, two models of its actions at this stage can be distinguished:

Target planning in the state is the process of developing long-term strategic goals and objectives, just like activities and tools to achieve them. Target planning allows you to determine priority areas for the country's development, highlight core areas in which it is necessary to concentrate resources, and develop effective mechanisms for implementing planned tasks.

Non-target planning in the state differs from targeted planning in that it does not involve the development of long-term strategic goals and objectives, but rather is the process of managing the current activities of the state based on existing resources. Non-target planning is focused on operational decisions aimed at meeting the most pressing societal needs. It is not long-term but rather based on current circumstances and realities.

The development of long-term assignments is a multi-step and complex process that requires the use of high-quality analytical methods and expert support. To successfully implement this process, you need:

- reliable hypotheses;
- effective methods of working with information;
- the presence of group associations or individuals capable of generating original ideas;
- the ability to propose and evaluate alternatives.

Other significant aspects necessary for the effective development of visionary assignments include the relevance of the institutional design to real-world goals, how to coordinate the actions of various government agencies and the level of technical equipment of the solutions.

Developing alternatives is a complex process that requires evaluating policy approaches and selecting the best alternative. For this purpose, the upper limits of decisions and the maximum legal restrictions on the activities of the state on this issue are determined. Lower bounds define those parameters that preserve the quality of solutions.

In general, at this stage government agencies choose one of the following options:

- maintaining the previous policy within the framework of expenditures (resources);
- maintaining the previous policy line within the resource base;
- partial modification of the previous course of government policy;
- developing a new policy course while maintaining principled approaches;
- developing a fundamentally new policy.

The ultimate task is to select the best, most acceptable alternative for political and administrative structures when setting goals.

Successful long-term assignment development involves identifying upper and lower decision limits, establishing preliminary goals and planned means, and using resources efficiently.

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## Part 7.

### Stages of execution and completion of government management decisions

- 7.1 The concept of “implementation of solutions”
  - 7.2 Principles of execution of state decisions
  - 7.3 Stages of execution of state decisions
  - 7.4 Assessment of the effectiveness of government decisions
  - 7.5 How does the implementation of government decisions end?
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#### 7.1 The concept of “implementation of solutions”

Decision implementation is the process of turning plans and concepts into concrete actions that achieve set goals. It includes the implementation of strategies, the creation of programmes and projects, and the development and implementation of business processes and technologies, just like the adoption of operational decisions aimed at solving current problems.

Implementation of decisions is a core component of any management process since without it any ideas and concepts remain on paper. Implementing solutions is also one of the most challenging phases as it requires precise planning, coordination and management of various processes and resources.

To successfully implement solutions, you must have project management skills, the ability to make decisions under conditions of uncertainty and quickly respond to changes in the external environment. In addition, for effective implementation of solutions, the following aspects must also be considered:

*Defining goals and objectives.* Before implementing solutions, it is necessary to clearly define the goals and objectives that have to be achieved. It will allow you to identify the resources needed and plan actions based on specific goals.

*Resources.* Successful implementation of solutions requires some resources, such as finance, personnel, technology and other resources. It is necessary to ensure access to the necessary resources and use them effectively.

*Planning.* Implementation of decisions requires detailed planning of actions and monitoring the implementation of tasks. It is necessary to determine the sequence of steps and assess the risks at each stage.

*Team management.* Implementing solutions requires managing a team that will perform the tasks. It is worth ensuring coordination between team members and providing motivation to achieve goals.

*Evaluation of results.* It is necessary to evaluate the results of implementing decisions and analyse the effectiveness of actions. It will allow you to adjust plans and make timely changes if necessary.

*Communication.* Implementing solutions also requires effective communication between team members, management and stakeholders.

Solutions implementation can be performed in various fields, including business, education, public sector, healthcare, technology sector and others. In each area, the implementation of solutions may differ depending on the specifics of the activity.

In business, implementing solutions may include developing new products or services, optimising business processes, managing risks, and other tasks. In education, the implementation of solutions may include new educational technologies' introduction, the creation of new training programmes and other tasks. In the public sector, implementing solutions may include project management, legislative development, and other tasks.

It is significant to understand that solution implementation is not only a process of achieving set goals but also a development process that requires constant improvement and improvement. It may also face various obstacles such as changes in the external environment, limited resources, complexity of tasks and others. However, with the right approach and management, implementing solutions can bring significant benefits and success in achieving your goals.

To successfully implement solutions, it is necessary to perform several stages, which include analysing the problem, setting goals and objectives, selecting and developing solutions, evaluating effectiveness and implementing the selected solutions.

Problem analysis is the first and most significant step in implementing solutions. At this stage, it is necessary to perform research on the situation and identify the main problems and factors influencing their occurrence. It is also significant to analyse available resources and identify potential risks and obstacles that may arise in implementing the solution.

After analysing the problem, it is necessary to set goals and objectives that need to be achieved. Goals and objectives should be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-bound. It will help improve focus on tasks, provide a clear



picture of what needs to be achieved and determine what resources and actions are needed to achieve those goals.

Solution selection and development is the stage at which the best solution to a problem is selected and an action plan is created to implement it. When choosing a solution, it is necessary to consider all the factors influencing the solution of the problem, just like potential risks and obstacles.

Efficiency assessment is the stage at which the result of implementing a solution is assessed. Evaluation may include measuring the goals and objectives achievement, evaluating results comparing with expected results, and analysing financial performance. This stage will help determine how successfully the strategy was implemented and what changes need to be focused on in the future.

Implementation of the selected solutions is the last stage in the implementation of solutions. At this stage, it is necessary to develop an action plan for implementing the selected solution, identify the resources necessary for successful implementation, and establish monitoring and evaluation mechanisms to ensure successful implementation.

Implementing solutions is a complex process that requires a lot of time, resources and effort. Well-planned implementation of solutions can lead to the successful achievement of goals and problem-solving, while poorly planned implementation can result in wasted time, money and resources. In addition, effective implementation of solutions can lead to improved results and increased organisation productivity.

Significant factors in implementing solutions are communication and coordination between process participants just like flexibility and adaptability. Communication and coordination must ensure that all stakeholders are kept informed promptly about the implementation progress and what actions need to be taken next. Flexibility and adaptability will help you adapt to changes during implementation and respond quickly to unexpected events.

The significance is that implementing solutions is an ongoing process that requires constant evaluation and improvement. It will help ensure the successful achievement of goals and problem resolution, just like improved productivity and results for the organisation as a whole.

Each solution implementation stage must be planned in detail and have specific goals. In addition, various factors such as budget, timeline and resources need to be considered.

## 7.2 Principles of execution of state decisions

The decision-making process is very different from the decision-making process itself. If the decision-making process is simplified to setting goals (expectations, plans, and objectives), then the implementation of the decision-making process is the realisation of the goal. It is the goals objectification process turning distribution planning (decision-making) into a form of activity of social actors. Since decision-making is a plan of activity and its future consequences, it is a phenomenon of administrative consciousness.

Decision-making is a modified version of the control object's plan until it is implemented as reality. The implementation of the decision-making process is the result of administrative behaviour. Figuratively speaking, this is a critical moment for the administration unit. The main content of execution is the actual implementation of the plan, corresponding goals and results. The result is the satisfaction of social needs and interests. This process is more or less limited in time. It is performed in the political and legal spheres within a specific institution.

The management methods and techniques are determined by the content of the decisions made. It all starts with the basics and changes to details as needed. The process of making management decisions, in particular, government decisions is part of making administrative decisions process. It must be based on the principle of functioning of the management system. Therefore, this should become one of the core principles for implementing administrative decisions.

*Systematic principle.* Specific principles for formulating and implementing management decisions involve consideration of management issues, objects and effects, just like their internal relationships and connections with the external environment as elements of an integrated system. The systematic method includes determining management efficiency goals, selecting goals, identifying possible options, choosing reasonable management decisions, and proposing the results of evaluating and adjusting management actions.

*The principle of standardisation.* Implementation of management decisions means the use of standard management plans and algorithms for decision-making. At the same time, this principle does not exclude the possibility of non-standard situations. It is recommended to divide it into standard and non-standard parts.

*The principle of awareness.* All management decisions must be based on representative information on management issues.

*The principle of automation.* In the view of the management decisions implementation, this principle means that decisions made by higher-level

management units should be presented to the executive unit as soon as possible and executed automatically.

*The principle of timeliness.* Under normal circumstances, clearly defined management decisions always have a specific execution time and are formally recorded in the planning process. This principle is necessary to avoid undue urgency and prevent problems from escalating into conflicts. We can say that making a decision prematurely can be a mistake and can be “hasty”. The problem will not go away and must be solved again. Delaying the immediate implementation of a solution is a bad scenario because, at best, it is unnecessary, and at worst, it will lead to a serious deterioration of the situation with irreversible consequences.

*The principle of cyclicity.* This principle requires that some frequency of activities be considered at all times. It is due to the being of different periods (months, quarters, years, etc.). The solution must only be implemented at some point in the cycle. Repeatability will always be based on a completely new solution based on previous solutions. Thus, adherence to this principle allows us to implement the most suitable solution systematically.

*The principle of legality.* This principle is one of the fundamental ones. It is the main feature of all government decisions as part of management decisions. The starting point of this principle is that each new draft management decision must comply with all other laws and regulations adopted previously.

To execute management decisions according to the approved plan, it is also necessary to consider three aspects:

1. *External systems' compatibility:* decisions of one body or unit are coordinated with decisions of other bodies or units based on their status in the mechanism for managing intra-organisational affairs.
2. *Internal System Coherence:* Done when the decisions of various entities are coordinated within a unit.
3. *Consistency of various decisions of the same unit:* practice has shown that persistence in compliance with the principles of law enforcement does not always lead to success and the expected results. In fact, there are many obstacles to the effective implementation of management decisions, in particular government ones.

### **7.3 Stages of execution of state decisions**

The management decisions' execution includes several stages:

- The first stage of implementing management decisions includes the selection of quality performers and then the placement of these performers and providing them with the necessary conditions for the work to be as effective as possible. For each management decision, a specialised team of performers is selected then the essence of the work is explained to them, they are given instructions, specialised training is organised, all work is distributed to specific tasks, and a deadline for completing these tasks is set. Afterwards, you need to make sure that all performers clearly understand the essence of each task implementation of each task.
- After selecting implementers, the next step in implementing decisions is to mobilise available resources. At the same stage, regulations and instructions for work are developed, reporting forms are developed so that the work is performed as efficiently as possible. The quantity and quality of mobilised resources must be sufficient to achieve the result.
- The third stage is to bring people and resources together. This stage involves setting worker cost limits for each performer, determining standards for time, energy, materials and financial resources necessary to complete the task just like assessing the quantity and quality of resources received. Effective management should be aimed at reducing costs while increasing the volume and quality of results obtained. The effectiveness of this stage is determined by minimising costs, while ensuring that the volume and quality of work are the highest possible.
- The fourth stage is the practical implementation of the management decision. At this stage, the form of responsibility of the performers and the system of their reward are determined, and the scope of the powers of the performers is determined. Also at this stage, conditions are created for the successful implementation of the task: personnel, organisational, legal, etc.
- The fifth stage is monitoring the progress of the decision. When the performers have already started work, it is significant to supervise them so that they do the job efficiently. If actions do not go in accordance with the plan, it is necessary to redirect the performers in the appropriate direction. This is implemented through analysis of reports and their evaluation, field visits, etc. Control is most effective when it is structured in such a way that it is possible to change and correct something in a timely manner right during the work.

Control over the execution of management decisions can be divided into three types:

- preliminary control;

- current control;
- final control.

Preliminary control is performed before the start of work. It consists of regulating the execution of work – some rules, procedures and lines of behaviour are developed in various situations. It allows us to understand that work is done in the right direction. If the performer strictly adheres to the regulations, then everything is going according to plan. If the contractor deviates from the regulations there is an opportunity to prevent the problem and correct the shortcomings.

Current control is performed directly during the work on the project. At this level, regular checks of the work progress are used, problems that arise are discussed and solutions are quickly found. This type of control allows you to eliminate deviations from regulations as much as possible and quickly solve problems that arise.

In the final control, the work results are compared with the initial tasks set. This type of control does not affect the results of the current project but provides significant information necessary for the implementation of future projects.

The execution ends with the state stage, in which the achieved results are considered, analysed and evaluated. At this stage, it is significant to analyse everything down to the smallest detail to identify weak points where you could have done your work more effectively, just like the project strengths. It is done to make better decisions in future projects at all stages of work execution, thanks to the information obtained from the analysis.

#### **7.4 Assessment of the effectiveness of government decisions**

The balanced performance measurement system is a useful tool for analysing how well an organisation is achieving its strategic goals. By analysing these core aspects, it is possible to identify areas where the organisation needs to improve and make new strategic decisions to achieve its original goals.

The system of indicators of efficiency and effectiveness of the activities of organisations, including government bodies, includes three groups of indicators:

*The first group is indicators of immediate results.* These performance indicators are contained in reports on the activities of organisations and their structural divisions (for example, income statements and balance sheets). The content of performance results depends on the competence of the units or bodies of their components and the nature of the functions performing them. Other examples

of direct result indicators are the number of standardised services, deviations from specified standards, and the number of recipients of standardised services.

*The second group is indicators of the final effect.* Indicators of the final effect demonstrate changes or lack of change in the object that was influenced by management decisions; the level of qualitative and quantitative changes that have occurred indicates the final results of the activities of an organisation or government body.

An example of an indicator of the final effect is the indicator of client satisfaction from the activities of an organisation or a citizen from the activities of a government body.

*The third group is indicators of processes related to the nature of functioning, administrative processes and requirements for them.* The indicator shows the percentage of operations and actions that coincide with the initial standards and work requirements. An example of this indicator is the percentage of documents prepared on time and completed without violations.

The indicators are expected to meet the following requirements:

- *Relevance*, i.e., indicators used to evaluate performance must be directly related to the organisation or department's goals and objectives. It is significant because it helps ensure that the organisation is focusing on the appropriate tasks and that its efforts are consistent with its goals. By using metrics closely related to its goals and objectives, an organisation can better evaluate its progress and make informed decisions to improve its performance.
- *Clarity and unambiguity*, i.e., when defining performance indicators, it is significant to ensure that they are clear, unambiguous and easy to understand and use. It means that the indicator must be clearly defined so that it can be easily collected and compared over time. The definition should also make it clear whether an increase in the value of the indicators indicates an improvement or deterioration in the quality of the service provided. This clarity helps ensure that the indicator is used correctly and that decisions are based on accurate information.
- *Comparability*, i.e., when selecting performance indicators, it is significant to select indicators that provide comparability over time and across different departments. It means that indicators must be designed in such a way that meaningful comparisons can be made over time and across organisations. By ensuring comparability, it is easier to evaluate the effectiveness of different strategies and identify best practices. It can lead to improving productivity across the board and help organisations achieve their goals more effectively.

- *Verifiability*, i.e., when selecting performance indicators, it is significant to select those that can be verified. This means that indicator values must be based on data that can be collected and calculated in a verifiable way. Ideally, indicators should also be accompanied by a description of the statistical methods used in their calculations and how the sample was selected. It ensures that the data used to calculate metrics is reliable and accurate, making it easier to measure performance and make informed decisions.
- *Statistical reliability*, i.e., performance indicators must be based on reliable data collection systems. It means that the data used to calculate the indicators must be accurate and trustworthy. Those who use indicators for management purposes must be able to verify the accuracy of the data and the reliability of the methods used to calculate the indicators. It is significant because decisions based on inaccurate data can lead to poor results. By ensuring the reliability of the data used to calculate metrics, organisations can make informed decisions that are more likely to lead to successful ones.
- *Economic feasibility*, i.e., when choosing performance indicators, it is significant to consider their economic feasibility. It means that a reasonable balance must be struck between the cost of collecting data and its usefulness. Where possible, indicators should be based on existing data and linked to existing data collection efforts. It can help minimise the costs associated with collecting new data and ensure that the data collected is as useful as possible. By choosing economically sound metrics, organisations can more effectively monitor their operations and make informed decisions without incurring unnecessary costs.
- *Sensitivity*, i.e., when choosing performance indicators, it is significant to choose those sensitive to change. This means that indicators must be able to respond quickly to changes in the environment or the organisation's performance. If an indicator has a very small range of variation, its use may be limited as it may not be able to capture significant changes in performance. For example, if an organisation is trying to improve customer satisfaction, a measure sensitive to changes in customer feedback would be more useful than a measure that changes only slightly in response to significant improvements or declines. By choosing sensitive metrics, organisations can more accurately track their performance and quickly respond to environmental changes.
- *Lack of internal "disincentives"*, i.e., when choosing performance indicators, it is significant to consider the potential for creating negative incentives. It means that metrics should not encourage behaviour counter-productive or harmful to the organisation. For example, if a metric rewards employee for completing tasks quickly but does not consider the quality of their work, employees may

rush through tasks and sacrifice quality to meet the metric. It can lead to errors, customer complaints, and decreased overall productivity. By choosing metrics that do not create negative incentives, organisations can encourage behaviour consistent with their goals and values and avoid harmful or counter-productive behaviour.

- *Flexibility for innovation*, i.e., when developing a performance measurement system, it is significant to ensure that it does not inhibit innovation or the introduction of new methods, systems or processes. It means that metrics must be flexible enough to accommodate changes and improvements in the organisation. For example, if a new technology becomes available that can significantly improve an organisation's performance, performance indicators should not discourage the adoption of that technology. By providing flexibility in performance measures, organisations can encourage innovation and the introduction of new ideas that can lead to improvements in the quality and quantity of services they provide.
- *Update rate*, i.e., when developing performance indicators, it is significant to consider the update rate of the data used for measurement. It means that the data used to calculate the indicators must be available promptly so that decisions made based on it are not based on outdated or inaccurate data. For example, if an organisation uses a metric to measure customer satisfaction, the data used to calculate the metric must be collected and analysed regularly so that the organisation can quickly respond to changes in customer satisfaction. If the data used to calculate the metric is out of date, the organisation may make decisions based on inaccurate information, which can lead to poor performance and negative outcomes. By ensuring that the data used to calculate metrics is kept up to date, organisations can make informed decisions that lead to improved performance and bottom-line results.

Implementing a results-based management system requires careful consideration of risks and constraints. Significantly, to create reliable and unbiased performance measures, as a poorly designed system can have serious consequences. An effective evaluation system increases transparency critical to avoiding bureaucracy and unproductive processes. By defining performance indicators, activities can be better understood and their purpose can be clarified. It can increase transparency and motivation to innovate. The introduction of performance evaluation procedures can improve the quality of decision-making in both organisations and government agencies.



## 7.5 How does the implementation of government decisions end?

The need to understand the essence of this stage is caused by several factors:

- the need to formulate the effectiveness and fruitfulness of a certain result, evaluate (re-evaluate) the initially used methods and principles for regulating the initial task, form conclusions and their adoption when creating new tasks in the future;
- the need for timely detection just like suppression in the future, of incorrect management practices discovered when solving certain problems;
- the need to discover and disseminate positive management practices observed as a result of solving certain problems;
- the need to recognise the methods of management activities of government employees who participate in regulating this range of tasks.

Thus, based on practical experience, the following principles are fundamental for completing management decisions:

- 1) intuitive;
- 2) references to precedents;
- 3) consideration of similar problems and their solutions;
- 4) expression of individual preferences;
- 5) rational (mathematical, cost and other scientific);
- 6) incremental (aimed at a certain percentage of improvement of the situation);
- 7) mixed-scanning (involve the preparation of practical recommendations based on the application of a basic one that determines the situation in the general theoretical system);
- 8) experimental;
- 9) value-ideological and mythological (which include the introduction of stable multi-species norms).

Since the basic persons in the decision-making sphere are people from the immediate environment, the recognition results are closely related to the type of relationships (assistants, advisers, experts, etc.) in a specific management environment.

These groups often include people from the inner circle who take part in a fairly extensive (by the standards of a specific area) consideration of the task, prepare documents, acts and materials according to the requirement standards in a specific area, for the favourable completion of the matter or task.

Based on this, at some decision-making levels, ambiguity affects the actions of management bodies, in some situations' percentage, it has a bad effect on the

achievement of already set goals and serves as a tool for fragmenting management actions.

As a necessary measure, the management system does not include the goal, but it is precisely that dictates the actions of its institutions, the necessary changes in structure, innovation, limiting or adding resources and other principles of interaction between management bodies.

The system for creating management decisions involves setting precisely defined, interconnected time and place and, most significantly, based on the specific content of future tasks. However, even in this situation, targeted methods will, to varying degrees, reflect the features of the scale of management regulation, providing certain boundaries.

The management decisions implementation stage completion can be assessed in different ways.

Firstly, from a factual viewpoint, this stage completion can only be realised if the target indicators are truly achieved, independent of exceeding the work deadlines. However, the approach based on formal principles is worth considering more legitimate. It is because, upon completion of the designated time frame for solving the problem, funding for the project ends and, in some situations, the corresponding powers of the persons and structures involved in its implementation are terminated. Based on this, to continue actions to solve this problem, in fact, a new decision must be made, either extending the previous conditions of implementation or establishing other boundaries for management activities.

One of the biggest challenges in summarising the implementation of solutions is that there are different evaluation criteria, e.g., specialists recognise that management cannot apply some unified approaches that can reflect satisfaction with its actions on the part of various layers.

Based on this, management constantly solves the problem of creating a balanced system with satisfactory indicators, trying to combine the principles of political (reflecting the nature of the mechanisms for selecting goals, project financing, level of management), portfolio (evaluating the productivity of specific types of activities, the quality of results, etc.), just like programmatic (related to specific target indicators) assessment.

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## Part 8.

### Monitoring the implementation of government management decisions

- 8.1 The effectiveness of government decisions and the significance of control
  - 8.2 Monitoring the implementation of government decisions
  - 8.3 Levels of control over the processes of execution of government decisions
  - 8.4 Forms of control at the stage of execution of government decisions
  - 8.5 Control and management of political risks
- List of information sources

#### 8.1 The effectiveness of government decisions and the significance of control

In the framework of the previous topic, we have established how we can check the decision effectiveness. We concluded that the indicator of the quality of any activity is its practical result. What is the result, such, in procedural terms, is the activity of which it is a consequence? Hence, the more the final results of the direct implementation of planned actions correspond to the initial goals of government decisions, the higher we can assess the quality of public administration as a whole. If the results do inadequately adequately to the set goals then, logically, the management activities quality may be questionable.

For a government decision to be effective, it is necessary to monitor the process of its execution. Without control, it is impossible to accurately determine whether the decision has been fulfilled and whether the problematic issues that the decision was aimed at have been resolved. Concerning the system of public administration, control is a check of the quality of management activities by comparing the actual results of this activity with the goals set in regulations when solving urgent social problems, just like with the achieved level of solving these problems. Control, as the final stage when working with government decisions, allows not only to identify but also to prevent deviations, errors and shortcomings, to look for new reserves and opportunities. With the help of control, official supervision (supervision) of the process of implementing a state decision is performed, and the results of the influence of the management subject on the management object in the specific historical circumstances of their interaction are revealed. At the same time, acting as a means of feedback, control gives the control subsystem the necessary information about the facts of planned

or deviant behaviour of the controlled subsystem. By identifying deviations and their causes, the control determines the necessary ways to adjust further management activities, contributes to the development of various forms of optimisation and the achievement of successes that ultimately improve citizens' life quality.

The control of the execution of government decisions technologically includes four main phases:

- considering the results achieved;
- comparison of these results with the goals set in the management acts;
- assessment of the scope, level and degree of resolution of an urgent social problem;
- adjustment and optimisation of further management activities.

The third and fourth phases are often overlooked during monitoring, which is an obvious omission. At the same time, public administration effectiveness (or quality) is determined not by the simple correspondence of the actual results to the planned goals but precisely by how well it satisfies social needs when solving (removing) actual social problems. The faster and more fully emerging or long-standing social problems are solved, the greater the citizens' satisfaction degree with the ways and results of solving issues of concern to them and the higher the quality of public administration.

There are three main levels of control:

- state;
- municipal;
- public (civil).

State and municipal control, along with its public forms, is necessary for society, as it allows for checking the effectiveness of government decisions from the viewpoint of public interests and civic needs. Moreover, control sets the very possibility of implementing decisions made in the state, which is especially significant for our country, where, as we noted above, there is often an accumulation of "deferred problems" due to the "hanging in the air" of decisions made. Therefore, control should accompany every decision, in the preparation, adoption and implementation of which political leaders and executive officials participate. Permanent state-municipal and public (including party) control is one of the necessary conditions for the optimal implementation of management decisions, the entire state and social management as a whole.

The specific role that public (civil) control should play in making and executing government decision processes is not always understood and understood correctly by everyone. Acting in the form of citizens' monitoring of the fulfilment by authorities of their obligations to society, civil control is the embodiment of the public, open nature of the policy implemented in a democratic state. Such control is aimed at strengthening the conscious political participation of an individual, group, or community in matters of national significance – participation based on a full understanding of the essence of the problem and focused on the need to remove (resolve) it. Moreover, in the political process of monitoring the state of affairs in the state, the citizens' participation ensures the maintenance of communication between society and the state, and the ability to somehow control the activities of authorities is a necessary condition for the development of a modern rule of law and a mature civil society.

In developed countries, civil control is an interaction cycle element between government and society. Public authorities take action – citizens react – the government responds to the society's reaction – and citizens react again. It is exactly a cycle, not a simple cycle: the result is progress along the path of social progress. In general, the activities of civil control institutions in developed countries are aimed at assisting citizens in the performance of their functions by state authorities and management, and they are often performed by delegating their powers to specialists and professionals in this field. Civil control in developing (transit) countries, which, according to some experts, still includes Russia, does not differ too much in goals, technologies and conditions of implementation from control in developed countries, but for several reasons is not too proactive.

The main forms of public surveillance in such countries are the control of citizens over cases of abuse of authority and obvious arbitrariness on the part of the authorities. However, in the civil control system, this is only the initial, albeit significant, stage of work. Therefore, those who believe that the processes of formation of the modern content and forms of cyclical civil control in developing societies are much more difficult for citizens themselves to understand than within the framework of a proven control structure in developed countries, although most of the functions of public policy in transition countries are not always performed effectively.

In modern Russia, there is still a weakness in civic participation and an underdevelopment of mechanisms for monitoring civil associations over the activities of government bodies. According to many critics from the opposition camp, the socio-political system functioning in our country in many ways still does

not meet the general democratic criteria. The most significant of them is the representativeness of the government (reflecting the existing configuration of political forces in it) and its responsibility to society (the latter is supported by the presence of an effective system of public inspection of public authorities). The legislative base of civil and public control in our country is still represented by fewer official documents and orders, although it has grown in recent years. The system of Councils under the President of the Russian Federation, including the Council for Promoting the Development of Civil Society Institutions and Human Rights, established in 2004, can be identified as legislatively fixed elements of civil control in our country. It should also be noted that the Public Chamber of the Russian Federation, established in 2005 and supplemented during its existence by a whole system of regional and local public chambers capable of influencing government decision-making processes and drawing the attention of the authorities to cases and facts of their unfair execution. Within the framework of the legislative framework of civil control, the adoption in 2008 of the Federal Law “On Public Control over the Observance of Human Rights in Places of Forced Detention and on Assistance to Persons in Places of Forced Detention” should be particularly noted. However, we can hardly dispute the fact that the current legislative framework in Russia is still insufficient for effective control over public authorities. Since the implementation of comprehensive and responsible monitoring of compliance by the executive branch with the rights and interests of citizens is possible only based on a scientifically sound and well-developed legislative framework, the task of strengthening and expanding it is not removed from the agenda.

It is difficult to exaggerate the significance of civil control over the implementation of adopted and planned state decisions in our country, since the direct participation of citizens in the political sphere of society is the core to human potential development, and the restriction of a person in exercising his right to observe the observance of his rights and freedoms by authorities and officials leads to a restriction of personal (subjective) political potential. The implementation of civil control forms an active personality with a conscious and active civic position and educates her qualities that become the basis and support of a developed civil society. Therefore, the future development of the institutions of the rule of law and the possibilities of a mature civil society in Russia in the 21st century will largely depend on how effective the mechanisms of public control over public authorities are in our country.

Thus, using the example of Russia, we have analysed the significance of some forms of control over the implementation of government decisions. It is clear that

with the development of democratic principles in our country and the improvement of the system of state and municipal administration, the number of citizens and organisations exercising direct and indirect control over the course of public processes will increase, while the intensity of state efforts aimed at the inclusiveness of control measures, with increasing awareness, political subjectivity and economic independence of citizens, it will gradually decrease. However, the state is unlikely to fully outsource control over the implementation of its own decisions in the foreseeable future. In particular, the loss of opportunities to monitor the activities of those who are engaged in the execution of decisions, receiving a variety of information about the real state of affairs anywhere and at any time will mean the first step towards turning the state into an incompetent one. In this regard, there is a reason to pay special attention to ways to monitor the implementation of government decisions.

## **8.2 Monitoring the implementation of government decisions**

In its most general form, monitoring is the observation, assessment, and forecast of the state and development of a phenomenon. The term “tracking” is synonymous with the word monitoring, which means checking, studying, and observing. Monitoring does not involve a one-time study but some tracking sequence that allows you to study the analysis object in development. Monitoring focuses on the process of execution of government decisions and not just evaluates the results. It makes it possible to determine where and at what stage of execution the state decision was activated or failed, where the weak links are and which of the performers copes with the tasks set to the best extent.

The monitoring should correspond to the established stages of its implementation. The monitoring stages follow from the logic of the development of the phenomenon under study:

*In the first stage*, the research object is selected, the goals are specified, and the chronological framework for tracking is determined.

*In the second stage*, the research hypothesis is indicated, i.e., the expected results are formulated. In the case of government decisions, the hypothesis is the goals approved by the plan and the desired results of the decision.

As part of the third stage, it is necessary to identify and classify the sources of information and methods of its systematisation and processing. The optimal form variant, final materials content and frequency are selected.

Monitoring of government decisions implies obtaining data on the quantifiable values of measurable indicators relevant to the purpose of public policy, which



characterise the state of the management object with all possible accuracy. As government decisions are implemented, these indicators either move away from the targets (if management is ineffective) or approach them. Various parameters are subject to monitoring:

- targets;
- resource indicators (expenditure of planned funds);
- time parameters (compliance with the network schedule of policy execution);
- side effects and indicators combined with other government policies.

As a result, together, a complex indicator of the success of the country's progress and its constituent parts towards achieving the designated strategic goals is monitored. Depending on the nature of the indicator, the following types of monitoring of the execution of government decisions are distinguished:

- direct for formalised parameters.
- indirect computable.
- estimated for poorly formalised parameters.

Direct monitoring is based on statistical data and opinion polls. Indirect indicators, which, in practice, are most often expressed in indices, are calculated using direct monitoring data. Weakly formalised, non-formalised judgments (assessments) are based on expert opinion and data from special sociological surveys. The fundamental, qualitative difference between expert assessment is that it includes such a difficult-to-formalise aspect as the professional competence of an expert.

Direct monitoring is based on statistical data. It is worth noting here that it is not always possible to monitor the implementation of government decisions since many data are in private access. In addition, statistical indicators are influenced by purely political factors and subjective, i.e., human relations. According to the tradition established in the hierarchies of the bureaucratic service, a subordinate almost always tries to please his superiors, hence the postscript, distortion of the statistical information received and, as a result, a decrease in the effectiveness and adequacy of monitoring. Statistical monitoring is accompanied by comparing the data obtained with similar indicators of other states or policies at previous stages of historical development. Indirect monitoring of computable indicators is methodologically related to computable indicators, i.e., empirical data – statistics – and mathematical apparatus are used to determine indirect characteristics. For example, the degree of economic diversification is an indicator calculated based on several statistical data sets. The state economic diversification policy assessment (e.g., “liberation from the oil needle”, i.e., reducing the dependence of

the budget on revenues earned from the export of raw materials) can be done by analysing statistical data on oil prices and the size of public investments. In modern Russian practice, the correlation coefficient between these two indicators is significantly greater than zero it is approaching one. It means that the degree of dependence of the Russian economy on oil exports has not decreased yet, and sometimes it increases.

In addition, it is significant that indirect monitoring allows you to operate with data that can be numerically expressed in different quantities but, at the same time, very significant indicators of any complex social process. For example, indirect monitoring of government decisions in the field of demographic policy makes it possible to analyse the birth rate, mortality, life expectancy and migration balance and create and construct an indicator that characterises the quality, effectiveness and effectiveness of state demographic policy. If the birth rate is rising and life expectancy is falling, then the government policy can hardly be characterised positively.

Expert evaluation of poorly formalised indicators also has specifics: experts who evaluate poorly formalised indicators of a complex social system, naturally, as a rule, are guided by a holistic list of statistical and complex integral indicators, just like a subjective set of other considerations. This type of monitoring is the broadest in terms of choosing the objects of probable research. For example, a group of experts assessed the change in Russia's status from a superpower to a failed state in seven areas of foreign policy implementation: foreign economic, cultural and value, political, scientific and technological, military, information and manipulative, and in terms of foreign policy targeting. The estimates allow the authors to assert that Russia is below the level of a regional power, although reality and what are called "considerations of formal logic" indicate that the Russian Federation, in terms of resource availability, geopolitical position, scientific potential, and, in the end, historical experience, has the right to count on the position of a great or, at least, a regional power.

It is worth noting that these monitoring study examples were done before 2014 when very serious changes began to occur and are taking place in Russia's political, economic, and social status on the world stage. Here, it should emphasise that the monitoring approach itself is by no means universal: no matter how accurate the monitoring data were, it would hardly be possible to accurately and unambiguously predict the current state of affairs in Russia. Historically, the political leadership of our country does not always pay attention to the data of monitoring scientific research, which can lead to extremely negative consequences. Well-placed monitoring, of course, requires well-organised

analytical services (e.g., situation centres), just like the degree of trust between society and the state, in which possible cooperation between them is born.

### **8.3 Levels of control over the processes of execution of government decisions**

Concerning the executing state decision process, experts believe that two control levels should be kept in mind: state and public (civil). The state and its bodies perform state control. Professionally trained civil and other employees mainly staff them. Civil society, individual citizens and their associations (e.g., parties, fronts, activists, specific non-profit and non-governmental organisations) perform public or non-governmental control. At the same time, what is significant, public control over the activities of political leaders and civil servants must also be legitimate, i.e., legalised and law-abiding.

State control as a system of management actions is, in fact, nothing more than a mirror image of planning. The availability of a clear, complete and integrated plan for implementing the solution determines the possibility of effective control. Before proceeding with actions to implement the decision, it is necessary to obtain an agreed permission for this, develop and adopt as complete and detailed plans as possible, establish principles and standards of activity, and discuss the specifics of tasks with performers.

In practice, as a rule, two approaches are used to control public management decisions: before and after its implementation. Control systems built on the “before implementation” principle help to avoid mistakes. Any controlling influence purpose is to identify weaknesses and errors to avoid them, and if this fails, then find ways to correct them and, at the same time, create such conditions that mistakes do not repeat. The second control type contains an algorithm of actions such as checking the results obtained, comparing the costs of obtaining them with the budget, expectations, and preliminary estimates, and making approvals or adjustments. Here, “after the implementation of the solution is completed”, the control actions are more variable.

If deviations from the planned indicators are found during the control of the execution of the decision, then an analysis of the discrepancies is performed and a plan of corrective measures is made. Conducting them makes it possible to compare the planned and actual results of activities to make sure that the efforts directed are sufficient and, at the same time, necessary. If the achieved indicators cannot be considered satisfactory, the search for an effective solution is resumed (usually at the initiative of a higher authority).

It is incorrect, however, to assume that supervisory functions should be concentrated in organisations at the top of the hierarchical pyramid. Managers at various levels are responsible for implementing decisions, whose responsibilities include some activities implementation defined in the plan. For control to be performed effectively, it is necessary not only to delineate the responsibilities of managers at all levels and performers but also clear, coordinated work.

To verify financial transactions, compliance with administrative procedures, product quality, service provision, etc., control based on the establishment of standards is applied. This control is performed by comparing the actual results of activities with standards and, if necessary, correcting deviations from plans and standards. Standards are criteria for the effectiveness of work. The criteria must be essential for the correct movement towards the goal of the activity, achievable, related to the appropriate awarding and punishment of performers, sufficiently understandable, strict and, at the same time, flexible.

The most reliable standards are quantitative or qualitative descriptions of goals and objectives that can be verified. These criteria include accounting for time, accounting for spatial changes, and accounting for financial and material resources spent on the implementation of a government decision. There are also monetary standards for evaluating the effectiveness of activities, while any programme or operation implementation and effectiveness degree is estimated in monetary terms. Such standards include the budget, estimates of income and expenses, cost standards, capital standards, profitability standards and others.

Determining the government decisions' implementation effectiveness by comparing them with standards is a high-quality public administration basis. If it is possible to establish quantitative standards and compare them with the results of activities, calculating the allowed deviations gives an accurate definition of work efficiency.

It should emphasise that control should not be an end in itself, and the implementation costs should be paid off by increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of achieving social results. The control system is worth building according to the type of activity and focuses on core and problematic points. The total control system, which the state government usually tends to, is uneconomical and useless. However, in most cases, it is impossible to measure the cost-effectiveness of monitoring the implementation of decisions in the state and municipal service activities. The need for control is justified by the degree of significance of government decisions or tasks of local significance and determined most often by the scale of the proposed transformations and the amount of costs

that will have to be borne if control is not performed in a timely and high-quality manner.

Thus, supervisory control over the implementation of government decisions has significant distinctive features. Careful and flexible control of its execution ensures the state decision implementation effectiveness in a democracy. Achieving targets at any cost in the long term is not always justified. The political leader responsible for the implementation of a political decision should have the right to manoeuvre resources, make operational changes to the action plan according to the situation and, in addition, reverse incorrect and unsuccessful management decisions.

What is public or, in other words, civil control? Can it be commensurate with the effectiveness of the state? Should it be permanent or be used sporadically to suit the political situation? These are far from idle questions. Civil control is the activity of public organisations and various kinds of initiative groups to check varied aspects of the activities of public authorities, its bodies and officials for compliance with their actions with accepted economic, law, political and social norms, just like making demands for the recognition of mistakes, for the elimination of identified violations, up to the change of insolvent leaders and liquidation of discredited authorities. Hence, the fundamental principles of civil control are freedom, independence, accessibility, objectivity, publicity, etc.

Civil control over the implementation of government decisions is one of the most complex civil technologies available to social movements and parties of non-profit / non-governmental organisations that have some rights and obligations, sufficient material resources, and significant expert and managerial potential. The specific purpose of civil control is to promote the effectiveness of decisions taken by state and local government bodies, state and municipal organisations and institutions, and municipal and state officials. The objects of civil control include the apparatus of government bodies responsible for government decisions: state authorities, other state bodies, local self-government bodies, and officials of all listed bodies, just like interstate (supranational) authorities. The subject of civil control is the public in a broad sense, motivated by the ideas of social change and having various embodiments, namely: politically active citizens, public associations independent of public authorities and having their own resource sources independent of public funds; the subject here is the system of political (and above all state) management.

V.R. Schmidt refers to the stages of civil control for solving a specific task:

- problem definition, object selection, goal definition;

- definition of control methods;
- reaching the necessary agreements;
- preparation of the programme, definition of the main issues and preliminary evaluation criteria, preparation of tools;
- conducting civil control activities;
- evaluation of the information received;
- presentation of the control results.

Methods of public control include the following:

- surveillance (e.g., at a polling station, at a recruiting office, for the execution of judicial procedures);
- analysis of available documents and materials, official statistics;
- field studies (whether announcements about the time of admission of citizens are posted, whether there are ramps for the disabled, etc.);
- visiting a welfare or correction institution, examining conditions in them;
- collection of complaints, appeals, and statements;
- conversations, interviews, focus groups;
- public examinations (including court decisions);
- experiment (how to get an appointment with an official, make an appointment with a dentist, etc.);
- civil investigation;
- monitoring;
- other.

Based on the above features and characteristics of public (civil) control, an unambiguous conclusion can be drawn: the presence of a functioning institution of civil control as a form of direct interaction between public structures and public authorities in public policy is an indispensable condition for improving the effectiveness of public administration. The main condition for the functioning of the institution of civil control is the regular interaction of the subjects of the political process during the preparation, adoption and implementation of socially significant decisions, just like the settlement of contradictions and conflicts arising in this regard.

#### **8.4 Forms of control at the stage of execution of government decisions**

At the stage of execution of government decisions, the forms of control depend on the bearer of control powers no less than on a set of one way or another

established rules of a formal and informal nature, on which the controller relies and to the content of which he appeals.

The management decisions' execution stage is a complex and long process that can be divided into several stages.

*Creating criteria for selecting performers, searching and selecting the performers themselves who will meet the necessary criteria highlighted above*

At this stage, we identify specific people who will implement our management decision in practice. Each specific solution requires a specific selection of performers since all solutions have their specific features and characteristics that should be considered when searching for candidates. After we have fully formed the composition of the performers, we need to train them in specialised programmes, formulate the specific goals that they will fulfil in the process of implementing the management decision, and also set deadlines. Also, you need to make sure that all performers clearly understand their tasks and that in the end, they will all come together to the necessary common denominator.

*Structuring and combining available resources to execute the solution*

We create various kinds of plans, instructions, recommendations, templates, reporting forms and so on. Such tools will help us in the future to quickly build communication between performers, so we will have a clear idea of what communication channels are built in front of us and where exactly we can get the desired information. It is extremely undesirable to skip this stage – problems may arise that will delay the implementation of the solution and also reduce the efficiency of the entire process as a whole, since at this stage, we create some basis for further work.

*Bringing together people and other resources*

During this stage, it is significant to deal with the following tasks: establish standards for labour costs for each performer, just like standards for the expenditure of time, resources and so on. In this case, it is necessary to establish such a balance between the resources' expenditure (both human and material) and the quality of the output product so that our management decision is profitable and not unprofitable for the state or government body. In other words, we need to get back more than we put in.

*Implementation of the solution in practice*

At this stage, we create legal, personnel, organisational material and technical conditions for the successful management decision implementation. We take another look at what we have already created and make some necessary

adjustments to the process. Summarising all the accumulated experience in the course of preparing for the decision execution, we find for ourselves the most profitable trajectory, which we will adhere to throughout the entire work process.

#### *Monitoring the progress of decision execution*

Let us pay special attention to this stage since it is this stage that will be touched upon most often in this topic. The essence of control at the management decision execution stage is to analyse the existing results with how we imagine the final product and, accordingly, to evaluate what has been achieved. Based on the analysis performed, we form some “feedback” on the work of the performers, be sure to inform them about our results and give specific instructions regarding growth areas that will be reflected in practice in further work. This stage is very significant for the entire process since correcting errors at the stage of their inception is much easier than later correcting serious consequences that arose during the incorrect understanding of the action plan.

#### *Summing up, analysing and comparing the result obtained with the “ideal”*

We again analyse everything received, evaluate the resources expended, and formulate the disadvantages and advantages of management decisions in the public sphere. If the solution is successful, we can further introduce it to wider levels (e.g., in other government bodies).

All the stages mentioned above, of course, are enveloped in such a concept as control – this is the activity of the subjects of control aimed at implementing decisions made by implementing some tasks, principles, methods, and the use of technical means and control technologies.

To exercise control means, on the one hand, setting standards, to measure the actual results achieved and their deviations from established standards; on the other hand, to monitor the management decision implementation progress and evaluate the results achieved during their implementation. Thus, control is needed so that we can learn about deviations promptly and react in the right way to their occurrence.

Let us consider the types of control over the management decisions execution:

*The first type is preliminary control.* This type of control is called preliminary because it is performed before the actual start of any planned work.

*The main means of implementing preliminary control is the implementation of certain rules, procedures and behaviour trajectories.* Since behavioural rules, trajectories and lines are developed to ensure the implementation of plans, their strict adherence is a way to ensure that the work is performed in a given direction and will continue to



adhere to this direction. As an example, we can cite the student actions aimed at eliminating outstanding assignments at the end of the semester before the start of the session. Another example is the delivery of a trial batch of products to a store to identify demand for the product and the need to purchase several batches further for wholesale sale throughout the country/city.

*The next type is current control, which is performed directly during the work.* Most often, its target is subordinate employees. Regularly checking the work of subordinates and discussing emerging problems and proposals for improving work will eliminate deviations from planned plans and instructions. Also, at this stage, we can involve “feedback” from employees in the process of improving the solution. A look “from the inside” always helps to more fully assess the effectiveness of the decision made, since from the outside the manager may not notice obvious difficulties and hitches in their implementation.

*And final control is when the actual results obtained are compared with the required ones either immediately after the completion of the controlled activity or after a predetermined period of time.* Results of different periods can also be compared with each other to understand whether there is a positive dynamic of change after the implementation of the management decision.

Although final control occurs too late to react to problems as they arise, it nevertheless has two significant functions:

- provides management with the information necessary for planning if similar work is expected to be performed in the future. This procedure also allows you to obtain information about problems that have arisen and formulate new plans to avoid these problems in the future. Thus, this will help us implement our solution everywhere with minimal costs and maximum output efficiency.
- promotes motivation. If the management of an organisation associates motivational rewards with achieving a certain level of performance, then, obviously, the actual performance achieved must be measured accurately and objectively.

There is also such a control type over the execution of management decisions as passive. It lies in the fact that during it, we do not interfere with the process itself but only observe from the outside. Roughly speaking, this is a check on the execution of the decision. On the contrary, there is also an active type of control. On the contrary, it assumes that we intervene and check the implementation of functional responsibilities.

In addition, control can be divided into general and specific. The first concerns all controlled object activity areas, and the second concerns only any aspect of its activity.

Control in the sphere of management is further divided into external (which includes presidential, parliamentary and judicial, just like control by executive authorities), internal (performed by authorised bodies that are already part of the public administration system) and self-control (performed by the subject of management himself) for the progress and results of their activities, self-check).

Control in execution of management decisions can be systematic. This control type is performed according to a clear calendar (plan), so it is easier for the controlled subject to “prepare” for this type of control. Because of this, a discussion arises about its effectiveness – is it worth introducing this type of control if it is not the most effective and distorts the results of the real state of the process? On the contrary, this type of control has an alternative – episodic control. They turn to him when a special need arises – an unfavourable situation in any unit, a clear deviation from the intended trajectory, etc. Effective control always combines these two types, since each of them has its own advantages and disadvantages. This can be helped, e.g., by the risk-based control method, which assumes that organisations (or in our case, various government bodies) have their own “control history”, and the more often various kinds of errors and inconsistencies arise in their work, the more often they are subject to verification by the relevant authorities.

Each of the above types of control has its pros and cons. It is also worth noting that control should not be neglected; it may create the impression that there is distrust in lower-level structures in the authorities, which can negatively affect the quality of work of employees, just like their motivation to work. It is necessary to find a balance point at which the checks’ direction correctness will be observed, but also that these checks will be sufficient to ensure that the process of executing the decision is going smoothly and without complaints. There is rare control, e.g., it can “relax” employees, especially those, who have a poorly developed sense of responsibility. Such control can be regarded as a signal for unpunished abuses.

The principle of relinquishing control and encouraging self-control favours the development of public authorities. It develops a sense of independence and responsibility. But do not forget that self-control can and should be used only when the system is well-functioning.

Another separate and distinguished type of control in the public sphere is public control. It is one of the external types of control since it is performed by subjects who, in fact, do not participate in the process of execution of decisions. Public

control ensures the publicity of the policies of a democratic state, such as the Russian Federation. However, in our country, public control is still at the implementation stage and does not always play a significant role. Currently, multiple attempts are made to expand the civil control functioning range over the activities of public authorities since this control type is very promising and multifunctional. Firstly, it enhances the citizens' political participation awareness in government. Secondly, it enhances the transparency of public authorities and their work making the possibility of errors and risk factors less accessible. Thirdly, public control "brings together" the government and the population since we have one common goal to make the public administration process the most effective for the sake of a common successful result in the future.

The control purpose is to ensure unity of decision and execution, to prevent possible deviations and errors at an early stage to avoid further difficult-to-solve problems. It is also significant that in the control process, not only the process weaknesses are identified, but also the advantages of implementing this kind of solution, which makes it possible to consider growth areas for a specific management subject.

### **8.5 Control and management of political risks**

In the course of making and implementing government decisions, political leadership has to face various political risks in one way or another and, therefore, their management is an integral part of the public administration system. What are political risks? Political risk is the likelihood of the occurrence in a country (in a region, in a municipality) of unaccounted-for, unforeseen and unpredictable political phenomena, events or factors that, contrary to expectations, can have a favourable or negative impact on managerial, economic and other areas of activity. Such political factors include, e.g., levels of stability / instability of the political regime, facts of political unrest, corruption, crime, unemployment, the emergence of new leaders or the departure of old ones. It is on these factors that economic successes and failures depend (the amount of expected profit, the cost of projects, the likelihood of loss of capital, etc.), public attitudes and sentiments, the level of trust in society, and much more.

Political risk is a phenomenon that manifests itself in various ways in different spheres of society.

First, it includes both the likely adverse and positive consequences of political activity. Events occurring, e.g., in the country where investments are made, may entail not only the possibility of losses but also "open up" new opportunities. The

presence of possible losses and favourable consequences in political risk allows us to talk about risk as an orientation of the subject of activity towards success and not just towards failure. It is significant for the political risk management procedure. If the identified consequences of decisions are unfavourable, then the actions of those making them are worth aiming at reducing the likelihood of the occurrence of the cause contributing to their occurrence (preventive actions). If potential consequences are favourable, then measures are developed to increase the likelihood of these consequences occurring (promoting actions).

Secondly, it is an integral element of political processes and relations between subjects of social life and acts as a regulator of these relations, being a form of “adaptation” to an alternative, uncertain reality. Risk assessment and management make it possible to predict political events and avoid conflicts and sudden unfavourable political changes. One of the areas of manifestation of political risk is economic processes and relations. Analysis of this aspect of risk allows us to obtain information about non-economic factors having an indirect impact on market development, deterioration or improvement of the country’s investment climate.

Thirdly, political risk is associated with management activities. In this sense, it represents a way for subjects to actively relate to political reality. In this case, the risk appears as an activity during which it is possible to assess the likelihood of achieving the desired result, just like failures and deviations from the goal.

Political risk, as a structural phenomenon, includes main components, which can also be called varieties. A special place here is occupied by risks caused by the current tax system and legislation in the country. This is a “legal or regulatory risk”. It includes losses and gains associated with changes in tax legislation, the emergence of government regulations, decrees at various levels of government, and changes in the socio-political and economic situation in the country (region).

In addition to the legal aspect, political risk includes the possibility of losses or gains due to the following circumstances:

- change of government, personnel changes in the government;
- impossibility of considering economic activities due to revolution, military operations, confiscation of investments, property of a given company;
- the refusal of the new government to fulfill the obligations assumed by its predecessors; restrictions on the conversion of national currency into payment currency;

- increased political unrest, social tension, increased unemployment, just like opposition to the activities of government bodies, increased levels of corruption, crime, etc.

Knowledge of these types of political risk is necessary to solve the practical problem of selecting non-economic factors (variables), determining their structure and conducting their systematic assessment, i.e., to perform procedures for analysing and assessing political risk.

The presence of political risk implies the need to take actions called political risk accounting. This methodology includes four sequential stages: analysis, assessment, forecasting, and risk management.

In the process of analysing political risk, it is necessary to conduct a systematic analysis of the subject (country, region, municipality). It requires solving three main problems:

- identify political, economic and other risk factors related to a given country (region);
- establish the structural relationship of these factors;
- classify them.

For this, it is necessary to collect reliable information about the country (or part of it) of interest to the researcher. Based on such information, political, socio-economic and spiritual-value factors (variables) that can have a negative or positive impact on the result of achieving the goal are identified. Document analysis methods, sociological surveys, expert assessments and others are used to collect information.

Once the political risk variables have been identified and classified, the “political risk assessment” (or “systemic risk factor assessment”) procedure proceeds. As a result of its implementation, the degree of significance of the previously selected factors, their ratio and their “weight” is determined. Four main groups of methods are used to assess political risk:

- quantitative methods;
- Delphi expert methods, methods of “old acquaintances”, “grand tours”, “inspection trips of experts” used for qualitative assessment;
- quantitative-qualitative methods,
- intuitive methods.

As a result of the global political risk assessment, each country receives its own index. It allows you to compare various countries and select the least risky countries and regions, e.g., for investment. Typically, the lower a country’s index,

the greater the uncertainty and, therefore, the greater the risk. Countries in the risk index range between 80 and 50 are classified as having an “acceptable level of risk”, while those in the range between 30 and 50 are classified as having an “unacceptable level of risk”.

The third of the above research stages is called political risk forecasting. What is the procedure for making forecasts regarding political risk? It, as experts emphasise, includes the development of probable scenarios for the development of the political situation in the country under study with justification of the consequences that may arise. Typically, four scenarios are developed:

*Scenario 1* provides for the strategy and tactics of the customer (company, government agency) behaviour under the most favourable course of events in the analysed country.

*Scenario 2* realises under generally favourable conditions.

*Scenario 3* considers the specific steps the customer will take if operating conditions do not fully correspond to what is expected to be “favourable conditions in general”.

*Scenario 4* considers events that could lead to catastrophic consequences if the development of the political and economic situation is unfavourable.

Members of the expert group involved in the development of scenarios vote (usually secretly) to determine the likelihood of events developing for each scenario. The script with the most votes returns to a secret vote among the group. The main ideas of the scenario that received the majority of votes are reflected in the report for the customer’s management.

The final stage of the study is the procedure for managing political risk. In its most general form, risk management includes the organisational and administrative measures planning and implementation aimed at reducing the magnitude of risk and enhancing positive opportunities. Various specialists are used to solve these problems:

- employees of state foreign policy departments;
- freelance consultants from among prominent scientists from leading universities and non-governmental research centers, former employees of special services;
- lobbyists of foreign countries;
- advisors are citizens of foreign countries.

When talking about the process of managing political risk, it must be borne in mind that the development of a budget is necessary to perform this activity.

The political risk management procedure includes some actions and appropriate technologies.

Development of documents (instructions, decrees, laws) ensuring the implementation of the chosen strategy and tactics for managing political risk situations.

Risk management presupposes the need to rank risks according to the principle of acceptability in relation to the country (region):

- the risk is completely acceptable (e.g., the political risk index of a country or region is 60-80);
- the risk is partially acceptable (index is 50-59);
- the risk is unacceptable (index is 30-49).

To manage political risk, it is advisable to use a multiplicative approach to managing relevant political processes and phenomena. This approach is aimed at obtaining a multiplying effect in the process of managing the political sphere.

A contingency plan can be used to manage political risk, i.e., to reduce the likelihood of adverse consequences occurring and increase the likelihood of expected outcomes.

To manage risk, techniques and methods such as obtaining additional information, evasion, and localisation are also possible. "Evasion" includes the refusal of risky financial projects and untested partners. "Localisation" is implemented through creating special units to perform medium- and high-risk projects. To reduce risk in the process of developing and implementing solutions, obtaining additional information is used. Such information can be purchased (e.g., information about a country's political risk) or obtained in some other way (e.g., industrial, military, economic espionage).

To manage various factors of political risk, methods focused on maintaining risk at the existing level – obtaining credits and loans to compensate for losses, receiving government subsidies, and creating risk funds – are used. Insurance plays a significant role in the risk management system. Typically, specific financial and credit institutions specialising in insuring political risks assume risks. These include, e.g., Eximbank (USA), Gemes (Germany), Coface (France), G-Exim (Japan), OPIC, MIGA, European Bank for Reconstruction and Development. They undertake some risk insurance obligations, usually for a period from five to twelve years with a maximum risk coverage from 60 to 100% for political and commercial risks. To obtain guarantees from such institutions, the participation of the national capital of one of the states in which these organisations are located is necessary. At the same time, the minimum participation in different countries

is different, e.g., in the USA it is about 50%, and in Japan and Italy it is approximately 85%.

If we evaluate the real state of political risk analysis in Russia, it is worth noting that research and practical steps in this area are actually in their infancy. Federal and especially regional authorities in their activities still pay insufficient attention to the study of political risk, which reduces the effectiveness of their work. In this regard, the need to create a unified national and multi-level system for analysing and managing political risk in Russia is becoming more urgent. Implementing this task is associated with creating a full-fledged system of state management of political risks. Her solution includes many different aspects. The main ones are organisational, legislative, methodological, personnel, and information. The conditions having developed in and around our country at the beginning of the third decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> century allow us to hope that this task will finally be successfully solved.

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