

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ, МОЛОДІ ТА СПОРТУ УКРАЇНИ
ХАРКІВСЬКА НАЦІОНАЛЬНА АКАДЕМІЯ МІСЬКОГО ГОСПОДАРСТВА

**ЗБІРНИК ТЕКСТІВ І ЗАВДАНЬ
З ДИСЦИПЛІНИ**

**«ІНОЗЕМНА МОВА»
(англійська мова)**

*(до самостійної роботи студентів 2 курсу заочної форми навчання
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Збірник текстів і завдань з дисципліни «Іноземна мова» (англійська мова) (до самостійної роботи студентів 2 курсу заочної форми навчання напрямів підготовки 6.030504 «Економіка підприємств» та 6.030509 «Облік і аудит») / Харк. нац. акад. міськ. госп-ва; уклад.: Н. Д. Міщенко. – Х: ХНАМГ, 2011. – 67 с.

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Збірник текстів і завдань рекомендується для організації самостійної роботи студентів 2 курсу економічних спеціальностей заочної форми навчання. Головною метою збірника є формування навиків читання і розуміння інформації з англійських джерел, що відповідає вимогам професійно-орієнтованого навчання іноземній мові. Зміст завдань відповідає вимогам програми учбової дисципліни «Іноземна мова», тематика текстів сприяє поширенню обсягу сучасної англійської науково-технічної лексики. Запропонована інформація є необхідною для ефективного виконання професійних обов'язків майбутніх спеціалістів.

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INTRODUCTION

These educational materials are designed for the ESP students of the 2nd year of studies of the specialities “Accounting and Auditing” and “Economy of Enterprises” to develop their knowledge and skills in English according to their profession. The collected texts are intended for self-study of post-correspondence students.

This manual is based on the authentic texts concerning economic problems from different sources. It contains key vocabulary, texts for reading and translation, tasks on reading comprehension, vocabulary tasks. The manual consists of 12 texts and is expected to be used for self-study.

Each unit contains:

- key vocabulary;
- an authentic text for reading and translation;
- comprehension exercises;
- exercises for memorization and mastering key vocabulary.

TEXT 1. THE INTERNATIONAL MONETARY FUND

Vocabulary

monetary – валютный, денежный

fund – фонд

national income – национальный доход

holder – держатель, владелец

article of agreement – статья соглашения

convertibility – обратимость, свободный обмен валюты

exchange rate – валютный курс

balance of payment adjustment – регулирование платежного баланса

flexible; flexibility – гибкий; гибкость

surplus – активное сальдо (торгового или платежного баланса), активный торговый/платежный баланс

reserve asset – резервные активы

special drawing rights (SDRs) – специальные права заимствования (из международного валютного фонда)

special drawing account – отдельный текущий счет

share – часть, доля, акция

collaboration – сотрудничество

equilibrium price – равновесная цена

intervene – вмешиваться, посредничать

artificially – искусственно

loan – ссуда, заем

rate of interest – процентная ставка

repayment – возврат денег, возмещение, погашение

membership – членство

annual – ежегодный

assess – определять, устанавливать размер, сумму штрафа/налога, облагать налогом, штрафовать, оценивать имущество для обложения налогом

The IMF was set up in 1944, with 44 member countries. Its full title is the International Monetary Fund. It comprises 180 member states at the present time. From the beginning it was located in Washington, USA.

The quota system

The basis of IMF power and influence is its financial resources, currently worth around \$270 billion. These resources come from the subscriptions of member countries. Each member's subscription or quota is determined on the basis of its national income. Rich countries have a higher subscription than poor countries.

On joining the IMF a country pays 25 per cent of its subscription in the form of widely accepted foreign currencies: the euro, dollar, yen or pound sterling. The remainder of the quota is paid in the country's own currency. Quotas are reviewed every five years.

Since its inception, the IMF has been a large holder of gold reserves because many quotas were paid initially in gold. Today the IMF is one of the world's most important holders of gold reserves.

Objectives of the IMF

The IMF is governed by articles of agreement which provide the legal framework for the international monetary system. When it was set up the international monetary system covered five areas:

- *Convertibility.* The IMF determined the circumstances in which countries made their national currencies convertible with other currencies.
- *The exchange rate regime.* The IMF decided on the ways in which currency values were to be corrected, and the choice to be made between fixed and flexible exchange rates.
- *Balance of payments adjustment.* The IMF resolved how balance of payments surpluses and deficits were to be accommodated between countries.
- *Reserve assets.* The IMF held reserves from which debtor countries could borrow in limited quantities. Initially the reserve assets of the IMF were gold, sterling and the dollar. In 1970 the first special drawing rights (SDRs) were allocated to members.

Essentially the IMF created a special drawing account for each member. Members could draw SDRs proportional to their share in Fund quotas, when they were in difficulties. SDRs were, therefore, to be counted as reserve assets. The currencies of the major industrial countries went to make up the SDR.

- *International management.* The IMF provided machinery for consultation and collaboration on international monetary problems.

By 1973 all major currencies were floating, and by 1978 a system of managed flexibility had emerged. Essentially, the central banks of individual nations had taken over the responsibility for the first three of the above objectives: convertibility, the exchange rate regime and balance of payments adjustment.

In the system which emerged by 1978, the forces of supply and demand interacted on the foreign exchange market to produce an equilibrium price (exchange rate) and quantity of every traded currency. But it was a managed system, in which national central banks intervened, buying and selling currencies to influence the exchange rate within target bands.

The IMF still had a role to play in relation to convertibility, exchange rates and balance of payments adjustment, but it was a *much reduced role*. It was given the responsibility of ensuring that:

- individual countries or groups of countries did not engage in *destabilising speculation* over exchange rates;
- individual countries or groups of countries did not attempt to *influence artificially* the value of exchange rates in order to gain a trading advantage.

This still left the IMF with two of the roles which had been assigned to it in 1944, i.e. holding reserve assets which debtor countries could borrow, and a management role in providing the machinery for collaboration and consultation on international and monetary issues.

Lending reserve assets

The IMF is able to make loans to debtor countries that are experiencing balance of payments problems. Loans take the form of the currencies supplied by financially strong countries (euro, dollar, sterling) plus SDRs. If necessary the IMF can

supplement its own resources by borrowing from financially strong member countries.

IMF loans are provided under an 'arrangement'. This sets out the conditions of the loan: that is, its 'conditionality'. Usually a country has to agree to carry out specific economic programmes and broader reforms in order to qualify for assistance.

The IMF has different types of loans, or 'facilities', to meet the specific needs of members. Some have very low, i.e. 'concessionary', rates of interest. There are also different repayment periods.

The IMF will also provide emergency assistance to countries which are coming out of war or civil disturbance, or who have experienced a natural disaster.

International management

The IMF supports consultation and collaboration among its member countries. Countries meet together in '*groups*'. The two major groups, in terms of influence over policy, are the G-7 and the G-20.

Group of seven (G-7)

Canada

France

Germany

Italy

Japan

United Kingdom

United States

The G-7 major industrial countries have held annual economic summits (meetings at the level of head of state or government) since 1975. Since 1987, the G-7 Finance Ministers and central bank governors have met at least semi-annually to monitor developments in the world economy and assess economic policies. The managing director of the IMF participates in the discussions.

Group of Twenty (G-20)

Argentina, Japan,

Australia, Korea,

Brazil, Mexico,
Canada, Russia,
China, Saudi Arabia,
France, South Africa,
Germany, Turkey,
India, United Kingdom,
Indonesia, United States,
Italy, European Union euro area

The G-20 was formally established at the G-7 Finance Ministers' meeting on 26 September 1999. The inaugural meeting took place on 15–16 December 1999 in Berlin. The G-20 was formed as a new forum for co-operation on matters pertaining to the international finance system. It promotes discussion among key industrial and emerging market countries.

The membership of the G-20 comprises the Finance Ministers and central bank governors of the G-7 countries, plus the central bank governors of 12 other key countries, the president of the European Union (if not a G-7 member), the president of the European Central Bank, the managing director of the IMF, and the president of the World Bank.

Answer the questions.

1. Where is the headquarters of the International Monetary Fund?
2. What were the areas of the international monetary system when it was established?
3. What is the percentage a country's own currency on joining the IMF?
4. What are the major roles of the IMF?
5. When was the G-20 formally established?

Decide whether the following sentences are true (T) or false (F).

1. The IMF as originally constituted was responsible for convertibility, exchange rates, balance of payments adjustment, and reserve assets payments adjustment.

2. The IMF held reserves from which debtor countries could borrow in limited quantities.
3. The conditions of providing IMF loans are the same for all countries.
4. Financial resources of the IMF is the basis of its power and influence.
5. The IMF also provides emergency assistance to countries which are coming out of war or civil disturbance, or who have experienced a natural disaster.
6. The G-7 comprises key countries in the developing world. The G-20 includes the leading industrial countries.

Fill in the gaps with the words given below. Translate the sentences.

loans **collaboration** **interest rates** **shares**
holders **was assessed** **repayments** **intervene** **fund**

1. IMF consultation and _____ is mainly through two major groups, the G-7 and the G-20.
2. _____ of the share certificate should be required to register their interest.
3. They were able to sell their _____ at a higher price.
4. The remaining money was put into a trust _____ with charitable status.
5. Once we make the adjustments for inflation, the fall in _____ is quite small.
6. The police don't usually like to _____ in disputes between husbands and wives.
7. Do you worry about meeting (=paying) your loan _____?
8. The organization was allowed to make _____ to private businesses.
9. The value of the business _____ at £1.25 million.

TEXT 2. THE WORLD BANK

Vocabulary

insure – обеспечивать, гарантировать

objective – задача, цель

emergency – крайняя необходимость, критическое положение

assist; assistance – помогать; помощь

grant – предоставлять, дарить, жаловать

borrow – занимать, брать займы

lend, lender – давать займы; кредитор

needy country – нуждающаяся страна

creditworthy – кредитоспособный

concessionary rate – льготные расценки, льготный тариф

long-term lending – долгосрочный заем

tide over – продержаться, пережить временные финансовые трудности

fail – потерпеть неудачу

comply – исполнять; подчиняться (with); уступать, соглашаться

make decision – принимать решение

rate of return – ставка доходности, норма прибыли

bilateral aid donor – двусторонний донатор

concessionary finance – льготное финансирование

equity – право; акция без фиксированного дивиденда; собственный капитал;
собственные средства; чистая доля в средствах; ценные бумаги

in the long run – со временем, в конце концов

leverage – система рычагов (государственного регулирования)

devalue – обесценивать (валюту), проводить девальвацию

The World Bank was established in 1944; its full name is the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. It is made up of three organisations:

- the *International Finance Corporation* which is a private sector bank;
- the *International Development Agency* (IDA) which provides loans to developing

and transition economies at concessionary rates;

- the *Investment Guarantee Agency*, which insures investors against risk.

Objectives of the World Bank

The objectives of the World Bank have changed substantially since its founding. The US proposed an International Bank in 1943, to finance post-war reconstruction in continental Europe. The idea was taken up by Keynes with great enthusiasm. One of the first applicants for emergency assistance to the new institution was Britain herself, much to the disgust of the US administration which argued that the Bank was 'not intended to deal with special needs of that sort!' In the end it was Marshall Aid from the US which financed European reconstruction, and the World Bank turned instead, though slowly at first, to granting loans to developing countries, many of which were moving from colonial status to independence.

The World Bank borrows on world markets and lends to needy countries for development purposes. Because the World Bank is heavily creditworthy, it can borrow at relatively low rates of interest. Very poor countries can then borrow from it at concessionary rates. The less poor pay a rate of interest which is marginally above the rate at which the World Bank can borrow.

In theory, the World Bank is the institution which provides long-term development finance for developing and transition economies at relatively low rates of interest, whereas the IMF is the institution which provides developing countries and transition countries with short-term finance to tide over balance of payments problems. In practice, the distinction between the two types of lending is now very blurred. This is because the World Bank has tended to move away from providing finance for specific projects, e.g. a school or a hospital, and towards programme aid which assists developing and transition economies with broad economic and structural change. This type of finance is referred to as structural adjustment lending, and it is conditional on certain policies being followed.

During the 1990s it became increasingly apparent that there were problems with the conditions imposed by the World Bank on its long-term lending.

- Many countries *failed to comply* with the conditions. Some countries which did not comply with the conditions even managed to get a second loan from the World Bank.
- When countries did comply with the conditions, this often had the effect of depressing incomes and investment, resulting in a *negative effect on long-term growth*.
- Loans in foreign currency often enabled countries to *postpone making difficult decisions*. Such loans kept in power unpopular and corrupt governments. Foreign exchange also enabled money to be spent on luxury imported consumer goods.
- When *rates of return* are compared, policy-based programme lending has frequently *performed worse* than old-fashioned project lending which has tended to be favoured by bilateral aid donors.

The debt problem

The World Bank has another problem, which it shares with the IMF. Huge proportions of GDP and the export earnings of developing and transition economies go to service debt. Much of this debt comprises interest payments on past borrowings from official and private sources.

Most of the debt of African and other low-income countries is owed to the official multilateral and bilateral agencies which have provided them with concessionary finance. By contrast the typical middle-income debtor country owes more than half its debt to the commercial banks and other private lenders. Because of higher interest rates, the debt service ratios of middle-income countries can be substantially greater than those of low income debtors.

Debt relief initiatives can take the following forms:

- *Debt reduction* is any response which *reduces the debt* owed by a country. Debt reduction does not mean simply exchanging one form of debt for another. For example, when official debt is swapped for equity, dividends are paid to private creditors rather than interest being owed to official lenders. But this does not necessarily reduce the debt. In the long run it could actually increase it.
- *Debt relief* is any measure which *reduces the present value of payments due*. In the long run, however, this may actually increase the debt and benefit the creditor. For

example, rescheduling a debt will reduce payments in the short run. But unless a country can increase its capacity to service the debt in the long run, the debt burden over time can increase.

- *Debt forgiveness.* Public pressure has obliged the World Bank and IMF to forgive, i.e. completely wipe out, the debts of some of the poorest countries in the world economy.

Debt relief, reduction or forgiveness can mean increased leverage for the World Bank and the IMF. IMF/World Bank approved policies have to be followed.

Sometimes these policies have unintended consequences. The IMF often insists on the currency being devalued as part of a stabilisation package. This raises the debt burden because debt is repayable in foreign currency. So, for example, devaluation in Moldova in 2002 increased its debt burden to an equivalent of 75 per cent of government revenue. In a country with already desperately low spending on health and education, this can be little short of a disaster.

Answer the questions

1. What organizations is the World Bank made up?
2. What was the aim of the establishment of the World Bank in 1943?
3. What are the problems with the conditions imposed by the World Bank on its long-term lending.
4. What are the forms of debt relief initiatives?

Decide whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F). If they are false, correct them.

1. The World Bank provides long-term development finance for developing and transition economies.
2. Today the objectives of the World Bank are the same as they were when it was founded.
3. The World Bank is under pressure to take the lead in debt relief initiatives in poor and middle-income countries.

4. One of the problems with long-term lending is connected with the situation that huge proportions of GDP and the export earnings of developing and transition economies go to service debt.

Fill in the gaps with the words given below. Translate the sentences.

devaluing ***make a decision*** ***lenders*** ***comply***
transition economies ***assistance*** ***equity*** ***leverage***

1. A system of credit history provides _____ with a cheap and efficient means of collecting and using information about borrowers.
2. Indeed, some now view Sarkozy as a traditional Gaullist who wants to help French producers by artificially _____ the euro.
3. The Company has no right to _____ of dividends payment including dividends by results of the first three, six and nine months of a financial year on its shares.
4. The United Nations system should also take into account the specific needs of countries with _____ in these areas.
5. Miss Halcombe promised to _____ with his request.
6. They appealed to the international community to provide humanitarian, economic and reconstruction _____ to the people of Somalia with the goal of advancing the peace process.
7. Traditional financial analysis includes the measure of a company's profitability, financial _____, and liquidity.
8. One can only hope that our children's generation will grow up to live in a world that does a better job of balancing efficiency and _____ than we do.

TEXT 3. FREE TRADE, TRADE WARS AND THE WORLD TRADE ORGANIZATION.

Vocabulary

assume – предполагать, принимать

measure - мера

tariff – тариф, пошлина

multilateral – многосторонний

headquarters – главный офис, штаб-квартира

major – главный

trade barrier – торговый барьер

competition – конкуренция

grant – предоставлять

flexibility – гибкость

applicant – претендент

issue – проблема, вопрос

negotiation – переговоры

Free trade is a theoretical concept that assumes international trade unhampered by government measures such as tariff and non-tariff barriers. The objective of trade liberalization is to achieve 'freer trade' rather than 'free trade'.

The **World Trade Organization (WTO)** is an international, multilateral organization, which sets the rules for the global trading system and resolves disputes between its member states.

The WTO headquarters are located in Geneva, Switzerland. Pascal Lamy is the current Director-General. By December 15, 2005, there were 149 members in the organization with the latest to join being Saudi Arabia. All WTO members are required to grant one another most favoured nation status.

Since its inception in 1995, the WTO has been a major target for protests by the anti-globalization movement.

The WTO aims to ensure that global trade flows as smoothly and freely as possible. One of its functions is to settle trade disputes. Member countries agree to reduce the trade barriers between them in a series of trade negotiations, known as 'rounds'.

Principles of the trading system

The WTO discussions should follow these fundamental principles of trading.

1. A trading system should be free of discrimination in the sense that one country cannot privilege a particular trading partner above others within the system, nor can it discriminate against foreign products and services.
2. A trading system should tend toward more freedom, that is, toward fewer trade barriers (tariffs and non-tariff barriers).
3. A trading system should be predictable, with foreign companies and governments reassured that trade barriers will not be raised arbitrarily and that markets will remain open.
4. A trading system should tend toward greater competition.
5. A trading system should be more accommodating for less developed countries, giving them more time to adjust, greater flexibility, and more privileges.

Membership in the WTO

The WTO has 150 members (76 members at its foundation and a further 74 members joined over the following ten years). The 27 states of the European Union are represented also as the European Communities.

The process of becoming a WTO member is unique to each applicant country, and the terms of accession are dependent upon the country's stage of economic development and current trade regime. The process takes about five years, on average, but it can last more if the country is less than fully committed to the process or if political issues interfere. As is typical of WTO procedures, an offer of accession is only given once consensus is reached among interested parties.

The shortest accession negotiation was that of the Kyrgyz Republic, lasting 2 years and 10 months. The longest was that of China, lasting 15 years and 5 months.

Russia, having first applied to join GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade) in 1993, is still in negotiations for membership.

A number of non-members have been observers (31) at the WTO and are currently negotiating their membership. Among them Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Belarus, Bhutan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Ethiopia, Iran, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Russian Federation, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan.

Trade war

A **trade war** refers to two or more nations raising or creating tariffs or other trade barriers on each other in retaliation for other trade barriers. It is the opposite of free trade.

Economists generally believe trade wars are very non-productive and decrease the economic welfare and total social surplus of all nations involved. However, political scientists may see the *threat* of a trade war as helpful in winning a concession of some sort from the other side.

Some economists would agree that some economic protections are more costly than others because they may be more likely to trigger a trade war. For example, if a country were to raise tariffs, then a second country in retaliation would similarly raise tariffs. But increasing, for example, subsidies, is difficult to retaliate against by a foreign country. Many poor countries, for example, do not have the ability to raise subsidies. In addition, poor countries are more vulnerable than rich countries in trade wars; in raising protections against dumping of cheap products, it risks making the product too expensive for its people to afford.

Answer the questions to the text:

1. What is the WTO?
2. When and where was it founded?
3. What is the aim of the WTO?
4. What are the fundamental principles of trading according to the WTO aims?
5. What is a trade war?

Decide whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F). If they are false, correct them.

1. Trade liberalization means 'freer trade'.
2. The WTO creates trade barriers between member and non-member countries.
3. Markets of WTO member countries should remain open.
4. The requirements and the process of becoming a WTO member are similar to each applicant country.
5. On average the process of becoming a WTO member lasts five years.
6. Both rich and poor countries are equally vulnerable in trade wars.

Translate sentences from English into Ukrainian or Russian.

1. The London headquarters now moved to stylish new premises at 143, Charring Cross Road.
2. Any border changes will come about only by negotiation.
3. Since I left university I've sent off nearly fifty job applications.
4. Eventually all the parties signed the agreement.
5. Greece first applied for membership of the EU in 1975.
6. Cities now have flexibility in deciding how to spend federal transportation money.
7. One of the most serious of the negative factors activated by WTO membership is that some Ukrainian producers may find themselves unprepared for the tough international competition.
8. The key question in the context of joining the WTO is: how to maximize the potential advantages of being part of the multilateral trade system, and how to minimize any possible negative consequences of entering it?

TEXT 4. NATIONAL-INCOME ACCOUNTING

Vocabulary

national-income accounting – исчисление национального дохода

gross national product (GNP) – валовый национальный продукт (ВНП)

GNP per capita – валовый национальный продукт в расчете на душу населения

intermediate goods – промежуточные продукты

nominal GNP – номинальный валовый национальный продукт

real GNP – реальный валовый национальный продукт

production possibilities – возможности производства

depreciation – амортизация

net national product (NNP) – чистый национальный продукт

gross investment – валовые капиталовложения

net investment – чистые инвестиции

National-income accounting is the measurement of aggregate economic activity, particularly national income and its components. The measurement of aggregate economic activity by national-income accounting serves two basic functions. First, it enables us to identify economic problems. The second function of national-income accounting is to provide an objective basis for evaluating policy,

National-income accounts help us not only to measure the economy but also to understand how it functions.

Gross national product (GNP) is the total market value of all final goods and services produced in a given time period.

GNP per capita is total population: average GNP. GNP per capita relates the total value of annual output to the number of people who share that output; it refers to the average GNP per person.

Even when we focus on domestic market activity we encounter problems in calculating GNP. A very basic problem arises from the fact the production of output typically involves a series of distinct stages. Consider the production of bread, for

example. For bread to reach the supermarket, the farmer must grow some wheat, the miller must convert it to flour, and the baker must make bread with it.

We must focus on the value of final goods and services and exclude intermediate goods from our calculation. Intermediate goods are goods or services purchased for use as input in the production of final goods or services.

Nominal GNP is the value of final output produced in a given period, measured in the prices of that period (current prices).

To distinguish increases in the quantity of goods and services from increases in their prices, we must construct a measure of GNP that takes into account price level changes. We do so by distinguishing between real GNP and nominal GNP. Nominal GNP is the value of final output measured in that year's prices, whereas calculating real GNP, we value goods and services at constant prices.

Inflation is an increase in the average level of prices of goods and services.

Production possibilities are the alternative combinations of final goods and services that could be produced in a given time period with all available resources and technology.

Depreciation is the consumption of capital in the production process; the wearing out of plant and equipment. This calculation leaves us with yet another measure of output: net national product (NNP). This is the amount of output we could consume without reducing our stock of capital.

The distinction between GNP and NNP is thus mirrored in a distinction between gross investment and net investment. Gross investment is positive as long as some new plants and equipment are being produced. But our stock of capital — our total collection of plant and equipment — will not grow unless gross investment exceeds depreciation. That is, the flow of new capital must exceed depreciation, or our stock of capital will decline. Whenever gross investment exceeds depreciation, net investment is positive.

Exports are goods and services sold to foreign buyers. Imports are goods and services purchased from foreign countries.

International trade is not a one-way street. While we export some of our own output, we also import goods and services from other countries. Whatever their use, imports represent purchases of goods and services that were not produced in their country. The GNP accounts subtract imports from exports. The difference represents net exports.

Answer the questions.

1. What are the two basic functions of national-income accounting?
2. How can we determine last year's GNP?
3. What is GNP per capita used for?
4. What is the easiest way to calculate GNP?
5. What is the difference between nominal GNP and real GNP?
6. What is inflation?
7. What do our production possibilities depend on?
8. Where is the distinction between GNP and NNP mirrored?
9. What represents net exports?

Fill in the gaps with the words given below. Translate the sentences.

GNP per capita nominal GNP national-income accounting imports
intermediate goods inflation depreciation encounter problems

1. _____ is the measurement of aggregate economic activity, particularly national income and its components,
2. _____ is total population: average GNP.
3. When we focus on domestic market activity we _____ in calculating GNP.
4. _____ are goods or services purchased for use as input in the production of final goods or services.
5. _____ is the value of final output produced in a given period, measured in the prices of that period.

6. _____ is an increase in the average level of prices of goods and services,
7. _____ is the consumption of capital in the production process.
8. _____ are goods and services purchased from foreign countries.

Translate sentences from English into Ukrainian or Russian.

1. Gross national product will have been calculated by the end of the month.
2. By subtracting out inflation, we can obtain a series of real prices and attempt to model that motion.
3. Almost any rise in the price of oil is accompanied by a depreciation of the dollar because the United States is the principal energy consumer and a major net importer of energy resources.
4. National Income, or NNP, represents usually between 88 per cent and 95 per cent of GNP.
5. Imagine what would happen to our calculations of GNP if all prices were to double from one year to the next.
6. Production possibilities depend on the amount of land, labour, capital and our knowledge of how to use new technology.
7. National-income accounting helps us both to estimate the economy and to understand how it functions.
8. To account real GNP it is necessary to measure the value of output in constant prices.

TEXT 5 FINANCE. SOURCES OF CREDIT AND SAVINGS AND INVESTMENTS

Vocabulary

rate of return – норма прибыли

interest – процент

loan – заем

retained profit – нераспределенная прибыль

repayment – возмещение, возврат денег

raise finance/capital – привлекать финансирование / капитал

mortgage – заклад, ипотека

hire purchase – покупка или продажа в рассрочку

saddle – обременять (налогами)

plough back – превращать в капитал, капитализировать

secured loan – ссуда, кредит под обеспечение

venture capital – рисковый капитал; капитал, вложенный в новое предприятие, связанное с риском

merchant bank – коммерческий банк

share capital – акционерный капитал

qualify for – получать право

expenditure – затрата, расходы

lease – аренда; сдавать / брать внаем

instal(l)ment – очередной взнос (платеж)

trade credit – торговый кредит

Finance – money – is a scarce resource. To obtain it, a business has to compete for it. Individuals, the government and other businesses all seek money to finance their needs. Those with money to lend will lend it provided the rate of return (interest), the risk and flexibility (how quickly the money can be repossessed) are consistent with their expectations.

The word 'lend' often implies short-term; the word 'invest' implies long-term. Individuals or organisations that lend money, expect to get their money back, with a fixed annual return in a comparatively short time. Those who invest in a company become part-owners - share holders. They expect regular payment of cash dividends (whose size varies with the company's success) plus an increase in the value of their shares.

A major source of finance for many businesses is the retained profit from sales to customers. A business just starting up or one expanding rapidly has to raise its finance from other sources.

When sourcing finance, management should consider the following questions:

duration: for how long is the finance required?

cost: which source of finance is the least expensive?

repayment: what level is acceptable?

Duration

Duration depends on the reason the money is needed. No one would take out a 25 year mortgage to finance the purchase of a personal HiFi. Few people would buy a house with a bank overdraft. Businesses apply the same principles of matching the purpose of finance with the source of finance. This makes sense all round. For the business it ensures that finance is guaranteed as long as it is needed. For the investor it ensures that adequate security is available for the duration of the loan - as in the case of a 20 year loan secured against a property that will continue to have value for all the 20 years.

Cost

In general, businesses look for the cheapest source of finance. The easiest way to compare the cost of finance is to express the annual payment to lenders/investors as a percentage of the amount of finance provided.

Interest on a loan can be expressed in percentage terms. So can the rate of return to shareholders.

Return on investment in shares = Dividend per share

The rate of return expected by shareholders becomes the cost to the business of using this form of finance.

Repayment

A business should not get into a position where all of its profits are being swallowed up in interest payments. There is a real danger of borrowing too much. The same applies to individuals.

Sources of financing

Businesses need finance for their day-to-day activities and in order to grow and change over time. Businesses must respond to their external environment in which the actions of their competitors, customers, suppliers and other parties influence the decisions they make.

Business finance comes from a range of sources:

Internal finance comes from owners - shareholders in the case of private and public companies (owners' capital and retained profits).

External finance is provided by banks, and other institutional lenders, as well as creditors (overdraft, leasing, hire purchase, loans, and mortgages).

A quicker way of growing therefore is to raise finance from external sources, typically loans. However, the danger of borrowing too much externally is that there are associated interest payments. At present the business is saddled with these interest payments which can reduce future profit making potential.

Finance for internal (organic) expansion typically comes from selling new shares or ploughing back profits. Finance for external expansion will often come from borrowing.

Sources and uses of finance

There are a number of ways of raising finance for a business. The type of finance chosen depends on the nature of the business. Large organisations are able to use a wider variety of finance sources than smaller ones. Savings are an obvious way of putting money into a business. A small business can also borrow from families and friends. In contrast, companies raise finance by issuing shares. Large companies often have thousands of different shareholders.

<i>Sources of finance</i>	<i>Uses of finance</i>
Shareholders	Finance to set up and expand a business
Bank	Loans to finance capital projects. Overdrafts to manage cash flow
Creditors	Short term credit until goods have been sold

To gain extra finance a business can take out a loan from a bank or other financial institution. A loan is a sum of money lent for a given period of time. Repayment is made with interest. The lender of money needs to know all the business opportunities and risks involved and will therefore want to see a detailed business plan. The lender may also want some form of security should the business run into financial difficulty, and may therefore prefer to provide a secured loan.

Another way of raising short-term finance is through an overdraft facility with a bank. The borrower is given permission to take out more from their account than they have put in. The bank fixes a maximum limit for the overdraft. Interest is charged on the overdraft daily.

A further way of raising funds that has become popular is through venture capital. Larger businesses with cash to spare have been putting funds into small- and medium-sized enterprises. Merchant banks and investment specialists may be willing to provide finance for a promising and fast-growing smaller business. This usually involves a package that is a mix of share and loan capital.

Businesses may also qualify for grants. Government (or EU) assistance and funding is sometimes made available to businesses that meet certain conditions. For example, grants and loans may be available to firms setting up in rural areas or where there is high unemployment.

A small business can also attract extra finance by taking on a partner or by selling shares. The problem caused by bringing in extra people is that profits have to be shared.

Once a business is up and running there are various ways of financing its expenditures. Expensive items of equipment can be leased. Rather than buying the equipment the business hires it from a leasing company. This saves having to lay out

sums of money and the business does not have to worry about having to carry out major repairs itself. Motor vehicles, machines and office equipment are often leased. Hire Purchase is an alternative way of purchasing items of equipment. With a leased item you use and pay for the item but never own it. With hire-purchase you put down a deposit on an item and then pay off the rest in instalments. When the last instalment has been paid you become the owner of the item.

Another common way in which firms can finance their business in the short term is through trade credit. In business it is common practice to purchase items and pay for them later. The supplier will normally send the purchaser a statement at the end of each month saying how much is owed. The buyer is then given a period of time in which to pay.

Large companies like Argos will raise finance in a variety of different ways. Not only do they raise capital from shareholders, but they also take out loans from banks to finance major capital projects. Capital equipment such as vehicles and computers may be leased. In turn these companies will provide finance.

Answer the questions.

- 1 Who always seek money to finance their needs?
- 2 What questions are considered when sourcing finance?
- 3 Who provide the internal and external finance?
- 4 When and in what way does the bank provide an overdraft facility to business?
- 5 When can business qualify for grants?

Decide whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F). If they are false, correct them.

- 1 The word 'lend' is often connected with long-term financing while the word 'invest' supposes short-term financing.
- 2 The principles of matching the purpose of finance with the source of finance are applied both in life and in business.

- 3 Large organisations are able to use a wider variety of finance sources than smaller ones.
- 4 Shareholders provide loans to finance capital projects.

Translate the following sentences into your native language.

- 1 The customers accumulate funds for repayment of pass-through loans received from or secured by the Government into the saving accounts.
- 2 The rights of consumers and occupiers of property to appropriate protection cannot be eliminated to suit the economic needs of the mortgage law.
- 3 The Bank extended a housing finance facility to Hansapank for the provision of long-term secured loans to buy principal residences in Estonia.
- 4 Venture capital organizations aim to help growing firms over that awkward adolescent period before they are large enough to go public.
- 5 Guyana Bank, Guyana's first merchant bank, will provide consulting services and term finance to the private sector.
- 6 The increase in the Company share capital by increasing the nominal value shall be admissible at the expense of the Company assets only.
- 7 Cash assistance has been recorded directly as expenditure when the funds were transferred to the implementing partners.
- 8 With financial leases, the choice is not “lease versus buy” but “lease versus borrow.”
- 9 Trade credits result when a business is given 30, 60, or 90 days to pay for goods or services.

TEXT 6 FINANCIAL STATEMENTS AND REPORTING

Vocabulary

financial statement – финансовый отчет

financial performance – финансовое состояние

balance sheet – балансовый отчет

limited company – компания с ограниченной ответственностью

shareholder – акционер

verify – подтверждать, удостоверить

comply – исполнять, соблюдать

profit and loss account – счет прибылей и убытков

cash flow statement – баланс оборотных средств

cash inflow / outflow – приток/отток оборотных средств

owe – быть должным

make a profit – получать прибыль

gross/net profit/loss – валовый / чистый доход / убытки

revenue – доход

operating profit – текущая выручка

turnover – оборот

sale revenue – товарооборот

cost of sales – себестоимость реализованной продукции

overhead cost – накладные расходы

asset – имущество, фонды, активы

net asset – стоимость имущества за вычетом обязательств

liability – обязательство, пассив

non-current liability – долгосрочное обязательство

solvent – платежеспособный, кредитоспособный

fixed assets – основной капитал

current assets – оборотные фонды, оборотные средства

receivable – счета дебиторов, получаемое

inventories – материально-производственные запасы

overdraft – овердрафт, превышение кредита

ratio analysis – анализ относительных показателей

acquisition – приобретение

Company accounts have to be filed each year and provide a summary of the financial performance of the company for the period concerned and a "snapshot" of its balance sheet. Most accounts relate to a one-year trading period, and the most common "year end" is either 31st December (i.e. the calendar year) or 31st March (i.e. the tax year). The information that companies of different sizes have to provide is different. Smaller companies are required to show less information in their accounts than larger ones.

Limited companies (those owned by shareholders) are required by law to produce Financial Statements. These statements must be published and made available to shareholders as part of a company report. The legal responsibility for producing financial statements that present an accurate picture of the company's performance over the period lies with the company's directors. These statements must be checked by an external audit, when the company hires a firm of accountants to verify that it provides a true and fair record and complies with legal requirements.

Business accounts are produced to meet the needs of their users. There are three main financial statements that are produced by company accountants.

These are:

1. The Balance Sheet setting out the financial position of the company at a particular moment in time e.g. the year end.
2. The Profit and Loss Account showing how the profit or loss of the business has been generated.
3. A Cash Flow Statement setting out the cash inflows and outflows to the business during a particular period of time.

Two of the most important financial statements for a business are the Profit and Loss Account, and the Balance Sheet. The Profit and Loss Account shows the profit or loss of a business over a given period of time e.g. 3 months, 1 year, etc.

In contrast, the Balance Sheet is like a photograph taken at an instant in time giving a picture of what the business owns and what the business owes at that moment in time. As we shall see it will always balance because what the business owns is financed by what the business owes.

The Profit and Loss (P&L account)

One of the most important objectives of a business is to make a profit. The P&L account shows the extent to which it has been successful in achieving this objective. A Profit and Loss Account is a table compiled at the end of an accounting period, to show gross and net profit or loss. It is very useful for helping readers to understand the financial performance of a company. A review of the Profit and Loss Account will help shareholders and other users to see how the company is performing.

When reading a Profit and Loss Account, it is easier to understand a company's financial performance by comparing the latest figures with the previous years. The Profit and Loss Account shows a summary of the transactions of the business for a period of one year.

Companies are expected to keep their P&L accounts in certain formats.

Typically the P&L account will show the revenues received by a business and the costs involved in generating that revenue.

In simple terms:

Revenues – Costs = Profits.

Case Study:

P&L Account for *Superior Traders* as at 31/12/2004

You can find out the gross profit of a business by deducting cost of sales from turnover:

$£100,000 - £50,000 = £50,000$

You can find out the operating profit by deducting the expenses from the gross profit:

$£50,000 - £30,000 = £20,000$

Turnover - is the value of sales made in a trading period. It is sometimes referred to as sale revenue and is calculated by the average price of items sold x the number sold.

Cost of sales - calculates the direct costs of manufacturing items, or buying in items to sell them on.

Expenses - are the overhead costs of running a business. These overheads can't be tied down to particular cost units. For example, it would be very difficult to calculate what fraction of the heating cost of a pen factory can be allocated to just one pen.

The Balance Sheet

The Balance Sheet is a statement showing the assets, liabilities and owner's capital of a business at a particular moment in time, for example the year end.

The Balance Sheet balances because the assets that a business possesses at a specific time have been financed either through the provision of capital by the owner's or by the creation of external liabilities:

There are a number of things that we can see from looking at a balance sheet, for example:

1. The net assets of the business, i.e. the difference between the value of the assets and the value of the liabilities. A growth in net assets tends to indicate a growing business.

2. How solvent the business is. In other words, if it has enough assets that are short-term, and hence easily converted into cash, to pay any pressing short-term liabilities.

Here is a simple explanation of the Balance Sheet:

1. Fixed assets consist of those items that are kept within the business to create wealth over a period of time e.g. machinery, equipment, vehicles, computers, etc.

2. Current assets consist of stock (inventories), trade and other receivables, and cash.

3. Current liabilities consist of any payments the company must pay out in the short-term (typically under a year) such as payments to suppliers. In addition, it would include short-term borrowings and overdrafts.

4. Non-current liabilities consist primarily of bank loans, money owed to employees to pay their pensions, etc.

5. The net assets/liabilities figure is then calculated by deducting the two main types of liabilities from the two main categories of assets.

Net current assets is a measure of how solvent or liquid a business is.

Many businesses need to have working capital. We use the term working capital to describe the difference between current assets and current liabilities:

Working capital = Current assets – Current liabilities

A business has working capital if its current assets are greater than its current liabilities. Working capital is required for the day-to-day running of a business - paying bills, wages etc.

A business performs well when it has:

*high and rising sales

*high and rising profits

*good control over its costs

*a good liquidity/working capital position.

Note that the figure for net current assets appears almost in the centre of a balance sheet, and is a figure that many people will look at first to check on the solvency of a business.

6. The final section of the Balance Sheet shows the amount of shareholders' funds. Shareholders' funds show the value of the shareholders capital in the business. It will always be the same value as the total net assets and it balances the account. Total net assets is calculated by taking away all the liabilities (both current and long-term) from all of the assets (both current and long-term).

Ratio analysis (Profitability analysis)

Financial statements can be analysed by shareholders, the financial press, and others to check how well a company is performing. Ratios are determined from a company's financial information and used for comparison purposes, e.g. operating profit to sales.

This can be set out in the form:

Operating Profit : Revenue

$$\text{Operating Profit margin} = \frac{\text{Operating Profit} \times 100}{\text{Revenue}}$$

Alternatively, it can be set out as a percentage.

If you refer back to the Balance Sheet, you can see that the current ratio is:

$$\text{The current ratio} = \frac{\text{current assets}}{\text{current liabilities}}$$

This ratio is used in different ways for small and large companies. Businessmen and women considering whether to trade with a new small company would prefer to see this figure at 1.5 or above - as an indication that the company is solvent and will be able to pay its debts. For large established companies with good credit ratings, a lower ratio indicates an efficient use of capital.

The Cash Flow Statement

This statement simply sets out the incomings and outgoings of cash in a business during a particular period of time e.g. one year. It shows how the main categories of cash flow have changed the cash balance in particular periods.

Cash flow is very important to the company because cash enables the business to pay its bills, pay dividends to its shareholders and, in addition, to make acquisitions.

Answer the questions.

1. What do company accounts provide?
2. Who is responsible for financial statements that present an accurate picture of the company's performance?
3. What are the main financial statements that are produced by company accountants?
4. What does the Profit and Loss Account show to its users?
5. What is working capital required for?
6. What does the term 'solvent business' mean?

Decide whether the following sentences are true (T) or false (F). If they are false, correct them.

1. All business companies have to provide the same volume of information concerning financial performance.
2. The Balance Sheet is like a snapshot giving a picture of assets and liabilities of the business at the definite moment of time.

3. Current assets consist of items that are kept within business to create wealth over a period of time e.g. machinery, equipment, computers, etc.
4. The Cash Flow Statement is the most important of all financial statements.

Translate the following sentences into your native language.

1. Annual reports are submitted by the Company in all forms with the explanatory note and interim reports are submitted by the Company in the form of the Balance Sheet and Profit and Loss account.
2. The policy states that the Bank is obliged to hold sufficient liquid assets reserve to meet its financial commitments, however not less than 30% of the Bank's total current liabilities.
3. A joint-stock company is very similar to a limited liability company concerning the liability of shareholders, governing body and the taxation.
4. It's just a fact of life – all companies must comply with the tax laws.
5. Banks don't make profits without playing a long game – sometimes a very long game.
6. One of the enterprise financial position indicator is its solvency and liquidity, i.e. an opportunity in due time to repay its liabilities.
7. In contrast to such financing loans are direct investments abroad, either through establishment of branch factories or acquisition of foreign industries.
8. About 57% of such companies increased their turnover at the expense of products and services export in 2003.
9. If the money you owe me is not in my account by the close of business tomorrow, you can be sure I will seek justice.
10. The cash flow statement isn't designed to replace the balance sheet or income statement.

TEXT 7 STATISTICS

Vocabulary

quantitative – количественный

qualitative – качественный

numerical data – цифровые данные

survey – исследование, обследование, инспектирование

versed – опытный, сведущий осведомленный

application – применение

set of data – набор данных

scope – масштаб, сфера (деятельности), охват. пределы

design – расчет, план

sampling – выборка, выборочное исследование

randomness – случайность

inference – заключение, вывод

draw inference – делать заключение

draw a conclusion – делать заключение

inferential statistics – статистика вывода

descriptive statistics – описательная статистика

applied statistics – прикладная статистика

prediction – предсказание

predictor – показатель

causal – причинный, казуальный

causality – причинная связь, обусловленность

dependent variable – зависимая переменная

independent variable – независимая переменная

observation study – исследование по данным наблюдений

experimental study – экспериментальное исследование

take measurements – измерять, делать замеры

The role of statistics is hard to overestimate. As soon as a state is formed people begin to pay attention to the quantitative side of many social things. However, the quantitative side is closely connected with the qualitative side of things. The more developed a society is, the more important role statistics plays in its life.

Statistics is the science of making effective use of numerical data relating to groups of individuals or experiments. It deals with all aspects of this, including not only the collection, analysis and interpretation of such data, but also the planning of the collection of data, in terms of the design of surveys and experiments.

A statistician is someone who is particularly versed in the ways of thinking necessary for the successful application of statistical analysis. Often such people have gained this experience after starting work in some fields of application of statistics. There is also a discipline called mathematical statistics, which is concerned with the theoretical basis of the subject.

The word 'statistics' can either be singular or plural. In its singular form, statistics refers to the mathematical science discussed in this article. In its plural form, statistics is the plural of the word statistic, which refers to a quantity calculated from a set of data.

Scope

Statistics is considered by some people to be a mathematical science pertaining to the collection, analysis, interpretation or explanation, and presentation of data, while others consider it to be a branch of mathematics concerned with collecting and interpreting data. Because of its empirical roots and its focus on applications, statistics is usually considered to be a distinct mathematical science rather than a branch of mathematics.

Statisticians improve the quality of data with the design of experiments and survey sampling. Statistics also provides tools for prediction and forecasting using data and statistical models. Statistics is applicable to a wide variety of academic disciplines, including natural and social sciences, government, and business.

Statistical methods can be used to summarize or describe a collection of data; this is called descriptive statistics. This is useful in research, when communicating

the results of experiments. In addition, patterns in the data may be modeled in a way that accounts for randomness and uncertainty in the observations, and are then used to draw inferences about the process or population being studied; this is called inferential statistics. Inference is a vital element of scientific advance, since it provides a prediction (based in data) for where a theory logically leads. To further prove the guiding theory, these predictions are tested as well, as part of the scientific method. If the inference holds true, then the descriptive statistics of the new data increase the soundness of that hypothesis. Descriptive statistics and inferential statistics together comprise applied statistics.

Statistical methods. Experimental and observational studies

A common goal for a statistical research project is to investigate causality, and in particular to draw a conclusion on the effect of changes in the values of predictors or independent variables on dependent variables or response. There are two major types of causal statistical studies: experimental studies and observational studies. In both types of studies, the effect of differences of an independent variable (or variables) on the behavior of the dependent variable are observed. The difference between the two types lies in how the study is actually conducted. Each can be very effective.

An experimental study involves taking measurements of the system under study, manipulating the system, and then taking additional measurements using the same procedure to determine if the manipulation has modified the values of the measurements. In contrast, an observational study does not involve experimental manipulation. Instead, data are gathered and correlations between predictors and response are investigated.

The basic steps of an experiment are:

- Planning the research, including determining information sources, research subject selection, and ethical considerations for the proposed research and method.
- Design of experiments, concentrating on the system model and the interaction of independent and dependent variables.

- Summarizing a collection of observations to feature their commonality by suppressing details. (Descriptive statistics)
- Reaching consensus about what the observations tell about the world being observed. (Statistical inference)
- Documenting / presenting the results of the study.

Significance

Statistics rarely give a simple Yes/No type answer to the question asked of them. Interpretation often comes down to the level of statistical significance applied to the numbers and often refers to the probability of a value accurately rejecting the null hypothesis.

Answer the questions.

5. What is the dependence between a society and the role of statistics?
6. What does statistics deal with?
7. What does a statistician do?
8. What is called descriptive statistics?
9. What are two major types of causal statistical studies?
10. What are the basic steps of an experiment?

Decide whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F). If they are false, correct them.

1. Quantitative side of things has nothing in common with the qualitative side.
2. Statistics is applicable only to mathematical science.
3. Applied statistics comprises descriptive and inferential statistics.
4. Statistics always gives a clear Yes/No answer to the questions under consideration.

Translate the sentences from English into Russian or Ukrainian.

- 1 A collection of data records is stored in four or more special tables as a set of data.

- 2 You want to be sure, for instance, that numerical data and non-numerical data can be accessed together.
- 3 This survey is based on materials provided by Russian news agencies TASS, Prime-TASS and AK&M and the Bank of Russia Bulletin.
- 4 However, economic theory and econometrics, which claim they can elucidate the relationships between hundreds of ill-defined variables, dare make no prediction about the structure of price records.
- 5 The latest forecast revises an earlier prediction issued in 2007.
- 6 The richness and representativeness of the survey allows the making of inferences about the average migrant's profile in terms of age, skills, etc.
- 7 I presented to them my rational, causal explanation of what had taken place.
- 8 In the last column stands the independent variable, and below this is placed the accessory parameters (not more than one in this book).
- 9 Suppose that a certain random variable is represented by the following table.
- 10 Some of the most important techniques learned in training involve how to collect data, how many to count (sampling), and how often to count it.
- 11 Questions are crucial because they determine the variables measured, sampling, intensity and duration of the measurements, and, ultimately, the usefulness of the data.

TEXT 8. MARKETING THEORY. THE MARKETING MIX

Vocabulary

marketing mix – комплекс маркетинга, маркетинг-микс

charge – назначать цену

promotion – содействие, поощрение, стимулирование, раскрутка, продвижение, рекламирование

distribution – распределение, распространение, дистрибуция

encourage – поощрять, содействовать

avail – помогать, приносить пользу, быть полезным, содействовать

branding – брендирование, создание бренда, продвижение торговой марки

advertising – рекламирование, рекламное дело

packaging – упаковывание, упаковка

public relations – связи с общественностью, паблик рилейшнз

sponsorship – финансирование, (финансовая) поддержка; поручительство; создание благоприятных условий

relevant – релевантный; значимый; существенный; важный

affordable – допустимый; по средствам

up-market – высококачественный, высшего качества, высококлассный

cost-plus pricing – ценообразование по принципу "издержки плюс"

mark-up – розничная наценка, надбавка к издержкам

hour-based pricing –

rate per hour – повременная ставка

penetration pricing – ценообразование с целью проникновения (на рынок), ценовая стратегия захвата рынка

skimming – снятие сливок, стратегия высоких цен

bring out – производить

interest free loan – беспроцентный займ

rate of interest – норма процента, процентная ставка

The marketing mix is often referred to as the '4 Ps', i.e. product, price, place and promotion. To meet customers' needs a business must develop products to satisfy them, charge the right price, get the goods to the right place, and it must make the existence of the product known through promotion.

Products or services must meet customer requirements whatever these might be. For example, an important aspect is function - products should do what they say they can do and what they are expected to do. For example, Audi cars are popular because of their high performance. Appearance is also important. This is why, for example, consumers are prepared to pay premium prices for some of Gillette's razors.

Place

Roughly one fifth of the cost of a product is spent getting it to consumers. Of course, the actual figure varies widely from product to product but generally distribution is a very important element in the marketing mix. Different organisations use different approaches to reaching their customers. For example, McDonald's uses a franchising system enabling it to operate in a wide variety of geographical locations, and Amway distributes through Independent Business Owners worldwide.

Promotion

It is the process of communicating with customers. For marketing purposes, communication of products and services contributes to the persuasion process to encourage consumers to avail themselves of whatever is on offer. The key processes involved in promotion, include:

- *branding* - creating a distinctive image and character to an organisation and / or its products and services
- *advertising* - to inform and persuade the public
- *packaging* - presenting the product in a desirable and appropriate way
- *public relations* activities and other forms of publicity
- *sponsorship*
- *special promotions* - e.g. buy one get one free.

Price

Price needs to be relevant to the product/service and the market. For example, BIC the manufacturer of razors, pens and lighters seeks to provide the world's markets with products at affordable prices. A firm's pricing decision is often aimed at attracting a particular market segment. For example, if it wants to sell at the top end of the market it will charge a high price, at the bottom – a low price, and so on.

Pricing strategies

Pricing strategy is an important part of the marketing mix. The price of a product should reflect its image and the need to give a consumer what they want. For example, up-market products are associated with premium prices.

There are a number of popular pricing techniques to choose from:

1. *Cost-plus pricing*. A common way to make pricing decisions is to calculate how much it costs to do a particular job or activity, and then add on a given percentage as a return for the job or activity. This is sometimes known as mark-up.

For example, a business may decide that it will cost £100 to do a small repair job on a car, including parts, labour, use of premises, equipment, etc. The business works on the basis of making a return of 20% on all the work that it does. It therefore charges the customer £120.

2. *Hour-based pricing*. Many small businesses are able to work out what their typical costs are for every hour of work they do, e.g. for gardening, sign writing, photography, etc. The business owner is then able to charge a standard rate per hour.

3. *Penetration pricing*. When a firm brings out a new product into a new or existing market, it may feel that it needs to make a lot of sales very quickly in order to establish itself and to make it possible to produce larger quantities. It may therefore start off by offering the product at quite a low price. When market penetration has been achieved, prices can be raised.

4. *Skimming*. When you bring out a new product, you may be able to start off by charging quite a high price. Some customers may want to be the first to buy your product because of the prestige of being seen with it, or because they want to be associated with your product before anyone else.

An exclusive dress could be sold initially at an exclusive price to wealthier customers. The next season, the price could be lowered making it accessible to a less wealthy group of customers. Later on, the dress could be mass produced and made available at low prices to the mass market.

A premium price is an exclusive price charged for up-market products.

The marketing mix for a bank account might include:

- the product/service itself - the account and what the customer can do with it - e.g. overdraft facilities, direct debit payment etc.
- the place - either online/ over the telephone or in a physical location
- the promotion - for example attractive offers to students who open the account when first going to university such as an interest free loan, or money to buy books
- the price - the rate of interest paid on positive balances and charged on negative balances.

The 4 Ps - Product, Price, Place and Promotion make up the marketing mix. Each of these elements should be designed to meet customer needs and requirements.

Answer the questions.

1. What components are included in marketing mix?
2. Why is distribution an important element in the marketing mix?
3. What key processes are involved in promotion?
4. Does a pricing decision of a firm depend on a particular market segment?
5. What pricing techniques are described in the text?
6. What pricing technique does a firm choose when it brings out a new product into a new or existing market and want to establish itself in it and to make it possible to produce larger quantities?
7. Is skimming technique applied for up-market or low-market products?

Decide whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F). If they are false, correct them.

1. The function of products means that they should do what they say they can do and what they are expected to do.

2. Presenting the product in a desirable and appropriate way is called *branding*.
3. The price of a product as usual reflects its image and the need to give a consumer what they want.
4. When the business owner charges a standard rate per hour after working out typical costs for every hour of work we deal with hour-based pricing.
5. All elements of marketing mix are designed to meet customer needs and requirements.

Fill in the gaps with the words given below. Translate the sentences.

- 1 Movie companies have boosted demand by advertising movies on television.
- 2 To admit securities for placing the Stock Exchange shall charge a payment according to the procedure and the time frames specified in the Agreement on Admission of Securities for Placing.
- 3 Ksenia Kiseleva began her career in marketing for a leading photo technique producer, and then worked in up-market real estate, responsible for marketing support of sales.
- 4 The expected return on the common stock is 12 percent and the rate of interest on the bonds is 6 percent.
- 5 It stressed that access to basic primary care should be guaranteed at the local level and that medicines should be made both affordable and available.
- 6 The relevant domestic laws had been enacted and the system would probably be instituted in early 2001.
- 7 Over 60% respondents also believe that sponsorship is great for highly targeted campaigns.
- 8 Because the company does little advertising, the production, features, design, and layout for all of the journals are similar, which helps to control costs.
- 9 Experienced public relations professional with great person-to-person skills, able to cultivate relationships with customers and build trust in brands and services.
- 10 Producers must be able to meet official quality and phytosanitary standards, including for labelling and packaging, as well as unofficial standards established by buyers.

TEXT 9 MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Vocabulary

hierarchy of needs – иерархия потребностей

esteem – почтение, уважение

safety – безопасность

self-actualization – самовыражение, самореализация, самоутверждение

implication – вовлечение, причастность; следствие, результаты

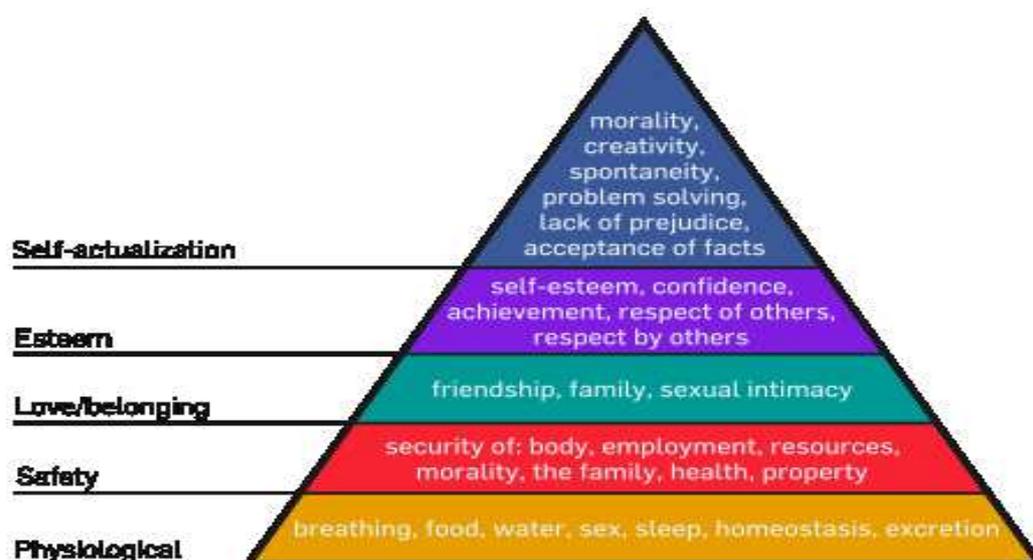
compensation package – компенсационный пакет (кроме зарплаты включает в себя различные премии, страховки, оплату услуг, другие формы поощрения)

challenge – вызов, сложная задача, проблема

essentials – предметы первой необходимости

If motivation is driven by the existence of unsatisfied needs, then it is worthwhile for a manager to understand which needs are the more important for individual employees. In this regard, Abraham Maslow developed a model in which basic, low-level needs such as physiological requirements and safety must be satisfied before higher-level needs such as self-fulfillment are pursued. In this hierarchical model, when a need is mostly satisfied it no longer motivates and the next higher need takes its place. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is shown in the following diagram:

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Physiological Needs

Physiological needs are those required to sustain life, such as:

air

water

nourishment

sleep

According to Maslow's theory, if such needs are not satisfied then one's motivation will arise from the quest to satisfy them. Higher needs such as social needs and esteem are not felt until one has met the needs basic to one's bodily functioning.

Safety

Once physiological needs are met, one's attention turns to safety and security in order to be free from the threat of physical and emotional harm. Such needs might be fulfilled by:

Living in a safe area

Medical insurance

Job security

Financial reserves

According to Maslow's hierarchy, if a person feels that he or she is in harm's way, higher needs will not receive much attention.

Social Needs (Love/Belonging)

Once a person has met the lower level physiological and safety needs, higher level needs become important, the first of which are social needs. Social needs are those related to interaction with other people and may include:

Need for friends

Need for belonging

Need to give and receive love

Esteem

Once a person feels a sense of "belonging", the need to feel important arises. Esteem needs may be classified as internal or external. Internal esteem needs are those related

to self-esteem such as self respect and achievement. External esteem needs are those such as social status and recognition. Some esteem needs are:

Self-respect

Achievement

Attention

Recognition

Reputation

Maslow later refined his model to include a level between esteem needs and self-actualization: the need for knowledge and aesthetics.

Self-Actualization

Self-actualization is the summit of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. It is the quest of reaching one's full potential as a person. Unlike lower level needs, this need is never fully satisfied; as one grows psychologically there are always new opportunities to continue to grow.

Self-actualized people tend to have needs such as:

Truth

Justice

Wisdom

Meaning

Self-actualized persons have frequent occurrences of peak experiences, which are energized moments of profound happiness and harmony. According to Maslow, only a small percentage of the population reaches the level of self-actualization.

Implications for Management

If Maslow's theory holds, there are some important implications for management. There are opportunities to motivate employees through management style, job design, company events, and compensation packages, some examples of which follow:

Physiological needs: Provide lunch breaks, rest breaks, and wages that are sufficient to purchase the essentials of life.

Safety Needs: Provide a safe working environment, retirement benefits, and job security.

Social Needs: Create a sense of community via team-based projects and social events.

Esteem Needs: Recognize achievements to make employees feel appreciated and valued. Offer job titles that convey the importance of the position.

Self-Actualization: Provide employees a challenge and the opportunity to reach their full career potential.

However, not all people are driven by the same needs - at any time different people may be motivated by entirely different factors. It is important to understand the needs being pursued by each employee. To motivate an employee, the manager must be able to recognize the needs level at which the employee is operating, and use those needs as levers of motivation.

Answer the questions.

1. What needs must be satisfied first according to Maslow's Theory?
2. What needs belong to physiological ones?
3. What needs are called safety needs?
4. What are esteem needs?
5. Do many people reach the level of self-actualization?
6. How can Maslow's theory be applied to management?

Decide whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F). If they are false, correct them.

- 1 According to Maslow's Theory higher needs are not important to an individual if physical needs are not satisfied.
- 2 Social needs are related to security from the threat of physical and emotional harm.
- 3 Self-actualization is on the top of Maslow's pyramid of needs.
- 4 All people are always driven by the same needs.

Fill in the gaps with the words given below. Translate the sentences.

- 1 The mix of competence, trust, mutual esteem and well-person sociology provides perfect soil for the growth of successfully working teams in an organisation.
- 2 The Bank offers favourable terms of service, guarantees a high level of safety of the customers' investments and reliability of all administered transactions.
- 3 An immediate and direct implication of an efficient market is that no group of investors should be able to consistently beat the market using a common investment strategy.
- 4 Furthermore, the compensation package was intended to be attractive to staff recruited for short-term service.
- 5 Provide experiences that challenge the employee and allow opportunity for growth.

TEXT 10 BUSINESS MEETINGS THAT MATTER - IT'S POSSIBLE!

Vocabulary

seminar – семинар

conference – конференция

team – команда

project coordination – координация проекта

communicate – общаться, обмениваться информацией

direction – направление

survey – опрос, инспектирование, исследование

issue – проблема, тема, спорный вопрос

inspiration – вдохновение, воодушевление, стимулирование, воздействие

facilitation – облегчение, помощь, содействие

purpose – цель

agenda – повестка дня

booking – бронирование

catering – питание

audio/video equipment – аудио/видеооборудование

reminder – меморандум, уведомление, памятка

guiding – руководство, руководящий

accomplish – совершать, выполнять

executive – исполнительная власть, должностное лицо, руководитель

etiquette – этикет

board – совет

minutes – протокол совещания / собрания

chair – председательское место, кафедра

Meetings come in all shapes and sizes. There are the everyday office meetings, board meetings, *seminars* – all the way up to major *conferences*. And meetings can now be face-to-face, teleconference, videoconference, or online via the Internet. There are more than enough meetings to go around these days, and for a good reason. Meetings

are more important than ever. Modern workplaces are built on *teams*, sharing of ideas, and effective *project coordination*.

If communication is the lifeblood of any organization, then meetings are the heart and mind. The place where we *communicate* our ideas, hash them out, share our passion for better or worse, develop new understandings and new *directions*. It's where deals can happen or fall apart, where strategies are articulated and debated – in short – where we engage with others. That's what it's all about, people meeting with people.

Survey results published in the USA show that *executives* on average spend 40%-50% of their working hours in business meetings.

Part 2. HOW TO PLAN A MEETING

Studies also point out a discouraging trend: surveyed professionals agree that as much as 50% of that meeting time is unproductive and that up to 25% of meeting time is spent discussing irrelevant *issues*. Typically, they complain that meetings are too long, are scheduled without adequate time to prepare and end without any clear result.

Most of us have been to seminars or conferences where we've left feeling inspired and rejuvenated. The reason is that good seminars and conferences are organized precisely to engage us. Sadly, most office meetings are not.

Believe it or not, meetings can and should be the most interesting and productive part of your day. And if you've ever been to a great conference or seminar, you already have seen some of the basic principles at work. These can be summarized as:

- 1) *preparation*
- 2) *facilitation*
- 3) *inspiration*
- 4) results

Preparation means making sure your meeting has a clear, stated *purpose*, and an *agenda*. Participants are chosen carefully, invited in professional way and given sufficient prior information. Preparation also means attention to details including: room *bookings*, *catering*, *audio/video equipment*, *reminders*.

Facilitation means that someone or a team is responsible for *guiding* the meeting, a plan for the meeting is reflected in the agenda and the *facilitator* (or *chair*) keeps things on time and on track.

Inspiration is probably the most overlooked aspect of everyday meetings. All the attention to detail and process can push the opportunity for spontaneity and enthusiasm aside. Build in activities that engage participants, use strategies to generate discussion, or visual aids to grab attention.

Results means that every meeting should be directed toward one or more outcomes. Participants must feel that something has been *accomplished*, and they must see all of their meetings as part of the bigger strategy to involve them in the future of the organization. Achievements at one meeting should be recapped in the next, and so on.

Answer the questions to the text:

1. What kinds of meetings are mentioned in the text?
2. Why are meetings characterized as the heart and mind of any organization?
3. How much time do executives spend in business meetings?
4. When can conferences and meetings be considered as successful?
5. What are the basic principles of a successful meeting?
6. What can be included in 'preparation'?
7. What does 'facilitation' mean?
8. Why is 'inspiration' so important for a meeting to be successful?
9. What do 'results' mean?

Decide whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F). If they are false, correct them.

1. Meetings have never been so important as nowadays.
2. It is meetings where deals can happen or fall apart and where strategies are articulated and debated.
3. Survey results show that meeting time is 80% productive.

4. Preparation to the seminar always include bookings, catering, audio/video equipment, reminders.

Translate sentences from English into Ukrainian or Russian.

1. According to a survey of 600 city residents, garbage collection was the city service people liked most.
2. Unemployment is not the issue - the real problem is the decline in public morality.
3. Early booking is recommended as numbers are limited on many of the tours.
4. I've been working on the Inner City Development Project for the last five years.
5. Dividing students into small groups usually helps facilitate discussion.
6. Have you got a copy of the agenda for tomorrow's meeting?
7. The Green Party held a press conference the next day.
8. Preparations for the upcoming Environmental Protection Conference are nearing completion.
9. Jones is the chair of the Committee on Science, Space, and Technology.
10. Easy enough to say, but sometimes hard to accomplish!
11. Has everyone seen the minutes of last month's meeting?
12. If you don't agree with the results you can appeal to the board of examiners.

TEXT 11 COMPUTERS IN OUR LIFE

Vocabulary

digital – цифровой

hardware – аппаратное обеспечение, аппаратура

software – программное обеспечение

console, system unit – системный блок

key-board – клавиатура

disk-drive – дисковод

connection – соединение

word processing – обработка текстов

spreadsheet – крупноформатная (электронная) таблица

data – данные

database – база данных

graphics – графика

manual – руководство

key in /type in – набирать

network – сеть

compatible – совместимый

hard disk – жесткий диск

utilization – использование, употребление

simultaneously –

breakthrough – прорыв, научно-техническое открытие

Nowadays, we cannot imagine our life without computers and the fact is that they have become so important that nothing can replace them. They seem to be everywhere today. Since 1948 when the first real computer was invented our life has changed so much that we can call it real *digital* revolution.

Computer *hardware* consists of a *console* (*system unit*), a *key-board*, a *disk-drive*, a printer, a monitor, a mouse and their *connections*. The *software* consists of different programs you run on your computer. The most common programs used in

business are those for *word processing* (writing letters, faxes, documents, contracts), *spread sheets* (for budget and financial analysis), *database* management programs (for keeping names and addresses of customers), accounting (for bookkeeping), *graphics* programs (for drawing charts), communications programs (for electronic mail, Internet), desktop publishing programs (for producing *manuals*, catalogues). The operator *keys in (types in)* the information which can be saved and retrieved at a later date.

Most businesses nowadays use personal computers or PCs, which are often linked together in a local *network*. This is a big change from the days when time had to be rented on mainframe computer. Nowadays these are only used by very large businesses, universities, or government departments.

The two most popular types of computers currently are those of IBM and Apple (the Macintosh). It was IBM who set the standard for the PC which others later imitated. That is why, in order to be able to use the widest range of software, a computer has to be IBM *compatible*.

The most successful software company now is Microsoft with its Windows operating system. The Microsoft corporation is constantly developing the new versions of its operating system as well as other products.

The computer manufacturers try to apply the newest technologies producing hardware systems with the fastest processors like: Pentium IV, Celeron, Athlon, Duron and others. It is true that these newer models have a faster processor, more memory, a larger *hard disk* drive and a faster CD-ROM drive than previous models.

We are becoming increasingly dependent on computers. They are used in business, hospitals, crime detection and even to fly planes. What things will they be used for in future? Is this dependence on computers a good thing or should we be more suspicious of their benefits?

In the last two decades cybernetics have experienced a major *breakthrough*. This led to the *utilization* of computers at nearly all parts of our daily life, from personal computers to complicated surgery performing. Surely the uptake of this technology facilitates a lot of difficult tasks. Computers can perform many complex

operations *simultaneously* and scientist practically can't do without them. Thanks to them people has access to enormous amount of information. Gathering *data* has never been simpler than now. They are not only used in laboratories but also in factories to control production. Sometimes it is computers that manufacture other computers.

Most of the daily tasks and individual experiences are time and effort consuming. These two fundamental qualities could be tremendously saved by the use of computers.

Answer the questions to the text:

1. What are the basic parts of a computer?
2. What are computers used for?
3. Why are all computers IBM compatible?
4. What features differ new models of computers from computers of the past?
5. Where has a breakthrough in cybernetics led to?
6. What area of life can we use computers?

Decide whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F). If they are false, correct them.

1. There are a lot of types of apparatus that can replace computers.
2. Programs for word processing and database management are especially important in business.
3. It was Apple (Macintosh) who set the standard for the PC which others companies later imitated.
4. Gathering data has always been a rather simple process.

Translate sentences from English into Ukrainian or Russian.

1. She loaded the new software.
2. The company has spent millions of dollars replacing outdated computer hardware.
3. All the data shows that these animals are more adaptable than we thought.

4. The instruction manuals that accompany new computer software are often difficult to understand.
5. This was an important breakthrough that had an enormous impact on the scientific community.
6. Unfortunately he bought a printer that was not compatible with his computer.
7. Most workplaces have a local network as well as access to the Internet.
8. The spreadsheet program can produce graphics and you would like to put these graphics into your electronic publishing system.
9. Some experts foresee a future in which nobody would buy a spreadsheet program or word processor.
10. The ideal position for the mouse is on the same plane as the keyboard and as close to the keyboard as possible.

TEXT 12 GLOBAL ELECTRONIC COMMERCE

Vocabulary

storage – хранение

processing – обработка

transmission – передача

handling – управление, оперирование

data transfer – передача данных

stock broker – биржевой или фондовый маклер

estimate – оценка

gains – доходы

performance – исполнение, выполнение, эффективность

dot-com – интернет-компания

credible – надежный

expansion – расширение

ICT-related activities – деятельность, связанная с информационными и коммуникационными технологиями

cost-saving – снижение себестоимости

outsourcing – аутсорсинг (передача независимому подрядчику некоторых бизнес-функций или частей бизнес-процесса предприятия); привлечение внешних ресурсов для решения собственных проблем (напр., для разработки проекта)

business-to-business – взаимодействие "бизнес-бизнес", "бизнес для бизнеса", операции между компаниями

carry stock – хранить запасы

implication – вовлечение

inventories – наличные товары; материально-производственные запасы

search engine – поисковая система

copyright – авторское право

data collection – сбор данных

Electronic commerce refers to commercial transactions which are based on the electronic storage, processing and transmission of data over communications networks such as the internet and the world wide web. Global electronic commerce has been made possible by rapid advances in technology. Digital technologies permit the storage and processing of vast amounts of information. Satellites and optical fibres have dramatically quickened the handling and distribution of this information. To an economist, in principle, electronic commerce offers the possibility of 'trade without borders'. In practice there is evidence that information and communications technologies may be polarising the world economy into 'online' and 'offline' segments, what is sometimes referred to as the digital divide.

Electronic commerce has risen from the 'grass-roots' without the national or supra-national planning, management or co-ordination that one might have expected. The internet was originally an academic and research network which took off in the 1970s. The world wide web (www) was a runaway success following its creation in the early 1990s. There was no government or business input, yet its growth was phenomenal. The number of internet users has climbed sharply, the number of websites now exceeds 20 million, and the costs of data transfer have fallen dramatically.

Static and dynamic gains from electronic commerce

Although electronic transfers of money have been a feature of the international economy for decades, used by banks, credit card agencies, stock brokers and so on, the 'electronic marketplace' which deals in products and services is something new. Estimates of the growth of electronic commerce have been very speculative and optimistic. However, it has undoubtedly grown very fast from its starting point of zero in 1995. Consumer e-commerce reached \$28 billion in 2000. Business to business e-commerce is estimated to reach \$1.2 trillion by 2003.

There is no shortage of comment in the literature on the likely role of electronic commerce in the world economy over the next few decades. The growth of electronic commerce is generally agreed to have enormous potential which can be understood in

part in the context of trade theory. There are the static gains from trade which come about via specialisation and exchange, and there are dynamic gains, measurable as productivity increases. For example, between 1975 and 1995, US productivity growth averaged 1 per cent per annum. Between 1995 and 2000, it rose to 5 per cent per annum.

A number of observers have interpreted this rise as the dynamic benefits of electronic commerce. The UNDP *Human Development Report* of 2001 argues that in spite of the poor performance of technology stocks since 2000, and the collapse of many dot-coms, there is still enormous potential in electronic commerce for the international economy.

Many of the dot-coms which failed so miserably in the late 1990s were set up in the belief that it was easy to make money 'online'. Such companies often lacked credible fundamentals and a clear purpose. But online transactions have huge potential for firms which already have a stable base and are looking for expansion.

Over the next decade there is likely to be more constructive uses of the potential of e-commerce. Information and communication technologies (ICT) are to be found in the most dynamic sectors of the global economy. They offer great potential for countries to diversify their economies and create worthwhile employment opportunities for people. Industries related to ICT tend to have low start-up costs. They attract young and dynamic entrepreneurs. They are also relatively labour-intensive industries, employing large numbers of well-educated people. In India it is estimated that if present trends continue 30 per cent of India's exports and 8 per cent of its GDP could be derived from ICT-related activities by 2010. These activities now include significant outsourced activities: credit card administration, insurance claims, business payrolls and customer relations.

Of the Fortune Top 500 companies, 185 outsource their ICT to India. The global outsourcing market alone is worth more than \$100 billion. India also has 1250 companies exporting related software.

Commercial security

Business-to-business transactions dominate electronic commerce. About 80 per cent of the electronic trade in products and services is represented by business-to-business transactions, which is the fastest-growing area of electronic communication.

Multinational enterprises use electronic commerce as the basis of their global networks. Companies providing professional services in insurance, finance, engineering, design and architecture, for example, use the internet to sell their services to other businesses. Physical barriers between countries and markets are meaningless in this context.

Economists can readily appreciate the cost savings likely to be associated with business-to-business electronic commerce – the impact on inventories, for example – as firms find it less and less necessary to carry stocks. But again there is a downside. Electronic commerce has implications for commercial security. When firms engage in electronic commerce, they open up their electronic systems to suppliers and customers. This can cover such things as websites, customer software, search engines, manufacturing processes, recipes and so on.

Business-to-business electronic commerce which takes place across national boundaries has highlighted differences between the laws governing such data in different countries. The international law protecting data, patents, copyrights, trade secrets and so on only provides protection at the minimum level. Firms tend to rely on much stronger national laws to protect their interests. But electronic commerce throws up all sorts of anomalies. What appears at first sight to economists to be straightforward and highly efficient ‘trade without borders’ turns out to be no such thing. One example relates to data collections. In the US a collection of data – for example, a list of names and addresses – cannot be protected under copyright law unless it has enough ‘creativity’ to qualify as intellectual property.

But in the EU data as simple as a list of names and addresses is protected. All kinds of issues are affected by these anomalies. They impact on the relationship between multinational companies and their local suppliers, as well as between companies and their competitors.

Answer the questions.

1. What can e-commerce propose to an economist?
2. Has electronic commerce seen any national or supranational planning, management or coordination?
3. What was consumer e-commerce value in 2000?
4. What were the reasons for the failure of many dot-coms in the late 1990s?
5. How can you characterize industries related to information and communication technologies (ICT)?
6. What type of transactions dominate electronic commerce?
7. Can cost savings be associated with business-to-business e-commerce?
8. What implications does e-commerce have for commercial security?
9. Does business-to-business electronic commerce which takes place across national boundaries follow the laws governing data in different countries?

Decide whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F). If they are false, correct them.

1. Satellites and optical fibres are not connected with the handling and distribution of this information.
2. The most dynamic sectors of the global economy will use information and communication technologies (ICT).
3. In India ICT-related activities now include significant outsourced activities: credit card administration, insurance claims, business payrolls and customer relations.
4. Physical barriers between countries and markets are important in the context of electronic commerce.

Fill in the gaps with the words given below. Translate the sentences.

gains copyright credible data collection(2) estimate
performance inventories(2) search engine

In particular, no limitation will be imposed on access to, and use of, means of reproducing documents of any kind, while respecting, however, rights relating to intellectual property, including _____.

The representative of South Africa informed the Commission that _____ was an essential element of the national drug strategy of his country.

The _____ system is a series of programmes that permit the sharing of data between member organizations and the Fund.

What are the alternatives and how _____ are they?

Clearly, the large net _____ from global economic integration are not enough to convince those who have lost their jobs and the many others who feel at risk.

Once again, directly accessible files can often be found simply by searching for them using a Web _____.

If you delay a little, you find the cash replaced by _____ of raw materials and, still later, by _____ of finished goods.

Full-year GDP _____ is given without quarterly data adjustment.

Many countries need urgently to improve _____ as well as resource generation in public enterprises.

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