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Иностранный язык (английский) в профессиональной деятельности

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1. Цели и задачи дисциплины

Квалификационная характеристика выпускника высшей школы предусматривает наличие у него общей культуры и знания иностранных языков. Обучение иностранному языку рассматривается как составная часть вузовской программы, как органичная часть процесса осуществления подготовки высококвалифицированных специалистов, активно владеющих иностранным языком, как средством интеркультурной и межнациональной коммуникации в сферах профессиональных интересов и в ситуациях социального общения.

Целью обучения является не только повышение исходного уровня владения иностранным языком, но и формирование практического владения иностранным языком как вторичным средством письменного и устного общения в сфере профессиональной деятельности, овладение студентами необходимым и достаточным уровнем владения иностранным языком для решения социально-коммуникативных задач в различных областях профессиональной, научной и культурной сфер деятельности, при общении с зарубежными партнерами, а также для дальнейшего обучения в магистратуре и аспирантуре и проведении научных исследований в заданной области.

2. Место дисциплины в структуре ООП, требования к знаниям, умениям и навыкам студента

Дисциплина «Иностранный язык в сфере профессиональной деятельности» принадлежит к базовой части Блока 1 программы бакалавриата, согласно ФГОС ВО.

Через предметное содержание используемых учебных материалов на иностранном языке дисциплина связана такими дисциплинами как иностранный язык, экономическая теория, теория организации, основы маркетинга, а также теория управления, основы управления персоналом и деловые коммуникации. Таким образом, изучение иностранного языка в профессиональной деятельности строится на междисциплинарной интегративной основе.

Более того, владение иностранным языком является неотъемлемой частью профессиональной подготовки всех специалистов в вузе. Курс иностранного языка является многоуровневым и разрабатывается в контексте непрерывного образования.

В результате освоения дисциплины должны быть сформированы следующие общекультурные (ОК) компетенции:

- способностью к коммуникации в устной и письменной формах на русском и иностранном языках для решения задач межличностного и межкультурного взаимодействия (ОК-5).

В результате изучения дисциплины «Иностранный язык в профессиональной деятельности» студенты должны знать:

- лексико-грамматический минимум в объеме, необходимом для осуществления профессиональной деятельности с использованием иностранного языка (работа с иноязычными текстами, устное общение) в сфере коммуникации государственного и муниципального управления;

уметь:

- использовать знание иностранного языка в профессиональной деятельности, коммуникации в области своей профессии и для межличностного общения;

владеть:

- необходимыми навыками речевой деятельности на иностранном языке в сфере профессиональной коммуникации.

3. Учебно-тематический план дисциплины (с указанием общей трудоемкости и количеством часов, отводимых на различные разделы и виды учебной деятельности)

Общая трудоемкость дисциплины составляет 6 зачетных единиц (216 часов).

№ п/п	Раздел (тема) учебной дисциплины	Виды учебной деятельности, и трудоемкость (в часах)					Контактная работа с преподавателем
		Лекции	Практические занятия (семинары)	СРС	Контроль	Всего часов	
1	Introduction to the module.		5	3	2	10	5
2	What is “Management”?		5	3	2	10	5
3	Banks and Banking.		5	3	2	10	5
4	Forms of business organization.		5	3	2	10	5
5	Personnel management.		5	3	2	10	5
6	The recruitment process.		5	3	2	10	5
7	Getting a job.		5	3	2	10	5
8	Business correspondence.		5	3	2	10	5
9	Motivation theories.		5	3	2	10	5
10	Corporate culture.		5	3	2	10	5
11	Marketing management.		5	3	2	10	5
12	Advertising.		5	3	2	10	5
13	Business documents. Contracts.		5	3	2	10	5
14	Internet and E-business.		5	3	2	10	5
15	Types of economies.		5	3	2	10	5
16	Emerging markets.		5	3	2	10	5
17	Money.		5	3	2	10	5
18	General business planning.		5	2	2	9	5
19	Public Management.		5	2	2	9	5
20	Management Innovations.		5	2	2	9	5
21	Industry.		5	2	2	9	5
22	Making presentations.		5	2	3	10	5
	Итого:		110	61	45	216	110
	Форма промежуточной аттестации - экзамен						

4. Содержание дисциплины

1. Introduction to the module.

1.1. Developing cultural awareness.

- Why is it important to learn about other cultures?
- Hidden rules.

Body language, gesture, social customs, attitudes to punctuality, dress code, and business practice.

1.2. Discussing cultural issues.

- Customs.
- Rules of business etiquette.

Shaking hands; business dress code; topics for conversations; socialising after work hours; humour in the business context.

1.3. Corporate cultures.

2. What is “Management”?

2.1. Management.

- Traditional interpretation.
- Another interpretation.

Variety of views about the term. Focus on leadership skills. More of facilitating, empowering and participating. Getting things done through others.

What is a manager? Types of managers.

- What is manager’s role in an organization?

Making and carrying out decisions within a certain system. Almost everything a manager does involves decision-making.

• Personnel manager. Financial manager. Sales manager. Marketing manager. Their responsibilities.

Supervising people. Responsibility for finance. Selling of goods. Promotion of products in the market. Top or executive managers. Middle managers. Project managers.

- Authority delegation.

The right to take decisions and give orders. Hierarchy. Subordinates. Using and delegating authority. Initiative.

What do managers do? Four major functions.

- Planning;

Identifying goals, objectives, methods, resources needed to carry out methods, responsibilities and dates for completion of tasks. For example, strategic planning, business planning, project planning, staffing planning, advertising and promotion planning.

- Organising resources;

To achieve the goals in an optimal way. For example, organising new departments, human resources, office and file systems, re-organising businesses.

- Leading;

To set direction for the organisation, groups and individuals and also influence people to follow that direction. Examples are establishing strategic direction (vision, values and goals) and using methods to pursue that direction.

- Controlling or coordinating.

The organisation's systems, processes and structures to reach effectively and efficiently goals and objectives. This includes constant monitoring and adjustment of systems, processes and structures accordingly. Examples include use of financial controls, policies and procedures, performance management processes, measures to avoid risks.

2.2. What is supervision?

- Why supervision is regarded a management activity?

The activity carried out by supervisors to oversee the productivity and progress of employees who report directly to the supervisors. Supervision is a management activity and supervisors have a management role in the organisation.

- Whom do we call a supervisor?

For example, first-level supervisors supervise entry-level employees. Depending on the size of the organisation, middle-managers supervise first-level supervisors, chief executives supervise middle-managers etc.

Responsibilities: using basic management skills; organising their department and teams; designing new job roles in the group if needed; hiring and training new employees; management of employees' performance.

Difference between managers and leaders.

- Key traits of successful leader.

Effective leader possesses emotional stability, dominance, enthusiasm, conscientiousness, social boldness, practicality, self-assurance, prudence, high energy, intuitiveness, maturity, team orientation, empathy, charisma.

Making people follow you.

3. Banks and Banking.

3.1. Structure and function of a bank. Types of banks.

- What does banking business consist of?

Transactions carried on by any person or firm engaged in providing financial services to consumers businesses. Commercial banks, central banks, savings banks, trust companies, finance companies and investment banks. Banking consists of safeguarding and transfer of funds, lending or facilitating loans, guaranteeing creditworthiness and exchange of money. Acceptance, transfer and creation of deposits. The depository institutions: central banks, commercial banks, savings and loan associations, building societies and mutual savings banks.

- What are the aims of banks?

Business of banking, taking deposits, using those deposits to make loans. Making a profit by paying depositors a lower rate of interest than the rate the banks charges borrowers.

- What are the activities of different types of banks?

Conventional banking services, provision of checking accounts, foreign exchange, issuing credit cards, providing investment and tax advice, and selling financial products such as insurance. Intermediaries between investors and private or public concerns seeking medium to long-term funds, often acting as underwriters for an issue of shares. Advising on mergers and acquisitions and on management buy-outs. Building societies take deposits in order to provide long-term loans (mortgages) to homebuyers. They are owned by their members (those who have deposited money with or borrowed money from them).

3.2. What is banking?

- Transactions

Process of money transferring from one place to another. ‘Transaction/transactional banking’.

Commercial banking products and services for corporate clients and financial institutions, including domestic and cross border payments, professional risk mitigation for international trade and the provision of trust, agency, depository, custody and related services.

- Safeguarding and transfer of funds

Vaults and safes. Transfer of funds can be handled through written instruments: contracts, checks, or direct transfers performed electronically, mobile online banking.

- Lending and loans

Loans to bank customers are drawn on the funds deposited with the bank and yield interest which provides the profits for the banking industry and the interest on savings accounts. These loans may take the form of mortgages or other policies.

Business banking.

- Bank charges

The banking industry has greatly changed nowadays due to bank mergers and acquisitions. In this new environment banks have to offer more services. The increase in services leads to bank charges for almost everything. However, each bank offers a different array of bank account options. You will need to study each bank’s service options to decide what options are crucial for you.

- What are banks charging for?

Banks are now charging for ATM (automatic teller machine) transactions, not maintaining a minimum balance, teller usage, phone transactions, monthly service charges and per check charges. Many banks also require an initial high deposit. They may also set a limit on the number of checks you can process each month. A charge applies for each check above the limit.

- Banks’ services

Most banks offer online banking services. What does this mean? You have the ability to pay for bills, transfer money from one account to another, purchase

stocks from your work or home. This gives you 24 hour access to your accounts. Depending upon the minimum balance requirement and your cash situation, you may opt to pay a monthly service charge. Make sure that your checking account also gives you interest.

3.3. Retail banks.

- Definition and functions

Retail banks primarily serve individuals and small to medium-sizes businesses. The major retail banks provide current account facilities, including interest-bearing accounts; deposit accounts; various types of loan arrangement and an extending range of financial services.

- Major British and American banks and their activities.

NatWest, Lloyd's, Barclays, Bank of America, HSBC.

Building societies.

- Definition and functions

Building societies started in the late 18th century to pool money to build houses and to buy land. They currently compete with the retail banks to attract savings from and provide mortgage finance for the private sector. Building societies are “mutual” institutions, owned by their savers and borrowers.

- Savings and Mortgages

Today building societies are substantial lenders for house purchase in Britain, but in recent years the retail banks have caught up after furious competition in the market.

- Extended Services

Addition of extra powers by new legislation had a major affect on the realm of operations. As a result, societies can offer a number of distinct services in line with retail banks.

- Banking services

They can issue cheque guarantee and credit cards and provide competitive cash transmission facilities. Investment services. Insurance services. Trustee services. Executor services. Land services.

Investment banks.

- Merchant banks

Merchant banks are so called because they originate from large merchants engaging in banking activity. Their traditionally important roles were helping foreign governments to raise loans and accepting Bills of Exchange but they are today involved in a range of services including corporate finance, foreign exchange dealings and securities trading.

- Corporate finance

Today merchant banks are probably best known for their expertise in corporate finance services. In the last 15 years the leading merchant banks have developed special expertise in cross-border transactions serving international businesses. A major part of their business is to provide expert advice and financial

services to companies, especially involving mergers, takeovers and other forms of corporate reorganisation.

- Diverse professional services

Merchant banks conduct investment management and the management of unit trusts working on behalf of large corporations, pension funds and individuals. Some offer special professional services in diverse fields such as property asset management and development, insurance and oil exploration. The leading merchant banks have a powerful presence in international securities business after acquiring or creating stockbroking firms. A typical merchant bank will divide its activities into corporate finance, investment management, banking and securities, with the bulk of its income deriving from professional fees charged for these services.

- Supervision

As appropriate the activities of merchant banks in Britain are authorised and regulated through SIB (Securities and Investments Board) and SROs (Self-regulating Organisations).

3.4. Investing institutions.

Investing institutions collect savings from the private sector and invest them in securities and other assets.

- Insurance companies

The insurance industry is highly sophisticated and provides all-embracing services to billions of policyholders around the world, which include governments, corporations, companies and individuals. The industry falls into two broad categories. Long-term insurance involves the provision of life policies as well as long-term contracts for savings and investment. Premiums are invested in securities and other assets. General insurance is carried out by insurance companies and involves the provision of cover for fire, accident, general liability, motor, marine, aviation and transport.

- Brokerage firms

A brokerage firm, or simply brokerage, is a financial institution that facilitates the buying and selling of financial securities between a buyer and a seller. Brokerage firms serve a clientele of investors who trade public stocks and other securities, usually through the firm's agent stockbrokers. A traditional, or "full service", brokerage firm usually undertakes more than simply carrying out a stock or bond trade. The staff of this type of brokerage firm is entrusted with the responsibility of researching the markets to provide appropriate recommendations and in doing so they direct the actions of pension fund managers and portfolio managers alike. These firms also offer margin loans for certain approved clients to purchase investments on credit, subject to agreed terms and conditions. Traditional brokerage firms have also become a source of up-to-date stock prices and quotes.

- Pension funds

Deductions paid into pension schemes are free of tax, as are nearly all the returns on investment and on capital gains made by various pension funds. Consequently, virtually all occupational pension schemes are based on trust funds managed to protect the interest of members. Pension contributions are invested through intermediaries in securities and other investment markets.

The largest pension funds are those of the nationalised industries, of former nationalised industries now in the private sector, closely followed by the banks. They are managed mainly by investment management houses which are a powerful international force in fund management.

- Investment Trusts

Investment trust companies are closed-end companies, listed on the London Stock Exchange. Their business is the management of mainly marketable securities.

- Unit trusts

Authorised unit trusts are forms of mutual or pooled investment funds which have been placed in a wide range of securities markets all over the world. They enable unit holders with relatively small funds to benefit from diversified portfolios that are expertly managed.

3.5. Britain's banking and financial institutions.

Britain is the world's leading financial centre and the home of thriving international banking and financial markets. The City of London accommodates the world's largest insurance companies and banks and one of the world's largest stock exchanges.

- History

Over the last decade Britain's income from banking, financial and business services, life and general insurance, investment management and leasing has risen sharply. During the 1980s – a decade marked by unprecedented growth and diversification in the financial services sector – Britain's banking and financial institutions entered a new and challenging era. Deregulation and new regulation, starting with the abolition of the exchange controls in 1979, included fundamental reforms in the organisation of the stock market and strengthened Britain's traditionally open-market financial activities.

- The City of London

Britain's leading position owes much to the traditional magnetism of the City and Port of London as a centre for trade, also the City's responsiveness to new challenges. The operations of governments and sovereign states overseas, international corporations, companies, and individuals continue to be supported by money raised, invested and underwritten in the City. Today the City of London remains the world's leading international financial centre because it offers the world's biggest international financial markets, a time-zone advantage in 24-hour global dealings, comprehensive financial expertise and innovation, international

professional advisers, liberal financial regulations, worldwide communications, a stable political climate, a compact location with first rate amenities, new prime office developments near Docklands, world-class cultural entertainment.

The Bank of England.

The Bank of England is one of the oldest central banks, founded as a corporate body by an Act of Parliament in 1694. Although it started as a commercial bank with private shareholders, it had long behaved as a public institution carrying out public functions and was brought into state ownership in 1946.

•Principle functions

The Bank's principal functions are carried out in pursuit of three objectives: to maintain the value of the nation's money; to ensure the soundness of the financial system; to promote the efficiency and competitiveness of the system.

•Serving special customers

The Bank has three important groups of customers. Commercial banks in the clearing system keep accounts at the Bank of England, using them at the end of each day when money is cleared. Government keeps its main banking accounts at the Bank of England so that payments of taxes to the Government and payments by the Government are ultimately made to and from the Bank. Surplus funds are invested in the money markets or used to reduce the Government's short term debt. Foreign central banks keep accounts and gold at the Bank of England and may conduct foreign exchange and business in London through the Bank.

•Managing the national debt

The Bank is responsible for arranging government borrowing or repaying debt and for managing the national debt. The Bank's principal role in government finance is to act on the Treasury's behalf to borrow money in the markets and from the public. The main forms of borrowing are through Treasury Bills, government bonds known as gilts or gilt-edged stock and occasional foreign exchange borrowings.

•Implementing monetary policy

The Bank is directly involved in executing the Government's monetary policy. Thus providing a framework for non-inflationary economic growth. Unlike some central banks, the Bank of England cannot act independently of government.

•Control and supervision

The Banking Act 1987 created a Board of Banking Supervision and increased the Bank's powers to modify the conduct of banking institutions, to investigate cases of illegal deposit-taking, to block bank mergers and takeovers on prudential ground and to require information from banks. Under the terms of the Financial Services Act 1986, the Bank is also responsible for the supervision of the main wholesale markets in London for money and foreign exchange.

•Note issues

The Bank has the sole right in England and Wales to issue banknotes which are no longer backed by gold but by government stock and other securities (this is known as the fiduciary issue of notes). Scottish and Northern Ireland banks have limited rights to issue notes but their issues, apart from a small amount specified by legislation for each bank, must be covered by holdings of Bank of England notes. The responsibility for providing coins lies with the Royal Mint which became an executive agency in April 1990.

- Dealing on the money market

The Bank's money market operations are designed to smooth out fluctuations in the flow of cash between government and the private sector. Shortages of money are offset by the Bank buying short-dated bills and maturities from the market and lending funds to the market. When there is a surplus of money, the Bank seeks to offset this by selling Treasury and other bills. Normally the pattern of government and Bank operations results in a shortage of cash in the market each day with the result that the Bank is the final provider of liquidity in the system and can help to implement and direct monetary policy by choosing interest rates at which it provides funds.

3.6. Financial futures and traded options. Financial markets. Exchange markets.

- Futures and options

Financial futures are legally bounding contracts for the purchase or sale of financial products on a specified future date at a price agreed in the present. The market allows those that could be affected by movements in interest rates or the stock markets either to reduce their vulnerability by hedging or to speculate on the possibility of making a gain. Fund managers would normally hedge, while individual traders will speculate.

Traded or equity options are contracts giving the right to buy and sell Exchange-listed securities at an agreed price within a particular period of time. This again allows fund managers to hedge on the market. They can buy either "call" options (the right to buy stocks and shares at an agreed price on a future date) or "put" options (the right to sell securities at an agreed price on a future date). The financial futures and traded options market are based on a system of "open outcry" (a kind of auction) conducted on the floor, rather than by computer terminals, but supported by state of art technology.

- The London Stock Exchange

The London Stock Exchange is positioned in the heart of a city unrivalled anywhere in the world for its spread of financial markets and its number of foreign-owned banking, financial and securities businesses. The Exchange has a dominant position in international equities trading. The Exchange's position in cross-border equities is equally impressive. Around 60 per cent of the world's equity trading outside home markets passes through London, and this figure rises to more than 90 per cent within Europe.

- The foreign exchange market

Market dealing is conducted entirely through telephone and data links between the banks, other financial institutions and a number of firms of foreign exchange brokers which act as intermediaries. Banks keep close contact with the banking community abroad and quote buying and selling rates on a daily basis for both immediate transactions (“spot”) and future transactions (“forward”) in many currencies. The forward market enables dealers to buy currency at a fixed exchange rate on a particular date in the future. Dealings in foreign exchange provide those engaged in international trade and investment with foreign currency for their transactions and can be used to maintain controls on the costs of imports.

- The Eurocurrency market

This market began with Eurodollars – US dollars lent outside the United States – and has developed into a powerful market in currencies lent outside their domestic marketplace. There are, for example, Euroyen in London and Eurosterling in Tokyo and New York. Dealing centres around Euroloans, involving commercial banks, and Eurobonds which involve investing institutions and banks. Euroloans consist of large tranches of short-term money (usually repayable in three to six months) lent by syndicates of banks and linked to the LIBOR rate. Eurobonds are bearer bonds, requiring no register of holders, issued in currencies other than that of the issuing country and operating over a longer period, usually between five and 20 years. Their issue is managed by a bank with the aid of underwriters and is placed with investors. Market participants include multinational corporations, non-bank financial institutions, governments and the international banking community. Huge increase in turnover was marked by continued growth in cross-border trading in domestic instruments. As a global market emerges institutional funds will switch relatively smoothly from “domestic” to “international” and vice versa. This trend can be expected to continue.

4. Forms of business organisation.

- Three principal forms

Sole proprietorship or sole trader. Partnership. Corporation.

- Main features

Sole proprietorship:

- + Easy to organise
- + Owner has complete control
- + Owner receives all income

–Owner has unlimited liability

–Benefits are not business deductions

Partnership:

- + Easy to organise, but needs agreement
- + Partners receive all income

–Partners have unlimited liability

- Partners may disagree
- Life of business may be limited

Corporation:

- + Shareholders have limited liability
- + Can raise funds through sale of stock
- + Life of business is unlimited (continuity of life)
- To incorporate a firm takes time and money
- May result in higher overall taxes

4.1. Sole proprietorship.

The simplest and the most numerous form of business organisation, which is owned by one person. Main features: easy to organise, owner has complete control; owner receives all income; owner has unlimited liability; benefits are not business deductions. The owner has day-to-day responsibility for running the business. Sole proprietors own all the assets of the business. In case of breach of contract the business property and personal assets of the owner may be taken to pay judgments for damages awarded by courts. No charter or permit needed and there are no particular legal requirements for organising or conducting a sole proprietorship.

•Advantages

Easiest and the least expensive form of ownership to organise. Sole proprietors are in complete control of business, and within the law, may make any decisions. Sole proprietors receive all income from the business to keep or reinvest. Profits from the business flow through directly to the owner's personal tax return. The business is easy to dissolve, if desired.

•Disadvantages

Sole proprietors have unlimited liability and are legally responsible for all debts against the business. Their business and personal assets are at risk. Sole proprietors may be at a disadvantage in raising funds and are often limited to using funds from personal savings. Sole proprietors may have a hard time attracting high-caliber employees, or those that are motivated by the opportunity to own a part of the business.

Partnership.

In a partnership, two or more people share ownership of a single business. The law does not distinguish between the business and its owners. The partners should have a legal agreement that sets forth how decisions will be made, profits will be shared, disputes will be resolved, how future partners will be admitted to the partnership, how partners can be bought out, or what steps will be taken to dissolve the partnership when needed. They also must decide up front how much time and capital each will contribute.

There exist different types of partnership: general partnership (divided responsibility for management and liability; equal shares are assumed unless stated otherwise); limited partnership or partnership with limited liability (liability

limited to the extent of the investment); joint venture (formed for a limited period of time or a single project).

- Advantages

Partnerships are relatively easy to establish; however, partners should develop the partnership agreement. With more than one owner, the ability to raise funds may be increased. The profits from the business flow directly through to the partners' personal tax returns. Prospective employees may be attracted to the business if given the incentive to become a partner. The business usually will benefit from partners who have complementary work skills.

- Disadvantages

Partners are jointly and individually liable for the actions of other partners. Profits must be shared with others. Since decisions are shared, disagreements can occur. The partnership may have a limited life, it may end upon the withdrawal or death of a partner.

4.2. Corporation.

- Description

A corporation is chartered by the state in which it has headquarters. It is considered by law to be a unique entity, separate and apart from those who own it. A corporation can be taxed; it can be sued; it can enter into contractual agreements. The owners of a corporation are its shareholders. The shareholders elect a board of directors to oversee the major policies and decisions. The corporation has a life of its own and does not dissolve when ownership changes.

- Advantages

Shareholders have limited liability for the corporation's debts or judgments against the corporations. Generally, shareholders can only be held accountable for their investment in stock of the company. Corporations can raise additional funds through the sale of stock.

- Disadvantages

The process of incorporation requires more time and money than other forms of organisation. Corporations are monitored by federal, state and some local agencies, and as a result may have more paperwork to comply with regulations. Incorporating may result in higher overall taxes. Dividends paid to shareholders are not deductible form of business income, thus the income can be taxed twice.

Board of directors.

- What is the purpose of a board of directors?

A company's board of directors helps management develop business plans, economic policy objectives, and business strategy. A board of directors often selects the chief executive of the business, supports him, reviews his performance and may dismiss him. Directors monitor a company's financial performance and the success of its products, services and strategy.

- Major responsibilities

Determine the organisation's mission and purpose. Select the executive. Support the executive and review their performance. Ensure effective organisational planning. Ensure adequate resources. Manage resources effectively. Determine and monitor the organisation's programs and services. Enhance the organisation's public image. Assess organisation's performance.

5. Personnel management.

5.1. What is personnel management?

Personnel management is concerned with the effective use of the skills of people. In a business, personnel management starts with the recruiting and hiring of qualified people and continues with directing and encouraging their growth as they encounter problems that arise in working toward established goals.

- Responsibilities of a personnel manager

In addition to recruiting and hiring some of the responsibilities of a personnel manager are: to classify jobs and prepare wage and salary scales; to counsel employees; to deal with disciplinary problems; to develop safety standards and to put them into practice; to manage fringe benefit programs such as group insurance, health and retirement plans; to provide periodic reviews of the performance of each individual employee and recognition of their strengths and needs for further development; to assist individuals in their efforts to develop and qualify for more advanced jobs; to plan and supervise training programs; to be informed of developments in personnel management.

- Personnel department

The personnel department has the responsibility to define and implement policies, procedures and programs for recruitment, selection, training, placement, safety, employee benefits, compensation, labor relations, organisation planning and employee development.

- Functions of personnel management

One function is to hire and train the right people. The second one is the training and development of employees. The third function is raising employee trust and productivity.

Hiring of employees.

- Screening of job applicants

The screening process provides information about an individual's skills and knowledge enabling a potential employer to determine whether that person is suited to and qualified for the position. Experience has shown that hiring an overqualified person can be as harmful as hiring an underqualified person.

- Selecting

If the screening process is thorough, selecting the best applicants for the job is easy. However, before making the final selection, one last step should be taken: the top candidate's references should be checked for accuracy.

- Hiring

The hiring process for most organisations is standard – applications are received, either via an online application form, or a postal form or CV. Candidates are shortlisted and invited for an interview. The interview format and number of interviews can vary considerably. Some companies are satisfied with just one interview whereas others make a further shortlist of candidates for one or more interviews. If the applicants are successful at the interview stage then they will receive an official letter offering them the job.

- Orienting

An employee handbook gives important information about the company to the employee. The handbook should cover topics such as pay rates, working conditions and fringe benefits. When an individual is hired, they should receive a comprehensive orientation on the specific nature of the job. Rules should be explained in detail, and any questions answered before the new employee begins work. New employees should be introduced to other employees and made feel welcome.

- Compensation issues

Compensation takes two forms: direct compensation (wages and salaries) and indirect compensation (fringe benefits). Direct compensation: wages and salaries are the compensation people receive on a regular basis (weekly or monthly). Workers are paid on the basis of time (hour, week, month) or on the basis of output (an incentive plan). Indirect compensation: fringe benefits are an important part of the overall compensation in most small businesses. Employee benefits now account for about 40 per cent of payroll costs.

6. The recruitment process.

6.1. Hiring new employees. How to select the “right” person.

- Interviewing job applicants

The objective of the job interview is to find out as much information as possible about the applicant’s work background, especially work habits and skills. The major task is to get the applicants to talk about themselves and about their work habits. The applicants’ replies to specific questions are evaluated and when the interview is over, the applicant is asked to check back later, if that applicant suits the job. The decision is not made until all the applicants have been interviewed. Next, the obtained information is verified. A previous employer is usually the best source. After the information on all applicants is verified, the selection can be made. The result of this selection is the “right” employee. The right employee can help make money. The wrong employee will cost much wasted time, materials and may even drive away customers.

- Key steps to finding the right person

Determining the need to hire a new employee. Conducting a thorough job analysis. Writing a job description and job specification for the position based on the job analysis. Determining the salary for the position. Deciding where and how to find qualified applicants. Collecting and reviewing a fair amount of applications

and resumes and then selecting the most qualified candidates for further consideration. Interviewing the most qualified candidates for the position based on the job's description and specification. Checking references. Hiring the best person for the job.

- Testing of applicants (abstract reasoning; numerical reasoning; verbal reasoning)

A growing number of companies are no longer satisfied with traditional job interviews. Instead, they are requiring applicants for management positions to submit to a series of written tests, role-playing tasks, simulated decision-making exercises. Others put candidates through a long series of interviews by psychologists or trained interviewers. Abstract reasoning test is a test of your skill at finding similarities and differences in groups of patterns. Verbal reasoning test evaluates your skill at making sense of reports that cannot be relied on to be objective, truthful or even consistent. The test consists of a series of short passages, each of which includes a number of short statements intended to convey information or persuade the reader of a point of view. Each passage is accompanied by statements relating to the information or arguments it contains. The candidate then has to decide whether the statement is true, false or they cannot tell and need more information. Numerical reasoning is a test of your skill at reasoning with numbers. First you are given some information in a variety of forms – text, tables or graphs – followed by the related questions.

6.2. Skills needed. Job description.

•Types of skills

The following applicant skills and qualities that are most sought by employers. Communication – ability to communicate orally, in writing or via computer/ electronic means. Teamwork – working well with others in order to achieve a common objective. Leadership – being able to motivate and encourage others whilst taking the lead. Initiative – ability to see opportunities and to set and achieve goals. Problem solving – thinking things through in a logical way in order to determine key issues. Flexibility/ adaptability – ability to handle change and adapt to new situations. Self-awareness – knowing your strengths and skills and having the confidence to put these across. Commitment/ motivation – having energy and enthusiasm in pursuing projects. Interpersonal skills – ability to relate well to others and to establish good working relationships. Additionally, employers like to see that applicants have some business awareness – having an insight into what is happening in industry or commerce and the impact this could have on the organisation.

•Writing a catching job description

Job descriptions are lists of the general tasks or functions and responsibilities of a position. Typically they also include to whom the position reports and specifications such as the qualifications needed by the person in the job, salary range for the position etc. Job descriptions are usually developed by conducting a

job analysis. Typical job analysis includes the tasks and sequences of tasks necessary to perform the job. The analysis looks at the areas of knowledge and skills needed by the job. A role is the set of responsibilities or expected results associated with a job. A job usually involves several roles. Typically, job descriptions are used especially for advertising to fill an open position, determining compensation and as a basis for performance reviews.

7. Getting a job.

7.1. Looking for a job. Application forms.

•CV

The CV (Curriculum Vitae – *lit.* record of life), in US – resume, is presenting your qualifications, skills and attributes to the employer. CV demonstrates the suitability of an applicant for the job. As well as providing an insight into previous qualifications and experiences it should show the employer the skills and qualities the applicant has, that will match the position being applied for. In compiling CV the applicant has one objective only – to get an interview in order to get the job. A CV must be accurate, interesting and up-to-date. It must be presentable so that it makes the best impression possible and gets noticed. It should be relevant – targeted to the needs of each particular position.

•Cover letter

Cover letter can be as important as CV because it is the first direct contact between a candidate and an employer. If this letter is not well written and presented, it will make a poor impression. The letter of application normally contains four parts in which you should: confirm that you wish to apply and say where you learned about the job; say why you are interested in the position and your interests are the same as those of the company; show that you can contribute to the job by describing your most relevant skills and experience; indicate your willingness to attend an interview (and possibly say when you would be free to attend).

7.2. Job interview. Types of interviews.

•One-to-one interviews

This is a meeting between the candidate and one interviewer. Try to develop an understanding between yourself and the interviewer.

•Sequential interviews

In this case you have several interviews in turn with different interviewers. Usually each interviewer asks questions to test different sets of competencies. However, you may find yourself answering the same questions over and over.

•Panel interviews

In this type of interview several people sitting on a panel question you. The actual number of interviewers can vary, but there is usually a chairperson to co-

ordinate the questions, a specialist who knows about the job in detail and a personnel manager.

- Telephone interviews

Most commonly used as a method of initial screening.

- Video interviews

They are used particularly if a person has applied for a position overseas. As far as possible you should treat them as traditional interviews: dress as you would for a conventional interview and address your answers to the interviewer (i.e. to the camera rather than the display screen).

- Interview format

The nature of any interview is determined by the nature of the organisation to which you have applied, but there are various standard forms.

- Chronological interviews

These interviews take you chronologically through your life to date and are likely to be based on CV or completed application form.

- Competency-based interviews

The questions are structured to reflect the competencies sought by an employer for a particular job often detailed in the recruitment information.

- Technical interviews

If you have applied for a job which requires specific technical knowledge (e.g. engineering or IT), it is likely that you will be asked technical questions or have a separate technical interview to test what you know.

8. Business correspondence.

8.1. Formal business letters. Letter of application.

- Structure of a business letter

Addresses. Salutation. Opening. The main body. Close.

- Conversation gambits

In salutation to address a person whose name or sex you do not know use “Dear Sir/ Madam”.

Opening says why you are writing: “I am writing to enquire about ...”. “I am writing in connection with ...”. “I am interested in ... and would like to know ...”.

If you are answering the letter, you can start: “I have received your letter of ...”. “Thank you for your letter of ...”.

Main message. Your letter should be neither too long nor too short. The length of your letter will depend on whether the subject of the letter is a simple or a complicated one. You have to decide on the right amount of information to include in your letter. The reader will not be able to understand the message if you leave out important information. If you include too many details, they may be irritated.

Planning your letter in advance is the best thing to do. In this way you will be able to decide what to include, in which order and how you are going to express it. The body of most letters can be divided into three paragraphs.

The close: "I look forward to receiving your reply." "Looking forward to hearing from you soon".

If you give some information in your letter, you can close with: "I hope that this information will help". "Please contact me/let me know if you need any further information." "Please feel free to contact me if you have any further questions".

You also need to include a complimentary close. "Yours faithfully" is used if you begin your letter with "Dear Sir", "Dear Madam" or "Dear Sir or Madam", i.e. when you do not know the name of the person you are addressing. "Yours sincerely" is used if the letter begins with a name. "Yours truly"/ "Truly yours" is used in the USA to close business and formal letters. You do not use these in formal correspondence in the UK.

8.2. Telephone conversations.

•Telephone skills

Telephone responsibility. The greeting. Telephone etiquette. Scheduling appointments. Placing callers on hold. Transferring calls. Leaving and taking messages. Handling the unhappy caller. Handling tough questions. Personal calls.

•Standard phrases

Making contact: Hello / Good morning / Good afternoon This is John Brown speaking. Could I speak to please? I'd like to speak to I'm trying to contact

Giving more information: I'm calling from Tokyo / Paris / New York / Sydney I'm calling on behalf of Mr. X

Taking a call: X speaking. Can I help you?

Asking for a name / information: Who's calling please? Who's speaking? Where are you calling from? Are you sure you have the right number / name?

Asking the caller to wait: Hold the line please. Could you hold on please? Just a moment please.

Connecting: Thank you for holding. The line's free now. I'll put you through. I'll connect you now / I'm connecting you now.

Giving negative information: I'm afraid the line's engaged. Could you call back later? I'm afraid he's in a meeting at the moment. I'm sorry. He's out of the office today. He isn't in at the moment. Sorry, I think you've dialled the wrong number. I'm afraid you've got the wrong number.

Telephone problems: The line is very bad Could you speak up please? Could you repeat that please? I'm afraid I can't hear you. Sorry. I didn't catch that. Could you say it again please?

Leaving /Taking a message: Can I leave / take a message? Would you like to leave a message? Could you give him/her a message? Could you ask him/her to call me back? Could you tell him/her that I called? Could you give me your name please? Could you spell that please? What's your number please?

9. **Motivation theories.**

9.1. Definitions. Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

- Crucial driver of organizational performance.

Processes that determine how much effort will be expended to perform the job in order to meet organizational goals.

- Explaining human behaviour in terms of needs.

Underlying premise: people must have their needs met in order to function effectively. These needs are ordered in a hierarchy. Basic physiological needs; safety needs; social needs; esteem needs; self-actualization needs.

9.2. McGregor's theory X and theory Y. McClelland's learned needs theory.

- Two different assumptions concerning people.

Theory X: negative set of assumptions; people are lazy and must be forced to work because it does not come naturally to them. Theory Y: positive assumptions that people will look for responsibility and work comes naturally to them.

- McClelland's learned needs theory, also known as the acquired needs theory.

Needs are developed or learned over time. Three important needs to workforce: achievement, power and affiliation. While all three are present, one need is dominant.

9.3. Equity theory. Expectancy theory.

- Equity theory.

Social comparison theory with the underlying premise that people will correct inequities. Ratio of your inputs and outputs is compared to the ratio of another's inputs to outputs.

- Expectancy theory.

Behaviour is based upon the expectation that this behaviour will lead to a specific reward and that reward is valued. You must decide how hard you have to work to get an upcoming promotion.

10. Corporate culture.

10.1. How to achieve excellence by managing the culture in your company.

- Culture concerned with all the aspects of management.

It must also guide the relationships with certain stakeholders outside the enterprise, i.e. customers, suppliers, creditors, competitors. Effectiveness and efficiency of an organisation are influenced by its culture. Culture is a general pattern of behaviour, shared beliefs and values that members have in common. Culture can be inferred from what people say, do, think and how they behave within an organizational setting. It involves the learning and transmitting of knowledge, beliefs and patterns of behaviour over time. Organisational culture is fairly stable over time and does not change quickly. It often sets the tone for the company and establishes implied rules for how people should behave.

10.2. Culture types.

- Collaborate.

Clan (collaborate) oriented cultures are family-like, with a focus on mentoring, nurturing, and “doing things together.”

- Create.

Adhocracy (create) oriented cultures are dynamic and entrepreneurial, with a focus on risk-taking, innovation, and “doing things first.”

- Compete.

Market (compete) oriented cultures are results oriented, with a focus on competition, achievement, and “getting the job done.”

- Control.

Hierarchy (control) oriented cultures are structured and controlled, with a focus on efficiency, stability and “doing things right.”

For example, Quinn and Cameron associate the lower two cultures (Hierarchy and Market) with a principal focus on stability and the upper two (Clan and Adhocracy) with flexibility and adaptability. A Hierarchy culture based on control will lead mainly to incremental change, while a focus on Adhocracy will more typically lead to breakthrough change.

The right culture will be one that closely fits the direction and strategy of a particular organization as it confronts its own issues and the challenges of a particular time.

11. Marketing management.

11.1. What is marketing?

- Definition and key concepts

Marketing is the wide range of activities involved in making sure that you are continuing to meet the needs of your customers and getting value in return. These activities include market research to find out, for example, what groups of potential customers exist, what their needs are, which of those needs you can meet, how you should meet them, etc. Marketing also includes analysing the competition, positioning your new product or service (finding your market niche), pricing your products and services, and promoting them through continue advertising, promotions, public relations and sales.

- Marketing process and its phases

As a managerial process, marketing is the way in which an organisation determines its best opportunities in the market place. The marketing process is divided into a strategic and a tactical phase. The strategic phase has three components – segmentation, targeting and positioning. Segmentation is determining different groups of customers in the market. Targeting is choosing which groups of customers can be served effectively. Positioning is placing the company or brand in relation to competitors. The marketing process includes designing and implementing various tactics, commonly referred to as the “4 Ps”: product, place, price (or distribution) and promotion.

- Product Life Cycle

In problems of market selection and product planning one of the key concepts is that of the Product Life Cycle. Products pass through various stages between life and death (introduction – growth – maturity – decline). Equally accepted is the understanding that a company should have product mix with representation in each of these stages. Companies can make far more effective marketing decisions if they take time to find out where each of their products stands in its life cycle.

- Market research

In order to manage the marketing function successfully, good information about the market is necessary. Frequently, a small market research program, based on a questionnaire given to present customers and/ or prospective customers, can disclose problems and areas of dissatisfaction that can be easily remedied, or new products or services that could be offered successfully.

- Marketing strategy

Marketing strategy consists of identifying customer groups (Target marketing) which a small business can serve better than its larger competitors, and tailoring its product offerings, prices, distribution, promotional efforts and services towards that particular market segment (managing the marketing mix). A good strategy implies that a business cannot be all things to all people and must analyse its markets and its own capabilities so as to focus on a target market it can serve best.

- Target marketing

Owners of small businesses have limited resources to spend on marketing activities. Concentrating their marketing efforts on one or a few market segments is the basis of target marketing. The major ways to segment a market are: geographical segmentation (developing a loyal group of consumers in the home geographical territory before expanding into new territories); product segmentation (extensively promoting existing best-selling products and services before introducing a lot of new products); customer segmentation (identifying and promoting to those groups of people most likely to buy the product; in other words, selling to heavy users before trying to develop new users).

- Managing the marketing mix

There are four key marketing decision areas in a marketing program. They are: products and services; promotion; place (distribution) and pricing. The marketing mix is used to describe how owner-managers combine these four areas into an overall marketing program.

- Products and services

Effective product strategies for a marketing manager may include concentrating on a narrow product line, developing a highly specialised product containing an unusual amount of service.

- Promotion

This marketing decision area includes advertising, salesmanship and other promotional activities. In general, high quality salesmanship is necessary for small

businesses due to their limited ability to advertise heavily. Direct mail is an effective, low-cost medium of advertising available to small businesses.

- Price

Determining price levels and/ or pricing policies (including credit policy) is the major factor affecting total revenue. Generally, higher prices mean volume of trade and vice-versa, however, small businesses can often command higher prices due to the personalised service they can offer.

- Distribution

The manufacturer and wholesaler must decide how to distribute their products. Working through established distributors or manufacturers' agents generally is most feasible for small manufacturers. Retailers should consider cost and traffic flow as two major factors in location site selection. In other words, low cost, low traffic location means you must spend more on advertising to build traffic.

- Marketing performance

After marketing program decisions are made, owner-managers need to evaluate how well decisions have turned out. Standards of performance need to be set up, so results can be evaluated against them. Sound data on industry norms and past performance provides the basis for comparing against present performance. Owner-managers should audit their company's performance at least quarterly. The key questions to ask are as follows. Is the company doing all it can to be customer-orientated? Do the employees make sure the customer's needs are truly satisfied and leave them with the feeling that they would enjoy coming back? Is it easy for the customer to find what he or she wants and at a competitive price?

11.2. How to develop a marketing concept.

- Sales approach and marketing approach to business

In the classic sales approach, engineers and designers create a product, which is then given to salespeople who are told to find customers and sell the product. In the marketing approach, the first step is to determine what the customer needs or wants. That information is given to designers who develop the product and finally to engineers who produce it. Thus, the sales approach only ends with the customer, while the marketing approach begins and ends with the customer. The second major difference between the sales and marketing approaches is the focus of management. The sales approach always focuses on volume while the marketing approach focuses on profit. In short, under the classic (sales) approach the customer exists for the business, while under the marketing approach the business exist for the customer.

- Successful marketing program

Modern marketing programs are built around the "marketing concept", which directs managers to focus their efforts on identifying and satisfying customer needs at a profit. The marketing concept is a management plan that views all marketing components as part of a total system that requires effective planning, organisation,

leadership and control. It is based on the importance of customers to a firm. All company policies and activities should be aimed at satisfying customer needs. Profitable sales volume is a better company goal than maximum sales volume. In order to conduct a successful marketing program you must be able to answer the following questions. What type of business are you in (manufacturing, merchandising or service)? What is the nature of your product(s) or service(s)? What market segments do you intend to serve (describe age, sex, income level and life-style concept characteristics of each market segment)? What strategies will you use to attract and keep customers? What is your unique selling point (USP)? Who are your competitors and what will you do to control your share of the market?

11.3. Marketing concept. Improving brand image.

•Four Ps of marketing

The 4 Ps of Product, Price, Place and Promotion are your marketing mix. They are independent variables, whereas the dependent variable is sales volume. It is the output that you get by defining the inputs – the 4 Ps. These four variables are interdependent. The task is to set these variables in such a way so that sales will take place. You can help your customer in coming to a decision to buy by setting the right price, the retail outlet, the level of advertising and even product attributes such as colour or perceived quality. In defining your marketing mix it is also necessary to take into account your competitor's mix as well as your overall corporate objectives. The idea is to come up with a mix that will clearly differentiate your products from those of your competitors while considering your corporate goals.

•The past, present and future of marketing

The main new trends in marketing are: from make-and-sell marketing to sense-and-respond marketing; from owning assets to owning brands; from vertical integration to virtual integration (outsourcing); from mass marketing to customised marketing; from operating only in the market place to also operating in cyberspace; from pursuing market share to pursuing customer share; from focusing on customer attraction to focusing on customer retention; from transaction marketing to relationship marketing; from customer acquisition to customer retention and satisfaction; from mediated marketing to direct marketing; from marketer monologue to customer dialogue; from separated planning of communications to integrated marketing communications; from single-channel marketing to multichannel marketing; from product-centric marketing to customer-centric marketing; from marketing department doing the marketing to everyone in the company doing the marketing; from exploiting suppliers and distributors to partnering with them.

•Challenges

Getting better financial measures of the impact of marketing programs. Developing more integrated information about important customers. Getting

marketing to be the company's designer and driver of market strategy. Facing lower-cost/ higher-quality competitors. Coping with the increasing power and demands of mega-distributors.

- Brands and their images

The impression in the consumers' mind of a brand's total personality (real and imaginary qualities and shortcomings). Brand image is developed over time through advertising campaigns with a consistent theme, and is authenticated through the consumers' direct experience.

12. Advertising.

12.1. Basic definitions of advertising, promotion, public relations PR and publicity, sales.

- Vocabulary

Advertising is bringing a product (or service) to the attention of potential and current customers. Advertising is typically done with signs, brochures, commercials, direct mail or e-mail messages, personal contact etc.

Promotion keeps the product in minds of the customer and helps stimulate demand for the product. Promotion involves ongoing advertising and publicity (mention in press). The ongoing activities of advertising, sales and public relations are often considered aspects of promotions.

Public relations include ongoing activities to ensure the company has a strong public image. Public relations activities include helping the public to understand the company and its products. Often PR is conducted through the media, i.e. newspapers, television, magazines etc.

Publicity is the mention in the media. Regarding publicity, companies usually have little control over the message in the media, reporters and writers decide what will be said.

Sales involve most or many of the following activities, including cultivating prospective buyers (or leads) in a market segment; conveying the features, advantages and benefits of a product or service to the lead; coming to an agreement on pricing and services.

- The benefits of advertising

It provides us with information about prices, appearance of certain new goods and services, and their availability. Advertising often results in lower prices. Large-scale production can reduce costs. By creating mass markets, advertising enables producers to reduce the costs of their products and pass those savings on to the consumers. Advertising stimulates competition, and competition benefits all of us. Advertising by one firm puts pressure on others within the industry. Advertising pays most of the cost of magazines and newspapers, and all of the cost of commercial radio and TV. Advertising helps economy as a whole by stimulating consumer demand. Consumer spending has a direct effect on the health of the economy. Advertising helps to keep that spending at healthy levels.

- The price we pay for advertising

Critics have the following points of disadvantages. The information contained in advertising does not inform and often misleads the consumer. Because it costs money to advertise, this cost adds to the price the consumers pay. Consumers are tempted to spend money for products they do not really need. Radio and TV are not really free because the cost of advertising on them is also passed on to the consumer.

- Advertising strategies

Slogans. Advertisers often use slogans that sound great but mean little or nothing. But such slogans, when repeated enough, do increase sales.

Rational appeals. They rely upon logic or reason to convince the consumer to buy a product. Ads for health foods, pain relievers and home remedies tend to use this technique.

Emotional appeals. They rely upon the use of psychology. The following is a sampling of such strategies: testimonials (the advertisements in which famous people claim they use and enjoy a particular product; ads for sports equipment frequently rely on this); the bandwagon (this appeal implies that everybody is using a particular product and that if you do not then you will be left out; the term derives from the practice, during 19th century circus or political parades of jumping on or following behind the wagon carrying the band; soft drink and automobile ads use this appeal); popularity (suggests that simply by using the advertised product you will be popular or find romance).

12.2. Major methods of advertising and promotion. Advertising mediums.

- How to write ads?

Writing ads is a skill. There are important aspects to think about, including the wording, graphics, arrangement of wording and graphics, colouring, how your audience will interpret the ads, their placement etc. Poorly done ads can hurt you worse than not having ads at all.

- What should you write in your ads?

Before you write your ads, you should carefully think over your unique selling point so that you know what unique features and benefits to convey and to whom. A common mistake of inexperienced ad writers is to write the ad to themselves, rather than to their current and potential customers. Your ads should clearly tell about the benefits of products and services to potential customers. Use the terms that the customer will value, like easy access, low cost, easy to use, reliability etc.

- Newspaper advertising

Accessibility. Reading the newspaper is a habit. You can reach certain types of people by placing your ad in different sections of the paper. Unlike advertising on TV and radio, newspaper advertising can be examined at your leisure.

Advantages: can be made quickly, short notice to insert a new advertisement, large variety of ad sizes offered.

Disadvantages: newspapers are usually read once, print quality can be quite low, your ad has to compete for reader's attention with other ads, reader can skip your ad or miss the section your ad is in.

- Magazine advertising

Magazines are usually weekly or monthly publications unlike daily newspapers and advertisements are usually in colour. Because the ads are not immediate, they require more planning. Trade magazines are publications that go to certain types of businesses, services and industries. Consumer magazines are generally the kind you find on the average newsstand.

- Radio advertising

Radio, as a medium, offers a form of entertainment that attracts listeners while they are working, travelling, relaxing or doing almost anything. Radio offers information such as news, weather reports, advertising and music.

- Television advertising

TV is often called the king of the advertising media, since a majority of people spend more hours watching TV per day than any other medium. TV has proven its persuasive power in influencing human behaviour.

- Cable advertising

Cable advertising is a lower cost alternative to advertising on broadcast television. It has many of the same qualities as broadcast TV, and since it offers more programming, it is even easier to reach a designated audience.

- Outdoor advertising

When people think of outdoor advertising they usually think of the colorful billboards along the streets and highways. Included in the outdoor classification are also benches, posters, signs, ads on buses, subways, taxicabs and trains. Outdoor advertising reaches its audience as an element of the environment.

- Direct mail

It appeals directly to an individual consumer, just the same as the regular mail. Usually through the mail, but other carriers also participate. Studies indicate that it is the third largest media expenditure behind television and newspaper.

- Specialty advertising

Giveaways (pencils, pens, buttons, calendars, fridge magnets) are specialty advertising. Businesses imprint their names on items and give them away so that you notice their name enough times on the item. So that when you plan to buy something or you need some service you think of their name first. You might also appreciate the goodwill of the company giving you the item and eventually return the favour by giving them some business.

13. Business documents. Contracts.

13.1. What is a contract?

Contracts are the foundation on which business is conducted. A contract exists when two or more parties agree to exchange either property (including money) or promises of future performance. Contract is an agreement that creates a binding obligation. Contracts may be written or oral.

- Essential clauses of contract

Some of the items are necessary in any contract: legal title of the contracting parties, subject of the contract, quality, price, delivery and payment terms.

- Subject of the contract

This section names the product for sale or purchase. It also indicates the unit of measure generally employed in foreign trade for specific commodities.

The price stated in a contract may be firm, fixed or sliding.

The quality of machines and equipment is to be in conformity with the technical specification of the contract. The quality of raw materials and foodstuffs is determined, as a rule, by standards, by sample or by description.

- Arbitration

In case of a breach of contract the injured party may go to court or sue for money damages, or for the contract to be rescinded, for injunction, or for specific performance if money damages would not compensate for the breach. Specific performance of a contract is the right of contracting party to have the other contracting party perform the contract according to the precise terms agreed therein.

Types of contracts.

- Must contracts be in any special form?

Contracts may be written or oral. They may even be implied from conduct. Sometimes conduct alone is sufficient. However, there are certain important kinds of contracts, which will not be enforced in courts unless some properly signed writing proves their existence. For example, contracts to transfer an interest in real property.

Even when the law does not require a written contract, it is often wise to put the agreement in writing and have a signed copy for each party. Neither party can effectively deny having agreed to particular terms. Also, the process of putting ideas into writing encourages the parties to anticipate and provide for problems that could arise later. Whenever appropriate prudent person seek the aid of a lawyer in the preparation or review of important contracts.

- How are contracts classified?

Contracts can be classified as either unilateral or bilateral, according to whether one or both parties make a promise. Contracts also can be classified according to enforceability as valid, voidable and void or unenforceable.

- Method of creation (express, implied, quasi)

The way a contract comes into being gives some idea of its nature. Thus there are the following contract types. In an express contract the agreement is stated in words – written or spoken. In an implied contract, the agreement is not stated in

words. Instead the intent of the parties is shown by their conduct and by the surrounding circumstances. In a quasi contract the parties are bound as though there were a valid contract even though technically there is none. Thus the law creates an obligation in the absence of an actual agreement between the parties. Strictly speaking no contract exists because some essential element is missing.

- Formality (formal contract, simple contract)

A few contracts must meet strict requirements as to formality. They are called formal contracts. Most contracts need not meet such requirements. They are called simple contracts. So, a formal contract is a written contract that must be in some special form to be enforceable. Examples are commercial paper and contracts under seal. Commercial paper such as an ordinary check must meet certain requirements to be valid. A contract under seal is one with a seal attached or with a similar impression made on the paper.

- Extent of Performance (executed contract, executor contract)

Contracts can be classified as either executed or executory, according to whether or not they have been completed. An executed is one that has been fully performed. Both parties have done all they promised to do. An executory contract is one that has not been fully performed. Something as agreed upon remains to be done by one or both of the parties.

13.2. Contract samples.

Приложение 1 (Simple contract), приложение 2 (Employment contract).

“Sellers and Buyers have concluded the present Contract for the following”:

- Subject

Предмет контракта.

“The Sellers have sold and the Buyers have bought on conditions The Sellers will deliver to the Buyers ...”.

- Prices and Total Value

Цены и общая стоимость.

“The total value of the equipment/ spare parts/ tools/ technical documentation/ services in the volume of the present Contract amounts to ...”.

- Terms of Payment

Условия платежа.

“Payment at the rate of ... are to be effected in ... currency within ... days of the receipt by the Buyers of the following documentation ...”.

- Delivery Dates

Сроки поставки.

“The equipment specified in Clause I of the present Contract is to be delivered complete as follows By the time stipulated the equipment is to be manufactured in accordance with the Contract conditions, tested, packed, marked and delivered ...”.

- Packing and Marking

Упаковка и маркировка.

“The packing is to secure the full safety of goods from any kind of damage and corrosion during its transportation. The goods are to be packed as not to allow for the free movement inside the package when it changes position. The Sellers shall be responsible to the Buyers for any damage to the goods owing to the improper packing. The marking should be clearly made. The packages for which special handling is required shall have additional marking.”

- Guarantee

Гарантии.

“The Sellers guarantee high quality of the materials used in the manufacturing of the equipment and high quality of the manufacturing and assemble. The period of guarantee of the normal and trouble-free operation of the equipment is to be 12 months from the date of putting it into operation but no later than 18 months from the date of shipment of the complete equipment. If the defects cannot be eliminated, the Buyers have the right to reject the defective equipment or to request a corresponding reduction from its price.”

- Force Majeure

Форс-мажор.

“The parties are released from responsibility for partial or complete non-fulfillment of their liabilities under the present Contract, if this non-fulfillment was caused by the circumstances of Force-Majeure, namely fire, flood, earthquake, provided the circumstances have directly affected the execution of the present Contract.”

- Sanctions

Санкции.

“In the event of the Sellers’ delay in the supply against the dates stipulated in the Contract the Sellers are to pay to the Buyers penalty at the rate of Should the delay in delivery exceed four months the Buyers shall have the right to cancel the Contract or a part thereof.”

- Arbitration

Арбитраж.

“All disputes and differences which may arise out of or in connection with the present Contract will be settled as far as possible by means of negotiations between the Parties. If the Parties do not come to an agreement, the matter, without recourse to Courts of Law, is to be submitted for settlement, to Arbitration.”

- Insurance

Страхование.

“The Buyers are to take care of and to cover expenses for insurance of the goods with Insurance Company from the moment of their dispatch from the Sellers’ works up to the moment of arrival of the same at the Buyers’ works.”

- Legal Addresses of the Parties

Юридические адреса сторон.

“The Contract enters into force on the date of its signing.”

14. Internet and E-business.

14.1. The origins of the Internet

- When and how did Internet get started?

The Internet began in the late 1960s as an experiment by the U.S. Department of Defense to see if non-centralised network could be built to withstand the destruction of one or more of its parts. Unlike previous networks this network did not have a single central point. Instead, all sites on the network were interconnected. Out of this network came a protocol for linking computers together. A protocol is a set of standards for how network communication takes place. This protocol is the standard that makes it possible for different computers all over the globe to talk to each other. At first, the Internet was used solely by the US government, but soon universities and other institutions connected themselves to the Internet to communicate with one another and collaborate on projects. The Internet grew to connect hundreds of different sites all across the world. Each organisation on the Internet was responsible for maintaining its part of the network so the Internet was not owned or controlled by any one organisation.

- Who owns the WWW?

The answer is no one, because the WWW is merely a subset of information publishes on the Internet. In order to put up a web page of your own, whether individual or business, you need to get access to the WWW by either renting a space on an existing commercial Web server or by putting up your own Web server.

14.2. Creating a web-based business. Selling online.

- E-Business

Offering your customers this option may be an important service for your business and may bring you new sales from around the globe. Shopping cart software allows customers to make selections as they move from page to page on your site. At the end of shopping a completed order form is generated and displayed to your online customers. They either proceed to check out or they have the opportunity to revise the order until it's complete. Transmitting credit card information over the Internet remains somewhat of a barrier to Internet sales. If you offer sales on the Internet you will need to determine whether you would handle international sales. Shipping costs, customs forms and monetary exchange rates are just a few issues to consider. You might consider employing a third party that specialises in collecting, processing and shipping Internet orders for your product. It takes time to build Internet sales. To organise sales on the Internet requires good planning, a well-designed website, careful evaluation of your target market and constant promotion of your website. Some services and products may be more suitable for web sales than others.

- What you would not need

Employees require you to pay them, manage them and many times they need a place to work. To make things easier there is no need for anyone rather than you at least in the beginning. You should not have an inventory that you need to store somewhere and storage space can be expensive. You will also end up with tons of shipping and packing demands. After your business has started it should not require more than a few hours of your time to manage and maintain each month. Your business should not reside anywhere other than in cyberspace.

- What to sell? Physical products, services, intellectual property.

Physical products are food, clothing, appliances, homes and nearly everything that can be touched. As inventory is not necessary there are a couple of ways to handle products without inventory – you can use companies that make drop shipments or you can manufacture on demand. Service businesses can also use Internet. There are some industries that have been gaining some success such as online tutoring, various types of consulting, language translation, computer programming including web design and several others. To have an online-only service business you will need to be able to fulfill the service from your location. You need to be able to close the sale without a physical meeting. Informational products are perfect for the Internet. This type of intellectual property can be writing, works of art or software.

15. Types of economies.

15.1. Economies and manufacturing. Allocation of products and resources.

- Traditional economy

Traditional economies are found in rural, non-developed countries. Some parts of Asia, Africa, South America and the Middle East have traditional economies. Customs govern the economic decisions that are made. Technology is not used in traditional economies. Farming, hunting and gathering are done the same way as the generation before. Economic activities are usually centered toward the family or ethnic unit. Men and women are given different economic roles and tasks.

- Market economy

In a market system the basic economic decisions are based on the economic actions of people and businesses. This is also known as a capitalist economy. What is produced is based on what people are willing to buy and will bring profit to the sellers. The interaction of consumers and producers makes the system work. Cons: rewards only those that are productive. Pros: can adjust to change over time as consumer wants and needs change; freedom for all involved; lack of government control.

- Command economy

In a command system, the basic economic questions of what and how to produce and distribute are made by a central authority. This is sometimes called a directed or planned economy. Two kinds in the world today: strong command and moderate command.

In strong command economic systems the government owns all of the natural and capital resources factors of production. Cons: does not meet consumer needs; lack of incentives to work hard; lack of choice to make their own economic decisions. Pros: can make a dramatic change in a short time; government provides each person with a job and certain medical coverage and social services.

Moderate command economies are also described as socialist. The government owns all major industries. There is however opportunity for private ownership. Government and private owners must work together to make decisions as to what is being produced and how to produce it. Cons: very high taxes discourage private businesses and lessens spendable income for people; lack of choice to make their own economic decisions. Pros: health care, social welfare, social security are provided.

- Mixed economy

No economy is based totally on one of the pure systems described earlier. They are more accurately mixed systems. However, one of the systems has more of an influence and therefore referred to as whichever economic system that has the strongest influence.

15.2. The transitional economy.

- Economics of transition

A transition economy is one that is changing from central planning to free markets. Since the collapse of communism in the late 1980s, countries of the former Soviet Union, and its satellite states, including Poland, Hungary, and Bulgaria, sought to embrace market capitalism and abandon central planning. However, most of these transition economies have faced severe short-term difficulties, and longer-term constraints on development.

- Short-term difficulties and long-term constraints

Rising unemployment.

Many transition economies experienced rising unemployment as newly privatised firms tried to become more efficient. Under communism, state owned industries tended to employ more people than was strictly needed, and as private entrepreneurs entered the market, labour costs were cut back in an attempt to improve efficiency. As the newly established private firms became subject to greater competition some were driven out of the market, which created job losses. In addition, a reduction in the size of the state bureaucracy also meant that many employees of the state also lost their jobs.

Rising inflation.

Many transition economies also experienced price inflation as a result of the removal of price controls imposed by governments. When this happened, the newly privatised firms began to charge prices that reflected the true costs of production. In addition, some entrepreneurs exploited their position and raised prices in an attempt to profit from the situation.

Lack of entrepreneurship and skills.

Many transition economies suffered from a lack of entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship, which make it more difficult to reform their economies and promote market capitalism. In addition, there was also a skills gap with few workers having the necessary skills required by employers in the newly privatised firms.

Corruption.

It is alleged that corruption was widespread during the early years of transition in many former communist countries, and this inhibited the effective introduction of market reforms. Many products were poorly made and sold in unregulated and illegal markets, and many have claimed that criminal gangs and widespread racketeering filled the vacuum left by the deposed communist regimes.

Lack of infrastructure.

The transition economies also suffered from a lack of real capital, such as new technology, which is required to produce efficiently. This was partly because of the limited development of financial markets, and because there was little inward investment from foreign investors. Clearly, this has changed as the transition economies have reformed, and joined the global market, which has encouraged inward investment from around the world.

Lack of a sophisticated legal system.

Under communism, the state owned all the key productive assets, and there was little incentive to develop a sophisticated legal system that protected the rights of consumers, and regulated the activities of producers. Market-driven economies will only develop when citizens are granted extensive property rights, and can protect these rights through the legal process. This was largely absent in the former communist transition economies.

Moral hazard.

The problem of moral hazard implies that inferior performance can arise when the risks associated with poor performance are insured against. For example, if individuals insure the contents of their house against theft, they are more likely to leave their windows open. In the context of transition economies, under communism people felt that the state would insure them against the risks associated with global competition, including the risk of losing their jobs. The consequence is that many workers remained inefficient and unproductive, knowing that employment prospects would not be reduced.

Inequality.

Economic transition also led to rapidly increasing inequality as some exploited their position as entrepreneurs and traders in commodities, while others suffered from unemployment and rising inflation.

16. Emerging markets.

16.1. Terminology.

- Definition

Emerging market is a term that investors use to describe a developing country, in which investment would be expected to achieve higher returns but be accompanied by greater risk. Global index providers sometimes include in this category relatively wealthy countries whose economies are still considered underdeveloped from a regulatory point of view.

Emerging markets (EMs) sit between developed markets – for example, the US, the UK, core European countries and Japan – and 'frontier markets' which are even less developed than EMs. Smaller developed markets can also become 'emerging' - as is about to happen with Greece.

- BRICs

The acronym “BRICs” was coined in 2001 by Jim O’Neill, then chief economist at Goldman Sachs Asset Management, to describe the four titans of Brazil, Russia, India and China. It’s been followed by HSBC’s “CIVETS” – Colombia, Indonesia, Vietnam, Egypt, Turkey and South Africa – and the “Next 11” – Bangladesh, Egypt, Indonesia, Iran, Korea, Mexico, Nigeria, Pakistan, the Philippines, Turkey and Vietnam.

- MINTs

MINTs or Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria and Turkey, like the BRICs, feature many of the same positives that the original bloc had: growing and young population; rich commodity wealth; nation’s strategic locations; good public finances; easing in doing business in these nations.

16.2. Characteristics

- What an emerging market economy (EME) looks like?

EMEs are characterized as transitional, meaning they are in the process of moving from a closed economy to an open market economy while building accountability within the system. Examples include the former Soviet Union and Eastern bloc countries. As an emerging market, a country is embarking on an economic reform program that will lead it to stronger and more responsible economic performance levels, as well as transparency and efficiency in the capital market. An EME will also reform its exchange rate system because a stable local currency builds confidence in an economy, especially when foreigners are considering investing. Exchange rate reforms also reduce the desire for local investors to send their capital abroad (capital flight). Besides implementing reforms, an EME is also most likely receiving aid and guidance from large donor countries and/or world organizations such as the World Bank and International Monetary Fund.

One key characteristic of the EME is an increase in both local and foreign investment (portfolio and direct). A growth in investment in a country often indicates that the country has been able to build confidence in the local economy. Moreover, foreign investment is a signal that the world has begun to take notice of the emerging market, and when international capital flows are directed toward an

EME, the injection of foreign currency into the local economy adds volume to the country's stock market and long-term investment to the infrastructure.

For foreign investors or developed-economy businesses, an EME provides an outlet for expansion by serving, for example, as a new place for a new factory or for new sources of revenue. For the recipient country, employment levels rise, labor and managerial skills become more refined, and a sharing and transfer of technology occurs. In the long-run, the EME's overall production levels should rise, increasing its gross domestic product and eventually lessening the gap between the emerged and emerging worlds.

16.3. Surrounding issues.

•Local politics vs. global economy

An emerging market economy must have to weigh local political and social factors as it attempts to open up its economy to the world. The people of an emerging market, who are accustomed to being protected from the outside world, can often be distrustful of foreign investment. Emerging economies may also often have to deal with issues of national pride because citizens may be opposed to having foreigners owning parts of the local economy.

Moreover, opening up an emerging economy means that it will also be exposed not only to new work ethics and standards, but also to new cultures. The introduction and impact of, say, fast food and music videos to some local markets has been a by-product of foreign investment. Over the generations, this can change the very fabric of a society and if a population is not fully trusting of change, it may fight back hard to stop it.

•Portfolio Investments and Risks

The case for investing in emerging markets seems beguilingly simple. They are growing and urbanising fast. They have young populations who aspire to consume like the West does. They generally have sound public finances, with no bloated welfare states or dependency cultures. So companies that are active in those markets should be able to increase profits and dividends rapidly, and their share prices should reflect that. But all too often, it does not work that way.

Because their markets are in transition and hence not stable, emerging markets offer an opportunity to investors who are looking to add some risk to their portfolios. The possibility for some economies to fall back into a not-completely-resolved civil war or a revolution sparking a change in government could result in a return to nationalisation, expropriation and the collapse of the capital market. Because the risk of an EME investment is higher than an investment in a developed market, panic and speculation reactions are also more common. The 1997 Asian crisis, during which international portfolio flows into these countries actually began to reverse themselves, is a good example of how EMEs can be high-risk investment opportunities. However, the bigger the risk, the bigger the reward, so emerging market investments have become a standard practice among investors aiming to diversify while adding risk.

17. Money.

17.1. Sources of money.

•Sources and types of funds

A company might raise new funds from the following sources. The capital markets (new share issues, for example, by companies acquiring a stock market listing for the first time; rights issues). Loan stock. Retained earnings. Bank borrowing. Government sources. Business expansion scheme funds. Venture capital. Franchising.

17.2. Equity and debt.

•Equity

Ordinary (equity) shares. Ordinary shares are issued to the owners of a company. They have a nominal or “face” value. The market value of a quoted company’s shares bears no relationship to their nominal value, except that when ordinary shares are issued for cash, the issue price must be equal to or be more than the nominal value of the shares.

Deferred ordinary shares are a form of ordinary shares, which are entitled to a dividend only after a certain date or if profits rise above a certain amount. Voting rights might also differ from those attached to other ordinary shares.

Ordinary shareholders put funds into their company: by paying for a new issue of shares or through retained profits. Simply retaining profits, instead of paying them out in the form of dividends, offers an important, simple low-cost source of finance, although this method may not provide enough funds, for example, if the firm is seeking to grow.

Circumstances for a new issue of shares: to raise more cash; partly to raise cash, but more importantly to float its shares on a stock exchange; issue to the shareholders of another company in order to take it over.

A rights issue provides a way of raising new share capital by means of an offer to existing shareholders, inviting them to subscribe cash for new shares in proportion to their existing holdings.

Preference shares have a fixed percentage dividend before any dividend is paid to the ordinary shareholders.

•Debt

Loan stock is long-term debt capital raised by a company for which interest is paid, usually half yearly and at a fixed rate. Holders of loan stock are therefore long-term creditors of the company.

Debentures are a form of loan stock, legally defined as the written acknowledgement of a debt incurred by a company, normally containing provisions about the payment of interest and the eventual repayment of capital.

Security. Loan stock and debentures will often be secured. Security may take the form of either a fixed charge or a floating charge. Fixed charge. Floating charge.

The redemption of loan stock.

As far as companies are concerned, debt capital is a potentially attractive source of finance because interest charges reduce the profits chargeable to corporation tax.

18. General business planning.

18.1. What is a business plan? Preparing a business plan

•Definition

A business plan is a design of your company, presented in standard business format that is logical and well documented. It is: strategic vision of your company; most important communication tool; document to obtain working capital and/ or investments; tool for planning, measuring and improving performance; basis for sound decision-making; way to motivate employees.

•Importance of a business plan

The success of your business depends largely upon the decisions you make. A business plan distributes resources and measures the results of your actions, helping you set realistic goals and make decisions. Lack of planning does not allow making future decisions and actions you must take to run your business successfully. So a sound plan can act as: a reality check; an operating tool; a message sender; a motivation tool; a management development tool.

18.2. The business planning process

•The process

Identify your vision (imagine the future; define your vision; develop a plan; set goals and objectives; identify different ways to reach goals and objectives). Seek agreement (with colleagues and/ or partners). SWOT analysis (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats). Make assumptions (future performance). Develop operating plans (including key risk assessment). Develop financials (balance sheet, income statement, cash flow statement). Revise the cycle (evaluation).

•Steps

1. Identify your objectives. 2. Outline your business plan. 3. Review your outline. 4. Write your business plan: gather information; prepare drafts; write a summary. 5. Have your plan reviewed.

19. Public Management.

19.1. Introduction and Historical Context

•The Public Private Distinction

•New Public Management

•Quality and Performance

•Management theory and the Public Sector

•Size, complexity and accountability

•The transition from Administration to Management

19.2. Public sector.

•Risk and Public Sector Management. Public Sector Risk Management.

- The UK BSE Crisis
- PPP and PFI. UK PFI and its Variants.
- Problems of Public Sector Management
- Performance measures.
- The Charter and League table policies
- Contracts and competition
- The operation of Internal Markets

19.3. Public sector governance.

- Importance of performance management
- Response to the current situation
- Insights from the private sector
- Skills and expertise

20. Management Innovations.

20.1. Delivering superior shareholder value

- Why create new management techniques and tools?

Investors move their money quickly around the world in the quest for optimum shareholder returns. Companies need to earn at least the minimum level of return required by the providers of capital (cost of capital). Returns to shareholders – dividends or growth in share value. So management teams seek tools to help them measure and deliver value to shareholders.

20.2. Business rationale of value-based management

- Value-Based Management

Helps companies create superior shareholder value through aligning the focus of management decision-making with the interests of shareholders.

20.3. Measuring value creation.

- Net present value (NPV)

Sum of present values of future cash flows resulting from an investment that is discounted at a given rate of interest, the cost of capital. So it is the sum for the future receipts from the investment expressed in today's monetary values. Less the cost of the investment. This determines whether again in today's money, there is a surplus or deficit from the investment.

So the NPV represents the present value of the future cash flows less the original cost of the investment. If the NPV is positive then the return from the investment has exceeded the cost of capital and the value of the company should increase by the amount of value created. However, if the NPV is negative the company's value should theoretically decrease.

20.4. A case study on delivering shareholder value – BP (former British Petroleum)

British Petroleum has a worldwide reputation for commitment to knowledge management (KM) (Приложение 3).

Benefits. Example – cost reduction in the construction of European retail sites. The Role of top leaderships. Virtual teamwork project. Knowledge

Management Team (KMT). Peer Groups. Enhancing organizational capability. MegaChange – a new capability-based approach. Entrepreneurial leadership of transformational change. Entrepreneurial design driven by consistent decentralization. Single common strategy. A knowledge network of peers across the business units.

As a result of corporate transformation, BP increased the value of its share price by a factor greater than 10 in a period when other companies were seeing marginal improvements in their share prices. The overall benefit of company-wide transformation was measured in billions of dollars.

21. Industry.

21.1. Industry analysis. Porter's generic strategies.

•Cost Leadership Strategy

Companies that choose a cost-leadership strategy offer relatively standardised products with features or characteristics that are acceptable to customers, in other words, with a minimum level of differentiation at the lowest competitive price. This means that companies offer standardised products to an industry's typical customer. Customers receive value when a company successfully implements a cost leadership strategy.

Companies that wish to be successful by following a cost-leadership strategy must maintain constant efforts aimed at lowering their costs (relative to competitors' costs) and creating value for customers.

Cost-reduction strategies include: building efficient-scale facilities; establishing tight control of production and overhead costs; minimising the costs of sales, product research and development, and service; investing in state-of-the-art manufacturing technologies.

Implementing and maintaining a cost leadership strategy means that a company must consider its value chain of primary and secondary activities and effectively link those activities, if it is to be successful. The critical focus in successfully implementing a cost leadership strategy is on efficiency and cost reduction, regardless of the value-creating activity.

•Differentiation Strategy

A differentiation strategy calls for creating a product or service with sufficiently distinctive attributes that sets your business apart from the competition. If your differentiation strategy works, you may be able to charge your customers a premium for your product or service. However, such a strategy may backfire without sufficient market acceptance. You also face other risks that can impact your bottom line.

Every company would like to think that it stands apart from the competition in the eyes of its customers. A company that employs a differentiation strategy does so with the intention of creating a product or service that is valued and perceived by its customers as unique and better than the competition. Companies

that succeed in implementing a differentiation strategy have one or a combination of the following attributes: leading scientific research, highly skilled and creative product-development personnel, a strong sales force and a strong reputation for quality and innovation.

One positive of a successful differentiation strategy is that the company may charge a premium for its product or service. The company does so with confidence because of a highly developed and strong corporate identity. The company can readily pass along higher supplier costs to its customers because of the lack of substitute or alternative products on the market. Having a loyal customer following helps stabilise the company's revenue and lessens the impact of market downturns because of customer loyalty in good times and bad.

A company that succeeds in implementing a differentiation strategy should worry about competitors' copying its business methods and stealing away its customers. In addition, implementing a differentiation strategy is costly. It may take years before a company achieves a strong brand image that sets it apart. During that time, the company faces the risk of changing consumer tastes or preferences. In such a case, the company may not have sufficient customer demand to offset its higher costs, which may lead to a loss.

A differentiation strategy may not be ideal for every company. It is difficult to maintain differentiation for an indefinite amount of time because of competition. Many companies attempt to find the right balance by competing on such things as price, service and quality, or on any combination of attributes that it believes are important to its customers to gain a competitive advantage. For example, a company that differentiates itself based on price may sacrifice quality to attract customers who are price sensitive. During market downturns, the company may enjoy higher sales than one that competes based on differentiation quality.

•Focus Strategy

Firms that are successful in a focus strategy are able to tailor a broad range of product development strengths to a relatively narrow geographic market segment, or to a particular buyer group or segment. They also target market segments that are less vulnerable to substitutes or where a competition is weakest in order to to earn above-average return on investment.

Whereas low cost and differentiation strategies are aimed at achieving their objective industry wide, focus is built around serving a particular target or niche extremely well. The strategy is based on the assertion that the firm can serve its narrow strategic target more effectively or efficiently than more broadly based competitors.

The firm may achieve differentiation from better meeting the needs of the particular target or lower costs in serving the target, and may even achieve both. Even though the focus strategy does not achieve low cost or differentiation from

the perspective of the market as a whole, it does achieve one or both in its narrow market target.

Often the focus strategy of filling a limited need or offering a product that only a few will purchase, allows for products to be priced at a premium since the firm is satisfying a small group of consumers. Most successful midsize growth companies are leaders in market niches, often in markets they have created through innovation. Such niche strategies are often born of necessity, since these firms lack the resources to fight openly, they succeed by seeking out niches that are too small to be of interest to larger competitors. Alternatively, some firms select niches that can be sustained and protected by serving customers extremely well.

21.2. Porter's Five Forces.

Different industries can sustain different levels of profitability, partly because of industry structure. Michael Porter provided a framework that models an industry as being influenced by five forces. In order to develop an edge over rival firms, this model is used to better understand the industry context in which the firm operates.

•Rivalry

In the traditional economic model, competition among rival firms drives profits to zero. But competition is not perfect and firms are not unsophisticated passive price takers. They strive for a competitive advantage over their rivals.

If rivalry among firms in an industry is low, the industry is considered to be disciplined. A larger number of firms increases rivalry because more firms must compete for the same customers and resources. The rivalry intensifies if the firms have similar market share, leading to no struggle for market leadership.

Slow market growth causes firms to fight for market share. In a growing market firms are able to improve revenues simply because of the expanding market. High fixed costs result in an economy of scale that increases rivalry. Low switching costs increase rivalry. When a customer can freely switch from one product to another there is a greater struggle to capture customers. Low levels of product differentiation are associated with higher levels of rivalry. Brand identification, on the other hand, tends to constrain rivalry. Strategic stakes are high when a firm is losing market position or has potential for great gains – this intensifies rivalry.

High exit barriers place a high cost on abandoning the product. High exit barriers cause a firm to remain in an industry, even when the venture is not profitable. When the plant and equipment required for manufacturing a product are highly specialised, these assets cannot easily be sold to other buyers in another industry. A diversity of rivals with different cultures and philosophies makes an industry unstable.

•Threat of substitutes

In Porter's model, substitute products refer to products in other industries. A threat of substitutes exists when a product's demand is affected by the price change of a substitute product. A product's price elasticity is affected by substitute

products – as more substitutes become available, the demand becomes more elastic since customers have more alternatives. A close substitute product constrains the ability of firms in an industry to raise prices. The competition engendered by a threat of substitutes comes from products outside the industry.

- Buyer power

It is the impact that customers have on a producing industry. When buyer power is strong, the relationship to the producing industry is near to a monopsony – a market in which there are many suppliers and one buyer. Under such market conditions, the buyer sets the price. In reality few pure monopsonies exist, but frequently there is some asymmetry between a producing industry and buyers.

- Supplier power

A producing industry requires raw materials – labour, components and other supplies. This requirement leads to buyer-supplier relationships between the industry and the firms that provide it the raw materials used to create products. Suppliers, if powerful, can exert an influence on the producing industry, such as selling raw materials at a high price to capture some of the industry's profits.

- Barriers to entry/ Threat of entry

It is not only incumbent rivals that pose a threat to firms in an industry, the possibility that new firms may enter the industry also affects competition. In theory, any firm should be able to enter and exit a market, and if free entry and exit exists, then profits always should be nominal. In reality, however, industries possess characteristics that protect the high profit levels of firms in the market and inhibit additional rivals from entering the market. These are barriers to entry. Barriers to entry reduce the rate of entry of new firms, thus maintaining a level of profits for those already in the industry.

Barriers to exist work similarly to barriers to entry. Exit barriers limit the ability of a firm to leave the market and can exacerbate rivalry – unable to leave the industry, a firm must compete.

22. Making presentations.

22.1. The art of making presentations. Communication skills needed to make an impact.

- Psychology of the audience. Integration with the audience. Voice. Eye contact.

22.2. Presentation structure. Presentation tips.

- Have a beginning, middle and an end. Use short sentences.

- Consider: who are the audience? What points do I want to get across? How much time have I got? What visual aids are available?

- Introduction.

Welcome the audience. Say what your presentation will be about: the aims and objectives. The introduction should catch the attention.

- The middle part.

Outline your argument or develop your story. In five minutes you will only have time for two or three main points and allow everything else to support these. List your main headings and any key phrases you will use. Don't try to say pack too much content in or you will talk non-stop trying to get all your content and the audience will switch off with information overload long before the end.

- Conclusion.

Briefly summarise your main points. Answer any questions. Thank the audience for listening. Look at the audience again, smile and slow down.

- In preparing your talk, first jot down any interesting points you want to include in your talk, put these in a logical sequence, then try to find an interesting title, and a good introduction and ending.

- Know your subject. Know your audience. Know your presentation aids. Know your place. Vary the nature of the content. Give yourself enough time.

5. Планы практических занятий

#№	ТЕМА ЗАНЯТИЙ	ТЕМАТИЧЕСКОЕ СОДЕРЖАНИЕ ЗАНЯТИЙ
1	Introduction to the module.	<p>Developing cultural awareness. Discussing cultural issues. Corporate cultures. Screening of students levels. Grammar and reading tests.</p> <p>Основная литература: 1. Дворецкая О. Б. Business English for Schools. / О. Б. Дворецкая, Н. Ю. Казырбаева, Н. В. Новикова. – Обнинск: Издательство Титул, 2009. – 124 с.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература: 1. Dean M. Test your. Reading. Penguin English Guides: Pearson Education Limited, UK, 2003. 2. Fried-Booth D. First Certificate Tests. Plus 2.: Longman, UK, 2005.</p>
2	What is “management”?	<p>Management. What is a manager? Types of managers. What do managers do? Four major functions.</p> <p>Основная литература: 1. Strydom J. Principles of Business Management. Oxford University Press, 2012.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература: 1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.</p>
		<p>What is “supervision”? Difference between managers and leaders.</p> <p>Основная литература: 1. Strydom J. Principles of Business Management. Oxford University Press, 2012.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p>

		<p>1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.</p>
3	Banks and banking.	<p>Structure and function of a bank. Types of banks.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Cecchetti S., Schoenholtz K. Money, Banking and Financial Markets. McGraw-Hill, 2010.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.</p>
		<p>What is banking? Business banking.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Cecchetti S., Schoenholtz K. Money, Banking and Financial Markets. McGraw-Hill, 2010.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.</p>
3		<p>Retail banks. Building societies. Investment banks.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Шевелева С. А. Английский язык для экономистов. Грамматика: учебное пособие/ С. А. Шевелева. - М.: Проспект, 2014. - 336 с.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров:</p>

		<p>Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.</p> <p>2. Федорова Л. М. Деловой английский: 30 уроков для студентов-экономистов. / Федорова Л.М., Никитаев С.Н., Лаврененко Л.Я. – М.: Гардарики, 2001. – 222 с.</p>
		<p>Investing institutions.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Алексеева С. А. Английский язык: фондовый рынок = Englisch: Stock-Market: учебно-методический комплекс/ С. А. Алексеева, А. В. Скурова. – М.: Изд-во МГИМО-Университет, 2010. – 283 с.</p> <p>2. Cecchetti S., Schoenholtz K. Money, Banking and Financial Markets. McGraw-Hill, 2010.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Федорова Л. М. Деловой английский: 30 уроков для студентов-экономистов. / Федорова Л.М., Никитаев С.Н., Лаврененко Л.Я. – М.: Гардарики, 2001. – 222 с.</p>
		<p>Britain's banking and financial institutions. The Bank of England.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Cecchetti S., Schoenholtz K. Money, Banking and Financial Markets. McGraw-Hill, 2010.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Федорова Л. М. Деловой английский: 30 уроков для студентов-экономистов. / Федорова Л.М., Никитаев С.Н., Лаврененко Л.Я. – М.: Гардарики, 2001. – 222 с.</p>

		<p>Financial futures and traded options. Financial markets. Exchange markets.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Алексеева С. А. Английский язык: фондовый рынок = Englisch: Stock-Market: учебно-методический комплекс/ С. А. Алексеева, А. В. Скурова. – М.: Изд-во МГИМО-Университет, 2010. – 283 с. 2. Cecchetti S., Schoenholtz K. Money, Banking and Financial Markets. McGraw-Hill, 2010. <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Федорова Л. М. Деловой английский: 30 уроков для студентов-экономистов. / Федорова Л.М., Никитаев С.Н., Лаврененко Л.Я. – М.: Гардарики, 2001. – 222 с.
4	Forms of business organisation.	<p>Sole proprietorship. Partnership.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strydom J. Principles of Business Management. Oxford University Press, 2012. <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.
		<p>Corporation. Board of directors.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strydom J. Principles of Business Management. Oxford University Press, 2012. <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.
5	Personell management.	<p>What is personnel management? Hiring of</p>

		<p>employees.</p> <p>Основная литература: 1. Mathis R., Jackson J. Human Resource Management. Cengage Learning, 2011.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература: 1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.</p>
6	The recruitment process.	<p>Hiring new employees. How to select the “right” person.</p> <p>Основная литература: 1. Mathis R., Jackson J. Human Resource Management. Cengage Learning, 2011.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература: 1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.</p>
		<p>Skills needed. Job description.</p> <p>Основная литература: 1. Дворецкая О. Б. Business English for Schools. / О. Б. Дворецкая, Н. Ю. Казырбаева, Н. В. Новикова. – Обнинск: Издательство Титул, 2009. – 124 с.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература: 1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.</p>
7	Getting a job.	<p>Looking for a job. Application forms.</p> <p>Основная литература: 1. Дворецкая О. Б. Business English for Schools. / О. Б. Дворецкая, Н. Ю.</p>

		<p>Казырбаева, Н. В. Новикова. – Обнинск: Издательство Титул, 2009. – 124 с.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.</p>
		<p>Job interview. Types of interviews.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Дворецкая О. Б. Business English for Schools. / О. Б. Дворецкая, Н. Ю. Казырбаева, Н. В. Новикова. – Обнинск: Издательство Титул, 2009. – 124 с.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.</p>
8	Business correspondence.	<p>Formal business letters. Letter of application.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Дворецкая О. Б. Business English for Schools. / О. Б. Дворецкая, Н. Ю. Казырбаева, Н. В. Новикова. – Обнинск: Издательство Титул, 2009. – 124 с.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. English for Managers. Английский язык для менеджеров: Учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян. - М.: Проспект, 2007. - 352 с.</p> <p>2. Geffner A. Business English: The Writing Skills You Need for Today's Workplace. Barron's Ed, 2010.</p>
		<p>Telephone conversations.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p>

		<p>1. Дворецкая О. Б. Business English for Schools. / О. Б. Дворецкая, Н. Ю. Казырбаева, Н. В. Новикова. – Обнинск: Издательство Титул, 2009. – 124 с.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Федорова Л. М. Деловой английский: 30 уроков для студентов-экономистов. / Федорова Л.М., Никитаев С.Н., Лаврененко Л.Я. – М.: Гардарики, 2001. – 222 с.</p>
9	Motivation theories.	<p>Definitions. Maslow's hierarchy of needs.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Пусенкова Н. Н. Английский язык: практический курс для решения бизнес-задач/ Н. Н. Пусенкова. - М.: Эксмо, 2006. - 448 с.</p>
		<p>McGregor's theory X and theory Y. McClelland's learned needs theory.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Пусенкова Н. Н. Английский язык: практический курс для решения бизнес-задач/ Н. Н. Пусенкова. - М.: Эксмо, 2006. - 448 с.</p>
		<p>Equity theory. Expectancy theory.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Пусенкова Н. Н. Английский язык: практический курс для решения бизнес-задач/ Н. Н. Пусенкова. - М.: Эксмо, 2006. - 448 с.</p>
10	Corporate culture.	<p>How to achieve excellence by managing the culture in your company.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Пусенкова Н. Н. Английский язык: практический курс для решения бизнес-задач/ Н. Н. Пусенкова. - М.: Эксмо, 2006. -</p>

		448 с.
		<p>Culture types.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Пусенкова Н. Н. Английский язык: практический курс для решения бизнес-задач/ Н. Н. Пусенкова. - М.: Эксмо, 2006. - 448 с.</p>
11	Marketing management.	<p>What is marketing? How to develop marketing concept.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Sheehan В. Basics Marketing: Marketing Management. AVA Publishing SA, 2011.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. Английский язык для экономистов: учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян, П. И. Коваленко, Ю. А. Кудряшова. - М.: Проспект, 2008. - 368 с.</p>
		<p>Marketing Concept. Improving Brand Image.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Sheehan В. Basics Marketing: Marketing Management. AVA Publishing SA, 2011.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. Английский язык для экономистов: учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян, П. И. Коваленко, Ю. А. Кудряшова. - М.: Проспект, 2008. - 368 с.</p>
12	Advertising.	<p>Basic definitions of advertising, promotion, public relations & publicity, sales.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Belch G., Belch M. Advertising and Promotion: An Integrated Marketing</p>

		<p>Communications Perspective. McGraw-Hill, 2012.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. Английский язык для экономистов: учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян, П. И. Коваленко, Ю. А. Кудряшова. - М.: Проспект, 2008. - 368 с.</p>
		<p>Major methods of advertising and promotion. Advertising mediums.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Belch G., Belch M. Advertising and Promotion: An Integrated Marketing Communications Perspective. McGraw-Hill, 2012.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. Английский язык для экономистов: учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян, П. И. Коваленко, Ю. А. Кудряшова. - М.: Проспект, 2008. - 368 с.</p>
13	Business documents. Contracts.	<p>What is a contract? Types of contracts. Contract sample.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Clarkson K., Miller R., Cross F. Business Law: Text and Cases: Legal, Ethical, Global, and Corporate Environment. Cengage Learning, 2012.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. Английский язык для экономистов: учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян, П. И. Коваленко, Ю. А. Кудряшова. - М.: Проспект, 2008. - 368 с.</p>
14	Internet and E-Business.	<p>The origins of the Internet. Creating a web-based business. Selling online.</p>

		<p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Агабекян И. П. Английский язык для экономистов: учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян, П. И. Коваленко, Ю. А. Кудряшова. - М.: Проспект, 2008. - 368 с. 2. Groucutt J., Griseri P. Mastering e-Business. Palgrave, 2004.
15	Types of economies.	<p>Economies and Manufacturing. Allocation of products and resources. Transitional economy.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sloman J., Norris K., Garratt D. Principles of Economics. Pearson Education, 2010. 2. Gaspar J., Bierman L., Arreola-Risa A., Kolari J., Hise R. Introduction to Global Business. Cengage Learning, 2013.
16	Emerging markets.	<p>Terminology. BRICs. MINTs. Characteristics.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sloman J., Norris K., Garratt D. Principles of Economics. Pearson Education, 2010. <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Пусенкова Н. Н. Английский язык: практический курс для решения бизнес-задач/ Н. Н. Пусенкова. - М.: Эксмо, 2006. - 448 с.
17	Money.	<p>Sources of money. Trade credit and equity capital.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Алексеева С. А. Английский язык:

		<p>фондовый рынок = Englisch: Stock-Market: учебно-методический комплекс/ С. А. Алексеева, А. В. Скурова. – М.: Изд-во МГИМО-Университет, 2010. – 283 с.</p> <p>2. Cecchetti S., Schoenholtz K. Money, Banking and Financial Markets. McGraw-Hill, 2010.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. Английский язык для экономистов: учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян, П. И. Коваленко, Ю. А. Кудряшова. - М.: Проспект, 2008. - 368 с.</p>
117	Money.	<p>Debt types and availability.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <p>1. Cecchetti S., Schoenholtz K. Money, Banking and Financial Markets. McGraw-Hill, 2010.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. Английский язык для экономистов: учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян, П. И. Коваленко, Ю. А. Кудряшова. - М.: Проспект, 2008. - 368 с.</p>
18	General business planning.	<p>What is a business plan? Preparing a business plan.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Агабекян И. П. Английский язык для экономистов: учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян, П. И. Коваленко, Ю. А. Кудряшова. - М.: Проспект, 2008. - 368 с.</p> <p>2. Haberberg A., Rieple A. Strategic Management: Theory and Application. Oxford University Press, 2008.</p>
		The business planning process.

		<p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Агабекян И. П. Английский язык для экономистов: учебное пособие/ И. П. Агабекян, П. И. Коваленко, Ю. А. Кудряшова. - М.: Проспект, 2008. - 368 с. 2. Haberberg A., Rieple A. Strategic Management: Theory and Application. Oxford University Press, 2008.
19	Public sector management.	<p>Introduction and historical context.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Шевелева С. А. Английский язык для экономистов. Грамматика: учебное пособие/ С. А. Шевелева. - М.: Проспект, 2014. - 336 с.
		<p>Public sector.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Шевелева С. А. Английский язык для экономистов. Грамматика: учебное пособие/ С. А. Шевелева. - М.: Проспект, 2014. - 336 с.
		<p>Public sector governance.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Шевелева С. А. Английский язык для экономистов. Грамматика: учебное пособие/ С. А. Шевелева. - М.: Проспект, 2014. - 336 с.
20	Management innovations.	<p>Delivering superior shareholder value.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Пусенкова Н. Н. Английский язык:

		<p>практический курс для решения бизнес-задач/ Н. Н. Пусенкова. - М.: Эксмо, 2006. - 448 с.</p> <p>2. Haberberg A., Rieple A. Strategic Management: Theory and Application. Oxford University Press, 2008.</p>
		<p>Business rationale of value-based management</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Пусенкова Н. Н. Английский язык: практический курс для решения бизнес-задач/ Н. Н. Пусенкова. - М.: Эксмо, 2006. - 448 с.</p> <p>2. Haberberg A., Rieple A. Strategic Management: Theory and Application. Oxford University Press, 2008.</p>
		<p>Measuring value creation.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Пусенкова Н. Н. Английский язык: практический курс для решения бизнес-задач/ Н. Н. Пусенкова. - М.: Эксмо, 2006. - 448 с.</p> <p>2. Haberberg A., Rieple A. Strategic Management: Theory and Application. Oxford University Press, 2008.</p>
		<p>A case study in delivering shareholder value – ВР.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <p>1. Пусенкова Н. Н. Английский язык: практический курс для решения бизнес-задач/ Н. Н. Пусенкова. - М.: Эксмо, 2006. - 448 с.</p>
21	Industry.	Industry analysis. Porter's generic strategies.

		<p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Пусенкова Н. Н. Английский язык: практический курс для решения бизнес-задач/ Н. Н. Пусенкова. - М.: Эксмо, 2006. - 448 с. 2. Haberberg A., Rieple A. Strategic Management: Theory and Application. Oxford University Press, 2008.
		<p>Porter's five forces.</p> <p>Дополнительная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Пусенкова Н. Н. Английский язык: практический курс для решения бизнес-задач/ Н. Н. Пусенкова. - М.: Эксмо, 2006. - 448 с. 2. Haberberg A., Rieple A. Strategic Management: Theory and Application. Oxford University Press, 2008.
22	Making presentations.	<p>The art of making presentations. Communication skills needed to make an impact. Presentation structure. Presentation tips.</p> <p>Основная литература:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Дворецкая О. Б. Business English for Schools. / О. Б. Дворецкая, Н. Ю. Казырбаева, Н. В. Новикова. – Обнинск: Издательство Титул, 2009. – 124 с. 2. Кузьменкова Ю. Б. Academic project presentations: Teacher's book: Презентация научных проектов на английском языке: книга для преподавателя: учебное пособие/ Ю. Б. Кузьменкова. – М.: Изд-во Московского ун-та, 2012. – 140 с.

6. Самостоятельная работа студентов.

Особое внимание уделяется самостоятельной работе студентов. Эта работа призвана обеспечить:

1) осознанную и систематическую отработку языкового и речевого учебного материала;

2) выработку навыков восприятия и анализа аутентичных иноязычных текстов и отработку формируемых стратегий работы с ними, как на уровне рецепции, так и на уровне продукции;

3) формирование навыков критического мышления, аргументации, поиска путей самостоятельного решения поставленной коммуникативной и/или исследовательской задачи;

4) развитие и совершенствование творческих способностей при самостоятельном изучении и решении коммуникативной задачи;

Для решения первой задачи студентам предлагаются разные типы языковых и речевых заданий, тесты, направленные на отработку изучаемого учебного материала. Результаты работы проверяются и обсуждаются на практических и семинарских занятиях.

Для решения второй задачи предусмотрено широкое использование учебных и аутентичных печатных, аудио и видео текстов разных типов и жанров, направленные на алгоритмизацию действий, связанных с пониманием текстовой информации в нужном объеме для решения коммуникативной задачи.

Для реализации третьей и четвертой задачи предполагается регулярное использование исследовательских форм работы, кейс методов, связанных с необходимостью самостоятельного поиска, систематизации необходимой информации, определении степени ее достоверности, выбора путей решения поставленной проблемы и аргументации собственной позиции по рассматриваемой ситуации/ проблеме.

Проверка выполнения подобных заданий осуществляется как на семинарских занятиях, посредством устных выступлений/ презентаций студентов и их коллективного обсуждения, так и с помощью письменных самостоятельных (контрольных) работ.

7. Образовательные технологии, используемые в преподавании дисциплины

В преподавании данной дисциплины широко используются интерактивные методы обучения, при которых сам процесс передачи информации построен на принципе активного двухстороннего взаимодействия преподавателя и студента. Таким образом, при изучении учебной дисциплины “Иностранный язык в профессиональной деятельности”, получении знаний и формировании компетенций используются следующие образовательные технологии при проведении практических (семинарских) занятий:

- дискуссия (в рамках которой студенты высказывают свое мнение по проблеме, заданной преподавателем);
- дискуссия групповая (с целью интенсивного и продуктивного решения групповой задачи);
- доклад (презентация, представляющая собой развернутое изложение определенной темы или вопроса программы);
- тест (компетентностно-ориентированные тесты на оценку, позволяющий проверить знания студентов по пройденным темам).

8. Критерии оценки результатов обучения

Критерии оценки результатов обучения представляет собой дифференциацию оценки знаний студента по балльной рейтинговой системе.

Профессиональный уровень “5” (отлично)	85-100	Задание хорошо структурировано; полное понимание исследуемого вопроса; полный и глубокий анализ конкретного вопроса; критическое использование теории и рекомендуемого материала для чтения; расширение и углубление лекционного материала; аргументированная логика; продуманность, творческий и оригинальный подход к освещению вопроса; иллюстративность массой примеров и данных.
Продвинутый уровень “4” (хорошо)	70-84	Хорошая организация, но ряд несущественных упущений в плане содержания; умение аргументировать и использовать примеры; некоторое расширение и углубление лекционного материала; использование соответствующих концептуальных моделей.
Базовый уровень “3” (удовлетворительно)	60-69	Удовлетворительный уровень, есть ряд существенных упущений; слабые места в стилевом оформлении, структуре и анализе; в основном базируется на лекционном материале; информация представлена четко, но отсутствует оригинальность в ее изложении.
Минимальный уровень “2” (неудовлетворительно)	35-59	Неудовлетворительное выполнение; частичное понимание проблемы; несмотря на наличие ряда весьма удачных мест, работа характеризуется отсутствием тщательного анализа; неадекватность примеров.
Минимальный уровень “1” (неудовлетворительно)	0-34	Отсутствие понимания вопроса, работа не структурирована и не соответствует требованиям; наличие серьезных ошибок и несоответствий; отказ отвечать.

9. Методические материалы, определяющие процедуры оценивания результатов освоения программы дисциплины

Текущий контроль успеваемости студентов.

Текущий контроль успеваемости – это установление уровня знаний, умений, владений студентов по отношению к объему и содержанию разделов (модулей, частей) учебных дисциплин, представленных и утвержденных в учебных планах и учебных программах.

Текущий контроль успеваемости осуществляется через комплекс испытаний студентов в виде устных и письменных опросов, коллоквиумов, контрольных работ, проверки домашних заданий, защиты отчетов, компьютерного и бланочного тестирования. Возможны и другие виды контроля по усмотрению кафедры, обеспечивающей учебный процесс по данной дисциплине, в том числе, контроль посещаемости занятий.

В систему текущего контроля рекомендуется вводить необязательные мероприятия, позволяющие повысить семестровый рейтинг, например, участие в олимпиадах, научное исследование, участие в научных конференциях с докладом по теме изучаемого предмета и т.д. с назначением определенных баллов, прибавляемых к семестровому рейтингу по дисциплине. При этом рейтинг не должен превышать 100 баллов.

Для текущего контроля успеваемости на кафедрах, осуществляющих учебный процесс, создаются и периодически актуализируются банки тестов, заданий, программы компьютерных проверок и т.п. материалы.

Виды и сроки проведения мероприятий текущего контроля устанавливаются рабочей программой учебной дисциплины.

Промежуточная аттестация.

Промежуточная аттестация студентов – это установление уровня знаний, умений, владений обучаемых, как показателя уровня освоения требуемых компетенций, по отношению к объему и содержанию учебной дисциплины.

Оценка промежуточной аттестации студента по дисциплине формируется на основании семестрового рейтинга текущего контроля и рейтинга экзаменационного испытания. Экзаменационное испытание проводится в сроки, устанавливаемые в соответствии с утвержденными учебными планами, календарными учебными графиками и приказами.

Преподаватель имеет право принять у студента экзамен только при наличии первичных документов по учету результатов промежуточной аттестации. Первичными документами являются экзаменационные ведомости, индивидуальные разрешения на сдачу экзамена. Все первичные документы должны передаваться в деканат преподавателем лично не позднее следующего дня после проведения испытания промежуточной аттестации.

По результатам промежуточной аттестации студенту, кроме итогового рейтинга по 100-балльной шкале, выставляется итоговая отметка: «отлично», «хорошо», «удовлетворительно», «неудовлетворительно».

При аттестации на «отлично», «хорошо» и «удовлетворительно» студент считается получившим положительную оценку и прошедшим промежуточную аттестацию. Положительные оценки и соответствующие рейтинги заносятся в первичные документы и зачетные книжки студентов. Записи в зачетных книжках студентов должны осуществляться только после оформления первичных документов.

Оценки «неудовлетворительно» проставляются только в первичные документы.

Неудовлетворительные результаты промежуточной аттестации по дисциплине или непрохождение промежуточной аттестации в установленные сроки признаются академической задолженностью. Студенты обязаны ликвидировать академическую задолженность.

Виды и сроки проведения мероприятий промежуточной аттестации устанавливаются рабочей программой учебной дисциплины.

10. Комплект оценочных средств по дисциплине

Simple Contract

{Name}, known as "First Party" agrees to enter into this contract with {Name}, known as "Second Party" on {date}.

This agreement is based on the following provisions:

1. {provision}
2. {provision}
3. {provision}

Furthermore, the First Party agrees:

{other items applicable to the First Party}

and the Second Party agrees:

{other items applicable to the Second Party} .

Invalidity or unenforceability of one or more provisions of this agreement shall not affect any other provision of this agreement.

This agreement is subject to the laws and regulations of the state of {State}.

Signed:

{First Party Name}

{First Party Signature}

{Second Party Name}

Signature}

{Second Party

Employment Contract

This agreement is made and takes effect on MM/DD/YYYY between (company), a (State) corporation, hereafter called "Company" and (employee), hereafter called "Employee".

Witnesseth:

1. The Company hereby employs Employee for a term commencing on the date of this agreement and Employee hereby accepts such employment.
2. During the Employee's employment he/she will:
 - A. Devote such time and effort as may be reasonably required by the Company to perform his/her duties.
 - B. Not engage in any other employment or business activity without the Company's written consent.
 - C. Perform such duties as may reasonably be requires of him/her by the Company.
3. For services rendered by the Employee, the Company shall pay him/her as follows:
 - A. The annual sum of \$X, calculated as follows (insert compensation formula)

B (Optional) A bonus of (\$X, Y% of sales, etc.) payable (monthly, quarterly, annually) based upon (performance goals)

C. (Optional) Non-payroll benefits to include health insurance, travel and business entertainment expenses, and other items specified in Attachment A.

4. Employee agrees that during his/her term of employment by the Company and for a period of one year after termination of such employment, he/she will not act as an employee, agent, broker, shareholder, or otherwise engage in any business selling products similar to those customarily sold by the Company within the States of (specify).

5. Employee understands that he/she will acquire confidential information of business value to the Company during the course of his/her employment. Employee hereby agrees not to divulge such confidential information to any other party, or to use such information for his/her own profit except in performance of employment activities beneficial to the Company.

6. This agreement is an employment-at-will agreement. The Company may, at any time, with or without cause, discharge the Employee by giving him/her written notice of such discharge.

7. Employee's employment shall terminate upon his/her death; inability or failure to perform the duties required by his/her employment; or his/her written notice of resignation given to the Company.

8. Following termination of employment, all obligations under this agreement shall end except for the provisions of items 4 and 5, and any causes of action which may arise from the circumstances of the termination.

9. This agreement constitutes the entire agreement between Company and Employee.

10. This agreement shall be interpreted and, if necessary, adjudicated in accordance with the laws of (State, County).

11. Until written notice of other address(es) are exchanged between the parties, all notices legally required shall be deemed delivered by the sending of registered mail to the following addresses:

Company address

Employee address

In witness to their agreement to these terms, Company's representative and Employee affix their signatures below.

BP Case Study.

British Petroleum has a worldwide reputation for commitment to knowledge management (KM).

The knowledge management methodology pioneered in BP's is encompassed by a simple framework, which describes a learning cycle – before, during and after any event – which is supported by simple process tools. The lessons arising from that learning loop are agreed and distilled by a community of practice. Finally, the

lessons – both specific and generic are incorporated into "Knowledge Assets" on the corporate intranet.

Benefits. The business benefits of applying a consistent approach to knowledge management have been significant. BP business managers attributed hundreds of millions of dollars of added value as a direct result of using this approach.

A practical example of this has been in the cost reduction in the construction of European retail sites.

At the beginning of 1998 a challenge is set of reducing the build costs of retail sites in Europe by 10%. The Alliance (a joint venture between BP and Bovis) is responsible for the management of these activities in Europe. The Alliance was engaged in the benefits of knowledge management and invited the BP KM Team to help them achieve this outcome. Step change in costs was delivered in 1998 (savings of \$74 million) due to the harvesting and sharing of knowledge between the project engineers in Europe. This gave BP Downstream Retail competitive advantage in the Mature European Marketplace. This knowledge is now also being leveraged on a global scale by project engineers in Venezuela, China, Poland, and Japan.

Similar examples of increased performance have come from BP's KM application in speeding up business restructuring, developing new oil & gas fields, improving plant productivity and accelerating new retail market entry.

The Role of top leaderships. John Browne, former CEO of British Petroleum is an outspoken enthusiast of the power of corporate learning. From his perspective, learning provides the catalyst and the intellectual resource to create a competitive advantage. "In order to generate extraordinary value for shareholders, a company has to learn better than its competitors and apply that knowledge throughout its businesses faster and more widely than they do. The way we see it, anyone in the organization who is not directly accountable for making a profit should be involved in creating and distributing knowledge that the company can use to make a profit," says John Browne.

Browne has developed an action plan for competitive corporate learning to spur changes in people's attitudes and ultimately formal and informal rules that govern the organization's behavior. "The wonderful thing about knowledge is that it is relatively inexpensive to replicate if you can capture it. Most activities or tasks are not onetime events. Whether it's drilling a well or conducting a transaction at a service station, we do the same things repeatedly. Our philosophy is fairly simple: Every time we do something again, we should do it better than the last time," says John Browne.

Virtual Teamwork Project. BP Exploration (BPX) was reorganized into 42 separate business units. Then, BP launched the Virtual Teamwork Project (VTP), its first major KM initiative. The aim of VTP was to encourage the sharing of knowledge and to motivate the business units to utilize IT tools to improve their business. The VTP was designed to enable employees to share task-specific

knowledge and develop partnership relationships with the employees of other units. Later the company launched a series of KM initiatives, which yielded excellent financial results for its business operations. Following the successful implementation of VTP, BP launched various KM tools such as Peer Assist, After Action Review, BP Connect, Retrospect and Human portal.

Knowledge Management Team (KMT). BP became one of the first few companies to treat KM as a separate discipline when it established a Knowledge Management Team (KMT) in 1997. John Browne, British Petroleum's has a personal interest in the subject, and established KMT to champion and harness the benefits of organizational learning both within and across its flattened hierarchy.

Peer Groups. In order to integrate the efforts of the business units engaged in the same business activities, they were organized into peer groups. They met periodically to discuss the performance of their businesses. The purpose of the reorganization was to facilitate knowledge sharing and build synergies, i.e. to exchange knowledge and synergize creative capabilities and expertise of the employees working in different business units of BP.

Enhancing Organizational Capability. To enhance organizational capability, BP reduced or removed central functions, and business units were empowered to chose their own routes to implement changes. A flat organization was established. The number of management levels was reduced from 13 to 5.

MegaChange – a New Capability-based Approach. MegaChange is a total systemwide cultural transformation of your organization. It means designing and transforming organizations based on assumptions of human capability rather than limitations using the tools of the modern resource-based management model.

Entrepreneurial Leadership of Transformational Change. One of the most striking attributes of leaders of successful transformational change efforts is their entrepreneurial spirit and behavior. These individuals think and act like heads of their own businesses and are able to inspire and direct others to act in the same manner. Entrepreneurial leaders are part visionary, part role model for the new values and behaviors and part crusader. They frequently emerge from lower levels of the organization, from the business, or from other organizations.

When John Browne became head of BP Exploration he was determined to transform the company from underperforming bureaucracy to global leader. Although BP was successful, the world was changing, and the business had to become more adaptive to keep pace with new rapidly changing economy.

To enhance organizational capability, BP reduced or removed central functions, and business units were empowered to chose their own routes to implement changes. BP's organizational structure has evolved significantly towards an entrepreneurial, empowered "federation" of 100 business units. A flat organization was established. The number of management levels was reduced from 13 to 5.

The Browne's strategy for BP included: entrepreneurial design driven by consistent decentralization; single common strategy; a knowledge network of peers across the business units.

As a start of creating more value, both internally and externally, Browne opened up the organization, decentralized it, established information sharing and knowledge management networks and developed an action plan for competitive corporate learning. To find a natural equilibrium between creative chaos and order and free the energy in BP, Browne moved the organization to the situation that was at the edge of chaos. He created room different thinking. The company adopted new business thinking and a new relationship to its business ecosystem. New approaches to developments, new working relationships with contractors and new alliances have been adopted. Browne's strategy included also process improvement, major outsourcing, and asset sales. Most importantly, it included total changes in BP corporate culture.

As a result of corporate transformation, BP increased the value of its share price by a factor greater than 10 in a period when other companies were seeing marginal improvements in their share prices. The overall benefit of company-wide transformation was measured in billions of dollars.

Test. Improving Brand Image.

Susan: George, I was wondering if we could discuss our new marketing strategy for a moment.

George: Certainly Susan. You know that I'm working with Anne on changing our image, don't you?

Susan: Yes, I think you'll make an excellent team. How do you feel about the merchandise we're pushing?

George: In my opinion, the products we're offering are fine. However, I think we should concentrate on expanding our market share in the young adult market.

Susan: I totally agree. Who buys more products than twenty somethings?

George: Exactly. We haven't been very successful in our branding efforts, have we?

Susan: I'm not keen on changing our target audience, but we certainly have to improve our brand image.

George: If we want to edge out our main competitor, we're going to have to target customers at a younger age.

Susan: Maybe, but we also have to keep our competitive edge in quality.

George: Why don't we all get together for a discussion?

Susan: Can you let me know when your next meeting with Anne is going to be? I'd like to go over some of our restructuring ideas with both of you.

George: As a matter of fact, we'll be meeting this afternoon. Let's meet at four, shall we?

Susan: I'm afraid I already have an appointment then. Do you think we could meet earlier?

George: Well, I'll have to check with Anne.

Multiple Choice Comprehension Questions

1. Susan was aware that George is going to be working with Anne.
 - true
 - false
 - doesn't say
2. What does George think Sport Outfitters needs to concentrate on?
 - changing merchandise
 - expanding market share
 - improving quality
3. What has Sport Outfitters been unsuccessful in doing?
 - branding efforts
 - developing new merchandise
 - opening outlets
4. What is Susan not keen on?
 - changing publicity campaigns
 - improving branding
 - targeting younger customers
5. Why can't Susan meet with George and Anne at four?
 - she has to travel this afternoon
 - she has an appointment
 - she has the afternoon off

Business game. Marketing.

This exercise tests your decision making, analytical reasoning skills and your ability to put forward a persuasive case - all important management skills. You should study the problem which follows and produce recommendations for action and the reasons behind your decision. This is a group exercise with your groupmates with each candidate given the role information for one manager.

The case. Kent Airlines are considering adding a newly discovered tropical island to their list of destinations. The island is 3,000 miles away in mid-Atlantic. The islanders have a potent drink called 'OROS' which they think will go down well in European markets and consequently are building a new international airport to expand the drinks and holiday business. The name of the island is Atlantis.

A group of eight managers has been gathered to decide whether the destination is viable, what type of aircraft to use and what profits might be expected.

You have 45 minutes to discuss the issue before the Marketing Director arrives to hear you put your case to him.

If you decide to go ahead then:

- What sort of customers would you try to attract?
- What 'message' would you try to put across to them? Design a poster or slogan (15 words maximum) to do this.
- How would you publicise the destination?
- How would you deal with competitors (other airlines)?

The team is:

- | | | |
|----------------------|---------|--------------------------|
| • FUTURES
MANAGER | AUDIT | • ENGINEERING
MANAGER |
| • MARKET RESEARCHER | | • LOGISTICS MANAGER |
| • PRICING
MARKET | MANAGER | • PLANNING MANAGER |
| • CARGO MANAGER | MANAGER | • SCHEDULING |

Cargo manager. We could probably make £10,000 profit per trip using a 747 for the transport of "OROS" or £8,000 using a Tristar in addition to passenger income.

Engineering manager. We would need to station one overseas engineer permanently on Atlantis. We would also need to have spare parts such as tyres and engine components available there. We have a 747 available for a Thursday flight only and no other days, or a Tristar Series 200 available for a Saturday flight.

Logistics manager. The costs of fuel, engineering, food for passengers, salaries, loading and unloading and refueling etc. would be £80,000 for a 747 and £65,000 for a Tristar.

Futures audit manager. The politics of island seem stable. The island will get enough money from selling "OROS" to pay for the building of the airport and hotels.

Researcher. The island has an excellent climate and good beaches, but there is a lack of nightlife at present. There is great interest from both leisure and business customers in going to the island. A Saturday departure would give us sufficient demand for us to use a Boeing 747, but departures on other days would generate a much lower demand and make the Boeing unprofitable to use.

Pricing manager. We would need to put on flights with special cheap rate tourist fares as well as the standard business fare, but using these we could probably generate £90,000 of income per trip using a 747 or £72,000 using a Tristar.

Marketing planning manager. This can be a profitable route looked at in both the short term and the long term.

Scheduling manager. The flight could depart at 21.00 hours on Saturday if an aircraft is available: this would be convenient for passengers and would also fit in with loading, catering and engineering staff.

Available aircraft.

Boeing 747 (Jumbo Jet).

On long haul routes where traffic levels are heavy, the 747 continues to be the mainstay of the fleet. Its exceptionally low fuel-consumption gives it a very low seat/mile costs.

Routes: Long haul, mainly to North America, Caribbean, Africa, the Orient and Australasia.

Capacity: 22 First Class, 104 Business, 234 Economy (Total 360) passengers and approximately 16 tonnes of cargo on a 2,000 mile sector.

Seating: First Class - Sleeper seats are in pairs, with a 62 ins pitch, Business - two rows of two abreast in upper deck and three rows of two abreast on the main deck, with a 36 ins pitch; Economy - mostly two rows of three abreast and one of four abreast, with a 31 ins pitch.

Engines: Four Rolls-Royce R8211-524C2s, giving 51,600 lbs thrust each. Cruising speed: 600 mph, at 35,000 ft.

Range: 6,850 miles.

Auto land capacity: To Category IIIA limits Lengths: 70.7 m (231 ft 11 ins) Wingspan: 59.6 m (195 ft 9 ins).

Height: 19.3 m (63 ft 4 ins) Fuselage width: 6.4 m (20 ft 11 ins).

Fuel capacity: 203,860 litres (44,850 gallons).

Fuel consumption: 10,445 kg per hour (2,901 gallons an hour).

Maximum take-off weight: 371,940 kg (820,000 lbs).

Landing gear: 16 main and two nose wheels.

Flight crew: Captain, one co-pilot and one flight engineer Cabin crew: 15.

Tristar Series 200.

Routes: The Series 200 flies medium haul routes with heavy traffic.

Seating: (Series 200) First Class - three rows of two abreast sleeper seats, with a 62 ins pitch; Business - three rows of two abreast with a 36 ins pitch; Economy - mostly two rows of three abreast and one of four abreast with a pitch generally of 34 ins.

Engines: Three Rolls-Royce RB211-228s (-5248s on Series 200s and 500s), giving 42,000 lbs of thrust.

Cruising speed: 550 mph, at 35,000 ft.

Range: Series 200 - 4,362 miles;

Auto land capability: To Category IIIB limits length: 54.2 m (117 ft 8 ins).

Wingspan: 47.3 m ;155 ft 4 ins) Height: 16.0 m (55 ft 4 ins) Fuselage width: 6 m (19 ft 8 ins).

Fuel capacity: 90,150 litres (19,830 gallons).

Fuel consumption: 7,424 kg an hour (2,062 gallons an hour).

Maximum take-off weight: 195,000 kg (429,902 lbs).

Landing gear 8 main wheels and 2 nose wheels.

Flight crew: Captain, one co-pilot and one flight engineer.

Cabin crew: 8-12, depending on route, type, and number of passengers.

Presenting your conclusions.

You will be asked to give a short presentation of your case in front of the group. This would test your public speaking skills, ability to present an argument etc. Also, your skills of verbal communication, team working, persuasiveness and time management would be looked for. A good starting point might be to decide on the criteria (cost, logistics, publicity) you will use to decide and to rank these in order of importance. Keep an eye on the time as you would be marked down if you didn't finish.

Solution.

Is the destination is viable?

Yes. There are enough passengers and a viable cargo, acceptable costs, an available aircraft and a healthy profit (see below).

What type of aircraft should be used?

The detailed aircraft information is actually a red herring: apart from the aircraft range it is not required to solve the exercise!

Both aircraft have sufficient range. A 747 is available for a Thursday flight and no other days, or a Tristar Series 200 is available for a Saturday flight. A Saturday departure would give sufficient demand for a Boeing 747, but departures on other days would generate a much lower demand and make the Boeing unprofitable to use. The flight could depart at 21.00 hours on Saturday if an aircraft is available: this would be convenient for passengers and would also fit in with loading, catering and engineering staff. From this information it is clear that the Tristar is the better choice.

What profits might be expected?

	747	Tristar
Fares	90,000	72,000
Cargo	10,000	8,000
Costs	-80,000	-65,000
Profit	20,000	15,000

What sort of customers would you try to attract?

It's an expensive destination in terms of fuel, so high income middle class passengers would be best targeted. Also winter sun seekers as the climate is good

all year round as it's in the tropics. Could perhaps be used for business conferences or as a reward for sales executives?

How would you publicise the destination?

Climate, drink and beaches!

Television is usually too expensive for a specific destination. Could produce a brochure and advertise in quality newspapers and the internet would be important. Talk to tour operators to arrange packages and staff could be sent to high street travel agencies. Competitions could be arranged around the OROS drink

How would you deal with competitors (other airlines)?

Increase revenue by extra advertising. Offer cheap hotel accommodation packages. Use as a stopover on the route to American destinations.

Test. Advertising.

Q1 In order to make a sensible among the different vacuum cleaners available, it is important to do some research.

(a) comparing (b) comparison (c) compares (d) comparative

Q2 The local department store has to make a sustained effort at this time of the year to customer demand for summer clothing.

(a) satisfy (b) satisfaction (c) satisfies (d) satisfying

Q3 A good team leader must be able to his colleagues to face the challenge of a downturn in business.

(a) inspiring (b) inspiration (c) inspires (d) inspire

Q4 The trend in children's desire to wear designer label clothes should be exploited.

(a) currant (b) current (c) occurring (d) occurred

Q5 You have to the public that it is in their own interest to read the instructions on all our medicines.

(a) convict (b) conviction (c) convince (d) convincing

Q6 In order to survive in this business you must adopt a stance.

(a) competition (b) competing (c) competitor (d) competitive

Q7 The of alcohol is not allowed in any of the company's premises in order to present a clean image.

(a) consumer (b) consumption (c) consuming (d) consumes

Q8 When you are setting out to new customers in an advertisement, choose the right words.

- (a) attraction (b) attractive (c) attract (d) attracts

Q9 The really effective television commercial is the one that you of its authenticity.

- (a) persuades (b) persuasion (c) persuasive (d) persuading

Q10 I can strongly recommend this as the best available on the market today.

- (a) producer (b) product (c) production (d) produce

Final Test.

1. Adam Smith ____ ten years to writing his first fundamental work.
a. devotes b. devoted c. is devoted
2. He made ____ a science.
a. economics b. economy c. the economy
3. He is often ____ as the founder of political economy too.
a. regards b. regarded c. regard
4. Economics ____ to find laws or principles by building models.
a. is tried b. try c. tries
5. The predictions of models ____ the basis of economic theories.
a. form b. forms c. is formed
6. Then the predictions ____ with the facts of real life.
a. is compared b. compare c. are compared
7. One of the texts ____ about Cambridge University Press.
a. speak b. speaks c. is spoken
8. This text _____ *Economics reading room*.
a. is called b. calls c. called
9. The book *The Economics of Network Industries* ____ a few years ago.
a. published b. is published c. was published
10. It _____ students and researchers to the latest developments in the field.
a. is introduced b. introduces c. introduce
11. *Entertainment Industry Economics* ____ by Harold Vogel.
a. wrote b. was written c. writes
12. It ____ as a guide for financial analysis.
a. characterizes b. characterized c. was characterized
13. Harold Vogel ____ the business economics of entertainment enterprises.
a. examined b. examine c. is examined
14. This edition ____ a full chapter on the Internet.

- a. is incorporated b. incorporate c. incorporates
15. It is a guide on the ____, financing, production and marketing of entertainment.
- a. economics b. economy c. economies
16. It is an extract from an ____ source.
- a. origin b. originate c. original
17. The text was ____ adapted.
- a. slightly b. slight c. lightly
18. This text ____ from the *Financial Times*.
- a. borrowed b. was borrowed c. borrows
19. It is very important ____.
- a. news b. new c. newly
20. Economics as a science ____ of two disciplines.
- a. consists b. consist c. will consist
21. Microeconomics ____ individual producers, consumers, or markets.
- a. is studied b. study c. studies
22. These facts ____ the prices, wages and earnings.
- a. effect b. affect c. are affected
23. ____ study the economy as a whole.
- a. Microeconomics b. Macroeconomic c. Macroeconomics
24. This text focuses ____ the strategic analysis of markets.
- a. on b. in c. of
25. GDP can be measured ____ three ways.
- a. at b. in c. on
26. GNP is an important measure of a country's economic ____.
- a. prosper b. prosperous c. prosperity
27. The GDP in Britain rose 0.9 per __ in the third quarter.
- a. cent b. cents c. %
28. The Russian economy is commodity ____.
- a. drive b. drove c. driven
29. These payments accounted ____ half of the budget's revenue.
- a. in b. for c. by
30. He said they would stick ____ a tight fiscal policy.
- a. for b. in c. to
31. *The Times* is ____ most successful national newspaper in Britain.
- a. a b. an c. the
32. *The Times* is now 63, 000 ahead ____ *The Guardian*.
- a. of b. to c. by
33. *The Independent* _____ by the *Financial Times* a few months ago.
- a. has been overtaken b. was overtaken c. is overtaken
34. It is a very popular newspaper ____ my mind.
- a. in b. to c. for
35. The demand ____ such goods is growing.

- a. for b. at c. to
36. All the firms can be grouped into wholesalers and ____.
- a. retailing b. retailers c. retails
37. The wholesaler ____ goods in bulk from producers.
- a. buys b. buy c. is bought
38. The holding of stocks ____ prices.
- a. even out b. evens out c. have evened out
39. Most companies ____ a number of different products.
- a. is marketing b. has marketed c. market
40. Retail sales are still ____.
- a. subdued b. subdue c. subdivide
41. According ____ data release yesterday sales fell 1.4%.
- a. by b. with c. to
42. They are struggling to combat ____ music sales.
- a. declining b. decline c. to decline
43. The US recording industry is considering ____ action against them.
- a. law b. legal c. legality
44. They are going to ____ suits against such individuals.
- a. files b. filing c. file
45. The newspaper item ____ about individual piracy.
- a. speak b. speaks c. is spoken
46. He does not ____ a good first impression.
- a. do b. make c. makes
47. Sales had begun to decline ____.
- a. either b. neither c. too
48. Most consumers are not prepared to buy these goods ____.
- a. too b. either c. neither
49. The economy is ____ the doldrums.
- a. on b. of c. in
50. Their economy is making little progress ____ recession.
- a. out b. out of c. off
51. Eurozone economic growth is ____ to ease.
- a. like b. liked c. likely
52. This institute ____ that GDP growth will be 1.8 per cent.
- a. estimates b. is estimated c. estimation
53. The annual growth was ____ stronger.
- a. substantial b. substance c. substantially
54. Seasonally adjusted ____ rose to 8.4.
- a. unemployed b. unemployment c. employ
55. The business cycle shows ____ in the level of economic activity.
- a. fluctuate b. fluctuations c. fluctuated
56. Depression ____ by low output and unemployment.
- a. is accompanied b. accompanies c. accompanied

57. Aggregate demand ____ substantial output level.
a. is exceeded b. exceed c. exceeded
58. This decision was consistent ____ the objectives.
a. with b. of c. by
59. They ____ a goal of profit maximization.
a. sit b. set c. are set
60. They adjust output and price to ____ their goal.
a. achieved b. achieve c. achieves
61. It was ____ 35 per cent increase in perating profits.
a. a b. an c. the
62. The company wanted to bring its accounting in line ____ US system.
a. of b. to c. with
63. He spoke about the compnay's ____ -cutting program.
a. cost b. costly c. costing
64. The sales increased by 10 per cent compared ____ the estimates.
a. of b. to c. with
65. Companies in a ____ are locked together.
a. clustered b. cluster c. clusters
66. Skilled employees often ____ between businesses.
a. migrate b. emigrate c. immigrate
67. This strategy ____ by American businessmen.
a. adopted b. was adopted c. is adopting
68. Manufacturing ____ in Southeast Asia.
a. base b. is based c. basis
69. They turned ideas into products through the swift ____ of new firms.
a. formation b. formative c. formula
70. The company offered a certain number of ____ calls and messages.
a. free of charge b. free c. freedom
71. In return the customers would receive messages containing ____.
a. advertising b. advertise c. advertised
72. Their mobile phones are capable ____ receiving picture messages.
a. in b. of c. to
73. The advertising would ____ mostof the company's funding.
a. be provided b. provide c. provisional
74. They can ____ their quotas of free calls.
a. exceed b. be exceeded c. excess
75. Then they pay at a rate of 15 pence per ____.
a. the minute b. a minute c. minute
76. We can calculate the price ____ of demand at each price.
a. elastic b. elasticity c. elatically
77. Now look ____ the next column.
a. to b. for c. at
78. There ____ a hundred per cent change in price.

- a. is b. are c. were
79. You can see the _____ change in price.
- a. per b. percentage c. per cent
80. There are a few ways of _____ these rules.
- a. to explain b. explain c. explaining
81. Let me _____ this.
- a. explaining b. to explain c. explain
82. Let's _____ this price as an example.
- a. take b. taking c. to take
83. Price support is _____ of supporting the incomes of certain producers.
- a. means b. a means c. mean
84. The price support method results _____ wasteful over-production.
- a. in b. on c. of
85. If I _____ the text I shall answer your question.
- a. reads b. shall read c. read
86. North Korea was forced _____ food prices sharply.
- a. lifting b. lift c. to lift
87. They had to _____ their prices.
- a. rise b. raise c. raising
88. The prices are constantly _____.
- a. rising b. rasing c. going
89. It has been _____ important factor in raising the prices.
- a. an b. a c. the
90. He _____ gold prices rising to \$725 an ounce.
- a. forecast b. forecasting c. forecasts
91. It is often called an _____ country.
- a. industrialized b. industrialize c. industry
92. They declined buying the _____ goods.
- a. manufacture b. manufactures c. manufactured
93. There are _____ products to serve these needs.
- a. many b. much c. a little
94. Practically _____ they act as a dictator.
- a. speak b. speaking c. spoke
95. They _____ the right choice between the two extremes.
- a. were made b. made c. are made
96. The government is directly responsible _____ this sector.
- a. off b. for c. of
97. The enterprise became public to be rescued from _____.
- a. bankrupt b. bankrupts c. bankruptcy
98. Some public corporations are still publicly _____.
- a. owner b. own c. owned
99. Very many public corporations later became _____ again.
- a. privately b. privates c. private

100. A special mention should _____ of British Rail.
 a. be made b. made c. make

Собеседование. Interview.

General Interview Questions.

1. What are your strengths?
2. What are your weaknesses?
3. Where would you like to be in your career five years from now?
4. What's your ideal company?
5. Are you willing to relocate?

Behavioral Interview Questions.

1. Can you describe a time when your work was criticized?
2. Have you ever been on a team where someone was not pulling their own weight? How did you handle it?
3. What is your greatest failure, and what did you learn from it?
4. What irritates you about other people, and how do you deal with it?
5. If I were your supervisor and asked you to do something that you disagreed with, what would you do?
6. What's the most difficult decision you've made in the last two years and how did you come to that decision?

Career Development Questions.

1. What are you looking for in terms of career development?
2. How do you want to improve yourself in the next year?

More About You.

1. What would be your ideal working environment?
2. What do you look for in terms of culture – structured or entrepreneurial?
3. What techniques and tools do you use to keep yourself organized?
4. Tell me about your proudest achievement.
5. Why did you choose your major?
6. What would you do if you won the lottery?
7. What do you like to do for fun?
8. What do you do in your spare time?

Деловое письмо. Letter of application.

Writing task:

You have seen this advertisement on the Guardian website, and would like to apply for a job. Write a letter of application explaining why you would like to work as a research analyst and why you think you would be suitable for the job (professional knowledge, personality, experience). Write between 180 and 200 words.

An exciting new opportunity for a research analyst within a well-established research agency has arisen. Our client is a reputable agency with a presence in over 100 countries worldwide and is keen to recruit a self-starter with market research/data analytics experience and good commercial acumen to work within Media Analytics.

As a media research analyst, your role involves helping to understand how individuals act online and to see how the internet affect their behaviours and attitudes through projects that vary from online customer journeys to client segmentation.

Responsibilities will include:

- leading a day to day project management for small to medium-sized projects;
- data checking and reporting and managing work outsourced to third parties;
- providing high quality client service and developing long-term relationships with clients;
- project management, including briefing suppliers and tracking fieldwork.

The ideal candidate will be someone who has 1 to 2 years experience working within the market research industry and also possess the following key criteria:

- must be educated to a degree level;
- ability to analyse data and translate these into insights;
- a genuine passion and interest for online research as well as advertising and media;
- have confidence in presenting and be proficient in Power Point and Excel;
- ability to perform work accurately and effectively with attention to detail.

This is an excellent opportunity for an exceptional researcher with superb analysis skills to join a leading research organization within their media division and in return my client will offer a competitive salary package and a fantastic working environment and drive to excel in this role. If this sounds like you, do not hesitate and apply now!

Зачет.**Task 1. FINANCIAL STATEMENTS AND PROFITABILITY RATIOS**

The financial statements of a business provide important information for people outside the business who do not (0) access to the internal accounts. For example, existing and (1) shareholders can see how much profit a business made, the value of its assets and the level of cash (2) Although these figures are useful, they do not mean a great deal by themselves. In order to (3) any real sense of the figures in the final accounts, they need to be properly analysed using accounting ratios and then (4) with either the previous year's ratios or against averages for the industry

The profitability of a company is important and a key (5) of its success. In the profit and loss account the figures shown for gross profit and net profit mean very little by themselves. However, by (6) them as a percentage of sales they become much more useful. The figures can then be evaluated against those of previous years, or with those of similar companies.

Example:

0 A hold B have C grant D keep

Answer – B

1 A eventual B promising C aspiring D potential
 2 A reserves B stocks C quantities D stores
 3 A reach B find C take D make
 4 A differentiated B opposed C compared D balanced
 5 A measure B evidence C mark D proof
 6 A indicating B expressing C outlining D

pronouncing

Task 2.**COMPANY BUDGETS**

Most senior executives know that the competitive battles ahead will involve not only ensuring that their company gets better at what it does, but is also different from others. To achieve this they need talented managers who can produce more imaginative strategies for growth and improvement, make faster decisions, be more flexible, be better prepared to anticipate threats and opportunities, and who can consistently improve quality and customer satisfaction. To this list you can add any number of other key competitive issues that are becoming more important as the service economy gathers speed.

But executives also know that none of these aspirations are attainable without changing the way the business is run. While most companies have tried to address these issues by reducing management layers and focusing on the customer, few have been successful. One of the reasons is the inability to shift the management philosophy from one of top-down control to bottom-up

empowerment. It is because budgets are most commonly used by organisations to exercise control that they are at the centre of this thorny issue.

Budgets are, in effect, barriers to change and fail to do well what most managers think they do well – that is, provide order and control. They are barriers for many reasons. Firstly, they reinforce the command-and-control management model and thus undermine attempts at organisational change, such as delegation and empowerment. In addition, they tend to set a ceiling on growth potential and a floor for cost reductions, thus stifling real improvement breakthroughs. Strong brands, skilled people, excellent management processes, strong leadership, and loyal customers are assets that are outside the measurement orbit of the accounting system. Budgets are typically extrapolations of existing trends, with little attention being paid to anticipatory models. What is more, they act as barriers to exploiting co-operation across the business units.

If asked why we use budgets, most managers would probably answer, ‘to set targets and control business operations’. But budgets evolved in the 1920s to help growing businesses manage their capital resources and plan their cash requirements. It was not until the 1960s that budgets were used to set targets, control operations and evaluate managerial performance. While planning remains an important part of the management process, it is widely believed that setting targets and controlling and evaluating performance using budgets is fundamentally flawed because it directs managerial behaviour towards achieving predetermined financial targets rather than harnessing the energy of people at all levels towards continuously improving competitive strategies and customer-oriented processes.

So, if existing budgeting systems have such crucial weaknesses, why do we still rely on them? In fact, accountants have tried to improve them. Zero-based budgeting and activity-based budgeting represent valiant efforts to update the process, but they tend to be complex project-driven approaches that fail to evolve into standard management practices. Basically, though, budgeting has not changed because it is a part of unchallenged tradition. Some companies are re-engineering their budgeting processes to make them faster and cheaper, but such an approach fails the test, as it leaves the behavioural weaknesses in place.

What does all this mean for the role of management accountants? Many accountants now accept that setting fixed financial targets and measuring performance against them makes little sense when the competitive environment is subject to continuous change. Plans and strategies need to unfold continuously as new knowledge emerges. Above all, management accountancy should be concerned with the future and ensuring that the right questions are asked and the right decisions are taken that add maximum long-term value. It is hard, though, to see how these changes can be managed successfully while leaving the current budgeting system in place.

1. To deal with the competition they are likely to meet in the future, companies should look for managers who will
 - A recognize and reward talented people.
 - B bring considerable experience to the job.
 - C respond immediately to financial difficulties.
 - D take a creative approach to developing the business.

2. According to the second paragraph, why have companies failed in their response to key competitive issues?
 - A Authority for decision-making is too restricted.
 - B Customer needs are not given sufficient priority.
 - C There are too many layers of management.
 - D Budgets are not adequately monitored.

3. One problem resulting from the way budgets are usually set is that
 - A they give too optimistic a view of a company's growth potential.
 - B they allow staff to avoid taking responsibility for their decisions.
 - C they tend to produce too many targets for the workforce to meet.
 - D they limit innovative behaviour because they focus on past experience.

4. According to the writer, changes in the use of budgets since the 1960s have prevented managers from
 - A giving enough time to planning.
 - B concentrating on motivating the workforce.
 - C working out realistic targets.
 - D assessing the competence of their employees.

5. According to the writer, why have new budgeting systems not been widely adopted?
 - A Traditional systems are relatively easy to operate.
 - B New systems have proved slow and expensive.
 - C Traditional systems are part of accepted practice.
 - D New systems have proved unpopular with managers.

6. According to the final paragraph, many management accountants now believe that
 - A companies should be prepared to modify their strategies.
 - B budgeting should not influence management decisions.
 - C too many company decisions are taken with a short-term view.
 - D targets should reflect recent trends in an industry sector.

Task 3.**MERGERS CAN BE SUCCESSFUL**

Mergers are always headline news. Some financial commentators even regard them as an indicator of the economic health of a nation. Which is strange when you consider that most mergers and acquisitions fail. The deals themselves go through, and regardless of the high costs, the bankers get paid. But then the expected economies of scale prove elusive and there are clashes of corporate cultures. Employees become nervous and less efficient as they worry about losing their jobs. Depending on whose research you believe, 50 to 80 per cent of acquisitions fail to fulfil the strategic objective for which they were designed. Given all this, it is interesting to see a merger which is successful. And that is what seems to have happened when Promo and Truck Ads merged.

Eva Lendel started Promo in 1991, the same year Paul Watson founded Truck Ads. Both companies did the same thing: they ran poster campaigns on trucks for major advertisers. It was a new medium and both companies expanded quickly. It looked so easy and profitable that lots of small operators came into the business . which worried both of them because they felt that these new companies did not really know what they were doing. This, they felt, could have a negative effect on all companies in this sector. So Lendel and Watson formed a trade association to protect the reputation of their businesses. 'Out of all these companies that mushroomed up,' says Watson, 'almost none have survived. They just didn't offer a professional service.'

Once they had the market largely to themselves, Lendel and Watson competed in some situations and collaborated in others. Whenever one had more campaigns than they could handle, they would subcontract to the other. Finally, Lendel suggested that her company buy Truck Ads. It helped that Lendel and Watson had known and respected each other for years. They knew from the trade association that they had many business values in common. And they knew they would lose business opportunities if they did not get bigger. In negotiations Lendel and Watson were not afraid to tackle the problems that so many companies avoid. They agreed that, as Promo was the larger company as well as the acquirer, Lendel would be the new boss and Watson her deputy. There was no nonsense about joint leadership or everything staying the same.

Turning two workforces into one is never easy. 'Once the merger had gone through, I was relieved that there had been no redundancies,' says Lendel. 'I hadn't realised, though, how much loyalty there was to the Truck Ads brand. This impressed me but also worried me as we had wiped away the brand overnight. So I brought in lots of policies to make everyone feel part of the team and then I saw every employee individually to explain the advantages of the merger for them.' 'Merger costs are high,' says Lendel. 'Legal expenses alone can wipe out any upside. But not this time. I didn't think we'd cover our huge legal fees for a year, but we managed to do it in three months. In fact, those costs made us push hard for new business.'

1. According to the first paragraph, what is one reason why mergers and acquisitions often fail?
- A The costs involved are too high.
 - B The companies involved have different attitudes to business.
 - C The merger or acquisition is not given a clear goal.
 - D Staff leave because they feel their jobs are not secure.
2. Lendel and Watson thought that many of the smaller operators in the industry
- A lacked professional standards.
 - B had expanded too quickly.
 - C wanted to set up a trade association.
 - D were making excessive profits.
3. Before the merger, Lendel and Watson were aware that the two companies
- A were already beginning to lose business.
 - B had different strengths and weaknesses.
 - C were doing too much subcontracting.
 - D had similar ideas about business
4. During negotiations, Lendel and Watson decided that
- A the two of them could not work together.
 - B one person would be in charge of the new company.
 - C there would be no major changes in the new company.
 - D the size of Promo could lead to problems.
5. What did Lendel do after the merger had been completed?
- A She began putting staff in different teams.
 - B She refused to make any staff redundant.
 - C She explained to all staff how the merger would benefit them.
 - D She congratulated the staff on their loyalty to the new company.
6. What does Lendel say about the company's legal costs?
- A They were cleared more quickly than expected.
 - B They had to be settled within a year.
 - C They were not so high as she had expected.
 - D They were reduced in return for early settlement

Экзамен.

TASK 1. Read the article about Starbuck's. Choose the correct word (A, B, or C) to fill each gap.

In these times of financial difficulty, many companies are looking (0) _____ ways to reduce the price of their products. A recent example is an instant coffee (1) _____ 'Via'. Via has been developed by Starbuck's, (2) _____ is the world's

largest coffee shop chain. The company claims that it tastes just as good (3) _____ real coffee and costs about (4) _____ quarter of the price. (5) _____ the company is not making the instant coffee for customers in its own coffee shops. Instead, it is trying to (6) _____ a share of the 17 billion dollars that the world spends (7) _____ instant coffee. It is a risky strategy. If the new instant coffee (8) _____ a success, maybe customers will stay away from the Starbucks coffee shops and make (9) _____ own instant coffee at home. Eating at home is a trend that we (10) _____ already see in the recession.

- 0 A after **B for** C to
- 1 A calling B calls C called
- 2 A who B that C which
- 3 A as B like C than
- 4 A the B some C a
- 5 A when B if C but
- 6 A win B wins C winning
- 7 A for B with C on
- 8 A will be B is C would be
- 9 A their B his C this
- 10 A would B can C must

Task 2. Choose the right answer based on the text below.

Catching out the Dishonest Candidate

Most personnel managers agree that job interviews are one of the least objective recruitment methods. But the advantages of testing are not going to change the (0) **A** of the interview to employers. The appeal of the interview has everything to do with the (11) factor.

Most people believe they are a (12) judge of character and trust their instinctive feelings. We might use some kind of test to aid the (13) process, but we usually pick a candidate who interviews well, has good (14) and an impressive work record.

But (15) the candidate lies or is less than completely honest, “This can be a serious problem for employers”, (16) Alan Conrad, Chief Executive at Optimus Recruitment. “The most difficult liars to find out are those who (17) half-truths rather than complete lies.” Research (18) that up to 75 percent of curriculum vitae are deliberately inaccurate. The most common practice is (19).

Interviewers should therefore concentrate on areas of (20) such as gaps between periods of employment and job (21) that seem strange. “Focusing on these areas will force candidates to tell the truth or become increasingly (22). This is usually when people signal their (23) by their body language. Sweat on the upper lip, false smiles and nervous hand movements all (24) discomfort.”

Conrad does not suggest an aggressive police-style interview technique, but insists that (25) inspection of curriculum vitae is absolutely essential. Only by asking the right questions can you confirm the suitability of the candidate or put pressure on those who are being less than completely honest.

- 0 **A** attraction **B** discipline **C** rules **D** regulations
 11 **A** emotion **B** feeling **C** human **D** person
 12 **A** reasonable **B** sensible **C** substantial **D** normal
 13 **A** choice **B** selection **C** identification **D** discovery
 14 **A** examinations **B** papers **C** notes **D** qualifications
 15 **A** pretend **B** think **C** suppose **D** fantasise
 16 **A** reveals **B** admits **C** exaggerates **D** explains
 17 **A** say **B** tell **C** inform **D** talk
 18 **A** shows **B** predicts **C** calculates **D** reckons
 19 **A** ignorance **B** forgetfulness **C** omission **D** carelessness
 20 **A** error **B** incorrectness **C** uncertainty **D** indecision
 21 **A** descriptions **B** advertisements **C** interpretations **D** routines
 22 **A** untrue **B** illegal **C** dishonest **D** criminal
 23 **A** annoyance **B** anger **C** anxiety **D** disappointment
 24 **A** indicate **B** prove **C** present **D** picture
 25 **A** immediate **B** tight **C** near **D** close

Task 3. Read the following text and state whether the statements below are True (T) or False (F).

Switzerland is one of the few countries in the world that guarantees, by law, the secrecy of its bank accounts. As long as the client of a Swiss bank has not done anything that is considered illegal in Switzerland, the bank will not reveal the client's identity to anyone.

During World War II, for example, many families from war-torn Germany, Italy, and France were able to keep their savings secure by putting them in Swiss banks. Many Europeans still consider having a bank account in Zurich, Basel, Lugano, or Geneva to be a sign of financial security.

Opening a legal, numbered Swiss bank account is still relatively easy to do, usually involving nothing more than going to Switzerland, filling out a few forms, and making a deposit. Swiss bankers are known to be dependable, trustworthy, and, above all, discreet. These qualities have made Switzerland one of the world's banking centers. But they have also made Switzerland a center for money laundering.

Swiss bank accounts are useful for money-laundering schemes because once money passes through a respectable Swiss bank, it is accepted anywhere in the world. When several Swiss banks were found to be facilitating the activities of

international drug traffickers in the 1980s, the Swiss authorities finally decided to break open several secret accounts that were linked to illegal activities abroad.

Most people holding Swiss bank accounts, however, do not use them to launder illegally earned money. They merely want their legally earned funds to be safe and free from government control and taxes at home. Swiss bankers do not reveal the accounts of clients accused of avoiding taxes in their home country, since tax evasion is not considered to be "illegal" in Switzerland: it is only a civil, not a criminal offense.

Foreigners - as long as they break no Swiss laws - can keep their money in Swiss bank accounts without fear. This guarantee of secrecy can be used by many unscrupulous people for a wide variety of shady international activities. In the case of the Iran contra scandals during the 1980s, for example, the secret deals between America's CIA and the Iranian arms merchants were paid for in part with money deposited by CIA agents at banks in Switzerland.

Philippine dictator Ferdinand Marcos had also deposited large sums of illegally acquired funds in Swiss banks during the 1970s and 1980s. When he was deposed, the Philippine government called for the return of these funds, which was agreed to by the Swiss authorities. After several abuses of Swiss banking secrecy, the Swiss authorities announced that they would be ready to open any accounts revealed to be linked to illegal international activity.

26. Switzerland guarantees by law the secrecy of its bank accounts.

27. A Swiss bank is a sign of financial security for many Europeans.

28. Swiss bankers are not always dependable, trustworthy and, above all, discreet.

29. Unfortunately, Switzerland is also a center for money laundering.

30. Sometimes Swiss authorities break open secret accounts if they are linked to illegal activities abroad.

31. Tax evasion is a criminal offense in Switzerland.

32. The secret deals between American C.I.A. and the Iranian authorities were paid for with money deposited by C.I.A. agents at Swiss banks.

33. The Swiss banks did not return the Philippine dictator's illegally acquired funds to the Philippine government.

Task 4. Read the text and choose the right answer based on the information in the text.

On a certain day after the lecture on the UK taxation system the Group was to visit the Tax Department of a lawyers' firm in the centre of London. Mr. Hill and the participants went there by tube which is the fastest means of transport when one wishes to move in the centre of the city. After they got into the building of the firm they went to the secretary's office.

Mr. Hill: Good afternoon.

Secretary: Good afternoon, sir.

Mr. Hill: My name is Hill and here is the Group of Russian businessmen. We have got an appointment with Mr. Brown for three.

Secretary: Mr. Brown is waiting for you in the conference room. Follow me, please.

In the conference room a few Englishmen were waiting for the Group. Mr. Brown, Head of the Department, welcomed the Group and introduced his colleagues. They were solicitors and legal assistants of different offices. Each of them spoke about his scope of business for some time. Thus the participants had some information on commercial taxes, international taxes. Project Finance taxes and other taxation matters.

A lot of questions were asked and answered then. The discussions were very useful and informative. Before the participants left they were offered latest Tax Guides containing current tax rates and tax saving hints.

34. After what lecture did the group visit a lawyers' firm?

- A. On taxation.
- B. On lawyers.
- C. On lawyers' firms.

35. By what means of transport did they go?

- A. By taxis.
- B. By tube.

36. Who is Mr. Brown?

- By tube
- A. Secretary.
- B. Head of a department.

37. How many lawyers were present at the talk?

- Head of the firm
- A. Only Mr. Brown.
- B. Mr. Brown and a colleague of his.
- C. Mr Brown and a few colleagues of

his.

38. On what matters did they speak?

- A. Only on commercial taxes.
- B. Only on international taxes.
- C. Only on Project Finance taxes.
- D. On a few taxation matters

39. Did the participants ask any questions?

- A. Yes, and quite a lot.
- B. Yes, just a few.

40. What guides were they offered?

- No, they didn't
- A. Latest tax guides.
- B. Latest project finance guides.
- C. Latest corporation tax guides

11. Материально-техническое обеспечение дисциплины.

Материально-техническое обеспечение дисциплины “Иностранный язык в профессиональной деятельности” включает в себя следующие средства:

- мультимедийный проектор;
- средства аудиовоспроизведения;
- телевизор;
- видеомагнитофон;
- DVD – проигрыватель;
- книжный фонд библиотеки и компьютерный класс.

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Подготовка к лекциям

Главное в период подготовки к лекционным занятиям - научиться методам самостоятельного умственного труда, сознательно развивать свои творческие способности и овладевать навыками творческой работы. Для этого необходимо строго соблюдать дисциплину учебы и поведения. Четкое планирование своего рабочего времени и отдыха является необходимым условием для успешной самостоятельной работы.

В основу его нужно положить рабочие программы изучаемых в семестре дисциплин. Ежедневной учебной работе студенту следует уделять 9-10 часов своего времени, т.е. при шести часах аудиторных занятий самостоятельной работе необходимо отводить 3-4 часа.

Самостоятельная работа на лекции

Слушание и запись лекций - сложный вид вузовской аудиторной работы. Внимательное слушание и конспектирование лекций предполагает интенсивную умственную деятельность студента. Краткие записи лекций, их конспектирование помогает усвоить учебный материал. Конспект является полезным тогда, когда записано самое существенное, основное и сделано это самим студентом.

Не надо стремиться записать дословно всю лекцию. Такое «конспектирование» приносит больше вреда, чем пользы. Запись лекций рекомендуется вести по возможности собственными формулировками. Конспект лекции лучше подразделять на пункты, параграфы, соблюдая красную строку. Этому в большой степени будут способствовать пункты плана лекции, предложенные преподавателям. Принципиальные места, определения, формулы и другое следует сопровождать замечаниями «важно», «особо важно», «хорошо запомнить» и т.п.

Целесообразно разработать собственную «маркографию» (значки, символы), сокращения слов. Не лишним будет и изучение основ стенографии. Работая над конспектом лекций, всегда необходимо использовать не только учебник, но и ту литературу, которую дополнительно рекомендовал лектор.

Подготовка к практическим занятиям

Подготовку к каждому практическому занятию каждый студент должен начать с ознакомления с планом практического занятия, который отражает содержание предложенной темы. Тщательное продумывание и изучение

вопросов плана основывается на проработке текущего материала лекции, а затем изучения обязательной и дополнительной литературы, рекомендованной к данной теме. На основе индивидуальных предпочтений студенту необходимо самостоятельно выбрать тему доклада по проблеме практического занятия и по возможности подготовить по нему презентацию. Если программой дисциплины предусмотрено выполнение практического задания, то его необходимо выполнить с учетом предложенной инструкции (устно или письменно). Все новые понятия по изучаемой теме необходимо выучить наизусть и внести в глоссарий, который целесообразно вести с самого начала изучения курса.

Результат такой работы должен проявиться в способности студента свободно ответить на теоретические вопросы практического занятия, его выступлении и участии в коллективном обсуждении вопросов изучаемой темы, правильном выполнении практических заданий и контрольных работ.

Структура занятия В зависимости от содержания и количества отведенного времени на изучение каждой темы практическое занятие может состоять из четырех-пяти частей:

1. Обсуждение теоретических вопросов, определенных программой дисциплины.
2. Доклад и/ или выступление с презентациями по проблеме практического занятия.
3. Обсуждение выступлений по теме - дискуссия.
4. Выполнение практического задания с последующим разбором полученных результатов или обсуждение практического задания, выполненного дома, если это предусмотрено программой.
5. Подведение итогов занятия.

Первая часть - обсуждение теоретических вопросов - проводится в виде фронтальной беседы со всей группой и включает выборочную проверку преподавателем теоретических знаний студентов. Примерная продолжительность — до 15 минут.

Вторая часть — выступление студентов с докладами, которые должны сопровождаться презентациями с целью усиления наглядности восприятия, по одному из вопросов практического занятия. Примерная продолжительность — 20-25 минут.

После докладов следует их обсуждение - дискуссия. В ходе этого этапа практического занятия могут быть заданы уточняющие вопросы к докладчикам. Примерная продолжительность - до 15-20 минут.

Если программой предусмотрено выполнение практического задания в рамках конкретной темы, то преподавателями определяется его содержание и дается время на его выполнение, а затем идет обсуждение результатов. Если практическое задание должно было быть выполнено дома, то на практическом занятии преподаватель проверяет его выполнение (устно или письменно). Примерная продолжительность - 15-20 минут.

Подведением итогов заканчивается практическое занятие. Студентам должны быть объявлены оценки за работу и даны их четкие обоснования. Примерная продолжительность — 5 минут.

Работа с литературными источниками В процессе подготовки к практическим занятиям, студентам необходимо обратить особое внимание на самостоятельное изучение рекомендованной учебно-методической (а также научной и популярной) литературы. Самостоятельная работа с учебниками, учебными пособиями, научной, справочной и популярной литературой, материалами периодических изданий и Интернета, статистическими данными является наиболее эффективным методом получения знаний, позволяет значительно активизировать процесс овладения информацией, способствует более глубокому усвоению изучаемого материала, формирует у студентов свое отношение к конкретной проблеме.

Более глубокому раскрытию вопросов способствует знакомство с дополнительной литературой, рекомендованной преподавателем по каждой теме практического или практического занятия, что позволяет студентам проявить свою индивидуальность в рамках выступления на данных занятиях, выявить широкий спектр мнений по изучаемой проблеме.

Подготовка презентации и доклада

Для подготовки презентации рекомендуется использовать: PowerPoint, MS Word, Acrobat Reader. Самая простая программа для создания презентаций - Microsoft PowerPoint.

Для подготовки презентации необходимо собрать и обработать начальную информацию. Последовательность подготовки презентации:

1. Четко сформулировать цель презентации: вы хотите свою аудиторию мотивировать, убедить, заразить какой-то идеей или просто формально отчитаться.
2. Определить каков будет формат презентации: живое выступление (тогда, сколько будет его продолжительность) или электронная рассылка (каков будет контекст презентации).
3. Отобрать всю содержательную часть для презентации и выстроить логическую цепочку представления.
4. Определить ключевые моменты в содержании текста и выделить их.
5. Определить виды визуализации (картинки) для отображения их на слайдах в соответствии с логикой, целью и спецификой материала.
6. Подобрать дизайн и форматировать слайды (количество картинок и текста, их расположение, цвет и размер).
7. Проверить визуальное восприятие презентации.

К видам визуализации относятся иллюстрации, образы, диаграммы, таблицы. **Иллюстрация** - представление реально существующего

зрительного ряда. **Образы** - в отличие от иллюстраций - метафора. Их назначение - вызвать эмоцию и создать отношение к ней, воздействовать на аудиторию. С помощью хорошо продуманных и представляемых образов, информация может надолго остаться в памяти человека. **Диаграмма** - визуализация количественных и качественных связей. Их используют для убедительной демонстрации данных, для пространственного мышления в дополнение к логическому. **Таблица** - конкретный, наглядный и точный показ данных. Ее основное назначение - структурировать информацию, что порой облегчает восприятие данных аудиторией.

Практические советы по подготовке презентации

- готовьте отдельно: печатный текст + слайды + раздаточный материал;
- слайды - визуальная подача информации, которая должна содержать минимум текста, максимум изображений, несущих смысловую нагрузку, выглядеть наглядно и просто;
- текстовое содержание презентации - устная речь или чтение, которая должна включать аргументы, факты, доказательства и эмоции;
- обязательная информация для презентации: тема, фамилия и инициалы выступающего; план сообщения; краткие выводы из всего сказанного; список использованных источников;
- раздаточный материал - должен обеспечивать ту же глубину и охват, что и живое выступление: люди больше доверяют тому, что они могут унести с собой, чем исчезающим изображениям, слова и слайды забываются, а раздаточный материал остается постоянным осязаемым напоминанием; раздаточный материал важно раздавать в конце презентации; раздаточный материалы должны отличаться от слайдов, должны быть более информативными.

Тема доклада должна быть согласованна с преподавателем и соответствовать теме учебного занятия. Материалы при его подготовке, должны соответствовать научно-методическим требованиям вуза и быть указаны в докладе. Необходимо соблюдать регламент, оговоренный при получении задания. Иллюстрации должны быть достаточными, но не чрезмерными.

Работа студента над докладом-презентацией включает отработку умения самостоятельно обобщать материал и делать выводы в заключении, умения ориентироваться в материале и отвечать на дополнительные вопросы слушателей, отработку навыков ораторства, умения проводить диспут.

Докладчики должны знать и уметь: сообщать новую информацию; использовать технические средства; хорошо ориентироваться в теме всего практического занятия; дискутировать и быстро отвечать на заданные вопросы; четко выполнять установленный регламент (не более 10 минут); иметь представление о композиционной структуре доклада и др.

Структура выступления

Вступление помогает обеспечить успех выступления по любой тематике. Вступление должно содержать: название, сообщение основной идеи, современную оценку предмета изложения, краткое перечисление рассматриваемых вопросов, живую интересную форму изложения, акцентирование внимания на важных моментах, оригинальность подхода.

Основная часть, в которой выступающий должен глубоко раскрыть суть затронутой темы, обычно строится по принципу отчета. Задача основной части - представить достаточно данных для того, чтобы слушатели заинтересовались темой и захотели ознакомиться с материалами. При этом логическая структура теоретического блока не должны даваться без наглядных пособий, аудио-визуальных и визуальных материалов.

Заключение - ясное, четкое обобщение и краткие выводы, которых всегда ждут слушатели.

Подготовка реферата

Реферат - письменный доклад по определенной теме, в котором собрана информация из одного или нескольких источников. Рефераты пишутся обычно стандартным языком, с использованием типологизированных речевых оборотов вроде: «важное значение имеет», «уделяется особое внимание», «поднимается вопрос», «делаем следующие выводы», «исследуемая проблема», «освещаемый вопрос» и т.п.

К языковым и стилистическим особенностям рефератов относятся слова и обороты речи, носящие обобщающий характер, словесные клише. У рефератов особая логичность подачи материала и изъяснения мысли, определенная объективность изложения материала.

Реферат не копирует дословно содержание первоисточника, а представляет собой новый вторичный текст, создаваемый в результате систематизации и обобщения материала первоисточника, его аналитико-синтетической переработки.

Будучи вторичным текстом, реферат составляется в соответствии со всеми требованиями, предъявляемыми к связанному высказыванию: так ему присущи следующие категории: оптимальное соотношение и завершенность (смысловая и жанрово-композиционная). Для реферата отбирается информация, объективно-ценная для всех читающих, а не только для одного автора. Автор реферата не может пользоваться только ему понятными значками, пометами, сокращениями.

Работа, проводимая автором для подготовки реферата должна обязательно включать самостоятельное мини-исследование, осуществляемое

студентом на материале или художественных текстов по литературе, или архивных первоисточников по истории и т.п.

Организация и описание исследования представляет собой очень сложный вид интеллектуальной деятельности, требующий культуры научного мышления, знания методики проведения исследования, навыков оформления научного труда и т.д. Мини-исследование раскрывается в реферате после глубокого, полного обзора научной литературы по проблеме исследования.

В зависимости от количества реферируемых источников выделяют следующие виды рефератов:

- **монографические** - рефераты, написанные на основе одного источника;
- **обзорные** - рефераты, созданные на основе нескольких исходных текстов, объединенных общей темой и сходными проблемами исследования.

Структура реферата

1. Титульный лист
2. Оглавление
3. Введение
4. Основная часть
5. Заключение
6. Список использованной литературы
7. Приложения

Подготовка эссе

Эссе - вид самостоятельной исследовательской работы студентов, с целью углубления и закрепления теоретических знаний и освоения практических навыков. Цель эссе состоит в развитии самостоятельного творческого мышления и письменного изложения собственных мыслей.

В зависимости от темы формы эссе могут быть различными. Это может быть анализ имеющихся статистических данных по изучаемой проблеме, анализ материалов из средств массовой информации и подробный разбор проблемной ситуации с развернутыми мнениями, подбором и детальным анализом примеров, иллюстрирующих проблему и т.п.

В процессе выполнения эссе студенту предстоит выполнить следующие виды работ: составить план эссе; отобрать источники, собрать и проанализировать информацию по проблеме; систематизировать и проанализировать собранную информацию по проблеме; представить проведенный анализ с собственными выводами и предложениями.

Эссе выполняется студентом под руководством преподавателя кафедры самостоятельно. Тему эссе студент выбирает из предлагаемого примерного

перечня и для каждого студента она должна быть индивидуальной (темы в одной группе совпадать не могут).

Структура эссе

1. Титульный лист.
2. План.
3. Введение с обоснованием выбора темы.
4. Текстовое изложение материала (основная часть).
5. Заключение с выводами по всей работе.
6. Список использованной литературы.

Титульный лист является первой страницей и заполняется по строго определенным правилам.

Введение (вводная часть) - суть и обоснование выбора данной темы, состоит из ряда компонентов, связанных логически и стилистически. На этом этапе очень важно правильно сформулировать вопрос, на который Вы собираетесь найти ответ в ходе своего исследования. При работе над введением могут помочь ответы на следующие вопросы:

1. Надо ли давать определения терминам, прозвучавшим в теме эссе?
2. Почему тема, которую я раскрываю, является важной в настоящий момент?
3. Какие понятия будут вовлечены в мои рассуждения по теме?
4. Могу ли я разделить тему на несколько составных частей?

Таким образом, в вводной части автор определяет проблему и показывает умение выявлять причинно-следственные связи, отражая их в методологии решения поставленной проблемы через систему целей, задач и т.д.

Текстовое изложение материала (основная часть) - теоретические основы выбранной проблемы и изложение основного вопроса. Данная часть предполагает развитие аргументации и анализа, а также обоснование их, исходя из имеющихся данных, других аргументов и позиций по этому вопросу. В этом заключается основное содержание эссе и это представляет главную трудность при его написании. Поэтому большое значение имеют подзаголовки, на основе которых осуществляется выстраивание аргументации; именно здесь необходимо обосновать (логически, используя данные и строгие рассуждения) предлагаемую аргументацию/анализ. В качестве аналитического инструмента можно использовать графики, диаграммы и таблицы там, где это необходимо. Традиционно в научном познании анализ может проводиться с использованием следующих категорий: причина - следствие, общее - особенное, форма - содержание, часть - целое, постоянство - изменчивость.

В процессе построения эссе надо помнить, что один параграф должен содержать только одно утверждение и соответствующее доказательство,

подкрепленное графическим или иллюстративным материалом. Следовательно, наполняя разделы содержанием аргументации (а это должно найти отражение в подзаголовках), в пределах параграфа необходимо ограничить себя рассмотрением одной главной мысли.

Хорошо проверенный способ построения любого эссе - использование подзаголовков для обозначения ключевых моментов аргументированного изложения: это помогает посмотреть на то, что предполагается сделать и ответить на вопрос, хорош ли замысел. При этом последовательность подзаголовков свидетельствует также о наличии или отсутствии логики в освещении темы эссе.

Таким образом, основная часть - рассуждение и аргументация, В этой части необходимо представить релевантные теме концепции, суждения и точки зрения, привести основные аргументы "за" и "против" них, сформулировать свою позицию и аргументировать ее.

Заключение (заключительная часть) - обобщения и аргументированные выводы по теме эссе с указанием области ее применения и т.д. Оно подытоживает эссе или еще раз вносит пояснения, подкрепляет смысл и значение изложенного в основной части. Методы, рекомендуемые для составления заключения: повторение, иллюстрация, цитата, утверждение. Заключение может содержать такой очень важный, дополняющий эссе элемент, как указание на применение исследования, не исключая взаимосвязи с другими проблемами.

Таким образом, в заключительной части эссе должны быть сформулированы выводы и определено их приложение к практической области деятельности.

Список использованной литературы составляет одну из частей работы, отражающей самостоятельную творческую работу автора и позволяющей судить о степени фундаментальности данной работы. При составлении списка литературы в перечень включаются только те источники, которые действительно были использованы при подготовке эссе. Список использованной литературы составляется строго в алфавитном порядке в следующей последовательности: законы РФ и другие официальные материалы (указы, постановления, решения министерств и ведомств); печатные работы (книги, монографии, сборники); периодика; Интернет-сайты. По возможности список должен содержать современную литературу по теме. Общее оформление списка использованной литературы для эссе аналогично оформлению списка использованной литературы для реферата.

Приложения могут включать иллюстративный материал (схемы, диаграммы, рисунки, таблицы и др.). При этом приложения являются продолжением самой работы, т.е. на них продолжается сквозная нумерация, но в общем объеме эссе они не учитываются.