Документ подписан простой электронной подписью
Информация о владельце:
ФИО: Наумова Наталия Александровна
Должность: Ректор
Дата подписания: 21.07.2025 18:01:53
Уникальный программный ключ:
6b5279da4e034bff679172803da5b7b559fc69e2

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ
Федеральное государственное автономное образовательное учреждение высшего образования
«ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ»
(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)

Направление подготовки:

38.04.04. Государственное и муниципальное управление

Программа подготовки

Управление развитием региона

Москва
2025

Содержание

1.Перечень компетенций с указанием этапов их формирования в процессе освоения образовательной программы…….
2. Описание показателей и критериев оценивания компетенций на различных этапах их формирования, описание шкал оценивания……..
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…..
4. Методические материалы, определяющие процедуры оценивания знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности, характеризующих этапы формирования компетенций……

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

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.	*<u>Знать</u>* 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

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.

What is management? You want me to explain what management is? Well, I guess I can manage that! Actually, management as we understand it today is a fairly recent idea. Most economists in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, for example, wrote about factors of production such as land, labour and capital, and about supply and demand, as if these were impersonal and objective economic forces which left no room for human action. An exception was Jean-Baptiste, who invented the term ‘entrepreneur’, the person who seesto use resources in more productive ways. Entrepreneurs are people who are alert to so-far undiscovered profit opportunities. They perceive opportunities to commercialize new technologies and products that will serve the market better than it is currently being served by their competitors. They are happy to risk their own or other people’s capital. They are frequently unconventional, innovative people. But entrepreneurship isn’t the same as

management, and most managers aren't entrepreneurs. So, what's management? Well, it's essentially a matter of organizing people. Managers, especially senior managers, have to set objectives for their organization, and then work out how to achieve them. This is true of the managers of business enterprises, government departments, educational institutions, and sports teams, although for government services, universities and so on we usually talk about administrators and administration rather than managers and management. Managers analyse the activities of the organization and the relations among them. They divide the work into distinct activities and then into individual jobs. They select people to manage these activities and perform the jobs. And they often need to make the people responsible for performing individual jobs which form effective teams. Managers have to be good at communication and motivation. They need to communicate the organization's objectives to the people responsible for attaining them. They have to motivate their staff to work well, to be productive, and to contribute something to the organization. They make decisions about pay and promotion. Managers also have to measure the performance of their staff, and to ensure that the objectives and performance targets set for the whole organization and for individual employeesare reached. Furthermore, they have to train and develop their staff, so that their performance continues to improve. Some managers obviously perform these tasks better than others. Most achievements and failures in business are the achievements or failures of individual managers.

Answer the questions:

1. Management as a term was known long ago, wasn't it?
2. Who invented the term "entrepreneur"?
3. Who are entrepreneurs? What do they do?
4. Is entrepreneurship the same as management?
5. What are manager's duties?
6. Manager's duties differ depending on the type of organisation, don't they?
7. What personal qualities should a good manager possess?
8. Who should motivate staff a manager or CEO?
9. Why should managers train their staff?
10. Who are responsible in most cases for failures of a business?

Guess the meaning of highlighted words, first match them with the definitions and then put them into the sentences:

Definitions:

1. Something important that you succeed in doing by your own efforts.
2. Official connections between countries, companies, organisations etc.
3. Someone who is paid to work for someone else.
4. A chance to do something or an occasion to do something.
5. Method, product, practice etc. has been use for a long time and is considered the usual type.
6. The process of making or growing things to be sold, especially in large quantities.

7. To succeed in achieving something after trying for a long time.
8. Something that you trying hard to achieve, especially in business or politics.
9. A person, team, company etc. that is competing with another.
10. Not showing any feelings of sympathy, friendliness etc.
11. Having a duty to be in charge of or to look after someone or something.

Sentences:

1. Managers should set specific …… for their teams.
2. More women are …… positions of power in public life.
3. Business letters don't have to be …… and formal.
4. His great …… is to make all the players into a united team.
5. When the …… for a promotion come I want to be ready.
6. Internet connections through …… phone lines are fairly slow.
7. …… between workers and management are generally good.
8. The new model will go into …… next year.
9. The shoe factory has the largest number of …… in this area.
10.Last year they sold twice as many computers as their ……
11.He is …… for recruiting and training new staff.

Find the English equivalents for the following word combinations:

1. достаточно недавний
2. спрос и предложение
3. действия человека
4. нераскрытая выгода
5. рисковать своим капиталом
6. выработать способ достижения (целей)
6
7. образовательные учреждения
8. деятельность организации
9. выполнять работу
10. вносить вклад в организацию
11.обеспечивать/гарантировать, что цели достигнуты
12. продолжать улучшаться

. Find the following pronouns in the text. What nouns do they refer to?

1. Well, I guess I can manage that!
2. … as if these were…
3. … who are alert…
4. They perceive opportunities…
5. Well, it's essentially…
6. … for their organization …
7. relations among them.
8. They select people…

9. … responsible for attaining them.
10. … develop their staff, so that their performance…

Speak about functions a good manager should perform.

Who do you think are better managers men or women? Why? Give your reasons.
Compare your opinion with other students' opinions.

Тексты для чтения, перевода и реферирования на зачете

1.Economic regions and federal districts of the Russian Federation.For economic and statistical purposes, the constituent entities of the Russian Federation are combined into economic regions. In this case, an economic region is understood as a part of the country's territory, consisting of several republics, territories, regions, autonomous regions, autonomous districts, cities of federal significance, characterized by territorial and economic unity (complexity), relative similarity of natural and economic conditions and features. Moreover, a separate constituent entity of the Russian Federation can be included in only one economic region. The economic regions have the following characteristics: • common economic and social goals and participation in development programs; • relatively similar economic conditions and potential; • similar climatic, ecological, and geological conditions; • similar methods of technical inspection of new construction; • similar methods of conducting customs oversight; • overall similar living conditions of the population. Unit II 39 No federal subject can belong to more than one economic region. Economic regions are also grouped into economic zones (also called "macrozones"). An economic region or its parts can belong to more than one economic zone. The establishment and abolition of economic regions and economic zones or any changes in their composition are decided upon by the federal government of Russia. This division into economic regions is different from the division into federal districts. The former is solely for economic and statistical purposes, and the latter exists solely to uphold the federal laws on the territory of the country. In the Russian Federation, there are 12 economic regions: Central, North Caucasus, Volga, West Siberian, East Siberian, Volga-Vyatka, Northwestern, Central Black Earth, Far Eastern, Northern, Kaliningrad. In accordance with the decree of the President of Russia "On the plenipotentiary representative of the President of the Russian Federation in the federal district" on May 13, 2000, federal districts were created. Federal districts are not subjects or any other constitutional part of the administrative-territorial division of the Russian Federation. Currently, there are eight federal districts in Russia: the Central Federal District, the Northwestern Federal District, the Southern Federal District, the North Caucasian Federal District, the Volga Federal District, the Ural Federal District, the Siberian Federal District, the Far Eastern Federal District

2.Differences in the development of some federal districts of the Russian Federation The constituent entities of the Russian Federation are fundamentally different in terms of the level of socio-economic development. The existing subsidy system is far from optimal. A small number of regions are donors, but the overwhelming majority receive subsidies. Such a system forms dependent sentiments, while the regions are not aligned. On the contrary, the regions are becoming more and more dependent on the center, and the regions

- donors, have no incentives to increase their income and attract additional investment. At present, various groups of problem regions are distinguished in Russia: 1. Underdeveloped. 2. Depressive, recipient regions, where production capacities are not used due to a reduction in government orders. 3. Regions with environmental problems. With regard to problem regions, it is necessary to develop an effective regional policy to prevent a crisis. There are 8 federal districts of the Russian Federation: Central Federal District, Siberian Federal District, Volga Federal District, North Caucasus Federal District, Far East Federal District, Ural Federal District, Southern Federal District, Northwestern Federal District. Unit II 41 Created in May 2000 in accordance with the Decree of the President of the Russian Federation "On the Plenipotentiary of the President of the Russian Federation in the Federal District." At the time of establishment, 7 federal districts were created – Central, North-Western, Southern, Volga, Ural, Siberian, Far Eastern. In January 2010, by the Decree of the President of the Russian Federation, the North Caucasian Federal District was separated from the Southern Federal District. In March 2014, the Crimean Federal District was formed by the Decree of the President of the Russian Federation. In July 2016, the Southern Federal District and the Crimean Federal District were transformed into the Southern Federal District. On the territory of federal districts, the plenipotentiary representatives of the President of the Russian Federation in federal districts ensure the implementation of the constitutional powers of the head of state in order to increase the efficiency of the activities of federal bodies of state power and improve the system of control over the implementation of their decisions. There are direct and indirect methods of regional policy. With direct methods of conducting regional policy, the state actively participates in capital investments aimed at improving the territorial structure of the economy (creating growth centers, industrial parks, infrastructure in areas of preference, etc.). With indirect methods of conducting regional policy, the state through the financial (tax, customs) system seeks to create an appropriate economic "climate" in certain regions to stimulate their accelerated development and manage migration flows. English for Public Administration Students (English for Specific Purposes)

3. Relations between federal and regional authorities The participation of the constituent entities of the Russian Federation in solving general federal issues is manifested in the following: • the upper chamber of the federal parliament – the Federation Council – is the chamber of regions in which all constituent entities of the Russian Federation are represented on an equal footing; • constituent entities of the Russian Federation have representation in other federal bodies (under the Government of the Russian Federation, under individual federal executive bodies, in the State Council of the Russian Federation, in the Council of Judges in the Council of Legislators, etc.); • constituent entities of the Russian Federation take part in the preparation of international treaties of the Russian Federation (if the treaty affects the interests of constituent entities of the Russian Federation); • subjects of the Russian Federation participate in the federal rule-making process: firstly, through the Federation Council with the approval of any federal laws; secondly, through the implementation of the right to legislative initiative in the federal parliament; thirdly, through participation in the procedures for the approval of federal

regulations (federal laws, government decrees) on subjects of joint jurisdiction (for example, draft federal laws on subjects of joint jurisdiction English for Public Administration Students (English for Specific Purposes) 60 after they are submitted to the State Duma and after their adoption by the State Duma in the first reading in the mandatory order are sent to the regional government bodies for their submission within 30 days of responses to draft laws (in the first case) and amendments to these draft laws (in the second case), while if the responses of the higher government bodies of more than 1/3 of the subjects of the Russian Federation turn out to be negative, then a conciliation commission is created without fail, and before the expiration of the 30-day period allotted to regional parliaments for submitting amendments to bills adopted in the first reading to the State Duma, consideration of these bills in the second reading is not allowed). The main directions of federal influence on the state authorities of the constituent entities of the Russian Federation are: • control over the activities of public authorities of the constituent entities of the Russian Federation (it is carried out by the President of the Russian Federation, the Constitutional Court of the Russian Federation and other federal courts, the Commissioner for Human Rights in the Russian Federation, prosecutors, the Ministry of Justice of the Russian Federation, etc.); • the introduction of martial law and a state of emergency on the territory of individual constituent entities of the Russian Federation with the corresponding consequences; Unit III 61 • the introduction of the direct federal government in certain regions (as was the case in the Chechen Republic); • early termination of the powers of the state authorities of the constituent entities of the Russian Federation as elements of the system of "checks and balances" in the functioning of state power in the "vertical" aspect (in particular, the early termination by the President of the Russian Federation of the powers of the highest official of the constituent entity of the Russian Federation); • the application of measures of responsibility to the state authorities of the constituent entities of the Russian Federation for violation of federal legislation. The main provisions characterizing the subjects of the Russian Federation: 1. A number of features of Russian federalism are laid down in the Constitution of the Russian Federation, including the special status of the republics within the Russian Federation as national-state formations, the special status of the autonomous region, and autonomous regions as national-territorial formations

4. Local Self-Government**.** Local self-government in modern Russia is a complex social phenomenon. It needs to be considered in several aspects: 1. This is a special way of organizing local power, which is characterized by such features as independence in resolving issues of local importance, election of bodies and officials, material and financial independence. Unit III 63 2. It is a civil society institution. 3. This is specifically the level of power - the power exercised by the population of the municipality. 4. This is a decentralized form of government, which presupposes certain independence of local authorities. 5. This is a form of democracy. 6. This is one of the foundations of the constitutional system of the Russian Federation. Local self-government is an essential element of a democratic state structure. Therefore, the provision on the guarantee of local selfgovernment is set out in Chapter 1 of the Constitution "Fundamentals of the

Constitutional System". 7. This is a form of self-organization of citizens at the level of the municipality. 8. This is the right of the population to independently resolve issues of local importance. The multidimensional definition of the institution of local self-government in the Russian Federation is due to its dual nature. On the one hand, local government is a form of public power that is inextricably linked with state power. On the other hand, local self-government is an institution of civil society that provides citizens with the opportunity to directly participate in solving local issues. Local self-government in the Russian Federation is one of the forms of public power and has a number of features that distinguish it from state power: independence within the powers determined by the state, an expanded list of types of English for Public Administration Students (English for Specific Purposes) 64 responsibility of local self-government bodies, the subordinate nature of activities. In the territorial organization of local self-government in the Russian Federation, two approaches are implemented – settlement (urban and rural settlements, urban districts) and territorial (municipal areas). There is both a two-tier model of the territorial organization of the population (a municipal district – settlements, an urban district with an intra-city division – an intra-city district), and a one-level model (urban district), which makes it possible to ensure the solution of local issues at the level where there are appropriate resources. In the Russian Federation, there are several models of organization of local self-government bodies. Their diversity is explained by the presence of different types of municipalities, different population sizes, and the socioeconomic capabilities of municipalities. At the same time, the regional authorities are striving to unify the system of local self-government bodies on the territory of the municipalities that are part of them. State control is carried out in the sphere of municipal rulemaking and the implementation of certain state powers. Based on its results, the powers of local self-government bodies may be terminated early. Purchasing and procurement.

5. The documents aimed at the socio-economic development of the Russian Federation The forecast of the long-term socio-economic development of the Russian Federation for the period up to 2030 designed by the Ministry of Economic Development of Russia is one of the main documents of the strategic planning system for the development of the Russian Federation. It determines the directions and expected results of the socio-economic development of the Russian Federation and the constituent entities of the Russian Federation in the long term. The long-term forecast forms a unified platform for the development of long-term strategies, target programs, as well as forecast and planning documents of a medium-term nature. The basic provisions for the development of a long-term forecast are the main provisions of the Concept of long-term socio-economic development of the Russian Federation for the period up to 2020, the Concept of demographic policy of the Russian Federation for the period up to 2025, the message of the President of the Russian Federation to the Federal English for Public Administration Students (English for Specific Purposes) 84 Assembly of the Russian Federation, decrees

of the President of the Russian Federation of May 7, 2012 No. 596 - 606, Main directions of activities of the Government of the Russian Federation for the period up to 2018 and other documents of a long-term nature. The forecast of the socio-economic development of the Russian Federation for the period up to 2030 is based on the scenario conditions of the forecast for the long-term socioeconomic development of the Russian Federation until 2030, taking into account the parameters of the forecast of the socioeconomic development of the Russian Federation for 2013 and the planning period of 2014 and 2015, as well as prepared on their basis forecast materials of federal executive authorities and executive authorities of the constituent entities of the Russian Federation. The document includes the following parts: 1. Results of the socio-economic development of the Russian Federation. 2. Conditions for the development of the economy in the long term. 3. Development scenarios. 4. Development of human capital and living standards of the population. 5. Development of science, technology, and innovation. 6. Investments. Unit IV 85 7. Prices and tariffs for products (services) of companies in the infrastructure sector. Inflation parameters, dynamics of producer prices. 8. Environmental protection. Development of the resource potential of the economy. 9. Development of production infrastructure. 10. Increasing the competitiveness of industries. 11. Development of the agro-industrial complex. 12. Development of small business and institutional transformations. 13. Territorial development. 14. Long-term forecast of the parameters of the budget system development. 15. Foreign economic activity. The subparagraphs of section 13 provide information on the development prospects of each region of the Russian Federation. THE

6. Under tree drivers, globalization, information technology, changing production and management methods, the philosophies of purchasing rapidly have changed recently. According to Handfield (2011, p2011, pp42 – 44) procurement's objective are no longer is to obtain goods and services in response to internal needs but include five new primary ones.

The first objective is keeping the supply flow continuously. This means the traditional role of purchasing function still maintained in the procurement. In other words, procurement must fulfill the needs of operations through purchase the services, raw materials, components, subassemblies, and repair and maintenance items. Moreover, procurement may support the requirements of physical distribution centers responsible for storing and delivering replacement parts or finished products to end customers. Besides, procurement supports engineering and technical groups (such as IT), particularly during new – product/ service development and outsourcing of key processes.

The second objective is managing the sourcing process efficiently and effectively. In order to achieve this objective, procurement must do as followings:

Determining staffing levels

Developing and adhering to administrative budgets

Providing professional training and growth opportunities for employees
Introducing improved buying channels within the procure to pay systems that lead to improved spending visibility, efficient invoicing and payment, and user satisfaction
The third objective is developing supply base management. This means procurement must do the selection, development, and maintenance of suppliers. More specifically, procurement has to:
Choosing competitive suppliers
Identify new suppliers with potential for excellent performance and developing tight relationships with these suppliers
Improving existing suppliers
Developing new suppliers that are not competitive with current suppliers
With this objective, procurement now gets closer to the supplier and works with more cooperation than pure transaction. This point is totally different from the purchasing because procurement is no longer deal with internal organization's tasks but also the external ones. By doing this procurement can gain a supply base capable of providing performance advantages in product cost, quality, technology, delivery, and new – product development.
The fourth objective is developing aligned goals with internal stakeholders. In the past, each cross – function was like an isle which was no connection with others. However this ways does not work on temporary business. There is a need to do the cross – functional interaction and cross – boundary communication. Therefore, procurement must make connection with other functions which have an important stake in the effectiveness of purchasing performance.
The last objective is developing integrated purchasing strategies that support organizational goals and objectives. This means the procurement can directly affect (positively or negatively) the long – term growth, revenue, and operating outcomes and plans of internal customers. If procurement can actively take part in the corporate planning process, it will give the supply market intelligence that contributes to strategic planning. Supply market intelligence can be:
Monitoring supply markets and trends(for examples, material price increases, shortages, changes in suppliers) and interpreting the impact of these trends on company strategies
Identifying the critical materials and services required to support company strategies in key performance areas, particularly during new – product development
Developing supply options and contingency plans that support company plans
Supporting the organization's need for a diverse and globally competitive supply base
.
7. Strategic Procurement Processes. Spend analysis is the process of collecting historical data by commodity, relative to demand from the lines of business, with the exception of personnel expenses, occupancy, and corporate spend. The result is used to coordinate demand management, commodity management, and risk management strategies. It is helpful to communicate with business partners to know where they spent their money and

why it was spent.Demand management is the process of using UNIT and RATE consumption to levels to forecast and estimate future consumption in an internal function customer, and providing guidance and input on how to optimize usage and educating the user on the tradeoffs. Demand management activities may involve:Optimization of sourcing strategies based on how much the team projects they will buying Proactively setting policies, procedures, and measurement systems that throttle the consumption and total expenditures of a unit of category of spend Insuring appropriate levels of capacity in the supply base required to minimize risk.Establishing a fixed set of standards to limit options, and restricting the supply base to include only preferred suppliers who comply with risk and compliance requirements. Specifications/SOW's is the process that procurement combines the knowledge and expertise about a wide variety of materials and services with the organization's benefit. Category management is the process of developing external industry intelligence and analysis, internal demand, supply base capabilities and operational risks, and a strategy to approach that marketplace with our needs to match it with what suppliers can offer. Contract management is a process associated with defining the contract, defining roles and responsibilities of both parties, and advising when to modify and ensure appropriate escalation. Cost management is the process of analysis the price paid and other components of price over the life cycle of a product or service, to deliver a target cost and a unit rate to determine if it is priced competitively in the marketplace. Cost management can help to make decision in many cases:

The cost of supporting a process or commodity

The gap between cost drivers and the assumed business case

Identifying the business case

The total cost of offering a service, including al of the elements of receiving, use, and disposal over the life cycle of the offering.

Managing the procure to pay process concerns with the automation of all transactional activities associated with the thread of events that occurs from the time of buying a good or service, through the release mechanism, to the point of issuing payment, including: requisitioning, RFX, contract award, orders, approval, receipt, payment

Supplier Relationship Management is the end – to – end process of managing a supplier through the entire sourcing life cycle, which includes first identifying the abilities of a particular company with regard to performing a service for the internal customer, completing a sourcing event, negotiating a contract, executing an order, and determining payment. All aspect of the relationship can include:

Day – to – day transactions

Identification and mitigation of operational risk and deliverables

Business continuity planning

Understanding the suppliers' business challenges

Identification of opportunities to improve value and reduce cost
Establishing scorecard metrics for improvement and reviewing progress towards these objectives
Contract terms and conditions
Leveraging the flow of information between key internal process owners and the supplier to create value
A procurement strategy is a holistic plan for designing the organization, assingning resources, and aligning these resources against the demands placed on the supply chain by the business. A well – developed procurement strategy includes:
A repeatable and well – defined process for building strategy and governance around defining, planning, managing, and receiving products and services for a business
Clear alignment with executive vision and internal user – specific business goals
A process based on well – developed supplier market intelligence and input from executives and internal customers
Established goals and metrics for short – term project plans, as well as a define five – year plan
Established communication plan to inform senior management and all lines of business updated and reviewed quarterly against defined goals and objectives

8.Why people become great at managing
1. Enjoy helping people grow. Few things feel better than helping someone who is new to a role, or who has been struggling, into becoming a productive, confident person. There's a kind of satisfaction in helping someone figure out how to be successful that doesn't come from many other living experiences. Great managers love seeing this happen on their teams.
2. Love creating positive environments. A great manager creates a team and office environment that makes it easy for smart people to do good things. They love that moment when they wander the halls and see all sorts of amazing things happening all on their own, with passionate, motivated people doing good work without much involvement from the manager.
3. Care deeply about the success and well being of their team. Thoroughbred horses get well cared for. Their owners see them as an expensive asset and do whatever they can to optimize their health, performance, and longevity, even if their motivations are largely selfish. A great manager cares deeply about their staff, and goes out of his way to protect, train, care for, and reward their own team, even if their primary motivation is their own success.
4. Succession mentality. A successful manager eventually realizes their own leadership will end one day, but if they teach and instill the right things into people who work for them, that philosophy can live on for a long time, long after the manager is gone. This can go horribly wrong but the desire to have a lasting impact generally helps people think on longer term cycles and pay attention to wider trends short term managers do not notice.

5. Long term sense of reward. Many of the mistakes managers make involve reaping short term rewards at the expense of long term loyalty and morale. Any leader who inverts this philosophy, and makes short term sacrifices to provide long term gains, will generally be a much better manager. They recognize the value of taking the time to explain things, to build trust, to provide training, and to build relationships, all of which results in a kind of team performance and loyalty the short term manager never believes is possible.
6. Practice of the golden rule. Anyone in power who treats all of their employees the same way they truly would want to be treated, or even better, will always be a decent, above average manager. A deeply moral person can't help but do better than most people, as treating people with respect, honesty and trust are the 3 things most people wish they could get from their bosses.
7. Self aware, including weaknesses. Great leaders know what they suck at, and either work on those skills or hire people they know make up for their own weaknesses, and empower them to do so. This tiny little bit of self-awareness makes them open to feedback and criticism to new areas they need to work on, and creates an example for movement in how people should be growing and learning about new things.

8. Sets tone of healthy debate and criticism. If the boss gives and takes feedback well, everyone else will too. If the boss is defensive, passive-aggressive, plays favorites, or does other things that work against the best idea winning, everyone else will play these destructive games. Only a boss who sees their own behavior as a model the rest of the organization will tend to follow can ever become a truly great manager. Without this, they will always wonder why the team behaves in certain unproductive ways that are strangely familiar.
9. Willing to fight, but picks their battles. Great managers are not cowards.
They are willing to stake their reputation and make big bets now and then. However they are not crazy either. They are good at doing political math and seeing which battle is worth the fight at a given time. A manager that never fights can never be great – they will never have enough skin in the game to earn the deepest level of respect of the people that work for them. But a manager that always fights is much worse. They continually put their own ego ahead of what their team is capable of.

9.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.

10. Motivation

Motivation refers to psychological process that gives behavior purpose and direction. It is an important area of study for managers because it helps them better understand our most valuable resource, people. (Realistically, motivation is just one of many explanations of work behavior, such as one’s knowledge and emotional state and organizational factors.) Even though the employees in one study ranked “interesting work” the highest among the things they wanted from their jobs, their supervisors believed that they wanted “good wages” above all else. This type of misperception of employees’ needs can cripple a motivation program. Pollster D.Yankelovich contends that traditional motivation tools such as fear, money, strict supervision, and the work ethic are inappropriate for nearly half of today’s labor force in the USA. Among alternative motivation theories, Maslow’s needs

hierarchy theory, Herzberg's two-factor theory, and expectancy theory stand out as particularly relevant for managers. According to Maslow's message, people always have needs, and when one need is relatively fulfilled, others emerge in a predictable sequence to take its place. His five-level needs hierarchy, although empirically criticized, makes it clear to managers that people are motivated by emerging rather than fulfilled needs. Assuming that job satisfaction and performance are positively related, Herzberg believes that the most that wages and working conditions can do is eliminate sources of dissatisfaction. According to Herzberg, the key to true satisfaction and motivation is an enriched job that provides an opportunity for achievement, responsibility, and personal growth. Expectancy theory is based on the idea that the strength of one's motivation to work is the product of perceived probabilities of acquiring personally valued rewards. Both effort-performance ("What are my chances of getting the job done if I put out the necessary effort?") and performance-reward ("What are my chances of getting the rewards I value if I satisfactorily complete the job?") probabilities are important to expectancy theory. Depending on how it is designed, a job can either hamper or promote personal growth and satisfaction. Although historically a key to higher productivity, specialization of labor has been associated with costly human problems in recent years. Managers have the options of fitting people to jobs or fitting jobs to people when attempting to counter the specialization-of-labor dilemma. The first option includes realistic job previews (honest explanations of what a job actually involves), job rotation(periodically moving people from one specialized job to another), and limited exposure (establishing a challenging but fair daily performance standard, and letting employees go home when it is reached). Managers who pursue the second option, fitting jobs to people, can either enlarge (combine two or more tasks into a single job) or enrich (redesign a job to increase its motivating potential)jobs. Job enrichment vertically loads jobs to meet individual needs for responsibility and knowledge of results. Personal desire for growth and a supportive climate are required for successful job enrichment. Both extrinsic (externally granted) and intrinsic (self-granted) rewards, when properly administered, can have a positive impact on performance and satisfaction.

11. 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.
12 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.

13. 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.

14. 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).

15. Fairs and Expositions Fairs. A fair is a gathering of people to display or trade produce or other goods, to parade or display animals and often to enjoy associated carnival or funfair entertainment. Activities at fairs vary widely. Some are important showcases for businessmen in agricultural, pastoral or horticultural districts because they present opportunities to display and demonstrate the latest machinery on the market. Fairs are also known by many different names around the world, such as agricultural show, carnival, county or state fair, festival, market and show, and etc. The fair is an ancient tradition, and many communities have long had dedicated fairgrounds; others hold them in a variety of public places, including streets and town squares, or even in large private gardens. Fairs are often held in conjunction with a significant event, such as the 28 anniversary of a local historical event, a seasonal event such as harvest time, or with a holiday. In Roman times, fairs were holidays on which there was an intermission of labour and pleadings. In later centuries, on any special Christian religious occasion (particularly the anniversary dedication of a church), tradesmen would bring and sell their wares (even in the churchyards). Such fairs then continued annually, usually on the feast day of the patron saint to whom the church was dedicated. Free fairs. Some fairs were free; others charged tolls and impositions. At free fairs, traders, whether natives of the kingdom or foreigners, were allowed to enter the kingdom, and were under royal protection while travelling to and

returning from the fair. The traders, their agents, and their goods were exempt from all duties and impositions, tolls and servitudes; merchants going to or coming from the fair could not be arrested, or have their goods stopped. Such fairs (especially those of the Mediterranean region and some inland regions, particularly Germany), were extremely important in the commerce of Europe. Trade fairs. A trade fair (or trade show) is an exhibition organized so that companies in a specific industry can showcase and demonstrate their new products and services. Some trade fairs are open to the public, while others can only be attended by company representatives (members of the trade) and members of the press, therefore tradeshows are classified as either “Public” or “Trade only”. Trade fairs often involve a considerable marketing investment by participating companies. Costs include space rental, display design and construction, telecommunications and networking, travel, accommodations, and promotional literature and items to give to attendees. In addition costs are incurred at the show for services such as electrical, booth cleaning, internet services, floral decoration within the booth and drayage (also known as material handling). Consequently, cities often promote trade shows as a means of economic development. Exhibitors attending the event are required to use an exhibitor manual or online exhibitor manual to order their required services and complete any necessary paperwork such as health and safety declarations. World fairs. Expo (short for “exposition”), and also known as World Fair and World’s Fair, is the name given to various large public exhibitions held since the mid-19th century. The official sanctioning 29 body is the Bureau International des Expositions (BIE), translated in English as the International Exhibitions Bureau (though sometimes rendered as the Bureau of International Expositions). BIE-approved fairs are divided into a number of types: universal, and international or specialized. They usually last between 3 and 6 months. In addition, countries can hold their own fairs, expositions, or exhibitions, without BIE endorsement. Today, world expositions are the third largest event in the world in terms of economic and cultural impact, after the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games. The first Expo was held in The Crystal Palace in Hyde Park, London, in 1851 under the title “Great Exhibition of the Works of Industry of All Nations”. The “Great Exhibition” as it is often called was the first international exhibition of manufactured products. It influenced the development of several aspects of society including art and design education, international trade and relations, and even tourism. Also, it was the precedent for the many international exhibitions, later called “World’s Fairs”, which were subsequently held to the present day. The BIE. The International Exhibitions Bureau is the governing body of World’s Fairs. The BIE was established by an international convention signed in Paris on 22 November 1928, with the following goals: to oversee the calendar, the bidding, the selection and the organization of Expos; to establish a framework allowing Countries to cooperate under the best conditions as organizers of Expos or as participants through national pavilions. To date, 140 member countries have adhered to the BIE Convention. The main attractions at World’s Fairs are the national pavilions, created by participating countries. Since 1975, each country could build its own pavilion at a universal expo, but

buildings could be provided for poorer countries. At an international expo, the expo built the pavilions..

16. 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..

17. 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.

18. 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.
19. 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.

20. 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.

21. 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.

22. 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. 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.

23. 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.

24. 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.

25. 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.

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. Humanity is wealthier, more connected and more technologically advanced than ever. Access to healthcare is rapidly expanding and poverty levels keep dropping in most parts of the world. At the same time, societies around the globe are facing a multitude of challenges. To name a few: climate change, biodiversity loss and resource depletion, growing inequalities and power concentrations, economic instability and soaring levels of private and public debt, ageing and migration, social polarisation and rising authoritarian nationalist populism. And, back on the table since 2020: pandemics. Tackling such challenges requires a deep comprehension of the economy, which the current system of economics education does not sufficiently provide. Economists need a real-world understanding of how various industries work, how they are intertwined with each other, how economic power works, what roles states play and how these are embedded in our society at large. It also requires open minds which can look at issues from a variety of

perspectives. A single theoretical framework cannot provide the answers to every question. A range of approaches which prioritise different methodologies, assumptions, units of analysis and outcomes, is necessary for gaining a good understanding of the economy and its issues. Economists need to be able to think critically, select the tools which are most relevant for the context and problem at hand, and understand the limitations and uncertainties of the conclusions that they draw from them. Finally, it requires an awareness and an explicit discussion of the moral dilemmas and normative trade-offs involved in economic decisions. In short, economists have a lot on their plate. Economists also have a lot of influence, for good and for bad. Firstly, as key policy experts and advisors, economists largely run many of the most powerful public-sector organisations in the world: central banks, ministries of finance, social and economic affairs, the IMF and the World Bank. In the private sector, economists co-direct the behaviour of banks and other large companies. Secondly, the economic ideas that float around most prominently in our society exert an influence far beyond the formal advisory reports of professional economists, guiding decision-making of citizens everywhere. Economic thinking influences even those who do not become economists, as economists have a central role in the public debate and many citizens are taught basic economics in secondary or tertiary education. 10 The growing societal importance of economists and economic ideas has sparked a lively debate around the content and structure of economics education. A worldwide movement of students and academics calls for more pluralist, real-world focused and socially relevant programmes that would enable economics graduates to better understand and tackle the economic issues that the world faces today. This movement has accelerated over the last decade, spurred on by the global financial crisis of 2008, the climate crisis and the COVID-19

2.The limitations of marketing. Marketing proponents seem largely unaware of the limitations of marketing as a field of academic enquiry per se. As Alvesson and Willmott (1996) point out, debates about the credibility and contribution of marketing have tended to take place outside of the marketing specialism. ‘Indeed, it is probably fair to say that, of the management specialisms, marketing has been one of the least self-reflective and, seemingly, the most self-satisfied. As a discipline, marketing is generally at a low level of theory development’ (Alvesson and Willmott 1996: 119). However, Desmond (1998) argues that it is the case that the public perception of marketing does not square with the fact that morality has been a prime concern for marketing academics since its inception. It is worth quoting him at length here: Given the fact that the academic discipline of marketing set sail with high ethical hopes, it is scarcely surprising that marketers are concerned to see that ship founder on the rock of public opinion. What went wrong? [. . .] On occasion those who have sought to answer this question have come up with solutions which have had the unintended effect of creating further problems for the subject. Each ‘solution’ has led to a new strand of marketing theory and as a result the subject is fragmented into a number of quite different approaches: ‘social’ marketing, ‘green’ marketing, ‘activist’ marketing, ‘relationship’ marketing, ‘postmodern’ marketing, to name a few. Because of this diversity it is probably more accurate to talk of marketings than of a

unified academic discipline. (Desmond 1998: 173, emphasis in original) Foskett is one of those who has championed so-called ‘relationship marketing’. Indeed, Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (2001: 73) argue that relationship marketing is ‘clearly paramount to primary schools in influencing parental choice’. The contradictory and superficial championing of relationship marketing will be critically explored in our discussion of marketing’s attempts to find ‘solutions’ to criticisms of immorality. Now, as Alvesson and Willmott (1996: 120) note, marketing theory and research remains strongly positivistic in its disregard of the historical and political construction of its research ‘objects’. The overriding concern has been the scientistic refinement and testing of instruments that are intended to measure the ever-increasing number of variables that ostensibly enhance the capacity to predict consumer behaviour. Despite some signs of disillusionment with the positivist paradigm, alternative methodologies have not yet seriously begun to reshape marketing theory and research. Moreover, in presenting itself as ‘the discipline of exchange behaviour’, marketing does not consider how asymmetrical power relations mediate exchanges. Thus to Alvesson and Willmott (1996: 120–1): Identifying exchange as its central concept, marketing provides a deceptively simple, easy-to-understand formulation of the complexities of human interaction and neglects to discuss how structures of domination and exploitation shape and mediate relationships [. . .] A practical outcome of conceptualising social interaction as exchange is to depersonalise and commodify relationships. They argue that the concept of exchange is beguiling because it suggests that each individual is a sovereign consumer who is free to pick and choose in the marketplace. The discourse of exchange inflates the individual’s sense of autonomy and aims to recognize and expand the individual’s sense of freedom. Crucially, this does not acknowledge that social relations of inequality privilege or exclude participation in marketized transactions. Equally, as O’Neill (1998) argues, one of the great deficiencies of market society lies in the way in which it privileges the choices of ‘consumers’ over the skills of ‘producers’. O’Neill does not suggest that producers should not answer to consumers. Answerability per se is not the issue; rather, the manner in which producers must answer that is the proper source of criticism. The problem is that in the market where consumer sovereignty reigns supreme, information is passed back without dialogue. Such lack of dialogue is held to be something that should be celebrated. That there is no educative dialogue is an informational failure of the market, not a virtue, argues O’Neill. He points out that the problem is not just one of education here but also of power. Mutual interdependence also throws up the issue of trust. ‘Trust in the scientist, the nurse, the doctor, the builder, the farmer and so on are both part of life and inescapably a possible source of problems’ (O’Neill 1998: 99). O’Neill notes that there are two kinds of institutional response that can be made to the problems of trust: contractarian and deliberative. The contractarian response hedges individuals and association by contractual obligations and targets, which they are to meet, and to which they can be held to account for failing to do so. This (external) accountability underpins marketization of education and is readily accepted by the educational marketing literature, as we have seen. This approach has major failings. As he argues, the spread of contractual relationships itself

undermines the conditions of trust. Contract presupposes trust. Furthermore, this response distorts the workings of the practices themselves, since contracts require explicitly stated conditions to be met, and thus the practice is directed towards objectives that can be explicitly stated.6 The point is that 'a contractual framework of the kind exhibited in the increasingly audit culture of modern societies undermines the proper pursuit of those practices' (O'Neill 1998: 100). In contrast, the deliberative response places associations within the context of a framework in which the reliability of judgements is open to scrutiny of citizens through deliberative institutions. This model, however, has difficulties that derive from the necessary limits to the citizens' maturity in matters outside their competence. O'Neill recognizes that this might seem to point to an impasse. Nevertheless, he discusses an alternative (Aristotelian) model of the public use of reason that does provide a defensible account, which is the best we can hope for. Equally, far from securing consumer sovereignty and satisfaction, it is the case that many of the marketing methods actually frustrate or undermine the realization of this ideal. It has been noted how students of marketing are presented with theories and methods that claim to weaken or skirt the will of consumers by inducing them to act habitually (for example, by encouraging brand loyalty)7 or in an impulsive way, and so on.

3. Marketing and moral indifference 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. **(James and Phillips (2007)**

4. . Relationship marketing: bringing the (moral) face back in? 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 organiza84 THE TEXTUAL APOLOGISTS tion 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’ **(Desmond 2008: 189)**

5. Giants on Whose Shoulders We Stand This movement has produced an extensive literature of proposals and discussions about economics curriculum reform, which we will briefly discuss before setting out the contribution of Economy Studies itself and the internal structure of this book. To go directly to the overview of this book’s parts and to see reading suggestions for faculty, students and other audiences, skip ahead to the next section of this chapter, This Book: Structure and Reading Guide. For more history and detail on the debate about economics education see Butler et al. (2009); Fullbrook (2003); Garnett Jr et al. (2009); Hodgson et al. (1992); Hoyt and McGoldrick (2012); Lee (2009); Reardon (2009); Spiegler and Milberg (2013); Thornton (2016); Tieleman et al. (2017). For brevity, the literature review starts in 2007, the year the global financial crisis started and as a result the movement for economics curriculum reform received an enormous boost. In this year, Teaching Pluralism in Economics (2007) was published; a collection of essays edited by John Groenewegen, which discusses the desirability of pluralism and the different forms it can take, the importance and usefulness of interdisciplinarity, history, and problem-based learning, and differences between an economics education in the United States (US), Germany and the United Kingdom (UK). Two years later the Teagle Foundation report was written by David Colander and KimMarie McGoldrick (2009) about how economics majors in US liberal education could be improved. The report argues programmes should focus more on “big think” questions about highly complex issues as well as the real-world contexts in which economic problems are situated. Colander and McGoldrick also suggest experimenting with new teaching strategies, Introduction Economy Studies 31 encouraging active classroom participation and open conversations, and developing teaching commons with openly shared materials and exercises. They also provide organisational suggestions for improvement, such as increasing attention to teaching skills as well as subjects such as economic history, history of economic thought and institutions in PhD programmes so that the next generation of teachers will be better equipped and prepared. The Teagle report was also the starting point of Educating Economists: The Teagle Discussion on Re-evaluating the Undergraduate Economics Major (2010), a collection of essays from a wide variety of perspectives. Among other questions, it discusses whether to deepen and/or broaden the scope of the programmes, how best to teach students to think critically and independently, and the practicalities of organising economics education such as providing the right incentives to stimulate good teaching. The year 2009, right after the start of the global financial crisis, saw two other important publications on economics education: Robert Garnett, Erik Olsen, and Martha Starr edited the volume Economic Pluralism (2009) of which the third part specifically focused on economics education. The volume gives a good overview of the debate surrounding economic pluralism with essays on, among other things, how to manage intellectual diversity to promote knowledge production, whether to base pluralism on Kuhn’s concept

of incommensurability or Mill's idea of fallibilism, the institutional heterogeneity in real-world economies, and how pluralist teaching can contribute to relevant skill formation among students desired by companies and governments. Another book on the need for pluralism in economics is The Handbook of Pluralist Economics Education, a collection of essays edited by Jack Reardon (2009). It too contains detailed suggestions for teachers on how to reform principles, core theory and advanced economics courses. In this way, it provides fundamental critiques as well as concrete suggestions for how economics courses, from economics 101 and macroeconomics to labour and international economics, can be improved. In 2011, INET's UK Curriculum Committee wrote a proposal for undergraduate programmes following these principles: a focus on the economy, rather than on a particular methodology of economics; a pluralist 'one-problem-several-solutions' approach; and a focus on the real world and on preparing students to work outside academia, rather than reproducing the skill-sets needed by academic professors. 32 2011 also saw one of the most extensive publications on economics education with the 850 pages long International Handbook on Teaching and Learning Economics edited by Gail M. Hoyt and KimMarie McGoldrick. The book starts out by describing the history of economics education, different teaching and assessment techniques, and research findings on economics education and student performance. Numerous contributors to the book, furthermore, give reflections and suggestions on existing courses, from health economics and game theory to sport and urban economics. It concludes by discussing institutional and administrative aspects of economics education, such as faculty development, student characteristics, teaching enhancement initiatives, and international differences between educational systems.

6. Global sourcing 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. Procurement in public sector Aforementioned green purchasing, more broadly sustainable procurement is not limited to private sectors but local and central government entities utilise public procurement functions to support environment-friendly social culture (Murray, 2000; Walker and Brammer, 2009). US government sectors alone spend enormous amount procurement for supporting military defence, social services and infrastructure development and constructions (Apgar and Keane, 2004). With their huge budget allocation and purchasing capacity, these governmental procurement policies and processes affect the broad patterns of procurement practices. Thus public procurement policies play a key driver for improving manufacturing and services and promoting a wide range of innovation activities (Lawther and Martin, 2005; Lee, 2008; Walker and Brammer, 2009). With the growing importance of public procurement and its impact on social and economic dimensions, emphasis needs to be put on building a sound partnership between public and private entities (Essig and Batran, 2005; Parker and Hartley, 2003; Zitron, 2006). Raymond (2008) suggested four key principles in public procurement practices as value for money, ethics, competition, transparency, and accountability. 3.6 Procurement in services sector With the growing emphasis on services, service procurement and outsourcing is not a new practice any more. However, despite the increasing importance, little effort has been made therefore more study needs to be done by addressing service specific features (Ellram et al., 2004). Unlike manufacturing procurement where steady intermediary role exists, in a service outsourcing, dynamic relationships and mechanisms exist between entities which eventually make service procurement challenging (Li and Choi, 2009). With the increasing demands of affordable quality care of all populations both in advanced and emerging global economies, the procurement needs in healthcare have increased (Lian and Laing, 2004). Service sector procurement such as consulting and healthcare services is getting more complex and provides heavy task to the purchasing managers (Lian and Laing, 2004; Schiele and McCue, 2006). Especially in public service procurement organisations, service providers should be conscious on satisfying diverse stakeholder groups by maximising efficiency on

their procurement of necessary goods and services (Brege et al., 2010; Nollet and Beaulieu, 2003; Raymond, 2008). In this sense, sets of high level of expertise and procurement knowledge are required for the successful operation of service organisations **(Chandra, 2008; Lawther and Martin, 2005**

8. The primarily problem-solving 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’ **(Reyes p. 208).**

9. The overt apologists The best example of overt apologism in the school improvement area would have to be the work of Michael Barber (Barber 1996b,c) which was discussed in the Let’s be Realistic! review. As that illustrated, Barber’s work both refutes the social limits of reform and uses school improvement arguments in support of managerial and performative policies (see Thrupp 1999: 162–5). However, as noted earlier, Barber left the academy and it is hard to think of anyone in the school improvement area who has subsequently taken such an obviously apologetic stance. One more recent school improvement text which we think, on balance, has to be seen as ‘overtly apologetic’ is How to Improve Your School (Brighouse and Woods 1999) which draws on Birmingham’s much-acclaimed approach to school improvement. Here the analysis is socially decontextualized – despite the introduction mentioning ‘great deprivation’ affecting some schools (p. 2), the ‘rather smoother waters found elsewhere’ (p. 3) and arguing that the book draws its conclusions from ‘this range of contexts’ (p. 3). There is also some critique of policy. This is strongest where there is a discussion of the management model of ‘ensuring compliance’: 1. Decide what is right. 2. Regulate that the single solution will be implemented by everyone. 3. Inspect to ensure that the solution is being followed. 4. Publicly punish deviants and inadequates. We believe there is a danger that such a model will be the unintentional result of some national actions. This is clearly more likely to happen when, as is now the case, we have Secretaries of State who can exercise an enormous number of powers rather than at a time when the Secretary of State had only three powers to affect the system, as was the case some years ago. The danger of course with this model, even without its fourth step, is that should it be accompanied, as it is with

a thorough model of external inspection, the likelihood is that schools will find their lives dominated by a dangerous combination of ‘ensuring compliance’ and ‘problem-solving’. (p. 147) On the other hand, there is too little of this for subtle apologism (and no critical policy literature is cited) whereas the book makes many references to official school improvement policies and documents in an essentially supportive manner. Consider, for instance, the discussion of target-setting which is thoroughly uncritical (despite its mention of ‘critically intervening’): National testing is now established at 7, 11 and 14, which, together with public examinations at 16 and 18 means that a range of performance information is available at school, LEA and national level. Indeed, much of this information is now provided annually to schools through their LEAs and through PANDAs (Performance and Assessment) reports from QCA. It is now a requirement for schools to set targets for improvement based on this data at ages 11 and 16, although targets need not always be strictly related to national assessments and examinations. Schools could critically intervene by self-setting targets to take action at various fixed points to raise educational standards, whether for the school as a whole, certain groups within the school, or for individual pupils. The effective use of targets, especially quantitative targets, helps schools to articulate clearly what is expected of pupil, class or group – or indeed the school as a whole and this is clearly set out in the DfEE’s publication, From Targets to Action (1998). What makes this book overtly apologist rather than just problem-solving, then, is the way it more actively ‘sells’ recent policy, in this case target-setting. Given Brighouse’s reputation as a progressive educationalist, this may be considered surprising, but when he wrote this book Brighouse was Birmingham’s chief education officer while Woods was a senior education advisor for the Department for Education and Employment. Such roles require being mostly ‘on message’ with government policy and the book can be seen to reflect this. **(Brighouse and Woods 2009: 132–3).**

10. The subtle apologists 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’ **(Harris.pp. 15–16)/**
11. Improving School Effectiveness and School Improvement: What’s in it for Schools? therefore exhibit the same tension of promoting the importance of context while presenting a largely decontextualized analysis. One way to interpret this tension is to say that the authors are only paying lip service to context. However, it is also likely that even leading school improvement writers have yet to find ways of breaking out of the generic discourses which have dominated school effectiveness and improvement for so long. The challenge is to bring context into the picture and yet provide an analysis which others see as similar enough to their own situation to be useful. This would require texts aimed at particular kinds of schools rather than those for all schools as is the case with nearly all the texts discussed here. When it comes to the impact of reform on schools, Harris (2002: 114) writes: Many schools currently feel pressurised by the, often competing, demands of new government initiatives and strategies. This initiative overload in schools is, at worst, counter-productive to schools taking charge of their own change and development. It prevents many schools from concentrating on the issues and concerns of most importance in their school, in their particular context. It is unlikely that the constant stream of initiatives will subside in coming years; consequently the real challenge for schools is to harness the energy of external reform and use it for their own ends. The aligning of external change and internal priorities may not always be possible but it offers schools one way of reconciling the competing demands and tensions inherent in the current climate. There are echoes here of Maden’s argument in the 1996 version of Success Against the Odds noted earlier, and the argument is appealing because it suggests that practitioners can mostly have their cake and eat it too. Yet the most likely outcome of embracing post-welfarist reform is values drift towards managerial schooling being accelerated. We also think that if schools’ internal priorities are genuinely educational, there would be very little chance of alignment with external change since it is so problematic, as pointed out in Chapters 2 and 3. This kind of argument is apologist in as much as it encourages those in schools to see their way forward through post-welfarist reform rather than passively or more actively contesting it. As will be clear from the ‘implications for practitioners’ sections of this and other chapters, it is advice about the latter which practitioners need in managerialist times. The New Structure of School Improvement (Joyce et al. 1999) also indicates concern about managerialist politics, making the argument, for instance, that schools need help rather than admonition, and that ‘high stakes’ managerial accountability measures will not work.3 However, Joyce and colleagues seriously underplay the impact of social inequality on schooling and school improvement. Few ‘serious’ school improvement books are as confident as this one that schools can turn around the effects of structural inequality. An upbeat discussion, ‘Unlocking the shackles of demography’, highlights the apparent success of large-scale school improvement programmes such as Success for All but ignores the weight of evidence against school improvement SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT 103 being able to overcome the effects of social disadvantage. It even offers the misleading advice that there are numerous examples of schools where [the socio-

economic, ethnic and gender] characteristics of students do not predict performance. Where the learning environment is working optimally for all students, these variables do not predict attainment or lack thereof . . . If there are large demographic differences in achievement, you know right away that some aspect of the school can be improved.) This is completely overstating the case for school improvement. How many schools are there where students' social backgrounds do not (substantially) predict their achievement? Surely the pervasive impact of structural inequality means that even excellent schools could still have large differences between the achievement of different groups of students? Moreover, even if some teachers and principals can achieve extraordinary levels of achievement with low socio-economic and minority students, how sustainable is this, and how useful is it in policy terms? As Mortimore and Whitty (1997: 6) note: 'we must . . . be aware of the dangers of basing a national strategy for change on the efforts of outstanding individuals working in exceptional circumstances'. By implying that there are technical solutions to social inequality in education, this kind of insufficiently cautious discourse fosters the politics of blame surrounding so-called failing schools in a policy climate dominated by managerialism **(Joyce . 1990: 64).**

12. Gray 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. Hopkins Hopkins has been a prolific writer in the area of school improvement for many years (see, for example, Hopkins 1987, 1996, 2001; Hopkins et al. 1994). The Let's be Realistic! review focused on School Improvement in an Era of Change (Hopkins et al. 1994) and argued that this demonstrated an extremely decontextualized approach to improvement issues and a rather diffident stance to the politics of reform. To begin with, this text employed only generalized models and concepts, which rarely acknowledged any impact of social class or socio-economic status (SES) on school processes. For instance, although Hopkins (Hopkins et al. 1994: 20) argued that the school improvement agenda was about changing the culture of schools, his discussion concentrated on organizational

notions of culture rather than making any mention of social class culture and its impact on schools. Even his discussion of the importance of pupil and parent involvement in schools made no mention of the impact of social class. When ‘context’ was discussed, it was never SES context (or gender or ethnic context for that matter), but other, more general contexts such as the classroom (p. 118) or the ‘size, shape and location’ of schools (p. 151). Meanwhile, Hopkins sometimes discussed the politics of reform but his position was vague. For instance, in Hopkins et al. (1994: 12) he argued: ‘We have no evidence to suggest that accountability and increased competition, as strategies for improving the quality of education for all, actually work’. He also commented that ‘we appear to be living in an Alice in Wonderland world of educational reform where the sole rationale for many policies is the public support for them by a small group of ideologically committed politicians’ (p. 18). On the other hand, he did not cite any of the critics of British education policy and he spoke of working with schools ‘within the framework of the national reform agenda’ (p. 2). Mostly, however, he seemed to prefer to hedge his bets as to the outcomes of reform. We were told, ‘Whatever one thinks of our national reforms . . . The jury is still out’, and ‘Whatever one’s position . . . there are lessons to be learned’ (pp. 5–6). By 1998, however, Hopkins was indicating a growing concern with the social and political context of schooling. He noted ‘a failure to embed school improvement initiatives within a contextual and diagnostic analysis’, and went on to indicate the importance of SES and market contexts, among others (Hopkins 1998: 1048). On the other hand, he seemed to hold the view that school improvement could hold out in the face of neo-liberal ideologies and reform programmes. In 1996 he argued: schools which are developing [as a result of school improvement] are those which are able to ‘survive with integrity’ in times of change . . . In other words the schools that are developing continue to keep abreast with innovation within the context of a pervasive political reform agenda, whilst remaining true to the educational futures they desire for their students. (Hopkins 1996: 32–3) Yet, as Hatcher (1998b) points out, the research evidence on the impact of reform simply does not bear out this claim, rather he suggests that ‘it is not so much that “school improvement” has enabled schools to resist the Conservative offensive, rather that “school improvement” itself has tended to accommodate to it’ (Hatcher 1998b: 270). In view of the above we wondered whether Hopkins’ most definitive book School Improvement for Real (Hopkins 2001) would demonstrate a shift towards a more socially and politically critical stance. The answer is not straightforward. It is certainly a much broader and more contextualized book than the kind Hopkins used to write. Nevertheless, from a critical perspective it contains numerous contradictions, tensions and silences. A key problem stems from Hopkins’ view of policy. This book says much more about policy than his previous ones (which is good), but it is clear that, following Milbrey McLaughlin, Hopkins primarily sees national policy in managerialist times as ineffectual rather than damaging: ‘policy cannot mandate what matters’ (McLaughlin 1990: 12, cited in Hopkins 2001: 5). This is variously because reform is not proximal enough to the classroom, because there is not enough attention to the way school organization supports learning and because most reforms do not adopt a systemic perspective which has depth as well as width (p. 5). Hopkins therefore stresses

the need for school improvement to ‘drive down to the “learning level” ’, in other words to concentrate on teaching and learning in schools rather than assuming that changes at other levels will bring changes in the classroom. He is also keen to differentiate his approach of ‘real’ or ‘authentic’ improvement which supports teaching and learning from what he describes as the ‘quick fix and short term responses which characterise many current school improvement efforts’ (p. xi). He says that ‘Governments whose policies emphasise accountability and managerial change fail to realise that if teachers knew how to teach more effectively they would themselves have done so decades ago’ (p. 1). This is important but only goes part of the way because what is not here is a recognition that policy may often reach its goal but in a negative sense, that is be damaging rather than just ineffectual. (Examples of the damaging nature of post-welfarist educational reform were discussed in Chapter 3, for instance the way Ofsted inspections and target-setting lead to fabrication, teaching to the test and loss of creativity or the negative impact of the market on children’s self-concepts.) This helps to explain why Hopkins can appear critical of reform on the one hand but is able to lead the DfES’s school improvement programme on the other. It is because fundamentally he agrees with the direction of New Labour’s reforms4 but just does not think they will work without the more proximal and sophisticated approach to school reform taken by school improvement. Indeed, his framework for school improvement actually builds in Ofsted, Local Management of Schools (LMS), the National Literacy strategy and the National Curriculum on the assumption that these could be a force for good, that is that the ‘national reform agenda’ could pull in the same direction and be reciprocal with other elements of authentic school improvement and this would allow it more chance of success (see pp. 68–9). This perception of policy is developed in Hopkins’ final chapter, ‘The policy context for school improvement’. This begins with a critique of ‘performance based’ approaches to large-scale reform as being ineffective because they do not focus on teaching, learning and capacity-building at the school level. However, there is no discussion of such policies being inequitable as well. The chapter continues with lessons for policy from the research on authentic school improvement, discussion of local infrastructures and networks, a policy framework for authentic school improvement and ways that governments can move this agenda forward .

14. Some recommendations for practitioners 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. School development planning and strategic human resource management 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. School development planning: textual apologism and contradiction We want to make clear at the outset that we are not against planning per se. Yet planning should be an educational aid rather than a managerial tool of (external) accountability. In other words, the implementation and evaluation of any plan(s) should take into account contextual features such as 'school mix' (Thrupp 1999), prior funding arrangements (that may not be the responsibility of the school), and teachers' skills and experiences. The problem arises immediately when one places planning in an outcomes-based managerialist framework. In his critique of the aims-and-objectives approach in education, Bottery argues that if aims and objectives are interpreted too rigidly (or, we would add, plans executed too rigidly), necessarily they exclude the interests, experiences and understanding of those being taught. They prevent the true educational experience from taking place, and ultimately must alienate those taught, for it becomes very clear very quickly that theirs is a voice which will not be heard . . . A too-rigid adherence to the notion of aims and objectives is only a modern instance of the kind of bad teaching that has been going on in some schools and some classrooms for an awfully long time: only now it seems to be given official blessing. (Bottery 1992: 27–8) Logan et al. (1994), while noting the potential of SDPing for 'organisational learning', nevertheless suggest that it denies the moral aspects of management: 'The central dilemma raised in SDP revolves around the issue of whose interests is the school now serving – the state, system, teachers, community or pupils?' (cited in Ball 1997c: 329). It is precisely the lack of direct engagement with such dilemmas that results in contradictory discussion of the utility of planning in some of 'more apologetic' literature. Smith's (2001) research, for example, indicates that teachers have responded to the government training agenda by emphasizing those short-term examinable

characteristics that can be most easily evidenced and assessed. In turn, this may not engage pupils or facilitate professional engagement. quotes a headteacher, who said he had asked a job applicant how he knew he had taught a good lesson and received the answer ‘because I planned it’. The headteacher considered this underscored the unfortunate reality that ‘some breadth may have been lost in the training process’. Just as the educational value of planning is recognized, equally we accept the potential of target-setting. At the same time, however, we have found that even relatively critical texts on school development planning and strategy are not as explicit as they should be in terms of providing the cigarette manufacturer’s equivalent of an educational health warning. In other words, as Fielding (2001: 145) argues, the broader, more profound point is that there are real dangers that distorting the importance of clarity within a strongly instrumental process like target setting runs the risk of severely weakening its essential links with the larger undertaking which it is designed to serve. Target setting is a means to a wider educational end, not an end in itself. Crucially, then, as he notes, while the pragmatic virtues of target-setting may include an apparent capacity to raise test scores, we need to ask questions about how those tests scores are raised (for example through an increasing incidence of ‘teaching to the test’, greater competition and substantial individual and group pressure), and whose test scores are raised. In turn, this raises concern about the moral integrity of the application of target-setting under conditions of external pressure. Thus, we are against the managerialist usurpation of target-setting that promotes efficiency over ethics and the concomitant virtual abandonment of real educational experiences for children and students. **(Smith (2001: 323).**

17. SDPing’s overt apologists For Leask and Terrell: 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. **(Leask and Terrell 1997: 7)/**

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**’ (Skelton et al. 1991: 101).**

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**. (Hargreaves and Hopkins 2004).**

21. (Strategic) human resource management**.** 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' **(Tomlinson 1992: 2).**

22. HRM's overt apologists 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. **(Hall 1997: 140).**

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**(Knight 2007: 23).**

24.Strategic intent. 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. **(Davies and Ellison 1999: 35).**

25. Key research dimensions for effective procurement 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	0

пройденной тематике с допущением большого числа лексических и грамматических ошибок	

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