**Aspects of Social Control in the Field of Culture**

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**Abstract**—The last decades in Russia have been accompanied by a string of reforms of various social institutes aimed at enhancement of their efficiency when transitioning to the postindustrial society. Special attention of the state is paid to the cultural sphere as the most essential societal subsystem. Besides, it is the center of formation and approbation of new humanitarian and social technologies, intended to develop conditions for realization of a creative potential of a person. Modernization of the control system of culture requires a comprehensive analysis of changes happening in the social environment. In this context scientists are actively involved in solving various social problems in state establishment of different levels, expert and coordination committees. It requires constant renewal of activities of services responsible for control of the modern process, taking into the account the rising demands of state and society. Their activities are especially meaningful for culture since today there are a lot of problems and contradictions in this area. Those include changes in the organizations’ status, switching to new standards and programs, and implementation of the system of state contracts. All these define the vector of research on the topic.

**Keywords**—social control; culture; society

I. INTRODUCTION

Management services are not always capable to meet today’s demands in providing information. The reason lays in a set of contradictions related to a constant growth of data with the number of sources and information streams and their insufficient clear structure, the capabilities of the modern informational resources, and absence of technologies and their use in the work of the management services.

At the same time, the absence of a proven and productive system of gathering and analysis of social information in the sphere of culture and integration of this system into the management process continue to be a serious problem.

D. Bell considers the information exchange as a formal analytical fashion. “Our first task is to disprove the age-old conception that relations in mutually satisfactory (equilibrium) gift exchange arise from a balance of “benefits” between parties. And then we prove that altruism cannot be distinguished from self-interest in an equilibrium exchange relation” [1].

E. Mayo says about fatigue, monotony, the meaning of “moral”, the reaction of industry upon the social order, theories of government and the social order, the problem of the administrator for the Western Electric inquiry (The Hawthorne experiment) [2]. He discusses the human aspect of industry as necessary for the effective thinking of every business administrator.

The works of scientists where the concept of social management activities is the subject of research are of special importance.


According to E. Schien, organizational culture and leadership are “dimensions of culture”. There is a leadership role in culture building containing three parts. Culture is understood as a model of common main suppositions that a certain group of people mastered when solving the tasks of adaption and integration [4]. Besides, E. Schien identifies three main stages of organization culture. The first is «artifacts» denoting both a physical infrastructure and organizational processes including policies, myths, etc. The second is referred to “climate”, “espoused beliefs and values” implying a basic values list. The third stage represents “basic assumptions” covering true beliefs, perceptions, thoughts. There is a necessity for decoding the model of the operating main suppositions. If the former are comprehended, other more surface levels can be easily grasped. Thus, it makes it possible to deal with them appropriately. The model of a group culture is a common, main and natural. When analysing cultures, it becomes clear that one may observe artifacts without difficulties. However, their decoding is hard. Common beliefs and values can merely show rationalizations or aspirations. We attempt to make its shared basic assumptions and understand the learning process for understand a culture of this group. First, leadership is the source of the beliefs and values that make a group move to deal with its internal and external problems. This process is aimed at seeking stability and meaning for the individual members and for the group as a whole. It defines a set of common main suppositions, including nature, sameness of a group, and a defense mechanism of cognition. “The most central issue for leaders is to understand the deeper levels of a culture, to assess the functionality of the assumptions made at
that level, and to deal with the anxiety that is unleashed when those assumptions are challenged” [4].

Vasconcellos e Sá presents 14 vital strategies for gaining a competitive advantage in the trenches of corporate conflicts and offers organizations a concise battle plan for business. “The leader who knows what strategies to carry out, when to perform them, and how to succeed in them will win. The other leader loses” [5]. This means that following the rules:

- luck plays a role in the outcome;
- business is continuous and permanent so there are no armistices;
- there are often more fronts in business competition than in the usual military conflict, which is even more important in victory for organization.

Vasconcellos e Sá, while describing “Guerrilla Attacks”, says that an opponent can be attacked six ways. This can be done by. Attack strategies are supposed to be harder than the defense strategies. Let us put emphasis on organizational alliances that are best and take as an example the Japanese car industry. When should it make each strategic movement nowadays? According to Vasconcellos e Sá, leadership and a strategy are crucial in resolving organizational conflicts.

H. Mintzberg succeeded in claiming that strategic planning differs from strategic thinking. The most successful strategies are visions. Hence, organizations should change the generally accepted planning job. There must be a contribution to the process of strategy making of an organization made by planners at three stages:

- at the first stage, strategic thinking requires hard data or formal analyses until they are aimed at the broadening of the consideration;
- at the second stage, “catalysts” support strategy making;
- at the third – “strategy programmers” assist in specifying a number of particular steps required to obtained that vision.

Nowadays the distinction between planning and strategic thinking is going to be acknowledged by organizations. The author gives a citation of M. Porter on the strategy theory; “I favour a set of analytical techniques for developing a strategy” [6]. Synthesis, intuition and creativity can be referred to strategic thinking. Strategic thinking results in an integrated prospect of an enterprise understood as an imprecisely articulated vision of direction. As these strategies cannot be developed on time and they are faultlessly understood, they can freely appear at any time and place at an enterprise and used by people at different stages of the specific issues. Real strategic change requires inventing new ones, but not merely rearranging the established categories. Strategy making is to act outside the boxes to promote the informal learning, which entails new prospects and new variations, According to sociologist P. Selznick, “strategies take on value only as committed people infuse them with energy” [7].

Mintzberg says about “the fallacy of prediction”: the world is supposed to be at rest while a plan is being developed. Then it follows the predicted course while that plan is being implemented. This is critical for the planning horizon of the firm by I. Ansoff in his book “Corporate Strategy” (1965). A certain repetitive pattern the forecasting of discontinuities such as seasons may be predictable. But such price increase or technological innovation is virtually impossible the forecasting. From time to time some people create strategies in much more individualized and intuitive manners. Actually, novelty has never been institutionalized as systems have never been able to generate the synthesis established by a talented entrepreneur, including a mediocre skillful strategist.

The research has demonstrated that managers with high potential trust some of the softest forms of data such as hearsay, gossip, etc. This problem concerns the hard data that are meant for informing the senior manager. These demonstrate that strategy making involves the most subtle, sophisticated, subconscious elements of human thinking and is an immensely complex process.

“A strategy can also be emergent, meaning that a convergent pattern has formed among the different actions taken by the organization one at a time” [8]. That is to say, strategies may evolve unintentionally on the part of senior management, frequently and inadvertently during learning. A learning process represents the nature of strategy making. Everybody is thinking with the aim to act; everyone is also acting to think. People test things; we experiment; our work converges gradually to viable patterns that become strategies. “If formal procedures will never be able to forecast discontinuities, inform detached managers, or create novel strategies, we should drop the label “strategic planning” altogether” [8].

In the chapter “Planning, Plans, and Planners” Mintzberg gives information about two categories: “planner” and “manager”. Planners are unable to make commitments as managers, and availability of soft information is critical for managers in case of strategy making. Time constraints force managers to favor action over reflection and the oral over the written. This can lead to the fact that they overlook important analytical information. Planners, as well as line managers, play critical roles, have the time and the inclination to analyze. Their work must be in the vein of a “soft analyst”, who is mainly focused on posing the right questions rather than finding the right answers.

Planning can program viable strategies, but cannot generate strategies. In this context, strategic programming consists of three steps. They are codification, elaboration, and conversion of strategies. In case of codification, lot of interpretation and paying careful attention to what might be lost in articulation are demanded. Expressing and clarifying the strategies with regard to sufficient clarity represent them as formally operational to work out their consequences in detail. “Elaboration means breaking down the codified strategies into substrategies and ad hoc programs as well as overall action plans specifying what must be done to realize each strategy” [8]. Conversion is taking into account the influence of changes on enterprise’s operations, which must be eliminated as a result of the nonstandard world of strategies and programs as to the routine world of objectives. Redefining policies and standard operating procedures considers results of the
particular changes. An enterprise demands strict coordination of a countless number of very complicated operations when it is sure of the relative stability in its environment. Therefore, it is important for managers to retain their strategies as much as flexible, similarly to broad visions, in order to adjust to altering surroundings.

In the chapter «Plans as Tools to Communicate and Control», the author asks: «Why program strategy?» and answers – «to ensure that everyone in the organization moves in the same direction». It is possible to apply plans for:

– evident and moral support of authoritative parties;

– provision of knowledge for other people about the goals of the enterprise for these groups to assist it in achieving its goals.

The analysis of theoretical material revealed the following approaches to the development of scientific views on the strategic management of the organization: historical evolution of management systems in the face of growing unpredictability, novelty and complexity of decision-making [9], [10]; school strategic development [11]. It also includes scientific views on the sources of a key competitive advantage [12]; scientific ideas about strategies for achieving market leadership [13]; a meaningful approach to the justification of the strategy [14]; an approach to developing strategies based on leadership («Arthur D’ Little») and for horizons of growth [15].

Analysis of the literature shows that despite the knowledge of certain aspects of social and managerial activities, a substantial part of its capabilities has not yet received adequate coverage in scientific works. It requires development of specific concepts that are applicable to particular organizations in the period of modernization in the sphere of culture.

The problem is in the argumentation of inclusion of the social management activity into the sphere of culture, coming, on one hand, from the characteristics of an establishment which coordinates operation of the culture institutions of a region. And, on the other hand, it proceeds from the necessity of analysis of the social changes, systematization and explanation of social information, as well as correct accounting of factors of social environment in the settings of modernization of this sphere [16].

The purpose of the study is argumentation of the main approaches and methods of the social management activity in the sphere of artistic education in the settings of its modernization. The problem of the development of the model of the social management activity is related to insufficient development of theoretical and methodological approaches.

II. METHODOLOGICAL NOTES

The essence of a guided development of a person consists in the fact that this development happens through the whole duration of the person’s existence. The source of the process is the solution of a number of contradictions by the subject, a part of which he is able to solve independently. However, there is a second part, which the subject-carrier of these problems is not capable to solve without outside help. In a situation of challenges during development, a corresponding model of the social management activity in the sphere of culture development must and will come to rescue.

One of the main tasks is to create ad equate motivation of the subject since, as pointed out by a reputed researcher of these processes L. Kogan, it is impossible to adapt a person to culture without his own motivation. With this approach to finding answers, a subject independently chooses the most satisfying path of development. This consistent pattern is a part of culture-shaping processes of society and a characteristic of involvement in it of every individual.

The concept of «chaperoning» as a new part of the new paradigm of management in the organization technologies is studied extensively in the works of researchers E. Kazakova, M.P. Bityanova. The system-oriented approach is the base provision of development of the theory and practice of complex chaperoning for Kazakova, and the priority of reliance on the internal potential of a person’s development is the most important provision of her theory. She gives the following definition of chaperoning: chaperoning is helping the subject in making decisions in situations of life choices. It is a complicated process of collaboration between the chaperon and the chaperoned, which results in a subject’s development progress.

In this context the process acts as a combination of sequential actions, which allows a subject to make a final decision and to be accountable for its implementation. The researchers offer their own understanding of the «method of chaperoning». It is understood as a way of practical realization of the process of chaperoning, based on the unanimity of four functions:

– diagnostics of the problem;

– information about the nature of the problem and the solutions;

– consultation on the decision making stage and development of the resolution plan;

– initial help on the resolution plan implementation stage.

Chaperoning is seen as significance of a free and responsible choice, which is emphasized in the research by Kazakova, as the leading imperative of development. Development is possible only under the condition of making a free and responsible choice by a subject; they both require special social settings and special help.

The system-oriented approach and the concept of a free choice are the methodological foundation of formation of the theoretical basics of chaperoning in organization. The key provisions of this concept are the belief in internal capabilities of a subject and the reliance on the urge of self-realization.

Proceeding from the conducted analysis of the existing research on the topic of chaperoning, currently there is no uniformity in the terminology of this concept. There two conceptually different positions in the works of researchers:

– chaperoning as a specially organized cooperation which provides favorable conditions for development;
chaperoning as a specific type of professional activity of a specialist.

Based on the described approaches to definition of the concept of «chaperoning», there are common traits that unite views of the majority of researchers:

– goal-setting of the organization of the chaperoning system – assistance (help);

– mechanism of implementation – through creation of conditions and formation of an orientation field of development;

– final result – development through a personal choice, personal decision making.

Therefore, the concept of chaperoning is based on the systematic approach, which allows identifying essential subsystems and mechanisms, their interactions, and approachable goals.

The chaperoning service is of interest here as a union of specialists with different backgrounds who perform the process of chaperoning.

Researchers V. Zarubin, A. Osipov, A. Karakozov, et al. admit that chaperoning is a new, quite prospective, insufficiently studied technology, and belongs to the class of humanitarian technologies as a type of social technologies. The researchers point out characteristics and achievements of humanitarian sciences that can enrich professional demands of a worker by expanding his potential with skills in the areas of informational, communicational, organizational, and administrative activities, as well as multi-cultural and multi-ethnic collaboration.

The following interpretations of the concept of “humanitarian technology” can be found in the modern scientific literature:

– technologies of development, alteration, and processing of rules and limits of human behavior, development, packing, and implementation of reasons (Osipov);

– technologies dedicated to development of a person and creation of corresponding moral and ethical norms and methods of development of intellectual potential and physical composition (Mintusov)

The existing point of view summarizes the perspective of researcher A. Chumikov, who believes that the algorithm of these technologies does not have a uniform definition; however, they are essential to solving any humanitarian problems of the present.

As noted by C. Eliseev, humanitarian technologies are a successful brand, as well as a new methodology, which is not presented quite consistently and clearly. The researcher sees the genesis of those in the fact that the modern state is gradually losing its monopoly in the sphere of social management. New establishments started to form, which have financial, administrative, material, and intellectual resources to produce the reason for political, administrative, economic, scientific, social, and cultural activities. Those establishments specifically serve the source and the channel for reproduction of humanitarian technologies.

Humanitarian technologies are based on the acceptance of the unity of an individual and a society. By enabling management of a person, these technologies are implemented in the context of a social group and a society, and cause a strong influence on an individual, as well as on a society. They allow one, in certain sense, to “compress” time, when the routine mental processes are replaced with conceptualization and goal-setting, to capture intermediate products of humanitarian activities and to use them other systems of activities. All this strengthens the diversity of humanitarian technologies, giving birth to special types and industries (consulting, expertise, regulation of information exchange, and others). Expansion of these technologies in our days is largely caused by the communicative and informational demands of the society and social groups. They solve, on the one hand, the problem of self-realization of a person or a group and, on the other hand – the problem of development of communications under a specific organizational strategy.

Humanitarian technologies belong to social technologies and serve as systems of scientific knowledge, which allow implementing a particular social idea with a help of particular conditions, means, and methods.

When distinguishing between social and humanitarian technologies, it is essential, according to V. Zarubin, to keep in mind that it makes sense to talk about humanitarian technologies in the context of effect on an individual. Effects on a social commonality on any scale are more appropriate to call social technologies. These two types of effects often combine.

The term “social technologies” was included in the system of social knowledge in the 70s. Originally it meant a system of specialized means and methods used in social engineering, and providing means for rational functioning. One of the first researchers of the problem of formation of social technologies on the conceptual level was American scientist A. Popper. He defined social technologies as a way to use theoretical conclusions in practical goals. Using the existing definition of the nature of social technologies, B. Usmanov defined the following approaches to identifying their main elements:

– aggregation of methods and means of solving social problems;

– aggregation of knowledge about methods of organization of social processes;

– system of innovative methods of solving of social problems.

The specific of social technologies is in the method of their implementation though specialties related to social work (mostly its manipulative side), defined by the subject-object relations. In this context social technologies can be presented as a functional system: combination of sequential operations, procedures of direct effect, and implementation of earlier developed plans (programs, projects), and achieving an optimal social result.
Despite a sufficient number of definitions of the term “chaperoning” and the main approaches to explaining its characteristics, the specifics and capabilities of chaperoning are not presented clearly in literature now due to the novelty and a limited research on this technology. At the same time, it must be noted that sociological chaperoning in the area of culture, which belongs to the class of humanitarian technologies, has recently started to gain special importance for researchers, which is proven by appearance of models of chaperoning in macro- and micro approaches. The appeal of the idea can be explained by its ability to provide in short time information about states and processes in the culture society, which demand adequate administrative influence, diagnostics of the problems in culture, and timely response by producing solutions to the problems.

III. FINDINGS

Regional studies of the aspects of social management become more recognizable in the massive of research. “The use of methods of sociology (telephone survey using a database of recipients, interviews) is most effective. The Internet channel, the widget and terminals installed in cultural institutions, allow for independent evaluation over a long period of time so that quite a large number of questionnaires were completed by the recipients of services at the lowest cost” [17].

They assist in realization of the modern situation in politics, economy, and social sphere, which includes the sphere of culture. Every region seeks to form a whole picture of social development to create a strategy for its improvement. This is the reason for creation of “road maps”, atlases, and “passports” of socio-cultural development. The regional sphere of culture has its own specifics, which are considered when the strategy for its development and its evaluation are being made.

In the 2016 Rating of the municipal districts and city precincts in the sphere of culture, an important criterion - the “level of education” (100 points) – was used as an indicator of “Effectiveness of management in the sphere of culture” for municipal organizations of culture, municipal libraries, municipal organizations of culture and leisure. It shows that people who work in cities have a higher level of education compared to districts administrations; remoteness of districts from city centers is not a factor in the lower level of education; at the level of the same municipal entity, the rating in three categories may differ insignificantly. The obtained minimums of the level of education in groups (35.4/48.7/20.9) indicate that the most unfavorable “educational picture” is within the workers of the organizations of culture and leisure. And the maximums (92.9/98.3/88.7) put the first two groups almost at the same comparatively high level.

Among other indicators of the Rating, the important ones are “Film service of the population” and “Library services”. In the field of cinema in Kursk region, there are 245 cinemas. In the top-ranking positions there are on average 36.4 of audience in that movie, taking into account the capacity of the hall for 50 seats, which speaks in general about the significant activity of the audience. Library service in Kursk region is provided for 694 of the municipal libraries, which generally corresponds to 41.4% of population coverage. Among these, 55.2% are computerized libraries and 50.6% – with access to the Internet. The three best libraries in the city include enterprises with 100% computerization and the Internet.

IV. CONCLUSION

The results of the study give grounds to assert that, due to the ongoing reforms in the system of culture, the most important problem is improvement and development of managerial services focused on providing skilled assistance to improve professional competence, ensuring innovation processes.

References