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МИНИСТЕРСТВО ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ
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(ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ)

Кафедра иностранных языков

УТВЕРЖДЕН
на заседании кафедры
Протокол от «3» марта 2025 г., №10

Зав. кафедрой _____ /Сарычева Л.В.

ФОНД
ОЦЕНОЧНЫХ СРЕДСТВ

по дисциплине (модулю)
Иностранный язык в профессиональной коммуникации (английский язык)

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1.Перечень компетенций с указанием этапов их формирования в процессе освоения образовательной программы

Код и наименование компетенции	Этапы формирования
УК-4. Способен осуществлять деловую коммуникацию в устной и письменной формах на государственном языке Российской Федерации и иностранном (ых) языке (ах).	1. Работа на учебных занятиях 2. Самостоятельная работа
УК–5. Способен анализировать и учитывать разнообразие культур в процессе межкультурного взаимодействия	1. Работа на учебных занятиях 2. Самостоятельная работа
ОПК-2-Способен применять продвинутые инструментальные методы экономического анализа в прикладных и (или) фундаментальных исследованих	1. Работа на учебных занятиях 2. Самостоятельная работа

2.Описание показателей и критериев оценивания компетенций на различных этапах их формирования, описание шкал оценивания

Оценива-емые компетен ции	**Уровень сформир о-ванности**	**Этапы формиров ания**	**Описание показателей**	**Критерии оценивани я**	**Шкала оценива ния**
УК-4	Пороговы й	1.Работа на учебных занятиях. 2.Самостоя тельная работа студентов.	*Знать* особенности делового профессионального общения в академической/научной среде; стереотипы поведения и общения, формулы этикетной речи.	Практическ ое задание	Шкала оценива ния практич еского задания

	Продвинутый	1.Работа на учебных занятиях. 2.Самостоятельная работа студентов.	*Знать* особенности делового профессионального общения в академической/научной среде; стереотипы поведения и общения, формулы этикетной речи. *Уметь* анализировать научные события с оценкой их значимости, высказывать собственное мнение по проблемам, связанным с научной и профессиональной деятельностью, осуществлять межкультурные контакты с зарубежными коллегами, создавать собственные образцы речи в сфере научной и профессиональной коммуникации.	Практическое задание, сообщение	Шкала оценивания практического задания Шкала оценивания сообщения
УК-5	Пороговый	1.Работа на учебных занятиях. 2.Самостоятельная работа студентов.	*Знать* особенности делового профессионального общения в академической/научной среде; стереотипы поведения и общения, формулы этикетной речи.	Практическое задание	Шкала оценивания практического задания
	Продвинутый	1.Работа на учебных занятиях. 2.Самостоятельная работа студентов.	*Знать* особенности делового профессионального общения в академической/научной среде; стереотипы поведения и общения, формулы этикетной речи. *Уметь* анализировать научные события с оценкой их значимости, высказывать собственное мнение по проблемам, связанным с научной и профессиональной деятельностью, осуществлять межкультурные контакты с зарубежными коллегами, создавать собственные образцы речи в сфере научной и профессиональной коммуникации.	Практическое задание, сообщение	Шкала оценивания практического задания Шкала оценивания сообщения

ОПК-2	Пороговый	1.Работа на учебных занятиях. 2.Самостоятельная работа студентов.	*Знать* особенности делового профессионального общения в академической/научной среде; стереотипы поведения и общения, формулы этикетной речи.	Практическое задание	Шкала оценивания практического задания
	Продвинутый	1.Работа на учебных занятиях. 2.Самостоятельная работа студентов.	*Знать* особенности делового профессионального общения в академической/научной среде; стереотипы поведения и общения, формулы этикетной речи. *Уметь* анализировать научные события с оценкой их значимости, высказывать собственное мнение по проблемам, связанным с научной и профессиональной деятельностью, осуществлять межкультурные контакты с зарубежными коллегами, создавать собственные образцы речи в сфере научной и профессиональной коммуникации.	Практическое задание, сообщение	Шкала оценивания практического задания Шкала оценивания сообщения

Шкала оценивания практического задания и сообщения

Вид работы	Шкала оценивания
1. Практическое задание	**6 баллов**, если задание выполнено полностью, даны ответы на все вопросы, не допущено ни одной ошибки.
	4 балла, если задание выполнено полностью, даны не полные ответы на все вопросы, допущены незначительные ошибки.
	2 балла, если задание выполнено частично, допущены серьёзные ошибки при формулировке ответов на поставленные вопросы.
	0 баллов, если задание не выполнено.

2. Сообщение	**20 баллов,** если представленное сообщение свидетельствует о проведенном самостоятельном исследовании с привлечением различных источников информации; логично, связно и полно раскрывается тема; заключение содержит логично вытекающие из содержания выводы.
	15 баллов, если представленное сообщение свидетельствует о проведенном самостоятельном исследовании с привлечением двух-трех источников информации; логично, связно и полно раскрывается тема; заключение содержит логично вытекающие из содержания выводы.
	10 баллов, если представленное сообщение свидетельствует о проведенном исследовании с привлечением одного источника информации; тема раскрыта не полностью; отсутствуют выводы.
	0 баллов, если сообщение отсутствует.

3. Контрольные задания или иные материалы, необходимые для оценки знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности, характеризующих этапы формирования компетенций в процессе освоения образовательной программы

Примерные виды практических заданий
1 семестр

Read the text and do exercises after it.

Business Finance and Growth The size of a firm can be measured in different ways. Popular bases are profit; turnover; number of employees; capital employed; and market share. 55 Firms grow through internal or organic growth. This expansion is achieved through extra finance and reinvesting profits, with the firm expanding its product range or moving into new markets. It is a slow process so many firms seek to grow more quickly through merger or takeover. Mergers take place between two firms agreeing to join together. Takeovers occur when one company purchases sufficient voting shares in another company to give it control of that company. Integration. Firms are able to grow more quickly as a result of mergers and/or takeovers. The integration that takes place as a result of the new company reorganizing its activities can be horizontal, vertical, and lateral. Horizontal integration occurs when firms in the same industry and at the same stage of production (primary, secondary or tertiary) combine. For example, two vehicle manufacturers may merge production. Larger-scale production and economies of scale should result from this integration. Vertical integration occurs between firms in the same industry but at different stages of production. For example, it can be a brewery (secondary) taking over a public house (tertiary). Advantages include greater control of supply (if integration is “backwards”) and better access to the market (if “forwards”). Vertical integration, also known as conglomerate integration, occurs when a company moves into a new product area or market as a result of the merger/takeover. This leads to greater diversification, which reduces the risk for the company: it is now not as dependent on one

market or one product. Financing. Growth requires financing. In the public sector, the major sources of finance for a public corporation are from its own trading activities, general taxation and borrowing from the Treasury. In the private sector, there are many different sources of finance available to firms. These can be either short term or long term, and can arise from internal sources or be obtained from external sources. The key internal source of finance is retained profits. Owners must make a choice. They either spend net profit by withdrawing it out of the firm (including issuing it as dividends) or keep it in the firm (more cash is kept in the firm which helps expansion). The main external long-term source of finance is capital invested. Sole traders and partners find their own capital, for example, from personal savings. 56 The two main types of shares the companies issue are ordinary shares ("equity" capital, giving a vote at the Annual General Meeting (AGM), with the shareholder receiving a variable rate of dividend after all other dividends and payments have been made out of profits) and preference shares (the shareholder receives a fixed dividend after debenture interest and other deductions are made, but before the ordinary dividend is declared – these are therefore less of a gamble than ordinary shares, but the owner does not have a vote). A company may also obtain long-term loan capital by issuing debentures (long-term loans receiving interest that must be paid; debenture holders are not owners of the company in the same way that shareholders are). In addition to share and loan capital, the major external sources of finance include: (1) trade credit – taking advantage of the credit period allowed by suppliers; (2) factoring – the firm sells its debts for less than their face value to a factoring company, receiving immediate cash; (3) bank overdrafts – based on a current account, the owner(s) can overdraw up to an agreed maximum figure; (4) bank and other loans – longer term than overdrafts, for a fixed amount and for a fixed period; (5) leasing – the firm agrees with a finance house to lease capital equipment, to avoid the cost of buying it. Finance is vital to a firm, both for growth and for survival. The owners will forecast their cash-flows to see whether they can meet their debts out of cash inflows, or whether they need to make arrangements to borrow money. Companies are now obliged to produce a cash-flow analysis as part of their published accounts**.**

Answer the questions

1. What are popular bases to measure the size of a firm? 2. How do firms grow? 3. What takes place between two firms agreeing to join together? 4. When do takeovers occur? 5. What kinds of integration do you know? 6. What kind of integration is also known as conglomerate integration? 7. What are the advantages of vertical integration? 8. What does growth require? 9. What are the major sources of finance for a public corporation in the public sector? 10. Is the key internal source of finance retained profits or diversification? 11. What choice must owners make? 12. Where can sole traders and partners find their own capital? 13. What are the two main types of shares which companies issue? 14. In what way may also a company obtain long-term loan capital?

Complete the sentences. 1. When two firms agree to join together it is called a … . 2. When one company purchases sufficient voting shares in another company to give it

control of that company it is called a … . 3. There are three types of …: horizontal, vertical and lateral. 4. … reduces the risk for the company because it becomes less dependent on one market or one product. 5. Retained … is the key internal source of finance. 6. Companies issue two main types of … : ordinary and preference. 7. … is vital to a firm, both for growth and for survival. 8. … occurs when the firm sells its debts for less than their face value to receive immediate cash. 9. When the firm leases capital equipment it avoids the cost of … it.

Say whether these statements are true or false, and if they are false say why.

1. Turnover is a popular base to measure the size of a firm. 2. Internal or organic growth of firms is a slow process. 3. Takeovers take place between two firms agreeing to join together. 4. The integration that takes place as a result of the new company reorganizing its activities can be only horizontal. 5. Vertical integration occurs when a company moves into a new product area or market as a result of the merger/takeover. 6. The key external source of finance is retained profits. 7. The main external long-term source of finance is capital invested. 8. Sole traders and partners issue shares. 9. Companies issue three main types of shares. 10. A sole trader may also obtain long-term loan capital by issuing debentures. 11. Debentures are long-term loans which receive interest which must be paid. 12. Bank overdrafts are based on a current account.

Translate into English. 1. Оборотный капитал важен для оплаты текущих расходов, например счетов и заработной платы. 2. Финансирование оборотного капитала может дать возможность участвовать в тендерах и заключать более крупные контракты, приобретать большие объемы акций. 3. Оборудование является неотъемлемой частью многих предприятий, но найти финансовые средства для их покупки может быть сложно. 4. Такие способы финансирования, как лизинг, покупка в рассрочку или продажа с обратной арендой, позволяют вам получить оборудование, необходимое для роста. 5. В секторе общественного питания, где финансирование активов имеет решающее значение, наличие оборудования, соответствующего нормативным требованиям (например, энергоэффективности), иногда является необходимостью. 6. Хитрость для поддержания роста при обновлении или приобретении нового оборудования для кейтеринга заключается в том, чтобы заставить оборудование окупаться с помощью различных способов финансирования. 7. Многие предприятия переезжают в новые офисы по мере роста.

Тексты для чтения, перевода и реферирования на зачете

1. Consulting process. Management consultancy can be defined as the creation of value to the organisation through the use of assets and knowledge as well as techniques so as to improve the performance of businesses. The process can be attained through the provision of objective advice or through the implementation of businesses solutions (O'Mahoney 2010, p.54).

The definition specifies certain steps that consultants are supposed to undertake with the customers so as to achieve the desired results. These steps include identifying the problems, proposing solutions to the problem and helping the customer to implement the proposed solutions (O'Mahoney 2010, p.54).

The decision to use consultants is costly to the customer both in terms of finance and time. Therefore, the benefits derived from consultants must outweigh the cost involved. Based on these facts, management consultants must ensure that what they provide should improve the performance of the customer's organisation and help achieve its objectives (O'Mahoney 2010, p.54).

In addition, the contribution to the customers firm should be more valuable than what the current management provides or new recruits can contribute to the organisation. That is, the consultants should add more value to the customer's organisation. Therefore, the paper will examine various aspects of management consulting that concern both the customer and consultants.

There are various stages through which the consultants must undergo in order to provide quality services to their customers. Indeed these steps are essential in the process of consulting and in the delivery of quality services to the customer (O'Mahoney 2010, p.60). The first stage in the consulting process is to understand the issue or the problem at hand. That is, understanding the customer's problems and needs. This step involves identification of the problem and defining the scope at which it can be s The second step is assessing the needs of the customer. In other words, the consultant evaluates the problem to come up with the best possible solution. The needs are also assessed to recommend the process. The next step is to design the course of action for the implementation process (O'Mahoney 2010, p.73).The final stage is the evaluation of the whole process so as to continuously improve on the entire processes. In general, the complete process includes identifying the problems, proposing solutions to the problem and helping the customer to implement the proposed solutions and finally evaluation of the entire process (O'Mahoney 2010, p.74).

2. Consulting and management roles. Management through its functions has various roles to play to ensure that the assigned tasks are completed. Management has the responsibility to plan, organise, staff, direct and controls the consulting processes (Biggs 2010, p.10). For management to achieve these functions, certain qualitative attributes must be in existence. These qualities includes interpersonal, informational and decisional.Interpersonal qualities look at how the management reacts with others within the organisation as liaison, leaders and figureheads. Interpersonal qualities are essential in developing leadership skills as well as in developing the relationship with the customers (Czerniawska & May 2006, p.99). Informational qualities look on the way the consulting firm obtains information and how such information is manipulated to benefit both the customer and the firm. As an entrepreneurial firm, the decision making process is essential especially in the resources allocation as well as in negotiating with the customer. Effective

management consulting In order to be effective, management consultants must be in possession of specialized skills that would enable them to successfully undertake the assigned tasks. They must also successfully and seamlessly integrate these skills and apply them in their respective assignments (O'Mahoney 2010, p.54). These skills include analysis skills, project management skills and relationship-building skills.The analytic skills will enable the consultant to develop new ideas and solutions to the customer problems and identify new opportunities and possibilities on behalf of the customer's organisation. The project management skills will be necessary in delivering these new ideas and solutions to the customer organisation within the specified time frame and constraint budget (Kipping & Engwall 2003, p.10). The relationship-building skills are necessary in selling these ideas and providing leadership that is essential in the progress of the customer organisation.

3 Modes of consulting

There are several modes of consulting. These include process consulting, doctor-patient consulting and expert mode of consulting (Cody 1986, p.16). However, Appelbaum and Steed (2004, p.70.), further provided different categories of consulting that comprise of the strategic navigator, system architect, management physician, mental adventurer and friendly co-pilot.

Even though these modes of consulting have been categorised differently, they bear numerous similarities. According to Appelbaum and Steed (2004, p.70.) expert mode of consulting and mental adventure are analogous.

Expert and mental adventure are modes of consulting where the customer is fully aware of the problem and the consultant expertise are required to solve the problem (Schein 1969, p.60). The consultant is hired to provide solution to the problem since the customer lack the required expertise that would be used to address the situation (Appelbaum and Steed 2004, p.70). The consultants have a direct role of resolving the problem through the provision of the necessary skills and techniques or expertise.

Doctor-patient mode can be related to management physician, strategic navigator and system architect (Kipping & Engwall 2003, p.9). This is the mode where the consultants have to diagnose the problem and provide a solution. Moreover, the consultants have to provide the specialised expertise and insights to the organisation (Appelbaum & Steed 2004, p.71).

The process consulting can be related to the mode of co-pilot (Czerniawska & May 2006, p.101). In this mode, the customer and the consultant have to work together to provide a solution to the problem. In the process, the consultant has to offer various alternatives for the customer to consider. In addition, the consultant has to provide expertise diagnosis and build a close relationship with the customer (Schein 1969, p.59). In this model, the consultant has the responsibility of facilitating the decision making process of the customer but do not influence those decisions. Experience has indicated that this is the mode that is most essential in achieving the long term results (Buono 2009, p.74). The roles of the

consultants are defined by what is expected of them in any assignment depending on the type of model they are operating in (Appelbaum & Steed 2004, p.72). The consultants are required to provide expertise and facilitate the customer decision making process. The expert role involves designing solutions to the problems and providing ways through which those solutions can be implemented (Schein 1969, p.60).

4. The roles of the consultants In addition to the provision of expertise and facilitation, consultants are expected to develop and maintain a friendly relationship with the customer. The consultant-customer relationship that is exhibited by trust and openness determines collaborative roles. Further, consultants should also deal with external factors such as the customer's emotions and politics that may contribute negatively towards the success of the customer's organisation (Whittle 2006, p.426). Depending on what kind or role they play, a consultant is identified as an expert, facilitator, friend, drone or political agent. However, the capacity of the consultant is the most noticeable factor that limits the role of the consultants (Wickham & Wickham 2008, p.54.). For instance, expert consultants have broader scopes of advising but the role narrows down in the later stages of the consulting life cycle. On the other hand, the facilitator has the narrow scope of advising the customer in the initial stages of consulting life cycle but the scope broadens in the later stages and becomes optimal during the implementation stage in the life cycle (Wickham & Wickham 2008, p.54). Management consultants have several responsibilities that range from economic to discretionary. Management consultants have the responsibility for advocating on behalf of the customers the projects that would provide positive economic benefit to the customer (Burtonshaw-Gunn & Salameh 2010, p.45). In other words, consultants must use their professionalism and competencies to ensure that their clients derive economic benefits in all the projects that they are consulted for. Consultants must similarly be able to identity values, create values and deliver values as well as measure values. See the diagram for the roles of a consultant.

5. The relationships in consulting. The relationship between the customer and consultants will always be determined by the consultant level of professionalism, expertise and objectivity (Buono 2009, p.74). It is vital that customers and consultants have a cordial relationship. Customer-consultant relationship that is characterised by trust and openness determines the joint customer-consultant roles (Cody 1986, p.21). Consultants should not only provide their customers with advice and solutions to the problems but also be involved in the implementation process. Moreover, they should also help their customers to deal with external environmental factors that may contribute negatively towards the success of the customer's organisation (Whittle 2006, p.426.). See the diagram below for

the managed services of a consultancy firm. For a consultant to effectively complete its tasks it must be in a position to influence others. Influencing is about gaining support from others, engaging other people's imaginations and creating relationships (Biggs 2010, p.195). Consultants who have influencing skills are often perceived as being dynamic.

For consultants to successfully influence others they must have interpersonal, communicative, presentation and assertive skills. Influencing is about winning other people and creating an impact (Biggs 2010, p.196). Therefore, consultants must always influence the customer's so as to be successful in their tasks. Influencing is necessary in the consultancy work. Since the consultants are working under different situations, influencing is required to win the confidence as well as the attitudes of their customers and even those whom they are working with (Burtonshaw-Gunn & Salameh 2010, p.57). In other words, consultants must always thrive to proceed without causing any disruptions or dictating their way out. Facilitation is the provision of required resources, opportunities, support and encouragement to a particular group in order to achieve its objectives (Matthias 2011, p.6.). That is enabling the group to take responsibility and control on the way they should precede (Matthias 2011, p.7). Facilitation is a bout bringing change devoid of any disruptions; aiding people to self discover new approaches and solutions to their problems. The main goals of facilitation are to provide effectiveness in the work processes, identify the purpose and objectives, and identify the processes that enable the achievements of the objectives and to minimise the negative effects of the work processes.

Generally, facilitation is one of the responsibilities of experts in their daily assignments. A facilitator is anticipated to pay attention, offer support, provide guidance, challenge the status quo and generate better working environment (Czerniawska & May 2006, p.109). This can be seen through the analysis of the goals and skills that are required out of facilitation.

6. Types of clients. There are several clients that consultant are likely to deal with. The type of the customer is determined by the stage of involvement and the effect the consultancy work will have on the customer (Biswas & Twitchell 2002, p.20). The contact customer is that customer who is first approached by the consultant while the intermediate are those who are contacted at later stages of the consultancy work. The primary customers are the most directly affected and in most cases the major financier of the organisation (Biswas & Twitchell 2002, p.20). Unwitting clients are those that are affected yet not involved in the consultancy process or are aware of the process. Indirect customers are those who are affected, not involved in the process yet are aware of the process. The ultimate customers are those who are totally affected. It is the community that the projects affect. One of the most important things that consultants must thrive to achieve is to meet the client needs and expectations (Biswas & Twitchell 2002, p.23). However, majority of consultants are incapable of meeting their customer's expectations as theoretically defined.

Meeting the customer's expectations will primarily depend on the consultant professionalism, experience, ethical factors and the relationship that the consultant has build with the client (Kipping & Engwall 2003, p.10). That exists between the client and the consultant. Professionalism in consulting is the application of variable abilities, principles, thoughts and behaviors (Maister 2005, p.10.). Consultants are supposed to apply these principles to define the boundaries and scope within which they should work. These set of principles will enable them understand the legalities, risks and liabilities that are inherent in consulting (Kipping & Engwall 2003, p.10.). As stated by Maister (2005, p.12.), professional consultants must have certain attributes that are distinctive. They must have the ability to get the job done. Besides, technical qualification and analytical skills professional consultants must also possess other basic attributes, right attitudes and behavior. Generally, management consultants identify problems, offer solution and recommendations as well as additional resources that are necessary for implementation process. The major aims of management consultants are to improve the performance of the customer's organisation and help achieve its objectives.

Consultants are normally being hired by the organisations to add value. Their roles and responsibilities cannot just be limited to facilitating the customer's decision making process; rather they have expanded roles that are aimed at adding value to the customers. In order to achieve this feat, consultants are expected to be technically competent of their work.Additionally, consultants are hypothetically required to have the ability to develop and maintain the required friendly relationship with their customers, display professionalism at all stages and possess certain attributes that will enable them achieve their work as well as maintenance such cordial relationships. The consultant should have good interpersonal skills, be aware of the organisation decision making processes and the customers' needs. The ultimate goal is for the consultant to add more value to the customers.

. 7. **Financial Markets** Financial markets refer to any marketplace where the trading of securities occurs, including foreign exchange market (forex) and stock market, bond market and derivatives market. Financial markets are vital to the economy smooth operation. Over-the-counter markets. An over-the-counter (OTC) market is a decentralized market (it does not have physical locations, and trading is conducted electronically), in which market participants trade securities directly between two parties without a broker. In general, companies that trade on OTC markets are smaller than those that trade on primary markets, as OTC markets require less regulation and cost less to use. Bond markets. A bond is a security in which an investor loans money for a defined period at a pre-established interest rate. Bonds are issued by corporations, states, and sovereign governments to finance projects and operations. The bond market sells securities such as notes and bills issued by the Treasury of the State, for example. The bond market also is

called the debt, credit, or fixed-income market. Money markets. The money markets trade in products with highly liquid short-term maturities and are characterized by a high degree of safety and a low return in interest. At the wholesale level, the money markets involve large-volume trades between institutions and traders. At the retail level, they include money market mutual funds bought by individual investors and money market accounts opened by bank customers. Individuals may also invest in the money markets by buying short-term certificates of deposit (CDs), municipal notes, and Treasury bills. Derivatives market. A derivative is a contract between two or more parties whose value is based on an agreed-upon underlying financial asset (like a security) or set of assets (like an index). Derivatives are secondary securities whose value is solely derived from the value of the primary security that they are linked to. In and of itself a derivative is worthless. Rather than trading stocks directly, a derivatives market 66 trades in futures and options contracts, and other advanced financial products, that derive their value from underlying instruments like bonds, commodities, currencies, interest rates, market indexes, and stocks. Forex market. The forex (foreign exchange) market, or the currency market, is the market in which participants can buy, sell, exchange, and speculate on currencies. The forex market is the most liquid market in the world, as cash is the most liquid of assets. As with the OTC markets, the forex market is also decentralized and consists of a global network of computers and brokers from around the world. This market is made up of banks, commercial companies, central banks, investment management firms, hedge funds, and retail forex brokers and investors.

8.Organizations

Organizations need to be understood and intelligently managed because they are an ever-present feature of modern life. When people gather together and formally agree to combine their efforts for a common purpose, an organization is the result. All organizations, whatever their purpose, have four characteristics: coordination of effort, common goal or purpose, division of labor, and hierarchy of authority. If one of these characteristics is absent, an organization does not exist. Coordination of efforts multiplies individual contributions. A common goal or purpose gives organization members a rallying point. By systematically dividing complex tasks into specialized jobs, an organization can efficiently use its human resources. Division of labor permits organization member to become more proficient by repeatedly doing the same specialized task. Organization theorists have defined authority as the right to direct the action of others. Without a recognized hierarchy of authority, coordination of effort is difficult, if not impossible, to achieve. Organizational classifications aid systematic analysis and study of organizations. There is no universally accepted classification scheme among organization theorists. Two useful ways of classifying organizations are by purpose (by carrying out a wide range of purposes, they enable society as a whole to function) and technology. In regard to purpose, organizations can be classified as business, not-for-profit service, mutual benefit, or commonweal. In regard totechnology, there are long-linked (assembly lines), mediating (commercial banks, insurance companies, telephone companies, etc), and intensive

technologies (hospitals). Each of these technologies has characteristic strengths and weaknesses. There are both traditional and modern views of organizations. Traditionalists such as Fayol, Taylor, and Weber subscribed to closed-system thinking by ignoring the impact of environmental forces. Modern organization theorists prefer open-system thinking because it realistically includes organizations' environmental dependency. Early management writers proposed tightly controlled authoritarian organizations. Max Weber, a German sociologist, applied the label bureaucracy to his formula for the most rationally efficient type of organization. Bureaucracies are characterized by their division of labor, hierarchy of authority, framework of rules, and impersonality. Unfortunately, in actual practice, bureaucracy has become a synonym for a red tape and inefficiency. The answer to this bureaucratic paradox is to understand that bureaucracy is a matter of degree. When bureaucratic characteristics, which are present in all organizations, are carried to an extreme, efficiency gives way to inefficiency. Barnard's acceptance theory of authority and growing environmental complexity and uncertainty questioned traditional organization theory. Open-system thinking became a promising alternative because it was useful in explaining the necessity of creating flexible and adaptable rather than rigid organizations. Although the analogy between natural systems and human social systems (organizations) is an imperfect one, there are important parallels. Organizations, like all open systems, are unique because of their interaction with the environment, equifinality (reaching the same result by different means), synergy, and dynamic equilibrium.

9. Financial management. Financial management encompasses many different types of decisions. We can classify these decisions into three groups: investment decisions, financing decisions, and decisions that involve both investing and financing. Investment decisions are concerned with the use of funds—the buying, holding, or selling of all types of assets: Should we buy a new die stamping machine? Should we introduce a new product line? Sell the old production facility? Buy an existing company? Build a warehouse? Keep our cash in the bank? Financing decisions are concerned with the acquisition of funds to be used for investing and financing day-to-day operations. Should managers use the money raised through the firms' revenues? Should they seek money from outside of the business? A company's operations and investment can be financed from outside the business by incurring debts, such as though bank loans and the sale of bonds, or by selling ownership interests. Because each method of financing obligates the business in different ways, financing decisions are very important.

Many business decisions simultaneously involve both investing and financing. For example, a company may wish to acquire another firm—an investment decision. However, the success of the acquisition may depend on how it is financed: by borrowing cash to meet the purchase price, by selling additional shares of stock, or by exchanging existing shares of stock. If managers decide to borrow money, the borrowed funds must be repaid within a specified period of time. Creditors (those lending the money) generally do not share in the control of profits of the borrowing firm. If, on the other hand, managers decide to raise funds by selling ownership interests, these funds never have to be paid back. However, such a sale dilutes the control of (and profits accruing to) the current owners. Whether a

financial decision involves investing, financing, or both, it also will be concerned with two specific factors: expected return and risk. And throughout your study of finance, you will be concerned with these factors. Expected return is the difference between potential benefits and potential costs. Risk is the degree of uncertainty associated with these expected returns.

10. Economy vs economics. An economy indicates a region, a particular area or country, concerning production, distribution, consumption, and exchange of goods and services, and supply of money by economic agents (individuals, businesses, organizations, or governments). Economics is the study of an economy, i.e. its structure, condition, working, performance,issues, and remedies. It includes the analysis of the different types of the economic system, economic decisions and its implementation by various economic units (individuals, family, institutions, or government). Economy. There are different types of state economy. A marketbased economy is one where goods and services are produced and exchanged according to demand and supply between economic agents by barter or a medium of exchange. A command-based economy is one where political agents directly control what is produced and how it is sold and distributed. A green economy is low-carbon, resource efficient and socially inclusive. In a green economy, growth in income and employment is driven by public and private investments that enhance energy and resource efficiency, and prevent the loss of biodiversity and ecosystem services. The major factors that determine the economic environment are economic policy of the government, fiscal and monetary policies. Economics. Economics focuses on the interactions of economic agents and how economies work. Macroeconomics analyzes the entire economy (aggregated production, consumption, saving, and investment) and issues affecting it: unemployment of resources (labour, capital, and land), inflation, economic growth, and the public policies that address these issues (monetary, fiscal, and other policies). Microeconomics analyzes basic elements in the economy, including individual agents (households, firms, buyers, and sellers) and markets, their interactions, and the outcomes of interactions. Welfare economics is a branch of economics that uses microeconomic techniques to determine the allocative efficiency within an economy and the income distribution associated with it. It examines the economic activities of the individuals that comprise society. Economic resources. Economic resources are classified as material resources (raw materials and capital) and labour resources (labour force and entrepreneurship). It is characteristic of any society that while wants of people are growing constantly, the economic resources required to satisfy these wants are limited and scarce. Scarcity of resources makes necessity to save them. As a result, any economic system is trying to find most of utilizing resources for the production of goods and services. Basic questions of Economics. The great economist Smith said that every economic society has to answer three fundamental questions – what, how, and for whom. What? What goods are to be produced with the scarce resource: clothes, food, cars, submarines, television sets?
How? We have basic resources of labour and land, so how should we combine them to produce the goods and services that we want? For whom? Once we have produced goods

and services we then have to decide how to distribute them among the people and the economy.

11 Some Economic Laws Economic laws are statements concerning the disposal of scarce means for the achievement of unlimited ends. Economic laws do not deal with any particular individual, firm, or commodity. An economic law is a statement of a scientific truth about human behavior in the matter of the allocation of scarce resources into unlimited ends. The Laws of supply and demand. The laws of supply and demand are the most basic economic laws. They tie into all economic principles. In practice, supply and demand pull against each other until the market finds an equilibrium price. The law of supply states that the quantity of a good supplied (i.e., the amount owners or producers offer for sale) rises as the market price rises, and falls as the price falls. At higher prices, sellers will supply more of an economic good. Conversely, the law of demand says that the quantity of a good demanded falls as the price rises, and vice versa. At higher prices, buyers will demand less of an economic good. The law of supply says that these two laws interact to determine the actual market prices and volume of goods that are traded on a market. Demand is not the same thing as desire or need. Only when desire is supported by the ability and willingness to pay the price it becomes an effective demand and has an influence in the market. Demand is quantity of a commodity that will be demanded at any given price over some given period. The principle of elasticity operates in the area of demand as well as in the area of supply. Elasticity of demand is a measure of the change in the quantity of a good in response to demand. The change in demand results from a change in price. Demand is inelastic when a good is a basic necessity, but particularly elastic for nonessential commodities. The law of diminishing marginal utility. Satisfaction of personal wants in different ways by different things is known as its “utility”, that is the relationship between a consumer and a commodity. Utility varies with time, between different people and nations, and is related to the quantity available to the consumer. Therefore, utility is related to the law of supply and demand. The law of diminishing marginal utility states that the marginal utility of a good or service declines as its available supply increases. Each successive unit of the good or service values less and less, though its characteristics stay unchanged. Economic laws and consumption. Economic laws concerning consumption and free market control deal with two important types of consumption: non-productive consumption and production consumption. Non-productive consumption (living consumption, social consumption) is the use, or final consumption, of human consumption items to meet life needs. Production consumption is the use of resources, tools, raw materials, materials, energy, information, and labor in the production process to create new products.

12. Labour Payment Labor motivation is one of the most important functions of personnel management. It includes not only material benefits, but also moral ones, expressed in job satisfaction, in the prestige of work, in fulfilling internal human attitudes, and moral needs. The main forms of labor incentives for workers in the enterprise are material incentives (including salaries, bonuses, additional salaries, allowances, surcharges, discounts for services, the provision of additional rights, benefits). Wage and salary. The terms “wage”

and “salary” hold different meanings. Salary is a fixed amount payable at regular intervals, it can be weekly or monthly payments straight to an employee’s bank account. Basic salary is remuneration for work performed in accordance with established labor standards (tariff rates, salaries, piecework rates). Wage is an hourly or daily payment for the done work during the working day. The main difference between salary and hourly wage is that salary is a fixed payment agreed by both the employer and the employee. Wage, on the other hand, may vary depending on the worked hours and performance. Additional wage is remuneration for the work in excess of the established norm, for labor success, and for special working conditions (surcharges, allowances, compensation payments). Two principal systems of wage payments. Time wage system and piece rate system are two main systems of wage payment. Other systems, premium plans or profit sharing schemes, are used with either of these two systems to remunerate the employees and to provide them with incentive wages for increased productivity. There are different methods of wage payments. Wages are paid for the done work. “Time wages” are measured by the time worked (according to the period of time the worker is employed), while “piece wages” are measured by output. 13 Under time wages (or time rates) a definite sum is paid for a fixed period of time. Wages are paid at a fixed rate per hour, day, week, or other period. Each worker in a given category receives the same payment irrespective of differences in individual output. Under piece wages (or piece rates) payments depend upon output. Each worker is paid according to the quantity of work done by him and irrespective of the time he takes. Bonus systems. There are also various bonus systems to stimulate production. The payment to each worker is proportionate to his output. Such payment is more satisfactory than time rates, especially from the point of view of the employer and the national economy. However, they are not suitable for all kinds of work. The system can abuse if applied unscrupulously. Earnings are usually higher for workers on piece rates than for those on similar work paid on a time basis. The danger of excessive speed is not great as the workers are not penalized if they fail to reach a given standard or “target”. However, under some bonus system this danger is serious, if attractive monetary rewards are paid for attaining high standards of production, and efforts to reach these standards may involve strain resulting in injury, increase in accidents, and damage to materials and machines. Trade unions. Trade (labour) unions are organizations of employees established to bargain with employers concerning wages, houses, and conditions of employment. The main purpose of unions is to improve the economic conditions of their members. To raise wage a trade union needs to negotiate with the employer. Trade unions tend to prefer time rates, though they are parties to many collective agreements, which include piece rates where these are suitable for the kind of the done work. In addition, it is difficult to regulate piece rates by collective agreements as such rates may weaken the solidarity of the workers because of considerable differences in their earnings. Individual employees, who achieve high output, favor piece rates or reasonably fixed bonus payments that enable them to earn more.

13. Markets A market is any one of a variety of systems, institutions, procedures, social relations and infrastructures whereby parties engage in exchange. While parties may

exchange goods and services by barter, most markets rely on sellers offering their goods or services (including labor) in exchange for money from buyers. It can be said that a market is the process in which the prices of goods and services are established. Markets vary in form, scale (volume and geographic reach), location, and types of participants, as well as the types of goods and services traded. Examples include: physical retail markets (local farmers' markets, shopping centers); (non-physical) internet markets; international currency and commodity markets; stock markets (for the exchange of shares in corporations); markets for intermediate goods used in production of other goods and services; labor markets; and ad hoc auction markets. For a market to be competitive there must be more than a single buyer or seller. However, competitive markets rely on much larger numbers of both buyers and sellers. A market with single seller and multiple buyers is a monopoly. A market with a single buyer and multiple sellers is a monopsony. These are the extremes of imperfect competition. A commodity exchange is an organized market that functions under established rules and regulations. This market is the place for the purchase and sale of commodities. Most commodity markets around the world trade in agricultural products (cotton, wheat, tea, coffee, and etc.), raw materials (copper, gold, mica, lead, and etc.), and some manufactured products (clothing, furs, and etc.). Also trading includes various types of derivatives contracts based on these commodities such as forwards, futures, options, and spot trades (for immediate delivery). Commodity exchanges depend on a diverse group of participants, each of whom has an important role in maintaining a fully functioning mar- 23 ketplace. The most important commodities exchanges across the world are Agricultural Commodity Exchange for Africa (ACE) in Malawi, Intercontinental Exchange (ICE) in USA, Chittagong Tea Auction (CTA) in Bangladesh, Iran Energy Exchange (IRENEX) in Iran, Amsterdam Power Exchange (APX-ENDEX) in Netherlands, and etc. Financial markets refer to any marketplace where the trading of securities occurs, including foreign exchange market and stock market, bond market and derivatives market. Financial markets are vital to the economy smooth operation. Financial markets facilitate the exchange of liquid assets. Most investors prefer investing in two markets, the stock markets and the bond markets. There are four types of financial markets. The stock market, or stock exchange market, is the collection of markets and exchanges where regular activities of buying, selling, and issuance of shares of publicly-held companies take place. There can be multiple stock trading venues in a country or a region which allow transactions in stocks and other forms of securities. The forex (foreign exchange) market, or the currency market, is a global decentralized or over-the-counter (OTC) market for the trading of currencies. This market determines foreign exchange rates for every currency. It includes all aspects of buying, selling and exchanging currencies at current or determined prices. Bond market sells securities such as notes and bills issued by the Treasury of the State, for example. The bond market also is called the debt, credit, or fixed-income market. The money markets trade in products with highly liquid short-term maturities. A derivatives market trades in futures and options contracts, and other advanced financial products, that derive their value from underlying instruments like bonds, commodities, currencies, interest rates, market indexes, and stocks. A

derivative is a contract between two or more parties whose value is based on an agreed-upon underlying financial asset (like a security) or set of assets (like an index).

14. Financial Analysis. Financial analysis is a tool of financial management. It consists of the evaluation of the financial condition and operating performance of a business firm, an industry, or even the economy, and the forecasting of its future condition and performance. It is, in other words, a means for examining risk and expected return. Data for financial analysis may come from other areas within the firm, such as marketing and production departments, from the firm's own accounting data, or from financial information vendors such as Bloomberg Financial Markets,

Moody's Investors Service, Standard & Poor's Corporation, Fitch Ratings, and Value Line, as well as from government publications, such as the Federal Reserve Bulletin. Financial publications such as Business Week, Forbes, Fortune, and the Wall Street Journal also publish financial data (concerning individual firms) and economic data (concerning industries, markets, and economies), much of which is now also available on the Internet. Within the firm, financial analysis may be used not only to evaluate the performance of the firm, but also its divisions or departments and its product lines. Analyses may be performed both periodically and as needed, not only to ensure informed investing and financing decisions, but also as an aid in implementing personnel policies and rewards systems. Outside the firm, financial analysis may be used to determine the creditworthiness of a new customer, to evaluate the ability of a supplier to hold to the conditions of a long-term contract, and to evaluate the market performance of competitors. Firms and investors that do not have the expertise, the time, or the resources to perform financial analysis on their own may purchase analyses from companies that specialize in providing this service. Such companies can provide reports ranging from detailed written analyses to simple creditworthiness ratings for businesses. As an example, Dun & Bradstreet, a financial services firm, evaluates the creditworthiness of many firms, from small local businesses to major corporations. As another example, three companies—Moody's Investors Service, Standard & Poor's, and Fitch—evaluate the credit quality of debt obligations issued by corporations and express these views in the form of a rating that is published in the reports available from these three organizations.

15. Advertising Advertising is a form of communication used to help sell products and services. Typically, it communicates a message including the name of the product or service and how that product or service could potentially benefit the consumer. However, advertising does typically attempt to persuade potential customers to purchase or to consume more of a particular brand of product or service. Modern advertising developed with the rise of mass production in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. 35 Many advertisements are designed to generate increased consumption of those products and services through the creation and reinvention of the "brand image". For these purposes, advertisements sometimes embed their persuasive message with factual information. There are many media used to deliver these messages, including traditional media such as television, radio, cinema, magazines, newspapers, video games, billboards, mail or post

and Internet. Today, new media such as digital signage is growing as a major new mass media. Advertising is often placed by an advertising agency on behalf of a company or other organization. Adam Smith defines advertising, in its non-commercial guise, as a powerful educational tool capable of reaching and motivating large audiences. “Advertising justifies its existence when used in the public interest – it is much too powerful a tool to use solely for commercial purposes”. Commercial advertising media can include wall paintings, billboards, street furniture components, printed flyers and rack cards, radio, cinema and television adverts, web banners, mobile telephone screens, shopping carts, web popups, skywriting, bus stop benches, human billboards, magazines, newspapers, town criers, sides of buses, musical stage shows, subway platforms and trains, stickers on apples in supermarkets, shopping cart handles, the opening section of streaming audio and video, posters, and the backs of event tickets and supermarket receipts. Any place an “identified” sponsor pays to deliver their message through a medium is advertising. In the world of advertising, selling products is the most important goal. As companies are becoming more global, they are looking for new ways to sell their products all over the world. It is true because of global communication, the world is becoming smaller today. But it is also true that the problems of global advertising problems of language and culture − have become larger than ever. To avoid the problems of translation, most advertising firms are now beginning to write completely new ads. In writing new ads, globe advertisers must consider different styles of communication in different countries. In some cultures, the meaning of an advertisement is usually found in the exact words that are used to describe the product and to explain why it is better than the competition. This is true in such countries as the United States, Britain, and Germany But in other cultures, such as Japan’s, the message depends more on situations and feelings 36 than it does on words. For this reason, the goal of many TV commercials in Japan will be to show how good people feel in a party or some other social situation. The commercial will not say that a product is better than others. Instead, its goal will be to create a positive mood or feeling about the product. Global advertisers must also consider differences in laws and customs. For instance, certain countries will not allow TV commercials on Sunday, and others will not allow TV commercials for children’s products on any day of the week. History. Egyptians used papyrus to make sales messages and wall posters. Commercial messages and political campaign displays have been found in the ruins of Pompeii and ancient Arabia. Lost and found advertising on papyrus was common in Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome. The tradition of wall painting can be traced back to Indian rock art paintings that date back to 4000 BC. As the towns and cities of the Middle Ages began to grow, and the general populace was unable to read, signs that today would say cobbler, miller, tailor or blacksmith would use an image associated with their trade such as a boot, a suit, a hat, a clock, a diamond, a horse shoe, a candle or even a bag of flour. Fruits and vegetables were sold in the city square from the backs of carts and wagons and their proprietors used street callers or town criers to announce their whereabouts for the convenience of the customers. In the 17th century advertisements started to appear in weekly newspapers in England..

16. Central Banking System The bank is responsible through its own activity and nature to obtain economic and financial resources through a multitude of instruments created for such purpose, such as bonds, deposits or obligations. Alternatively, this system of entities is responsible for facilitating the access of its clients to these resources through banking tools such as loans and mortgages, in exchange for interest or commissions previously agreed upon in each operation. The central banking system is a major sector of any modern monetary system. It is of great importance to the fiscal policy of the national government and the functioning of the private sector. Central banks. Central Banks such as the Bank of England, the Federal reserve System of the US, the Bundesbank of Germany, the Central Bank of Russia, the National Bank of Belarus function for the government and other banks, not for private customers. Central banks are involved in the issue of money and maintain the country's foreign currency reserves. Central banks act as bankers to governments as the designers of monetary and credit policies, and as lenders of last resort to commercial banks in the case of a financial crisis. In the countries with the developed market economy there are two-level bank systems. The system top level is presented by the central (issue) bank. At the bottom level the commercial banks subdivided into universal and specialized banks (investment banks, savings banks, savings and loan associations, banks of the consumer credit, branch banks), and not bank credit and financial institutes (investment companies, investment funds, the insurance companies, pension funds, etc.) operate. The central bank in the majority of the countries belongs to the state. But even if the state formally does not own its capital (the USA, Italy, Switzerland) or owns partially (Japan – 55%), the central bank carries out state structure functions. The central bank possesses a monopoly on release in the issue of banknotes. It stores official goldcurrency reserves, regulates credit-and-monetary sphere and currency relations. By the position in credit system the central bank plays a role of "bank of banks", i.e. stores obligatory reserves and available assets of commercial banks and other establishments, gives loans, represents itself as "the creditor of ultimate authority". Commercial banks. Commercial banks serve as the basic link of credit system. They carry out almost all kinds of bank operations. Historically developed functions of commercial banks are reception of contributions into current accounts, short-term crediting industrial and trade enterprises, realization of calculations between them. In modern conditions commercial banks managed to expand essentially reception of urgent and savings contributions, mid- and long-term crediting to create system of crediting of the population. Commercial banks are created on the share or joint-stock beginnings. A modern joint-stock bank is expected to supply the following services: to accept deposits, to provide cheque facilities, to collect and pay cheques, bills and divi- dends, to grant loans to customers and arrange for overdraft facilities, to open letters of credit, to issue travelers' cheques. The National Bank of Belarus. The bank system of Belarus is two-level and consists of the National Bank of Belarus and commercial banks. The National Bank is the central bank of Belarus and operates exclusively in the interests of Belarus. The main objectives of the activity of the National Bank are: protection and maintenance of stability of the Belarus ruble; development and strengthening of the bank system of Belarus; maintenance of effective, reliable and safe functioning of payment system. The national

bank was created in 1922. It performs the following functions: develop the Republic of Belarus Monetary Policy; issue money; regulate money circulation; arrange the functioning of the payments system of the Republic of Belarus; act as the lender of last resort with respect to banks and provide refinancing thereof; carry out foreign exchange regulation; act as a central depositary of Government of the Republic of Belarus and local; issue National Bank securities; establish and exercise foreign exchange control; carry out state registration of banks and non-bank financial institutions; license banking activities; and establish banking operations rules and procedures. The Bank of England. Founded in 1694, the Bank of England is one of the oldest central Banks. It started as a commercial bank with private shareholders. It was privately owned until 1946. That year it was nationalized. The Bank of England offers a range of services to its customers. There are three important groups of customers: commercial banks, other central banks and the government. The government keeps its main banking accounts at the Bank of England. And payments of taxes to the government and payments by the government for social security are made to and from accounts at the Bank. The Federal Reserve System or "Fed". It is an independent agency of Congress founded in 1913. It includes twelve federal reserve banks and a board of governors. The Fed performs three major functions: 1) providing services to the banking system and the federal government; 2) stabilizing the banking system, and it controls the quantity of money in circulations; providing safekeeping for securities.

17. Money The use of money is as old as the human civilization. Money is basically a method of exchange, and coins and notes are just items of exchange. But money was not always the same form as the money today, and is still developing. Why did people start using money? At first people bartered, which means they exchanged things they had for things they needed. Subsequently both livestock, particularly cattle, and plant products such as grain, come to be used as money in many different societies at different periods. Aztecs used cacao beans. Norwegians once used butter. The early U.S. colonists used tobacco leaves and animal hides. Oman soldiers were paid a "salarium" of salt. On the island of Nauru, the islanders used rats. Human slaves have also been used as currency around the world. In the 16th century, the average exchange value of a slave was 8,000 pounds of sugar. Gradually, however, people began exchanging items that had no intrinsic value, but which had only agreed-upon or symbolic value. An example is shell. Metal tool money, such as knife and spade monies, was also first used in China. These early metal monies developed into primitive versions of round coins at the end of the Stone Age. Chinese coins were made out of copper, often containing holes so they could be put together like a chain. The first government to make coins that looked alike and use them as money was probably the city of Lydia in Ancient Greece. The coins were made from a mixture of gold and silver. But they were heavy and difficult to carry, and the cities and the roads or Europe were dangerous places to carry 1700s, France's government became the first in Europe to make paper money – banknotes or bills they say in U.S. But paper money, as well as first coins ever, was invented China, where traveler Marco Polo saw it in the 1280s. The Bank of Sweden issued the first paper money in Europe in 1661, though this was also a temporary measure. In 1694 the Bank of England was founded and began to

issue promissory notes, originally hand written but later printed. To make travelling with gold less dangerous, goldsmiths, or people who made jewelry and other items of gold, came up with an idea. The goldsmiths started writing out notes on pieces of paper that said the person who had the note could trade the note in for gold. These promissory notes were the beginning of paper money in Europe. If you look at a British bank note today, you'll see it still says: I promise to pay the bearer on demand the sum of twenty pounds. Now people carry plastic cards instead of cash. With your credit card you can take money from the cash-machine any time you need it. Banknotes of different countries show queens and presidents or other famous people. But you may also find a tiger or elephant (India), cows and fruit (Nigeria), a map (Norway), or even schoolchildren (Taiwan). People travelling to other countries usually need to convert (change) their money into local currency. For that an exchange rate is used. The functions of money. All values in the economic system are measured in terms of money. The value of money is basically its value as a medium of exchange or as economists put it, its "purchasing power". This purchasing power depends on supply and demand. The demand for money is reckonable as the quantity needed to effect business transactions. The demand for money is related to the rapidity with which business is done. The supply of money is the actual amount in notes and coins available for business purposes. If too much money is available, its value decreases. This condition is known as "inflation". The role of money depends on the state of development of an economy. Money performs the function of a medium of exchange or means of payment with goods being exchanged for money and money for goods. At the same time it also acts as a unit of account. Money is a store of value, as part of an individual's income may be set aside for future consumption. Money is a means of making deferred payment. This important function of money is very important in the modern world where so much business is conducted on the basis of credit. The most important types of money are commodity money, credit money and fiat money. The value of commodity money is about equal to the value of the material contained in it. The principle materials used for this type of money have been gold, silver and copper. Credit money is documents with promises by the issuer to pay an equivalent in the standard monetary metal. Fiat money is paper money the value of which is fixed by the government. Banknotes are usually made from special high-quality paper with watermarks, metallic strips and other features against forgery.

18. Business Finance and Growth The size of a firm can be measured in different ways. Popular bases are profit; turnover; number of employees; capital employed; and market share. Firms grow through internal or organic growth. This expansion is achieved through extra finance and reinvesting profits, with the firm expanding its product range or moving into new markets. It is a slow process so many firms seek to grow more quickly through merger or takeover. Mergers take place between two firms agreeing to join together. Takeovers occur when one company purchases sufficient voting shares in another company to give it control of that company. Integration. Firms are able to grow more quickly as a result of mergers and/or takeovers. The integration that takes place as a result of the new company reorganizing its activities can be horizontal, vertical, and lateral. Horizontal integration occurs when firms in the same industry and at the same stage of

production (primary, secondary or tertiary) combine. For example, two vehicle manufacturers may merge production. Larger-scale production and economies of scale should result from this integration. Vertical integration occurs between firms in the same industry but at different stages of production. For example, it can be a brewery (secondary) taking over a public house (tertiary). Advantages include greater control of supply (if integration is “backwards”) and better access to the market (if “forwards”). Vertical integration, also known as conglomerate integration, occurs when a company moves into a new product area or market as a result of the merger/takeover. This leads to greater diversification, which reduces the risk for the company: it is now not as dependent on one market or one product. Financing. Growth requires financing. In the public sector, the major sources of finance for a public corporation are from its own trading activities, general taxation and borrowing from the Treasury. In the private sector, there are many different sources of finance available to firms. These can be either short term or long term, and can arise from internal sources or be obtained from external sources. The key internal source of finance is retained profits. Owners must make a choice. They either spend net profit by withdrawing it out of the firm (including issuing it as dividends) or keep it in the firm (more cash is kept in the firm which helps expansion). The main external long-term source of finance is capital invested. Sole traders and partners find their own capital, for example, from personal savings. The two main types of shares the companies issue are ordinary shares (“equity” capital, giving a vote at the Annual General Meeting (AGM), with the shareholder receiving a variable rate of dividend after all other dividends and payments have been made out of profits) and preference shares (the shareholder receives a fixed dividend after debenture interest and other deductions are made, but before the ordinary dividend is declared – these are therefore less of a gamble than ordinary shares, but the owner does not have a vote). A company may also obtain long-term loan capital by issuing debentures (long-term loans receiving interest that must be paid; debenture holders are not owners of the company in the same way that shareholders are). In addition to share and loan capital, the major external sources of finance include: (1) trade credit – taking advantage of the credit period allowed by suppliers; (2) factoring – the firm sells its debts for less than their face value to a factoring company, receiving immediate cash; (3) bank overdrafts – based on a current account, the owner(s) can overdraw up to an agreed maximum figure; (4) bank and other loans – longer term than overdrafts, for a fixed amount and for a fixed period; (5) leasing – the firm agrees with a finance house to lease capital equipment, to avoid the cost of buying it. Finance is vital to a firm, both for growth and for survival. The owners will forecast their cash-flows to see whether they can meet their debts out of cash inflows, or whether they need to make arrangements to borrow money. Companies are now obliged to produce a cash-flow analysis as part of their published accounts.

19. Types of Financial Markets Financial markets refer to any marketplace where the trading of securities occurs, including foreign exchange market (forex) and stock market, bond market and derivatives market. Financial markets are vital to the economy smooth operation. Over-the-counter markets. An over-the-counter (OTC) market is a decentralized

market (it does not have physical locations, and trading is conducted electronically), in which market participants trade securities directly between two parties without a broker. In general, companies that trade on OTC markets are smaller than those that trade on primary markets, as OTC markets require less regulation and cost less to use. Bond markets. A bond is a security in which an investor loans money for a defined period at a pre-established interest rate. Bonds are issued by corporations, states, and sovereign governments to finance projects and operations. The bond market sells securities such as notes and bills issued by the Treasury of the State, for example. The bond market also is called the debt, credit, or fixed-income market. Money markets. The money markets trade in products with highly liquid short-term maturities and are characterized by a high degree of safety and a low return in interest. At the wholesale level, the money markets involve large-volume trades between institutions and traders. At the retail level, they include money market mutual funds bought by individual investors and money market accounts opened by bank customers. Individuals may also invest in the money markets by buying short-term certificates of deposit (CDs), municipal notes, and Treasury bills. Derivatives market. A derivative is a contract between two or more parties whose value is based on an agreed-upon underlying financial asset (like a security) or set of assets (like an index). Derivatives are secondary securities whose value is solely derived from the value of the primary security that they are linked to. In and of itself a derivative is worthless. Rather than trading stocks directly, a derivatives market 66 trades in futures and options contracts, and other advanced financial products, that derive their value from underlying instruments like bonds, commodities, currencies, interest rates, market indexes, and stocks. Forex market. The forex (foreign exchange) market, or the currency market, is the market in which participants can buy, sell, exchange, and speculate on currencies. The forex market is the most liquid market in the world, as cash is the most liquid of assets. As with the OTC markets, the forex market is also decentralized and consists of a global network of computers and brokers from around the world. This market is made up of banks, commercial companies, central banks, investment management firms, hedge funds, and retail forex brokers and investors.

20. Business Environment Organizations in the economy are classified according to what they produce or provide: primary extractive industries such as the “3 Fs” − farming, fishing, forestry; secondary organizations that manufacture products or construct roads, buildings, etc.; and tertiary organizations providing services − either commercial services, such as banking, transport and insurance, or direct (community services, for example the emergency services). Another way of classifying organizations results from the UK’s mixed economy. The “mix” consists of the private sector and the public sector. Private sector firms are owned by individuals who hope to make a profit. The public sector consists of national and local government organizations where the emphasis is less on the profit motive and more on providing a service for the community. Firms use resources, known as factors of production. The four factors are land, capital, labour and enterprise. The first three factors are combined and used by entrepreneurs (the enterprise factor of production) in producing their goods and services. They set up private sector organizations

in the hope of making profits, and as business owners and decision-takers they bear the risk of making a loss. Entrepreneurs try to combine and use the other factors of production in the most efficient way. The price mechanism helps them make decisions. Entrepreneurs compare the relative prices (or costs) of each factor of production and, where possible, substitute a cheaper factor for a more expensive one. Specialization helps entrepreneurs, their businesses and advanced economies generally to function more efficiently. This greater efficiency comes through the use of specialist tools and equipment, and by people developing specialized skills. Countries also tend to specialize in products or services, such as the UK specializing in certain manufactured goods. As a result of specializing, however, a country cannot produce everything it needs for its population. It must therefore trade with other countries by importing and exporting, selling the surpluses that result from specializing: countries become interdependent. People also specialize, and become dependent upon others. They require a medium of exchange to buy what they need. Money serves this function. It also functions as a measure of value since it allows us to establish a price for something, and a store of value: it can be saved. Savings can be invested by the saver or a borrower with a view to making profit. To encourage savings to take place, interest is paid on them. Through specialization, people develop particular skills. Problems of unemployment (and the need to retrain) arise if these skills become obsolete. Specialists who are in employment, whilst helping their organizations, operate efficiently, may face problems such as the boredom which can come from doing repetitive tasks. Where tasks are repetitive, there is scope to replace people (the labour factor of production) with machines (the capital factor of production). This leads to higher labour unemployment, which in turn leads to higher social and other costs. One of the key decisions an entrepreneur must make is where to locate the business. Location is influenced by one or more of the following: where other firms in the same industry are based (possible external economies); the nearness of and ease of access to the firm's suppliers and markets; the availability of suitably skilled labour; a suitable site; the UK government, the European Union or other finance towards the cost; and suitable infrastructure (road, rail, air or sea); or the personal choice of the owners/decision-makers.

21. Human Relations and Work. All firms depend for their survival on a contented and efficient workforce: its human resource. A firm manages its human resources, i.e. its personnel. In order to recruit suitable staff, the department with the vacancy needs to inform Personnel of the job description (the nature of and du- 68 ties associated with the post) and the person specification (the personal qualities required by the successful applicant). The firm might recruit internally, for example on notice boards or in a staff newsletter. Internal recruitment will increase the motivation level of existing employees. There are various sources for external recruitment; for example, Personnel staff may use Job Centers and/or recruitment agencies (служба занятости), or choose to advertise in an appropriate newspaper. Selection. For selection, applicants need to be shortlisted (оставлять в списке после исключения явно непригодных). This is achieved by comparing their experience and qualifications – shown on their application forms (бланк, форма заявления) or curriculum vitae (краткая биография, резюме) – against the job

description and person specification. Interviews are then conducted. These often include selection tests such as aptitude testing. After appointment the Personnel Department will issue the successful applicant with a contract of employment containing information such as hours of work, holidays and holiday pay, and the disciplinary rules. Training needs. Once in post, the Personnel Department considers staff training needs. The purpose of induction training is to familiarize the new member of staff with the firm's activities and structures. Once established, the employee may gain additional skills through on-the-job training or off-the-job training. The former is based 'in-house' with employees learning as they work: training tends to be limited to particular skills and procedures. Off-the-job training involves attending specialist training centers and is more closely associated with obtaining qualifications. Job satisfaction. Personnel managers are particularly concerned with ensuring that the firm's employees gain job satisfaction. Pay levels are important, although many psychologists suggest that there are several other aspects in making a job satisfying. Theorist Abraham Maslow: a hierarchy of needs require satisfying: once low-level needs such as safety and hunger are satisfied, employees seek to achieve higher-order needs such as social- and selffulfillment. Theorist Douglas McGregor: a Theory X manager assumes people dislike work and need control and direction. Theory Y managers believe their employees want to make positive contributions to the work of the firm. Theorist Frederick Herzberg: hygiene factors such as money and working conditions are important, but motivators such as achievement and recognition are also needed to motivate employees. Trade unions. Personnel staff is involved in negotiation and consultation with trade union representatives. Trade unions are employee organizations set up to represent their interests. Popular reasons for joining a trade union are for job protection, to receive members' benefits and to seek higher pay and/or better working conditions. Unions normally aim to: protect their members (for example, from unfair dismissal); negotiate with employers regarding pay conditions; ensure their members receive rights such as maternity benefit to which they are entitled; and represent their members, for example, at industrial tribunals. Collective bargaining takes place between employers and trade unions and is a common way to establish pay levels and working conditions. If talks break down and a dispute arises, union members have a number of options available, including holding an official strike. If the dispute continues, employers and unions may resort to arbitration, for example, by bringing in ACAS, the Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service .

16. CEO, CFO, CIO, CMO, COO, CTO In the hierarchical structure of the company the following positions should be distinguished: CEO , CFO, CIO, CMO, COO, and CTO . CEO. A chief executive officer (CEO) or chief executive is the highest-ranking corporate officer, administrator, or executive, in charge of total management of a corporation, company, organization, or agency, reporting to the board of directors. In internal communication and press releases, many companies capitalize the term and those of other high positions, even when they are not proper nouns. CFO. The Chief Financial Officer (CFO) of a company or public agency is the corporate officer primarily responsible for managing the 70 financial risks of the business or agency. This officer is also responsible for financial planning and record-keeping, as well as financial reporting to higher

management. The title is equivalent to finance director, commonly seen in the United Kingdom. The CFO typically reports to the Chief Executive Officer, and is frequently a member of the board of directors. CIO. The chief information officer (CIO) is a job title for the board level head of information technology within an organization. The CIO typically reports to the chief executive officer, although in some organizations they can report to the chief financial officer (CFO). In military organizations, they report to the commanding officer or commanding general of the organization. CMO. Chief marketing officer (CMO) is a corporate title referring to an executive responsible for various marketing in an organization. Most often the position reports to the chief executive officer. With primary or shared responsibility for areas such as sales management, product development, distribution channel management, public relations, marketing communications (including advertising and promotions), pricing, market research, and customer service, CMOs are faced with a diverse range of specialized disciplines in which they are forced to be knowledgeable. This challenge is compounded by the fact that the day-to-day activities of these functions, which range from the highly analytical (pricing and market research) to highly creative (advertising and promotions), are carried out by subordinates possessing learning and cognitive styles to which the CMO must adapt his or her own leadership style. COO. A chief operating officer or chief operations officer (COO) is a corporate officer responsible for managing the day-to-day activities of the corporation. The COO is one of the highest ranking members of an organization, monitoring the daily operations of the company and reporting to the chief executive officer and/or board of directors. The COO is usually an executive or senior vice president. CTO. A chief technical officer or chief technology officer (CTO) is an executive position whose holder is focused on scientific and technical issues within an organization. Often, the CTO will oversee technical staff at a company, particularly those building products or creating services that embody industry-specific technologies. In some cases the CTO will also oversee the work of the research and development organizations. There is currently no commonly shared definition of the CTO position or that person's responsibilities. Young start-ups typically have a set of technically hands-on tasks for the CTO, while an international conglomerate may need the CTO to deal with the representatives of foreign governments and industry organizations. In practice, the CTO can have many more responsibilities than managing a portfolio of R&D or production projects. This person may report to the CIO (or the other way around) and provide a technical voice in the strategic planning for a company. CTOs formerly work closely with the CEO to help determine what types of products or services the company should focus on.

22. A Job Interview. A job interview is an interview consisting of a conversation between a job applicant and a representative of an employer which is conducted to assess whether the applicant should be hired. Interviews are one of the most popularly used devices for employee selection. Interviews vary in the extent to which the questions are structured, from a totally unstructured and free-wheeling conversation, to a structured interview in which an applicant is asked a predetermined list of questions in a specified order; structured interviews are usually more accurate predictors of which applicants will make

suitable employees, according to research studies. A job interview typically precedes the hiring decision. The interview is usually preceded by the evaluation of submitted résumés from interested candidates, possibly by examining job applications or reading many resumes. Next, after this screening, a small number of candidates for interviews is selected. Employers conduct different types of job interviews, such as behavioral interviews, case interviews, group interviews, phone and video interviews, second interviews, and even interviews held during a meal. Interviewers use behavioral based interviews to determine how the applicants have handled various job situations in the past. The idea is that the past behavior predicts how a person will act in the new job. Applicants don't get many easy "yes" or "no" questions and in most cases, they need to answer with an anecdote about a previous experience. Interviews that include the interviewer giving applicants a business scenario and asking them to manage the situation are called case interviews. This interview type is most often used in management consulting and investment banking interviews and requires applicants to show off their analytical ability and problem-solving skills. Employers may hold group interviews because they're often more efficient than one-on-one interviews. Group interviews can involve an applicant being interviewed by a group (or panel) of interviewers or one interviewer and a group of applicants. As an applicant passed the first interview and just got an email or call to schedule a second interview. This interview will be more detailed and may be several hours long. One of the reasons employers take job candidates out to lunch or dinner is to evaluate their social skills and to see if they can handle themselves gracefully under pressure. Applicants should remember they are still being observed so use their best table manners, choose foods that aren't too messy. There are other interviews an applicant may experience throughout the career. These employment-related interviews include exit interviews, mock interviews, and informational interviews.

23. Interview Tips to Improve Interview Performance The day has come: you found an awesome job, applied, and got a call from a real-live human being who wants to meet with you. Congrats! But your work has only just begun. Even the smartest and most qualified job seekers need to prepare for their job interview. Interview skills are learned, and there are no second chances to make a great first impression. These 10 interview tips will teach you how to answer interview questions and convince the hiring manager that you are the one for the job. Practice good nonverbal communication. It's about demonstrating confidence: standing straight, making eye contact and connecting with a firm handshake. That first nonverbal impression can be a great beginning – or quick ending – to your interview. Dress for the job or company. Today's casual dress codes do not give you permission to dress as "they" do when you interview. It is important to know what to wear to an interview and to be well-groomed. Whether you wear a suit or something less formal depends on the company culture and the position you are seeking. If possible, call to find out about the company dress code before the interview. Listen. From the very beginning of the interview, your interviewer is giving you information, either directly or indirectly. If you are not hearing it, you are missing a major opportunity. Good communication skills include listening and letting the person know you heard what was said. Observe your

interviewer, and match that style and pace. Don't talk too much. Telling the interviewer more than he needs to know could be a fatal mistake. When you have not prepared ahead of time, you may ramble when answering interview questions, sometimes talking yourself right out of the job. Prepare for the interview by reading through the job posting, matching your skills with the position's requirements and relating only that information. Don't be too familiar. The interview is a professional meeting to talk business. This is not about making a new friend. It is important to bring energy and enthusiasm to the interview and to ask questions, but do not overstep your place as a candidate looking for a job. Use appropriate language. It's a given that you should use professional language during the interview. Be aware of any inappropriate slang words or references to age, race, religion, politics, or sexual orientation – these topics could send you out the door very quickly. Don't be cocky. Attitude plays a key role in your interview success. There is a fine balance between confidence, professionalism, and modesty. Even if you're putting on a performance to demonstrate your ability, overconfidence is as bad, if not worse, as being too reserved. Take care to answer the questions. When interviewers ask for an example of a time when you did something, they are asking behavioral interview questions, which are designed to elicit a sample of your past behavior. If you fail to relate a specific example, you not only don't answer the question, but you also miss an opportunity to prove your ability and talk about your skills. Ask questions. When asked if they have any questions, most candidates answer, "No." This answer is wrong. Part of knowing how to interview is being ready to ask questions that demonstrate an interest in what goes on in the company. Asking questions also gives you the opportunity to find out if this is the right place for you. The best questions come from listening to what you're asked during the interview and asking for additional information. Don't appear desperate. When you interview with the "please, please hire me" approach, you appear desperate and less confident. Reflect the three Cs during the interview: cool, calm, and confident. Work on your answers. You know you can do the job; make sure the interviewer believes you can, too. One way to do this is by preparing well-thought-out answers to questions they're most likely to ask.

24. Ultimate Guide to Answering the Most Common Interview Questions Classic questions touch on the essentials hiring managers want to know about every candidate: who you are, why you're a fit for the job, and what you're good at. You may not be asked exactly these questions in exactly these words, but if you have answers in mind for them, you'll be prepared for just about anything the interviewer throws your way. Tell about yourself. This question seems simple, but it's crucial to prepare for it. Don't give your complete employment (or personal) history. Instead give a pitch – one that's concise and compelling and that shows exactly why you're the right fit for the job. Talk a little bit about your current role (including the scope and perhaps one big accomplishment), then give some background as to how you got there and experience you have that's relevant. Finally, segue into why you want – and would be perfect for – this role. How did you hear about this position? This is actually a perfect opportunity to stand out and show your passion for and connection to the company. For example, if you found out about the gig through a friend or professional contact, name drop that person, then share why you were

so excited about it. If you discovered the company through an event or article, share that. Even if you found the listing through a random job board, share what, specifically, caught your eye about the role. Why do you want to work at this company? Do your research and point to something that makes the company unique that really appeals to you; talk about how you've watched the company grow and change since you first heard of it; focus on the organization's opportunities for future growth and how you can contribute to it; or share what's gotten you excited from your interactions with employees so far. Whichever route you choose, make sure to be specific. And if you can't figure out why you'd want to work at the company you're interviewing with by the time you're well into the hiring process? It might be a red flag telling you that this position is not the right fit. What are your greatest strengths? When answering this question, think quality, not quantity. In other words, don't rattle off a list of adjectives. Instead, pick one or a few (depending on the question) specific qualities that are relevant to this position and illustrate them with examples. Stories are always more memorable than generalizations. And if there's something you were hoping to mention because it makes you a great candidate, but you haven't had a chance yet, this would be the perfect time. What do you consider to be your weaknesses? What your interviewer is really trying to do with this question – beyond identifying any major red flags – is to gauge your self-awareness and honesty. So, "I can't meet a deadline to save my life" is not an option – but neither is "Nothing! I'm perfect!" Strike a balance by thinking of something that you struggle with but that you're working to improve. For example, maybe you've never been strong at public speaking, but you've recently volunteered to run meetings to help you get more comfortable when addressing a crowd. Tell about a challenge or conflict you've faced at work, and how you dealt with it. You're probably not eager to talk about conflicts you've had at work during a job interview. But if you're asked directly, don't pretend you've never had one. Be honest about a difficult situation you've faced (but without going into the kind of detail you'd share venting to a friend). "Most people who ask are only looking for evidence that you're willing to face these kinds of issues head-on and make a sincere attempt at coming to a resolution," former recruiter Rich Moy says. Stay calm and professional as you tell the story (and answer any follow-up questions), spend more time talking about the resolution than the conflict, and mention what you'd do differently next time to show "you're open to proposal". What do you like least about your job? Tread carefully here! The last thing you want to do is let your answer devolve into a rant about how terrible your current company is or how much you hate your boss or that one coworker. The easiest way to handle this question with poise is to focus on an opportunity the role you're interviewing for offers that your current job doesn't. You can keep the conversation positive and emphasize why you're so excited about the job. What's your management style? The best managers are strong but flexible, and that's exactly what you want to show off in your answer. (Think something like, "While every situation and every team member requires a bit of a different strategy, I tend to approach my employee relationships as a coach...") Then share a couple of your best managerial moments, like when you grew your team from five to 15 or coached an underperforming employee to become the company's top salesperson. Where

do you see yourself in five years? If asked this question, be honest and specific about your future goals, but consider this: a hiring manager wants to know: a) if you've set realistic expectations for your career, b) if you have ambition, and c) if the position aligns with your goals and growth. Your best bet is to think realistically about where this position could take you and answer along those lines. It's OK to say that you're not quite sure what the future holds, but that you see this experience playing an important role in helping you make that decision.

25. Educational marketing It is hardly surprising that accompanying and assisting the global shifts towards a market in education has been the speedy development of a considerable body of literature on marketing. As Kenway and colleagues note, this literature includes at one end of the spectrum simple users' guides, management manuals, tips and checklists of do's and don'ts. At the other end, it includes densely argued articles that draw on technical language: 'we read of environmental scanning, market audits and information processing schemes' (Kenway et al. 1995: 16). Yet this literature exists within the context of widely expressed doubts about the contribution of marketing to the social good of society. As Alvesson and Willmott (1996: 119) note, marketing is perhaps the most visible and controversial of the management specialisms; its academic status is also rather precarious. They refer to Brown (1993: 28), who talks about 'marketing's perennial search for academic respectability' and of 'the discipline's lowly standing in the scholarly caste system'. Perhaps because of this, a striking feature of the education marketing literature is that it sometimes suggests more ethically minded (or 'socially responsible') marketing techniques, practices or concepts. Nevertheless, the same will not be offered here since, while we are acutely aware of the (uneven) pressures on educators to engage with the marketing literature (either simply to survive or to maintain 'competitive advantage'), we argue that any notion of socially responsible marketing is ultimately flawed; that we should not be marketing any social service at all, let alone education. Later, ways in which educators can – and should – resist the marketing of their 'products' to 'customers' will be suggested. The imperative for such resistance derives from the philosophical and empirical case against both managerialism and the extension of markets to education elaborated in Chapters 2 and 3. In essence, marketing is an 'adiaphoric' discipline – it renders people morally neutral or indifferent. All social relations are potential targets of the marketing discipline once market mechanisms become the preferred means of monitoring and evaluating social relations. As Glenn Morgan has observed, this involves a monetization and commodification of social relations. In this world, marketing can tell us the 'price of everything, but the value of nothing'! Anything can be marketed. It does not have to be the more obvious goods and services; it can be 'good causes', 'political parties', 'ideas'. The whole world is a market and we are consumers in a gigantic candy-store. Just sit back and enjoy it! (Morgan, cited in Alvesson and Willmott 1996: 124) Since marketing is the quintessential handmaiden of the (new) managerialist restructuring of education, it, among all the management 'disciplines', should have been the most resisted by educationists, particularly education academics. However, what we encounter in the education management literature is an opportunistic embrace of marketing, subject to

varying degrees of textual apology or outright championing. At the same time, such opportunism is largely unreflective and contradictory. It demonstrates little concern with the empirical research on the impact of educational quasimarkets already discussed in Chapter 3. It also lacks any sense of the history of marketing as a business discipline and critiques from within business and management studies, both of which are a focus of the latter part of this chapter

Примерная тематика сообщений:

1. Ведущие университеты страны изучаемого языка – программы магистратуры по про-филю подготовки.
2. Структура научной статьи IMRAD.
3. Основные научные журналы в России и стране изучаемого языка в области научной ра-боты.
4. Научная конференция: информация, заявка, подготовка тезисов.

Статьи по специальности

1.A corporation is a legal entity created under state laws through the process of incorporation. The corporation is an organization capable of entering into contracts and carrying out business under its own name, separate from it owners. To become a corporation, state laws generally require that a firm must do the following: (1) file articles of incorporation, (2) adopt a set of bylaws, and (3) form a board of directors. The articles of incorporation specify the legal name of the corporation, its place of business, and the nature of its business. This certificate
gives "life" to a corporation in the sense that it represents a contract between the corporation and its owners. This contract authorizes the corporation to issue units of ownership, called shares, and specifies the rights of the owners, the shareholders. The bylaws are the rules of governance for the corporation. The
bylaws define the rights and obligations of officers, members of the board
of directors, and shareholders. In most large corporations, it is not possible for each owner to participate in monitoring the management of the business. For example, at the end of 2001, Emerson Electric Co. had approximately 33,700 shareholders. It would not be practical for each of these owners to watch over Emerson's management directly. Therefore, the owners of a corporation elect a board of directors to represent them in the major business decisions and to monitor the activities of the corporation's management. The board of directors, in turn, appoints and oversees the officers of the corporation. Directors who are also employees of the corporation are called insider directors; those who have no other position within the corporation are outside directors or independent directors. In the case of Emerson Electric Co., for example, there were 18 directors in 2002, six inside directors and 13 outside directors. Generally it is believed that the greater the proportion of outside directors, the greater the board's independence from the management of the company. The proportion of

outside directors on corporate boards varies significantly. For example, in 2002 only 44% of Kraft Foods' board are outsiders, whereas 89% of Texas Instrument's board is comprised of outside directors. The state recognizes the existence of the corporation in the corporate charter. Corporate laws in many states follow a uniform set of laws referred to as the Model Business Corporations Act. Once created, the corporation can enter into contracts, adopt a legal name, sue or be sued, and continue in existence forever. Though owners may die, the corporation continues to live. The liability of owners is limited to the amounts they have invested in the corporation through the shares of ownership they purchased. Unlike the sole proprietorship and partnership, the corporation is a taxable entity. It files its own income tax return and pays taxes on its income. That income is determined according to special provisions of the federal and state tax codes and is subject to corporate tax rates different from personal income tax rates. If the board of directors decides to distribute cash to the owners, that money is paid out of income left over after the corporate income tax has been paid. The amount of that cash payment, or dividend, must also be included in the taxable income of the owners (the shareholders). Therefore, a portion of the corporation's income (the portion paid out to owners) is subject to double taxation: once as corporate income and once as the individual owner's income. The dividend declared by the directors of a corporation is distributed to owners in proportion to the numbers of shares of ownership they hold. If Owner A has twice as many shares as Owner B, he or she will receive twice as much money. The ownership of a corporation, also referred to as stock or equity, is represented as shares of stock. A corporation that has just a few owners who exert complete control over the decisions of the corporation is referred to as a close corporation or a closely-held corporation. A corporation whose ownership shares are sold outside of a closed group of owners is referred to as a public corporation or a publicly-held corporation. Mars Inc., producer of M&M candies and other confectionery products, is a closely-held corporation; Hershey Foods, also a producer of candy products among other things, is a publicly-held corporation. The shares of public corporations are freely traded in securities markets, such as the New York Stock Exchange. Hence, the ownership of a publicly-held corporation is more easily transferred than the ownership of a proprietorship, a partnership, or a closely-held corporatio**n.**

2.I'm sure you've heard the retail mantra "the customer is always right". Why? Research has found that a satisfied customer typically tells 3 others to purchase, a dissatisfied customer tells 9 others not to purchase and it costs 12 times as much to win back a dissatisfied customer than to attract a new one. The cost of sorting out a retail customer i.e. "the customer is always right" is far less than the cost impact of a dissatisfied customer. Yet in consulting this is absolutely not the case. The consulting version of the saying is that "the potential client is quite likely wrong in their initial assessment of the problem". Don't believe me? In the UK the Department of Health wasted £20 billion on the 'Connecting for Health' IT programme. They did this without investigating options or even whether they needed a national patient record database in the first place (some countries give patients memory sticks with their health records on them – a hugely cheaper option). The key

implication for us as professional consultants is that we must be extremely good at the art of client problem definition. Although this is an intricate professional process, much like medical diagnosis, here are three tips to help you get started: • Don't Jump to Conclusions: Daniel Kahneman the Nobel Prize winning psychologist identified that we have a fast and slow brain. Our fast brain is a great tool for capturing first impressions and making rapid associations. Our slow brain excels at analysing complex problems. The problem is that our slow brain is lazy and we often use our fast brain on complex problems. This is often fatal in diagnosing clients' problems. Slow down and do some quality thinking about the client's problem. • Tackle the Cause, Not The Symptoms: A major cause of failed consulting engagements is that clients tackle the symptoms of a problem and not its underlying cause. A good way to help a client understand the root cause of a problem is to politely and patiently ask them the question 'Why?' a number of times. For example: Client: "We've got a real problem hiring enough people". Consultant: "Why do you think that is?". Client: "We have a high staff turnover". Consultant: "OK, so why do you think you have a high staff turnover?". Client: "Because staff morale is low". Consultant: "Why do you think morale is low?'. Client: "Because managers don't make employees feel valued". Consultant: "Why do you think managers don't make employees feel valued?". Client: "Because they don't have the awareness or skills". Consultant: "Sounds like you need a management development programme rather than waste money on that new recruiting system we were originally talking about".

3. On the whole, educational marketers gloss over the stringent criticisms of consumerism and the role of advertising and marketing techniques. However, a more educationally 'friendly' approach is alleged to derive from the new marketing paradigm of relationship marketing, as developed by Gronroos (1997). Thus, to Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1999: 221): Paradoxically, just as schools and other public services were being urged to copy private sector marketing approaches, some of the basic concepts of marketing were being challenged. Gronroos (1997) maintains that establishing relationships with customers can be divided into two parts: attracting the customers and building relationships with customers, in both of which a key element is trust. Oddly, there is no discussion of the background to the paradigm shift to relationship marketing and of past attempts to defend charges of amorality. Yet, one can trace a concern with morality to the very beginnings of modern marketing thought. While, as Desmond (1998) notes, most academic accounts of the developments of marketing thought are selective, focusing on the USA, the academic roots have been traced to the late nineteenth century to two economic schools of thought at the Universities of Wisconsin and Harvard. The Wisconsin group headed a 'reformist' movement, which spearheaded the development of the American Economic Association as a protest against (British) laissez-faire economics. Of interest was agricultural marketing. Here, the economists worked closely with the state of Wisconsin to investigate claims that small farmers and customers were losing out to a cartel. In contrast, the economists at Harvard developed a more managerialist orientation in setting up the first business school in the USA. It was here that marketing as a 'discipline' was formed around the development of 'marketing science'. By the 1960s, the Harvard view predominated. At the

same time, the subject of marketing fragmented in response to growing protests about materialist values; a concern (elaborated above) that in practice marketing did not so much serve needs as frame and sustain them; and also in response to a range of environmental issues. Morally, the important attacks centred on marketing as acting primarily in the interests of production and as creating false needs, which we have discussed. Marketing academics reacted in a variety of ways to such trenchant criticisms. Some engaged in process of denial while others agreed that there was a problem and focused on the marketing concept. As Desmond notes, Philip Kotler made much of the theoretical running at this stage, arguing with Sidney Levy (Kotler and Levy 1969) that the marketing concept should be applied also to non-marketing business organizations. Kotler and Zaltman (1971) advocated social marketing vis-à-vis social issues such as drug abuse and healthcare. Kotler (1972a) developed the generic concept of marketing, namely the idea that marketing principles could be applied to any organization and to any of that organization's stakeholders. By reorienting the marketing concept to recognise societal needs it was argued that marketing could recover its worth to society. Kotler's (1972b) second paper of the year recognized the value of one such stakeholder; the consumer movement. In an attempt at rapprochement he argued that consumerism was good for marketing. He also advised companies which made 'pleasing' goods . . . that they should remodel their perspective away from the satisfaction of consumer desire and towards the satisfaction of long run consumer welfare. (Desmond 1998: 177) However, while the fundamental marketing approach remained quintessentially business-oriented, the discourse of 'social marketing' has wormed its way into a multitude of social spheres, notably charity, religion and, of course, education. Desmond notes the prescience of Laczniak et al. (1979) who argued that the notion of social marketing could open up a Pandora's box, releasing ethical and social problems reflecting outside concerns. In assessing the morality of the marketing process, Desmond draws upon the works of Zygmunt Bauman (1988, 1993, 1995), who looks at the processes of the creation of moral distance. Briefly, Bauman argues that the spontaneous recognition of the 'face' of the other enjoined by moral behaviour poses a threat to the structured monotony and predictability of the organization and its instrumental procedural evaluative criteria. Now without its resemblance to Marx's exposition of commodity fetishism, Desmond notes that actors rarely need to see the consequences of their actions, for example child labour in the production of textiles or the massive quantities of waste and pollution generated by the organization. As he puts it: These others are rendered as being adiaphoric, morally neutral or indifferent. Once the face of the other has been 'effaced', employees are freed from moral responsibility to focus on the technical (purpose centred or procedural) aspects of the 'job at hand'. The moral drive of the employee is redirected away from the other (which is now an object) towards others in the organization. (Desmond 1998: 178) What needs to be recalled here is that the market itself renders its subjects adiaphoric. Commodified education permits people with sufficient money to buy the services without any justification to others who have equal, if not more, need for them. Now, although there has been an explosion of 'voluntary' ethical regulatory activity within the past thirty years, authors report on the intransigence of marketing

practitioners, who ‘seem to be almost code-proof. This does not stop academics from continuing to exhort their flock to observe what codes there are and to recommend that new codes are devised to regulate the industry’ (Desmond 1998: 180). However, many codes are simply not enforced, notwithstanding continuing calls for greater codification of moral behaviour. In quintessentially Taylorist (or managerialist) manner, the moral subject is subjected to means–end analysis, parcelled out as set of problems to be solved and viewed in relation to short-term goals of competitive advantage and consumer satisfaction. The effacement of the ‘face’ involves moral objectification, which in turn enables evaluation of human beings in terms of technical or instrumental value. As a surrogate for meaning, the literature on motivation in human resource management texts allows non-meaningful work to be interpreted through a technocratic lens so that the ‘human resource’ becomes a manipulable object of managerial control. The ‘removal of the face’ in marketing takes place at a number of levels. In essence, this involves a denial of the moral capacity of ‘the other’. It involves the veiling of the products’ origins and the construction of the target market, the targeting of a particular group by means of mass marketing or segmentation. How-to-do tips and procedures are provided in the educational marketing literature. The point here is that the individual is no longer regarded as a 82 THE TEXTUAL APOLOGISTS moral agent, but as someone to whom something must be done, that is as a target for the marketing mix. We do not wish to detract overly from the intricacies of marketing techniques, such as SWOT analysis, environmental scanning and so on. However, it is important to delineate the marketing mix for our purposes. The marketing mix involves product, price, place, people, promotion and positioning. These elements form the link between the organization and the clients. The product, according to Davies and Ellison (1997b), is the education service. They write that: ‘Using business terms such as “product” for education does seem rather harsh on the one hand, but on the other hand it provides a distinctive framework within which to analyse our activities’ (Davies and Ellison 1997b: 20). No justification is provided. They go on to differentiate product range (like washing power, we suppose), product benefits, product life (presumably there’s no sell-by date), and product quality. Davies and Ellison assert that it is ‘simplistic’ to consider that price is applicable only to physical goods. Certainly price is a key factor in the private sector of education where parents pay different fee levels. However, while the introduction of formula funding (LMS) means that funding is dependent upon number of pupils, the very marketization of education (and its marketing) is about the reprehensible commodification of children. Place is the geographical and physical location of the school. Astonishingly, a ‘significant factor in education is that a large proportion of the educational product is delivered through people in the school. Thus, a key determinant of the success of the educational marketing effort is the people in terms of their motivation and quality’ (Davies and Ellison 1997b: 23). Promotion is about the techniques and approaches that can be employed to convey the intent of the school and the benefits of the ‘product’. Positioning is about the way that ‘clients’ (presumably parents and children) view the organization in the marketplace.

4. As we have seen, Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1999) argue that relationship marketing is acceptable, especially in primary schools, because of its emphasis upon building and maintaining relationships and trust over time. Indeed, within marketing itself many have replied that the discipline has moved on: relationship marketing is vaunted not as another line of marketing theory but as the basis of a new marketing paradigm. It is surprising that Foskett and Hemsley-Brown do not address the development of relationship marketing. Deeper analysis here may have prevented the authors contradictorily juxtaposing the marketing mix and relationship marketing, since relationship marketing developed out of an attack on the marketing mix (the never-ending 'Ps'), which, Gronroos (1996) argued, is oversimplified and inherently predisposed towards competition and production rather than meeting customers' 'needs'. Gronroos argued that rather than being in the customer's best interests, the implicit approach of the marketing mix is that it implies that the customer is somebody to whom something is done. He argues that (a) marketing as a specialization has had the effect of alienating the rest of the from marketing, in turn nullifying its integrative function; (b) the marketing specialists may become alienated from customers precisely because managing the marketing mix enjoins reliance upon mass marketing techniques. The problem that Gronroos endeavoured to solve is the creation of distance by marketing processes. Gronroos 'suggests that these contradictions could be resolved by means of a "new paradigm", a dynamic and fluid relationship marketing approach, which alone can counter the strait-jacket of the clinical, transactions-based, mass market approach of the "4 Ps" ' (Desmond 1998: 186). In essence, the aim of relationship marketing is to establish and maintain relationships with customers and other partners, at a profit, which is to be achieved by the mutual exchange and fulfilment of promises. The establishment of a relationship can be divided into two parts, namely to attract the customer and to build the relationship with that customer so that the economic goals of that relationship can be achieved. Internal marketing is required to gain the support of the non-marketing specialists within the organization. Internally and externally, relationships are to be regulated by means of the exchange of promises, towards the establishment of trust, via the formation of relationships and dialogue with internal and external customers. Relationship marketing emphasizes qualities of dialogue and trust, and, as Desmond acknowledges, at first glance, it looks promising, morally speaking. However, Desmond suggests that talk of internal marketing and the creation of win–win situations smacks of TQM (total quality management). He places a question mark over the extent to which we can argue that trust is predicated upon a system of rules. Following Bauman (1993), he notes that no business transaction would be possible without some form of trust in a partner's readiness to keep his or her word and act on his or her promise. Bauman then distinguishes this from a moral approach by noting that it assumes that calculation precedes morality: the connection between transaction and morality is questionable, since pernickety legal regulations and threats of stern penalties envelop the conduct of the parties to the extent of making their moral postures all but invisible and above all irrelevant, while making the breach of promise a 'bad business' in a quite tangible, calculable sense. (Bauman, cited in Desmond 1998: 189) In essence, reciprocal relations stem from an explicitly selfish standpoint and

attention is diverted from the person to the task in hand, namely the exchange of a service for a sum of money. Crucially, there is nothing personal in the putative relationship. 'The reciprocal duty of one partner to another is thus ultimately enforceable; "duty" has an extrinsic meaning but no intrinsic one; partners are seen as means to an end (my well-being) rather than as ends in themselves'

5. Consulting is all about helping clients develop actionable insights about their business and strategic research plays a central role in this. I regularly help London Business School MBA students land jobs with the big strategy consulting firms (e.g. BCG, McKinsey and Bain). One of the core things we work on is enhancing their strategic research and problem solving skills and their ability to convey this during interviews. Why is this? Simply put, clients listen to consultants because everything we do, as far as possible, is evidence based. When we seek treatment from a doctor they use evidence based medicine to ensure that the drugs they prescribe are safe and likely to cure us (via clinical trials). The same is true in consulting where we need to gather evidence to support our recommendations. The big strategy consulting practices extensively use strategic research to underpin their client recommendations. So must we. Although this is a big topic here are three tips to help you get started: • Start With Your Client: This may sound obvious but you would be amazed. Large organisations are remarkably dysfunctional and are a treasure trove of information that can be used in your consulting engagement. For example they may have tackled a similar problem in another division or perhaps looked at the same issue a couple of years previously but failed to make progress. You won't get this information unless you ask your client politely and persistently for it! Be Sceptical About Your Client's Data: Large organisations spend a fortune on their accounting and management information systems yet the data these churn out is often rubbish. Don't believe me? Some of the smartest professional fund managers won't invest in banks because they think these financial institutions don't understand their exposure to risky loans. The moral, always be prepared to challenge your client's data and if necessary take steps to measure it. • Be Prepared to Get Your Hands Dirty: Although the web is a great place to conduct research, as consultants we always need to be prepared to do appropriate focused field work. Examples of this include interviewing our clients' customers, suppliers, employees and visiting trade shows. A particularly useful research tool are 'day in the life of studies'. This is where the consultant spends a period of time embedded in the client organisation to see what actually goes on. Consultants also spend time researching a client's competitors. I find strategic research one of the most fascinating parts of my role as a consultant. There's nothing I like better than the occasional road trip to investigate a client's business. Perhaps it goes back to the sense of being an explorer I mentioned earlier. I think creativity in research is paramount to adding value in consulting. There is something wonderful about a knotty client problem and the challenge of researching it to come up with a solution.

6. Offshore outsourcing in today's business and the scope of outsourcing covers virtually all areas of business functions including manufacturing, product services, human resource management, and research and development (Carter and Yan, 2007). Firms concentrate on their core capabilities, reduce staffing levels, reduce management problems, and improve

manufacturing flexibility through various types of outsourcing. In this context, procurement deals with contradictory nature of business decisions such as make vs. buy, control vs. flexibility, unit cost vs. total cost of ownership, and benefit vs. risk. Among many underlying drives for procurement outsourcing, firms strive to search for the best price or seek efficient ways of acquisition from outside sources. With the growth of globalisation and international trade, easy access to low cost resources from overseas makes global sourcing as an important stream in procurement practices. However, global sourcing also carries risk in the form of hidden cost or tradeoffs which include transportation and logistics costs, delivery performance, service quality, production capacity, and other business factors (Lowson, 2002; Ramingwong and Sajeev, 2007). Macro factors such as logistics infrastructure, country specific elements including politics, culture, geographic locations, and administration systems also impact on sourcing performance (Min and Galle, 1999; Oke et al., 2009; Ruamsook et al., 2009). When it comes to innovative product, outsourcing can be a source of innovation. From this perspective, advanced economies such as western European countries and Japan might be attractive location for outsourcing destination. Companies outsource to those countries by seeking knowledge, expertise, and higher quality and standard (Oke et al., 2009). In summary, global sourcing include much broad sets of business process oriented issues such as supplier selections, international negotiation, coordinative mechanisms in procurement research (Busi and McIvor, 2008; Carter and Yan, 2007; Zeng, 2003). 3.3 Supplier relationship Increasingly, cost is no longer the most important order qualifier, especially, for the technology oriented innovative products (Choi and Hartley, 1996). Firms achieve cost efficiency and improve quality and order fulfilment through effective supplier selection (Ellram and Krause, 1994; Oke et al., 2009). Besides, sound supplier relationship as a whole is important for a competitive edge and overall cost performance of the network rather than a focal company is considered critical for the satisfaction of customers (Alaez-Aller and Longas-Garcia, 2010; Gattiker et al., 2007; Lambert and Cooper, 2000; Sandberg, 2007). For this, inter-firm information sharing and intra-firm resources deployment aims to achieve synergy and by distributing risks (Min et al., 2005).).

7. At London Business School we spend a good deal of time developing our MBA students' consultancy problem solving skills. Why? Very simple. These are precisely the skills they need professionally and are probed during interviews by the big consulting firms. If you plan to work as an independent consultant you need to be especially good at this because you don't have experienced colleagues to fall back on if you get stuck. There are many hundreds of analytical techniques used by consultants and we can't cover them here. However, here are three important principles worth considering when working with clients. • Avoid the Single Solution Trap: Many consultants, even those working for the big strategy consulting firms, make the big mistake of coming up with just one solution to a client problem. Most real world client problems have multiple solutions and our clients really value a 'big picture' guided tour of their options as well as, of course, the analytics supporting the best solution. Procurement in public sector.**:**When working with clients I often encourage them to construct a 'war room' which performs a similar function to the

maps and models military leaders use to make strategic and tactical military decisions. The discipline of laying out the 'battlefield' as clearly as possible really helps clients understand the opportunities and challenges facing their organisation. It also is a great way to facilitate team discussions and 'what if' scenarios. • Don't Bore the Client: As consultants we need to come across to our clients as fresh, insightful and up-to-date. Nothing turns off a client and their team faster than the strategy consultant who saunters in and says 'OK guys now let's do a SWOT or BCG matrix'. These and many other consulting clichés are not only incredibly old hat, but in some cases are plain wrong, and signal to the client that you are not up-to-date. The best consultants love problem solving and how better to do it than helping a client tackle an issue that has stumped them for years. The good news is that I hardly ever run into a problem that cannot be solved. It just takes the right skillset, a bit of creativity and sometimes a bit of plain old hard work! At the end of the day it's all worthwhile and extremely satisfying

8. One might think that in the school improvement area it would be hard to overlook a critique of sociological and political issues because the schools which are usually seen to need most improvement are those in areas of social deprivation and because there is so much active policy concerned with improving schools on both sides of the Atlantic and elsewhere. Nevertheless, there are texts which would have to come into this category, for instance Horne and Brown (1997), Perez et al. (1999), Reyes et al. (1999) and Walsh (1999). Building a Successful School (Walsh 1999) is one of those 'popular' books which has no references to research or scholarship. The book is concerned with how to prevent 'failing' schools, and what is most disturbing about it is the way it seeks to simplistically hold school staff solely responsible for school 'failure'. The reasons for failure identified in chapter 1 are low standards, poor progress, poor teaching, a threatening environment and poor management, while chapter 2 seeks to explode what are regarded as the myths around failing schools including the myth that 'In inner city schools we can't get the staff', and the myth that 'Outsiders don't understand the problems we face'. This denies the problem that schools in socially deprived areas do not get the same shortlists of applicants as those in middle-class areas and the problem that the contextual constraints in low SES schools have been, and continue to be, widely underacknowledged by policy makers (Thrupp 1999). Nevertheless, Walsh is adamant that the answers lie in better teaching and management and it comes as no surprise to find that he is a 'senior LEA inspector and officer with significant Ofsted inspection experience' (back cover). Yet the book does not so much defend or 'sell' official school improvement as treat it as an obviously appropriate policy background to the problems represented by failing schools. In this respect the book is a good example of how problem-solving texts can act to textually apologize for post-welfarist reform even without overt promotion of it. Another primarily problem-solving text is Horne and Brown (1997) which offers 500 tips for school improvement. This contains 48 sections generally providing 10 short tips, most of which are socially and politically decontextualized. This is unsurprising since the tips format required by books in this series undoubtedly precludes any more complex discussion of the problems and possibilities of school improvement. When the tips do raise features of post-welfarist

education reform or refer to DfES and Ofsted sources and advice, this is usually done in an uncritical, taken-for-granted manner, which shades into overt apologism. This is true even when there is (rare) acknowledgement of debate: 8. Try the Competency approach [to appraisal]. This may be an emotive subject. But the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) has guidelines for training new teachers using competence-based appraisal. We assess pupils by giving clear criteria. So why not assess teachers in a similar way? (p. 111) Lessons from High Performing Hispanic Schools: Creating Learning Communities (Reyes et al. 1999) is also a problem-solving analysis of sorts since it is sociologically blinkered despite seeming to hold out hope for a contextualized school improvement analysis involving a specific school population. After doing a good job of summarizing the 'educational vulnerability' of Hispanic students (pp. 1–3), this book goes too far in asserting that 'the current condition of education for Hispanic students need not exist': While most schools fail Hispanic students, some schools do not. The picture we show is far brighter and potentially far more optimistic than the tragic circumstances portrayed in the latest statistics on Hispanic youth. High performing Hispanic schools, in fact, do exist and they have a strong impact on the learning conditions for Hispanic students. (pp. 3–4) Descriptions of the features of such 'exemplary' schools follow as well as discussion of how to emulate them, but the book fails to make a convincing case since there is only the thinnest discussion of actual student achievement levels. We are told the schools were 'outperforming most schools in the attainment of state academic standards (pp. 9–10) but there is no clear comparison of the relative attainment of Hispanic students in these schools compared with other schools or to white students in the same schools. Purkey and Smith (1983) pointed out in response to an earlier generation of exemplary schools studies that an 'unusually effective' school serving predominantly low-income and minority students may in fact still have considerably lower levels of attainment than a white middle-class school because of the pervasive influences of social class on achievement. The same is also likely to be the case here, and without more information we remain unconvinced by Reyes et al.'s 'essential conclusion': 'that there are no excuses for anything other than high-impact schools and high-performing Hispanic students'**.**

9. The human brain is a remarkable piece of equipment yet it has severe limitations in terms of bandwidth, knowledge and the ability to see issues from diverse perspectives. This is the reason why most of the major achievements of civilization are the product of multiple individuals working in teams. This also holds true for most types of consulting engagement which is why we need to become expert facilitators. Helping large teams tackle complex problems is one of my most challenging yet rewarding activities as a professional consultant. There's nothing quite like helping a team of 30 or 40 highly intelligent and motivated managers tackle what previously seemed to them to be an impossible challenge and after 3-5 days emerging with a solution and a practical way

forward. The fees for this type of work are also jolly good! Although this is a big topic here are three tips to help you get started: • Prepare Thoroughly: Team working is highly unpredictable. Careful planning means that we can focus on the work and not worry about things going wrong. Key points include: a great off-site location with high quality rooms and catering, all the equipment you need (screens, audio, flipcharts and lots of PostIt pads). You can't trust venues to supply flipchart markers so I always carry a good supply of these in my bag! Get Participants Working: Always remember that you are there to help others tackle the task. Don't take on the work of the whole group because they will get bored and you will exhaust yourself. • Ensure You Have Best of Class Skills: Facilitation is a high risk high return consulting activity. Get it right and you're a hero (a marvellous feeling), get it wrong and you get fired. Remember, as a facilitator your client entrusts you with their reputation and potentially their career. It is only right that we make sure we're fully equipped to deserve their trust. Bottom line, the facilitation of senior level management teams is the most exciting, challenging and enjoyable activity that we as professional consultants get involved in. Make a success of it and you will be invited back regularly

10. subtle apologism continues to be the main problem with more serious school improvement literature, even with the shift towards acknowledging context noted earlier. Here we briefly sample a number of recent texts before focusing on some of the work of two British school improvement writers, John Gray and David Hopkins. 100 Improving School Effectiveness (MacBeath and Mortimore 2001a) is an edited collection that centres on a project in Scotland, which had both an ethnographic element concerned with 'identifying the brakes and accelerators of improvement' (p. ix) and a statistical school effectiveness element. What is particularly noteworthy about this book is the way the initial chapters provide a substantial and quite critical discussion of both socio-economic issues and the costs of post-welfarist reform. For instance, there is discussion in chapter 1 of the UK as an increasingly unequal society and one with substantial levels of child poverty (MacBeath and Mortimore 2001b: 3). There is also, along with discussion of more usual school effectiveness findings, a good discussion of context including the admission that 'as researchers we recognise that [the compositional effect] is a factor which we may have underestimated in the past or failed to examine with exploratory tools which were sensitive enough' (p. 14). Likewise, in chapter 2 (MacBeath and McCall 2001), there is a nicely critical view of English education policy, drawing especially on the arguments of Davies (2000), and against which Scottish education policy is seen to be generally more reasonable. In terms of acknowledging wider social and political context this is an

exceptionally good start for an education management text and while it is not kept up throughout the book, it does return in places, for instance the discussion of ‘external contextual influences on internal capacity’ of two case study schools (Stoll et al. 2001a: 185–8). And yet by the concluding chapter ‘Beyond 2000 – where next for SESI?’ (Stoll et al. 2001b), the analysis has become almost entirely school-centred and decontextualized. In this chapter Stoll and colleagues propose ten effectiveness and improvement imperatives for the next decade for ‘practitioners, policy makers, researchers, parents and other educational partners’. These are: • develop a wider range of skills and qualities for a fast changing world; • emphasize learners and learning and consider implications for teaching; • listen to the pupil’s voice; • facilitate deep learning of teachers; • promote self-evaluation; • emphasize leadership and management; • ensure high-quality critical friendship; • build communities, networks and partnerships; • take a connected approach to improvement; • strive for sustainability of improvement. We could suggest obvious others, such as ‘acknowledge and try to respond to social inequality’ and ‘contest managerial reform’, but our concern is more that within these areas there is not enough discussion which follows on from the contextually much sounder way this book starts off. There is just one paragraph which notes, As we argued in the opening chapter of this book, individual schools make a difference to the amount of successful learning achieved by an individual, but it would be foolish to imagine that the school can – by itself – overcome the effects of sustained disadvantage. This is the conclusion reached in a review of the evidence by Mortimore and Whitty (1997). Schools exist within a wider system that has an enhancing and constraining role on the capacity of schools to be all things to all children. If we wish to raise standards, as Coleman and Jencks concluded thirty years ago, we have to work on what happens outside school too and make demands on members of that wider system to play their part. (Stoll et al. 2001b: 204) This is quite right but it is not enough. On the other hand, there is a problematic emphasis on school change (see Chapter 9 in this volume) as well as the inappropriate importation of business models of leadership – see the discussion of Chowdhury (2000) on pp. 201–2 – and decontextualized models of schools being ‘exuberantly effective’, ‘dutifully diligent’, ‘mechanistically moribund’ and ‘haphazardly hanging on’ (Stoll et al. 2001b: 199). In short, we do not see the messages of this concluding chapter reflecting the balance of concerns in the introductory ones and so the overall effect of the book fails to challenge the social and political status quo. There is a similar problem with Alma Harris’s book School Improvement: What’s in it for Schools? (Harris 2002). The introductory chapter, ‘School improvement in context’, has some useful discussion of the impact of wider social and political matters on school improvement, although not as much as MacBeath and Mortimore’s book as discussed above. The introduction notes that ‘successful school improvement can only occur when schools apply those strategies that best fit their own context and particular developmental needs’ (p. 7), and the conclusion has a section on being ‘realistic but optimistic’ which points to the need for ‘context-specific’ improvement approaches (p. 115). Yet for the most part this book offers a conventionally decontextualized school improvement analysis complete with schools which are ‘improving’, ‘failing’ ‘trapped’ and ‘dynamic’ . Master the Art of

Communications However smart we are as consultants, the quality of our work is assessed by our written and verbal communications. Client communication skills are really important to master as they help us win business, manage client stakeholders and of course impress people with the quality of our work. Finally, a high quality report is a great reference for future work with that client and their colleagues. Here are three tips to help you with your client communications: • Respond Rapidly to a Client Request: Woody Allen was right when he said "Eighty percent of success is showing up". In the case of consulting it is all about being available to respond rapidly to client requests. Although it may not happen that often, when it does you need to jump. So when a client needs a report or presentation for their boss at short notice you need to be able to respond efficiently and of course enthusiastically! If they have to wait they will go elsewhere. • Fit For Purpose: Clients of the Moscow office of a prestigious consulting firm recently complained that their consultants' reports were much too long (in some cases over 300 pages!). Contrast this with the 12 slide PowerPoint deck I successfully used to explain a complex reorganisation to a client's board. Always be clear why the report is needed, what job it must do, the required format, and the minimum needed. Senior executives normally hate reading lengthy reports so focus on the essentials. • Eliminate Typos: The perceived quality of our work and our credibility as consultants is seriously undermined if it contains spelling mistakes or poor grammar. Report writing is a craft which gets better with practice.. Consulting is a huge industry with over £200 billion revenues globally. It is highly diverse with a large number of opportunities for people with a wide range of skills and specialisms. Although it is currently an unregulated industry (anyone can set up as a consultant) it is pretty competitive. Clients can choose the best consultants in their field and are looking for evidence of competence, a commitment to ethical values and that their consultants are at the cutting edge of developments within their industry. Remember, we are professional consultants on £1,000 plus per day and professional qualifications are the best way to distance oneself from the thousands of unqualified freelancers working for £15 per hour. The good news is that acquiring professional consulting qualifications is relatively straightforward, especially when compared with the years required in other professions. The main consulting qualifications are the Institute of Consulting's Levels 5 and 7:* • Award in Professional Consulting: You complete our face-to-face, online or blended learning course and tackle one assignment in your own time (no exam). This is marked and you get your certificate. • Certificate in Professional Consulting: You complete our face-toface, online or blended learning course and tackle two assignments in your own time (no exam). After marking you get your certificate. • Diploma in Professional Consulting: You complete our face-to-face, online or blended learning courses and tackle seven assignments in your own time (no exam). After marking you get your diploma. Would you go to a dentist who is not professionally qualified? I didn't think so. How about a doctor, lawyer or an accountant? So why would a client use a consultant without suitable professional qualifications?

12. The Let's be Realistic! review discussed Gray's work and noted that his analyses tend to be more careful and more realistic than most. For instance, in Good School, Bad School

(Gray and Wilcox 1995), Gray approached previous case studies of school improvement with a healthy scepticism: Most case studies of improving schools report that some improvement (eventually) occurred. In our view such studies, biased as they tend to be towards the change efforts that worked, probably give too rosy an impression of how much change can take place over relatively short periods of time. (Gray and Wilcox 1995: 244) Nevertheless, the review suggested that Gray's preferred role was that of the 'neutral' researcher providing 'objective' findings for policy makers and that his work was insufficiently critical when it came to the nature and impact of policy. The same problem is apparent in an introduction that Gray wrote for the 2001 edition of Success Against the Odds discussed earlier (Gray 2001). This provides an excellent account of the limits and possibilities of school improvement and yet remains coy about the impact of national policy on schools. Gray sets the scene as follows: It would be encouraging to think that policy-makers had somehow succeeded during the last three years [1997–2000, the first three years of New Labour's first term] in beginning to weaken the 'link between disadvantage and educational performance'. The history of educational reform efforts in this area however, underlines the extent of the challenges and counsels a degree of caution. Politicians meanwhile have learnt to drive harder bargains . . . 'Improving against the odds is now the name of the game' (pp. 1–2, emphasis in original) This is about right, although we would have said 'considerable caution' about the lessons of history and would have wanted to link the harder bargains of politicians to the managerialist trends in public policy more generally. Gray goes on to say that he does not know whether the Success Against the Odds schools would have improved or not over the past five years but because they were already at the peak one could not expect them to have improved much, indeed 'continuing to live with the fractures and stresses of social deprivation may be challenge enough' (p. 3). This seems realistic and fair. Gray's next section (pp. 4–7) is about apparent national improvements in school performance and classroom teaching. Here Gray notes that part of what seems an improvement in classroom teaching is most likely due to Ofsted's decision to alter the scale employed to judge lessons. However, he does not mention that the improvement in primary and secondary test scores may also reflect not genuine improvement but issues such as teaching to the test and cheating. Related to this, his discussion about league tables (pp. 7–8) talks of schools 'vary[ing] in their understanding of the national changes and the speed with which they explore and exploit their implications but, within a relatively, short time, most seem to have caught on and caught up' (p. 8). 'Catching on and catching up' is not a critical enough description of the performative pressures schools are placed under, and while the word 'improve' is placed in quotes to indicate improvement may not really be occurring, a discussion of the likely costs of national initiatives is needed here. The difficulties of defining improvement are the subject of the next section of Gray's introduction and one of the key issues discussed here is whether improvement should be measured in terms of outcomes or processes (pp. 9–11). has suggested that 'what distinguishes the school improvement movement from other school reform efforts is the understanding that it is necessary to focus upon student outcomes in academic performance as the key success criteria, rather than teacher

perceptions of the innovation'. Gray comments that 'as a description of an orientation amongst influential contributors this is probably increasingly true. However it does not, as yet, accurately reflect the criteria employed in most school improvement studies' (p. 11, our emphasis). Here Gray could have discussed why school improvement research is becoming increasingly outcomes-focused since it undoubtedly reflects the managerialist emphasis of policy. The following section is entitled 'The dimensions of "improvement" ' and takes a suitably cautious approach to what has really been achieved in cases where improvement is said to have occurred. This section also discusses Special Measures, part of the regime of official school improvement in the UK. Here Gray comments that 'the case of so-called "failing" schools in England, however, presents a situation where questions about the speed and extent of improvement have become crucial to schools' survival. These schools have typically been given only a two year window to secure a turnaround' (p. 16). Although one senses that Gray thinks this is problematic, he provides no discussion of the rights or wrongs of the policy. Similarly, he goes on to raise questions about the supposed success of Special Measures but only in the most gentle way.

13. Market indicators have come to perform a variety of functions, from serving as benchmarks for evaluating the performance of professional investors to answering the question "How did the market do today?" Thus, stock market indicators (indexes or averages) have become a part of everyday life. The most commonly quoted stock market indicator is the Dow Jones Industrial Average (DJIA). Other stock market indicators cited in the financial press are the Standard & Poor's 500 Composite (S&P 500), the New York Stock Exchange Composite Index (NYSE Composite), the Nasdaq Composite Index, and the Value Line Composite Average (VLCA). Other stock market indicators include the Wilshire stock indexes and the Russell stock indexes, which are followed primarily by institutional money managers. In general, market indexes rise and fall in fairly similar patterns. Although the correlation is high, the indexes do not move in exactly the same ways at all times. The differences in movement reflect the different ways in which the indexes are constructed. Three factors enter into that construction: the universe of stocks represented by the sample underlying the index, the relative weights assigned to the stocks included in the index, and the method of averaging across all the stocks. Some indexes represent only stocks listed on an exchange. Examples are DJIA and the NYSE Composite, which represent only stocks listed on the Big Board. By contrast, the Nasdaq Composite Index includes only stocks traded over the counter. A favorite of professionals is the S&P 500 because it contains both NYSE-listed and OTC-traded shares. Each index relies on a sample of stocks from its universe, and that sample may be small or quite large. The DJIA uses only 30 of the largest

corporations, while the NYSE Composite includes every one of the NYSE listed shares. The Nasdaq Composite Index also includes all shares in its universe, while the S&P 500 has a sample that contains only 500 of the more than 8,000 shares in the universe it represents. The stocks included in a stock market indicator must be combined in certain proportions, and each stock must be given a weight. The three main approaches to weighting are these: (1) weighting by the market capitalization of the stock's company,

which is the value of the number of shares times price per share; (2) weighting by the price of the stock; and (3) equal weighting for each stock, regardless of its price or its firm's market value. With the exception of the Dow Jones averages (such as the DJIA) and the VLCA, all of the most widely used indices are market-value weighted. The DJIA is a price-weighted average, and the VLCA is an equally weighted index. Stock market indicators can be classified into three groups: (1) those produced by stock exchanges based on all stocks traded on the exchanges; (2) those produced by organizations that subjectively select the stocks to be included in indices; and (3) those where stock selection is based on an objective measure, such as the market capitalization of the company. The first group includes the New York Stock Exchange Composite Index, which reflects the market value of all stocks traded on the exchange. Although it is not an exchange, the Nasdaq Composite Index falls into this category because the index represents all stocks tracked by the Nasdaq system. The three most popular stock market indicators in the second group are the Dow Jones Industrial Average, the Standard & Poor's 500, and the Value Line Composite Average. The DJIA is constructed from 30 of
the largest blue-chip industrial companies. The companies included in the average are those selected by Dow Jones & Company, publisher of the Wall Street Journal. The S&P 500 represents stocks chosen from the two major national stock exchanges and the over-the-counter market. The stocks in the index at any given time are determined by a committee of Standard & Poor's Corporation, which may occasionally add or delete individual stocks or the stocks of entire industry groups. The aim of the committee is to capture present overall stock market conditions as reflected in a very broad range of economic indicators. The VLCA, produced by Value Line, Inc., covers a broad range of widely held and actively traded NYSE, AMEX, and OTC issues selected by Value Line. In the third group, we have the Wilshire indexes produced by Wilshire Associates (Santa Monica, California) and Russell indexes produced by the
Frank Russell Company (Tacoma, Washington), a consultant to pension funds and other institutional investors. The criterion for inclusion in each of these indexes is solely a firm's market capitalization.

14. We have argued that while there have been some significant contextual shifts in the school improvement area over the past few years, important problems continue. In particular, school improvement writers remain mostly caught up in problem-solving discourses that do not tap into critical research on social inequality or the impact of post-welfarist educational reform such as that highlighted in Chapter 3. Consequently their protests about current government policy are muted. We think practitioners in schools need to be aware of these problems in the literature but it does not mean that improved schools are not worth working towards. Instead improvement needs to be radically recast as part of a much wider social and educational project. Yet while there are case studies of schools which have taken alternative paths to improvement, we recognize that the ethical and educational pitfalls of official school improvement are becoming increasingly difficult to avoid. Most immediately, then, the challenge is to 'do no harm' in pursuit of official school

improvement. This will often mean different things in advantaged and less advantaged school settings. To give a few examples, staff in popular, high SES schools could be modest about the relative popularity of their schools, accepting that a school deemed to be of poor quality or failing may, in real terms, have teachers and senior staff who are working harder and smarter than themselves. They could also be honest in their public statements about the way in which their schools gain advantage from their high SES intakes and support any moves to provide additional resources to disadvantaged schools which need them most. On the other hand, staff in low SES schools could take heart from knowing that what they are doing is of genuine importance, and that they are probably doing it as well as can reasonably be expected given the circumstances. They could also commit themselves to improving the learning of the students currently at their school rather than targeting middle-class families as a means of bringing about a change in the status of their schools. In all schools, practitioners could refuse to engage in unfair practices such as 'educational triage' and ensure that their own school's practices are the least selective or exclusionary possible. Heads and teachers should also make good use of the potential gulf between official policy and classroom practice in the service of their students. For instance, when schools are often being asked to impose inappropriate or damaging curriculum or assessment innovations, paying only lip service to what is required or fabricating performance may be entirely justifiable. A further challenge involves all those important things that good schools should do but often do not do because of performative pressures. These include teaching about social inequalities and political processes, teaching a culturally appropriate curriculum, and teaching a wider and richer curriculum than that encouraged by official school improvement. Stealing time and energy to do this is, we accept, a major challenge and, again, fabrication will often be required. Nevertheless, the key goal is not only to be more searching about what constitutes good schooling beyond the reductionist targets encouraged by official school improvement, but also to put that perspective at the centre of school life rather than having it crowded out by managerialist concern

15. Initially, we intended to devote separate chapters to school development planning (SDPing) and (strategic) human resource management (HRM); then, as we decided to focus on ascendant literatures, to write only about strategic HRM. However, we have looked at both since SDPing and strategic HRM are now inseparable in the burgeoning education management literature, even if strategic HRM, it will be argued, must incorporate, and ultimately overshadow, SDPing. Indeed, Performance Management in Schools (DfEE 2000: 6) maintains that the School Development Plan (SDP) 'will provide an important background'. As Fidler (1997) puts it, 'Development planning is a useful precursor to strategic planning' (p. 87). Further, he holds that 'it should be clear that since strategy is such a fundamental part of a school's operations its creation must be integrated' (p. 92). And for Valerie Hall (1997), 'Strategic management and planning increasingly become everybody's responsibility' (p. 160). She maintains that while strategic HRM can be both liberating and constraining, it allows managers to combine accountability and freedom. However, the above claims are not based on any evidence; indeed, despite a few

notable exceptions, the education management literature on development planning, strategy and human resource management is unreflective and tends towards uncritical acceptance and legitimation of the status quo. In fact, there is an active elevation of ‘strategy’, incorporating relatively recent management fads such as business process reengineering (BPR), all of which complement and extend the managerialist restructuring of education. As argued throughout this book, the very premises on which such textbooks are based are flawed. Again, the reason for writing this book stems from the need to expose the silences and omissions of such literature and to suggest ways in which we can avoid – or at least be aware of – its anti-educational nature. This chapter addresses SDPing in the first instance then moves on to (strategic) HRM. Until recently, HRM was commonly known as personnel management. The change to HRM need not detain us. Within HRM techniques of recruitment, selection and motivation have been developed and refined in order to identify and harness the energies of employees. Instructively, the HRM orientation has been adopted by the apologists, since the HRM orientation appears particularly pertinent . . . as to the ways in which it is anticipated that the management of autonomous educational organizations will develop in a market environment. The HRM perspective articulated here is fully consistent with the notion of flexible, responsive schools and colleges

16. The most important thing you need to get right for success in the consulting industry is your professional reputation. Get this right and you will never be short of interesting work at great fee rates. Clients will regularly seek you out for advice and they will be unlikely to subject your work to competitive tender. Sounds like the holy grail but is it mission impossible? Not at all. I know many professional consultants who have mastered this. Here are three tips to get you started: • Choose Your Consulting Career Path: It is extremely important that you develop a clear picture of where you would like to work in the industry. Consulting is a highly diverse field and you need a focus to differentiate yourself from others and, of course, find clients or consulting companies to engage you. • Build Your Professional Profile: With your chosen career path in mind you need to build a great professional profile. LinkedIn is the preferred choice of professional consultants and has lots of great features to set out your skills and evidence them via recommendations. You will also need a separate MS Word document titled ‘Professional Profile’. Please don’t call it a CV unless you are looking for a job! • Build Your Network: An extensive professional network is essential for your career as a professional consultant. There are many ways to build this if you are not well connected. For example you can join professional bodies such as the Institute of Consulting and attend various evening events. There are many such opportunities and it just takes a bit of creativity to identify the ones most relevant to your career. Consulting is an exciting, interesting and rewarding career. Like any other career you need to invest in your skills to get started and stay up to date

17. Increased accountability through the publication of league tables of examination results, greater publicity about what goes on in individual schools and parental choice of schools has led to increased collective responsibility for the performance of the whole school. This is an implicit acceptance of the accountability regime. Indeed, a few pages

further, they write that As a middle manager you will need to accept that change is inevitable, systemic and essential . . . The introduction of the National Curriculum and its revisions is a case in point. Some may believe that after such a period of rapid change, a period of stability and consolidation is called for, however, they will be disappointed. There will not be a period of 'no change' because there are too many interest groups attempting to perfect different aspects of the system. (Leask and Terrell 1997: 10, our emphasis)1 The latter complements the dirigiste tone of, for example, the 1997 DfEE White Paper Modernizing the Comprehensive Principle (see Ozga 2000b: 100–7). At best, the authors are resigned to the incessant change that characterizes education reform at the moment. At worst, they are, by default or otherwise, legitimating the status quo. They write that 'the notion of continuously searching for better ways of achieving better results is not new to most teachers, although it has been popularised in much of the literature on change (Peters and Waterman, 1982, Hopkins et al., 1994)' (Leask and Terrell 1997: 10). However, there are sound arguments against such unremitting change (or 'continuous improvement' in TQM-speak) and the change literature, which we address in Chapter 9 on school change. The point here is that while teachers are ever searching for better ways of achieving better results, such results may not be higher SATs scores. That is to say, we need to be crystal clear about the ways and the means: Leask and Terrell are conveniently forgetting to make explicit that development planning has been co-opted by managerialism. Indeed, the crude factor approach of school effectiveness, which readily lends itself to managerialist co-option (Willmott 2002a), is embraced. It is worth quoting the authors at length here: After constructing a model of best classroom practice, according to the research, [Creemers] goes on to describe the school conditions that support this practice in the classroom. Creemers' work identifies a number of factors which ensure effective learning in the classroom. He considers student level factors such as student aptitude, motivation and time spent on task, and he accepts the socio-ethnic variance in these factors. Nevertheless, he minimises this influence and argues for attention to be given to an equally important, but more controllable, factor of teacher and organisational behaviour. He emphasises that what the teacher does in the classroom is important. He then goes on to describe classroom and school level determinants of effectiveness including quality in policies about classroom instruction and its evaluation . . . These make a great deal of sense to any practitioner. Following this work, we suggest that the key school managers in leading and developing effective classroom practice are middle managers.

18. As previously argued (Thrupp 1999; Willmott 1999), the generic tendency of school effectiveness research has been to play down (or deny) the reality of 'school mix', which Leask and Terrell, following Creemers, are quite content to do. The point is neither to minimize nor to inflate the reality of 'socio-ethnic variance': instead, SDPing should explicitly cater for such 'variance'. Yet, of course, such planning is now geared towards managerialist ends (competitive target-setting), which immediately precludes any serious consideration of educational outcome inequalities that derive from socio-economic and ethnic backgrounds. Indeed, the inequitable nature of the market educational reforms is taken as given. Equally, however, we are frustrated by the contradictory nod in the

direction of such educational psychologists as Piaget, Bruner and Vygotsky. Yet there is no more than a nod: the nuts and bolts of such theorists are not discussed. We would prefer it if textual apologists like Leask and Terrell consistently follow the logic of the education reforms, that is, eschew Piaget et al. For, as Ball (2001b) argues, the contradictory nature of New Labour's reforms derives in part from an inherited and ultimately self-defeating, impoverished view of 'learning'. Ironically, characteristic of this text is its inability to offer management solutions with regard to the implementation of education policy reforms. Thus, Leask and Terrell (1997: 35) write that, 'How you deal with difficult staff depends on circumstances'. Here, we arrive at one of the depressing ironies of much of both the educational and business management literature: their inability to provide neat solutions. Such solutions are chimerical: precisely because all managing is inherently value-laden, people-centred and ever operative in the open system that is society, ineluctably simple solutions can never be found. The DfEE's Performance Management in Schools (April 2000) argues that Performance management works best when it is an integral part of a school's culture; is seen to be fair and open; understood by everyone and based on shared commitment to supporting continuous improvement and recognising success. (p. 4) Apparently, 'there is strong evidence that where schools and individual teachers are clear about what they expect pupils to achieve, standards rise' (DfEE 2000: 3). How school managers actually deal with the 'challenge' of raising standards and daily exigencies we are not told. However, Paul McCallion, author of The Competent School Manager (part of the government's Achieving Excellence in Schools series), writes in respect of management style that The process by which effective leaders motivate others to achieve . . . can be variable. This aspect could be referred to as the 'approach' to leadership. There is no absolute right or wrong leadership approach. These are defined in many different ways. (McCallion 1998: 83, our emphasis) So, there is no 'absolute' right or wrong way to manage or lead and, indeed, there are many different ways to lead in a non-absolute right or wrong way. McCallion immediately discusses the autocratic, or what he calls 'directive', style, thereby denuding it of its insidious practical import. This is held to be the most effective approach in a crisis, but may also be counter-productive, he informs us. McCallion remains unperturbed, since it is 'also true, however, that many people are happy to work for what is called a "benign autocrat". That is a leader who expects full obedience but in return will look after her people' (McCallion 1998: 83). Disappointingly, we are offered no evidence of the many people who are happy to work for a benign autocrat. Moreover the case studies that McCallion depicts are, he tells us, not seen to be prescriptive. In fact, in most of the case studies, 'there is no immediate solution as such, and analysis given, therefore, seeks to highlight the issues' (p. 129). Hargreaves and Hopkins (1994)2 echo the view of other overt apologists and government documentation that SDPing 'properly managed', will result in higher standards: There is no magic formula for bringing about school improvement; nor is it easily achieved, particularly by schools in socially deprived areas. Nevertheless . . . even schools suffering from high levels of deprivation can achieve genuine improvements through careful rational planning and the

commitment of teachers, heads, pupils and governors. That development planning can be effective is thus no questioning

19. SDPing's subtle apologists Quasi-marketization of education necessarily results in greater uncertainty for schools in terms of survival. Immediately, we can query the educational utility of planning: why bother if schools cannot predict pupil numbers, examination success and the non-flight of staff? Again, the problem is not that planning per se is anti- or non-educational; rather, it is the disregard for the wider (externally accountable) context that makes much of the literature a frustrating, and often contradictory, read. For example, Skelton et al. (1991) rightly note at the outset of Development Planning for Primary Schools that the creation of a plan does not guarantee success. But, in the next breath, we are told that 'in a time of increasing complexity, the usefulness of development plans in helping schools define a workable, reasonable and practical plan of action seems to us beyond doubt' (1991: 5). So, while a plan is useful, it may not issue in success: the logic is far from impeccable here. In order to be useful, some modicum of success is surely needed. We are also told about increased accountability, which is uncritically accepted as given by Skelton and colleagues. Contradictorily, however, the authors maintain that 'we have to find ways of restoring the relatively low morale among many of our colleagues' (1991: 9). Moreover, they write that SDPing is 'as much about saying "No" as well as "Yes" – "No" for professional reasons' (1991: 10). This suggests movement to critique of the reforms, where professionalism dictates that certain (managerialist) aspects of the (imposed) planning process be rejected. It is a pity that the authors do not delve further, providing concrete examples of resistance and the limits of this. As well as arguing that school development planning and Ofsted inspections work as sophisticated 'disciplinary technologies', Ball (1997c) adds that procedures and techniques that are intended to make schools more visible and accountable paradoxically encourage opacity and the manipulation of representations (see also Chapter 5). Skelton and colleagues argue that while target-setting is a planning mechanism with a number of benefits, we must avoid the temptation – and the pressure – to adopt success criteria or performance indicators, that is instructional targets, for everything. As they argue, the danger is of attempting to measure the immeasurable. To them, SDPing 'isn't an answer to all of the difficulties of a school. What it does is to establish, through appropriate and co-operative involvement, a series of targets, action steps and review procedures . . . Within the process things will still go wrong.

20. MacGilchrist et al. (2005) have also written about SDPing. They recognize that at its worst, development planning may distract heads and teachers from other tasks and, 'if there is no pay off in terms of increased learning 127 opportunities, it [planning] dissipates their time and energy' (1995: xii). They also underscore the fact that schools are being made more accountable and discuss the way that school effectiveness does not address adequately the issue of causality. However, we are not proffered alternatives. There is mention of the fact that targets should be expressive (as opposed to instrumental) but, again, only a superficial gloss is provided. Equally, the authors are critical of narrow management paradigms and the imposition or recommendation of unrealistic targets. In

contrast, we have looked more closely at the nature of targets (above) and the need to contextualize them: while MacGilchrist et al. are right to highlight their concerns, they do not go far enough in scrutinizing the 'whole picture'. Indeed, while we have noted their concerns about school effectiveness, later they write that SDPing is the means by which school effectiveness criteria can be integrated with school improvement strategies. As we have argued, school effectiveness criteria include a (shifting) number of 'factors' that are deemed, in positivist fashion, to constitute an 'effective school'. One of the socalled effectiveness correlates includes ethos or culture. MacGilchrist et al. maintain the importance of the latter, stating that development planning transforms the culture of the school by, among other things, 'creating management arrangements that empower' (p. 42). For us, along with other critical commentators, bringing the 'whole picture' back in necessarily means querying the notion of empowerment precisely because of the managerialist accountability measures in place. Interestingly, none of the headteachers in their research identified improving the pupils' achievement and the quality of their learning as the central purpose of development planning (p. 79). While we could speculate on why this should be, what we want to emphasize is the inherently contradictory nature of SDPing, which derives from its managerialist usurpation. In other words, it is not being suggested that SDPing on its own is contradictory; rather, it is the managerialist purposes to which it is being put. Of course, teachers and heads should plan, but planning in a context of unremitting pressures (specifically competition and target-setting) means that real learning needs will be eclipsed, the extent of which will depend on the school mix (intake) and extent of collegiality and positive educational leadership. Indeed, the oft-noted reality of teaching to the test is part of a deliberative planning process. In fact, MacGilchrist et al. move away from their implicit critique and ultimately tread the managerialist path by emphasizing (a) measurable outcomes; (b) the need for a 'corporate plan', linked to resources; (c) the need for a clear 'mission'; (d) a focus on data collection. The business connotations are palpable here. The authors need to consider the contradictory manner in which they mix the need for both educational and accountability practices linked to planning. Such contradictory mixing is a recipe for disaster if education is the genuine priority**.**

21. One of the most informative books on HRM in schools is Seifert's (1996) book Human Resource Management in Schools. His text is the exception that proves the rule, namely that textual apologism and outright championing of managerialist HRM reigns supreme in the education management literature. As the back cover blurb explains, Seifert provides a practical guide to the main issues of HRM facing school managers 'at a time when recent educational reforms have given rise to many problems in this area'. The book deals with a whole range of HRM topics including: the role of employers and managers; recruitment and selection; trade unions; performance, training and pay; conditions of service; employee relations and disputes; redundancy. Seifert emphazises the downward pressure on unit labour costs as a direct result of Local Management of Schools (LMS) and the 'serious problems and opportunities' that derive from the latter. Seifert, in his preface, does not 'shy away' from the 'bad news and difficult options'. Indeed, in chapter 1 he writes that

‘not everyone will like this’. For us, this evinces a sense of guilt and frustration at the education reforms. He writes of the ugliness of such notions as productivity3 and is critical of the drive towards developing ‘mission statements’ for all and so-called excellence: ‘Excellence may become a burden if achieved, but too often it is a chimera which enchants school managers away from the realistic purposes of school life’ (Seifert 1996: 19). He also writes that the top-down nature of the reforms causes immense difficulties; children may be neglected; work intensifies – particularly the intensive use of expensive staff. Indeed, Seifert rejects the managerialist co-option of the appraisal mechanism and alleged educational effectiveness of performance-related pay. He notes that once any school has acquired new staff, the performance of those individuals becomes increasingly important to their employer. The main mechanism used, at present, to determine the job activities of teachers is appraisal. Seifert cites Fletcher (1993), who writes that ‘appraisal does harm because managers cannot effectively differentiate between individual staff and organisational systems as the cause in performance variation and that the latter rather than the former are the major factor’ (Seifert 1996: 98). Moreover, Seifert argues that what started out as a mechanism designed to improve professional development has been turned into a political weapon to control school staff and to satisfy political considerations of dismissing poor performers within schools. Again, we are not opposed to appraisal per se. The point is that it needs to be part of a wider scheme of professional development. It is worth quoting Seifert at length here: The pressures on managers, however, to lower unit labour costs have meant a shift in the use made of appraisal. It can now be used as a tool of control in which poor-performing teachers are blamed for the school’s failures, and in which the outcome of the appraisal interview determines both pay and job security. This process of hijacking appraisal is part of the wider debate on control over definitions of what constitutes professional attitudes and behaviour among teachers . . . The Education (School Teacher Appraisal) Regulations 1991 came into effect in 1991 . . . [The] purposes are entirely managerial, having no explicit reference to education other than being directed towards the appraisal of school teachers. (Seifert 1996: 101, our emphasis) Given the competitive underpinning of education reforms, it is hardly surprising that government officials and education academics concur with some HRM specialists who argue that payment systems must be competitive and linked explicitly to contribution and performance. However, in the many detailed case studies of extant schemes, a strong pattern of discontent and failure emerges. For example, Seifert refers to the study of performance-related pay in the Inland Revenue, where the motivational effects have been very modest. Consequently, Seifert finds it difficult to square the research evidence with the claims of educational writers such as Tomlinson, who writes that ‘performance-related pay is part of a necessary change to school and college culture, if standards are to be raised significantly without a massive and possibly wasteful input of new resources’

22. However, the dangers highlighted by Seifert (1996) have – and continue to be – dismissed out of hand by the rest of the education management literature on HRM, as we will see. Caldwell and Spinks, whose work was discussed in Chapter 3, have recently completed their trilogy, about which they write: The local management of schools was one

of the four major initiatives of the Conservative Government that drew fierce criticism from across the political and academic spectrum, invariably labelled by its critics as a market-oriented, ideologically driven thrust of the New Right. Our third book Beyond the Self-Managing School is published in 1998, coinciding with a range of initiatives of the Labour Government, one of which is the extension of local management, known as devolved funding, that significantly increases the level of financial delegation. Such was the acceptance of local management that each of the major political parties in Britain vowed to retain it in the campaign lead-up to the 1997 election. (Caldwell and Spinks 1998: vii) Already we would want to query the implicit non sequitur, namely that because each of the main political parties accepted devolved funding that it is the right policy initiative. It would be useful to dissect their response to critics and address the contradictions, but this would detract from our generic theme. In fact, as we shall see in our discussion of strategy, parts of their book are, frankly, hilarious. However, notwithstanding the lip service paid to critics, Caldwell and Spinks, in their attempt to exonerate themselves, write that Events have subsequently demonstrated that, while some elements of a market orientation unrelated to our work have their pitfalls, the broad features of the 1988 Education Reform Act, especially local management of schools, are eminently sensible and have drawn wide support. (Caldwell and Spinks 1998: 25) They go on to write that: 'We demonstrated how concepts that appeared initially foreign to those in school education, such as marketing, can be adapted' (Caldwell and Spinks 1998: 28). We have already argued for the inappropriateness of marketing. Essentially, as far as the authors are concerned, 'we were not writing a book about education policy in Britain' (Caldwell and Spinks 1998: 31). Yet they were actively creating and buttressing the neo-liberal project that was – and remains – about the imposition of a market orientation. Given such denial we fear that it would be pointless here to recapitulate our argument for the transcendental need to avoid a market orientation and to reiterate the need for Caldwell and Spinks to pay sufficient attention to the research findings that document the deleterious, anti-educational impact of the reforms. Yet, for Colin Riches, 'If schools or colleges do not perform in the sense of achieving results which satisfy their customers they eventually close like bankrupt businesses!' (Riches 1997: 15). Again, the case against the conflation of business values and educational values has already been made. Contrary to both Caldwell and Spinks and Riches, we are not against devolution as long as there are sufficient financial resources at the outset. But the reality of competition and the threat of 'bankruptcy' palpably undermine this. Valerie Hall has also actively championed the use of (strategic) HRM. For her, The shift towards school-based management has been accompanied by a shift in the language used, both inside and outside education, to describe the processes involved. The term . . . HRM has been accepted more readily in non-educational settings but is daily gaining currency in education.

23. As we mentioned earlier, SDPing has been eclipsed by the exhortation that school managers now adopt a strategic approach to HRM in order to maintain, or to achieve, competitive advantage in the educational marketplace. In fact, as Legge (1989, 1995) points out, the battery of techniques employed by HR specialists is, in principle, yoked to

the strategic objectives of the organization. For David Middlewood (1998: 5), developing strategic thinking is ‘of critical importance’. Instead of the school development plan, we are now enjoined to develop the strategic school plan. Indeed, for Davies and Ellison, development planning was misnamed: instead, it should be renamed operational target setting: ‘schools need to build “operational targets”, especially as a result of government pressure and legislation’ (Davies and Ellison 1999: 3). Davies and Ellison go on to consider ‘in depth the limits of strategic planning for anything other than the most predictable activities and develop a concept called strategic intent’ (Davies and Ellison 1999: 3). Humbly, they recognize the limitations of their previous approaches to planning, at the same time refusing to engage with concurrent criticisms. The specifics of their response need not detain us. For Davies and Ellison: These five Ps [Mintzberg’s 5 Ps for strategy] can be seen to be coming from a competitive environment, drawn from both the military and business roots of strategy . . . Some of these concepts are more directly transferable to an educational setting than others. The problem in education is that there is a feeling of being unable to control what is happening because of externally imposed changes but this is, perhaps, an over-used excuse for not developing appropriate strategies for the circumstances. (Davies and Ellison 1999: 47, our emphasis) So, no excuses! Some of the debate centres on whether schools should be planning strategically for the short or long term. For example, a longer-term approach is advocated by Knight (1997). He adopts the language of strategy and the customer, uses business examples, yet argues that the customer should not be interpreted literally, again despite talk of ‘collapse of customer confidence’. Finally, his book ends with the idealist fallacy (or fantasy?) that the ‘sky is the limit’ (Knight 1997: 119). We find such idealism particularly unhelpful given that any competitive system enjoins that there will be winners and losers. Furthermore, again in idealist fashion (like Valerie Hall), he wishes away the material constraints on real learning: I do not believe that it is in any way satisfactory, in educational organisations, simply to reiterate platitudes such as ‘we live in a competitive world’ or ‘education has to exist in a free market’. Such assertions in themselves deny much of the value-driven basis of education which is essential for the delivery of effective learning opportunities to young people.) Simply avoiding the reiteration of such ‘platitudes’ does not alter the fact that education policy is underpinned by them. In contrast, Davies and Ellison (1999: 144) candidly admit that ‘there are no easy, ready-made panaceas which can be transposed onto a school to provide instant and outstanding success in every area’. 5 However, while it is difficult to plan in the long term precisely because schools operate in a now-volatile open system, the crucial point is that schools should not be thinking, worrying, fretting or stressing ‘strategically’ since this, quite simply, threatens to undermine their competitive position in the global marketplace. Ultimately, the issue of whether strategic planning can ever be rational or short term is not the point: schools should get on with educating instead of scrambling for woefully inadequate slices of the funding cake.

24. Despite talk of strategy’s elusive nature (Knight 1997) and the apparent need for strategy to prefix decision-making, planning and thinking, Caldwell and Spinks (1998) offer no less than 100 ‘strategic intentions for schools’. We have many concerns about the

list, especially the time it would involve, although particularly instructive is strategic intention number 10: ‘Without sacrificing any source, schools will seek to reduce their dependence on funding from the public purse by seeking other substantial support, avoiding approaches that yield minimal resources from effort that diverts time and energy from the support of learning’. This smacks of support for the neo-liberal project – but of course, Caldwell and Spinks are not writing about education policy. Why should state schools wish to reduce their dependence on state funding? If anything, research shows incontrovertibly that LMS creates stress, work intensification and a narrowing of the curriculum for schools whose numbers decrease yet whose ‘management’ is found to be sound (see, for example, Willmott 2002a). For instance, as a school governor of an infants’ school, Willmott is helping a head to find ways of maintaining educational excellence in the face of a decrease in pupil numbers and hence money. The head is in the process of having to make redundant one of her staff and combining two infant classes. Who will help her financially? Equally, how can time and energy not be diverted in the search for extra money and ways of saving money? For Davies and Ellison (1999: 15–16): Strategic intent is an approach which seems to have a lot to offer to those in schools, as an alternative to strategic planning . . . With strategic intent the school needs to establish a process of coping with and using the rapid change and turbulence. It does this not by detailed planning but by ‘binding’ the staff together in the furtherance of key priorities. We are not told exactly how to put the flesh on the strategic intent bones nor are we told quite how to bind staff apart from the need to create the ‘right’ culture. However, the real import of Davies and Ellison’s book is the acceptability of schools behaving like flexible firms, hiring and firing when necessary.6 Indeed, Davies and Ellison (1999: 11) are content to stress that there ‘will be changes in staffing patterns and arrangements, more para-professionals, core and periphery staff, fixed-term performance-led contract’. Such hard HRM discourse, however, is couched in the language of imagination and invention (Davies and Ellison 1999: 54). As Davies and Ellison (1999: 57) encapsulate: ‘Achieving a specific strategic intent involves significant creativity with respect to means’ and the ‘leveraging of resources to reach seemingly unattainable goals’. Instructively, following Boisot (1995), they argue that any organization operating in a regime of strategic intent can use a common vision to keep the behaviour of its employees aligned: back to the good old battery of HRM techniques to be deployed in typical manipulative fashion. As they put it: If we have flexible budgets that adjust with the number of pupils, then staffing flexibility on the supply side is an organisational necessity. The challenge is to find ways to empower teachers to be responsible for their career and salary management.

25. In this section, five key research dimensions of effective procurement are identified. Firms emphasise both efficiency (i.e., productivity) and effectiveness (i.e., strategic goal congruence) of procurement. The focus of procurement efficiency is about cost management of procurement. On the other hand, effectiveness of procurement is about delivering the right types of procurement requirements at the right time (i.e., quality, delivery, innovativeness, and social values). Integration of efficiency and effectiveness requires firms to consider purpose, scope, professional development, technologies and

performance measures of procurement. Table 2 summarises these key dimensions. 4.1 Purpose of procurement for sustainable competitive advantage Purpose of procurement is aimed at seeking both short term goals of an organisation and long term competitive advantage. In this sense, procurement is both tactical for satisfying current portfolio requirements and strategic for future value creation. In this dynamic market environment, firm's sustainable competitive advantage requires internal business processes and external supply network capabilities. Future research may keep focusing on the purpose of procurement in terms of organisational competitiveness and long term survival. Thus, such purpose-driven research should further identify, understand, and assess changing procurement practices to implement a new model for sustainable competitive advantage (Baier et al., 2008; Niezen and Weller, 2006; Ogden, 2005; Parker et al., 2008; Sanderson and Cox, 2008) 4.2 Scope of procurement: value creation and delivery The scope of procurement is beyond traditional make or buy decision. It includes strategy, process, product, and services both in public and private settings. In addition to these categories, geographic location can be another important factor in determining the scope of procurement. Global, national, and regional factors need to be analysed by taking transaction cost into consideration (Brege et al., 2010; Ellram et al., 2004). Beyond economics, cultural, social and political factors play an important role especially in global procurement practices (Graham and Hardaker, 1998; Parry et al., 2006; Li and Barnes, 2009; Li and Choi, 2009; Ogden, 2005; Walker and Brammer, 2009). 4.3 Professional development of procurement As the scope of procurement is enlarged, roles of procurement professionals also change. Individuals in a purchasing organisation face demanding role in today's procurement practices. Procurement is more than technical function but strategic and organisational processes (Andersen and Rask, 2003; Baier et al., 2008; Bartezzaghi and Ronchi, 2004; Burki and Buvik, 2010). Procurement professionals are agents of promoting internal coordination. They are also diplomats who establish trust-based relationship with external partners (Huang et al., 2008). Therefore, professional development of individuals is important as the organisational development for efficient and effective procurement outcomes. Future research is to pay attention to how organisations recruit, train and develop procurement professionals to assume technical, tactical and strategic responsibilities (Schoenherr, 2008; Swafford et al., 2006). Procurement professionals 462 P. Hong and H-B. Kwon desire to achieve their personal advancement goals and specific functionally oriented responsibilities in terms of socio-technical task requirements, human resource qualifications, and technological aptitudes (Emiliani, 2000; Gattiker et al., 2007; Huang et al., 2008; Lian and Laing, 2004). However, the real goals of procurement professionals are to enhance knowledge flow and process improvement among members in various settings including team, organisation, and network and thus consistently improve organisational processes and performance outcomes (Nollet and Beaulieu, 2003; Pagell et al., 2010; Tassabehji, 2010; Tassabehji and Moorhouse, 2008; Tazelaar and Snijders, 2004).

Образец сообщения о научной работе.

Sample of introductory speech

TITLE OF THE THESIS

1***) Present the idea of the research***. It is acknowledged that …. Following this, … .

In particular, the attention should be drawn to…. However,…. Therefore, it is worth analyzing the context in which… .

2) ***Aim and objectives***

The main objective of this thesis is to provide …. The possibility to approach this topic by means of regulatory theories, in particular by self-regulatory modes, is to a large extent ignored, … . Thus, this thesis goes one step further ….

Following the main aim of the research we plan to deal with several objectives:

- to analyze theoretical literature
- to compare foreign and domestic experience ….
- to formulate the basic principles…

3) ***Methods***

This thesis presents a qualitative research, which to a large extent is based on the technique of desk research which results in a systematic literature review.

The significance of the thesis lays in the application of a good regulation test, which conceptualizes a theoretical framework …. Based on the application of different methods and topics covered, the thesis is divided into three chapters, which eventually answer the central thesis question:…. ?

4) ***Description of each chapter***

The first chapter introduces…. . The chapter briefly introduces recent empirical data …. Although the chapter primarily focuses on … .

The second chapter provides insights to the ongoing debate on…. The chapter is organized in the following structure. This chapter is unique because of the methodology applied; it is based on the empirical experience gathered by participating in…. The firsthand experience provides the thesis with insights

The third chapter is of a decisive importance as it presents the core problems…. In particular, the chapter provides a ….

Зачет 1 семестр:
Зачет по дисциплине «Иностранный язык в профессиональной коммуникации (английский язык)» состоит из частей:

1) чтение, перевод и реферирование текста профессиональной тематики.
2) сообщение (тезисы) научной конференции.

Экзамен 2 семестр:
Экзамен по дисциплине «Иностранный язык в профессиональной коммуникации (английский язык)» состоит из двух частей:

1) сообщение о научной работе (согласно теме диссертационного исследования);
2) реферирование научной статьи по специальности.

4. Методические материалы, определяющие процедуры оценивания знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности, характеризующих этапы формирования компетенций.

В ходе освоения дисциплины предусмотрены следующие формы отчетности: сообщения и практические задания. В рамках освоения дисциплины предусмотрен текущий контроль и промежуточная аттестация.

Текущий контроль стимулирует студентов к непрерывному овладению учебным материалом, систематической работе в течение всего семестра и осуществляется по темам практических занятий.

Максимальное количество баллов, которое магистрант может получить за освоение дисциплины в каждом семестре 100 баллов. За текущий контроль максимальное количество баллов 70, за промежуточную аттестацию: зачет – до 20 баллов, экзамен – до 30 баллов.

В ходе освоения дисциплины, за текущий контроль, магистранту нужно набрать не менее 50 баллов.

В конце каждого семестра по дисциплине предусмотрена промежуточная аттестация:

– зачет в 1 семестре проводится устно и состоит из двух частей:

- чтение, перевод и реферирование текста профессиональной тематики.

- сообщение (тезисы) научной конференции.

Шкала оценивания зачета

Критерий оценивания	Баллы
Студент чётко излагает предложенный текст и демонстрирует его содержания, читает бегло, без ошибок, переводит отрывок на русский язык адекватно содержанию оригинала, грамотно составил диалог по пройденной тематике	11-20
Студент чётко излагает предложенный текст и демонстрирует его содержания, читает бегло, с допущением незначительных ошибок, переводит отрывок на русский язык адекватно содержанию оригинала с незначительными ошибками, диалог по пройденной тематике составлен с незначительными ошибками	1-10
Студент демонстрирует непонимания прочитанного текста, читает с допущением множества ошибок, переводит отрывок на русский язык неадекватно содержанию оригинала, составил диалог по пройденной тематике с допущением большого числа лексических и грамматических ошибок	0

Итоговая шкала по дисциплине

Итоговая оценка по дисциплине выставляется по приведенной ниже шкале. При выставлении итоговой оценки преподавателем учитывается работа магистранта в течение всего срока освоения дисциплины, а также оценка по промежуточной аттестации.

Баллы, полученные магистрантом по текущему контролю и промежуточной аттестации	Оценка в традиционной системе
81 - 100	Зачтено
61 - 80	Зачтено
41 - 60	Зачтено
0 - 40	Не зачтено

- Экзамен во 2 семестре проводится устно и состоит из двух частей:
  1) сообщение о научной работе;
  2) реферирование научной статьи по специальности.

Шкала оценивания экзамена

Критерий оценивания	Баллы
Студент может грамотно, уверенно ответить на предложенный вопрос (вопросы), предоставил подготовленное сообщение	20-30
Студент грамотно, уверенно отвечает на предложенный вопрос (вопросы) с незначительными ошибками, предоставил подготовленное сообщение с незначительными ошибками	1-19

Студент не может ответить ни на один из предложенных вопросов, не предоставил (или предоставил выполненное частично, или с большим количеством ошибок) подготовленное сообщение	0

Итоговая шкала по дисциплине

Итоговая оценка по дисциплине выставляется по приведенной ниже шкале. При выставлении итоговой оценки преподавателем учитывается работа магистранта в течение всего срока освоения дисциплины, а также оценка по промежуточной аттестации.

Оценка по 100-балльной системе	Оценка по традиционной системе
81 – 100	отлично
61 - 80	хорошо
41 - 60	удовлетворительно
0 - 40	неудовлетворительно