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Educational Establishment “Vitebsk State University
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Department of Psychology

**MODERN METHODS
OF PSYCHODIAGNOSTICS
IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

Course of lectures

*Vitebsk
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Modern methods of psychodiagnostics in social psychology :
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The course of lectures is prepared in accordance with the educational standard for students of the 2nd stage of obtaining higher education in the specialty “Psychology”. The manual contains a brief synopsis of lectures, list of basic and additional literature.

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INTRODUCTION

1. Aims and objectives of the discipline:

The purpose of teaching the discipline is to prepare undergraduates to perform the professional functions of a psychologist-diagnostician, master the system of basic concepts of psycho-diagnostics in social psychology, familiarize themselves with the history of the formation of diagnostic theory and practice, requirements for psychodiagnostic tools, develop a system of knowledge and skills correct construction and implementation of socio-psychodiagnostic research.

The objectives of studying the discipline are: mastering the categorical apparatus of modern psychodiagnostics in social psychology by undergraduates: methodological and methodological principles of the diagnostic activity of a psychologist; formation of skills to substantiate the used theoretical and methodological position in the process of diagnostic work; development of abilities for theoretical analysis of diagnostic information, practical use of diagnostic tools; assimilation of ethical norms of the activity of a psychologist-psychodiagnostician, promoting the development of a humane attitude towards a client; education of the qualities of a socially active and empathic personality, the formation of a creative approach to professional psychological activity.

2. The place of the discipline in the specialist training system:

In the Master's training system, the academic discipline "Modern Methods of Psychodiagnostics in Social Psychology" is included in the module "Applied Problems of Behavioral Psychology" (a component of a higher education institution). The discipline "Modern methods of psychodiagnostics in social psychology" is based on the wide use of knowledge of the disciplines "General psychology", "Labor psychology", "Social psychology", "Psychology of personality", "Psychodiagnostics". The discipline "Modern methods of psychodiagnostics in social psychology" is the most important academic discipline, the study of which contributes to the formation of professional skills, self-awareness and personal qualities of a practical psychologist. Psychodiagnostic knowledge and skills are a structural component of the professional competence of a psychologist. The program is designed to provide the basic psychological competence of future masters in theoretical and practical aspects. The program focuses the attention of undergraduates on psychological problems that are directly related to future professional activities.

3. Requirements for the development of an academic discipline

As a result of studying the academic discipline, the master student:

must know:

- basic methodological approaches to psychological diagnostics in social psychology;

- socio-psychological methods of personality research;
- research methods of groups;
- research methods of emotional states;
- principles of drawing up conclusions on the basis of psychodiagnostic research data;

be able to:

- to build a program of psychodiagnostic research, taking into account its goals and variability;
- independently determine the most effective methods of psychodiagnostic research;
- analyze the results of psychodiagnostic research;
- draw up a psychological conclusion based on the research data;

to own:

- the algorithm for psychometric assessment of diagnostic tools;
- methods of collection, processing and interpretation of psychodiagnostic data;
- the skills of drawing up a psychological conclusion based on the results of psychodiagnostic research

In the process of mastering the discipline "Modern Methods of Psychodiagnostics in Social Psychology", the master's degree student forms and demonstrates the following competencies: be able to skillfully apply psychological methods of optimization and behavior correction..

4. For the study of the discipline "Modern Methods of Psychodiagnostics in Social Psychology" according to the curriculum allocated: 126, of which classroom - 52 hours (18 - lecture, 18 – practical, 16 - seminar).

MODULE I. GENERAL QUESTIONS OF SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL DIAGNOSTICS

Lecture 1. Psychodiagnostics as a science and as a practice

Lecture plan:

1. The concept of psychodiagnostics.
2. Tasks of psychodiagnostics.
3. Development of psychological testing.
4. Development of a clinical approach to psychodiagnostics.

Basic concepts: psychodiagnostics, individual psychological characteristics, psychometrics, psychological diagnosis, mental state, measurement, testing.

1. Modern psychodiagnostics develops methods for identifying and studying the individual psychological and individual psychophysical characteristics of a person.

In 1921, the book by G. Rorschach "Psychodiagnostics" was published. Since that time, the term "psychodiagnostics" began to be widely used. Twentieth century psychodiagnostics is closely related to psychiatry. Psychiatry was in dire need of the study of mental phenomena. The term "psychodiagnostics" at the beginning of the twentieth century was used to identify and establish mental disorders and mental states that deviate from the norm. The goal of psychodiagnostics was psychodiagnosis. Psychodiagnosis is a determination of the difference between a certain psychological characteristic and a standard. The development of psychodiagnostics has led to a significant expansion of the understanding of this term. In the modern situation, psychodiagnostics is understood as everything that is associated with the measurement of individual differences.

Psychodiagnostics has developed in different ways in different scientific psychological schools and different countries. Clinical methods (conversation, projective techniques) were developed in European countries. Standardized test methods developed in American countries. At present, all these approaches are actively used and complement each other.

Currently, psychodiagnostics is considered as a scientific discipline and as an area of practical activity.

Psychodiagnostics as a theory considers:

- patterns of making valid and reliable diagnostic judgments,
- rules for drawing up "diagnostic inferences".

Psychodiagnostics as a theoretical discipline is closely related to the corresponding subject areas of psychology:

- the selected variable should have a theoretical meaning and practical significance for solving an applied problem;
- in specific methods of psychodiagnostics, the concepts of the relevant disciplines are presented
- in specific methods, the correctness of theoretical constructions is checked.

Theoretical psychodiagnostics is formed by three areas of psychological knowledge:

- the subject area of psychology, which studies these phenomena,
- psychometrics - the science of individual differences measuring
- the practice of psychological knowledge using.

Psychodiagnostics as practice is one of the ways (methods) of using the knowledge gained in scientific psychodiagnostics in practice.

The main areas of use of psychodiagnostics in practice are:

- selection and evaluation of personnel, placement of personnel, career guidance, personnel management;
- job of the school psychological service, optimization of the teaching and upbringing processes, diagnostics of school readiness, diagnostics of acquired knowledge, the problem of “troubled children”;
- psychodiagnostics in the field of family and personal counseling, psychotherapeutic assistance;
- expert activity (forensic psychological examination);
- predicting social behavior (examination when hiring or serving in law enforcement agencies, when forming expeditions, etc.).

Psychodiagnostics as a practice is associated with the study of the examination procedure and methods of psychological diagnosing. The psychological diagnosing provides a problem solving that associated with cognizance of psychological differences between people. Psychocorrection, psychological counseling, psychotherapy, etc. are built based on the results of psychodiagnostics.

There are two types of socio-psychological diagnosis in social psychology:

- 1) establishing the degree of deviation of the studied phenomenon from the norm;
- 2) establishing the place of this phenomenon on the scale of manifestation of this phenomenon.

Psychological diagnosis in social psychology includes

- determination of the causes of functioning and development of the studying object,
- determination of the further development trends (forecast development).

Practical psychodiagnostics includes:

- codex of psychodiagnostic tools using
- knowledge of the properties of measured variables and measuring instruments,

- knowledge of ethical and professional norms of psychodiagnostic job;
- taking into account the client's motivation for examination and knowledge of ways to maintain it,
- the ability to assess the condition of the subject as a whole,
- knowledge and skills of communicating information to the subject about himself,
- sensitivity to actions that could harm the subject,
- the ability to interpret the information received and much more

2. The current state of psychodiagnostics determines the approaches to the description and formulation of psychodiagnostic tasks. There are two types of tasks: research; scientific-practical.

Research tasks are subdivided as the classes:

- methodological: fundamental principles, definition of the subject, categorical base, general theory of the method;
- theoretical: development of the theory of measuring mental phenomena, psychological interpretation of data and the construction of groups of models (psychological model of personality, model of the examination situation and model of the psychodiagnostic method);
- experimental: an empirical study of new patterns and mechanisms of behavior mental regulation, mechanisms of development of the psyche of the subject, development and testing of new methods and techniques of psychodiagnostics.

Scientific-practical tasks are subdivided as the classes:

- informational (measuring): determination of the parameters of a personality model, a model of intelligence, a model of abilities, etc.
- technological (instructive): analysis, assessment, construction of a psychodiagnostic method;
- interpretive (predictive-oriented): the procedure of drawing up a psychodiagnostic conclusion;
- corrective (psychological influence): the technique of psychological conversation, psychological follow-up and support, consulting methods, techniques of personal protection, meditation, various kinds of trainings, development techniques, etc.

3. Psychodiagnostics has come a long way of development and formation. Psychological diagnostics emerged from psychology and began to take shape at the turn of the 20th century under the influence of practical requirements. Its emergence was prepared by several directions in the development of psychology:

- experimental psychology as a science that studies the psychological differences between people experimentally;

- behaviorism, with the theoretical principles of which test methods are closely related (the purpose of diagnostics was originally to fix behavior, and this was precisely what the first psychodiagnostics who developed the test method did);

- associative psychology and psychoanalysis, which are closely related to the clinical approach to psychodiagnostics.

The first researcher to use the "intelligence test" was J. M. Cattell. This term, after Cattell's article "Intellectual Tests and Measurements", published in 1890 in the journal *Mind*, became widely known. In his article, Cattell wrote that the application of a series of tests to a large number of individuals would reveal the patterns of mental processes and thereby lead to the transformation of psychology into an exact science.

Following Cattell, other American laboratories began to apply the test method, which is becoming widespread. A new step in its development was taken by the French physician and psychologist Alfred Binet (1867-1911), the creator of the most popular test series of his time. Binet, in collaboration with Henri Simon, conducted a series of experiments to study attention, memory, and thinking in children of different ages (starting from three years old). The experimental tasks carried out on many subjects were tested according to statistical criteria and began to be considered as a means of determining the intellectual level.

The first battery of tests (or, as it was then called, the scale) Binet-Simon appeared in 1905. Then it was revised several times by the authors. A. Binet's scale in subsequent editions (1908 and 1911) was translated into German and English. The tasks in the Binet test were grouped by age (from 3 to 13 years). Specific tests were selected for each age. They were considered appropriate for a given age level if they were solved by the majority of children of a given age (80-90%). The indicator of intelligence in Binet's scales was mental age, which could differ from chronological age. Mental age was determined by the success of the test tasks. The discrepancy between mental and chronological age was considered an indicator of either mental retardation (if mental age is less than chronological) or giftedness (if mental age is more than chronological).

The second edition of the Binet scale was proposed in 1916 and had many major changes, the main of which were the introduction of the intelligence quotient (IQ) as an indicator for the test and the introduction of a statistical test norm.

The IQ coefficient was proposed by W. Stern. Stern proposed to determine the quotient obtained by dividing mental age by chronological age. This figure, multiplied by 100, he called the coefficient of intelligence. Using this indicator, it is possible to classify normal children according to the degree of mental development. IQ has become synonymous with intelligence for many years.

The next stage in the development of psychological testing is characterized by a change in the form of the test. All tests created in the first decade of the

20th century were individual and made it possible to conduct an experiment with only one subject. In the United States during the First World War, a new form of testing appeared - group testing. Group (collective) tests made real tests of large groups, allowed for simplification of instructions, procedures for conducting and evaluating test results. Group tests were used mainly in the education system, in industry and in the army.

The rapid and widespread dissemination of testology was due to its focus on the prompt solution of practical problems. The measurement of intelligence with the help of tests was considered as a means of scientifically approaching the issues of training, professional selection, assessment of achievements, etc. However, the demands of practice required additional information about the characteristics of the human psyche. A new direction in testology has emerged - testing of special abilities, which at first was intended only to supplement the assessments of intelligence tests, and subsequently stood out as an independent area.

Along with tests of intelligence, special and complex abilities, another type of tests has arisen that are widely used in educational institutions - achievement tests - pedagogical tests of subject knowledge (knowledge in certain academic subjects), as well as professional tests (for special professional skills and abilities) . Unlike intelligence tests, they reflect the impact of special training programs on the effectiveness of solving test tasks. Achievement tests belong to the most numerous group of diagnostic methods. One of the most famous achievement tests and still widely used in the United States is the Stanford Achievement Test (SAT), first published in 1923. It measures the level of learning in different grades in secondary schools.

4. The demands of medical practice gave impetus to the development of methods of personal psychodiagnostics. It focuses on ability no more than style and motivational personality traits. In this area, most often special methods are used, among which questionnaires and projective methods stand out primarily.

Questionnaires are a large group of methods, the tasks of which are presented in the form of questions or statements, and the task of the subject is to independently report some information about himself in the form of answers. The method of questionnaires was initially considered as a kind of self-observation. The prototype of personality questionnaires was developed by the American psychologist Robert Woodworth in 1919, the Personality Data Form. This questionnaire was designed to identify and screen out individuals with neurotic symptoms from military service. Since that time, questionnaires have become widely used as a psychodiagnostic method for studying personality. For the past 50 years, the most popular personality test has been the MMPI (Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory). It is used primarily in clinical practice.

Another well-known method for diagnosing personality is projective methods. Their ancestor is traditionally considered the method of verbal associations, which arose on the basis of the associationist trend in psychology. The associative experiment stimulated the emergence of such a group of projective techniques as "unfinished sentences" (or "sentence completion"). For the first time, "sentence completion" was used to study personality by A. Payne in 1928.

In addition to associationism, the theoretical origins of projective methods are in psychoanalysis, which puts the concept of the unconscious at the forefront. One of the most popular projective techniques was developed in 1921 by the Swiss psychiatrist Hermann Rorschach, who coined the term "psychodiagnostics". Creating this technique, Rorschach experimented with a large number of inkblots, which he presented to various groups of mentally ill people. As a result of his observations, Rorschach gradually combined those response characteristics that could be correlated with various mental illnesses into a relatively coherent system of indicators. Subsequently, this technique was used and analyzed by many researchers.

Questions and task

1. Give a definition to the concept of "psychodiagnostics".
2. List the areas of social practice in which it is necessary to use psychodiagnostics.
3. What are the main tasks of psychodiagnostics?
4. Describe the difference between expert psychological activity and school psychological service.
5. What tasks have psychodiagnostics as a theory?

Lecture 2. Theoretical and methodological problems of socio-psychological research

Lecture plan:

1. Socio-psychological research: specificity, levels.
2. Features of diagnostic research in social psychology
3. The problem of the quality of social and psychological information.
4. Main psychodiagnostic mistakes.

Basic concepts: socio-psychological diagnostics, methodology, empirical level, theoretical level, procedural level, representativeness, reliability, validity, sustainability, accuracy.

1. Socio-psychological research is a type of scientific research aimed at establishing psychological patterns of people behavior and activities due to the

fact of inclusion in social (large and small) groups, and psychological characteristics of these groups themselves (AL Zhuravlev). The specificity of socio-psychological research is characterized by: application of data on the open behavior and activities of individuals in groups, and characteristics of consciousness (ideas, opinions, attitudes, values, etc.) of these individuals;

- the social context of research that influences to the selection, interpretation and presentation of facts;
- instability and constant change of social and psychological phenomena;
- culturally conditioned relativity of socio-psychological laws;
- work with real concrete objects of research (individuals and groups).

Socio-psychological research is a search, careful selection of empirical data (specific facts), the conclusion of certain principles, their verification and use in forecasting. Sources of information in social psychology are considered to be:

- characteristics of the real behavior and activities of people and groups;
- characteristics of individual and group consciousness (opinions, assessments, perceptions, attitudes, values, etc.),
- characteristics of the products of material and spiritual human activity;
- individual events, states of social interaction.

Scientists distinguish three levels of research in social psychology:

- empirical: collection of primary information (socio-psychological facts and its description within a certain theory);
- theoretical: explanation of empirical data; this is the level of constructing conceptual, theoretical models of socio-psychological processes and phenomena;
- methodological: consideration of a multilevel, systemic organization of socio-psychological phenomena and their constituent elements, determination of the initial principles of studying these phenomena. On the formal side, the methodology defines the operations by which the collection and analysis of empirical data takes place.

Sometimes the fourth level is distinguished - the procedural one (G.M. Andreeva, 1972). It is a system of knowledge about methods, techniques of research, ensuring the reliability and stability of psychological information. As a whole these levels create conditions for the development of a research program.

2. Socio-psychological diagnostics serves as the foundation of applied social psychology. Without it, it is impossible to carry out both effective counseling of the customer (client) and effectively influence the object under study with the help of psychotechnologies.

The goal of socio-psychological diagnostics is to study various characteristics of small (contact) and large social groups (level of cohesion of a small group, internal structure, nature of interpersonal relations, psychological climate, state of public opinion, etc.), as well as diagnosing social psychological qualities of a person. The term "socio-psychological diagnostics" is used in

applied research of social psychology, which solve practical problems (recognizing a phenomenon, describing its characteristics, finding out the reasons and making a forecast). The term "establishing a diagnosis" in this case is the final stage of diagnosis.

The features of organizational work that precedes the establishment of a socio-psychological diagnosis depend on:

- on the level of diagnosed phenomena (macro-, average, micro- and personal level),
- from the sphere in which this phenomenon is observed (social, domestic, political, production and economic, etc.),
- on the conditions in which the diagnosed phenomenon occurs and the object of study is located (normal, complicated or extreme).

In the field of socio-psychological diagnostics, two levels are distinguished:

- branch of socio-psychological theory, within the framework of which methodology and methods of diagnosis, cognition of socio-psychological phenomena are developed;
- the sphere of social practice, the totality of the psychologist's actions on recognition (from the Greek word "diagnosis" - recognition), measurement of social and psychological phenomena.

3. The problem of the quality of information in socio-psychological research can be formulated as the problem of obtaining reliable information. In general, the problem of information quality is solved by ensuring the principle of representativeness, as well as by checking the method of obtaining data for reliability. In social psychology, these general problems acquire specific content.

For social psychology, two types of information quality parameters are distinguished: objective and subjective. The answers to the questions of the questionnaire or interviews constitute "subjective" information, and it can be obtained in the most complete and reliable form, but many important points arising from "subjectivity" can be missed. To overcome errors of this kind, a number of requirements are introduced regarding the reliability of information.

The reliability of information is achieved primarily by checking the reliability of the instrument with which the data is collected. V.A. Yadov believes that in each case three types of reliability are provided:

- Validity (validity) of an instrument is its ability to measure exactly those characteristics of an object that need to be measured. Taking into account the variety of information that forms the concept of validity, criteria, the types of validity are distinguished: diagnostic (competitive), differential, illusory (false), incremental, constructive, consensus, criterial, obvious, by age differentiation, prognostic, meaningful, current. The coefficient of validity, calculated using linear correlation, is recognized as low, of the order of 0.20-0.30; medium - 0.30-0.50 and high - over 0.60. There are several ways to validate a tool.

- Stability of information is a characteristic of a technique (test) that reflects the accuracy of psychodiagnostic measurements, the stability of the test results to the action of random factors and when it is reapplied to the same subjects under identical conditions for providing a diagnostic procedure, ie. the information when receiving it in different situations must be identical. (This quality of information is sometimes called "credibility"). Methods of checking information for stability: repeated measurement; measurement of the same property by different observers; the so-called "split scale", that is, checking the scale in parts.

- The accuracy of the information (in some works coincides with the stability) is measured by how fractional the applied metrics are, or, in other words, how sensitive the instrument is. Thus, it is the degree to which the measurement results are close to the true value of the measured quantity. It is always necessary to decide which measure of accuracy is acceptable. When determining this measure, the researcher includes the entire arsenal of his theoretical ideas about the object.

The most difficult problem is the problem of representativeness, which arises in a specific form in socio-psychological research. Representativeness (from French exponential) is the property of a sample to represent the characteristics of the general population (an unlimitedly large set of measurements of individuals, objects or phenomena, the properties of which we are going to judge as a result of psychological research). Representativeness means that with some predetermined or determined statistically error, the distribution of the studied features presented in the sample population corresponds to their real distribution.

A specific feature of socio-psychological research is the fact that in any form of obtaining information, its source is a person. In research, there is also such a special variable as the interaction of the researcher with the subject. So, in a number of studies, the so-called "anticipatory assessment" is recorded, when the subject plays along with the researcher, trying to justify his expectations. In addition, a common phenomenon in social psychology is the so-called Rosenthal effect, when the result arises due to the presence of the experimenter (described by Rosenthal).

4. Errors may occur in the diagnostic activity of a psychologist. A diagnostic error is an error that occurred at one of the stages of recognizing psychological symptoms, when the mental picture of the state of the subject, expressed in the diagnosis, differs from his real state, as a result of which the psychological diagnosis is incorrect, inaccurate or insufficiently complete.

When solving psychodiagnostic problems, there are sixteen types of typical mistakes made by the subjects of diagnostics, which A.N. Ryzhkova proposes to divide into four classes:

1. errors of the subject of diagnostics - errors associated with the diagnostician:

- data collection errors: observational errors associated with psychological effects; data logging errors; errors associated with the quality of information - its lack, excess, distortion over time, the impact of barriers, information noise;

- instrumental errors (inability to use tests, equipment and other measuring equipment both in technical and interpretive aspects; violation/ignorance of the psychometric requirements of psychodiagnostics; use of "fashionable" and/or "outdated" tests, etc.);

- logical errors: violations in the ratio of general and particular categories (norm-pathology, social-biological, etc.); violations of the formal-logical nature of requirements, methods, laws; errors associated with the lack of formation of the diagnostic thinking of a psychologist-diagnostician (violation of the stages of the diagnostic process and errors that occur at each stage; lack of independence, rigidity, mechanistic and conservatism of thinking; varieties of cognitive styles; diagnosis by intuition).

- Mistakes related to the personality traits of a psychodiagnostic: characterological, emotional and volitional features, cognitive and psychomotor features, motivational and need-based features, diagnostician's professional characteristics and competence, work experience and diagnostic experience; "narrowness of a specialist"; his position in relation to the subjects, the features of the state of health and the functional state of the diagnostician.

2. errors of the diagnostic object - errors associated with the subject:

- errors associated with the perception of the diagnostician's personality and attitude towards him;

- errors related to the subject's motivation;

- errors related to the personal characteristics of the client;

- instrumental errors (incorrect understanding of instructions or test statements; effects of "psychological barrier" and "overconfidence" during computer examination, etc.).

3. errors in the interaction between the subject and the object of diagnostics - errors in reporting diagnostic data; errors associated with the presentation of diagnostic data (the presence of psychological barriers; the method of reporting information without a meaningful explanation, without taking into account the personal characteristics of the interviewer, his educational level, lack of knowledge in psychology and the expected emotional reaction to information);

4. errors of diagnostic tools - errors associated with the imperfection of psychological methods.

The greatest number of errors is associated with the gnostic component of the diagnostic process (excessive or incomplete data in the summary of phenomenology, the promotion of non-operational or inadequate hypotheses, the testing of not all hypotheses, the inadequacy and stylistic inaccuracy of the

conclusion, the lack of its formulation, ignoring conflicting information in the previously formulated diagnostic conclusion).

The average number of errors occurs in the semiotic component of diagnostics and they are associated with ignorance of the typology of requests and their psychological reasons (inadequacy of the summary on phenomenology, lack of hypotheses, insufficient hypotheses, stylistic inaccuracy of the summary and put forward hypotheses).

The smallest number of errors is associated with the technical component of the diagnostics, thus with the selection and use of diagnostic techniques (inconsistency of the technique with the hypothesis being tested, the use of an excessive number of techniques to test it).

Questions and task

1. What are the main methods of diagnostic research in social psychology.
2. List the sources of information in social psychology.
3. What are the main errors of psychodiagnostics?
4. Describe the criteria, the types of validity.
5. Describe levels of research in social psychology.

Lecture 3. Characteristics of the main methods of psychodiagnostics, features of its social psychology use

Lecture plan:

1. General characteristics of the methods of socio-psychological research.
2. Professional and ethical principles in psychodiagnostics.

Basic concepts: social modeling, phenomenologization, conceptualization, professional ethical code, professional ethical standards, confidentiality, objectivity.

1. Currently, there is a huge number of specific methodological techniques for studying social and psychological phenomena in psychology:

- diagnostics of the personality socio-psychological specificity;
- diagnostics of individual psychological characteristics that determine the dominant socio-psychological and activity orientation of the group and constitute its structural composition;
- diagnostics of integrative motivational formations of the individual and the group (study of the motivational orientation and structure of the personality, group motivation and organizational behavior, orientation in interpersonal communications);
- diagnostics of the communicative potentials of an individual and a group;
- psychodiagnostics of group and intergroup phenomena;
- diagnostics of integral characteristics of a small group, etc.

The analysis of existing socio-psychological methods allows us to conclude that in the overwhelming majority they are concentrated at the level of socio-psychological diagnostics of the individual, interpersonal relations and small groups. The diagnostics of large social groups, mass socio-psychological phenomena have not yet been provided with proven reliable methods.

The main research methods of social and psychological phenomena are considered within the framework of social psychology. There are several approaches to the classification of methods used by social psychology.

G.M. Andreeva divides all methods into 2 large groups: research methods and methods of influence. **Research methods** include methods of collecting information and methods of processing it. **Methods of influence:** the importance of these methods is associated with the strengthening of the role for social psychology in solving social problems, this group of methods is divided according to such dichotomous grounds as the degree of activity (active, passive), the level of organization (organized, spontaneous), focus (direct, indirect), strategies for individual change, technostructural strategies, strategies based on a certain type of data, organizational development or cultural change as an intervention strategy.

2. Any psychodiagnostic examination can significantly affect the fate of a person. Therefore, in all countries, psychodiagnostic practice is regulated by a common professional ethical code and specially developed professional ethical standards in the field of testing and psychodiagnostics.

1. The principle of special training and certification of persons using psychodiagnostic techniques. The diagnostic psychologist must choose techniques that are suitable for a specific purpose and for a specific person whom he examines. The psychologist must also know the scientific literature related to the chosen method and be able to assess the technical parameters of such characteristics as the representativeness of norms, reliability, validity, and accuracy. The psychodiagnostician in the conclusion he signs must record that all the necessary methodological conditions have been met. The psychodiagnostician draws conclusions or makes recommendations only after considering the diagnostic information in the light of other information concerning the individual.

The psychologist must know the limits of his competence and the limitations of the methods used. Do not offer your services, and do not use methods that do not meet professional standards.

2. The principle of limited dissemination of psychodiagnostic techniques (the principle of "professional secrecy"). In a nutshell, this principle states: professional psychodiagnostic techniques certified by the Psychological Society can only be distributed among certified specialists. This principle: non-disclosure of the content of the methods and prevention of their incorrect use.

3. The principle of ensuring the sovereign rights of the individual. Before the survey, a person should be warned who will have access to the

survey results and what decisions can be drawn and adopted. In the event that minor children are examined, such a warning should be officially received by the parents.

This ethical principle, which protects the right of an individual to refuse examination and protection of his personality, protects his work as a psychologist and increases the requirements for his qualifications. With proper interaction and mutual respect between the psychologist and the subject, the number of refusals to participate in diagnostics can be reduced to an insignificant inclusion.

4. The principle of objectivity. The survey must be completely impartial. Its performer should not be influenced by general impressions of the personality of the subject; sympathy or, conversely, antipathies, as well as their own state or mood.

5. The principle of confidentiality. All information obtained in the course of the survey should be strictly confidential: it should be available only to those for whom it is intended. You can communicate information to those persons about whom the subject was warned.

6. The principle of psychoprophylactic presentation of results. The subject should be able to comment on the content of his results and, if necessary, clarify or correct factual information.

The psychologist bears full responsibility for possible moral and indirect material damage, including damage to somatic and neuropsychic health, which may be caused to the test subject if the examination is performed incorrectly.

Questions and task

1. Give a brief definition to concept “Methodology”.
2. Give a brief definition to concept “Psychodiagnostics’ technique”.
3. Give a brief definition to concept “Test”.
4. Describe the principle of special training and certification of persons using psychodiagnostic techniques.
5. Describe the principle of ensuring the sovereign rights of the individual.

Lecture 4. Organization and procedure of diagnostics in social psychology

Lecture plan:

1. Program of social and psychological diagnostics.
2. Sample type, sample size.
3. Requirements for the final conclusion.

Basic concepts: research program, pilot study, sample research, quota sampling, mechanical sampling, regional sampling.

1. Any research begins with drawing up a research program. The effectiveness of the research, the significance of its theoretical and practical results largely depend on its scientific validity. The program is a theoretical and methodological basis for psychological research procedures: collection, processing and analysis of data. The program sets a certain logic (stages) of the study. G.M. Andreeva notes that without creating a program, it is impossible or very difficult to conduct a targeted diagnosis of a socio-psychological phenomenon.

The socio-psychological research program includes the following sections:

- problem formulation (usually the problem is voiced by the customer, but a clear and competent formulation is carried out by a psychologist;
- definition of the object and subject of research;
- preliminary theoretical analysis of the research object;
- characteristics of the goals and objectives of the study;
- an empirical definition of basic concepts (in social psychology there are many concepts that are defined in different ways by different authors. This can lead to different results when diagnosing the same object and subject. Therefore, it is necessary to determine what is embedded in a particular concept on the level of empirical indicators);
- formulation of working hypotheses;
- determination of the research plan (exploratory, descriptive, experimental). The search engine is used when the object is not fully understood. In this case, adequate methods and techniques are also selected: semi-free observation, free interview, traditional analysis of documents. In the case of a certain preliminary knowledge of the object, a descriptive diagnostic plan and the corresponding methods are selected;
- drawing up a sampling plan;
- description of methods for collecting and processing data, schemes for their analysis and interpretation.

All elements of the program are closely interconnected.

Sometimes the program is divided into theoretical (methodological) and methodological (procedural) sections. The theoretical section includes program components that begin with the problem statement and conclude with a sampling plan. Methodological section - a description of methods for collecting, processing and analyzing data.

Pilot research is considered to be an important element of the program. Its purpose is to assess the quality and reliability of the methodological tools and procedures for organizing research, as well as the possibility of making adjustments and changes to the final versions of methods and techniques for collecting data. The results of the research are usually drawn up in the form of a report, which is drawn up according to a specific plan, contains a description of all sections of the program, as well as a description of the analysis of the results obtained.

The presence of a program for diagnosing complex social psychological phenomena allows both the customer and the researchers, experts to reasonably judge the competence of the performer (practical psychologist), makes it possible to repeat the diagnosis according to the algorithm set out in the program and check the results obtained. In some cases, the customer, relying on an expert opinion on an unprofessionally prepared program, can stop funding and choose another contractor, thereby saving his money and time.

2. After the choice of methods and techniques that are adequate to the problem being diagnosed, the tasks and hypotheses set out in the theoretical and methodological part of the program, a brief description of the organization of the entire diagnostic process is given. This section indicates who is the performer and customer of this survey, in what time frame it is carried out; the specific object of the survey is specified (for example, not just secondary school students, but students of such and such classes); the type of sample is indicated (if we are talking not about a continuous, but about a sample survey: random, quota, zoned, mixed), etc.

As a rule, sample surveys are carried out with diagnosing of socio-psychological phenomena at the macro and micro levels in order to save time and money. This is done to ensure that the data is representative. The procedure for selecting units in a sample for subsequent diagnosis can be quite simple. For example, with mechanical sampling, when every tenth, hundredth member of a community or collective is selected. The procedure for selecting units in a sample for subsequent diagnosis can be quite complicated in the case of, for example, a quota sample, when they try to select individuals in a sample at once according to several significant parameters, so that in aggregate they reflect in miniature the general subject being examined; aggregate, that is, any population of people or things. Mechanical sampling is permissible when there is confidence that the studied features are fairly evenly distributed in the general population and that a detailed and in-depth study of the internal relationships in a given object is not required. A zoned sample involves the selection of not independent individuals, but social groups, organizations, whose members have some qualitative characteristic that is significant for the diagnosis that distinguishes them from each other. These can be the socio-economic characteristics of the region, the standard of living, the level of delinquency, etc. As a rule, in practice, especially when diagnosing mass social and psychological phenomena, at the macrolevel they resort to a mixed type of sampling: zoned at the first stage of its formation and random mechanical or quota at its last stage. Quota sampling is assumed where it is required to study and identify complex internal interdependencies of the studied object. The type of sample is largely determined by the goals, objectives and hypotheses of socio-psychological diagnostics, as well as the structure of the studied object. As for the sample sizes, they can vary over a very wide range - from several tens of units to several

thousand. These sizes depend primarily on the scale of the diagnosed phenomenon, as well as on its internal complexity and the degree to which the causal relationship between the variables within this phenomenon is revealed. These sizes depend primarily on the scale of the diagnosed phenomenon, as well as on its internal complexity and the corollary relationship between variables within this phenomenon.

3. Written (or verbal) conclusion is the final stage of psychodiagnostics. The content of the conclusion includes all data available to the diagnostician, both test and others (from other sources).

The diagnostic conclusion, without repeating (even concisely) the examination protocol, is most often the answer to a question posed to a practical psychologist by another specialist (teacher, defectologist, doctor, etc.) or by the person being examined. According to practicing psychologists, the conclusion should reflect the main qualitative characteristics of the subject's psyche, identified on the basis of generalization of the data obtained, be built on the principle from external to internal, and have a causal character.

There are 3 types of psychological conclusions.

1. Descriptive conclusion - contains a description of the personality without determining the direction, corresponds to a psychological characteristic.

2. Evaluation report - in accordance with the specified criteria, the psychologist expresses in it his professional attitude towards the personality of the subject.

3. Advisory opinion - based on the analysis of the personality of the subject, recommendations are proposed aimed at the correction or development of his personality.

Principles of drawing up an advisory opinion (A. Anastazi):

1. The content and style of the conclusion depend on the theoretical attitudes and specialization of the diagnostician.

2. The content of the conclusion should indicate the purpose of the diagnostic study: whether the task was to give any specific recommendations, or whether a simple consultation was required.

3. The conclusion is usually action-oriented; it provides guidance on training programs, type of treatment, career choices, etc.

4. A conclusion is effective if it reflects the distinctive properties of a particular individual, i.e. traits whose survey results were either significantly lower or significantly higher than the average. That is, the conclusion should apply only to this person, and not to people whose age, gender, education, socio-economic level and other factors are close to the same data of the subject.

5. The content of the conclusion consists of the interpretation of the data and conclusions; test records and other data may be attached separately to illustrate or clarify the approach.

6. Any descriptive assessment of an individual's actions and the assessment system itself must be clear. It is obligatory to indicate with which norms the indicators of the individual are compared.

Each opinion is usually drawn up as an answer to a question posed by the customer.

Approximate conclusion algorithm:

1. Description of the problems, complaints of the individual.
2. Description of the plan and diagnostic program.
3. A brief description of the specifics of the subject's work with the techniques (level of resistance, defensive reactions, interest in research, criticality in self-esteem).
4. Answer to a specific question of the customer. This part of the conclusion is presented in the form of separate provisions, proving or refuting the original hypothesis, and is illustrated by testing data.

1. List sections of the socio-psychological research program.
2. What methodological section of the socio-psychological research program include?
3. Describe the procedure of psychological research in social psychology.
4. Describe types of psychological conclusions.
5. List principles of drawing up an advisory opinion.

MODULE II. DIAGNOSTICS OF SPECIFIC SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL EVENTS

Lecture 5. Diagnostics of social and psychological characteristics of personality

Lecture plan:

1. Integral model of social and psychological diagnostics of personality.
2. An integrated approach to social and psychological diagnostics of personality.
3. Comparative approach to social and psychological diagnostics of personality.

Basic concepts: integral model, personality, integral individuality, integrated approach, interdisciplinary research, comparative approach, social determination, social behavior motivation, socialization, social attitude, affiliation motivation, achievement motivation.

1. Since the mid-70s of the twentieth century, a special branch of psychodiagnostic science gradually began to form - the socio-psychological diagnosis of personality. At present, it has become one of the leading branches of psychodiagnostic science in general and incorporates its main approaches and principles.

The integral model of socio-psychological diagnostics of a personality is characterized by the fact that the subject of psychodiagnostics as a science is an orientation towards recognizing the uniqueness of each person who actively interacts with other people, society, culture, the surrounding objective environment and nature. This idea of the subject of socio-psychological diagnostics of a personality as a science and the scientific and practical experience accumulated by it made it possible to single it out as an independent discipline in such a branch of psychological knowledge as psychodiagnostics.

Currently, it is almost impossible to conduct a socio-psychological research without taking into account this approach, especially in the study of organizational and managerial processes. Socio-psychological diagnostics of a personality, having accumulated a rich factual baggage of scientific knowledge and absorbing the basic principles of diagnostics, has developed its fundamental approaches to the study of both the socio-psychological characteristics of a person and her behavior in a socio-cultural environment. Among them, two approaches can be distinguished: complex and comparative.

2. An integrated approach is a special methodological strategy and the most adequate means of comprehensive and holistic psychological knowledge of a person. The idea of an integrated approach in the methodological aspect was first put forward by V.M.Bekhterev, who formed, in fact, an anthropological scientific direction in Russian psychology. B. G. Ananiev considered the

fundamental principle of an integrated approach to be an interdisciplinary principle that integrates the study of man as a natural and social, practical and spiritual being.

B.G. Ananiev identified three main sections in the program for the comprehensive study of a person, in which the interdisciplinary principle is implemented:

1. The main factors and conditions that determine human development are investigated (from socio-economic, political and legal, ideological, pedagogical and ending with biotic, abiotic factors of the environment).

2. The main characteristics of human development.

3. The main components of the integral structure of a person (the relationship between the components, which determines any reaction of the individual to certain external influences).

The program of interdisciplinary complex research is determined by the generality of the object under study and the division of functions between individual disciplines, comparison and generalization of data, mainly related to the relationship between phenomena of various kinds, for example: age and sex development and social status; personal and characterological properties and economic indicators, etc. At the same time, a comprehensive study of personality analyzes the relationship of indicators between various psychological parameters: psychophysiological, socio-psychological, age-sex, psychological-pedagogical, etc., that is, interdisciplinary connections “within” psychological science itself are investigated.

The advantage of an integrated approach lies primarily in the fact that it allows the study of personality from the standpoint of integrity and obtaining a synthesis of knowledge. However, in the application of this approach, the researcher faces certain difficulties: they are primarily associated with the laboriousness of organizing the research itself, as well as with the complexity of analysis, generalization, and interpretation of a fairly large array of diverse empirical material. To overcome these difficulties, conceptual limitations are needed, which relate not only to the construction of the procedure and research program, but above all to the methodological substantiation of it.

In this sense, social and psychological diagnostics as an independent area of diagnostic science contains certain principles associated with both its subject and methodological approaches. The main one is the principle that it is not a set of methods and techniques that is important, but a thorough methodical and methodological selection of it. This can be ensured by adhering to the principles of personality integrity, integrativeness, complexity of its study and, most importantly, methodological substantiation of the consistency of interdisciplinary connections, which provide a sufficient multidimensional study of the personality in its interactions with the surrounding social environment.

An integrated approach is one of the options for the ideographic description of a person. Describing a personality by means of an integrated approach entails

a number of difficult to solve difficulties: justifying the choice of a set of methods, comparing and weighing interdisciplinary relationships, excessively high requirements for the interpretation of multi-level data (for example, reaction speed and level of achievement motivation). The key problem that researchers face in the framework of an integrated, qualitative approach is the complexity of interpersonal comparison and assessment of individual characteristics of a person.

3. An integrated approach is dominant in socio-psychological diagnostics, but along with it, a comparative approach is used - the most ancient method of psychology, also known as the cross-sectional method. This method makes it possible to compare different stages of development of a person's mental organization and different levels of development of a group, i.e., different levels of development of the same phenomenon. The categories of comparative characteristics include, first of all, gender, age, as well as socio-demographic characteristics: education, professional affiliation, job status, nationality, place of residence, etc. The most essential idea in organizing the comparative method is that for comparison, groups are selected that differ according to some given criterion. As a differentiating feature, those that are more consistent with the goals and objectives of the study and presumably reveal possible differences between the people and groups being compared can be selected. These can be social, socio-psychological, psychological, psychophysiological and other characteristics of a person.

The main requirements of this approach are:

- in the compared groups the same complex of methods and psychodiagnostic techniques should be used in full;
- a comparative analysis between people and groups is carried out according to a selected criterion, for example, by gender, age, profession, etc., but according to the same indicators obtained in the course of the phenomenon under study.

The comparative approach has the following advantages:

- comparison of large groups and identification of the main determinants of its differences;
- identification of differences between groups in identical social, cultural, historical and economic conditions;
- correlation of individual variability with the indicators of the group to which the person belongs;
- adjustment and refinement of the selected methods and specific research methods to comply with the principle of an integrated approach.

Currently, the comparative approach is used in almost all socio-psychological research.

The comparative approach uses a variant of the nomothetic type of research. When choosing this approach, the researcher encounters difficulties

when trying to describe a person as an integral personality. The concept of "integral individuality" is the main subject of social and psychological diagnostics of personality as a scientific direction.

Questions and task

1. Describe the difference between the socio-psychological approach and the general psychological approach to the study of personality.
2. List the social and psychological characteristics of the individual.
3. List three main sections in the program for the comprehensive study of a person (B. G. Ananiev)
4. Name the patterns of behavior and activity of an individual included in a particular social group.
5. List the psychodiagnostic techniques that can be used to study the social and psychological characteristics of a person.

Lecture 6. Diagnostics of social and psychological characteristics of personality

Lecture plan:

1. Features of personality research in social psychology
2. Methods for diagnosing the motivational sphere.

Basic concepts: social determination, social behavior motivation, socialization, social attitude, affiliation motivation, achievement motivation.

1. Social psychology considers personality, first of all, in the context of all various social ties and involvement in various social groups both at the macro level and at the level of small groups. At the same time, the emphasis is on the processes of interaction and mutual influence of the individual and those groups and connections in which she is included. The mention of the macro level means that we are talking not only about small groups, but also about the psychological aspects of the relationship of an individual with large social groups and society as a whole.

The personality model, which should take a place in the system of social psychology, in the works of B.D. Parygin assumes a combination of two approaches: sociological and general psychological. Thus, the sociological approach is characterized by the fact that in it the person is viewed primarily as an object of social relations, and the general psychological approach is characterized by the fact that here the emphasis is placed only on "the universal mechanisms of the individual's mental activity. "The task of social psychology is" to reveal the entire structural complexity of the personality, which is both an object and a subject of social relations ... "(Parygin, 1971, p. 109).

Most of the authors highlight the following areas of personality research in social psychology.

1. Identification of those patterns that obey the behavior and activities of an individual included in a particular social group.

- the problem of leadership, but with the connotation associated with the personal characteristics of leadership as a group phenomenon;
- the problem of personal motivation when participating in collective activity (where the patterns of this motivation will be studied in connection with the type of joint activity, the level of development of the group),
- the problem of attraction, considered from the point of view of the characteristics of some features of the emotional sphere of the personality, manifested in a special way when perceived by another person.
- social determination of the mental make-up of a person in specific real social groups, the individual contribution of each person to the activity of the group, the reasons on which the value of this contribution to the general activity depends. More precisely, two series of such reasons are being studied: rooted in the nature and level of development of those groups in which the person acts, and rooted in the personality itself, for example, in the conditions of its socialization .;
- class, national, professional personality traits;
- patterns of formation and manifestation of social activity, ways and means of increasing this activity;
- problems of internal inconsistency of the personality and ways to overcome it; self-education of the individual, etc.

2. Revealing through which groups the influence of society on the individual is carried out. For this, it is important to study the specific life path of the individual, those cells of the micro- and macro-environment through which the path of his development passes. In the traditional language of social psychology, this is the problem of socialization. Despite the possibility of isolating sociological and general psychological aspects in this problem, this is a specific problem of the social psychology of the individual.

3. Analysis of the result obtained in the course of active development by the individual of the entire system of social ties. Another socio-psychological problem associated with the study of personality is how a person acts in conditions of active communication with others in those real situations and groups where his life takes place. Again, in the traditional language of social psychology, this problem can be designated as a problem of social attitude.

4. The problem of a person social identity is the result of research on personality problems in social psychology. Studying the integration of a person in a group: identifying personality qualities that are formed and manifested in a group, and a sense of group belonging arising from the reflection of these qualities.

2. Motivation occupies a leading place in the structure of personality and is one of the basic concepts that is used to explain the driving forces of behavior and activity. In the content of the motive, one can distinguish something specific, individually unique, determined by a specific unique situation, and something stable, for which this specific object or phenomenon is nothing more than one of the possible forms of embodiment. Such a stable subject content characterizes not so much the object of need itself, but rather a personality experiencing this need.

Motives with generalization, relatively stable subject content, are called "generalized motives" as opposed to "specific motives", the subject content of which is highly specific. "Generalized motives" act as stable personality attributes, but they are dynamic formations that become actualized when interacting with situational determinants; pass from a latent state into an actual, really acting one. The actualization of the motive creates a certain tendency of action - a motivational process unfolds, aimed at realizing a certain motivational relationship with the surrounding reality. In the process of realizing this motivational attitude, a person transforms an actual situation into a desirable one.

Diagnosis of a certain motive does not unambiguously determine the diagnosis of the corresponding type of motivation. It is necessary to consider the contribution of the determinants of a particular situation.

The difference between motive and motivation from the side of dynamically energetic characteristics lies precisely in the fact that the intensity of actual motivation consists of the intensity of the latent motive and the intensity of the situational determinants of motivation. The considered feature of motivation is used in experimental procedures - through different types of instructions they try to actualize different types and levels of motivation in an experimental situation.

The validity of a motive diagnosis consists of both the validity of the technique and the validity of the diagnostic situation, in other words, the validity of the entire experimental diagnostic procedure.

D. McKelland and G. Heckhausen, analyzing the features of the experimental procedure for measuring motives, point to the need to turn the diagnostic situation into a controllable factor. If the situation is standardized and relatively the same for all subjects, then individual differences in the level of motivation in a neutral situation are taken as an index of the strength of the latent motive.

Direct methods of psychodiagnostics of the motivational sphere of personality. By these methods, one can judge more about "apparent motives", causal stereotypes, value orientations, than about really acting motives of activity.

The simplest version of such a technique is to directly ask a person "why" or "for what purpose" he is doing something or has been done in the past.

Interviews, questionnaires can also be used, when a person is offered a certain list of motives, needs, interests, etc. for selection or assessment. Since the situation is hypothetical, it can be difficult for a person to answer how they would act. In addition, not all motives are conscious and a person cannot say anything definite about them. Awareness of complex motivational formations requires special activities, a high level of personality development. The answers to the questionnaires are subject to deliberate or unconscious falsification. A person often strives for socially approved answers, that is, his answers are strongly influenced by the factor of social desirability.

The list of motives that are commonly used in these methods mainly consists of specific motives. These methods are most often used not to study the motivation of an individual, that is, the procedural dynamics of a motive in a specific social situation, but to study the motives of educational, professional and other types of activity.

The same group includes methods for measuring attitudes, which are built in such a way that the nature of the motivational variable is judged on the basis of the expressed opinion.

A. Edwards' Personal Preference List (EPPS) is a questionnaire that measures the strength of needs from the list proposed by G. Murray.

D. Jackson's Personality Research Form (PRF) is a technique for measuring the motivational sphere, also based on G. Murray's theory of motivation.

«Questionnaire Measures of Affiliative Tendency and Sensitivity to Rejection» (Albert Mehrabian) measures two generalized motives: the desire for acceptance (the author has an affiliate tendency) and the fear of rejection (the author has a sensitivity to rejection). The questionnaire consists of two scales.

The first scale contains 26 points, the second - 24 points. The scales assess, according to the author, in the first case, the general expectations of the individual about a positive outcome when establishing interpersonal contact, and in the second case, respectively, negative expectations. The test retest after 4 weeks for the desire to accept was 0.89, and for the fear of rejection - 0.92. The author provides data on the independence of the scales from the factor of social desirability and on the absence of significant correlation between the scales with each other.

Questionnaire of Resultant Achievement Motivation (RAM) developed by Mehrabian has two forms: for men and for women. The questionnaire is based on the theory of achievement motivation by J. Atkinson. When selecting test items, Mehrabian took into account individual distinctions between people with the motive of striving for success (Ms) and the motive for avoiding failure (MAF) in behavior determined by the motivation for achievement. The features of the level of aspirations, emotional reactions to success and failure, differences in orientation towards the future, the factor of dependence-independence in interpersonal relationships, etc. were considered.

When constructing the test, the method of factor analysis was used and the final version of the scales contains 26 points. The test retest after 20 weeks for the male variant was 0.78, and for the female variant it was 0.72. Various empirical criteria were used for validation. Also, convergent and discriminative validity was determined with some projective methods and questionnaires. A. Mehrabian's methodology measures the resulting tendency of achievement motivation, that is, the difference (MS-MAF since the items are built on the basis of comparative statements. Various empirical criteria were used for validation. Also, convergent and discriminative validity was determined with some projective methods and questionnaires. A. Mehrabian's methodology measures the resulting tendency of achievement motivation, that is, the difference (MS-MAF since the items are built on the basis of comparative statements.

Projective methods are based on the analysis of the products of imagination and fantasy. They are based on Freud's ideas about the projection mechanism, as well as on numerous studies of the influence of motivation on imagination and perception. Projective methods are used to diagnose deep motivational formations, especially unconscious motives. Although these methods arose in a clinic, they later began to be intensively used in experimental psychology. The techniques that are most often used to identify motivation - G. Murray's TAT, the Rosenzweig frustration test, tests of unfinished sentences, unfinished stories, etc.

Questions and task

1. Describe the difference between sociological and general psychological approaches to personality model.
2. Is diagnosis of a certain motive does unambiguously determine the diagnosis of the corresponding type of motivation?
3. List methods for diagnosing the motivational sphere.
4. What two generalized motives we can measure with Questionnaire Measures of Affiliative Tendency and Sensitivity to Rejection» (Albert Mehrabian)?
5. What mechanism we consider when use projective techniques?

Lecture 7. Socio-psychological diagnostics of social relations

Lecture plan:

1. Social relations as an object of social and psychological diagnostics.
2. Diagnostics of interpersonal relations.

Basic concepts: social relations, sociometry, autosociometric techniques, observation, compatibility, projective techniques, communication, non-verbal communication, conflict.

1. Social relations are made up of various types of relations, ranging from political to interpersonal. The understanding of the nature of social relations is based on numerous sociological and socio-psychological theories, for example, the theory of symbolic interactionism, social exchange, impression management, etc. The systematics of methods of psychodiagnostics of interpersonal relations is possible on various grounds:

- on the basis of the object (diagnosis of relationships between groups, intragroup processes, dyadic relationships, etc.);
- on the basis of the tasks solved by the study (identification of group cohesion, compatibility, etc.);
- based on the structural features of the methods used (questionnaires, projective methods, sociometry, etc.);
- on the basis of the initial point of reference for the diagnosis of interpersonal relations (methods of subjective preferences, methods for identifying the personal characteristics of a communication participant, methods for studying the subjective reflection of interpersonal relations, etc.).

Interpersonal relationships are manifested in a wide variety of spheres of human existence, which differ significantly from each other and in which various psychological determinants operate. Therefore, the use of specific methods has its limits, ignoring which leads to the "devalidation" of the methodology, groundlessness of conclusions.

Assessment of interpersonal relations in different approaches is based on various mental determinants related to different levels of mental functioning of the individual. Because of this, the researcher is always faced with the problem of choosing the "depth" of the methodology, which requires him to accurately understand the mechanisms of what psychological reality the methodology is based on.

2. Diagnostics of interpersonal relationships based on subjective preferences. The traditional method of this group is the sociometric test proposed by J. Moreno. Its essence is the subjective interpersonal preferences (choices) of group members in certain areas (for example, work, rest, etc.). On the basis of the number of subjective choices received by a member of the group, the individual sociometric status of the individual (leader, rejected, isolated), the structure of interpersonal relations, group cohesion, etc. are determined. There are a number of modifications of the sociometric test. Distinctive in their structure are autosociometric techniques, which are understood as such means of studying relationships and their awareness, in which the subjects themselves "measure" the mutual relations of people to each other and to themselves. In an autosociogram, the subjects are presented with a sheet on which four concentric rings are depicted. They are encouraged to place the symbols (or photographs) of comrades, whom many peers sympathize with, in the central circle; those whom many sympathize - in the second ring, etc.

According to the autosociograms of all members of the group, one can determine the social status of each. At the same time, this indicator is more reliable in comparison with the usual sociometric status, since in this procedure the subject shows his attitude not to a part of his fellows in the group, but to all its members. On the basis of self-determination of the subjects, the methodology reveals a supposed, imaginary status, and also shows the tendency of an individual to ascribe a certain sociometric status (sociometric attitude) to the majority of members of the group.

Means of direct assessment of the group as a whole can be attributed to this category of techniques. One of the options for such an assessment may be based on questions that require the subject to assess the overall group (for example: "How attractive is this group for you) or an assessment of their own membership in it (for example: " Do you want to remain a member of this group? ").

Methods for indirect assessment of interpersonal relations. The methodological techniques for the study of interpersonal relations are based on the patterns of the influence of emotional attitudes identified in social psychology, mainly on non-verbal behavior, paralinguistic parameters. The main disadvantage of methods for indirectly assessing interpersonal relationships is that they are undeveloped, that they provide narrow information.

Methods of observation and expert assessment of interpretation. In social psychology, methods of studying interpersonal relations are often used, in which the emphasis is on an objective and extensive description of the interaction, which is subsequently interpreted based on certain theoretical views. The content of the observation scheme depends on the theoretical orientation of the psychologist and the specifics of the applied problems being solved. Formally, the procedures for registering behavior differ from each other in a number of parameters: registration of discrete reactions - registration of reactions of certain general categories; continuous recording of behavior - selective; recording behavior in isolation - recording reactions in the context of previous or subsequent events. One of the most famous methods of registration of interpersonal relations belongs to R. Bailes, who developed a scheme that allows for a single plan to register various types of interaction in a group. In this scheme, a trained observer can code every interaction in any small group according to 12 metrics, which are grouped into four more general categories: the area of positive emotions, the area of problem solving, the area of problem statement, and the area of negative emotions. ... Thanks to such a formalized observation procedure, it is possible to determine different levels of group dynamics, the status and role of the participants in the interaction, etc. A promising direction in the study and diagnosis of interpersonal relations is the observation of the game imitation of a certain situation. These are the so-called situational tests, in which a person is placed in a situation that most vividly shows some aspects of a real life situation. Observing a person's behavior in a situational test makes it possible to diagnose well his interpersonal relationships,

to predict their development in a real situation. Most of the situational tests arose as separate methodological techniques for the study of various phenomena of interpersonal relations. Specially designed board games are widely used to assess compatibility, leadership, competition, and cooperation in the dyad. A game called Prisoner Dilemmas is widely used to study dyadic interaction. With the help of this game, you can create a situation for diagnosing leadership style, striving for competition or cooperation in relationships, people's compatibility.

Diagnostics of individual and personal properties that affect interpersonal relationships. Tests and scales have been created to measure such properties as leadership style, authoritarianism, compatibility, anxiety, personal values, etc. It is impossible to list all the scales, there are a lot of them, because most researchers and practitioners build them based on their tasks and specific situations. There are attempts to combine different scales into extensive psychological questionnaires, to prepare special test batteries for studying interpersonal relationships (for example: the California Psychological Personality Inventory (CPI) and T. Leary's method). Interpersonal relationships have a complex structure, they permeate different levels of personality organization. Therefore, it is unlikely that using one, even a well-developed, test, it is possible to fully reveal human relations. Most often, separate scales are used, such as: V. Schutz's compatibility scale, which is based on his theory of fundamental orientations in interpersonal relationships; various scales based on the principle of semantic differential, Fiedler and Keissel scales for identifying leadership style, M. Rokeach's cards for identifying value orientations, and a number of other scales. One of the ways to diagnose interpersonal relationships is to identify those individual qualities and properties that affect the relationship itself. There are various verbal scales for identifying a particular property. One of the techniques in this area is the California Psychological Personality Inventory (CPI).

Research methods of subjective reflection of interpersonal relations. For a deeper understanding of the individual's interpersonal behavior, the researcher needs to have information about the individual's subjective reflection of interpersonal relationships, himself in its, his views and the psychological meaning of a certain way of the subject's response. Methods for studying the subjective reflection of interpersonal relations arose mainly as a response to the request of applied areas of psychology, in which, in order to achieve practical goals, knowledge of the client's subjective world is necessary. Most of these techniques are projective. To study the features of the reflection of interpersonal relations, the methods of thematic apperception are often used. TAT is used for adults, SAT for children. The diagnostic pattern of the family is of particular interest in the field of research into intrafamily interpersonal relations. It stands out favorably among other means of ease of use and the adequacy of the very atmosphere of family therapy. A special place among the methods of subjective reflection of interpersonal relations is held by G. Kelly's - Kelly's Role

Construct Repertory Test. Interpersonal relationships can be subjectively reflected both at the verbal level and at the non-verbal level. Techniques based on the reflection of interpersonal relationships in verbal behavior reflect the subject's specific attitude to the person and to communication with him, that is, an attitude determined by a certain set of reasons: the history of relationships as a whole, the situation, the needs of the subject, the personality traits of the communicators. The methods of this type include, for example, the questionnaire of satisfaction with marriage (Stolin V.V., Romanova T.L., Butenko G.P.). This questionnaire measures some general feeling of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with marriage in general, with a specific marriage with a given partner, with the partner himself. The technique based on the fact of the severity of interpersonal relationships in the non-verbal level of subjective reflection is the color test of relationships.

Questions and task

1. Describe content of personality socialization.
2. List institutions of personal socialization.
3. Describe mechanisms of personality socialization.
4. Name variants of personality socialization.
5. Use and analyze Freiburg Personality Inventory

Lecture 8. Socio-psychological diagnostics of communication

Lecture plan:

1. Communication as an object of socio-psychological diagnostics.
2. Socio-psychological diagnostics of communication
3. Socio-psychological diagnosis of conflicts.

Basic concepts: communication, non-verbal communication, conflict.

1. Communication - interaction of people, messaging and cognition of each other. Communication is carried out using signs, verbal and non-verbal means. The value of communication is very great. Human society is inconceivable without communication. Communication acts both as a way of uniting individuals and as a way of developing individuals.

There are three interrelated sides in the structure of communication: communicative, interactive and perceptual. The communicative side of communication, or communication in the narrow sense of the word, consists in the exchange of information between communicating individuals. The interactive side is the organization of interaction between communicating individuals, i.e. in the exchange of not only knowledge, ideas, but also actions. The perceptual side of communication means the process of perception and

knowledge of each other by partners in communication and the establishment of mutual understanding on this basis.

In the course of joint activities, people exchange various ideas, ideas, interests, moods, feelings, attitudes, etc. All this can be considered as information, and then the communication process is understood as a process of information exchange, which is not only transmitted, but also formed, specified, developed .

G.M. Andreeva notes the following specific features of communication:

- Individuals participate in the process of communication, each of which is an active subject: mutual informing them implies the establishment of joint activities, and that new information will be received from the other partner for the information sent. Information always changes in the process of communication. The essence of the communicative process is not just mutual information, but also a joint comprehension of the subject. Therefore, in every communicative process, activity, communication and cognition are really given in unity.

- When exchanging information, there is a psychological impact of one communicator on another in order to change his behavior. The effectiveness of communication is measured precisely by how successful this impact was. This means changing the type of relationship itself.

- Communicative influence as a result of information exchange is possible only when the person sending the information and the person receiving it have a single or similar system of codification and decodification, i.e. Communicators should have identical not only lexical and syntactic systems, but also the same understanding of the situation. Only the adoption of a single system of meanings ensures the ability of partners to understand each other.

- In terms of communication, there may be specific communication barriers that are of a social or psychological nature.

The effectiveness of communication depends on a number of socio-psychological factors that accompany the process of transmitting and perceiving information, which include (A.L. Svetsitsky): features of the social roles of communication participants, prestige of communicators, social attitudes of the recipient of information, features of the flow of his mental processes, etc. d.

Manipulation is a common form of interpersonal communication that involves influencing a communication partner in order to achieve one's hidden intentions. Like the imperative, manipulative communication involves the object perception of a communication partner, which is used by the manipulator to achieve their goals. They are also related by the fact that during manipulative communication the goal is also to achieve control over the behavior and thoughts of another person. The fundamental difference is that the partner is not informed about the true goals of communication; they either simply hide from him, or are replaced by others.

With regard to manipulation, one can also say that there are areas of human interaction where it is quite appropriate, and where it is categorically

unacceptable. The sphere of "allowed manipulation" is undoubtedly business and business relations in general. The concept of communication between D. Carnegie and his numerous followers has long become a symbol of this type of relationship. The manipulative style of influencing partners in communication and in the field of propaganda is widespread.

Comparison of imperative and manipulative forms of communication reveals their deep inner similarity. Putting them together, we can characterize them as different types of monologue communication. A person, considering the other as an object of his influence, in fact communicates with himself, with his goals and objectives, not seeing the true interlocutor, ignoring him. As A. A. Ukhtomsky said about this, a person sees around him not people, but his "twins".

E. Shostrom defines a manipulator as a person who uses other people to achieve his goals or uses himself to achieve his goals, but, most importantly, the person himself is not aware of this. Such a person does not understand that he is a manipulator or an object of manipulation. The whole life of a modern person passes in manipulations. Most manipulations take place unconsciously, and certain actions are applied unconsciously, but some use special techniques that lead to the achievement of goals.

The transfer of any information is possible only through sign systems. Depending on the sign system used, verbal and non-verbal communication are distinguished. If human speech is used as a sign system, then we are talking about verbal communication.

Speech is the most universal means of communication, because in this case, the meaning of the message is least of all lost. Through speech, information not only moves, but the participants in communication influence each other in a special way, orient each other in the subject of discussion, and thereby strive to achieve a certain change in behavior.

Along with verbal forms of communication, people also use non-verbal forms that may support verbal messages, or may contradict them. Nonverbal forms of communication can be more effective than verbal forms.

Non-verbal communication is communication between individuals without the use of words, that is, without speech and language means presented in direct or any sign form. The body of a person, which has an exceptionally wide range of means and methods of transmitting or exchanging information, becomes an instrument of communication. The set of non-verbal means of communication performs the functions of supplementing speech, replacing speech, representing the emotional states of communication partners.

2. The problem of communication is interdisciplinary: pedagogy, psychology, sociology, philology, philosophy, and other sciences deal with communication. There are numerous attempts to classify communication research methods. Most methods study mainly the personal aspect of

communication: communicative, perceptual and other characteristics. There are almost no methods that study communication as an integral process. The encyclopedic dictionary "Psychology of Communication" offers the following classification of techniques:

- diagnostics of psychological characteristics of a person in communication;
- diagnostics of communication phenomena;
- diagnostics of communication in the family;
- diagnostics of communication in professional activity;
- diagnostics of communication with oneself;
- diagnostics of emotional states and their manifestations in communication;
- diagnostics of difficult communication, difficulties in communication;
- diagnostics of coping strategies.

The vast majority of these techniques are subscale or small structurally distinguished parts of other techniques of a broader plan that are indirectly related to communication (value orientations, organizational behavior, affiliation, trust, tolerance, etc.). The methods of A.N. Guseva, V.N. Kunitsina, V.A. Losenkova V.F. Ryakhovsky, N. D. Tvorogova and others (Psychology of Communication, 2011).

When faced with communication problems, practitioners set different goals for themselves. In one case - to study the communication itself, in the other - through communication to diagnose the social and psychological characteristics of a person or a group.

2. Diagnostics of conflicts. Conflicts are a special kind of social relationship and communication. It is a multi-level, multidimensional phenomenon that manifests itself at the macro, middle, micro and personal levels, and has a complex structure.

The conflict itself has great diagnostic capabilities. Often, a person in a conflict is revealed as in no other situation. To study the personal predisposition to conflict behavior, the style of behavior in conflict, the K. Thomas test is used.

At the basis of conflict behavior, K. Thomas identified two styles of behavior: cooperation associated with a person's attention to the interests of other people involved in the conflict, and assertiveness, which is characterized by an emphasis on protecting their own interests. According to these two main dimensions, K. Thomas identifies the following methods of conflict interaction:

- competition (rivalry); the desire to satisfy their interests to the detriment of another;
- adaptation - sacrificing one's own interests for the sake of another;
- compromise - an agreement between the parties to the conflict, reached through mutual concessions;
- avoidance (withdrawal) - the absence of both the desire for cooperation and the tendency to achieve their own goals;

- cooperation, when the participants in the situation come to an alternative that fully satisfies the interests of both parties.

The questionnaire consists of 60 judgments, summed up in 30 pairs.

The behavior of a person in conflict can be studied using the **Rosenzweig's** technique (the technique of frustration reactions studying). In Russian psychology, frustration is considered as one of the types of mental states, expressed in the characteristic features of experiences and behavior caused by objectively insurmountable (or subjectively so understood obstacles that arise on the way to achieving a goal or solving a problem. Frustration tolerance refers to a person's ability to withstand all kinds of life difficulties without losing his psychological adaptation. It is based on a person's ability to adequately assess the real situation, on the one hand, and the ability to foresee a way out of the situation, on the other. A high level of personality development presupposes a conscious rejection of frustrating goals and the advancement of new, more acceptable and achievable ones. Frustration is a human condition accompanied by various forms of negative emotions, in other words, frustration is the experience of failure. There is every reason to consider the profile or features of the frustration reactions inherent in an individual person as one of the essential aspects of the emotional sphere of the individual, which largely determines his behavior in real life situations.

The technique was first described in 1944 by S. Rosenzweig under the name of the picture association test. This method occupies an intermediate place between the associative experiment and the thematic apperception test. He reminds TAT by using pictures as stimulus material. But unlike the TAT pictures, these pictures are very uniform in character and, what is more important, they are used in order to get relatively simpler and uncomplicated answers from the subject, limited both in length and in content. Thus, this technique retains some of the objective advantages of the associative experiment and at the same time approaches the study of those aspects of the personality that the TAT seeks to reveal.

The stimulating situation of the method is in a schematic outline drawing, which shows 2 or more people engaged in an unfinished conversation. The depicted characters may differ in gender, age and other characteristics that meet the specific objectives of the study. Since this test is very reminiscent of a game, both adults and children can be tested here.

The children's version of the technique is intended for children 4–13 years old. The adult version of the test is used from the age of 15, while in the interval of 12–15 years, both the children's and the adult versions of the test can be used, since they are comparable in terms of the nature of the situations contained in each of them. When choosing a child or adult version of the test in working with adolescents, it is necessary to focus on the intellectual and emotional maturity of the subject

The test material consists of a series of 24 drawings representing each of the characters in a frustrating situation. The situations presented in the test can be divided into two main groups.

A. The "obstacle" situation. In these situations, some obstacle, character or object stops, discourages, confuses, in a word, frustrates the subject in any direct way. There are 16 situations of this type. 1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 18, 20, 22, 23, 24.

B. The "accusation" situation. The subject thus serves as object of accusation. He is called to account or blamed by others. There are 8 such situations: 2, 5, 7, 10, 16, 17, 19, 21.

There is a connection between these two types of situations, because the "accusation" situation suggests that it was preceded by the "obstacle" situation, where the frustrator was the object of frustration. Sometimes the subject may interpret the accusatory situation as an obstacle and vice versa.

Drawing test "Business situations" is a modification of the associative drawing test by S. Rosenzweig. The author has created a typology of reactions to frustration, which is the basis for assessing the emotional behavior of a person in a conflict. The test material of the methodology consists of 20 drawings depicting conflict situations in production. In each drawing, one of the characters utters words that frustrate the interlocutor. The task of the subject is to formulate an answer that, from his point of view, is adequate to a specific conflict situation.

To study the personality conflict, the corresponding test "Are you a conflict person?" Is used, consisting of 11 questions.

For the analysis of conflicts, mathematical methods are used: the theory of games, graphs (V.A. Lefebvre), as well as hardware techniques capable of simulating a conflict (M.A. Novikov, etc.).

Questions and task

1. Give a brief definition to concept "Communication"
2. Describe functions of communication.
3. What is "destructive communication" in your opinion?
4. Consider classification of techniques to diagnosing communicative sphere.
5. What scales are available in the methodology for determining a bent to a destructive communication ?

Lecture 9. Psychodiagnostics of group and intergroup phenomena

Lecture plan:

1. The group as a subject of socio-psychological diagnostics.
2. General provisions of psychodiagnostics of group and intergroup phenomena.
3. Diagnostics of the integral characteristics of a small group.

Basic concepts: personality-oriented approach, group-oriented approach, the principle of complexity, cross-sectional diagnostics, longitudinal diagnostics., Integration, microclimate, reference

1. Psychodiagnostics traditionally focuses on the study of an individual personality - its mental processes, qualities, states, etc. attitudes and stereotypes. This personality-oriented status of psychodiagnostics is recorded in all modern psychological dictionaries and textbooks on psychodiagnostics.

At the same time, there is a poorly developed area of psychodiagnostics associated with the study of the social and psychological characteristics of a small (contact) group, that is, group-oriented psychodiagnostics.

A group is a real-life formation in which people are brought together, united by some common feature, a type of joint activity, or placed in some identical conditions, circumstances, in a certain way they are aware of their belonging to this formation.

G.M. Andreeva, L.P. Bueva, A.V. Petrovsky, A.I. Dontsov and others consider socially conditioned objective activity to be the main system-forming and integrating basis of the group, i.e. an organized system of activity of interacting individuals, aimed at the expedient production (reproduction) of objects of material and spiritual culture, i.e. a set of values that characterize the mode of existence of society in a given historical period. The content and forms of group life are dictated by social needs and opportunities. Society determines the material and organizational prerequisites for the formation of a group, sets the goals, means and conditions of group activity, and sometimes the composition of individuals implementing it.

The general objective activity of the group generates a common psychological characteristics of the group, which include such group formations as: group interests, group needs, group norms, group values, group opinion, group goals. It is in these characteristics that one group differs from another. For an individual in a group, awareness of belonging to it is carried out through the acceptance of these characteristics, i.e. through the realization of the fact of some psychological commonality with the members of this group, which allows him to identify with the group.

The main psychological characteristic of the group is the presence of "we-feeling", which is a kind of indicator of the awareness of the individual's belonging to a certain group.

The main characteristics of a group depend on the type of group. These include: a) composition - the composition of the group, depending on the type of activity with which this group is associated; b) group processes - processes that organize the activities of the group; c) group norms - certain rules developed by the group, adopted by it and to which the behavior of group members must obey; d) group values - acceptance or rejection of socially significant phenomena, on the basis of which group norms are developed; the system of

sanctions - the mechanisms through which it ensures compliance with the norms; group structure - a certain set of relatively stable relationships between its members. Allocate the structure of connections and relations generated by joint activities, and the structure of connections generated by communication and psychological relations, the functional structure, that is, the distribution between its members of the functions necessary to achieve the goal of joint activity. In small groups, the sociometric, communicative and role structure of the group, as well as the structure of power and influence, are distinguished.

The sociometric structure of a small troupe is a set of connections between its members, characterized by mutual preferences and rejections according to the results of a sociometric test proposed by D. Moreno. The sociometric structure of the group is based on emotional relations of likes and dislikes, phenomena of interpersonal attractiveness and popularity.

The communicative structure of a small group is a set of connections between its members, characterized by the processes of receiving and transmitting information circulating in the group. The main characteristics of the communicative structure of the group are: the position occupied by group members in the communication system (access to receiving and transmitting information), the frequency and stability of communication links in the group, the type of communication links between group members (centralized or decentralized "communication networks").

The role structure of a small group is a set of connections and relationships between individuals, characterized by the distribution of group roles between them, thus typical behaviors prescribed, expected and implemented by participants in the group process. An analysis of the role structure of a small group makes it possible to determine which role functions and to what extent are implemented by the participants in group interaction.

The structure of social power and influence in a small group is a set of connections between individuals, characterized by the direction and intensity of their mutual influence. Depending on the method of exercising influence, various types of social power are distinguished: rewards, coercion, legitimate, expert and referent. The main characteristics of the structure of social power and influence are the systems of connections that underlie the leadership of the group as official and unofficial influence.

2. In this area, a small (contact) group is considered as a single entity; it is taken into account that it not only acts as a single whole in significant social situations, carrying out different types of activity (activity, communication, management, etc.), but also transforms it (situations) and itself, while realizing that it is it what is the source these actions and transformations.

The most important methodological principles are:

1. The principle of activity in the study of small groups, which is characterized by: understanding of activity as a joint group, while highlighting

the forms of organization, levels and content of joint activities; consideration of the group, its phenomena in the context of joint activities of individuals (not laboratory, but only real social groups are accepted as the object of research, since it is in them that interpersonal relations are revealed in their entirety); understanding the group as an aggregate subject of activity (accordingly, its attributes are studied - group needs, motives, norms, values, etc.); interpretation of joint activities as the basis for the development of the group.

2. The principle of consistency, which assumes: the search for specific group (system) new formations (group norms, values, goals, decisions, etc.); studying its influence on individual behavior; mandatory correlation of the individual characteristics of group members with the activity context of the group; taking into account the presence in the group of special integrative factors that ensure the preservation of its qualitative originality, normal functioning and development; the need to interpret the processes and relationships unfolding in the troupe as multilevel and multidimensional phenomena; considering the group as an open system functioning in time; taking into account two spheres of the group's life: business (instrumental) and socio-emotional (interpersonal); emphasizing the relationship and mutual influence of group phenomena; inclusion of the probabilistic factor in the analysis of the patterns of the group process, understanding the complex (systemic) determination of the phenomena of group life.

3. The principle of development, which includes the following points: the development of a social group is due to the development of joint activities of its members; uneven development of the main spheres of the group's life in connection with the specifics of the problem being solved and with the peculiarities of the organization of its members; search and study of the mechanisms of group development; the movement of the group in a wide time range is considered, first of all, in relation to the future; identification of possible regressive tendencies at different stages of the group's life.

Psychodiagnostics of a group subject, according to K.M. Gaidar, requires compliance with the following set of principles.

1. The principle of complexity. This principle presupposes, on the one hand, the study of the characteristics of the manifestation of a group subject in different spheres of his life, in particular, in the spheres of joint activity, communication, relationships, management and self-government, intergroup activity. Psychodiagnostic information, revealing a specific picture of these manifestations, helps to see the individuality of each group subject and, taking this into account, really optimize his life activity. On the other hand, the complexity of diagnostics should be expressed both in the use of techniques designed to study different sides and aspects of the psychology of a group subject, and in the fact that they belong to different classes of diagnostic tools (methods of observation, experiment, questioning; verbal and non-verbal techniques; blank and hardware).

2. The principle of combining "slice" and longitudinal diagnostics. When studying a group subject, one cannot be limited to single measurements-slices, thus revealing only its actual state, socio-psychological status, reflected in the relationships that had developed at the time of the study, the normative-role structure, etc. It is important to trace the stages of formation, development, flowering, transformation and, possibly, disintegration (for example, in the case of temporary groups) of a group subject. And this requires a longitudinal form of research organization using an identical set of methods and techniques. The study of the dynamics of the development of the group allows us to build a scientifically grounded and effective program aimed at improving the activity of the group subject, achieving a higher level of socio-psychological maturity.

3. The principle of reorientation towards the study of real groups living and operating in natural conditions. The data from the study of laboratory groups, as a rule, do not give the desired effect when trying to introduce them into the practice of working with certain groups, since, firstly, this study is abstracted from the real conditions of the functioning and development of various social communities and, secondly, similar groups, by virtue of the goals and conditions of their creation, most likely, cannot be characterized as integral subjects. An urgent task is to reveal the characteristics of real groups, which requires focusing efforts on the creation of special methods of socio-psychological diagnostics that would be convenient and effective when applied to such groups.

2. In scientific and applied research, the study of group characteristics and phenomena is assigned one of the central places. It is noted that social and psychological diagnostics of the group is advisable to carry out for:

- optimization of the processes of interpersonal interaction of group members;
- identifying sources of social and psychological tension and reducing the possibility of conflicts in the group;
- identifying "weak points" in the activities of the group and increasing the efficiency of its functioning;
- evaluating the effectiveness of the ongoing personnel policy.

Socio-psychological diagnostics allows you to assess: readiness to work together; group cohesion; the presence of groups and informal leaders; causes and sources of social and psychological tension; schemes of interaction and information exchange between departments; duplication of functions, functional intersections; assessment of the socio-psychological climate in the team; job satisfaction and main motivators of activity; individual and personal characteristics of the evaluated employees and the forecast of future behavior.

The classification of diagnostic methods for a small group and / or team can be based on five key aspects of intragroup relationships.

1. The social aspect of group life (interpersonal relationships and communication: trust and cohesion). This group of methods includes:

- method of sociometry;
- Q-sorting technique;
- technique for diagnosing interpersonal relations by T. Leary, various scales (for determining psychological closeness, measuring communicative distance, scale of hostility and acceptance of others);
- methods for studying group cohesion (for example, the technique for determining the value-orientational unity (COE) of a group) and many others.
- methods of diagnostics of interpersonal compatibility. For example, "Questionnaire of interpersonal relations of V.V. Schutz".

2. The business aspect of group life (structure of functional distribution of roles, attitude to work, productivity, decision making). This group of methods consists of:

- Methods and techniques for diagnostics of functional-role positions in a group (team): diagnostics of attitudes; diagnostics of abilities, which allows to assess intelligence, the level of development of critical and creative thinking, personal orientations; qualification of behavior, when the readiness and ability to perform a role is assessed.
- Scales for analyzing the structure and quality of working relationships, which allow you to compare real and ideal working relationships in the organization and determine the type of these relationships (adaptive, medium adaptive and maladaptive).
- Tests-questionnaires to determine the style of leadership, style of submission, styles of management decisions. These include: A. L. Zhuravlev's methodology for determining leadership styles, a projective method for determining the style orientations of the leader's behavior, A. A. Ershov; KL Wilson's questionnaire "The cycle of management skills"; the methodology for determining the styles of making managerial decisions by EV Markova (EV Markova, 2001); methodology for determining styles of submission M. E. Raskumandrina (M. E. Raskumandrina, 2005).
- Methods for diagnosing role conflicts.

3. The system of relations "individual - group" (the individual's perception of the group, norms of value, leadership, leadership and subordination, group management, conformity and conformity of the individual). This group includes methods aimed at diagnostics:

- personal characteristics that affect the organizational and group behavior of the individual. These include: the desire for power and authoritarianism, social sensitivity and Machiavellianism, locus of control, achievement orientation, propensity to take risks, dogmatism, emotional stability. All these characteristics can be diagnosed using a wide range of methods and scales developed in modern psychology (for example, the scale of Machiavellianism by V.V. Znakov, G. Schubert's questionnaire for

determining the severity of the propensity to take risks, the test for diagnosing the motives of affiliation A. Mehrabian, the scale D. Rotter to determine the level of subjective control, self-monitoring test M. Snyder, etc.).

- the influence that the group has on the personality. This raises the problem of normative behavior in the group, the problem of conformism. These are phenomena directly related to the formation of unity between members of the group, the development of common behavioral and intellectual standards for all members.

4. Group development (assessment of the development of the group as a team, team). This group of methods includes methods aimed at studying the characteristics of the development of a group. Group dynamics is the development or movement of a group in time, due to the interaction and relationships of group members among themselves, as well as external influence on the group. The effectiveness of the work of its members depends on the level of development of the group.

5. Socio-psychological climate in the group (SPC). This group of methods includes the methodology of A. N. Lutoshkin "Color painting" based on the observation by the members of the team of their emotional states and the assessment of the general emotional atmosphere of the team at a certain period of time using color symbols. Also actively used are F. Fiedler's scale-questionnaire for studying the psychological atmosphere in a team (adaptation by Yu.L. Khanin, 1976) and an express method for assessing the socio-psychological climate in a work collective (authors O.S. Mikhalyuk, L. Yu. Shalyto), which allows you to identify the emotional, behavioral and cognitive components of relationships in the team.

Questions and task

1. List five key aspects of intragroup relationships that using for classification of diagnostic methods for a small group and / or team.
2. List tasks of social and psychological research of group and intergroup phenomena.
3. Describe techniques for diagnosing the integral characteristics of a small group.
4. Describe techniques for diagnosing of group motivation
5. List methodological principles to diagnosing intragroup relationships.

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Course of lectures

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