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ON THE INFLUENCE OF THE CULTURE OF THE ENTERPRISE TEAM ON THE PRODUCTION OF PRIORITY AND DEMANDED PRODUCTS BY THEM

Abstract: In the article, the authors explored the importance of culture for shaping the behavior of a person who is able to manage the team of an enterprise in order to ensure satisfaction with the results of such work, to be carried away by it and become its face. For the successful management of the enterprise team, it is necessary to conduct research in order to determine the degree of satisfaction of a person with the results of the work of the enterprise team with their work, i.e. form professionals. Then these people are people who love to work and strive to work well and will be those who are able to implement the tasks formulated for the entire team of the enterprise in order to ensure the production of demanded products. On the basis of the union of culture and effective management, it will be in demand and competitiveness by consumers in the regions of the Southern Federal District and the North Caucasus Federal District and Russia.

Key words: specialization, productivity, management, enterprise team, risks, market, demand, competitiveness, products, quality, quantity, consumer, manufacturer, consumer culture, quality activities, quality of life, purchasing qualifications, economic policy, priority, preference.

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Introduction

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The cultural characteristics of Russian entrepreneurs, according to most researchers who

used a systematic approach, include dependence on the team and the norms of behavior formed by it, the desire for trusting relationships, avoiding irresponsibility. Often the personal qualities of an employee are given priority over their success in the

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performance of their work, there is a mixing of personal and business relationships. Also, our Russian reality has noticed the propensity of entrepreneurs and their employees to bribery, concealment of income from the tax service, forgery of documents, disregard for ethical standards in relation to competitors. There is a gap in communication between the manager and the employee, in another way it can be said that the head of the enterprise is inaccessible to lower-level employees. It is also noticed

As a result of the foregoing, the conclusion is that in Russia the enterprise and the management of personnel management are formed inefficiently and there are practically no working collective ties. Enterprises pay all their attention to the fulfillment of the conditions that the employees of the state bureaucracy have set for them, and not to the fulfillment of responsibility to consumers and society. Therefore, there is a difficulty in introducing progressive foreign management methods into Russian practice. In order to most successfully implement effective personnel management and prepare employees for a change in the approach to working in a team, first of all, it is necessary to establish measures to encourage individuality in each employee of the enterprise and eliminate the established inaccessibility of the manager to the lower level.

Main part

The influence of culture on the organizational effectiveness of the results of the enterprise.

There are two ways in which culture influences organizational performance. First, culture and behavior mutually influence each other. Second, culture influences not so much what people do as how they do it. There are various approaches to identifying a set of variables through which the influence of culture on the enterprise can be traced. Seven models are known about the influence of culture on the organizational structure of an enterprise: the Sate model, the Peters-Waterman model, the Parsons model, the Quinn-Rohrbach model, the Hofstede model, the Lane and Distefano model, and the Ouchi model.

The impact of culture on organizational life V. Sate considers the results of assessing the effectiveness of an enterprise through seven processes:

- cooperation between individuals and the team of the enterprise;
- control;
- communications;
- the dedication of the enterprise team to the influence of culture;
- perception of the organizational environment in which the enterprise is located;

- justification of individual behavior in the enterprise team.

At the same time, the first three processes correspond with the first, superficial level of organizational culture or patterns of organizational behavior of an individual in the enterprise team, and the next four - with the second, subsurface level, which has a "value" basis. How these processes proceed depends on the efficiency of the functioning of enterprises.

Cooperation as a model of behavior in an enterprise cannot be established only with the help of formal management measures, since it is impossible to foresee all possible cases. How much people really cooperate in an enterprise depends on the assumptions they share in this area. In some enterprises, teamwork is the highest value, in others internal competition. In other words, it all depends on which philosophy prevails: individualist or collectivist in enterprises.

The influence of culture on decision-making by the enterprise team is carried out through shared beliefs and values that form a stable set of basic assumptions and preferences among the enterprise team. Since organizational culture can help minimize contention, the process decision making becomes more effective, meaningful for the entire team of the enterprise.

The essence of the control process is to stimulate actions towards the achievement of the set goals. In the nature of governance, there are three mechanisms of control: the market, administration, clan. Typically, enterprises have all three mechanisms at once, but to varying degrees. Under the market mechanism of control, they rely mainly on prices. The underlying assumption is that changing prices and payments should stimulate the necessary changes in the enterprise.

Administrative the control mechanism is based on formal authority. The process itself consists of changing the rules and procedures by issuing directives. This mechanism is based on two assumptions:

- from above it is clearer what measures to achieve the desired result;
- the collective of the enterprise obeys without question within the limits of shared basic assumptions.

clan the control mechanism is entirely based on shared beliefs and values. It is from them that the collective of the enterprise proceeds in the implementation of its actions. It is also assumed that the members of the team are sufficiently committed to the enterprise, they know how to act within the framework of this culture. As the company grows and develops the clan mechanism is replaced by an administrative one, and then by a market one.

The impact of culture on communication occurs in two ways. The first is that there is no need to communicate in cases where there are shared

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assumptions. In this case, certain actions are performed as if without words. Second, shared assumptions provide direction and help in the interpretation of messages received. So, if at the enterprise a member of the team is not considered an appendage of the machine, then the news of the upcoming automation or robotization will not cause shock in him.

The content of culture also influences the content of communication. Some businesses value open communications, while others value it the other way around.

An individual feels dedicated to the interests of the enterprise when he identifies himself with the latter and experiences some emotional connection with it. A strong culture makes a strong identity and feelings of the individual in relation to the enterprise. Also, team members can step up their activities in an effort to help the organization enterprise.

Perception organizational reality or what he sees is determined to a large extent by what his colleagues say about what he sees, sharing the same experience with him. Culture influences this process, providing the enterprise team with a common interpretation of its experience. In businesses that place a high value on timely customer service, the perception of a lack of resources to operate will not be interpreted as a need to change an established customer disposition. Otherwise, the consumer may be seriously harmed.

Culture helps people in an enterprise act meaningfully by providing justification for its behavior. In an enterprise where risk is valued, a person takes it, knowing that in case of failure he will not be punished and that lessons will be learned from failure for the future. Actions thus justified reinforce existing behavior, especially when it fits into the situation. This process is a source of funds for changing the culture itself. Because people use culture to justify behavior, it is possible to change culture through change in behavior. However, for this process to be successful, it must be ensured that people cannot justify their new behavior with the "old" culture.

T. Peters and R. Waterman consider the organization of culture to be valuable in the successful operation of an enterprise. They "brought out" a set of beliefs and values of organizational culture that will lead the enterprise to success, namely:

- faith in action;
- communication with consumers;
- encouraging autonomy and entrepreneurship;
- considering people as the main source of productivity and efficiency;
- knowledge of what a person manages in the team of the enterprise;
- do not do what you do not know;
- simple structure and few management staff at

the enterprise;

- simultaneous combination of flexibility and rigidity in the enterprise.

Faith in action. According to this value, decisions are made even in the absence of information. Postponing decisions is tantamount to not making them.

Communication with consumers. For the successful operation of the enterprise, the consumer represents the focus in his work, since it is from him that the main information for the enterprise comes. Customer satisfaction for such businesses is at the core of their organizational culture.

Autonomy and entrepreneurship. Enterprises struggling with lack of innovation and bureaucracy "divide" into smaller manageable parts and give them, as well as individuals, a certain degree of autonomy necessary for creativity and risk-taking. This cultural norm is maintained through the dissemination of legends and stories about their own winners and leaders throughout the enterprise.

Performance depends on the person. This value proclaims the person the most important asset of the enterprise. At the same time, the effectiveness of the enterprise is measured through the satisfaction of its members. The belief that treating people with respect and dignity leads to success is at the heart of the culture of these businesses.

Know what the person in the enterprise team manages. In accordance with this deeply rooted cultural norm, successful enterprises are expected "to be managed not from behind the closed doors of executive offices, but through visits by managers to the facilities they manage and through direct contact with subordinates in their places of work.

Don't do what you don't know. This provision belongs to the category of one of the important characteristics of the culture of successfully operating enterprises. These businesses do not accept diversification away from the core business.

Simple structures and few managers. Typical for successful enterprises is the presence of a small number of levels of management and a relatively small staff of managerial employees, especially in the upper echelon. The position of a manager in such enterprises is determined not by the number of his subordinates, but by his influence on the affairs of the enterprise and, most importantly, on its results. According to this cultural value, managers are more focused on the level of performance of their subordinates, rather than on the growth of their staff.

Simultaneous flexibility and rigidity in the enterprise. The paradox of this attribute of the organizational culture of successful enterprises is resolved as follows. High organization at them is achieved due to the fact that all employees understand and believe in the values of the enterprise. This tightly connects and integrates them. Flexibility is ensured by minimizing "management" interventions and

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minimizing the number of regulations and procedures. This encourages innovation and the desire to take risks. As a result, a rigid structure of shared cultural values makes possible a flexible structure of administrative control.

In a more general form, the relationship between culture and the performance of an enterprise is presented in the model of T. Parsons. The model is developed based on the specification of certain functions that any social system, including enterprises, must perform in order to survive and succeed. The first letters of the English names of these functions in the abbreviation gave the name of the model - AGIL:

- adaptation;
- achievements of goals;
- integration;
- legitimacy.

The essence of the model is that for its survival and prosperity, any enterprise must be able to adapt to constantly changing environmental conditions, achieve its goals, integrate its parts into a single whole, and, finally, be recognized by people and enterprises through partnerships.

This model proceeds from the fact that the values of organizational culture are the most important means or tools for performing the functions of this model. If the beliefs and values shared by an enterprise help it adapt, achieve goals, unite and prove its usefulness to people and other enterprises, then obviously such a culture will influence the enterprise in the direction of its success.

The ideas of T. Parsons were developed and concretized by R. Quinn and J. Rohrbach in their model "Competing Values and Organizational Efficiency", which explains the influence of certain groups of values on organizational efficiency. In the development of the AGIL model, it was proposed to consider this influence not in one, but in three dimensions. Therefore, the model of so-called "competing values" was used.

This model includes the following three dimensions:

integration- differentiation: refers to the design of works and the enterprise as a whole. This dimension indicates the degree to which the enterprise emphasizes either control (preferring stability, order and predictability) or flexibility (preferring innovation, adaptation and change);

internal focus- external focus, this dimension reflects the predominance of interest in the enterprise either in the organization of its internal affairs (coordination and satisfaction of employees), or in strengthening the position of the enterprise as a whole in the external environment;

means/tools- results/indicators: the measurement in the model demonstrates the difference in the concentration of attention, on the one hand, on processes and procedures (planning, goal setting,

etc.), and on the other hand, on the final results and indicators of their measurements (productivity, efficiency, etc.).

These three dimensions give birth to four different approaches to organizational performance models:

quadrant 1 - the approach of "human relations", reflecting the state of maintaining the system of social relations, the obligations of people, decentralization and differentiation through the development of cohesion and qualification skills among employees;

Quadrant 2 - an "open system" approach, reflecting the state of decentralization and differentiation, growth and adaptation, improving the competitive position for the entire enterprise through a focus on developing flexibility and the ability to acquire the necessary resources;

quadrant 3 - the "rational-target" approach, reflecting the strengthening of the competitive position of the enterprise and, in general, the maximization of results, centralization and integration through an emphasis on planning, efficiency and productivity;

quadrant 4 - the approach of "internal processes", reflecting the state of centralization and integration, consolidation and succession, maintaining a system of social relations through the distribution of information and strengthening stability and order.

This general model describes the values of enterprise culture in relation to each individual approach to performance measurement and compares the perspective of one approach with all others. Competing values are measured in the Quinn-Popbach model using "scaled" questionnaires. Therefore, the model can be used as an effective organizational diagnostic tool. Unlike one-dimensional models, in this case it is impossible to get the "only correct answer" about the efficiency of the enterprise. The model reveals shortcomings in all four of its parts to the extent that they are present in the activities of the enterprise.

National in organizational culture

For management practice, it is important to get an answer to two questions from theory: what do you need to know about national culture in order to take into account its influence on the effectiveness of team management, and is it possible to "splice" elements of different national cultures within one enterprise?

A systematic approach in which the enterprise operates. The whole "color" of the national culture of the society in which the organization operates takes part in the formation of organizational culture.

Systematization, as orderliness in the relationships between parts, contributes to the direction of analysis and taking into account the level of influence of individual elements on the whole, namely, the following are distinguished: the family system, the education system, the economic system,

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the systems - political, religious, socialization, health, recreation.

Family system is family relations and the way in which people reproduce, educate and introduce their children into society. In the family, for the first time, children develop patterns of behavior that they need to fulfill various roles in the enterprise in the future (for example, relationships by status, age, gender, etc.)

Education system is how young and new members of society are provided with information, knowledge, skills and values. So, for example, in some cultures they teach more through what not to do, while in others it is the other way around.

Economic system is the way in which society produces and distributes goods and services. At the same time, there are group, collective and individual approaches.

Political system - this is what is predominantly used to maintain order and existing power. These may be attributes of a tribal and even generic approach, or they may be elements of a developed democracy.

Religious system are non-material, spiritual means of providing meaning and motivation to people's actions. This system determines the morality and prevailing values in society, which are guided by the enterprises operating in this society.

Socialization system is the network and principles of social grouping created by people in a given society.

Health system is the way in which the culture prevents and heals diseases, and also shows concern for the victims of disasters and incidents.

Rest system are ways of socializing people and using their free time. Some cultures pay significant attention to people's sports, various types of outdoor activities are cultivated. In a number of cultures, there is an emphasis on folk dancing and singing, visiting spectacles, etc. during the holidays.

The approach to the study of the national in organizational culture, developed by G. Hofstede and based on five variables, is very popular, namely:

- *power distance*;
- *individualism*;
- *masculinity and femininity*;
- *the desire to avoid uncertainty*;
- *long-term orientation*.

power distance is the degree of inequality between people that the population of a given country considers acceptable or normal. At the same time, a low degree is characterized by relative equality in society, and a high degree is vice versa.

Individualism is the degree to which the people of a given country prefer to act as individuals rather than as members of a group. A high degree of this variable suggests that a person, being in conditions of free social ties in society, takes care of himself and his loved ones in the family, as well as bears full responsibility for all his actions. The same variable is

characterized as collectivism (or a low degree of individualism). In collectivist societies, people are taught from childhood to respect the groups to which they belong, usually family, clan, or enterprise. There is no distinction between members of the group and those outside the group. Group members expect the group to protect them and be held accountable for them if they get into trouble. For this, they are obliged to pay loyalty to their group throughout their lives. In individualistic societies, we are taught from childhood to think of ourselves in terms of "I" and not part of "Us." It is expected that, once on his feet, the individual will no longer receive protection from his group, and she will not be responsible for him. Therefore, he should not show strong loyalty to the group.

The third variable also has two poles: masculinity and femininity, reflecting how people of this culture relate to values such as "perseverance" and "self-confidence", "high level of work", "success and competition", which are associated almost everywhere to a greater extent with the role of a man. These values are different from the "tender" values such as "life's comforts", "maintaining warm personal relationships", "caring for the weak and solidarity" associated predominantly with the role of a woman. We are talking about the predominance in society of patterns of behavior inherent in either males or females. The role of a woman is different from the role of a man in all countries, but in "tough" societies this difference is greater than in "gentle" ones.

The fourth variable received, the name "uncertainty avoidance" can be defined as the degree to which the people of a given country prefer structured situations as opposed to unstructured ones. Structured situations are situations with clear and precise rules for how to behave. These rules can be formalized, or they can be supported by traditions. In countries with a high degree of uncertainty avoidance, people tend to be highly agitated and restless, feverish at work, or rushed. In the opposite case, people behave and work more calmly and systematically. In countries with a high degree of desire to avoid uncertainty, the prevailing opinion is that everything "not ours and unusual" is dangerous.

The fifth variable is measured by long-term or short-term orientation in the behavior of members of society. Long-term orientation is characterized by a look to the future and is manifested in the desire for savings and accumulation, in perseverance and perseverance in achieving goals. Short-term orientation is characterized by a look into the past and the present and is manifested through respect for traditions and heritage, through the fulfillment of social obligations. The data obtained by G. Hofstede on the measurement of these variables for ten countries are shown in Table 1.

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Table 1. Results of measurement in points of variable cultures for ten countries (according to G. Hofstede)

COUNTRY	DV	ID	MN	IN	BEFORE
USA	40 (H)	91 (V)	62(B).	46 (H)	29(H)
Germany	35 (H)	67 (V)	66(B)	65(S)	31(C)
Japan	54(C)	46(S)	95 (B)	92(B)	80 (V)
France	68 (B)	71 (B)	43(C)	86 (V)	30 (C)
Holland	38 (H)	80 (V)	14 (H)	53(S)	44 (B)
Hong Kong	68 (B)	25 (H)	57 (B)	29 (H)	96 (H)
Indonesia	78 (V)	14 (H)	46(S)	48 (H)	25(N)
Zap. Africa	77 (B)	20 (H)	46(S)	54(C)	16 (H)
Russia (estimate)	95 (B)	50 (C)	40 (H)	90 (V)	10(N)
China	80 (V)	20 (H)	50 (C)	60 (C)	118(B)

Culture variables: DV - power distance, ID - individualism, MN - masculinity, IN - the desire to avoid uncertainty, DO - long-term orientation. Degrees of manifestation: B - high; C - medium; H is low.

Numbers indicate scores reflecting the degree of manifestation of a particular culture variable.

Model Lane and Distefano. The influence of the national on the organizational culture of the model is based on six variables, defined as the problems that society has faced throughout its history. Anthropologists have found that different societies deal with these problems in different ways. In the

model, these different paths are called "variations in value orientations."

The six variables of the model under consideration include:

- *relation of man to nature;*
- *orientation in time;*
- *belief about human nature;*
- *activity orientation;*
- *relationship between people;*
- *orientation in space.*

Variations of these variables are shown in Table

2.

Table 2. Matrix of cultural variables and their variations across cultures

VARIABLES	VARIATIONS IN VARIABLES		
Man's relation to nature	Submission to nature	Harmony with nature	dominance over nature
Orientation in time	live in the past	Live in the present	live in the future
Faith about human nature	A person cannot be changed		A person can be changed
	Man is inherently "bad"	The person is initially "neutral"	A person is inherently "good"
Activity orientation	It is important to enjoy work	In work, its process is important	In work, its result is important
Relationship between people	Based on hierarchical relationships	Based on group relationships	Based on individual connections
Orientation in social space	Like a part of society	A mixture of moderate individualism with belonging to the system	As a separate individual

The model assumes that each of these variables and its "national" variation are directly related to certain characteristics and variations of their condition within the organizational culture that prevails in a given society.

Thus, faith about the nature of man does not consist in understanding how one individual thinks of another, but in what an individual believes in considering the possibilities of a person. For example,

is it possible to change a person or not. Or whether people are inherently bad, good, or both.

At the enterprise, value orientations in relation to human nature can, according to the model, be measured through the following characteristics: control system; management style; organizational climate. The latter also have their own "variations" for each of the crops, which are shown in Table 3.

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Table 3. Characteristics of the "cultural" variable "belief about human nature" and their variations in different organizational cultures

CHARACTERISTICS	VARIATIONS OF CHARACTERISTICS		
Control system	Rigid based on suspicion	Moderate based on experience	flexible based on information
Management style	Authoritarian, direct management	Moderate, advisory management	Democratic, participation in the guide
Organizational climate	confrontation, conclusion contract/consent	Compromise, concessions	Collaboration, informal connections

The most obvious, in terms of the impact of human nature on organizational performance, is the control system. Orientation to the inherently "bad" in human nature serves as the basis for a rigid control system that implies a suspicious attitude towards people. Other orientations ("neutral" and "good") in relation to human nature will reproduce correspondingly more flexible systems of control.

Widely known today, Z-type enterprises, described by U. Ouchi, are an attempt to show how the combination of the advantages of two fairly different cultures (Japanese and American) "gives birth" to an effective version of the culture of the enterprise team.

U. Ouchi built his research on a comparative analysis of seven organizational culture variables, namely:

- obligations of the enterprise in relation to its team;
- performance evaluation;
- career planning;
- control system;
- making decisions;
- level of responsibility;
- interest in the person.

These seven compared variables are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Model of the enterprise type "Z" W. Ouchi

"Cultural" variables	Characteristics in Japanese companies	Characteristics in American "Z" type companies	Characteristics in typical American companies
Hiring	Life	long term	short term
Evaluation and promotion	Quality and slow	Quality and slow	quantitative and fast
Career	Widely specialized	moderately specialized	highly specialized
Control mechanism	Obscure and informal	Obscure and informal	clear and formal
Decision-making	Group and consensus	Group and consensus	Individual
A responsibility	group	Individual	Individual
Interest in a person	Wide	Wide	Narrow

Obligations towards employees. According to W. Ouchi, all three types of enterprises highly value low employee turnover. Dismissals apply only in a stalemate. However, how this cultural value is maintained distinguishes these three types of enterprise. While in Japan the system of lifetime employment is more often used for this purpose, American firms traditionally focus on short-term employment, giving the individual freedom of choice. Although in practice, most American workers and employees build their life career, changing a small number of enterprises.

Evaluation of work performance. All three types of enterprises carry out this work using both quantitative and qualitative measures. However, the time lag and its impact on careers are different. Thus,

in "purely" American enterprises, rapid progress is valued, based on the evaluation of work using a variety of quantitative meters.

Career planning. The number of functions performed in the process of passing a career significantly distinguishes Japanese and American managers. The "third" path offers to diversify the manager's career within three to five functions.

Control system. Not a single enterprise can do without control. However, each company decides this in its own way. If a typical American enterprise has a clear, clear and fairly formal reporting system, then for the "ideal" model, a mainly Japanese approach is proposed, when control is exercised through informal and less structured mechanisms. One of the most effective mechanisms is organizational culture.

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Making decisions. Preference is given to the Japanese version, when decisions at the enterprise are made at the group level and on a consensus basis (everyone basically agrees and makes decisions for execution).

Responsibility level. In contrast to the advantages of a group consensus decision, W. Ouchi's model suggests that for the American enterprise of type "Z" to maintain responsibility at the individual level. In this case, it is assumed that two different cultural values (group decision and individual responsibility) must coexist with each other. This is solved in many cases through the mechanism of participation in management, which traditionally keeps the last word in the decision for the manager. The American individuality does not suffer.

Interest in a person. Following the Japanese approach, U. Ouchi proposes in the "Z" option to consider a person in an enterprise more than just an employee, to show interest in his home life, hobbies, faith, desires, fears and inspiration. The typical American approach to see in the individual only an employee limits the ability to manage a person in an enterprise.

U. Ouchi's model was put into practice at a number of Japanese automobile factories of the Toyota and Nissan firms in the USA. Where enterprises have systematically invested in their workers and their work over a long period of time, gradual and significant improvements have been observed. The main groups of methods of organizational culture are the following:

- *Objects and subjects of attention, assessments of control by managers.* This is one of the most powerful methods of maintaining a culture in an enterprise, as through repeated actions, the manager lets employees know what is important and what is expected of them.

- *Leadership response to critical situations and organizational crises.* In these situations, managers and their subordinates discover organizational culture to a degree that they never imagined. The depth and scope of the crisis may require the enterprise to either strengthen the existing culture or introduce new values and norms that change it to some extent. For example, in the event of a sharp reduction in demand for manufactured products, the enterprise has two alternatives: dismiss some of the employees or partially reduce working hours with the same number of employees. In enterprises where a person is declared as the value of "number one", apparently, they will accept the second option. Such an act of management will turn over time into organizational folklore, which will undoubtedly strengthen this aspect of the culture in the company.

- *Role modeling, education and training.* Aspects of organizational culture are learned by subordinates through how they should perform their roles. Managers can deliberately build important

"cultural" signals into training programs and daily assistance to subordinates at work. So, an educational film can focus on the cleanliness of the workplace. The manager himself can also demonstrate to subordinates, for example, a certain attitude towards customers or the ability to listen to others. By constantly focusing on these points, the manager helps to maintain certain aspects of the organizational culture.

- *Criteria for determining rewards and statuses.* The culture in an enterprise can be learned through a system of rewards and privileges. The latter are usually tied to certain patterns of behavior and thus set priorities for employees and indicate values that are more important for individual managers and the enterprise as a whole. The system of status positions at the enterprise works in the same direction. Thus, the distribution of privileges (a good office, a secretary, a car, etc.) indicates the roles and behavior that are more valued by the enterprise. At the same time, practice shows that this method is often not used in full and not systematically.

- *Criteria for hiring, promotion and dismissal:* This is one of the main ways to maintain culture in the enterprise. What the enterprise and its management proceed from, regulating the entire personnel process, becomes quickly known to its members by the movement of employees within the enterprise. Criteria for personnel decisions can help or hinder the strengthening of the existing culture in the enterprise. Thus, the turnover of staff on assembly lines inherent in conveyor production has prompted many enterprises to switch to either a group approach to work, or to the transition to "trolley" assembly within an integrated team.

- *Organizational symbols and rituals.* Many of the beliefs and values that underlie the culture of the enterprise are expressed not only through legends and sagas that become part of organizational folklore, but also through various rituals, rites, traditions and ceremonies. Rituals include standard and repetitive team events held at a set time and on a special occasion to influence the behavior and understanding of employees of the organizational environment. Rituals are a system of rituals. Even certain managerial decisions can become organizational rituals that employees interpret as part of the organizational culture. Such rites act as organized and planned actions of great "cultural" significance. The observance of rituals, rites and ceremonies enhances self-determination.

The culture of the enterprise includes three levels: symbols; values and beliefs; basic assumptions. The question arises about the possibility of manipulating culture through the implementation of changes at each of these levels.

There is a position that regardless of the stage of development at which the enterprise is located, its top management can manage culture in two ways. The

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first is like a vision from above, which should arouse enthusiasm among the majority of the members of the enterprise team. The leader-leader inspires and implements the basic values of the enterprise. This presupposes that the leader has an obvious and sincere personal commitment to the values he believes in.

The application of the second method starts from the other end of the enterprise, from its lower levels. In this case, much attention is paid to the details of the real life of the enterprise team. Managers must keep track of what is happening in all enterprises, while trying to manage the culture of the enterprise step by step.

It is known that a number of leaders confidently adhere to certain values and beliefs, but do not pass them on to other members of the enterprise. In such a situation, they lose the opportunity to influence the culture of the enterprise. Reclusive managers can understand all the "technical" secrets of management, but they cannot influence the culture of the enterprise, remaining "invisible". It follows that the first way can be implemented through public statements, speeches and personal example, indicating a consistent interest in the values being introduced. Leaders are encouraged to appear in print, radio, and television as often as possible, preaching the values they set. The latter should not be an enterprise secret. The second way requires an understanding of the importance of culture in the daily life of the enterprise. At the same time, effective means can be the manipulation of symbols and things of the material world of the enterprise, the creation and development of patterns of behavior, the introduction step by step of the conditions for interaction. Culture management implies the ability to influence the subsurface level through the constant manipulation of attributes of the surface level, up to changing the basic assumptions. If the daily actions of managers in the enterprise are in accordance with the values they declare, then this, of course, contributes to the development of culture and its strengthening. Culture management implies the ability to influence the subsurface level through the constant manipulation of attributes of the surface level, up to changing the basic assumptions. If the daily actions of managers in the enterprise are in accordance with the values they declare, then this, of course, contributes to the development of culture and its strengthening. Culture management implies the ability to influence the subsurface level through the constant manipulation of attributes of the surface level, up to changing the basic assumptions. If the daily actions of managers in the enterprise are in accordance with the values they declare, then this, of course, contributes to the development of culture and its strengthening.

Obviously, managing organizational culture is not easy. Value orientations should not only be declared, but also become an integral part of the inner

life of top management and be transmitted to the lower levels of the organization in all its details.

When managing culture, keep in mind that it can serve as a kind of "glue" that holds parts of an organization together. However, it must be remembered that if the parts are bad, then even the best "glue" in the world will not make the whole strong enough. The unification of Values and the daily work of managers to "implement" them in life can lead the organization to success.

Crop management is a rather lengthy process and bears little resemblance to quick fixes. The basic assumptions that lie deep in the minds, beliefs and behavior of the enterprise team cannot be changed in a short time. This process provides for the constant socialization of new members of the enterprise team, the endless clarification of what they believe in and what they value at the enterprise, tireless attention to both the general abstract view of things and the specific details of the life of the enterprise, and, finally, the correct planning of all this work. The following recommendations can help managers improve the effectiveness of culture management in the enterprise.

Pay special attention to the intangible, outwardly unperceivable aspects of the organizational environment. Deeply ingrained assumptions and value orientations in people may require long and difficult changes in the system and structure of management. Culture is the path that helps to understand the organizational "Through the Looking Glass".

Be skeptical of proposals calling for rapid transplantation or crop transformation.

Try to understand the importance of important organizational symbols (company name, logo, slogans).

Listen to the stories told in the enterprise, analyze who their heroes are and what these stories reflect in the culture of the enterprise.

Introduce organizational rites periodically to transmit basic ideals and enhance culture.

Practice abstract ideals directly and directly in your daily activities. The manager is required to understand what ideals he should adhere to and what actions should take these ideals down the levels of the enterprise.

Organizational culture is a set of the most important assumptions, values and symbols shared by the enterprise team. There are different levels of organizational culture: superficial, subsurface, deep.

Depending on the predominance of elements of one or another level, subjective and objective culture are distinguished at the enterprise. The first is the basis for the formation of a managerial culture or leadership style.

Organizational culture is not a monolith, but consists of the dominant culture, group subcultures, and countercultures that reinforce or weaken the

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culture of the enterprise as a whole. The strength of culture depends on the scale and separability of its main attributes of the enterprise team, as well as on the clarity of their priorities.

Development organizational culture involves their formation, maintenance and change. The formation of culture takes place in the conditions of solving the enterprise of two important problems: external - adaptation and internal - integration. The formation of culture at the enterprise is influenced by the culture of the society / people within which the enterprise team operates.

The organizational culture is supported by what attention is paid to, how the activities of the enterprise team are evaluated and controlled, ways of responding to critical situations - role modeling and staff training, motivation criteria, as well as criteria in personnel work. Compliance with rituals, rituals and traditions also contributes to the maintenance of organizational culture.

Changing organizational culture is, to a certain extent, the opposite action in relation to their maintenance. Changes in behavior can lead to changes in the culture of the enterprise team, and vice versa. There are three possible combinations of changes in behavior and culture in the enterprise:

- culture change without behavior change;
- changing behavior without changing culture;
- change in behavior and culture.

The study of the influence of culture on organizational performance is associated with the choice of approach and variables. Each of the existing models of cultural influence uses its own criterion for the formation of a set of organizational variables; So, for W. Sathe, these are organizational processes, for Peter and Waterman, value orientations, for T. Parsons, the functions of the social system, and for Quinn and Rohrbach, the system of competing values.

Success in business implies a high degree of compatibility between strategy and culture in the enterprise. The following situations may arise: a culture is ignored that strongly impedes the effective implementation of the chosen strategy; the management system adjusts to the existing culture at the enterprise; an attempt is made to change the culture in accordance with the chosen strategy; the strategy adjusts to the existing culture.

The influence of the national in the organizational culture is great. When studying the national in organizational culture, two questions are solved: what you need to know about the national culture in order to anticipate its impact on the culture of the enterprise; Is it possible to "splice" the best of different national cultures within the framework of one enterprise team in order to increase its efficiency?

When answering the first question, various models are used: J. Miller - a systematic approach; G. Hofstede - variables of national culture; Lane and Distefano are variables of national culture and

variations in their change, correlated with certain variations in organizational variables. For these purposes, groups of elements that form the state of a given society can also be studied: territory, nature and climate; language, faith, morality and law; family, upbringing and education; forms of socialization of people's lives; way of doing business, economics and business; politics, history and government. Ouchi's "Z" theory attempts to answer the second question about the synergy of different cultures. The model uses a comparative analysis of seven organizational variables in refraction to national characteristics and, based on its results, a "Z" type culture is formed.

The need to improve the quality management system at light industry enterprises is due to the following important reasons. Firstly, it is an increase in the confidence of potential consumers in the products manufactured by this enterprise. Secondly, it is an opportunity to significantly strengthen its position in existing markets, as well as significantly expand its spheres of influence by entering new domestic and foreign markets. And thirdly, this is a significant increase in labor productivity of any industrial enterprise, which is expected to introduce a QMS using effective management.

Currently, enterprises pay great attention to the motivation of employees, since depending on how motivated an employee is, the results of his activities will be visible. The main task of managers is the full involvement of the full potential of employees in the work. Moreover, managers understand that material incentives do not increase the loyalty and commitment of the enterprise. Effective management solves this problem.

The essence of such management is that under it the employees of the enterprise are included in the management process, participate in the activities of the enterprise, make decisions on a number of issues. Moreover, if an employee of the enterprise has the right to vote, takes part in the activities of the enterprise, receiving remuneration for this, then he will work more efficiently and productively. An employee whose opinion is considered, whose ideas are implemented, will have a better attitude towards his place of work and will work with full dedication.

With effective management, employees can discuss with the manager the goals and tasks that he will need to complete. Employees of the enterprise can form working groups of those employees with whom they would be pleased and comfortable to work. In addition, employees of the enterprise can put forward their ideas and proposals for improving the work of the enterprise as a whole. Moreover, for the promotion of ideas should be rewarded.

Participatory management has a number of advantages. Participation in the management of employees leads to an increase in the quality of decisions made, since employees may have information that is not known to the manager. With

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such management, employees can fully express themselves, show their knowledge and skills, and also feel their importance for the enterprise, thus increasing their motivation. Motivation is usually based not only on the personal achievements of the employee, but also on the overall result of the enterprise. The unification of employees in working groups can best reflect on the corporate spirit of the enterprise. However, an effective approach, in addition to its advantages, also has its drawbacks. Not all people, by virtue of their nature, are ready to participate in the management of the organization and put forward ideas and proposals, taking responsibility for them. It is much easier for many employees to do work at the direction of the manager. Involving employees in the management of the enterprise may not have the best effect on managers, as they may lose their influence on employees. A lot of time will also be spent on discussing problems, while an unambiguous decision may not be made, but time will be wasted. Many ideas and proposals of the employees of the enterprise may be irrational and inappropriate due to lack of knowledge. Therefore, the leaders of the enterprise need to inform employees about the state of affairs at the enterprise, train personnel in order to deepen knowledge and put forward more effective and relevant proposals. The lack of recognition of an employee's idea can cause an ambiguous reaction from an employee who puts forward his innovative proposals, thereby demotivating him. Therefore, the leaders of the enterprise need to explain why this idea is not suitable in a given situation.

Having considered all the pros and cons of participatory management, we can conclude that such management is not a lifesaver for improving business at the enterprise, but it allows you to see the problems of the organization from the inside and try to solve them not by the efforts of one person, but by the whole team, where everyone can prove themselves for the benefit of the enterprise.

Regardless of the fact that an effective method of enterprise personnel management is gaining more and more approval every year in most countries with developed and developing economies, Russian light industry enterprises are not yet ready to implement and fully realize the benefits of this method. All this is because the personnel management services prefer to work according to the established traditional scheme.

Most Russian enterprises, both long-term and newly created, use the directive method of management. At such enterprises, managerial decisions are made individually, career growth comes at the expense of "good ties" with the manager, and not one's own merits in work, frequent violations of labor laws are commonplace. The reason why the directive method is preferred is the national mentality of our country that has developed over many centuries, as well as the Soviet ideology that is still present in many enterprises. As a result, management

in such enterprises is centralized, administrative and formal.

No more than half of HR managers can achieve and skillfully use the consistency of goals with the capabilities of the enterprise and the interests of employees.

Another very important factor that does not allow the adoption of a parsitative method of personnel management at Russian enterprises is the influence of the national culture of Russia. The choice of a strategy for managing human resources in the practical activities of an enterprise depends on this influence.

According to the majority of researchers who used a systematic approach, the cultural characteristics of Russian entrepreneurs include dependence on the team and the norms of behavior formed by it, the desire for trusting relationships, avoiding responsibility. Often the employee's personal qualities are given priority over his success in the work performed, there is a mixing of personal and business relationships. Also, our Russian reality has noticed the propensity of entrepreneurs and their employees to bribery, concealment of income from the tax service, forgery of documents, disregard for ethical standards in relation to competitors. There is a gap in communication between the manager and the employee, in another way it can be said that the head of the enterprise is inaccessible to lower-level employees. It is also noticed.

As a result of the foregoing, the conclusion suggests itself that in Russia, enterprises and the management of personnel management are formed inefficiently and there are practically no working collective ties. Enterprises devote all their attention to fulfilling the conditions that the state bureaucracy has set for them, and not to fulfilling their responsibility to consumers and society. Therefore, there is a difficulty in introducing "Western" management methods into Russian practice.

In order to most successfully implement participative personnel management and prepare employees for a change in the approach to working in a team, first of all, it is necessary to establish measures to encourage individuality in each employee of the enterprise and eliminate the established inaccessibility of the manager to the lower level. It is important to create a high-quality and effective system of motivation and continuous professional development so that the staff becomes a source of competitiveness of the enterprise and meets modern requirements for human resource management.

The quality manual aims to apply a "process approach" to the development, implementation and improvement of the effectiveness of a quality management system in order to increase customer satisfaction by meeting their requirements.

The advantage of the process approach is the continuity of control that it provides at the junction of

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individual processes within the system, as well as in their combination and interaction. The main processes of the quality management system are:

- product design and development;
- drawing up a production plan;
- production;
- control and testing of products;
- packaging and storage of products;
- sale;
- purchases;
- provision of resources;
- conducting marketing research.

Measurement and monitoring activities for ensuring and verifying the conformity of products are defined in comprehensive documentation, production plans and shift assignments, technological processes, measurement, analysis and improvement procedures.

Monitoring, measurement, analysis and improvement activities include:

- customer satisfaction survey;
- internal audit;
- monitoring and measurement of processes;
- monitoring and measurement of products;
- management of nonconforming products;
- continuous improvement, including corrective and preventive actions;
- determination of places of application of engineering and statistical methods.

The defects that appeared in the field of sales of manufactured products indicate not only the poor quality of products, but more about the unsatisfactory work of the enterprise.

The reduction of such cases will be possible through the use of participatory management of the implementation of the Policy and objectives in the field of quality and procedures developed by the management of the enterprise as part of the quality management system, forming requirements for all participants in the process to create conditions at the enterprise for the production of defect-free products and with strict control over their execution, namely:

1. Quality guide. It is the fundamental document of the management system. The quality manual describes the structure and content of the quality management system aimed at ensuring product compliance with customer requirements and the mandatory requirements of regulatory documentation (RD), and also sets out the Procedures (or gives links to them) developed within the QMS, describes the interaction between the processes of the management system quality.

2. Internal audit of the quality management system. This procedure is a mandatory documented procedure that establishes the procedure and sequence of actions during internal audits (inspections) of the quality management system.

3. "Product Warranty Repair" This document describes the "Product Warranty Repair" process and

establishes the procedure for dealing with customer complaints.

4. Documentation and records management. Managed documents are those whose preparation, identification, review, approval, distribution, storage and revision are carried out on the basis of pre-established, systematically used rules.

5. Management of nonconforming products. This document is a mandatory documented procedure that establishes: a) specific responsibilities of structural units, officials and individual performers for the management of nonconforming products; b) goals, objectives, deadlines, procedure for drawing up and registering records and documents for the management of nonconforming products in the main and auxiliary production.

6. Organization of quality control. This document establishes: a) the procedure for organizing product quality control at the enterprise; b) specific responsibilities of officials and individual executors for quality control of the enterprise's products, management and identification of nonconforming products.

7. Purchases. This procedure establishes the procedure for assessing and selecting suppliers, maintaining a questionnaire on suppliers and determining the supplier's reliability category, determines a unified procedure for purchasing components, materials and semi-finished products, their storage, production support and effective work with product consumers.

8. Design, development of the range and its production. This document establishes the procedure for the implementation of the process "Design, development of the range and its production" and is intended to: a) regulate and manage the activities of the unit for the design and development of new types of products; b) continuous improvement of the quality management system and the results of the process of manufacturing demanded products.

9. Production of products. This document establishes the procedure for the implementation of the process "Manufacture of products" and is intended to regulate and manage the activities of units for the production of products.

10. Customer satisfaction. To determine the dynamics of customer satisfaction, the QMS manager collects and systematizes data from information sources. Sources of information about customer satisfaction are: customer satisfaction assessment questionnaire; customer reviews; volumes of products; volumes of products sold; awards, awards and diplomas.

11. Technological preparation of production. This document establishes the procedure for the implementation of the process "Technological preparation of production" and is intended for: a) for the regulation and management of the activities of the unit for the technological preparation of production of

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new types of products. b) continuous improvement of the quality management system and the results of the process.

12. Organization and procedure for conducting "Quality Days". "Quality Day" is an operational meeting of the heads of structural divisions, dedicated to monitoring and analyzing the quality of the work of the enterprise and its divisions.

13. Statistical methods of quality management. Statistical quality control of products is an element of the mechanism for managing product quality and regulating the relationship between the supplier and the consumer, while checking the manufactured range of products is carried out before and after its manufacture, and not only during its manufacture.

The main goal of applying statistical methods is to regulate the process of creating a high quality product at all stages from marketing to operation with lower economic costs and high efficiency.

Statistical methods provide for the collection, systematization and mathematical processing of the results of production activities, analysis of information for the adoption of corrective and preventive measures, further research of the control object to achieve an acceptable (optimal) level of quality.

The implementation of the quality system is a set of works that affects various aspects of the enterprise and its subsystem - the strategic management subsystem, the production subsystem, the logistics subsystem, personnel management, internal communications, document management, etc. In this regard, the implementation of the quality system is quite difficult, long and laborious task. The solution to this problem, as a rule, occurs in several stages.

Let us formulate the main stages of the QMS implementation, namely: the improvement of the QMS makes sense only if the enterprise team has a desire to achieve significant results in the struggle for the quality of its products, but all this should provoke the desire of the teams to reach new heights, move forward and guarantee themselves and their enterprises stable results from their activities.

To implement the formulated procedures, wishes, the following activities should be performed, namely:

**step 1 - awareness by top management of the goal of creating and implementing a QMS in an enterprise;*

**step 2 - establishing the needs and expectations of consumers and other interested parties;*

**step 3 - formation of a management strategy, policy and objectives in the field of quality;*

**step 4 - organization of quality training for all employees;*

**step 5 - planning work on the implementation of the QMS;*

**step 6 - implementation of the QMS with the formation of a team consisting of various specialists;*

**step 7 - establishing a system of processes, their coordinated relationship and interaction, highlighting the key processes necessary to achieve quality goals;*

**step 8 - documenting the QMS (to the extent and degree of specification required specifically for your enterprise - not forgetting the obligatory nature of some documentation in accordance with the requirements of ISO 9001-2015);*

**step 9 - internal audits;*

**step 10 - finalization of the QMS documentation and elimination of comments on the results of internal audits and testing when implementing the developed regulatory documentation;*

**step 11 - QMS certification;*

**step 12 - further development of the QMS.*

The light industry enterprises of the regions of the Southern Federal District and the North Caucasus Federal District have identified and manage numerous interrelated activities. Procedures have been identified, described and documented.

In addition, we developed, documented, implemented and maintain a quality management system, which ensured the company's continuous improvement of its performance in accordance with the requirements of GOST R ISO 9001 - 2015.

Such procedures within the framework of the quality management system are:

Basic procedures:

* design, development, production of prototypes and putting into mass production of LP 08-01;

* drawing up a plan for the production of LP 03-01;

* control and testing of products for their compliance with the requirements of technical regulations;

* packaging and storage (performed according to standard and individual technological processes for each product);

* sale (The process is carried out by trade organizations, or marketing services of the enterprise);

* provision of resources.

Management Procedures:

* processes of managerial activity of management;

* conducting marketing research;

* sequences and interactions of processes are defined;

* defined for each procedure criteria and methods necessary to ensure effectiveness, both in the implementation and management of these procedures.

The procedure for selecting criteria is set out in LP 01-01 "Procedure for the development, execution, approval and approval of quality management system processes" and assumes:

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* ensure that each process has the resources and information necessary to support and monitor those processes;

* to monitor, measure and analyze these processes;

* take the measures necessary to achieve the planned results and continuously improve these processes;

* management processes are carried out: in terms of marketing, this is joint participation in exhibitions, issuing tasks for advertising and researching market trends, and in terms of sales, this is a contract for the sale of products.

The transferred \results of the development, documentation and implementation of the quality management system are confirmed by the internal audit (LP 13-03), conducted on a quarterly basis under the audit program.

Internal audits of the QMS at the enterprise are carried out in order to:

*verification of QMS compliance” with the requirements of ISO 9001 - 2015 (GOST R ISO 9001-2015);

*assessing the compliance of the QMS with the requirements established by the internal documentation of light industry enterprises;

*assessment of the ability of the QMS to effective and efficient functioning;

*checking the implementation and effectiveness of corrective and preventive actions for nonconformities identified during previous audits;

*identifying areas of activity for improvement, opportunities and ways to improve the QMS.

Internal audits (inspections) are carried out: a scheduled audit quarterly in accordance with the internal audit program of the QMS, approved together with the order on internal audits by the heads of light industry enterprises, and an unscheduled audit is the basis for it:

*an increase in the number of comments or complaints about manufactured products;

* deterioration in the quality of products;

* checking the implementation of corrective and preventive actions and evaluating their effectiveness;

* changes in the structure of enterprise management;

* the need to improve the procedures, processes of the QMS of the enterprise;

* other reasons.

Audits can be carried out by both the QMS manager and other employees of the enterprise.

The selection of the audit team is carried out by the Deputy Executive Director for Quality, taking into account the need to ensure the independence of auditors from the audited activity; or other factors that can affect the effectiveness and efficiency of the internal audit of the QMS.

The chief auditor with the audit team during the internal audit of the QMS collect information in order

to verify the compliance of the QMS with the requirements of the international standard GOST R ISO 9001 - 2015, compliance with the requirements of the consumer and the requirements of the QMS documents, the effectiveness and efficiency of introducing records and maintaining them in working order, knowledge and understanding of the Policy and Objectives of enterprises in the field of quality, the degree of achievement of objectives in the field of quality, determining the possibility of improving the QMS.

Information collection methods include:

*survey of officials;

* monitoring activities, work environment;

* documentation analysis.

The information revealed in the course of the internal audit of the QMS is recorded by the auditors.

Upon completion of the audit, the chief auditor draws up a report on the internal audit of the QMS. The report must contain complete, accurate and unambiguously understood information on the conducted audit. This report is one of the types of quality records and is necessary for assessing the QMS and making decisions about its improvement. Copies of the report are sent to the heads of structural units and top management.

Light industry enterprises plan and conduct audits of the quality management system in accordance with LP 13-03 "Internal audit of the quality management system".

The top management of the enterprise reviews the quality management system quarterly to ensure its continued suitability, adequacy and effectiveness. The analysis includes an assessment of improvement opportunities and the need for changes in the company's quality management system, including the Quality Policy and objectives. The quality manual is the main defining document of the quality management system and describes it in accordance with the requirements of GOST R ISO 9001 - 2015.

General requirements for products in terms of establishing technical parameters, sanitary standards and safety precautions are determined by GOST RF, and for each product, technical specifications have been developed and approved in the prescribed manner, where specific values of product quality are determined in accordance with technical regulations.

There are two periods in the history of the quality problem. During the first, serious interest in what quality is was limited mainly to professional theory. Philosophers tried to define quality and its systemic position, however, in numerous philosophical disputes, the concept of “quality” was not one of the main problems.

The actualization of the theory of quality turned out to be dependent on the degree of development of the system-forming philosophical concept of “being” in the context of basic concepts derived from it, i.e. those concepts that help to carry out the ascent from

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the extremely abstract statement of existence with the only distinguishing property to be, to exist, to a concrete understanding with an established content, thanks to answers to derivative questions, such as "What is everything from?", "Due to what does everything exist?", "Is there non-existence?", "In what systemic forms does being find its certainty?"

Apparently, it was the last of these questions that brought philosophy onto the "path" of that interpretation of quality, which "hooked" not only those who "equipped" a fundamentally new type of worldview in human history.

It is logical to assume that the problem of the substance of being, as the first step towards the theory of quality, was hardly of concern to anyone outside the limited community of philosophers. Everything indicates that this was interesting for those whose gaze was turned to the Cosmos, to the depths of its construction, and the vast majority of fellow countrymen - philosophers were in the grip of earthly problems.

For the masses, diversity and the choice of goods were essentially not available. The plebeians demanded: "Bread and circuses!". A small aristocracy enjoyed the celebration of life in all its diversity. The problem of the quality of life was solved in accordance with the socio-cultural architecture of the society. This problem undoubtedly took place, but it could not mature into an actual one for society. The reason is simple - the lack of a sufficient level of mass demand for a quality product.

The problem of quality has acquired the scale of social relevance in the context of the transition to a mass production economy, the democratization of social relations, the development of education, the availability of education and other cultural values. In order for the question of quality to become one of the most important for a society, it was necessary for it to become relevant for the majority of those who form this society. Without the right to freedom and the purchasing power to make a choice, "quality" is not able to be among the priorities of the mass consciousness. Elite requests for quality are developed in exclusive, non-traditional theories, the main goal of which is not to achieve the truth, but to satisfy the needs of customers.

Of course, the qualitative and quantitative characteristics of phenomena of natural and artificial origin were known long before these signs were actualized in social life and consciousness reflecting its development, but, in the light of our study, the existence of knowledge of quality de facto is not so significant. The subject of research is not the awareness of quality, but the development of an understanding of quality at different horizons of social history.

Development is the universal state of everything that exists, from the simplest material substrates to the highest forms of thinking. Both the quality and its

quantitative expression were improved, the dependence of qualitative-quantitative changes was clarified. The emphasis shifted from quantity to quality. Having proved its evolutionary strength, humanity switched to the principle: "take not by number, but by skill." The struggle for survival was replaced by the desire for a quality standard of living in a wide range of interpretations. The struggle for a decent quality life began.

As history shows, having left savagery and barbarism, having laid the foundations of civilization, people have noticeably changed in the external forms of their manifestation, but civilization penetrates into the depths of human nature slowly and heavily. Biological history has laid in the nature of man an active principle, combined with a developed ability of thinking, noticeably superior to all other types of reflection. But this whole superstructure was formed over a fairly rigid animal frame, subordinated to the systemic goal of surviving the struggle. The conditions of the struggle were transformed, making adjustments to the means and forms, but the natural base itself turned out to be very inertial.

The transition from the natural egoism of the biological level to rationally active egoism, despite the well-known civilizational means of cultivation, did not meet the forecasts of either the romantics or the realists-optimists. Civilization was marked by non-civilizational forms of relations in the movement towards a quality life, which further actualized the interest in quality. To be on a par with the most important problems, quality had to appear in several functions: as an end, as a means, as a condition for the development of all social subjects at all levels of life.

History for historians is events and participants arranged in time sequence, a kind of chronology of significant facts of social and, in part, personal life. The philosopher and the non-historian specialist see their own interests in history. Philosophical and special interest in history is dictated by the need to understand the dialectics of the process in relation to human activity. The specialist seeks to discover in the past trends ways to solve his problem, sometimes far from private.

Intuitively, even at the dawn of civilization, the term history (historia) was interpreted in the sense of the study of the desired process, as opposed to a chronological description. Among the Ionians, the story, the story of the past, was called logos (logos). Only after a while, already in the works of the founders of philosophy, the logos acquired its modern meaning - a thought, an idea. Both Herodotus and Thucydides understood history as a comprehension of the course, events of the past, necessary for "instructions in the way of life" for those who live in the present. Having passed the test of time, historicism strengthened its positions and became the ideological basis of cultural memory. ON THE. Berdyaev argued: "From the first days of Creation... man is in the

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historical, and the historical is in man. Dive into the depths of time is a dive into oneself.

The past dissolves into time, leaving us, along with the memory of the past, thoughts about the present and responsibility for the future. New is always relative. Goethe was right when he said that everything clever is already known, you just need to think it over again.

History is a treasure trove of ideas, a goldmine for a thinking person, no matter what he does. A different attitude to history is the combined result of two causes: the first is the interpretation of time, the second is oneself in time. In the pre-Christian period of history, time was interpreted cyclically, representing it as the sum of repeating cycles closed on itself. With Christianity, the view of time has changed. Time appeared as an ascent to the infinite, divided into finite terrestrial and infinite extraterrestrial. The opposition between cyclical and non-cyclical consideration of time is characteristic of theological theory. We are not interested in it, however, as well as the properties of time in their abstract form.

After G. Hegel and K. Marx, what is relevant is not the idea of something in general, but immersion in a concrete-objective, or concrete-historical state of what turns out to be the object of research. In the case of time, it is important to analyze not only its universal properties, but to determine where and how it moves. What is important is that everything that exists in time can take place only if it corresponds to these objective characteristics of time. To exist in time means to have the properties of time. This position is universal both for the infinite variety of individual phenomena, and for the signs of being that are necessary for them, to which "quality" and "quantity" belong.

The standard understanding of the law of transition of quantitative changes into qualitative ones simplifies the view of their relationship. Both G. Hegel and F. Engels were far from the meaning that spread under the cover of the dialectical theory of development. Quantity does not translate directly into quality. A new quality, a qualitative state arises as a transition from the previous quality. In the changed quantitative conditions, the measure exhausts the reserve for the stability of functioning.

The measure is "qualitative quantity", it indicates the limits of quantity change without significant consequences for the given quality of the phenomenon. The output of quantitative indicators necessary for the achieved quality beyond the limits of the measure inevitably entails qualitative transformations. Simultaneously with the loss of the former quality, there is a process of birth from it, on its basis, of a new quality, commensurate with the changed quantity. The key position in the relationship between quality and quantity is the measure. On the same measure, quality specialists prefer not to talk seriously, reducing the measure to quantitative

standards. As if the measure is some kind of passing state of the "quality-quantity" system. It is necessary to clearly understand the objective and functional role of the measure in managing both quality and quantity.

"Measure" belongs to neither quality nor quantity. It expresses a systematic way of relations between quality and quantity, connects them. So, first: quantity and quality interact through the measure, the measure mediates their connection. What "benefit" will the practitioner gain from this conclusion? Mass production, including its "thrifty" variety, requires a dimensional characteristic, otherwise the fairy tale story about a pot of porridge or "a flower - seven flowers" has a chance of a real continuation. Chinese consumer goods are a classic example of the destruction of dialectical unity in the "quantity-quality" system.

The market, in its essence, is not capable of being a controller of a measure that regulates relations in the "quantity - quality" system. With the acquisition of wholesale forms of development, the dominance of finance capital and its natural generation - large-scale speculation and mediation, the modern market has opposed itself to production and has lost interest in the state of production. The market, using the specifics of mass production, has become saturated to the extent of its perversion and can afford to set the qualitative characteristics of goods].

The state behaves in the market like a teacher in a kindergarten. It puts the interests of the market above the interests of producers and the mass consumer. Under the "roof" of the general idea - the market pulls production along with it, the market and the state are merging. Quality-quantitative assessments are stamped into the zone of subjective arbitrariness.

As long as the theory of quality is not systematically built, the theory of quality management will be based on empirical principles that are not able to cover the subject of management as a whole, and are relatively significant in the limited specifics of production. In the absence of anything better, they are used, extrapolating local experience to other conditions, getting the effect due to the added adaptation measures, unfortunately, again, temporary and partial.

In the kaleidoscope of the history of changing methods of quality management, one can discern a certain logic. Life, on the other hand, requires not a "certain" logic, but logical certainty in the form of a holistic, systematically sound theory of quality as a methodological basis for building universal principles of quality management theory. The starting point here should be the idea of a systematic quality-quantity relationship within the framework of the measure of their coexistence.

Quantity helps to reveal the full quality. A quality thing can be created in one copy, but in order to reveal the qualitative potential of the manufacturer,

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a single copy (or work) is clearly not enough. The Faberge firm secured fame for itself with the first branded product, but it became a brand due to subsequent success in creating a collection.

An example of a systematic understanding of quality within the framework of a measure - dimensional certainty - is small series, the issue of collectible coins, medals. Quality is fixed within the boundaries of a quantitative value, which serves as a measure of its expression. The point here is not only to provide conditions of preference for the vip-consumer of products. The dependence of objective signs of quality on the number of copies produced is also significant. Mass production is objectively associated with a decrease in product quality. Measure is the frontier service of quality; going beyond the measured quantity is a crime against quality.

A mass domestic manufacturer is hardly interested in the theory of quality. She is irrelevant to him. If, nevertheless, by chance someone stumbles upon our reasoning, then, most likely, they will smile at their naivety. Trying to rebuild the Russian market with the help of theory, to give it a civilized look is classical quixoticism. First, it is necessary to organize the market space through political will, legislative initiatives and effective, rather than sham control over the legal order, to return the producer of goods to the market, removing an unmeasured number of intermediaries - speculators.

A real manufacturer is not interested in speculative transactions. For sustainable development, he needs his own consumer, who, by the way, in turn, does not mind at all, having his own specific and affordable producer within the framework of moral and legal relations.

A sense of national dignity is brought up by history and the existing reality. At school, you can learn from the best history textbook, but in addition to school history lessons, there is a current life that is more impressive than historical digressions. In the East they say: "how many times do not repeat halva, it will not be sweet in the mouth." Theory has always been considered the best practical guide, however, in the normalized circumstances of activity. Going into an illegal and semi-legal position, the manufacturer is alienated from quality and, naturally, from the theory of quality. Further, the quality is replaced by pseudo quality and the costs of advertising props grow.

The quality of human activity reflects such a complex of its characteristics, which to the maximum extent corresponds to the ideal idea of success.

The object of management is human activity in the totality of its factors, characteristics and features. But any human activity is a set of actions aimed at solving a problem, allowing to achieve the goal.

Therefore, we can talk about quality management as the management of those characteristics of human activity that make this

activity such as is necessary for reliable and real achievement of the goal.

The management of any processes ultimately results in the impact on certain of their characteristics: productivity, reliability, timeliness, design, efficiency, etc. The complex of such characteristics reflects the quality of the activity. That is why we can talk about quality management as a special approach.

In management there is a goal and means to achieve it. Moreover, quite definite relations are established between these two factors. It's a relationship concreteness, interdependence, direct interaction, adjustment, flexibility, adjustment.

In most cases of our domestic quality management is seen as nothing more than a means to an end. If we take into account that the goals, as a rule, are not sufficiently defined, then the means to achieve them have the same property. Quality in management is present as a general characteristic of products, achieved through regulations, standards, and technical control.

World management experience indicates a change in the status of quality in the management system and processes. In the strategic plans of many firms, quality is considered as the main goal of management, which determines profit, image, stability, confidence in competition, and prospects for development. At least the experience of Japan testifies to this.

Modern management requires the formulation of the problem of quality as the goal of management, and the achievement of this goal requires quite specific means. In quality management, it is of great importance to understand that quality cannot be achieved without taking into account all its components, without organizing interaction in the management system according to quality criteria. In many previously created quality management systems, the main role was played by the characteristics of the product, the properties of the manufactured item, and not by a set of certain characteristics that reflect the socio-economic process of functioning and development of production, the quality of the socio-economic system in general.

Product quality is a consequence of the action of many factors - the quality of personnel, the quality of production organization, the quality of equipment and technology, the quality of management, design developments, etc. All this seems obvious, however, in real practice, quality management has not yet become a special type of management.

The problem of quality in management should have the status of a goal and subject of management. This is difficult, but necessary, because it is necessary to take a different approach to determining the content of the problems to be solved in management, to evaluate them according to very complex factors. The quality of products can be seen, evaluated, understood. But it is difficult to determine and

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evaluate the quality of the company's activity, which gives good quality products, and even more so to assess the potential of quality. Not everything can be judged by the final result, not everything equally clearly includes the final result. Much, as it were, falls out in the process of its production, receipt, and is transformed into other properties. That is why the quality of products and the quality of activity are not the same thing, but the latter is much more important for the analysis of management, its organization, for setting goals and guidelines for management, for choosing means and methods of management.

This is where the real need for a systematic approach arises and becomes more acute, and not just its declaration. In practical activity, in the very formulation of the problem, in the disclosure of its content, we often exclude the very possibility of a systematic approach to solving problems.

One should not think that quality is determined only by technological components, there are factors that go beyond technology. These are factors of labor culture, production aesthetics, market conditions, public consciousness, production infrastructure, etc.

Methodologically, a systematic approach involves taking into account not only what exists in stock, in a given product, in finished form, but also what existed in the process of its manufacture or formation. In many cases, these were complex and lengthy processes in which something disappears, turns into something else, something changes status. But nothing passes without a trace, and everything remains in one way or another in quality. That is why the very concept of quality is valuable because it focuses on a systematic approach, if it is considered as the goal of management, that it requires taking into account the factors of processivity and structure, existence and development, factors of compliance with a certain external environment, human interests, values of social life, etc.

Today, quality management requires not only standards and state quality requirements. They can only reflect the minimum level of quality that the state must protect. In general, state requirements for quality are a system of administrative quality management. No standards and state requirements can keep up with the changing interests of a person, market processes of competition, changes in the value system and lifestyle. But it is they who determine the understanding of quality and the need for flexible, socio-economic quality management.

Quality requires criteria that reflect the dynamics of socio-economic processes. Quality should be determined by market situations that characterize the processes of the dynamics of supply and demand, needs and values. After all, only the market through the mechanisms of supply and demand, competition, pricing and other processes can show the true quality of the product, show what should be taken into account in its characteristics. State requirements, if

they should be, can guarantee only a minimum of quality, through which a system is built to protect the consumer from completely poor-quality products. The true dynamics of quality can only be understood in terms of the economics of demand and consumption, competition, price, the functional purpose of a product, its impact on lifestyle and its role in changing a person's lifestyle.

Quality is not only a set of product properties, it is also the initiative and activity of manufacturers in achieving these properties, in searching for and achieving their specific combination.

Quality is a concept of a socio-economic type, it is not a static system of properties, it is a person's attitude to his work, to society, to management.

In terms of awarding the Quality Mark, we have always been in a state of growth. But we felt the true dynamics of quality despite this indicator. A natural conclusion arises that either the criteria were underestimated, or these indicators were simply incorrectly compiled and used. The quality mark did not show true quality. This can be judged at least by the export of products. The volume of products with the Quality Mark was growing, and the demand for our products on the world market was declining due to poor quality, its non-compliance with international standards.

Now there are processes of structural restructuring of our production, and it is very important to lay fundamentally new foundations for quality management in the management system, to orient production towards quality as the goal of management and the basis for the successful functioning of production.

Quality is a type of development, it is new approaches to regulating product life cycles, creating new types of products, assessing obsolescence and physical wear and tear, taking into account the principle of universality.

Quality management also requires an information support system corresponding to this goal. Relying only on the meager data of domestic reporting, it is sometimes impossible to draw up a true picture of the state of quality, all the more so to find the reasons for its change or evaluate the formation processes. But the main thing in management is the origins of quality and the trend of its change.

In the traditional view, the problem of quality management is reduced mainly to the problem of quality control. This is a sign and factor of the administrative approach to quality management. But experience, both domestic and foreign, shows that the main factor in quality management is a comprehensive motivation for quality, in which the leading role is played not by control, it can be minimized, but by the way the production worker works, in which both functions and functions are combined. goals, and means of self-affirmation, and interests, and attitude

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towards the company, and sociability, and the socio-economic atmosphere of activity.

Management should be focused specifically on the way of activity corresponding to a certain type of quality activities.

This ultimately gives the quality of products without strict control of the administrative type, but control as a system of analytical evaluation.

In a market economy, the "sign of quality" is the price of a product, its popularity, demand, and the image of a company that cannot produce low-quality products at all.

Achieving a certain quality requires costs. The value of quality costs is the most important characteristic that reflects quality management. But the cost of quality does not yet characterize the potential for achieving quality. The costs can be very high, but the quality is low, because the costs do not always have an immediate and direct return. They sometimes serve only for the consistent formation of the quality potential, for example, the costs for the qualification of workers, the infrastructure of production.

Therefore, in quality management, the formation of quality potential is of great importance, which includes the culture of activity, the socio-psychological atmosphere, the qualifications and education of employees, technology, technical equipment, and the type of organization of activity.

Quality does involve serious costs, but it guarantees a stable market position. By working for quality, the manufacturer creates confidence in his own and national future. A properly built understanding of quality guarantees a perspective even in the conditions of the domestic semi-market.

We will try to formulate practically significant fundamental provisions in the order of introduction to the theory of quality:

Quality is not reduced to the sum of properties important for the existence of a product; it is their peculiar combination, built on the basis of usually two features - more general and more specific. For example. Shoes - "clothing for the legs", a hat - "clothes for the head", muffler - "clothes for the nose and neck", etc. Therefore, the focus should be on them.

Quality allows changes that do not lead to a loss of quality, but reduce or increase its consumer value; quality - a set of qualitative states that satisfy system-forming features to varying degrees. The "play" of quality allows you to maneuver in the process of creating a product with a given quality, depending on the specific capabilities of the manufacturer and consumer.

- Quality does not exist outside of quantity, they are dialectical opposites, their opposition is valid only within the limits of unity, from which it follows that, when creating quality, it is necessary to include quantitative expressions in qualitative characteristics

both in relation to individual properties of the goods and the quantity of marketable products. A.K. Savrasov, finding himself in a difficult life situation, made several copies of his famous painting "The Rooks Have Arrived". As a rule, author's copies have a high level of craftsmanship and are well paid for. The artist was also paid. When P. Tretyakov was asked a question: would he buy copies of paintings by the artist A.K. Savrasova, what happened to the original? P. Tretyakov's answer turned out to be predictable in terms of categoricalness - no! Quality requires not only skill, but also inspiration. Inspiration with repetitions burns out.

□ Quality and quantity are connected by a measure that is most often forgotten. Meanwhile, when defining quality, one must simultaneously think about its dimensionality, both from the standpoint of market conjuncture and from the point of view of the signs of quality themselves. "Quality" is concretized in the concept of "quality". "Quality" - a concept that reflects the model image of the product, "quality" - determines the quantitative limits of reality and reasonableness of quality (the physical and moral status of the product).

Quality and the idea of quality are stable phenomena, but time changes them too. Initially, quality was identified with meaning. The criteria of quality were the usefulness and size of the subject, relations. With the development of consciousness and practical possibilities, the grounds for comparison and choice have developed. Quality is relatively separate from quantity. The differentiation of usefulness is being made, participation is being rethought as quantitative features. The evolution of the understanding of quality is directly conditioned by the embodiment of creative potential in activity. The discrepancy in the intensity of advancement of individual skill, the interests of those who are called upon to clear the way for talent and mass consciousness complicates the understanding of quality and the process of quality management. Of particular importance is the specificity of the interpretation of quality, in particular, such a basic characteristic as objectivity. The social theory of being is built on a natural-historical basis - the canvas was laid by nature, and the historical drawing was created by man. In the natural environment, all signs, including such synthetic ones as quality, are products of spontaneous movement. In society, every phenomenon passes through activity, includes in itself and in its quality the mental and physical labor of a person. Determining the quality of phenomena created by human activity is impossible without sociocultural concretization. As a result, two questions arise: as quality - products of spontaneous movement. In society, every phenomenon passes through activity, includes in itself and in its quality the mental and physical labor of a person. Determining the quality of phenomena created by human activity is impossible

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without sociocultural concretization. As a result, two questions arise: as quality - products of spontaneous movement. In society, every phenomenon passes through activity, includes in itself and in its quality the mental and physical labor of a person. Determining the quality of phenomena created by human activity is impossible without sociocultural concretization. As a result, two questions arise:

in what status and to what extent consciousness enters into what is traditionally called the quality of things.

The answers to both questions must be sought in the philosophical theory of alienation. The theory of alienation has no direct relation to the theory of quality. It contains the keys to the methodology of constructing the theory of quality. From the above reasoning, it is clear that the authors are not idealists, rather they are balancing on the verge of pessimism and optimism. They are critical of the modern, pragmatic approach of market liberals to scientific and philosophically based theory. A lighter version of the theory, when a fragment torn from the general theory is turned into the theory itself and adjusted to the design of a market distorted to please speculators, economists-theorists and suppliers of a high-quality surrogate to domestic shelves suits. How long the Russian economy will retain this configuration, we (and not only us) are not given to know, however, the world experience of economic development at various stages of economic relations shows that transition periods pass and over time economic life returns to normal.

The trajectory of the process of alienation of human creativity into something that exists outside of it must necessarily preserve and activate the ability to create. Unlike the being of nature, the being of man is not substantial. It is not self-sufficient and can take place solely due to the interchange initially with nature, and subsequently with society, through which human relations with each other and interaction with nature are built. The tool that ensures the existence of a person is labor, the highest quality of labor is manifested in activity.

The quality of activity, on the one hand, is an indicator of the quality of a person's life (it should be so!), On the other hand, high-quality activity is built into the quality of what he transforms. The quality of the "first" (natural) nature is formed by itself as a set of objectively related natural features, spontaneously. The quality of the "second" (reconstructed, adapted by man to suit his interests) nature is synthetic. It seems to be a double helix formed by the natural features of natural material (perhaps in people's relations, knowledge expressed indirectly) and the qualitative characteristics of human activity - knowledge, emotions, will, value orientation, skill. As a result, the quality of the product, as opposed to the product itself, embodies the quality of the individual.

The personality is alienated in quality, and therefore, in principle, alienation is natural and does not oppress the personality. The negative consequence of alienation is caused by the disproportionate compensation for the lost energy of activity. Having discovered the poor quality of the goods, hidden production defects, fraudulent actions of the seller, a normal buyer is upset, first of all, because of his own poor-quality solution. Other losses of the transaction are most often compensated. There is a feeling of imperfection of one's own taste and knowledge.

The quality of everything that is created by activity includes the properties of activity, both practical and spiritual in an objectified (objective or functional) expression. This leads to the conclusion about the need to form and direct the development of the ability of mass consciousness to qualitatively evaluate goods: certain experience in the Soviet era was and showed its effectiveness: "circles", "schools", "universities", including those initiated by television and radio. The place of systematic education of the mass consumer, professional assistance in the development of a culture of high-quality selectivity, today on the air is clogged with aggressive advertising, the quality of which is not controlled or control is not commensurate with the size of the deception. Who should be the main educator? The producer and only he, because only he, in full measure, according to the logic of the formation of understanding, should know what is quality. Taking on the production of goods without understanding the specific quality of this product means a professional failure in the market.

The release of a product with fake quality is prosecuted by law, however, formally and ex post facto. Suppliers of pseudo-quality goods hope for the latter.

For the sake of objectivity, let's say: the true creators of quality products will be outcasts in our market as long as the guardians of order are confident in their own impunity for corrupt activities. However, it is necessary to move forward. History is ugly, but still moving towards order by the conservatism of manufacturing techniques, but even at that time the municipal authorities strictly checked the quality of products, as well as the abilities of the candidate for the manufacturer, there was an official position approved by the authorities of the city or country. Agricultural products were controlled by the consumers themselves.

The Industrial Revolution simplified the production process and created the conditions for mass production. Adequate quality control measures were required. As the social architectonics leveled out and the range of goods became more accessible, ideas about quality changed in the direction of its quality - quality components. At the same time, the possibility of quality falsification was formed. Further, both de facto and de jure, there was only a step to replace the

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brand qualities. Going beyond the limits of a measure opens the way for legal violations and a moral crisis, up to and including without limit.

Were the trends in the interpretation of quality and attitudes towards quality that developed in the economy of mass production inevitable? No, they were generated by the new nature of production, reflected this nature and, to a certain extent, were an objective reflection, but, in addition to the object reflected by consciousness, there is an angle of reflection, due to the position of the consciousness of the reflecting subject, his interests as a participant in the processes taking place in objective reality.

Objective reality itself, by definition, resides outside and independent of consciousness. Its reflection is subjectivized, which, in general, looks in accordance with the theory of reflection. However, it allows, in private, and subjective distortion - involuntary - due to misunderstanding, and conscious in order to obtain a temporary gain. Competition is always a struggle, unfortunately, the struggle is not always conducted according to the rules.

Quality has been and remains the subject of manipulation in the interests of those who control the market. The consensus about the quality of the creator, producer, seller and consumer is the sweetest fairy tale. Consent is achievable between creator, consumer and producer. This "trinity" embodies the subjective mechanism for resolving the problem of alienation. The creator - the creator of the product finds satisfaction in production and consumption. He realizes in them his human power. The manufacturer is interested in stable relations with the creator and the consumer. The consumer is satisfied with the quality and proportionality of the price. "Shares" and "sale" do not confuse him or deceive him.

The former quality management, although it had such a name, had the following disadvantages:

1. It was carried out under the conditions of administrative management and therefore bore the imprint of this management (administrative methods of quality regulation, limited opportunities for motivating high quality, relying mainly on a quality control system, quality planning and thereby limiting its improvement).

2. Quality in management processes was considered as a means of achieving certain goals (implementation of mainly quantitative indicators of the plan).

3. Quality was declared very broadly, but was not a factor in the management mechanism, the call for quality was not supported by additional funding.

4. The main thing in understanding and regulating quality was the quality of products. Hence, all quality improvement activities and its analysis began with the product and were tied to it. Such is the management methodology, such is the approach to quality management: take into account only what directly affects the quality of products, and evaluate

its quality according to planned indicators. It was a limited approach.

Let us designate new approaches to quality management.

1. Quality should be included in the management process as a goal that defines all the necessary means to achieve it. The difference is that the goal directs development, while the means ensure the purposefulness of processes, the possibility of achieving the goal. Quality is something to strive for, and not something that would act as a tool or method for any achievement of a different nature.

2. It is necessary to move from focusing on product quality to focusing on the quality of activities. This requires expanding the range of factors included in the methodology of problem analysis, their formulation and search. This means understanding that the quality of products is determined by the quality of life, it shows what quality is necessary, achievable; this means that product quality must be considered in terms of quality of life. This would testify to a truly human factor of management.

3. Quality management should be based on market mechanisms of economic development. This means that you should not strive to manage quality based on requirements. The main thing is the economic motivation of quality, both in general and in detail, ensuring its achievement, quality research.

4. The methodology of quality management involves a systematic approach. This means that in quality management, the main thing is to identify all the hidden and explicit, direct and indirect relationships of factors that affect quality and form quality, and we will name practical recommendations for quality management:

1. When working with personnel, you need to pay attention not only to his qualifications, but also to the quality of education.

2. Do not strive to make demands on the quality of products or even on the quality of work, but strive to increase activity in relation to quality, look for ways to improve quality at each workplace, to form quality, both in detail and in general.

3. It is necessary to find the main thing in the process of forming the quality of activity. It is different for different firms, but it always exists.

4. Not standards and requirements solve the problem of quality, but people interested in improving quality.

5. Quality is not only and not so much a characteristic of manufactured products as a socio-economic characteristic of activity. It is necessary to strive not only for the quality of products, but mainly for the quality of activities, because this lays the potential for quality even when it does not initially affect the quality of products.

6. The quality of activity is not just labor productivity, it is the awareness of activity, culture, attitude to activity, professionalization, education,

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which makes it possible to use professional skills in a different way.

7. To strive for the quality of activity means not only to work well, but to strive for self-improvement, creativity, self-education.

The seller stands on the way to consensus, the subject of relations, which, in essence, has nothing to do with the quality of the goods, but it is he who is the key figure in the market economy. We get everything we need from him. He is a monopolist and, as such, dictates the terms of relations through price interest and profit margins. In Russia for twenty years, not a single branded light industry enterprise has appeared, on the contrary, a lot of trade brands have appeared. Trade rows are multiplying, and consumers are assured that the production of goods is unprofitable. The culture of the organization of trade is replaced by the concept of "sales quality". The culture of trade is measured by the assortment, price and physical availability of goods, high-quality advisory support, the absence of queues, compliance with sanitary and hygienic standards, the appearance and behavior of staff, after-sales service. The "quality of trade" is determined by the proportionality of the price and quality of the goods, the conformity of the goods sold with its certificate, and the demonstration of the goods. The seller's profit should not exceed the producer's profit. Both should not wait for an increase in consumer activity only by increasing consumer wages, but create the most favored nation treatment for the buyer (without colluding with another predator of the market - banks).

Only in Russia, and only liberals - marketers at every opportunity remember how bad it was for the people before the onset of true democracy - they were starving, they were ragamuffins, they lived no one knows where and how. Monitoring the quality of life - through the qualitative possibilities of consumption - is expedient within the framework of the existing time. There is only one criterion - the consumer basket is growing and due to what it is increasing?

The rate of inflation is a necessary but not sufficient indicator of the state of the quality of life. The government has taken inflation reduction as its main benchmark. The indicator is actually socially - economically significant, indicates the culture of the market and indirectly about the state of production. The disadvantage of this indicator is the lack of quality in it. The quality of life is determined through the amount of products consumed in monetary terms. The qualitative composition remains constant and one can only speculate about quality, since quality erodes quality. The quality of shoes, clothes, cereals, fish, vegetables, fruits within the common name varies quite significantly. The reserve of quality manipulation is significant. The main thing is still in understanding the quality, not the name, but the systemic characteristic of the product, reflecting the assortment.

Quality is a system of properties that are essential for a product - this is commonplace and well-known, which is actively used. Replacing properties or their consistency in a quality product. Essential properties are those that are not just inherent in the product, they determine its functionality. Such properties, as a rule, are revealed in the process of "work" of the product for its intended purpose, they are hidden from the unprofessional view of the consumer. In its "pure" form, the market is an intermediary and should not be interested in the quality of products. The task of the market in the theory of the organization of commodity production is the organization of exchange between the producer and the consumer. The development of the market stimulates the increase in production in the interests of the consumer within the infrastructural status of the market.

The monopolization of production led to the accumulation of financial capital, the latter's autonomy, and market control. As a result, the market has turned from an intermediary into a key subject, trying to replace the indicator function - to show the demand for goods - with the role of the organizer of economic activity as a whole, which distorts the economic system.

The economy of commodity production was created by the production of a product and the need for a mass product. The system-forming factor here is the production of goods as a product necessary for consumption by others, that is, the process of alienation of consumption. With natural production, the quality of the product was hardly an actual problem. Quality "dissolved" in the conservatism of technology and technology, traditional assortment. The question of quality was raised by the consumer when he got the opportunity to compare at the fair. The market, which grew out of fair gatherings, gradually enriched the representative status with the advertising business, taking control of the relationship between the producer and the consumer. Management levers - financial policy, directions - the main ones - two: the impact on quantity and quality.

The quality of the product has become relevant in commodity production. It became clear that in the understanding of quality there are sensual and rational thinking (the latter in the form of calculation). The subjective factor is objectified and fetishized. The market is not capable of influencing the objective properties of a product directly (using its own mechanisms), but it can very well influence the objectivization of subjective ideas. So the manipulation of quality was first included in the functions of the market, then became an element of economic policy.

A sound and healthy economic policy is called upon to work on improving quality in two interrelated directions: technical and technological, completed by a rigid legal block of support, and socio-cultural - to

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provide comprehensive support for the formation of conditions for the subjective perception of quality, to block the negative effect of advertising influence, which has long and thoroughly become an attribute of market speculation on the importance of quality for the buyer. The presence of choice and solvent opportunities do not serve as a basis for the indisputability of a quality acquisition.

In the existing market, price and quality are divorced even at auctions, famous for the thoroughness of the organizational culture. The buyer is turned into an expert and this grimace of the market is not so bad as illogical. The market forces the consumer to develop as a person. From a layman with a wallet, in order not to turn out to be suckers, we unwittingly try to learn more about the subject of interest, we improve our "purchasing qualifications". The term is not new, it is used by journalists, but for them it is a passing, verbal number, and for us it is no longer a new combination of common words, but the most important concept, without which the modern theory of quality does not have a systemic holistic view.

"Purchasing qualification" includes, along with certain knowledge that helps to determine the location of the store, the price range for the goods, requires basic information about the manufacturer, quality features of the product, the manufacturer's market reputation, company traditions, scale of activity. Today, in the consumer market, the naive buyer runs the risk, beyond any reasonable measure, of being the victim not only of deceit, but also of his own carelessness, and therefore without any right to compensation.

The buyer in Russia is formally protected. In real life, one has to be guided by the famous rule "saving the drowning ("buying") is the work of the drowning themselves, read "buying".

Raising the "purchasing qualifications", if there is a desire, is a mutually beneficial matter for the state, activating the cultural national heritage and the patriotic mood of the mass consumer. Although there is another way, tested under Mao in China - "the worse, the better."

Imported consumer goods - not Chinese - in the 1980s-90s. we had a bang! The assortment, packaging, external features of the product were impressive. And what is the result? After 10 years, the manufacturer returns Soviet brands, naturally in the absence of effective control, not of Soviet quality.

We know how to make high-quality products and are quite able to regain "our" market. The question is not even the price, the problem is the loss of control over the consumer (and not only consumer, judging by failures in rocketry, aircraft operation, etc.) market. They explain to us: we need economic measures. True, however, it is a half-truth. If you need it, then take it. The government should have power that is not nominal. It's time to understand that economics has

always been politics, economics has always been political economy.

Economic movement is self-movement, but it does not take place in a vacuum. The economy is the basis of social movement. Society provides the conditions for economic movement, and the state has the right to actively engage in the mechanisms of economic self-propulsion, directing the development of the economy in the interests of society.

An amazing thing. When it comes to the future of technological progress, futurologists of various stripes moan that the autonomization of the movement of technology will lead to the dominance of robots over humans, and it is better not to interfere in the development of the economy. For whom is it better? There is only one conclusion: do not disturb the self-movement of the economy in the interests of those who have privatized the economy and in whose service are the "border guards" who prohibit controlling economic processes through politics.

None of the convertible currencies is backed by a high-quality commodity equivalent, and the "free" movement of the currency continues under the guise of politics. Financial self-movement creates favorable opportunities for chaos in the consumer market. The state sluggishly protects the legitimate interests of the national producer, even when the product is a product of interethnic integration. There is no political aggressiveness, politics is dragged along in the wagon train of the economy instead of being ahead of its development on the basis of objective socio-economic trends. I would like to believe the explanations of politicians regarding the success of joining the WTO. It's good that they bargained, creating a legal "airbag" for the domestic manufacturer of consumer goods. The problem is: how will they now take advantage of the concessions from the WTO?

The time for political action—not decisions—is most propitious. The dope of the nineties and zero seemed to be on the decline. Awareness of the qualitative advantages of many Soviet products of the light and food industries is returning. There is a revival in consumer cooperation, which can stimulate the production of agricultural products in the countryside. There is a growing distrust of consumer imports, including due to their mass production in China. Migration flows are stabilizing.

A harsh assessment of the socio-economic situation and a direct indication of the government's responsibility for the failure to fulfill the presidential instructions of 2017 in the Address of V.V. Putin are associated with the determination to "tighten the screws" to keep the movement on track. A clear activation in interethnic economic relations within the Customs Union, a reset of strategic relations with an emphasis on China, India, Iran, and Latin America. The real possibility of full-scale cooperation with Egypt, Syria and Iran, for example, the key states of the Middle East and the African North, all this is a

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unique international sphere for restoring balance in the domestic market of consumer goods.

Domestic producers need a "clear" economic policy. By "intelligibility" they mean: clarity, consistency, guarantee support, which allows cutting off the many-sided arbitrariness of administrative authorities and "guardians" of order. Everyone is responsible for quality. And those who produce, and those who are called upon to ensure the rights of producers. The Customs Union has lit the green light for national goods on the market of the Treaty countries. Thus, an equilibrium real market competition has been created, which makes it possible to evaluate natural, and not advertising quality. By the way, a wonderful research topic is "real and "advertising" quality, i.e. created by advertising.

It is no less important to analyze the problem of quality in the coordinate system of the national mentality and interethnic integration. Integration is deliberately replaced by globalization, despite the obvious difference between these phenomena. Both trends are objective and characteristic of recent history.

Integration - interethnic interpenetration of various types of activities of a socio-economic, cultural and humanitarian scale. It may have an international size, for example - "Union State (RF and RB); local - Customs Union; regional (Shanghai Organization, EEC). Globalization indicates the worldwide scope of the phenomenon. Global problems include those that have arisen as a result of common, but not necessarily integration, processes, and require a consolidated solution.

Global problems, in contrast to the problems associated with integration, are potentially relevant and have a strategic meaning. For example, how to protect life on Earth from large meteorites. When the time of the event is postponed, but it itself is extremely important in terms of significance, then speculators, including financial oligarchs, actively rush into the resulting gap, trying to profit from uncertainty.

Quality is associated with globalization, but practically not so relevant. Quality is closely related to integration.

Consider the problem of "quality of consumer goods" in the coordinate system "national" and "international". First of all, it is necessary to find an answer to the question: is integration capable of replacing the national component of quality?

Integration processes are based on standardization and uniform metrological characteristics of production, which corresponds to objective reality. Technological progress is based on science, scientific knowledge is imperative in terms of normativity. However, being in common is not sufficient on its own. General requirements are realized through a special development, due to the specific circumstances of the action. In other words, no matter how standardized the production of a

commodity is, it will still show the originality of the conditions of production.

The specificity of the conditions - regional, national is immanently present in the raw materials, climate, traditions, culture of consciousness of the performers. And in all this is the power of production, which determines the nuances of the quality of the product, creating a special consumer interest in it. Tea is grown in our time all over the world, but the uniqueness of tea plantations in Sri Lanka, the national attitude to tea, ensured the leading position in the quality of the Ceylon product. The same can be said about Kenyan coffee, Bulgarian and Chilean peppers, French cognacs and champagne, Ukrainian lard, Bavarian and Dutch beer, Scottish whiskey, Russian linen, Egyptian cotton, Chinese silk, Argentinean leather, Greek olive oil and much more. The specificity of the environment should be valued and preferences for its reproduction should be provided. In the founding treaties, The Customs Union reinforces the interethnic division of labor built in the 20th century, contributes to the expression of the objective and subjective aspects of the development of production, mutually enriches the market, facilitating the access of manufacturers to it. But this is all theory. Theory develops into reasonable practice not only because it is correct. Activity makes theory a practice, and in order to get the desired result, the activity must be systematic and consistent. [9-10]

Interest in the quality of goods, theoretically, should not begin in production. Its initial position is in a normalized market, more precisely, at a meeting between a manufacturer and a buyer. A normal market is an indicator of the quality of a product. Demand drives the production chain. But not the spontaneous demand of buyers abandoned to the mercy of fate. Demand is a state of mind determined by purchasing power, but not limited to the amount of money, especially when lending is stimulated by banks in every possible way. Demand farmed out to intermediaries, lobbyists, speculators is a deadly disease for Russia's national producer. Demand should be taken under control and formed, the buyer should be educated. Consumer education costs a lot. But it's worth it if you look to the future.

Market liberalism corresponded to the flourishing of the first type of mass production economy, focused on ensuring free access and choice of goods. Such production perceives the consumer as an abstract subject of the relationship in the system "manufacturer - seller - buyer". The seller is given the role of an active intermediary, but nothing more. It culturally provides a meeting point between producer and consumer. The system, on the other hand, must be functionally active, which implies not the presence of its constituent components, but their participation. The perfection of the system is not determined by aesthetics - a sign of design. It manifests itself in the maximum activation of the possibilities of that, the

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system of relations of which it acts. The perfection of the design of the system lies in the ultimate realization of the potential of relations that create consistency.

The buyer is perfect as a subject of systemic interaction with his purchasing preparation. It is perfect not by the size of the paying capacity. His complicity is determined by knowledge of the commodity-economic situation. The consumer is not the object of the application of the actions of the seller and the manufacturer. The consumer is a subject of the market and it is in his (and other subjects too) interests to be informed not by the advertising community, but by professional sources. Then counterfeit and "lochism" will cease to populate the market. The quality of a product starts in the mind of the consumer. Imposing the idea of quality is bad for all legitimate subjects of economic relations. It needs to be brought up again by everyone: the manufacturer, the seller, the buyer himself and the institutions of civil society, if the state is passive.

The transition to mass production of the second type - a "smart", "prudent" economy activates systemic relations. The function of the market appears in a new light. Together with the manufacturer, the seller focuses on knowledge of consumer tastes. To the perfection of the system, it remains to take only one, but not an easy, step - the whole world to take up the formation of a consumer culture.

The accusation of the current generation in the consumer attitude to life is not entirely fair. Consumption is the ultimate goal of production. The trouble is in the absence of a consumer culture of the mass consumer, the trouble is really of a socio-cultural dimension. Another consequence of funding cultural progress. Why does one power replace another, while culture is still in power last in line for political relevance? It is time to understand that not only science has become a direct productive force. Culture is also a factor in the development of production, moreover, a multifaceted and very effective factor.

The criterion basis of human behavior includes those stable characteristics of his personality that determine the choice, decision-making by a person about his behavior. Naturally, this kind of decision is greatly influenced by the goals that a person pursues, the conditions in which actions unfold, his capabilities, the dynamics of ongoing processes, mood and a number of other factors. However, with all the variety of factors, the behavior of each individual person has a certain stability and predictability, certain principles of behavior inherent in him, criteria for selection and preference, taboos, and the like. Moreover, in exactly the same situations, if such situations exist at all, different people can make completely different decisions. And this will again be determined by The criterion base of any person's behavior consists of his disposition towards people, events and processes, the totality of values shared by this person, the set of beliefs that a person adheres to,

and the principles that he follows in his behavior. All these components of the criterion base of behavior are in close interaction, interpenetration and mutual influence. However, despite their strong interdependence, they can be considered as relatively separate characteristics of a person's personality that affect his behavior.

Location of a person to people, individual processes, the environment, their work, the organization as a whole plays a very important role in establishing normal interaction between a person and the organizational environment. One and the same phenomenon or action, which has exactly the same manifestation and has the same effect on people, can cause a different reaction due to the fact that people have a different disposition towards this phenomenon or action. Reflecting a person's feelings towards a particular object, the location makes his decisions and actions individual. At the same time, it is important to emphasize that usually a person has a certain disposition towards each object or phenomenon that he encounters in life.

The location is characterized by the fact that it: firstly, it is invisible, since it is contained in man.

On the "surface" only its consequences are visible;

secondly, the location stems from the feelings that a person has for an object;

thirdly, the location is, as it were, a point located on the axis with the poles "like" - "dislike"; fourthly, the location affects the behavior of a person and is manifested in the fact that he behaves in accordance with an a priori positive or negative attitude towards a phenomenon, object, process or person.

Is it permissible within the framework of scientific analysis to compare a real object with a phenomenon from the folklore classics, for example, a market with the fabulous cave of Aladdin? It is not easy to answer this question, since thinking is quite specialized, and specialization is fixed in certain traditions that formalize the approach. Scientific editing requires adherence to the requirements of the way of presenting the content of thoughts that is characteristic of science. Neo-positivists generally tried to build a special language of scientific communications, however, without success. The collision was practically resolved by the scientists themselves, most of whom actively involved figurative thinking in scientific publications, rightly believing that thinking is a single flow of movement of concepts and images, logical and extralogical, real and fantastic, imaginary. Cognition in any expression is a progressive process, connecting the continuous with the discrete, the ordinary with the unusual. Normalized thinking is relatively, conditionally, artificially organized. The appeal in scientific thinking, including its printed forms, to images created outside the scientific specialization of cognition, of course, is technologically conditioned.

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Thinking cannot exist outside of culture, it is a product of cultural progress. The multidirectional development of culture is the basis of its wealth, and the contradictions of cultural thinking are dialectically united. Comparing the riches of the fairy-tale cave with the riches of a developed modern market, one can clarify a lot, both in economic knowledge and in the dynamics of the transformation of economic theory, in particular, to explain why modern economists stubbornly distance themselves from the political nature of economic science, opposing the economic theory of classical political economy.

Will, perseverance, resourcefulness provided Aladdin with access to cave riches. No intricacies can stop a purposeful person. There is no unknowable, there is still the unknown. The market is a complex economic mechanism, but it can be understood and managed. The riches of the cave belonged to the rapists, the market is also not free from violence, so the state is obliged to take the necessary measures to curb the market element, which serves as fertile ground for those who prefer force to law. The fundamental difference between the riches of the cave and the market is that the robbers were not going to add anything else, and Aladdin had to be content with what he received. The wealth of the market, on the contrary, will grow and along with them problems, the main of which is the realization of commodity receipts. What should be the product for the buyer to sweep it off the shelves? What kind of buyer would you like to see on the market?

If the "buyer" is considered outside the socio-economic context, then the answer to the second question looks very clear. The market is waiting for a buyer with high solvency. There are such buyers in Russia, but their share does not exceed 7 percent, and they rarely go to the market familiar to the masses, more by chance than out of necessity. The mass consumer is extremely economical and it is difficult to "shake" him to buy. It requires a certain type of product that can charm, and the presentation of the product - "cultural packaging". It is necessary to attract a buyer, to bewitch. As a reflection of the desire to comprehend the specifics of the status of the demand for goods on the market, one should consider the revival of interest in the concept of "attractiveness of goods". It is significantly more specific in content in comparison with the close and more scientific concept of "the market demand for a product".

The concept of "attractiveness of a product" concretizes in the characteristics of the product at the same time its consumer value - the degree of "exchange" for money and the realism of the price set by the seller. Both the manufacturer and the seller have to be friends with the concept of "attractiveness", which is vectorially directed towards the buyer. It knots the interests of all the main subjects of the economically free market. This function of "attractiveness" explains the active promotion of the

concept in the group of those economic categories that reveal the potential of the product's competitiveness in the market. Some authors tend to interpret this nomination as traditional actions in the interests of the application of advertising production, which is inappropriate to do due to one-sidedness, interfering with the achievement of a systematic understanding of the value of the attractiveness of the product in the process of reproduction. Advertising production is indeed present here, but as an accompanying factor, that is, the usual place of advertising in the market is confirmed.

The growing interest in scientific research and economic policy in the concept of "attractiveness of a product", in our opinion, shows the pattern of restructuring mass production from the existing simplified type to a new, sometimes opposed to it, method of organization - lean production (prudent, gentle production), focused not on abstract variety of buyers' needs, but on the specific architectonics of consumer requests and the solvency of potential buyers. Through the study of the architecture of the market, economic science is called upon to become a direct productive force, thus objectifying the main consequence of the scientific and technological revolution of the middle of the 20th century.

The history of the allocation of the goods market to the zone of special attention of economists and sociologists is associated with the birth and development of mass production. The time of mass factory production is calculated with the Industrial Revolution, which laid the scientific, technical and organizational prerequisites for such a development of labor productivity, which turned out to be sufficient for a real opportunity to satisfy the demand for vital goods of the main part of the population through the provision of work and stable wages. It was this combination of production and consumption that launched the development of reproduction on a national and then transnational scale.

The natural economy that preceded the industrial stage does not fully correspond to the concept of "reproduction", it was determined by the local demand for the product being produced and was essentially closed to the producer, not contributing to the proper extent to national progress. Hence the cult of wars of conquest aimed at plundering near and far neighbors, feudal fragmentation, constant redistribution of property. Wars and power actions performed the functions of the market. The market worked in addition to politics, it was not permanent.

It is also appropriate to emphasize that the development of the market and the formation of the image of reproduction that has become a classic are due not only to scientific and technological progress, a change in the way of organizing production, but also the competition of production products in the market, the differentiation of the market structure. The history of the market shows the dialectical law of the

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relationship between quantitative and qualitative changes. When the manufacturer began to work on the market, the product turned into a commodity. The status of the product has changed, and the requirements for it have changed. In order for the product to be sold as intended, it had to attract the attention of the buyer. A product is not a product for sale, but a product that can interest the consumer. The term "hot product" reflects just the movement of goods, its demand by the buyer. "Selling Goods" - the locomotives of the market.

The sign of "attractiveness" belongs to the basic characteristics of the product, and is its "relic" property, which has strengthened its position. It is unprofessional, absurd to produce an unattractive product. Domestics could be forced, taught to consume what they had prepared, grown or made, but buyers always have their own reason and vote with a coin so necessary to continue production.

In modern times, the concept of "presentation" is used as a synonym for "attractiveness". From here, perhaps, the expression "prominent product" came from, that is, one that accumulates attention to itself, "strikes" the eye. The ability to make a product "prominent", "attractive" requires both the manufacturer and the seller of high qualifications, professional imagination, and presentation skills. This is a costly business, but the costs pay off with the result. The demand for an "attractive", "prominent" product is high, accelerates the receipt of working capital, stimulates the increase in production, consolidates the relationship between the seller and the manufacturer, gives stability to the increase in production, which serves as a good advertisement for the manufacturer in the market, eliminates part of the direct payments for advertising services that cost everyone more expensive because of its pretentiousness.

Even a panoramic and historical review of the systemic position of the concept of "attractiveness" testifies to its versatility and complexity of manifestation. The fact that the term "attractiveness" does not appear so often in journal publications should not lead the mind into a state of question regarding the actual significance of this sign of marketability in the ongoing economic restructuring to the level of lean production. It is no coincidence that, answering the question of the Levada Center, asked in April 2017: "What first of all inspires you with a sense of pride in Russia?" giving the last to the "relative" - the "health system".

K. Marx began his study of the bourgeois mode of production with an analysis of the contradictory nature of the commodity. The commodity is objectively characterized by the presence of consumer and exchange value. The first determines its demand in the market, the second determines the measure of such demand. Cost objectifies labor costs - the quantity and quality of labor produced. Labor also

manifests itself through the contradiction born of the commodity essence of capitalist reproduction. On the one hand, it is the creative, creative power of a person - the facet of his essence, on the other hand, he necessarily alienates this human essence, because the product of labor, which has absorbed the creative power, is produced for someone else's consumption. Marxism derives from the theory of alienation the social impasse in the development of bourgeois society. In his main work, K. Marx developed not only the theory of the development of capitalism, it was important for him to bring the dialectical-materialist method of scientific analysis to a working form. The dialectic of G. Hegel was local. Hegel limited dialectical development to the movement of the spirit. Marx saw in dialectics a universal way of development, therefore, in Capital he traced the dialectics of production in detail, emphasizing the material nature of the goods created by labor. The quality of a commodity is created by the contradictory nature of the commodity and manifests itself through its relation in the form of essential features. Dialectical materialism is based on the recognition of the materiality of the commodity. Intangible goods are a kind of commodity semi-finished product, a "transitional form" to practical expression, materialization. However, the materiality of the goods is specific. it was important for him to bring the dialectical-materialist method of scientific analysis to a working form. The dialectic of G. Hegel was local. Hegel limited dialectical development to the movement of the spirit. Marx saw in dialectics a universal way of development, therefore, in Capital he traced the dialectics of production in detail, emphasizing the material nature of the goods created by labor. The quality of a commodity is created by the contradictory nature of the commodity and manifests itself through its relation in the form of essential features. Dialectical materialism is based on the recognition of the materiality of the commodity. Intangible goods are a kind of commodity semi-finished product, a "transitional form" to practical expression, materialization. However, the materiality

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The quality of natural phenomena is indeed identical to their material nature, but a commodity, even in its final form-materiality, is something different from that created outside and independently of human existence. Labor in a commodity materializes the rational essence of a person - feelings, thoughts, ideals. The product expresses the rationality of human reality, therefore, in the concept of "quality of the product" the spirituality of a person should be captured, confirming that the product is created by a person for a person. In our opinion, the market quality of a product is intended to reveal the unity of values through a combination of the natural nature of the material and its artificial transformation by human

creative activity. The quality of a product, along with functionality, is determined by its attractiveness.

Priority is a highly significant pricing factor. The attractiveness-dependent part of the price can be seen as the economic equivalent of attractiveness. This part is measured by the size of demand. Getting a product with new features is costly and limited by its physical nature. This way to surprise the consumer is associated with the risk of losing competitiveness due to high costs. It is easier and more promising to manipulate consciousness. For this, there are ready-made psychological mechanisms and the necessary scientific knowledge. If the product in its form did not make the proper impression, did not attract attention, it can be made a priority by modulating in a certain context, for example, by acting on the psyche of subcultural perception. How many pop "stars" we have without proper voice and vocal culture. Little of, that they attract with their performing "skill", they try to copy clothes, accessories, shoes from them. They form the taste of certain social groups, indirectly influencing the market position of goods. There is no data to enroll in public schools and universities of the arts, go to the "star factories".

"Priority" has such reserves, about which managers still have a very unprofessional idea. There is no doubt that in the future, marketers will go beyond the range of knowledge currently defined by education and will squeeze out production and assortment managers. Market management does not require the teachings of Z. Freud about the "it", "ego" and the conditions for achieving the "superego"; the theory of the "collective unconscious" by C. Jung; E. Fromm's ideas about the significance for consciousness of the ability to be surprised and the role of dreams in real life.

The prospects for the market and production are related to the activity that managers will show in relation to the concept of "attractiveness of the product." The most difficult for them will be the process of restructuring thinking from a utilitarian, pragmatic warehouse, formed by the paradigm of minimizing costs to obtain the final margin, to a new principle: to legally and morally maximize the margin. More and more energetically moving into mathematical methodology, economists are losing the specifics of political economic analysis, which requires acting against the backdrop of perspective. More often you need to return to the works of the classics - W. Petty, A. Smith, D. Ricardo. The "classics", understanding the present, thought about the future, correctly believing that science, limited to the current course of events, resembles a ship at anchor, built as a means of propulsion. "Fathers" of economic science" were philosophers, Economists can be understood. In conditions of instability of world development, it is extremely dangerous to look ahead beyond the nearest corner. The crisis of 2008, the consequences of which are still making the world

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economy storm, is a man-made thing. The path was paved by Nobel laureates, they wanted the best. It came out like always. It is time for economic science to return to thinking the scale - not only spatial, but also temporal. Research of the present should be carried out with a reserve for a reasonably foreseeable future, combining them with related sciences, including the teachings of V.I. Vernadsky about the noosphere. E. Deming back in the 1950s, developing the philosophical foundations of quality management, in the section "Seven Deadly Diseases", put planning in the first place, not focused on the production of such goods and services that the market requires.

The lack of development of the concept of "attractiveness of a product" sufficient for management makes us recall its philological roots, the interpretation of "attractiveness" in classical sources. IN AND. Dal identified "attract" with "attract", emphasized the physical meaning of the term, relegating to the background the physiological and psychological aspects of attraction - "attract morally, by feeling, by the power of conviction ..., beckon, attract, captivate". F. Brockhaus and I. Efron did not include this term in their collection. Bypassed him and Britannica, which is difficult to justify, taking into account the publication's desire to make changes in the text taking place in the world.

A thorough analysis of the content of the concept can be found in the four-volume Academic Dictionary of the Russian language. "Priority, tempting, interesting.. which disposes to itself, excites, awakens curiosity." Continuing the argument about attractiveness, we will come to the sign of "originality". Usually, it is with originality, its concreteness, which arouses interest in the phenomenon, that the attractiveness of the product is associated, which generally corresponds to the ideas. At the same time, we must try not to absolutize the position of "attractiveness" in the commodity market.

The fate of a product on the market is determined by its demand. "Demand" - the concept of social and humanitarian level. It is determined, on the one hand, by the degree of development of society and the solvency of the mass consumer, on the other hand, by the structure of the buyer's needs. Epicurus differentiated needs on the basis of two features - naturalness and necessity. According to the view of the ancient thinker, needs are divided into three types: "natural and necessary", "natural and not necessary" and "unnatural and not necessary". [5, p.403, 469]

In Epicurus's judgments there is a clue to understanding the status of a commodity. There are goods that are objectively necessary; their necessity is born of a natural need for them. The buyer is obliged to buy such goods - they are a necessary condition for his survival. Of course, it is desirable that the goods that make up the "basket of existence" of the consumer are not only usefully necessary, but also pleasant to the senses, however, it is allowed not to

purchase such goods only in two cases when there is nothing to pay and nothing to exchange for.

Naturally necessary goods are always "hot" on the market. If they are delayed in warehouses or in places of sale, then there is only one reason - price inaccessibility, greed of speculators who have occupied the market. Shoes are a typical representative of the group of naturally necessary goods, along with clothing and household utensils. The main function of footwear lies in its ability to protect the lower limbs from mechanical and thermal damage. The design of footwear regulates, first of all, its functional affiliation. The aesthetic side of the design is built on top of the basic function. A characteristic feature of the shoe stores of modern stores are various kinds of promotions, allegedly aimed at reducing prices. When the third pair is promised to be handed over free of charge in a trading institution, this means that the price of the first and second allows you to painlessly compensate for losses, associated with the "gift". They pay their price "gift". There is no more obvious argument in favor of defining the pricing situation as one-sided. Oil and gas companies include in pricing the cost of exploration in difficult, often extreme circumstances that require the creation of special equipment, specific materials. The unknown and undeveloped is associated with high risks, unpredictable scientific and technical losses. Everyone understands that there is a speculative approach here, a priori overestimating the losses for the production of the product, but the absence of flawlessly developed methods for calculating the inevitable investment in design; the level of scientific and technical support, the need for risky actions, significantly soften the critical reaction. There is no more obvious argument in favor of defining the pricing situation as one-sided. Oil and gas companies include in pricing the cost of exploration in difficult, often extreme circumstances that require the creation of special equipment, specific materials. The unknown and undeveloped is associated with high risks, unpredictable scientific and technical losses. Everyone understands that there is a speculative approach here, a priori overestimating the losses for the production of the product, but the absence of

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“In war as in war,” the front-line writer, who burned in a self-propelled gun, called his famous story, extrapolating his approach, we repeat after: “In the market as in the market.” By releasing market relations between the producer of goods, the consumer-buyer and the seller-intermediary, the government made life easier for itself and, it is possible, made it comfortable at the expense of the producer and consumer. Pricing in a market economy objectively involves the participation of such factors as the cost of goods, the buyer's consumer interest in it, the solvency of demand, and payment for the seller's participation. But we are talking about proportional complicity. The strength of market factors cannot be calculated by formulas that describe forces in mechanical movement, a parallelogram of

forces cannot be obtained here, however, the proportionality of participation in the formation of the final price can be obtained with a given degree of accuracy. And it was high time to carry out this operation in order to determine politically and economically where the border between a civilized market and a bazaar built “according to concepts” passes.

For what and whose market freedom are liberal politicians fighting for, why are distortions in market pricing interpreted as natural costs of development, normal for democratic governance? Why don't they combine empty Soviet-era store shelves with queues? So that there is no contrast with the clogged shelves of current stores and the lack of customers? There was indeed a shortage until the 1990s, but it was associated primarily with a high level of purchasing power, the affordability of most goods. Demand outpaced production. Now, on the contrary, the offers of sellers clearly exceed the real possibilities of buyers, which hurts domestic producers as well, as they sell imported cheap goods that are dangerous to health.

As a consequence of yet another political and economic disproportion, lending flourishes, creating the illusion of purchasing power. The Russian consumer is driven into a financial trap by economic policy. The essence of the situation is not in the economic illiteracy of the population, but in worldview primitivism, implanted everywhere and aggressively. Schoolchildren are taught to memorize, students are not taught to think scientifically, calling it the modernization of education. Life is the ability to act effectively, based on real possibilities. The substitution of the reality of a really existing, earned, virtual-object, life on loan, inevitably leads to spiritual nihilism, moral decay and a crisis of personality.

The primary reasons for the consumer one-dimensionality of the individual must be sought in the anarchy of a non-civilized commodity market. What's next? The answer must be sought in the same place, that is, where everyone meets with necessity - in the market. The economic priorities of the policy are called upon to determine the role of the market: will it become a mass grave of native producers or a trigger for the rise of domestic production? But manufacturers should not contemplate what is happening, criticize politicians and demand favorable development conditions for themselves. By their status in society, they are faced with the vital need to look for new factors of advancement, to think about reserves that have not yet been involved in the process.

In O. Comte's idea that every science must be a philosophy, far from everything is false. Philosophers who adhere to the classical ideas of philosophy argued with Comte, considering it wrong to leave the methodology and, especially, the worldview at the mercy of private scientific reflection. The dissolution of philosophical reflections in scientific knowledge

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will lead the latter into an epistemological dead end, as it will provoke absolutization in solving the universal problems of scientific knowledge. The adoption of generalizing and guiding decisions in cognition is the lot of a “judge” independent of the specifics of private judgments. At the same time, O. Comte was indisputably right, believing that only thinking that is not clogged with stereotypes is able to act productively, be innovative, innovative, and creative. The one who has advanced on the path of organizing business development, as prayer No. 1 "Our Father", I have to know and repeat: only dialectical thinking will help me be successful, save the enterprise. But who in our age will teach you to think dialectically? Russian democrats, who ruled politics at the end of the 20th century, identified dialectics with the directives and slogans of the Soviet era and deliberately cut off its democratic roots as vigorously as M.S. Gorbachev, and even earlier, the builders of communism raised virgin soil where it should not have been done according to the voluntaristic instructions of N.S. Khrushchev. Dialectics was identified with the directives and slogans of the Soviet era, and its democratic roots were deliberately cut off as vigorously as Massandra's vineyards were uprooted by M.S. Gorbachev, and even earlier, the builders of communism raised virgin soil where it should not have been done according to the voluntaristic instructions of N.S. Khrushchev. Dialectics was identified with the directives and slogans of the Soviet era, and its democratic roots were deliberately cut off as vigorously as Massandra's vineyards were uprooted by M.S. Gorbachev, and even earlier, the builders of communism raised virgin soil where it should not have been done according to the voluntaristic instructions of N.S. Khrushchev.

An enterprising entrepreneur is conditioned in making decisions by the state and trends of the existing market. But dialectically organized thinking will not allow him, when developing a business plan designed for the foreseeable future, to be in the grip of market conditions. However arbitrarily formed, anarchically free, the market is regulated by the movement of production. Everything in production is connected by a common node. “Everything is one,” argued the ancient dialecticians, and they were looking for something that makes everything one. The market today requires one thing, tomorrow the situation on it will be different, however, it is impossible to exclude the repetition of today's. Therefore, we need a preliminary, comprehensive, better systemic approach. Systemic is better, because it allows you to join the essence of what is happening, it involves the allocation of a system-forming factor. The product has been and will be the system-forming factor in the economic analysis of market production. It is no coincidence that K. Marx in Capital began with the commodity, called it a cell of the economic organism of capitalism and built the contradictions of

the movement of the bourgeois mode of production from the contradictory nature of the commodity.

It is not so much the goods themselves that compete in the market, but the minds and will of the producers, of course, equipped with capital. Goods are the visible side of the market, objectifying the power of the entrepreneurial spirit in specific physical forms and actions. Here we are forced to turn again to dialectics, its requirement to look for the source of development in contradictions and not be surprised at the transformations of opposites, the spirit into the material, the material into the spiritual. The fundamental and universal conclusion of dialectics about the concreteness of truth explains: what is true now will become a delusion later. When? The question naturally arises. The answer must be sought in the trends of the movement. It is imperative to start with a comprehensive study of what everything is made of. For us, this is a product, its necessary and additional (superstructure) features.

The production of goods is determined by the market. Once upon a time, the market was formed by excess product and manifested itself in the form of fairs. Now the goods are made according to the needs of the market. The market, in turn, accumulates consumer needs in real terms. By chance, antique products or something very unusually new appear on the market. Theoretically, taking into account the reasonableness of human activity, its rationality, the mutual interest of the manufacturer, seller and buyer, one can conclude that all goods will find their consumer. If unsold goods accumulate in the market, it will lose its function and die as a market - a place for buying and selling. In fact, this is what happens sometimes. Only the market is not something abstract, existing outside of time. It represents a form of concrete-temporal reality.

The market is the most important link that ensures the timely reproduction of goods. Market stocks are not born out of fantasy. Sellers agree to bear certain costs, to sequester in their expectations precisely because of the need to do everything on time. Otherwise, the losses will increase, status costs will join the financial costs. The authority of the market participants themselves will be at risk. In the context of these arguments, the idea matures that the main function of the market is not to make people buy at all, but to make people buy as quickly as possible. A civilized market is designed not only to sell goods in a timely manner, but also to be a factor in accelerating the development of the production of goods. How exactly can this be done?

The paradox of the market is that the future of the market is cloudless, all market problems are always modern, they will remain modern as some are resolved and others increase. Where such confidence? From an analysis of the objectively real foundations of the history of the market. The basic market product is one that provides for the naturally necessary needs

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of a person. Outside the market, it is impossible to satisfy that without which social-individual reproduction is impossible. The market is a socially necessary condition for human life and its progress. The market should not only exist, it is historically imputed to be a factor in the development of society. According to this purpose, the market is supposed to be a developing reality, and society is supposed to take care of the development of the market. Not the freedom to give "how much you can swallow" (B.N. Yeltsin).

Let's return to the specific structure of the commodity market and continue its analysis, starting from the original idea of the "basic product". Satisfaction with the help of basic human needs requires decoding with the involvement of worldview achievements. You can do it in a different way, simplified, only the simplification will lead to the warning of "common sense": "simplicity is worse than theft." In economic analysis, it is dangerous to underestimate or overestimate anything. Human reality is dualistic, it incorporates the biological and the social. As a first approximation, it is not difficult to separate the biological and social in a person.

Biological - satisfaction of the body's needs for nutrition, maintaining water-salt balance and metabolism, normal gas exchange, protection of temperature conditions of life, reproduction of offspring, movement in space through self-motion.

Social - satisfaction with the conditions of labor activity, development of thinking, consciousness, speech, cultural progress.

Biological and social are combined on the basis of the need for communication and are realized in communication through activity. Public and interpersonal communications also require their market expression. The biological and social features of human reality are multifaceted. They are not set once and for all, they grow, synthetic forms of manifestation arise. So the prospects for the market of naturally necessary goods and services are ensured, as well as market competition, following in the wake of its function to promote the mass availability of buyers to the products offered.

The development of the market is in harmony with the development of a person, his personal expression, new trends in the social movement. The 20th century added sports, scientific activities, space, cinema, and international tourism to the traditional sectors of the market. Terror has been transformed into terrorism largely through market penetration. Market services of terrorists are actively used by the United States and regional states to strengthen their political position. Especially when such actions have a desirable effect on traditional market and exchange trading, for example, in hydrocarbons.

The market is developing in the direction of increasing its autonomy. This vector is given special attention by representatives of financial capital, who

are well aware that the market presents optimal prerequisites for speculative stocks. Finally, the market in the XX century has become a favorite subject of economic science, striving to prove that the forces of economic movement are concentrated in the market. The market has become a symbol of the new economy, its leaders are not against giving this symbol a scale of social and historical significance. The desire to present modern society as a "consumer society", a "post-industrial society" should be understood in this way.

The market is not only a place where speculation has taken on the size of a mass legal phenomenon, it has itself become the subject of speculation over time. Market speculation and speculation on the phenomenon of the market is an objective reality, necessarily generated by the market, its, so to speak, reverse sides, the costs of development.

No matter how significant for the history of the market, naturally necessary goods that guarantee the stability of the market movement in the foreseeable future, one should not overestimate the importance of their natural necessity. The natural necessity of a product line points to the nature, characterizes the essence of the object. But the nature and essence of the commodity do not appear directly, they are mediated by the phenomenon, the form of existence of the material transformed by production.

Low temperatures, high humidity, the need to protect yourself from injury, to fit the workplace and the specifics of the performance of official duties, will lead a person to the store and make him a potential buyer of a product that he lacks, but will force him to purchase only in one case, if nothing else is found anywhere else.

This situation is not entirely fabulous, but it looks somewhat implausible for modern Russia. Our buyer has a choice, both in terms of price and attractiveness. 9 out of 10 choose, first of all, by price, based on the contents of the wallet, then focusing on the satisfaction of aesthetic claims.

Sellers need not panic, no crisis will deprive the market of customers. Their problem is who exactly the consumer will buy from. He will buy something in which he sees a combination of the need to purchase goods, free financial resources, more precisely, prices on price tags, and the appearance of the goods, including the art of service. The buying formula is simple - "the urgency of the need plus the charm of the offer." The specific content of the terms should be filled by specialists, based on the experience of market relations. On our own behalf, we recall that the demand in the ordinary, non-exclusive, author's market is of two types: natural and artificial, provoked by the promises of manufacturers and the advertising process.

The domestic consumer, addicted to the effect of "pop culture" "mass media", has lost the independence of taste along with the ability to think. The national

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flavor has been largely lost, the cult of globality is flourishing, the market is littered with foreign consumer goods and counterfeit products, to which it is impossible to apply a qualitative assessment.

A specific cultural picture is emerging in the market, which is difficult to understand. The state is not seriously interested in the culture of the buyer. The former experience of cultural enlightenment and upbringing was banished. "A holy place is never empty" and instead of the state came organizations from the structure of civil society, which have neither official powers, nor effective mechanisms, nor the required financial resources. Scientists economists convince entrepreneurs that it is necessary to cut off everything that is not directly included in production, reducing costs, increasing profitability. In doing so, entrepreneurs are driving themselves into the trap of spontaneity and the vagaries of the market element, abandoning the levers of demand management.

The "prudent housekeeper", which replaces the current irrationally arranged mass production, focused on the absolutization of the freedom of choice of goods by the consumer, when the assortment is obliged to satisfy the request here and now, otherwise the seller will lose customers and question the continuation of his business, is "tied" to the knowledge of the needs of a particular buyer. Of course, such knowledge is specific, it is indicative, relative, conditional, more like an assumption of knowledge, but still knowledge, unlike an abstract installation of the type: the buyer came for the goods and he has to buy it, we are obliged to help him. How exactly? We don't know, so we initiate his desire with the assortment. There is a certain logic and ethics in such reflections. The price of this logic holds back from support – a high level of costs and load on the natural environment. They will not be written off, they will be distributed to consumers, increasing the purchase price.

"Product priority" can become a magnet that initiates the interest of the buyer. No wonder V.I. Dal interpreted "attractiveness" as "attractiveness", "magnetism". The economic system is formed by production relations, there will be no radical transformations of the existing system of the economy, therefore there will be no, there will be a restructuring, a reboot that changes not the system, but the order of the system's functioning, the vector evolution of economic policy. The economic system will be optimized by rationalizing costs, minimizing the cost of assortment.

Does the consumer win? Apparently, yes, provided that manufacturers and sellers are not stingy with research work on consumer demand. Here, the simplest research is not enough, it will require a deep analysis and integration of different approaches - economic (marketing), sociological, cultural, ergonomic, sanitary, focusing scientific research on regional, national characteristics. The prospect of real

participation in the process of students of different levels will open, accelerating their qualification formation.

Going from good to better in any area of activity comes with an increase in implementation costs, including risk financing. In our view, the analyzed transition to the new economic policy should justify the expectations - lead to a reduction in costs, losses, environmental burden, but the result will largely be determined by the construction of scientific, technical and educational policies. Good intentions often end up with worse results due to poor management.

The bad experience of the past is described even in the sacred books. The modification of the economy of mass production in lean production involves the mobilization of a scientific and technical initiative, the maximum involvement of cultural assets and the implementation of the Soviet experience of educational work in the environment of the immediate needs of the final product. It is illogical to improve the principles and forms of organization of production, designed for mass consumption, without appropriate training of consumers. The adjective "mass", regardless of desires, indicates the inclusion of activities in the political process, which also requires a political scale of participation. Change of course within the economic system is a political process with the specificity that it begins in the economy.

The time has come again to temporarily disconnect from the production of goods and, following the example of K. Marx, focus on the cell of the modern economic organism - the product, but, unlike the author of Capital, put the product not into production, but try to fit it into the subsystem of market relations. Capital without circulation is not capital. Capital is a process. The process of reproduction of capital is a characteristic mode of its existence. The market ensures the reproduction of capital, creating conditions for the sale of marketable products. For production, initial capital in financial form is required, for implementation, as a condition for reproduction, the demand for goods is required, which the market must provide - a condition that connects the producer with the consumer. Everything, as we see, rests not even on the characteristics of the product, but on the organization of the market. Of course and the properties of the product are important here. The Doctor is able to reanimate a dying person, but is unable to revive a corpse. The same can be said about the market.

As for the cultural organization of the market, it is rational to make its core work with the buyer and the producer, the real subject (object) of relations, which is the product, as a set of properties that can satisfy all market participants. The goods will pass from the property of one to the property of another only if there is a consensus. Consensus is designed to ensure the market. Consensus is a measure of market culture.

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When the market shifts from the notion of consensus to the understanding of consensus, the market will acquire the status of a "cultural organization". Can this process be accelerated? Undoubtedly. We need to organize work on both fronts. Both the buyer and the seller must be prepared culturally for a meeting in the market. The fulfillment of the real mission of the market is determined by the quality of its information and scientific equipment.

The social function of the market is to satisfy the socio-cultural and natural needs of the mass buyer, thereby contributing to national development and political progress. The economic task of the commodity market is to involve the financial reserves of the country's population in production, and they are considerable, actually comparable to the annual budget of Russia.

It is possible to control the market. Japan and China are economically different, however, despite this, they successfully manage both production and the market. Market management is different from production management. The market is more complex and reacts differently to the desire to restore order. The orders are also not uniform. In the theater there is one order, at the races - another, in the barracks - the third. It is possible (and desirable) to manage the market economically.

The final stage of market relations is the sale of goods, therefore, the market should be managed through the conditions for the sale of goods, creating favorable conditions for the demand for goods. Such management is effective both in relation to the consumer and the producer. Building a market according to the principle: "here and now the buyer must satisfy his request", saves time and possibly insignificant financial resources of the consumer, but it is unnatural, because it is wasteful for society and nature. This is "foppery" due to political myopia.

Do not give it up, society will put the next generations of people in a responsible position. The future of the country and the people will be in question.

The transition to production oriented by the market to the structure of specific consumption can be seen as a way to resolve the growing contradiction between growing socio-cultural needs and natural sources. And in this sense, there are sufficient grounds to speak of an objective regularity in the development of reproduction. The center of concentration of activity is shifting to the territory of the market, its scientific potential is being updated. Question number 1 lean production: is the market ready for an increase in funding for research on the structure of the needs of the mass buyer? Individual examples are not difficult to find. At the end of June 2017, Google conducted a survey of the culinary preferences of Russians in order to rank the basic 20 products and the same number of dishes. The taste of Russian consumers reassured marketers and horrified nutritionists. Nonetheless,

experts are convinced that there will be no changes in two or three years. The production that provides the food market received the necessary information to think about the directions of investment in production. Now it is important to avoid a rush restructuring, to agree on quotas within the relevant unions, associations and other associations of producers.

We were interested in the study of a well-known company in the context of general problems, since it highlighted several characteristic reasons for thinking. The first and, probably, the most important thing leads to the conclusion that the theoretical economists were again late and, instead of forecasting, fixed the real fact of the existing reality. A market that meets the needs of the mass buyer has not been and it is not clear when it will match the models of marketers. It forms itself, adapting to the realities of production.

The domestic buyer put a chicken egg in the first place, sent pork in the middle and milk even further. The production of chicken meat and eggs was established back in the 1970s and 80s, lost in the 1990s, saving American farmers, later returned to their own farms, and quickly restored in the required volumes. The market is reliably provided with this product in assortment. Prices are kept, the manufacturer, sellers cannot overestimate them - there is no shortage, a network of stores has been created by manufacturers. A diverse assortment, its timely replenishment, quality, affordability of products form the buyer's interest in them. Pork production also began to be increased back in the pre-reform period, the originality of growing a pig herd allows solving problems relatively quickly.

The hardest thing is with milk. Market liberalism hit hardest on the weakest link in agricultural production - the dairy herd. Until the nineties, it was in a state of disrepair. Collective farms were abolished, farming, designed to increase production, did not take place as planned. The biology of cattle is such that the required volume of a herd of animals with satisfactory characteristics should be expected for at least 10 years. Huge investment required! The West is not interested in us as a competitor. All of the above are conditions of instability and scarcity. The market oriented itself to the deficit and brought its own price order in cooperation with dairies. Milk, affordable and of high quality in the difficult Soviet years, has become both of poor quality and inaccessible to the average mass buyer. Especially milk products. The market has weaned the consumer away from milk. The question arises. Why? The market must be interested in the buyer. That's right, but not stupid people work in production and in the market. They understand that the herd of cattle will be formed for a long time. An indefinite time to get the result is enough to take the largest margin, and it is not necessary to count on the mass consumer.

Second, natural and socio-cultural needs are formed spontaneously only in the most general,

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abstract form. They are concretized in the real conditions of national reproduction, on the results of economic policy. The state is able to influence this process through control over production and consumption, of course, in accordance with the laws of the economy. With this in mind, we can try to formulate a definition of what a location is. At the same time, it must be borne in mind that there are several different views on what an arrangement is, and it is impossible to give an unambiguous and completely clear definition of this personality trait.

In general terms, location can be defined as an a priori attitude towards a person, a group of people, phenomena, organizations, processes and things, which determines a positive or negative reaction to them.

Location has three components:

firstly, this is the part that reflects the feelings of a person in relation to the object: whether he likes it or not. This part is called the influencing part of the arrangement;

secondly, it is knowledge about the object that a person has;

thirdly, it is the intention about how to behave towards the object.

Combining together, these three parts form a person's disposition towards an object, in which they find a dynamic linkage between a person's knowledge of an object, his feelings towards this object, and his intentions towards this object.

The location of a person in relation to phenomena, processes and people is formed on the basis of learning based on life experience. Usually, a positive or negative attitude towards an object is formed as a result of whether this object caused satisfaction or not. At the same time, the formation of disposition occurs both by assessing the experience (satisfaction - dissatisfaction) of interaction directly with the object, and by correlating the object with other objects, in relation to which a certain disposition has been formed.

The relationship between behavior and location is ambiguous. From the fact that a person does not like something, it does not follow one hundred percent the fact that he will not accept it completely. However, nevertheless, in most cases, human behavior is influenced by location. In this regard, an important task of management is the formation and change, if necessary, of the location of the members of the organization. Three types of location are important for effective management and good relations in an organization:

- - job satisfaction;
- - passion for work;
- - Commitment to the organization.

The extent to which these dispositions are developed among employees significantly determines the results of their work, the number of absenteeism, staff turnover, etc.

Job satisfaction has a very strong influence on a person's feelings about work, so it can be attributed rather to the influencing component of location. The degree of job satisfaction depends on many factors, both internal and external to the person.

However, with a wide variety of factors and different directions of their influence on a person, eight characteristics of work are distinguished, on which the degree of job satisfaction depends quite steadily:

- - the nature and content of the work;
- - the amount of work performed;
- - the state of the workplace and its environment (noise, lighting, comfort, air temperature, etc.)
- - colleagues;
- - leadership (bosses, leadership style, participation in management);
- - payment for work (all forms of compensation);
- - Opportunities for promotion at work;
- - routine, rules of conduct, etc.

These characteristics are quite general. With regard to each real work, they can be specified or supplemented depending on the nature of the organization's activities, its characteristics, etc. Practice also shows that the priority of these characteristics can also vary significantly both for individual members within the organization and for different organizations. And finally, due to the stable satisfaction with individual job characteristics, new or previously insignificant job characteristics may begin to influence job satisfaction over time. Therefore, in order to successfully manage and create a positive disposition towards the organization, it is necessary to conduct regular surveys to determine the degree of satisfaction of the employees of the organization with their work. The nature and content of work has a consistently great influence on increasing job satisfaction. Therefore, let us consider in more detail the influence of the individual components of this factor.

A long time of standardization and specialization of work have been considered and in practice acted as strong sources of productivity increase in work. The higher the standardization and specialization, the higher the productivity at work. However, the relationship between satisfaction with it, and its standardization and specialization is of a different nature. If the work is absolutely not standardized, then job satisfaction is low. As specialization and standardization increase, it begins to rise, but up to a certain point, after which it begins to decline rapidly. With full standardization, satisfaction drops to the same low level as if the job were completely unstandardized. Therefore, management should think about how to reduce the negative impact on job satisfaction, generated by excessive specialization and

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standardization. The two most common ways of doing this are rotation (moving an employee from one job to another) and expanding job responsibilities by assigning additional tasks to the employee.

Clarity of the job content, clarity of the role (especially with respect to the content of other roles), the presence of clear feedback informing the individual about the results of his work in certain circumstances can lead to increased job satisfaction. This is most evident when there is a clear and formal delineation of roles in the organization.

The presence of challenge elements in work, such as creativity, the ability of an individual to use their original or unique abilities, the complexity of tasks, etc., leads to an increase in job satisfaction. At the same time, boring work, as studies show, usually reduces job satisfaction.

Enthusiasm for work is one of the strongest dispositions that determine how a person approaches his work, his participation in the process of collaborative work. Two types of work engagement develop. One type is a love of work in general, with little or no regard for what exactly to do. People with this type of passion are called professionals, i.e. people who work, who love to work and who want to work. This type of disposition is formed by upbringing from childhood, although at a later age there are cases of the development of this disposition. The other type is love for the specific work that a person does in an organization. Both these types do not necessarily accompany each other, although there is a great interdependence between them.

There are three aspects to work engagement. First, it is the extent to which work occupies a significant, central place in a person's life (the importance of work). Secondly, how much the work itself attracts a person (labor force). And, thirdly, how much a person identifies his personality with the work he performs (work attribution). Analysis in these three areas allows you to determine the degree of a person's enthusiasm for their work. At the same time, it is necessary to take into account that each of these aspects of the enthusiasm for work is relatively independent and, depending on the personality characteristics of a person, can affect his enthusiasm for work to varying degrees.

Organization Commitment is a disposition that is substantially broader than job engagement or job satisfaction. In modern conditions, when more and more organizations are trying to look at a person not as an employee doing a specific job, but as a member of the organization, striving, together with the rest of its members, to lead the organization to achieve goals, the significance of this location becomes extremely high. The commitment of the organization is made up of the following components:

firstly, a member of the organization shares and owns the goals of the organization and its values; secondly, a member of the organization strives to

remain in the organization and retains this desire even when it may be unprofitable for him;

thirdly, a member of the organization is ready not only to try for the organization, but also, if necessary, to sacrifice his personal interests to organizational interests.

Commitment to the organization is a personal feature of each individual. However, this does not mean that management cannot develop or enhance this disposition. There are a number of ways to help this. And the most successful modern management systems are based to a very large extent on the fact that they develop in employees a strong commitment to the organization and achieve very great success through this.

Values as well as location, have a strong influence on the preferences of a person, on his decisions and behavior in a team. However, there is a huge difference between values and locations. If the latter determine a person's attitude to an object according to the principle "like - dislike", "love - do not like" and always refer to some particular object, then values set a person's preference according to the principle "acceptable - unacceptable", "good - bad"., "useful - harmful", etc. At the same time, values are quite abstract and generalizing in nature, they live an "independent" life, regardless of a particular person, they are formulated in the form of commandments, statements, wisdom, general norms and can be shared by large groups of people. Therefore, if the location is always purely personal, then the carriers of values are groups of people (for example,

Values can be defined as a set of standards and criteria that a person follows in his life. This is manifested in the fact that through an appropriate assessment of the phenomena, processes and people around him, a person makes decisions and carries out his actions.

Values are at the core of a person's personality. They are quite stable over time and there are not so many of them. Usually, values are considered as the normative base of morality and the foundation of human behavior. Values are of two types:

- values related to the purpose of life, desired results, outcome of action, etc.;
- values relating to the means used by a person to achieve goals.

The first type of values includes, for example, values related to the convenience of life, beauty, peace, equality, freedom, justice, pleasure, self-respect, social recognition, friendship, etc.

The second type of values includes values related to ambition, openness, honesty, goodwill, intelligence, commitment, responsibility, self-control, etc.

The set of values that a person follows constitutes his value system, by which others judge what he is as a person.

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The value system of a person is formed mainly in the process of his upbringing. A person receives many values under the influence of parents and other people close to him. The educational system, religion, literature, cinema, etc. have a great influence.

The value system is subject to development and change even in adulthood. The organizational environment plays a big role in this. In organizations that seriously think about the harmony of human values and the values of the organization, serious attention is paid to the combination of these two value systems. In particular, a lot of work is being done to clearly formulate, explain and communicate to all members of the organization the value system that the organization follows. Considerable attention is also paid to understanding what value orientations the members of the organization have.

Beliefs. Very often a person makes decisions based on assessments of phenomena or conclusions about the qualities of these phenomena. If these estimates are stable enough and do not require appropriate evidence, then they turn into beliefs. In general, beliefs can be defined as stable ideas about a phenomenon, process or person that people use in their perception. Beliefs can change over time. However, at the moment when a person has some certain beliefs about an object, he usually perceives and evaluates the object in accordance with these beliefs. There can be many different beliefs about the same object, since usually beliefs refer to individual characteristics of the object. For example, about the same person there may be the following beliefs: 1) a reliable person; 2) a good specialist;

Beliefs are developed on the basis of individual experience, as well as on the basis of information from external sources. Very often, beliefs are in the nature of a generalization of a single experience. Often they arise in a person as a result of the ability of other people to convince of the correctness of their judgment, their beliefs. Therefore, although a person accepts his beliefs as the truth, they do not always fully correspond to reality.

Beliefs can be divided into two large groups.

The first group consists of beliefs that describe the absolute and relative characteristics of the object of belief that do not have an evaluative character. For example, a Zhiguli car is a comfortable car, or a Zhiguli car consumes less gasoline than a Volga car. The second group includes those beliefs that are evaluative in nature. For example, a Zhiguli car is better than a Volga car. Beliefs have a significant impact on the location, especially on the component that is associated with knowledge about the object.

The second group of beliefs has a particularly strong influence. Therefore, given that beliefs do not always correspond to reality, in order not to form an incorrect location in relation to the object, which can adversely affect the interaction of a person with the environment, it is necessary to be critical and skeptical

of one's beliefs and perceive the beliefs of others with sufficient caution.

Principles play a very important role in the lives of many people, as they systematically regulate their behavior. The principles are embodied in stable norms of behavior, restrictions, taboos, stable forms of reaction to phenomena, processes and people. Principles are formed on the basis of a system of values, they are a stable form of manifestation of a system of values and the embodiment of beliefs in the form of certain standards of behavior. People do not necessarily realize what values and beliefs are embodied in individual principles. Often the principles are accepted by people as beliefs, and they follow them in their activities without questioning the justification for following these principles and why they follow them. Principles can be developed by people on their own. However, most often they are adopted from the environment along with education and other forms of cognition of the surrounding reality. All people are alike in some way. And this allows us to talk about a person in general, to talk about his features, behavioral patterns, etc. However, no particular person is an impersonal "man in general". Everyone carries something that makes him unique, exceptional, i.e. a person with personality. It is such a person who enters the organization, it is such a person who performs a certain job and plays a certain role in the organization, it is such a person that needs to be managed, helping him to discover and use his potential in solving the problems of the organization, creating the necessary conditions for his successful work, interaction with the organizational environment and solving their own life problems.

firstly, each person is somewhat similar to everyone else;

secondly, each person is in some way the same as some other individuals;

thirdly, each person is in some way not like anyone else.

Depending on how these "beginnings" are combined, the individuality of each individual person is reinforced. At the same time, no matter how this combination is built, one must always remember that a person always simultaneously has in common with the rest and is not like the others.

Each person has a stable set of traits and characteristics that determine his actions and behavior. These features manifest themselves in a sufficiently long period of time, thanks to which it is possible to fix and feel the individuality of a person.

A particular person is fixed by the environment according to his individuality, since the individuality of a person has a certain stability, people recognize each other and maintain a certain attitude towards each other. At the same time, it should be noted that under the influence of experience, communication with other people, upbringing and education, a person's individuality changes, sometimes very

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significant. The individuality of a person is formed under the influence of three groups of factors:

the first group consists of heredity and physiological characteristics of a person. Heredity preserves and transmits the external features of a person. But not only. Studies conducted with twins show that heredity can also carry the transmission of some behavioral traits. Human physiology suggests that people have a lot in common that determines their behavior. In particular, the general adaptation syndrome, which reflects the physiological response to irritation, is the same for everyone;

the second group of factors that form a person's individuality are factors arising from the person's environment. In general, the influence of these factors can be considered as the influence of the environment on the formation of individuality. Firstly, the culture in which it is formed has a strong influence on the individuality of a person. A person receives norms of behavior from society, assimilates certain values and beliefs under the influence of culture. Secondly, the individuality of a person is strongly determined by the family in which he was brought up. In the family, children learn certain behavioral stereotypes, develop their attitudes towards work, people, their duties, etc.;

thirdly, the individuality of a person is strongly influenced by belonging to certain groups of organizations. A person develops a certain identification that sets for him a certain type of individual with whom he personifies himself, as well as stable forms of behavior and, in particular, reactions to influence from outside environment;

fourthly, the formation of individuality occurs under the influence of life experience, individual circumstances, random events, etc. Sometimes it is this group of factors that can lead to a significant change in a person's personality.

The third group of factors influencing the formation of a person's individuality are the traits and characteristics of a person's character, his individuality. That is, in this case, the situation with the formation of individuality is as follows: individuality influences its own formation and development. This is due to the fact that a person plays an active role in his own development and is not only a product of heredity and environment.

With all the depth of human individuality and its diversity, some areas of its characteristics can be distinguished, according to which individuality can be described.

There are people who prefer to keep their distance from others, and this has a noticeable effect on their behavior in the team. People with an authoritarian character believe that there should be order and distinction in the status and position of people, strive to establish a hierarchy of relations and use forceful methods in decision-making and management, readily recognize power and highly value conservative values. Love and faith in people as

an individual character trait have a strong influence on a person's interaction with others. This is especially evident in the willingness to participate in group activities, to promote the development of contacts, interactions and mutual support.

Sensitivity to other people is manifested in the ability of people to sympathize with others, to take their problems to heart, in the ability to put oneself in the place of another, etc. People with such personality traits are well perceived in the team and strive to communicate with people. Stability in a person's behavior plays a big role in establishing his relationship with the environment. If a person is stable, responsible and generally predictable, then the environment perceives him positively. If he is constantly unbalanced, capricious and inclined to take unpredictable steps, then the team reacts negatively to such a person.

Self-esteem, those. how people look at their behavior, capabilities, abilities, appearance, etc., has a strong influence on human behavior. People with higher self-esteem tend to achieve more in life as they set higher goals and strive to take on more challenging tasks. At the same time, people with low self-esteem very often put themselves in a dependent position and easily obey people with higher self-esteem.

Risk perception is an important behavioral characteristic that clearly reflects the individuality of a person. Risk-averse people spend less time making decisions and are willing to make decisions with less information. At the same time, the result of the decision is by no means necessarily worse than that of those who scrupulously prepare the decision and collect all the necessary information.

Dogmatism is usually a character trait of individuals with a limited view. Dogmatists see the environment as a concentration of threats, refer to authorities as absolutes, and perceive people by how they relate to dogmas and absolute authorities. Usually dogmatists are people with authoritarian traits. Dogmatists are not inclined to search for a large amount of information, they are quite quick in making decisions, but at the same time they demonstrate a very high level of confidence in the accuracy and correctness of the decisions made. It is noted that dogmatists prefer to work in well-structured groups, regardless of their position in the group. It is also noted that dogmatists are poorly aware of how they spend their time when doing work, and that they are poorly coping with managerial work.

Complexity of awareness phenomena as a characteristic of a person's individuality reflects his ability to decompose a cognizable phenomenon into parts and integrate, synthesize general ideas or conclusions about a conscious phenomenon. People with high complexity of awareness show greater information processing abilities, consider more alternatives, and make more complex decisions than people with low complexity of awareness. It is noted

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that managers with a high complexity of awareness in situations with a large variety of environments cope better with their duties, that this type of leaders is more prone to extensive contacts with people than leaders with a low level of complexity of awareness, and that these leaders tend to use variety of resources for problem solving.

Sphere, control reflects how the individual looks at the source of the factors that determine his actions. If a person believes that his behavior depends on himself, then in this case he is characterized by the presence of an internal sphere of control (introverts). If he believes that everything depends on the case, external circumstances, the actions of other people, then it is believed that he has an external sphere of control (extroverts). Introverts are more in control of their actions, more focused on achieving results, more active, more satisfied with their work. They like the informal style of management, they like to influence others, but they do not like to influence themselves, they like to take leadership positions. Extroverts, on the other hand, prefer formal structures, prefer to work under directive guidance. If they are in leadership positions.

There are a large number of tests and other tools that allow you to determine the characteristics of a person's personality. In modern management, these issues and this type of activity are given great attention. And this is primarily due to the fact that the success of an organization directly depends on how successfully it can use all the human potential at its disposal.

The need to study the individuality of a person is also caused by the fact that many incorrect conclusions are usually made about people, about their characteristics, their individuality. This is due to the fact that people, when cognizing others, rely on stereotypes, prejudices, unreasonable generalizations. Drawing wrong conclusions about the individuality of people, we create the basis for harmful conflicts, scandals, gossip, difficulties in communication and interaction between people. All this harms individuals and the organization as a whole.

The need for a thorough and regular study of the individual characteristics of the members of the organization is beyond doubt. However, recognizing the significance and usefulness of this type of management activity, it is necessary to remember that the individuality of a person's behavior depends not only on his personal traits, but also on the situation in which his actions are carried out. Therefore, the study of man must always be carried out in conjunction with the study of the situation.

Finally, when studying the individuality of a person, it is necessary to take into account his age. A person goes through various stages in his life, which correspond to a different state of his individuality. Therefore, when drawing conclusions about the character of a person, his personalities, it is necessary

to proceed from the fact that his behavior is very much determined by the age stage he is in. Only taking into account all these factors in the aggregate can give the key to understanding the individuality of a person, and, consequently, to managing a person. As mentioned above, the organization expects a person to perform in a certain way the role for which it accepts him. A person also looks at the organization as a place where he gets a certain job, performs it and receives a corresponding reward from the organization. However, the interaction between a person and an organization is not limited to role interaction. It is much wider. A person performs work in an environment of people, in interaction with them. He is not only the performer of a role in the organization, but also a member of the group within which he operates. At the same time, the group has a huge impact on human behavior. And the behavior of a person, his actions make a certain contribution to the life of the group. There is no canonized definition of the influence of circumstances phenomenon. However, a fairly general, well-established view of a small group (hereinafter, the term "group" will always be used in this sense) is widely accepted as a relatively isolated association of a small number of people (usually no more than ten to twenty-five), that are in sufficiently stable interaction and carry out joint actions for a sufficiently long period of time. The interaction of group members is based on a certain common interest and may be associated with the achievement of a common goal. At the same time, the group has a certain group potential or group capabilities that allow it to interact with the environment and adapt to changes taking place in the environment. The characteristic features of the group are as follows. allowing it to interact with the environment and adapt to changes occurring in the environment. The characteristic features of the group are as follows. allowing it to interact with the environment and adapt to changes occurring in the environment. The characteristic features of the group are as follows.

firstly, the members of the group identify themselves and their actions with the group as a whole and thus, in external interactions, act as if on behalf of the group. A person does not speak about himself, but about the group as a whole, using the pronouns we, ours, us, etc.;

Secondly, interaction between members of the group is in the nature of direct contacts, personal conversation, observation of each other's behavior, etc. In a group, people communicate directly with each other, giving formal interactions a "human" form;

third, in a group, along with the formal distribution of roles, if any, there is necessarily an informal distribution of roles, usually recognized by the group. Individual members of the group take on

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the role of generators of ideas, others tend to coordinate the efforts of group members, others take care of relationships in the group, maintain a good climate in the team, fourth make sure that there is order in work, everything is done on time and brought to end. There are people who play the role of structurizers, they set goals for the group, monitor the influence of the environment on the tasks solved by the group.

These and other roles of group behavior are performed by people in accordance with their abilities and inner calling. Therefore, in well-functioning groups, opportunities are usually created for the person to behave in accordance with his abilities for group action and his organically defined role as a member of the group.

There are two types of groups: formal and informal. Both of these types of groups are important to the organization and have a great impact on the members of the organization.

Formal groups usually stand out as structural units in an organization. They have a formally appointed leader, a formally defined structure of roles, positions and positions within the group, as well as formally assigned functions and tasks. Formal groups may be formed to perform a regular function, such as accounting, or they may be created to solve a specific task, such as a commission for the development of a project.

Informal groups are created not by orders of the leadership and formal resolutions, but by members of the organization in accordance with these mutual sympathies, common interests, the same hobbies, habits, etc. These groups exist in all organizations, although they are not represented in the diagrams that reflect the structure of the organization, its structure. Informal groups usually have their own unwritten rules and norms of behavior, people know well who is in their informal group and who is not. In informal groups, a certain distribution of roles and positions is formed. Usually these groups have an explicit or implicit leader. In many cases, informal groups can have an equal or even greater impact on their members! than formal structures.

Why do groups arise, what makes people form and join groups? These questions are very important for understanding human behavior in an organization. It is obvious that groups arise in an organization and function as separate structural units due to the fact that, as a result of the division of labor, separate specialized functions are distinguished that require for their performance a certain set of people with certain qualifications, having a certain profession and ready to perform in the system of joint activities. a certain job. A similar situation is observed in the formation of groups designed to solve targeted problems.

But this is only one side of the process of the emergence of groups in the organization. It usually leads to the formation of formal groups. Another

important reason for the formation of groups is the natural desire of a person to unite with other people, to form stable forms of interaction with people. The group gives a person a sense of security, from the group he expects support, help in solving his problems and warnings. In a group, it is easier for a person to achieve a "reward" in the form of recognition, praise, or material incentives. In a group, a person learns by adopting the experience of others, better aware of his capabilities and potential. The group gives a person more self-confidence in external interactions, contributes to the development of his identity.*

*this term reflects the self-consciousness of a person, his identification with a certain stable phenomenon or state.

Finally, the group provides a person with the opportunity to spend time in a pleasant environment for him, the opportunity to avoid loneliness and the state of loss, uselessness. Each person strives to be loved by someone, needed by someone, belong to someone, and the group can be a source of solution to these problems of a person. Regardless of the type of group, in which organization it is formed and operates, and also who specifically belongs to the group, some general points and factors can be pointed out that characterize the construction of the group, its structure and the process of functioning of the group in its environment. The life of the group, its functioning is influenced by three factors:

- characteristics of group members;
- structural characteristics of the group;
- situational characteristics.

All these factors are not only in interaction, mutual influence, but also experience a strong feedback from the functioning of the group, since as a result of the life of the group, changes in the characteristics of a person occur, the structure of the group changes and changes in its environment are observed.

To the characteristics of group members factors that influence its functioning include personal characteristics of a person, as well as abilities, education and life experience. Personal characteristics have been considered in sufficient detail above.

Human, so we will not dwell on them in this review. As for the other characteristics, it is noted that the ability of a person to perform work has a very large impact on the functioning of the group and on the performance of a person's role. The level of education of a person and his life experience also have a significant impact on the group. Structural characteristics of the group include:

- communication in the group and norms of behavior (who communicates with whom and how);
- status and roles (who occupies what position in the group and what they do);
- personal likes and dislikes between group members (who likes whom and who does not like whom);

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- strength and conformity (who influences whom and who follows whom, who is ready to listen to whom and obey whom).

The first two structural characteristics of the group are more related to the organizational side of the analysis of its functioning, so they will not be considered here. Further, only structural issues of interpersonal interactions in a group will be considered.

Sympathy; and antipathy between people mostly wear individual coloring and background. However, it has been found that several points have a significant impact on the establishment of friendly relations between people:

firstly, the personal characteristics of the interacting have an exceptionally great influence. People love those who like the same phenomena, things, processes that they like, i.e. people love those who are similar to them, who are close to them in spirit, taste and preferences. Naturally, there are exceptions. However, studies show that people are attracted to those who have the same or close race, nationality, education, system of views on life, and so on. Potentially, people with similar personality characteristics are more likely to form friendships than those with significantly different personality characteristics;

Secondly, the development and establishment of friendly relations between people, the development of mutual sympathy is greatly influenced by the presence of territorial proximity in the location of these people. The closer the workplaces of group members are, the higher the likelihood that they will establish friendly relations. The same applies to the proximity of their places of residence;

third, the establishment of friendly relations is directly dependent on the frequency of meetings, as well as on the expectation that these meetings will occur often enough in the future;

fourth, the relationship between members of the group, their mutual likes and dislikes, the atmosphere of friendliness in the group depend on how successful the functioning of the group is. In general, success leads to the development of positive attitudes among people to each other to a greater extent than the unsuccessful functioning of the group;

fifth, the development of friendly relations between members of the group contributes to the presence of one goal, which is subject to the actions of all members of the group. It is noted that if the members of the group are divided by the solution of individual problems, mutual sympathy and friendliness develop less often than if they work on the solution of a common problem for all;

At sixth, a positive orientation in relation to each other occurs when the group practices the broad participation of all members of the group in decision-making.

The opportunity to influence the general group processes stimulates the development of a positive perception of the group among the members of the group. Without a doubt, the presence of sympathy in relations between people, the presence of friendly relations between members of the group has a huge impact on the mood of people, on their satisfaction with their work, their membership in the group. However, it cannot be unequivocally said that friendly relations between group members have only a positive impact on the results of their work and the results of the functioning of the group as a whole. If people who have friendly relations with each other have a high motivation to work in a group, then the presence of mutual sympathy and friendship contributes to a significant increase in the results of their work and thus has a positive effect on the functioning of the group as a whole. If these people are poorly motivated to work, the result will be completely opposite. They will spend a lot of time in useless conversations, smoke breaks, tea parties, etc., constantly being distracted from work and sharply reducing the effectiveness of their work. At the same time, they can distract others from the work, creating an atmosphere of idleness and relaxation in the group.

Mutual support based on sympathy and friendship, contributing to the cohesion of the group, can generate a synergistic effect that significantly increases the effectiveness of the group. Modern management practice more and more confirms the undoubted advantages of a group form of labor organization over an individual one. A clear illustration of this can be, in particular, the so-called Japanese type of management.

However, with an undoubted advantage over other forms of work organization, the group form can also carry a number of negative aspects for the organization. One of these negative manifestations is group action, which develops mainly on the basis of close relations between members of the group, provided that, on the whole, the management of the group is incorrectly set and its functioning in the organization is incorrectly organized.

Groupism is manifested in the fact that the group closes in on itself, weakly and incorrectly reacts to external signals, denies criticism, etc. All this is expressed in the fact that, firstly, in the group there is a tendency to moralize processes, naturally, accompanied by the presentation of oneself and one's actions in the best light from a moral point of view. Secondly, the group begins to feel invulnerable and even invincible in conflict clashes. Thirdly, an atmosphere of conformity develops in the troupe, the desire to force everyone to agree with a single opinion, unwillingness to listen and discuss other opinions and points of view, etc. Fourth, unanimity develops in the group. People are starting to think more and more like the rest. And even if they have other opinions, they do not express themselves, because they themselves

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doubt them, believing that the general opinion is true. Fifth, *Strength and Conformity* in the relationship between members of the group are manifested in the form of the so-called social influence on a person. The group puts pressure on a person, demanding from him to follow group norms, rules, requiring submission to the interests of the group. A person can resist this pressure, or he can succumb to the group - submit, i.e. be a conformist.

It is impossible to state unequivocally that one type of relationship between a person and a group is correct and another is not. Obviously, conformism can lead to the fact that a person, even realizing the wrongness of his actions, carries out them, because the group does it. Conformity can turn a person into a wordless appendage of the group. The history of mankind knows a lot of negative examples of how the "herd instinct", or, in other words, unconditional conformism, underlay terrible crimes against individuals and humanity as a whole. She knows examples of how a group completely erased a person's personality, turning him into a cog in a group mechanism. At the same time, it is obvious that without conformism a cohesive group cannot be created, a balance cannot be established in the relationship between a person and a group.

Since conformity in the relationship of a person with a group, on the one hand, is a condition for the integration of an individual into a group, and on the other hand, it can give rise to negative consequences, both for the environment and for the group as a whole, and for this individual in particular, it is important to clarify whether what factors and to what extent require a member of the group to make concessions to public influence.

The nature of the tasks to be solved has a significant impact on the degree of conformity in human behavior. If the tasks are not clearly defined, if they do not have an unambiguous answer, then they make the person performing them more susceptible to the influence of the group. The degree of conformity also depends on whether the member of the group made public commitments regarding the problem being solved or not, and also on the stage at which he announced his commitments in the decision. Public and early statements make a person more susceptible to public influence. Conformism in human behavior develops payment based on the results of group work.

Group characteristic also has a great influence on the development of conformism in a person in relation to the requirements of the group. Unanimity in group behavior increases the degree of influence of the group on the individual. It is easier for a person to object or disagree if someone else in the group has an opinion that is different from the group. Conformity in human behavior in a group is influenced by the size of the group. If there are five people in the group, then unanimity begins to have a strong influence on the individual. Further growth in the size of the group has

little effect on the increase in the influence of the group on the individual. The degree of conformity in the behavior of a person in a group also depends on the proximity of the leadership in group activities and the frequency of contacts with the leadership. If the boss is often present and participates in decision-making by a member of the group, then this leads to an increase in conformity in the behavior of the subordinate.

The desire to submit to the influence of the group directly depends on the personal relations between the members of the group, their likes and dislikes, friendship, etc. The better the personal relations between the members of the group, the higher the degree of conformity in their behavior in the group and the higher the possibility of social influence on the members of the group. The situational characteristics of the group depend little on the behavior of the members of the group and the group as a whole. These characteristics are related to the size of the group, its spatial arrangement, the tasks performed by the group, and the reward system used in the group. In small groups, it is more difficult to reach an agreement, and a lot of time is spent on clarifying relationships and points of view. Finding information is difficult in large groups, as group members tend to be more reserved and concentrated.

Group size also affects job satisfaction. Separate studies show that people are more satisfied when they work in a medium-sized group (5-6 people). Small groups generate a lot of tension in the relationship between its members, and in a large group there is not enough time for each member of the group.

Spatial arrangement of members group has a significant influence on their behavior. It is one thing when a person has a permanent location, another thing is when he looks for this place every time. People during work can look at each other, and can be located with their backs to each other. And this will also influence their work and their behavior in the group. There are three important characteristics of the spatial location of the individual, on which the relationship between the person and the group depends, namely:

firstly, is the presence of a permanent or definite place or territory. A person knows: this is my table, this is my machine, this is my workplace. The lack of clarity in this matter generates many problems and conflicts in interpersonal relationships, and also significantly reduces job satisfaction;

Secondly, this is a personal space, i.e. the space in which the body of only a given person is located. Spatial proximity in the placement of people can give rise to many problems, since people do not perceive the proximity of other people to them, regardless of age, gender, etc.;

third, it is the relative position of the places. It is noted that if the workplaces are fenced off from each other, then this contributes to the development of formal relations. The presence of the workplace of the

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group leader in a common space contributes to the activation and consolidation of the group. If a person takes a workplace at the head of the table, then this in the eyes of other members of the group automatically puts him in a leadership position.

Management, knowing these and other questions of the location of group members, can achieve a significant effect and increase the effectiveness of the group's work only through the correct placement of jobs. The influence of the tasks solved by the group on the functioning of the group and on the behavior and interaction of group members is obvious. However, it is very difficult to establish a relationship between the types of tasks and their impact on the life of the group. It is noted that the solution of formal problems, for example, mathematical ones, contributes to the development of relations between group members to a lesser extent than the solution of problems of a humanitarian profile. It is known that the tasks and functions performed by the group affect the style of leadership, as well as the style of communication between people. In the case of loosely structured or unstructured tasks, there is more group pressure on the individual and greater interdependence of actions,

It is possible to point out several characteristics of the problem that are important to pay attention to in order to try to determine how the solution of this problem will affect the group as a whole and the behavior of its members, namely:

firstly, it is necessary to determine how many interactions will occur between members of the group in the process of solving the problem and how often they will communicate with each other;

Secondly, it is necessary to find out how the actions performed by individuals are interdependent and have mutual influence;

third, it is important to establish how the problem being solved is structured.

reward systems, Considered in isolation from the nature of relationships in the group, they cannot in themselves give an answer to the question of the extent to which this or that system influences relationships in the group, the behavior of group members, and the functioning of the group as a whole. For example, it is not possible to estimate the impact on a group of individual piecework pay, collective piecework pay, or pay based on a fixed group budget, unless the nature of the group's activities is known.

When analyzing the impact of payment, it is important to take into account two sets of factors at the same time:

- how interdependent are the actions of group members;

- How big is the difference in pay?

Four combinations of these factors are possible:

- low interdependence - low differentiation in pay;

- low interdependence - high differentiation in pay;

- high interdependence—low pay differentiation;

- high interdependence - high differentiation in pay.

The first and fourth cases give rise to many problems in the relationship between the members of the group. On the contrary, the second and third cases can contribute to the successful functioning of the group and the development of favorable relations between group members.

The interaction of a person and a group is always two-way; a person through his work, his actions contributes to the solution of group problems, but the group also has a great influence on a person, helping him to satisfy his needs of security, love, respect, self-expression, personality formation, elimination of worries, etc. It is noted that in groups with good relationships, with an active intra-group life, people have better health and better morals, they are better protected from external influences and work more efficiently than people who are in an isolated state or in "sick" groups, affected by insoluble conflicts and instability. The group protects the individual, supports him and teaches both the ability to perform tasks and the norms and rules of behavior in the group.

But the group not only helps a person to survive and improve his professional qualities. It changes his behavior, often making the person significantly different from what he was when he was outside the group. These influences of a group on a person have many manifestations. Let us point out some significant changes in human behavior that occur under the influence of the group, namely:

firstly, under public influence, changes occur in such characteristics of a person as perception, motivation, sphere of attention, rating system, etc. A person expands the scope of his attention by increasing attention to the interests of other members of the group. His life is dependent on the actions of his colleagues, and this significantly changes his view of himself, his place in the environment and others;

Secondly, in a group a person receives a certain relative "weight". The group not only distributes tasks and roles, but also determines the relative position of each. Group members can do exactly the same job, but have a different "weight" in the group. And this will be an additional essential characteristic for the individual, which he did not and could not have, being outside the group. For many members of the group, this characteristic may be no less important than their formal position;

third, the group helps the individual gain a new vision of his "I". A person begins to identify himself with the group, and this leads to significant changes in his worldview, in understanding his place in the world and his destiny;

fourthly Being in a group, participating in discussions and developing solutions, a person can also give out suggestions and ideas that he would

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never give out if he thought about the problem alone. The effect of brainstorming on a person significantly increases the creative potential of a person;

fifth, It has been noted that in a group a person is much more inclined to accept risk than in a situation where he acts alone. In some cases, this feature of changing human behavior is the source of more effective and active behavior of people in a group environment than if they acted alone.

It is wrong to think that the group changes the person as it wants. Often a person resists many influences from the group for a long time, he perceives many influences only partially, he denies some completely. The processes of adaptation of a person to a group and adjustment of a group to a person are ambiguous, complex and often quite lengthy. Entering a group, interacting with the group environment, a person not only changes himself, but has an impact on the group, on its other members.

Being in interaction with the group, a person tries in various ways to influence it, to make changes in its functioning so that it is acceptable for him, convenient for him and allows him to cope with his duties. Naturally, both the form of influence and the degree of influence of a person on a group essentially depend both on his personal characteristics, his ability to influence, and on the characteristics of the group. A person usually expresses his attitude towards a group in terms of what he thinks. At the same time, his reasoning always depends on the position that he occupies in the group, on the role he performs, on the task assigned to him and, accordingly, on what goals and interests he personally pursues.

The interaction of a person with a group can be either in the nature of cooperation, or merger, or conflict. For each form of interaction, a different degree of manifestation can be observed. That is, for example, we can talk about a hidden conflict, a weak conflict, or an unresolvable conflict.

In case of cooperation a trusting and benevolent relationship is established between the member of the group and the group. A person considers the goals of the group as not contradicting his goals, he is ready to find ways to improve interaction, positively, albeit with a rethinking of his own positions, perceives the decisions of the group and is ready to find ways to maintain relations with the group on a mutually beneficial basis.

At the confluence of man with the group, there is an establishment of such relations between the person and the rest of the group, when each of the parties considers the other as an integral part of the whole with it, which is the group. A person builds his goals based on the goals of the group, to a large extent subordinates his interests to the interests of the group and identifies himself with the group. The group, in turn, also tries to look at the individual not as a performer of a certain role, but as a person completely devoted to the group. In this case, the group takes care

of the person, considering his problems and difficulties as his own, and tries to assist him in solving not only production problems, but also in solving his personal problems.

In case of conflict there is a juxtaposition of the interests of the individual and the group and the struggle between them to resolve this contradiction in their favor. Conflicts can be generated by two groups of factors:

- organizational factors,
- emotional factors.

The first group of factors is associated with a difference in views on goals, structure, relationships, distribution of roles in the group, and the so-called. If the conflict is generated by these factors, then it is relatively easy to resolve.

The second group of factors includes factors such as distrust of a person, a sense of threat, fear, envy, hatred, anger, etc. The conflicts generated by these factors are hardly amenable to complete elimination.

The conflict between a member of a group and the group is wrong to consider only as an unfavorable, negative state of relations in the group. Evaluation of the conflict fundamentally depends on what consequences it leads to for the person and the group. If the conflict turns into an antagonistic contradiction, the resolution of which is destructive for a person or a group, then such a conflict should be classified as undesirable and negative forms of relationship between a person and a group.

But very often the conflict in relations within the group is positive. And this is due to the fact that conflict can lead to favorable consequences, namely:

First, conflict can increase motivation to achieve goals. It can cause additional energy to act, bring the group out of a stable passive state;

secondly, the conflict can lead to a better understanding of relations and positions in the group * to the members' understanding of their role and place in the group, to a clearer understanding of the tasks and nature of the group's activities;

thirdly, the conflict can play a creative role in the search for new ways of functioning of the group, the search for new approaches to solving the problems of the group, in generating new ideas and considerations on how to build relationships between members of the group, etc.;

fourthly, the conflict can lead to the manifestation of interpersonal relations, to the identification of relations between individual members of the group, which in turn can prevent a possible negative aggravation of relations in the future.

One of the main results of the interaction between a person and an organization is that a person, analyzing and evaluating the results of his work in an organization, revealing the reasons for success and failure in interaction with the organizational

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environment, analyzing the experience and behavior of his colleagues, thinking about the advice and recommendations of superiors and colleagues, makes certain conclusions for himself, which in one way or another affect his behavior, lead to a change in his behavior in order to adapt to the organization, in order to achieve better interaction with the organizational environment. Obviously, the perception and evaluation of one's experience, as well as the process of adaptation to the conditions and requirements of the organizational environment, are largely individual in nature. In the same environment, people behave differently. A person, as it were, has two degrees of freedom in constructing his behavior in an organization. On the one hand, he has the freedom to choose forms of behavior: to accept or not to accept the forms and norms of behavior existing in the organization, on the other hand, he may or may not accept the values of the organization, share or not share its goals and philosophy. Depending on the combination in which these fundamental components of behavior are combined, four extreme types of human behavior in an organization can be distinguished.

First type: Values and norms of behavior are fully accepted. In this case, a person tries to behave in such a way that his actions do not conflict with the interests of the organization. He sincerely tries to be disciplined, to fulfill his role completely in accordance with the norms and forms of behavior accepted in the organization. Therefore, the results of the actions of such a person mainly depend on his personal capabilities and abilities and on how correctly the content of his role is defined. This type of behavior can be described as the behavior of a dedicated and disciplined member of the organization.

Second type: a person does not accept the values of the organization, but tries to behave, fully following the norms and forms of behavior adopted in the organization. Such a person can be described as an opportunist. He does everything correctly and according to the rules, but he cannot be considered a reliable member of the organization, since, although he is a good and diligent employee, he can nevertheless leave the organization at any time or take actions that may be contrary to the interests of the organization, but comply with his own interests. For example, such a person will readily go on strike in order to get a pay rise.

Third type: a person accepts the values of the organization, but does not accept the norms of behavior existing in it. In this case, a person can generate many difficulties in relationships with colleagues and management, he looks like an original. However, if an organization can afford to abandon the established norms of behavior for individual members and create a state of freedom of choice for such members, they can find their place in the organization and benefit it.

Fourth type: the individual does not accept either the norms of behavior or the values of the organization. This is an open rebel who constantly comes into conflict with the organizational environment and creates conflict situations. It would be wrong to think that this type of behavior is absolutely unacceptable in the organization and people who behave in this way are not needed by the organization. However, in most cases, "rebels" give rise to many problems that significantly complicate the life of the organization and even cause great damage to it.

Naturally, the organization is interested in its members behaving in a certain way.

Possible approach The solution to this problem is the selection of people with certain qualities that can guarantee the behavior of its members that is desired for the organization. However, it should be recognized that this approach has limited application, since, firstly, it is not always possible to find people with the necessary characteristics, and secondly, there is no absolute guarantee that they will behave, necessarily, in the way the organization expects. , and, thirdly, the requirements for the behavior of members of the organization from the organizational environment may change over time, contradicting the criteria by which people were selected into the organization.

Second approach, which in principle does not exclude the first, is that the organization influences a person, forcing him to modify his behavior in the direction necessary for her. This approach is possible and is based on the fact that a person has the ability to learn behavior, change his behavior based on the awareness of his previous behavioral experience and the requirements imposed on his behavior by the environment.

Behavioral learning can be defined as the process of changing a person's behavior over time, based on experience that reflects the actions of a person and the reaction of the environment to these actions.

Learning behavior is characterized by the presence of several moments.

Firstly learning can come from one's own experience or from the experience of others.

Secondly, behavioral learning does not necessarily concern only actual behavior itself. It may refer to potential behavior, i.e. such behavior that can be carried out by a person, but which is not carried out by him in his practice of behavior.

Thirdly, learning behavior is always expressed in changing a person. Even in the case when the immediate behavior has not changed, the person is already becoming different, as his behavioral potential changes.

There are three types of behavioral learning.

First type associated with the reflex behavior of a person, with what is called in the teachings of I. Pavlov a conditioned and unconditioned reflex. If, for

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example, the boss comes to his subordinates when he is dissatisfied with something, irritated and intends to reprimand them, then any appearance of the boss can cause fear in the subordinates, a desire to avoid this meeting, regardless of why he came to them. That is, the appearance of the boss develops a conditioned reflex of the desire to hide from his eyes.

The second type of learning behavior It is based on the fact that a person draws conclusions from the consequences of his previous experience, consciously corrects and changes his behavior. The theoretical description of this type of learning is primarily based on the research of B. Skinner, who created the foundations of the theory of engagement of implemented behavior depending on its consequences. The essence of this theory is that if a person sees that his behavior leads to favorable consequences, then he seeks to repeat this behavior, but if the consequences are negative, then the desire to behave in the same way will be significantly reduced. That is, human behavior is set by conscious comprehension of the results of previous behavior.

Third type Behavioral learning is learning from observation of behavior. Usually it is the observation of someone else's behavior. A person, regularly observing how the people around him behave, automatically begins to adjust his own behavior to their behavior. He adopts their style and mannerisms, their operational skills, and so on. Often purposeful observation of someone else's behavior is carried out in order to adopt something useful for oneself. With the development of means of video recording of an object, the possibilities of observation are expanding, and, in particular, the object of observation is expanding. Now a person can view records of his own behavior, which can also significantly influence the correction of behavior. Obviously, all three types of behavioral learning must be taken into account by the leadership of the organization in its attempts to correct and shape the behavior of the members of the organization.

What does a person learn in an organization, what aspects of his behavior are corrected or changed in the process of learning?

Firstly Having come to the organization and further carrying out his activities in it, a person studies his functional role: what he should do to do his job better, how to work more efficiently, how and with whom to communicate in the process of work. At the same time, he learns to emphasize the work he does in terms of what is considered more important in the organization and what is less important in his activities, for which there is remuneration, which is included in the assessment of the quality of his work.

Secondly, in an organization, a person learns to perform formal and procedural actions, such as filling out various questionnaires and forms, filling out applications, arranging and holding meetings, transmitting, receiving and responding to information

received, temporarily leaving the workplace, coming and going from work, parking car, wearing certain types of clothing, etc.

Thirdly, a person learns to correctly understand and take his place in the organization. He learns the norms, values and informal groups and relations that have developed on their basis in the organization, learns to behave correctly with colleagues and management, determines for himself with whom to have close relations and from whom to stay away, whom to trust, whom to rely on and whom to be afraid of.

Fourth, a person learns how to solve his own problems in the organization, how to achieve his goals. So, for example, he learns how to make a career in the organization. Or how to achieve certain incentives and rewards. A person can also learn how to use the capabilities of the organization or the capabilities of its individual members in order to solve their personal problems that are not related to the activities of the organization. The worker can learn how to avoid difficult and risky tasks, and even how to pretend that he is working hard by doing nothing.

In order to describe the process of conscious learning by a person to behave in an organization and indicate the connection of this process with the management of a person in an organization, we will consider in the most general terms several basic elements that determine human behavior in an organization. These elements will be considered in more detail when considering the issue of motivation.

Human activity is always connected and initiated by the presence of certain motivating principles in him. They force him to start doing something, to make some effort, i.e. carry out actions. Stimuli, which are external influences on a person, direct his activity in a certain direction, give this activity a certain orientation and boundaries. The behavioral reaction of a person is manifested in the fact that he chooses what and how to do it, and carries out specific actions that lead to a specific result. His reaction is strongly related to stimuli. However, it has an individual character, as it reflects the different degree of influence of incentives on the behavior of different people. A person's reaction can manifest itself both in the form of his specific actions, and in the form of developing a certain disposition by him. Depending on the consequences for a person, his behavioral reaction is fixed in order to strengthen it and make it stable, or it is abandoned. The consolidation of the implemented behavior or the rejection of it play a very important role in shaping a person's behavior, since it is through this that a conscious adjustment or even a change in a person's behavior in the direction desired for the organization takes place.

Thus, the change in human behavior can be seen as a consequence of learning behavior. In itself, learning to behave is a function of the consequences for a person of his actions, a function of the

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consequences of his behavior. The presence of such a relationship between behavior, learning behavior and the consequences for a person of his behavior makes it possible for the organization to correct and shape the behavior of its members. This is primarily due to the fact that the management and the organizational environment can determine and purposefully shape the consequences of their behavior for the members of their organization, being actively involved in the process of learning behavior at the stage when a person receives certain consequences of the actions taken.

Obviously, the consequences of actions depend on how the person behaved, what he did. However, they directly depend on those who, evaluating the action of a person, compensate for his actions and efforts. In this case, compensation is understood in the broadest sense as an external reaction to a person's behavior, expressed in the fact that a person either gains something or loses something, achieves something or does not achieve something as a result of his actions. form of a particular behavior. Compensation can be made in various forms - from material reward or punishment to verbal approval or condemnation. Compensation plays an extremely important role in the learning of behavior, since it has a fundamental influence on whether the implemented behavior is consolidated or whether it is abandoned. If there is no compensation that causes a person to imagine the consequences of his actions, then in fact there is no noticeable modification of behavior, since there is no learning of behavior. Therefore, compensation in the management of people plays not only the role of remuneration for the work done or the role of a means of satisfying the needs of workers, but also the role of a means of modifying human behavior.

Looking at compensation from the standpoint of learning behavior and behavior modification, we can distinguish four different types of compensation that lead to the consolidation or abandonment of the implemented behavior.

First type is a positive compensation. The essence of this type is that a reward is carried out, leading to pleasant consequences for a person. The form of remuneration can be completely different. Positive compensation can be used by management to reinforce desired employee behavior. At the same time, it is important to take into account that the reward should be clearly tied to the desired behavior, i.e. a person should know for what he received encouragement. The reward must follow the desired behavior and, finally, the reward must be in the best interest of the person being rewarded.

Second type is negative compensation. The essence of this type is that the desired behavior immediately leads to the elimination of circumstances or stimuli that are not desirable for the person. For example, a person who does not behave properly is boycotted by others. As soon as he begins to behave

correctly, from the point of view of the environment, they stop the boycott. With the second type of compensation, as well as with the first, it is important that the reaction of the environment or management to a change in behavior occurs as quickly as possible and, of course, is of an individual nature.

Third type compensation is punishment. In this case, unlike the first two types, compensation occurs as a reaction to "wrong", undesirable behavior for management or organizations.

If the desired behavior is fixed in the first two types, then in this case the undesirable behavior is eliminated. Compensation in the form of punishment consists in the fact that a person receives negative, unpleasant consequences of behavior for him. For example, he may be fined, lose his bonus or promotion, be reprimanded, and so on. The task of punishment is to narrow or eliminate the behavior of its members that is undesirable for the organization. Although punishment outwardly looks like the complete opposite of positive compensation - there they reward, here they take away - from the point of view of teaching human behavior, this is not so. This type of compensation is less effective than positive compensation. This is due to the fact that punishment has a less predictable and sustainable effect than reward, often leading to indirect negative consequences, such as a personal insult to the punished leader, loss of interest in work, a change in attitude towards one's activities, etc. Therefore, punishment as a way of compensating for the purpose of teaching behavior should be treated very carefully by management and carefully monitor its possible side negative manifestations.

Fourth type of compensation is the suppression of unwanted behavior; The essence of this type of compensation is as follows. A person who performs some undesirable actions that previously received a positive reaction stops them after a while, if a positive reaction ceases to come to these actions, i.e., in other words, if you stop responding positively to some actions, then after a while they will start to shrink. For example, a young person who successfully studied at the university and received praise from teachers for active speaking in the classroom and for comments on the speeches of his colleagues, having come to work in an organization, will also try to intervene in all discussions and conversations and give his comments and assessments to the statements of others. . However, if this is ignored, then after a while he will begin to get rid of this bad habit. The choice of the type and specific form of compensation plays a very important role in the successful modification of human behavior in the direction desired by the organization.

However, the choice of compensation frequency also plays an equally important role. for directed behavioral learning. In general, there can be two approaches to timing compensation.

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one approach is a compensation after each case of human action. This approach is called continuous compensation.

Another, a fundamentally different approach to the timing and frequency of compensation is that compensation does not occur after every action taken. This is periodic compensation. Although there is a fundamental difference between these two approaches, it is impossible to say which one is more effective, because their effectiveness depends significantly on the situation in which they are applied. At the same time, it is noted that the first approach works best when it is applied to a new employee who is learning his role in the organization. The second approach is better to apply when the organization wants to make certain behavior of its member stable.

There are four different types of periodic compensation.

First type- is a compensation after a fixed time interval. This approach suffers from the disadvantage that the desired behavior of workers manifests itself unevenly, increasing at those moments when fixation or compensation is carried out, and decreasing in the intervals between them.

Second type— compensation through a variable time interval. In this case, the interval between possible compensation and the frequency of compensation are not fixed. This approach is not applicable to all forms of compensation. However, it gives better results, since the indefinite moment of compensation keeps you in suspense and makes you work and behave better. Although after the onset of compensation, there may be a sharp decline in the behavior of its members that is desirable for the organization.

Third type unlike the first and second, it is based not on the time interval, but on the volume of actions. This type is called fixed rate compensation. With this approach, compensation occurs after some fixed number of actions have been completed. Practice shows that this type of compensation gives better results in shaping behavior than the first and second types of periodic compensation.

Fourth type (last), the basis also has compensation in | depending on the amount of activity. However, this is a compensation depending on the variable rate. This approach is considered to be highly effective, since compensation can occur after any single action, which encourages employees to constantly perform the “right” actions. In order for this approach to give a truly high result in behavior modification, it is important that the time intervals between compensation are not very large. At the same time, it is necessary to know that this approach has limited use. For example, it is hardly applicable to such a form of compensation as wages.

The considered issues of learning behavior suggest that a person, based on his experience, adapts

to the organizational environment, changing his behavior. The organization and its leadership can actively influence the modification of human behavior. However, the means used to influence the process of learning behavior, and the frequency of their use depend on the situation in which the person is located, and must be selected by the manager, taking into account the whole variety of factors influencing human behavior. First of all, taking into account the needs and motives of a person for activity.

The process of motivation is characterized by four theories that form the basis for motivation.

Expectation theory: Expectation in the chain of "execution effort"; waiting in the chain "execution - result"; result valence.

Theory of goal setting. Four characteristics of the goal: complexity, specificity, acceptability, commitment.

Equality theory: comparing one's results of actions with the results of others.

The most general concept of the motivation process is reduced to the following provisions. A person, having realized the tasks and the possible reward for their solution, correlates this information with his needs, motivational structure and capabilities, adjusts himself to a certain behavior, develops a certain disposition and performs actions that lead to a specific result, characterized by certain qualitative and quantitative characteristics.

This scheme does not yet reveal either the reward mechanism, or the actual content of the reward, the essence and content of the assessment, or the transformation of the assessment into a decision. In modern managerial thought and practice, there are a number of theories that describe the process of motivation in sufficient detail and at the operational level. The most famous of these are expectancy theory, goal setting theory, equality theory, and participatory management theory. They are trying to explain why people are willing to take certain actions with more or less effort. And by explaining this, they give managers the key to building an effective system of motivating people, that is, how to influence people in order to encourage them to work effectively.

Human behavior is constantly associated with a choice of two or more alternatives. From what a person gives this or that preference depends on what and how he does, how he behaves and what results he achieves. Expectancy theory is designed to answer the question why a person makes a particular choice when faced with several alternatives, and how motivated he is to achieve a result in accordance with the choice made. In its most generalized form, expectancy theory can be formulated as a doctrine that describes the dependence of motivation on two points: how much a person would like to receive and how much it is possible for him to get what he would like to receive, in particular, how much effort he is willing to spend for this. For example, an aspiring businessman from

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the province comes to negotiate the start of a joint business with representatives of large firms located in the city, which is a recognized center of business activity. To maintain his reputation, he will not stay in a hotel that has a reputation for being second-rate, although being cheap. At the same time, he does not have the means to stay in a luxury hotel. Therefore, apparently, he will stay in a hotel that is quite prestigious and for which he has enough money to stay.

The process of motivation according to the theory of expectation consists of the interaction of three blocks: 1) efforts; 2) execution; 3) result. Expectancy theory studies and describes the interaction of these three blocks. At the same time, efforts are considered as a consequence, and even the result of motivation. Performance is considered as a consequence of the interaction of efforts, personal capabilities and the state of the environment, and the result is considered as a function that depends on performance and on the degree of desire to obtain results of a certain type.

The expectation theory explains how the process of motivating a person to activity is built, based on linking into a single whole a person's ideas about the efforts necessary to complete the work, its practical performance and the results expected in response to the work performed. At the same time, the key points of concentration of attention of the theory are: 1) expectations along the chain of "effort - performance"; 2) expectations along the chain "execution — results of the second level; and 3) valency of results.

According to the theory of expectation, a person's motivation to perform work depends on how much he is interested or not interested in doing it, how attractive the work is to him. When deciding what to do and how much effort to expend, a person usually answers himself the question of how much he needs to do it. That is, when choosing an alternative, a person thinks about whether he will behave in an appropriate way, will perform the work accordingly, whether this will lead to a certain result of the first level. In this case, it forms the expectation of the result of the first level. In addition, the person answers the question of what he will receive as a result of the successful completion of the work.

This is already the development of expectations for the results of the second level. And, finally, he decides for himself how valuable this result will be for him, i.e. it evaluates the valency of the second level result. Depending on what final assessment a person comes to, his motivation to do the work will be formed.

The main provisions of the expectancy theory are as follows.

Firstly, Since this theory is subject to the idea of finding an answer to the question of how motivation affects the performance of work, the initial postulate is that performance is determined by the product of the

values of two factors: a person's capabilities and his motivation.

Secondly, it is argued that motivation is given by the product of the value of expectation of the results of the first level by the value of the valency of the results of the first level. And finally

third, the valency of the results of the first level is given by the product of the value of the valency of the results of the second level by the expectations of individual results of the second level. A person chooses the alternative where the motivation will be higher.

Using various techniques, the manager for the successful management of subordinates must build the management of the organization in such a way that the employee is sure that, working to achieve organizational goals, he thereby creates the conditions for the best achievement of second-level results.

In expectation theory, it is believed that in order for the motivation process to take place, a number of preconditions must be met. These conditions are:

- *the employees have a sufficiently high degree of expectation of the results of the first level;*
- *the presence of a sufficiently high degree of expectation of the results of the second level and*
- *total non-negative valency of the results of the second level.*

In practice, this means that the employee must have a firm understanding that the results of his work depend on his efforts, that certain consequences follow for him from the results of his work, and that the results he receives ultimately have for its value. In the absence of one of these conditions, the process of motivation becomes extremely difficult or even impossible.

Drawing a general conclusion about the theory of expectation, it should be noted that it proceeds from the fact that people carry out their actions in accordance with the possible consequences for them these actions can lead to. Based on the information available to them, people make a choice of one of the alternatives of action, based on what they will get as a result and what efforts they will have to expend in order to achieve this result. That is, according to the theory of expectation, a person behaves in accordance with what, in his opinion, will happen in the future if he makes a certain amount of effort.

The theory of goal setting proceeds from the fact that human behavior is determined by the goals that he sets for himself, since it is in order to achieve the goals he sets for himself that he carries out certain actions. It is assumed that setting goals is a conscious process, and conscious goals and intentions are what underlies the definition of human behavior.

In general, the basic model describing the process of setting goals is as follows. A person, taking into account the emotional reaction, realizes and evaluates the events taking place in the environment. Based on this, he determines for himself the goals to

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which he intends to strive, and, based on the goals set, carries out certain actions - performs certain work. That is, he behaves in a certain way, achieves a certain result and receives satisfaction from this.

Goal setting theory states that the level of performance directly or indirectly depends to a large extent on four characteristics of goals:

- *complexity*;
- *specificity*;
- *acceptability*;
- *commitment*.

These four characteristics of the goal affect both the goal itself and the efforts that a person is willing to expend in order to achieve the goal set for him.

Target difficulty reflects the degree of professionalism and the level of performance necessary to achieve it. There is a direct relationship between the complexity of the goal and the performance of the work. The more complex goals a person sets for himself, the better results he achieves. The exception is the case when unrealistically high goals are set, which in principle cannot be achieved. In this case, according to goal setting theory, the result of actions does not exceed the result achieved by those who set moderate but achievable goals. Therefore, raising goals, although justified, can lead to an increase in labor results only if there is a chance of achieving goals.

Target specificity reflects the quantitative clarity of the goal, its accuracy and certainty. Experimental studies have found that more specific and specific goals lead to better results, to better performance than goals that have a broad meaning, with vaguely defined content and boundaries. A person who has goals that are too broad in meaning and content demonstrates the same performance of work as someone who has no goals at all. At the same time, too much narrowing of goals can lead to the fact that important aspects of the activity carried out by a person may be left out of consideration. It will also negatively affect the performance of their work.

Purpose acceptability reflects the extent to which a person perceives the goal as his own. The acceptability of the goal has a significant impact on how the complexity and specificity of the goal affect the performance of the work. If a person does not accept the goal, then both the complexity and specificity of the goal will have very little effect on the performance of the work. The acceptability of a goal by a person directly depends on whether it is perceived by him as achievable, and on what benefits he can receive when achieving the goal. If the benefits are not clear, then the goal may not be accepted. Therefore, in the management of the organization there should be a clear awareness of the significance, the importance of taking actions that would make the goal achievable, profitable, fair and safe in the view of the employee.

Goal Commitment reflects the willingness to expend a certain level of effort to achieve the goal.

This is very important for the level; and the quality of execution is a characteristic of the goal, since it can play a decisive role at the stage of execution, if the reality, the difficulties of performing the work will differ significantly from what they seemed at the stage of setting the goal. Commitment to the goal may increase as the work is performed, or it may decrease. Therefore, management must constantly monitor the level of commitment to the goal on the part of employees and take the necessary measures to maintain it at the proper level.

In the theory of goal setting, when considering the dependence of performance on goals, it is emphasized that the quality of performance depends not only on the employee's efforts determined by the goal, but also on two groups of factors: 1) organizational factors and 2) the employee's abilities. At the same time, these groups of factors can affect not only the quality and content of the performance, but also the goals, thereby indirectly influencing motivation and, consequently, an additional impact on performance. So, for example, if there is little feedback from the results of work in the work, then this can reduce the degree of influence of the goal on the employee's efforts to complete the work.

The last step in the motivation process in goal setting theory is employee satisfaction with the result. The special significance of this step is that it not only completes the chain of the motivation process, but is also the starting point for the implementation of the next cycle of motivation.

In theory, it is stated that if as a result of actions a positive result is obtained for the subject, then he receives satisfaction, if negative - then frustration. At the same time, the goal setting theory states that satisfaction or dissatisfaction is determined by two processes: an internal process in relation to a person and an external one.

internal processes, leading to satisfaction are mainly related to how a person evaluates the result he has received in terms of correlating it with the goal. If the goal is achieved, the task taken on is completed, then the person experiences a feeling of satisfaction. If not, then it causes dissatisfaction. This circumstance gives rise to a certain contradiction in goal setting. As already mentioned, the higher and more complex the goal, the higher the level of performance. At the same time, a high goal may more likely lead to the fact that it will not be achieved, and, consequently, the person will feel a sense of dissatisfaction, frustration. This, in turn, can lead to striving - to take lower goals, to refuse to set or accept difficult goals. Therefore, it is important at the stage of goal setting to approach this problem very seriously.

External processes that affect the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of a person with the achieved results are the processes of reaction to the results of labor from the environment, evaluation by the environment of performance. If the environment reacts positively

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(management gratitude, promotion, pay increase, praise of colleagues, etc.), then this causes satisfaction, if not, then it leads to dissatisfaction.

External processes also contain some contradictory beginning, which has a dual effect on maintaining the motivational process in an effective state in terms of quality and level of performance. The essence of this contradiction is that a person behaves in accordance with the set goals, and the assessment of his actions is most often based on the results of performance. Therefore, if a person achieves his goals, but at the same time demonstrates a low level of performance, a moderate or even negative external assessment can lead to very strong frustration and a sharp drop in motivation to continue acting. A positive external assessment of successful performance can also negatively affect the motivational process, provided that the person failed to achieve his goals. This leads to a decrease in goal commitment and, ultimately, it negatively affects the quality and level of work performance in the future. If the external assessment is based on whether the goal was achieved or not, then in this case there are also moments that can weaken the motivational process, a person will set simpler goals for guaranteed achievement, which will necessarily negatively affect the quality and level of performance.

General recommendations for implementing the goal setting process can be summarized as follows.

First, it is necessary to determine to what extent the organization and the people working in it are ready for the implementation of the goal setting process.

Second, if the organization has potential readiness, then it is necessary to carry out a number of activities to practically prepare for the introduction of the goal-setting process.

Third, Goal setting should emphasize their complexity and specificity, and take into account the acceptability of goals and commitment to them.

fourth, it is necessary to conduct an intermediate analysis of the goals and their adjustment.

Fifth, it is necessary to analyze the achievement of goals, summarize the results of the previous stages and develop recommendations for the further implementation of the goal setting process.

One of the constant aspirations of people is the desire to receive a fair assessment of their actions. People, although not to the same extent, desire to be treated fairly. At the same time, justice is associated with equality, in comparison with the attitude towards others and the evaluation of their actions. If a person believes that they approach him in the same way as others, without discrimination, evaluate his actions from the same positions as the actions of others, then he feels the fairness of the attitude towards himself and feels satisfied. If equality is violated, if individual members of the organization receive undeservedly high marks and rewards, then the person feels offended, and this leads to frustration and

dissatisfaction. At the same time, dissatisfaction can occur even when when a person receives a high remuneration in relation to the costs of his labor. The influence of this moment on the relationship of a person with an organization is the basis of one of the theories of the motivational process - the theory of equality.

The theory of equality proceeds from the fact that in the process of comparison, although objective information is used, for example, the amount of wages, the comparison is carried out by a person on the basis of his personal perception and his actions, and the actions of the people with whom he makes comparisons.

Norma - the ratio of perceived costs to perceived rewards. There are two types of norms. The norm of the first type reflects the ratio of the perceived reward of the individual to the perceived costs of the individual. The norm of the second type reflects the ratio of the perceived reward of others to the perceived costs of others.

The theory of equality says that it is very important for a person how his norm relates to the norm of others. If the norms are equal, then the person, even with less remuneration, feels justice, since in this case there is equality. If his rate is lower, then he believes that he is not being rewarded enough. If his norm is higher, then he believes that he is being unduly rewarded.

The notion that takes place in management practice that inequality pushes people to increase performance results, that the state of equality demotivates people to achieve great results, is fundamentally wrong. As stated in the theory of equality based on empirical research, a person experiences a sense of satisfaction if equality is observed. Therefore, he strives to maintain this state.

Equality is bad when the overall level of performance is low. In this case, equality will lead to the preservation of this level. If the overall level of performance is high, equality is an important motivating factor for the success of the members of the organization.

In the event that an individual believes that he is not sufficiently or excessively rewarded, he has a feeling of dissatisfaction (in the second case, this feeling is less pronounced). Considering an unfair and unequal assessment of his work, a person loses motivation for active creative actions, in terms of the goals of the organization, which leads to many negative consequences.

The theory of equality allows us to draw several very important conclusions for the practice of managing people in an organization. Since perception is subjective, it is very important that information be widely available on who, how, for what and how much is rewarded. It is especially important that there is a clear system of payment that answers the question of what factors determine the amount of payment. An

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important conclusion from the theory of equality is that people are guided by a complex assessment of remuneration. Wages play an important role in this comprehensive assessment, but far from being the only and not necessarily decisive. Therefore, managers should take this into account if they are trying to create an atmosphere of equality in the team.

As repeatedly emphasized, the perception of equality and fairness is highly subjective. To successfully manage people, a manager must not only strive to be fair, create an atmosphere of equality, but also know well whether employees believe that remuneration is built on an equal and fair basis. To do this, management should regularly conduct research to find out how employees evaluate remuneration, whether they consider it equal or not.

A person in an organization manifests himself not only as a performer of a certain job or a certain function. He shows interest in how his work is organized, in what conditions he works, in how his work affects the activities of the organization. That is, he has a natural desire to participate in the processes taking place in the organization that are related to his activities in the organization, but at the same time go beyond his competence, beyond the scope of his work and the tasks he solves.

The concept of participatory management proceeds from the fact that if a person in an organization is interested in participating in various intra-organizational activities, then he, thereby, receiving satisfaction from this, works with greater efficiency, better, more efficiently and productively:

firstly, it is believed that participatory management, opening the employee access to decision-making about issues related to his functioning in the organization, motivates a person to do his job better;

Secondly, participatory management not only contributes to the fact that the employee is better at his job, but also leads to greater returns, a greater contribution of the individual employee to the life of the organization, i.e. there is a fuller use of the potential of the human resources of the organization.

Initially, the spread of participatory management was associated only with improving the motivation of workers. Recently, participatory management is increasingly associated with improving the use of the full potential of the organization's human resources.

Conclusion

Therefore, the concept of participatory management can no longer be associated only with the process of motivation, but should be considered as one of the general approaches to managing a person in an organization.

Participatory management can be implemented in the following areas, namely:

firstly, workers are given the right to make their own decisions about how they carry out their

activities. Autonomy may concern, for example, such aspects of their activities as the mode of operation or the choice of means for carrying out work;

Secondly, workers may be involved in making decisions about the work they perform. In this case, the manager consults with the employee about what to do and how to perform the tasks assigned to him. That is, in other words, the employee is involved in setting goals that he has to achieve, determining the tasks that he will have to solve;

third, employees are given the right to control the quality and quantity of their work and, accordingly, responsibility for the final result is established;

fourth, participatory management involves the broad participation of employees in rationalization activities, in making proposals for improving their own work and the work of the organization as a whole, as well as its individual divisions;

fifth, a possible direction for the implementation of participatory management is to give employees the right to form working groups from those members of the organization with whom they would like to work together. In this case, the right to make a decision is given not only about the member's own work, but also about with whom to cooperate in group activities.

In real practice, all these areas of participatory management are usually used in a certain combination, since they are very closely related to each other and complement each other very well. Moreover, it is in combination with each other that these individual areas can effectively manifest themselves, and it is precisely the individual well-established combinations of these areas that are used as specific forms of effective management. The most obvious example of this is the quality circles widely used in the management of Japanese firms.

A person performs certain actions in accordance with the pressure on him of a combination of internal and external forces in relation to him. The totality of these forces, called motivation, evokes far from the same reaction in people. Therefore, it is impossible to unambiguously describe the process of motivation. At the same time, on the basis of empirical research, several concepts have been developed that describe the factors influencing motivation and the content of the motivation process.

So-called content theories of motivation focus on how different groups of needs affect human behavior. Despite the fundamental differences between these concepts, they nevertheless have something in common at their core, which reflects a certain commonality in a person's motivation for effective actions.

The process of motivation is revealed in theories that try to explain why people are willing to perform certain actions, spending more or less effort. Expectancy Theory, Goal Setting Theory, Equality Theory, and Effective Management Theory,

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explaining how people should be influenced in order to induce them to perform well, give managers the key to building an effective system of motivating people.

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