МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ
РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

ФЕДЕРАЛЬНОЕ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОЕ БЮДЖЕТНОЕ
ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЕ УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ
ВЫСШЕГО ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ
САНКТ-ПЕТЕРБУРГСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ
ЭКОНОМИКИ И ФИНАНСОВ

**Кафедра экономического английского языка №1**

# Сборник текстов для подготовки к кандидатскому экзамену по английскому языку

**Направление подготовки «Экономика»**

ИЗДАТЕЛЬСТВО
САНКТ- ПЕТЕРБУРГСКОГО ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОГО УНИВЕРСИТЕТА
ЭКОНОМИКИ И ФИНАНСОВ

*Рекомендовано научно-методическим советом университета*

Сборник текстов для подготовки к кандидатскому экзамену по английскому языку: Направление подготовки «Экономика»: – СПб.: Изд-во СПбГУЭФ, 2013. – 45 с.

Сборник предназначен для всех научных работников, изучающих иностранный язык в системе послевузовского образования по отрасли науки «08.01.00 -Экономика». Наименование научной специальности: Экономика и управление народным хозяйством/ Экономика и управление качеством, Экономика предприятий и производственный менеджмент.

Тексты подобраны в соответствии с требованиями кандидатского экзамена, задания рассчитаны как на выполнение в аудитории под руководством преподавателя, так и на самостоятельную работу аспирантов.

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**Содержание и структура кандидатского экзамена**

На кандидатском экзамене аспирант (соискатель) должен продемонстрировать умение пользоваться иностранным языком для осуществления профессиональной и научной деятельности в иноязычной среде.

**Кандидатский экзамен проводится одновременно для всех аспирантов (соискателей) и включает в себя четыре задания:**

**1.** Чтение и перевод со словарем на русский язык оригинального теста по специальности. Объем - 2300-2500 печатных знаков. Время подготовки – 45-60 минут. Форма проверки - чтение части текста вслух и проверка подготовленного перевода.
**2.** Чтение (ознакомительное, без словаря) оригинального текста по специальности. Объем 2200-2500 печатных знаков. Время подготовки - 10 минут. Форма проверки - передача содержания текста на русском языке.
**3.** Изложение на иностранном языке содержания оригинального текста по широкому профилю базовой кафедры аспиранта, прочитанного без словаря; беседа по содержанию прочитанного. Объем текста - 1500-2000 печатных знаков. Время подготовки - 10 минут.
**4.** Беседа с экзаменатором на иностранном языке по вопросам, связанным со специальностью и научной работой аспиранта (соискателя).

Результаты экзамена оцениваются по пятибалльной системе.

**Примерный перечень тем для беседы**
**1.** Обсуждение реферата.
**2.** Обзор и обсуждение прочитанной литературы по специальности.
**3.** Актуальность избранного научного направления; цели и задачи диссертационного исследования.
**4.** Новизна и практическая ценность диссертационного исследования.
**5.** Методы исследования, используемые в научной работе.
**6.** Трудовая деятельность аспиранта (соискателя):опыт работы, специализация.
**(**См. **Программа и методические указания для подготовки к сдаче кандидатского экзамена по иностранному языку (для аспирантов и**

**соискателей),** к. п. н., доц. И. А. Алешко – СПб.: Изд-во СПбГУЭФ, 2009. – С. 11-13).

## CARD 1

## 1. Read and make a written translation of the following text into Russian:

### AN OPEN ECONOMY

Most economies at present are global economies. They are integrated in terms of finance, trade and culture. The foreign exchange market, equity and commodity markets are aligned with each other on the national as well as at the global level. Domestic and international trading of equities, shares and commodities are allowed in almost all countries. Export promotion yields more foreign exchange when there is an exchange rate depreciation. The monetary policy of the reserve bank affects the supply of money. A higher money supply leads to a rise in prices while lowering the interest rate. When domestic interest rates are low, international investors withdraw their money, and invest it where higher returns can be had. The supply of money, the interest rate, and the exchange rate policies decide the volume of capital inflow and outflow.

### The balance of payments and the exchange rate

The balance of payments and the exchange rate are linked with each other. The balance of payments is a record of all the monetary transactions a country has with the rest of the world. The balance of payments is mainly divided into current and capital accounts. The current account is influenced by the exports and imports of a country and includes the transfer of payments. Services as freight, royalty payments and interest payments are also included, as well as net investment income and the interest and profits on assets. Transfer payments mainly consist of remittances, gifts and grants. The trade balance consists of the trade in services and the net transfers. A deficit in the balance of payments is defined as the payment of a country's residents in that country's balance of payments, for, for example, imports of cars, foreign gifts, machinery, etc. Such imports increase the current account deficit. But the export of agricultural commodities, machinery, garments, and other products improves the current account deficit and could result in a surplus in the country's current account. Similarly, if net transfers exceed net payments, then there is a capital account surplus. If the current account along

with the capital account are in surplus, then the country can have a surplus in its balance of payments.

Purchases, and the sale of assets are recorded in the current account, which also consists of stocks and bonds. When the receipts from the sale of stocks, bonds, bank deposits and other assets exceed payments for purchases of the foreign assets, the net capital flow is positive.

## 2. Render the following text in Russian:

### FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

To evaluate at food company level quality costs in general and traceability costs in particular, we relied on two sources of information. First, the data and analysis present in the food quality management literature was analysed. Second, we conducted a qualitative and exploratory research at food company level. Based on a topic list, 17 food companies in Belgium were interviewed about their investments and costs related to food quality management. Food quality managers where asked for the reasons for realising the investments and costs, focusing on competitive, consumer, retailer or regulatory pressures. The data related to costs and investments were collected from the internal cost price calculations. It means that during most interviews both the quality and financial manager participated in the discussion.

To assess consumer perception of traceability in the meat supply chain, the research framework is used (see also Gellynck and Verbeke, 2001). The meat chain from producer to consumer constitutes the core of the framework. Tracking meat products within this chain focuses on two types of attribute, namely functional attributes such as organisational efficiency and meat chain monitoring on the one hand, and process attributes such as origin and production method on the other. Functional attributes are linked with the intrinsic opportunities of a traceability system, while the process attributes deal with characteristics of the production process along which the tracking is organised. The tracking serves as a kind of peg for potential consumer benefits.

The consumer study is based on cross-sectional consumer data collected from a sample of 170 meat consumers in Belgium in June 2001 and from a sample of 155 in November 2004. Respondents were selected based on convenience sampling, with the restriction that they were the main person responsible for buying meat in the household. This resulted in a gender distribution of 60% female and 40% male respondents in the sample. Compared to 2001,

consumption frequency of all meat types increased. The highest meat consumption frequencies are reported for beef, with 40% of the respondents saying that they eat beef several times a week. Contrary to 2001, the lowest consumption frequencies are reported for pork, with one third of the respondents saying that they eat this less than once a week. The average age of the sample is 36 years. The elderly (>50 years) and less educated are slightly underrepresented in both samples.

*http://www.avacongress.net/ava2007/presentations/n3/6.pdf*

## 3. Render the following text in English:

### THE DEMAND CURVE

The demand curve shows what quantities of a good buyers are willing to buy at different prices. Note the expression "are willing." It is not about how much they actually buy, but about how much they would want to buy if a certain price was offered. A demand curve is only valid if all other relevant factors are held constant. The most important other factors that can affect demand are:

1. The buyers' income

2. Prices and price changes on other goods. We will make a distinction between complementary goods and substitute goods. An example of complementary goods is right and left shoes. If the price of right shoes rises then the demand for right shoes will typically decrease. However, the demand for left shoes will also typically decrease. Consequently, the demand for left shoes partly depends on the price of another good: right shoes.

Substitute goods work in the opposite way. An example could be blue and green pens: If one cannot use blue, one can often use green instead. If the price of green pens rises, the demand for green pens typically decreases. However, if the price of blue pens is unchanged one can use these instead of the green ones, and then the demand for blue pens increases. Consequently, the demand for blue pens depends on the price of another good: green pens. Note that for substitute goods, a rise in the price of the other good leads to an increase in the demand for the good we are analyzing, whereas for complementary goods it is the other way around; a rise in the price of the other good leads to a decrease in the demand for the good analyzed.

3. Preferences. What consumers demand is largely a matter of taste. If there is a change in taste, there is usually also a change in demand. Taste can

change for many different, underlying, reasons. For example, changes in moral perception or in fashion. If these factors are held constant, then the demand curve is valid and it usually slopes downwards. In other words, the lower the price is the higher is the demand, and vice versa.

## CARD 2

### 1. Read and make a written translation of the following text into Russian:

**TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT**

*Nov 16th 2009*

Total quality management (TQM) is the idea that controlling quality is not something that is left exclusively to the "quality controller", a person who stands at the end of a production line checking final output. It is (or it should be) something that permeates an organisation from the moment its raw materials arrive to the moment its finished products leave.

TQM is a process-oriented system built on the belief that quality is a matter of conforming to a customer's requirements. These requirements can be measured, and deviations from them can then be prevented by means of process improvements or redesigns.

The European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) said that TQM strategies are characterised by the following:

• The excellence of all managerial, operational and administrative processes.
• A culture of continuous improvement in all aspects of the business.
• An understanding that quality improvement results in cost advantages and better profit potential.
• The creation of more intensive relationships with customers and suppliers.
• The involvement of all personnel.
• Market-oriented organisational practices.

Total quality management was developed by a number of Japanese firms in the 1950s and 1960s. But it was built largely on the teachings of W. Edwards Deming and Joseph Juran, two Americans who had quietly developed the principles in the aftermath of the second world war. With the help of books and articles such as David Garvin's 1983 description in *Harvard Business Review* of the way in which TQM and other techniques were putting Japanese companies streets ahead of their foreign competitors, the idea was later reclaimed by the United States and widely adopted by American business.

Europe, which has at times looked left out of this game of American-Japanese ping-pong, has also made occasional claims to be the fount of total quality. Raymond Levy, chairman of Renault, a French car company, said in the early 1990s:
Quality is representative of a culture which we Europeans have no reason to let others monopolise. The Europe of Descartes; the Europe of the Age of Reason and the Enlightenment; the Europe of the industrial and technological revolution of the last two centuries holds within itself all the elements of method and exactitude conveyed by the term “total quality”.

*http://www.economist.com/node/14301657*

## 2. Render the following text in Russian:

### ECONOMIC COST OF QUALITY

Juran (1951, p8) discussed the 'economics of quality of conformance' when he first offered a model which showed the 'economics of quality'. He fully recognised the economic dilemma: *"...the basic quality problem ... is to strike the optimum balance between cost of quality and value of quality for each quality characteristic ...."*
He argued that increased conformance reduces the losses due to defectives and states that *"the cost of the controls needed for greater conformance rises geometrically as perfection is approached"*. This reflects the economist's perception of falling marginal returns (to added quality effort) and from this we can deduce (when we also consider that marginal benefits from added quality effort are likely also to decline) that perfection will not be
achievable - let alone optimal! Since Juran's paper there has been a great proliferation of notional or conceptual models based on Juran's work and these very often relate costs in dollars to the quality of conformance - from
100% defective up to no defectives at all. There are , however, very few explanations as to how the economic models are supposed to work in practice.
In his 1998 paper Kume states that *"many companies treat the economic problems pertaining to quality as quality costs"*. Kume explains that this is not the way things happen in practice and management should not be
concerned with these costs but should try to minimise the loss using quality management. For example, changes in what the workers were actually doing in a sub-process in a car manufacturer rendered the whole process was sub-optimal. His view is that when loss prevention and the development of new

business and sales (which are just two parts of a company) are well balanced, a company can maximise long-run profit.
Burrow and Medolta (1999) argue that *"the cost of quality concept has lost some of its popularity in recent years and nothing more comprehensive has evolved to replace it. It is also evident that senior manager's may not have learned the lesson from the past."* One example of this can be found in Stewart's (1999) article which features an interview with Joseph Juran who discusses the case of Xerox who, despite knowing the nature of the problems that they were facing, were continuing to put forward aspects of their management policy and not address the key problem issues. Xerox lost large amounts of money during a warranty period and when Juran asked to see the previous ten most frequent field failures, it was discovered that they were the same as the present most frequent field failures. Thus Xerox were collecting information about failures but doing nothing about the problems.

*http://www.cmqr.rmit.edu.au/publications/dcatteoq.pdf*

## 3. Render the following text in English:

**A HISTORY OF QUALITY MANAGEMENT**

The development of modern QM has been driven by the innovations and ideas of notable individuals. These have altered the way in which entire businesses manage quality, and have led to radical changes in the business culture and practices of entire countries. In particular, they have promoted the role of management and the active involvement of staff in driving quality improvements. Modern QM began modestly during the First World War, when armaments were sent back for fixing or discarded if they did not meet quality standards after they had been produced. By the mid-1920s, QM systems had shifted their focus to analysing and altering productive processes, to stop defects before they became apparent in finished products. This reduced the need for post-production reworking or scrapping.
These new mechanisms were dependent on a statistical analysis of processes, but QM has since evolved to include a holistic toolkit that is applied in all sectors of the economy. Modern-day QM mechanisms typically employ statistical process control mechanisms, and emphasise management leadership and employee commitment to quality improvements. Noticing that poor-quality military equipment was contributing to casualties, the belligerent governments instituted QM procedures in their armaments factories. While these procedures were rudimentary by today’s standards, it is accepted that modern QM systems materialised during the First World War.

The procedures created a number of quality inspectors who focussed on selecting which armaments did not meet required standards after they had been produced. These armaments were then reworked or scrapped. QM processes during the First World War were simpler than those which came after because they focussed primarily on managing quality after production, as opposed to during it.

*06http://www.mbsportal.bl.uk/taster/subjareas/mgmt/cmi/132790contribution12.pdf*

## CARD 3

## 1. Read and make a written translation of the following text into Russian:

**PRODUCTION**

A producer uses raw materials, capital, and labor to produce goods and services. Here, we will present a simple model for how they decide how much to produce and which technology to use for the production.

A large part of producer theory is very similar to consumer theory. Basic assumptions for consumer theory are that consumers have a goal to maximize their utility, but that they have restrictions due to limited income and prices. Producers also have a goal. They wish to maximize their profit. They also have restrictions. These are, for instance, the costs of labor and capital; but they also have restrictions regarding the technology of production.

An aspect that will also prove important for a firm is the amount of competition they face: Do they have one, a couple, or many competitors? Alternatively, do they not face any competition at all? We will study different market forms in later chapters.

- The producers have certain restrictions. Primarily because different combinations of **inputs** (labor and capital) have different associated costs.
- Different combinations of input produce different quantities of goods.
- We will distinguish between production in the short run and in the long run. In the short run, the quantity of available capital is fixed; in the long run, both labor and capital are variable.

- Given production and restrictions, the producer maximizes her profit.
- Another important question is how large a firm should be. The important concept here is returns to scale. How firm size affects how efficiently it can transform input to output.

It is common to distinguish between the **short run** and the **long run** regarding production. The short run is defined as the time during which (at least) one of the input factors is fixed, usually capital. If the firm, for instance, buys a factory, it may not be able to increase or decrease its size as fast as they would wish. During the time that the firm is stuck with the factory as it is, it amounts to a fixed cost. In the long run, all costs are variable.

We will assume that in the short run, labor is variable but capital is fixed. To make it clear that the quantity of capital is fixed in the short run, one often adds a line above the *K* in the production function: $q = f(L, \bar{K})$

The relationship between total production and the number of hours worked can be drawn in a graph. Often, one combines that graph with another graph that shows the marginal product and the average product of labor. We will now show how to construct such a graph.

## 2. Render the following text in Russian:

**COMPETITION**

The consumers often take prices as given and choose quantities based on the prices. The question is how prices arise. One factor is, of course, the cost of production. The price cannot be below the cost, at least not in the long run. The price is, however, very dependent on the structure of the market. Among the most important questions one can ask about the market structure are:

- The degree of concentration of buyers and sellers. Do we have many, a few, or one?
- The degree of product differentiation. Are the products identical to each other, or how different are they from each other?
- Are there any barriers to entry in the market?
- The answers to these questions largely determine which kind of market we get, and this, in turn, largely determines the price. In this chapter, we will look at one type of market, a perfectly competitive market. In later chapters, we will look at other market forms.

**Conditions for Perfect Competition**

For a market to be perfectly competitive, it has to fulfill the following conditions:

- All agents are price takers. No single buyer or seller can affect the price of the good. Everyone takes the price as given, and, depending on the price, decides about quantity. This condition will be true if there are many small buyers and sellers.
- Homogenous products. Each seller's products are identical to every other seller's products. Furthermore, there are no extra costs, such as transportation costs, for some sellers. The buyers are therefore neutral between different sellers.
- All factors of production are completely variable. There are no barriers to entry for new firms or barriers to leave for existing firms.
- All buyers and sellers have complete information about existing alternatives in the market.
- There are no agreements to collude in the market. For instance, the sellers cannot form a cartel.

These conditions are hard to satisfy and few, if any, real markets do that. Even so, the model is very informative and delivers several interesting results. Furthermore, many economists are highly in favor of competition and some of the most important reasons for that will be revealed as we use this model. The goal of an individual firm is to maximize its profit, i.e. the difference between revenues and costs. In the short run, it does that under the restriction that it cannot change the amount of capital.

## 3. Render the following text in English:

**PRODUCTIVITY MEASURES**

It has been said that the challenge of productivity has become a challenge of measurement. Productivity is difficult to measure and can only be measured indirectly, that is, by measuring other variables and then calculating productivity from them. This difficulty in measurement stems from the fact that inputs and outputs are not only difficult to define but are also difficult to quantify.

Any productivity measurement system should produce some sort of overall index of productivity. A smart measurement program combines productivity measurements into an overall rating of performance. This type of system should be flexible in order to accommodate changes in goals and policies over time. It should also have the ability to aggregate the measurement systems of different units into a single system and be able to compare productivity across different units.

The ways in which input and output are measured can provide different productivity measures. Disadvantages of productivity measures have been the distortion of the measure by fixed expenses and also the inability of productivity measures to consider quality changes (e.g., output per hour might increase, but it may cause the defect rate to skyrocket). It is easier to conceive of outputs as tangible units such as number of items produced, but other factors such as quality should be considered.

Experts have cited a need for a measurement program that gives an equal weight to quality as well as productivity. If quality is included in the ratio, output may have to be defined as something like the number of defect-free units of production or the number of units which meet customer expectations or requirements.

The determination of when productivity measures are appropriate performance measures depends on two criteria. The first is the independence of the transformation process from other processes within the organization. Second is the correspondence between the inputs and outputs in the productivity measurement process.

*http://www.enotes.com/productivity-concepts-measures-reference/productivity-concepts-measures*

## CARD 4

## 1. Read and make a written translation of the following text into Russian:

**CAPITAL MOBILITY**

In globalization, all economies are integrated in terms of trade and finance. The money and capital markets of one country get integrated with the money

and capital markets of other countries all over the world. Bonds and stocks are sold and bought among several countries. Therefore, households hold on to their wealth in the forms of physical and financial assets of more than one country. Their yield depends on the capital and money markets and on the monetary and fiscal policies of other countries. With the fixed exchange rate, investors do not face any risks in wealth management or investments. The government's policies are protective and investors hold assets which give more returns. There is therefore equality in the returns in the asset market. But in reality, such markets do not exist.

There are wide differences among countries in terms of their money and capital markets. In India, the money market is seasonal. The demand for cash is high during harvest season. Foreign investments, direct and indirect taxes, government policies - fiscal and monetary policies - are all different, and continuously impact the inflow and outflow of capital. They are directly related to income and unemployment. The interest rates are not the same in all countries. But under the current and capital account convertibility, capital is perfectly mobile internationally. Investors purchase assets/bonds and debentures of any country, and choose such assets and bonds with the lowest transaction costs. In such a situation, a maximum number of people takes the chance to invest money where there are higher returns. There is also competition among countries to bring in more capital flow.

In the global economy, there is no difference among the countries' interest rates. If a difference exists, then capital flow moves in larger quantities in search of the highest returns. International investors always look at the monetary policies and the interest rate behaviors of each country. The balance of payments also gets affected because of the resulting capital outflow. The monetary and fiscal policies of a country affect that country's capital account and balance of payments. Presently, because of globalization, monetary and fiscal policies are not very effective for the trade balance, but the capital account does get affected. Both monetary and fiscal policies may affect domestic as well as foreign economies, usually through policies involving balance of payments changes and capital inflows.

## 2. Render the following text in Russian:

### PRODUCTIVITY AT THE NATIONAL LEVEL

Since productivity is one of the basic variables governing economic production activity some mention of national productivity concerns would be appropriate. As a matter of fact, productivity may be the most important variable governing economic production activity. It is the fundamental controllable factor in wealth production. Since other economic variables depend on it, increasing productivity tends to have a beneficial multiplying effect on other economic variables. This is generally true at every level of economic aggregation.

Productivity growth in the United States lagged that of other leading industrial countries in the 1970s and 1980s. This caused some concern among American government officials and business leaders. Although, the United States' productivity was still among the world's highest, it was losing ground to other nations, most notably Japan, Korea, the United Kingdom, and West Germany.

Concern was especially great in the area of manufacturing; a significant portion of American productivity could be attributed to high agricultural productivity, whereas manufacturing tended to be lower. Productivity in services lagged that of both agriculture and manufacturing. However, the picture may be changing. While the United States' productivity growth slowed during the late twentieth century, it has since increased. With the aspect of automation within service industries, service sector productivity is continually on the increase.

Improving productivity is of national importance because, for a society to increase its standard of living, it must first increase productivity. Overall productivity for individual countries is calculated by dividing output, as measured by GDP or GNP, by the country's total population. Thus, productivity is measured as the dollar value per capita outputs. An increase in this measure of productivity means that each person in the country, on average, produced more goods and services. Also if productivity increases, then profits increase. The resulting profits can then be used to pay for wage increases (inherent in inflation) without having to raise prices. In this way, productivity gains actually help curb inflation.

It has been estimated that technology was responsible for at least half of the growth in productivity in the United States between 1948 and 1966. It would appear, then, that if the United States wants to continue to increase productivity, technology may be the key. Extensive press attention has focused on the factory of the future, where factory workers are being replaced

in order to improve flexibility and productivity. Apparently, the role and importance of productivity will not diminish any time soon.

## 3. Render the following text in English:

**PRODUCTION MANAGEMENT - NATURE OF WORK, EMPLOYMENT AVENUES, STUDY/ TRAINING**

Production management or operations management as it is also called focuses on analytical decision making process for the improvement of quality and productivity. Production management is the process by which the physical output of a business organization is planned and the operations employed to produce the output are directed, coordinated and controlled.

Production management includes the following functions through various subsections. These are - Product research/market research - Development and design - Design specification - Process development - Material procurement - Standardization - Inspection and testing - Quality control - Cost analysis.

**Nature of Work**

**Industrial Production Managers** Industrial production managers coordinate activities related to production of goods and direct the work of first-line supervisors. Due to the variety of goods produced few factories are exactly alike so managers' duties may vary from unit to unit. However, industrial production managers generally have the same major functions regardless of industry. These include responsibility for production scheduling, staffing, equipment, quality control, inventory control and for the coordination of activities with other departments. They usually report to the plant manager. In many plants, one production manager is responsible for all production. In large plants with several operations e.g car assembly, there are managers in charge of each operation, such as machining, assembly, or finishing. Large industrial houses have production departments with a number of lower, middle and higher level personnel. They are addressed as Senior production manager, Deputy production manager and Assistant or Junior production manager. Movement to the position of General Manager or Factory manager is generally from the production department.

*http://www.shiksha.com/getArticleDetail/161/Production-Management-Nature-Of-Work-Employment-Avenues-Study-Training*

## CARD 5

## 1. Read and make a written translation of the following text into Russian:

### ECONOMICS

Economics is often defined as something along the lines of "the study of how society manages its scarce resources." The starting point of most such studies is that individuals allocate their resources such that they themselves will get the highest possible level of utility. An individual has an idea of what the consequences of different actions will be, and she chooses that action she believes will produce the best result for her. She is, in other words, selfish and rational. Note that she is also forward-looking. She acts so that she in the future will get the highest possible level of utility, independently of what she has already done. That she is selfish does not have to mean that she is an egoist. However, it does mean that she will only voluntarily share with others if she believes that she thereby will maximize her own utility. We often call this simplification of human beings Homo Economicus.

The resources that we are talking about here could be labor, capital (such as machines), and raw materials. That they are scarce means there are not enough resources to produce everything we want. That, in turn, means that one has to weight different things against each other. To get more of one thing, one has to give up something else. If you, e.g., want to sleep an extra hour, it is impossible to do so without giving up something else, such as an hour of studying. There is, consequently, a sort of a hidden cost to sleeping longer. This type of cost is called opportunity cost (or alternative cost). A classical saying in economics is that "there is no such thing as a free lunch." This means that, even if you do not actually pay for the lunch, you always have to give up at least the time when you could have done something else. That is, you always have to pay the opportunity cost.

When we study microeconomics, it is primarily individual human beings and individual firms, agents, that we study. This is in contrast to macroeconomics, where one studies whole economies, and questions such as unemployment and inflation.

Roughly speaking, there are three types of decisions that need to be made in an economy: Which goods and services to produce, how to produce them, and who should get them. Often in economic models, the prices of goods (or services, labor, capital, etc.) automatically coordinate these decisions in a market. A market is any mechanism where buyers and sellers meet. That

could be, for example, a market square, a stock exchange, or a computer network where one can buy and sell things.

Microeconomics is often based on models. We try to describe a real phenomenon as simply as possible by only highlighting a few central features. Many economic models can be used for predictions and can therefore be tested against reality. Such models are called positive. The opposite kind of models, models that are about values, is called normative. For example, to decide about an economic policy one would first use positive economics to make assessments about the consequences of different alternatives. Then one would use one's opinions about what is desirable and what is not to choose between the different alternatives. That is then a normative decision.

## 2. Render the following text in Russian:

### IMPLEMENTATION

Once a product is developed and the manufacturing system is designed, it must be implemented, a task often more easily discussed than carried out. IF the system design function was done thoroughly, it will have rendered an implementation plan which will guide activities during implementation. Nonetheless, there will inevitably be changes needed. Decisions will have to be made throughout this implementation period about tradeoffs. For example, the cost of the originally planned conveyor belt may have risen. This change will make it necessary to consider changing the specified conveyor belt for another model. This, of course, will impact upon other systems linked to the conveyor belt and the full implications of all these changes will have to be assessed and compared to the cost of the price increase on the original conveyor belt.

### Planning and Forecasting

Running an efficient production system requires a great deal of planning. Long-range decisions could include the number of facilities required to meet customer needs or studying how technological change might affect the methods used to produce services and goods. The time horizon for long-term planning varies with the industry and is dependent on both complexity and size of proposed changes. Typically, however, long-term planning may

involve determining work force size, developing training programs, working with suppliers to improve product quality and improve delivery systems, and determining the amount of material to order on an aggregate basis. Short-term scheduling, on the other hand, is concerned with production planning for specific job orders (who will do the work, what equipment will be used, which materials will be consumed, when the work will begin and end, and what mode of transportation will be used to deliver the product when the order is completed).

**Managing the System**

Managing the system involves working with people to encourage participation and improve organizational performance. Participative management and teamwork are an essential part of successful operations, as are leadership, training, and culture. In addition, material management and quality are two key areas of concern.

Material management includes decisions regarding the procurement, control, handling, storage, and distribution of materials. Material management is becoming more important because, in many organizations, the costs of purchased materials comprise more than 50 percent of the total production cost. Questions regarding quantities and timing of material orders need to be addressed here as well when companies weigh the qualities of various suppliers.

*http://www.encyclopedia.com/topic/Production_management.aspx*

## 3. Render the following text in English:

**DESIGNING THE SYSTEM**

Designing the system begins with product development. Product development involves determining the characteristics and features of the product or service to be sold. It should begin with an assessment of customer needs and eventually grow into a detailed product design. The facilities and equipment used in production, as well as the information systems needed to monitor and control performance, are all a part of this system design process. In fact, manufacturing process decisions are integral to the ultimate success or failure of the system. Of all the structural decisions that the operations manager makes, the one likely to have the greatest impact on the operation's

success is choice of the process technology. This decision answers the basic question: How will the product be made?

*Product design* is a critical task because it helps to determine the characteristics and features of the product, as well as how the product functions. Product design determines a product's cost and quality, as well as its features and performance. These are important factors on which customers make purchasing decisions. In recent years, new design models such as Design for Manufacturing and Assembly (DFMA) have been implemented to improve product quality and lower costs. DFMA focuses on operating issues during product design. This can be critical even though design costs are a small part of the total cost of a product, because, procedures that waste raw materials or duplicate effort can have a substantial negative impact on a business's operating profitability. Another innovation similar to DFMA in its emphasis on design is Quality Functional Deployment (QFD). QFD is a set of planning and communication routines that are used to improve product design by focusing design efforts on customer needs.

*Process design* describes how the product will be made. The process design decision has two major components: a technical (or engineering) component and a scale economy (or business) component. The technical component includes selecting equipment and selecting a sequence for various phases of operational production.

The scale economy or business component involves applying the proper amount of mechanization (tools and equipment) to make the organization's work force more productive. This includes determining: 1) If the demand for a product is large enough to justify mass production; 2) If there is sufficient variety in customer demand so that flexible production systems are required; and 3) If demand for a product is so small or seasonal that it cannot support a dedicated production facility.

*http://www.encyclopedia.com/topic/Production_management.aspx*

## CARD 6

## 1. Read and make a written translation of the following text into Russian:

**THE EXCHANGE RATE**

## The fixed exchange rate

The fixed exchange rate is defined as the system in which the central bank is ready to buy and sell currency at a fixed price in terms of all the other countries' currencies. The central bank buys and sells any amount of currency at a given price. To be able to correct the balance of payments, the central bank intervenes in the foreign exchange market, mainly by buying or selling foreign currency. In order to insure the price, the excess supply is taken away at a fixed price while excess demand is filled at the same price. Such practice exists in agricultural commodity markets. The government ensures the prices with the available supply of and demand for the commodities. The government purchases the agricultural commodities from farmers at fixed prices but sells the same commodities at a higher price. In India, this is called the minimum support price for crops. The reserve bank holds the necessary reserves to maintain the currency at a fixed rate. Doing so helps keep the economy stable. But a fixed exchange rate suffers from a number of limitations. It does not represent the true picture of the economy. Sometimes, the currency is overregulated.

## The flexible exchange rate

The reserve bank cannot intervene in the foreign exchange market of the global economies. Most economies are open to trade with all countries. The domestic currency is freely allowed to flow with other currencies. The exchange rate is flexible and more dependent on the current and capital accounts. Such demand for and supply of foreign currency decide the value of the domestic currency. Countries with less flexible exchange rate regimes may stand to benefit the most from regulatory policies that reduce incentives for banks to tap external markets and to lend/in foreign currency. These policies include marginal reserve requirements on foreign lending currency, dependent liquidity requirements and higher capital requirements and/or dynamic provisioning on foreign exchange loans.

Most of the time, the exchange rate is allowed to freely determine the value of the domestic currency in the foreign exchange market. The central bank does not intervene in the foreign exchange market. The official reserves of foreign currency are kept at zero. The current account, along with the capital account, is freely adjusted. Such clean floating of the exchange rate does not exist in the modern world. Most of the exchange rates are managed. Under the managed/dirty floating exchange rate, the reserve bank buys or sells the foreign currency in order to correct the foreign exchange market. Such practices are regularly observed in the foreign exchange market. Under floating exchange rates, the exchange rate is determined together with the

interest rate in the financial sector. This reflects the importance of international financial capital flows relative to flows in goods and services which in the modern world are very small in comparison. Thus, the most important factors determining exchange rates are not the competitiveness of goods and services, but the stock of money and the stock of bonds outstanding and the level of income.

## 2. Render the following text in Russian:

### IMPROVING PRODUCTIVITY

Productivity improvement can be achieved in a number of ways. If the level of output is increased faster than that of input, productivity will increase. Conversely, productivity will be increased if the level of input is decreased faster than that of output. Also, an organization may realize a productivity increase from producing more output with the same level of input. Finally, producing more output with a reduced level of input will result in increased productivity.

Any of these scenarios may be realized through improved methods, investment in machinery and technology, improved quality, and improvement techniques and philosophies such as just-in-time, total quality management, lean production, supply chain management principles, and theory of constraints.

A firm or department may undertake a number of key steps toward improving productivity. William J. Stevenson (1999) lists these steps to productivity improvement:

- Develop productivity measures for all operations; measurement is the first step in managing and controlling an organization.
- Look at the system as a whole in deciding which operations are most critical, it is over-all productivity that is important.
- Develop methods for achieving productivity improvement, such as soliciting ideas from workers (perhaps organizing teams of workers, engineers, and managers), studying how other firms have increased productivity, and reexamining the way work is done.
- Establish reasonable goals for improvement.

- Make it clear that management supports and encourages productivity improvement. Consider incentives to reward workers for contributions.
- Measure improvements and publicize them.
- Don't confuse productivity with efficiency. Efficiency is a narrower concept that pertains to getting the most out of a given set of resources; productivity is a broader concept that pertains to use of overall resources. For example, an efficiency perspective on mowing the lawn given a hand mower would focus on the best way to use the hand mower; a productivity perspective would include the possibility of using a power mower.

As a cautionary word, organizations must be careful not to focus solely on productivity as the driver for the organization. Organizations must consider overall competitive ability. Firm success is categorized by quality, cycle time, reasonable lead time, innovation, and a host of other factors directed at improving customer service and satisfaction.

*http://www.enotes.com/productivity-concepts-measures-reference/productivity-concepts-measures*

## 3. Render the following text in English:

**THE COST OF EMPLOYEE DISENGAGEMENT**

The cost of employee disengagement is profound. In the aggregate, employee disengagement is estimated to cost the US economy as much as 350 billion dollars per year in lost productivity, accidents, theft and turnover1. For organizations, the difference between an engaged and disengaged workforce can ultimately mean success or failure. At the individual level, engagement at work influences all aspects of an employee's life and those that are close to him or her. It is no stretch to say that the economy (and therefore the nation as a whole) businesses and society have an equal stake in ensuring that the American worker is engaged at the highest levels possible.

Most leaders and organizations know the difference between a fully engaged worker and one that is marginally engaged or disengaged. The former brim with enthusiasm, they contribute ideas, are optimistic

about the company and its future, are seldom absent from work, they typically stay with the organization longer and are among the organization's most valuable ambassadors.

Disengaged workers, on the other hand, are often absent (even when they are at work). They are disconnected and often pessimistic about change and new ideas. They have high rates of absenteeism and tend to negatively influence those around them, including potential customers and new hires.

Disengaged workers cost organizations money in many ways. The most important difference between engaged and disengaged workers, however, is productivity. Engaged and disengaged workers of equal skills, knowledge and abilities do not contribute equally. Engaged workers are significantly more productive. Moreover, where they interact with customers, they are much more likely to create relationships that generate loyalty and increased business. And when they interact with other employees or prospective employees, they are more likely to convey enthusiasm and a positive message about the organization.

*http://www.enterpriseengagement.org/articles/content/8288917/the-economics-of-engagement/*

## CARD 7

## 1. Read and make a written translation of the following text into Russian:

**FUNCTIONS OF MONEY**

There are four functions performed by money, namely:

1. Medium of exchange
Money is used in all transactions. The value of all commodities and services are converted into money. These days, commodities are no longer exchanged for commodities but money is paid for each commodity. All human beings carry cash and pay for the commodity with money. Money is used as a medium of exchange.

2. Unit of account

Money is used as a medium of exchange. It is a scarce commodity. Therefore, money has to be accountable. A detail record is kept of moneys paid and moneys received. Receipts of money are added into the credit account while payments are added into the debit account. The account summary of debit and credit is regularly available for all transactions. The debits are paid from the credits and the balance is maintained. Money is used for accounting purposes. How much your employer will pay you in wages, how much you owe the bank, how much a firm has earned and how much a bond is worth are all recorded in some unit of account (Gordon 1998).

3. Store of value

Money, as a medium of exchange, is stored to pay for goods and services. Money is easily stored either in the house or in the bank. The value of money stored may change with inflation. If an interest rate adjustment does not take place, then the money value remains the same for a long period. Most of the time, money is stored in the form of savings or wealth. Such wealth is often used in the future.

4. Standard of deferred payment

Money has an important feature that it is a standard of deferred payment. Money can be paid in the future. A lot of people buy goods and services now but pay for them in the future.

**Money stock measures**

There are two views of measuring money stock. The traditional view favors transaction theories; it ultimately leads to a narrow measure of the money stock. The asset theory emphasizes a 'broader' measure of money. Therefore, money has no fixed measure and is measured as a matter of judgment or preference. There are different financial and real assets which can be arranged in descending order with reference to liquidity. The currency and demand deposits are the most liquid of assets, and make up money. Time deposits and government bonds are liquid assets but they cannot be converted into money without incurring some costs. At the bottom of the liquidity continuum lie automobiles, real estate and the like; these can be liquidated at short notice only at a substantial cost. The monetary authorities all over the world provide alternative measures of money, leaving the choice to individual researchers and to the dictates of specific situations. At present, most of the central banks classify the monetary aggregates which are the functional characteristics of monetary assets.

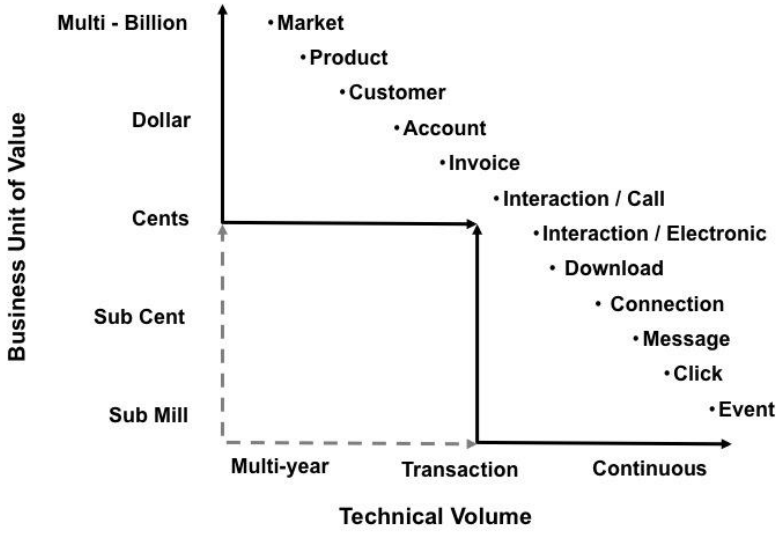
## 2. Render the following text in Russian:

**ENTERPRISE ECONOMICS, ONE OF THE DIMENSIONS OF DIGITAL DISRUPTION**

*by Mark P. McDonald April 17, 2012*

Digital technologies open new avenues for companies to disrupt competitors and markets. The prior post outlined three dimensions of disruption: access, enterprise economics and performance. This post focused on enterprise economics as a dimension of digital disruption.

Digital technologies disrupt economics at multiple levels by upsetting the balance between volume and value by creating a geometrically higher volume of transactions, with each transaction having a geometrically smaller value.




This is the basis for digital disaggregation of analog resources and assets that drove the first wave of eCommerce.

The music industry is often used, but helpful example. Take a single record album — the Beatles' "Abbey Road" — as an example. In brick-and-mortar

stores, the physical album's original 10 songs existed as a single bundle worth, say, $12.99.

This is a low-volume item with a high value compared to its digital counterpart of 17 songs, each selling for $1.29. These "micro-transactions" are possible because bits are cheaper to create, store and manage than atoms. This may be the basis for the efficiencies of e- commerce operations, but it is not necessarily the basis for new digitalized business models.

The emerging digital environment, the one coming from digitalizing business rather than digitalizing transactions is creating more opportunities for firms to disrupt each others economics beyond simple disaggregation and reassembly.

A firm disrupts its and competitor enterprise economics by changing how customers and companies assign, attribute and earn value.

The term, enterprise economics is intentionally broad as digital disruption covers a range of strategies from transforming pricing to redefining customer/market units and profit pools. This ranges from current approaches related to selling access (a.k.a. advertising) to attracting premium customer via so-called 'freemium.' Both are viable digitally enabled economic models, but they are applicable in a limited number of circumstance.

- Advertising revenues only work when you are able to attract economies of attention to drive scale economies in micro-revenues. Few firms have the millions of people, attention, eyeballs, etc., to make this model a cornerstone of their strategy. Even specialty firms, those with 'high value' eyeballs use digital advertising as secondary source of revenue.

- Freemium models are likewise limited in their application to firms that are able to support a large group of free users against relatively low conversion rates for premium services. While digital operations are cost-efficient enough for the business to carry nonpaying customers, the viability of the freemium model depends on a sustainable conversion ratio and a business having technology that is "too cheap to charge for." LinkedIn, for example, has the wherewithal to market, sell and serve a base in which only 15% of customers pay for 100% of the cost of operations (the estimated

conversion rate for customers of LinkedIn's premier services). Not everyone is so fortunate.

*http://blogs.gartner.com/mark_mcdonald/2012/04/17/enterprise-economics-one-of-the-dimensions-of-digital-disruption/*

## 3. Render the following text in English:

**WORK ENVIRONMENT**

Industrial production managers have to divide their time between the shop floor and their office. While on the floor, they follow established health and safety practices and wear the required protective clothing and equipment. The time in the office, located on or near the production floor, is usually spent meeting with subordinates or other department managers analysing production data, and writing and reviewing reports. Most industrial production managers work overtime especially when production deadlines must be met. Managers may have to work in shifts or may be called at any hour to deal with emergencies. Occasionally, this may mean going to the plant to resolve the problem, regardless of the hour, and staying until the situation is under control. Dealing with production workers as well as supervisors when working under pressure of production deadlines or emergency situations can be stressful.

**Employment Avenues**

Project manager, logistics planner or manager of manufacturing or service operations are typical positions. An operations or productions specialisation can be more valuable when combined with marketing or finance. For consumer goods' firms people with first degree (graduation) related to the industry along with an MBA degree are required e.g in food industry the production unit would have food technologists, nutrition experts with management backgrounds while in a toys factory it could be a plastic technologist or only an MBA. In engineering firms people enter with an engineering degree and may also have a Masters in Business Administration. Productions and operations graduates are hired by multinational firms also with training in the application of mathematical models and decision making, and the fundamental base of knowledge essential to quantitative decision-making essential in today's business environment. Employment is open

practically in any field where an organisation is striving to achieve its objectives.

*http://www.shiksha.com/getArticleDetail/161/Production-Management-Nature-Of-Work-Employment-Avenues-Study-Training*

## CARD 8

## 1. Read and make a written translation of the following text into Russian:

### FACTORS INFLUENCING PRODUCTIVITY

Productivity is outcome of several interrelated factors, which may broadly be divided into two categories- human factors and technological factors.
1. Human Factors: Human nature and human behaviour are the most significant determinants of productivity. Human factors include both their ability as well as their willingness:
(a) Ability to work: Productivity of an organization depends upon the competence and caliber of its people-both workers and managers Ability to work is governed by education, training, experience, aptitude, etc. of the employees.
(b) Willingness to work: Motivation and morale of people are very important factors that determine productivity. These are affected by wage incentive schemes, labour participation in management, communication systems, informal group relations, promotion policy, union management relations, quality of leadership, working hours, sanitation, ventilation, subsidized canteen, company transport, etc.
2. Technological Factors: Technological factors exert significant influence on the level of productivity.
3. Managerial factors: The competence and attitudes of managers have an important bearing on productivity. In many organizations, productivity is low despite latest technology and trained manpower. This is due to inefficient and indifferent management. Competent and dedicated managers can obtain extraordinary results from ordinary people. Job performance of employees depends on their ability and willingness to work. Management is the catalyst to create both.
Advanced technology requires knowledgeable workers who in turn work productively under professionally qualified managers. No ideology can win a

greater output with less effort. It is only through sound management that optimum utilization of human and technical resources can be secured.
4. Natural Factors: natural factors such as physical, geographical and climate conditions exert considerable influence on productivity, particularly in extreme climates (too cold or too hot) tends to be comparatively low. Natural resources like water, fuel and minerals influence productivity.
5. Sociological Factors: Social customs, traditions and institutions influence attitudes towards work and job. For instance, bias on the basis of caste, religion, etc., inhibited the growth of modern industry in some countries. The joint family system affected incentive to work hard in India. Close ties with land and native place hampered stability and discipline among industrial labour.
6. Political Factors: Law and order, stability of Government, harmony between States, etc. are essential for high productivity in industries Taxation policies of the Government influence willingness to work, capital formation, modernization and expansion of plants etc. Industrial policy affects the size, and capacity of plants. Tariff policies influence competition. Elimination of sick and inefficient units also helps to improve productivity.
7. Economic Factors: Size of the market, banking and credit facilities, transport and communication systems, etc. is important factors influencing productivity.

*http://www.du.ac.in/fileadmin/DU/Academics/course_material/EP_09.pdf*

## 2. Render the following text in Russian:

**PRODUCTIVITY MEASURES**

It has been said that the challenge of productivity has become a challenge of measurement. Productivity is difficult to measure and can only be measured indirectly, that is, by measuring other variables and then calculating productivity from them. This difficulty in measurement stems from the fact that inputs and outputs are not only difficult to define but are also difficult to quantify. Any productivity measurement system should produce some sort of overall index of productivity. A smart measurement program combines productivity measurements into an overall rating of performance. This type of system should be flexible in order to accommodate changes in goals and policies over time. It should also have the ability to aggregate the measurement systems of different units into a single system and be able to compare productivity across different units.

The ways in which input and output are measured can provide different productivity measures. Disadvantages of productivity measures have been the distortion of the measure by fixed expenses and also the inability of productivity measures to consider quality changes (e.g., output per hour might increase, but it may cause the defect rate to skyrocket). It is easier to conceive of outputs as tangible units such as number of items produced, but other factors such as quality should be considered. Experts have cited a need for a measurement program that gives an equal weight to quality as well as productivity. If quality is included in the ratio, output may have to be defined as something like the number of defect-free units of production or the number of units which meet customer expectations or requirements. The determination of when productivity measures are appropriate performance measures depends on two criteria. The first is the independence of the transformation process from other processes within the organization. Second is the correspondence between the inputs and outputs in the productivity measurement process.

**Total factor productivity**

A broader gauge of productivity, total factor productivity is measured by combining the effects of all the resources used in the production of goods and services (labor, capital, raw material, energy, etc.) and dividing it into the output. As such the formula would appear as:
or One example, is a ratio computed by adding standard hours of labor actually produced, plus the standard machine hours actually produced in a given time period divided by the actual hours available for both labor and machines in the time period.

*http://www.enotes.com/productivity-concepts-measures-reference/productivity-concepts-measures*

## 3. Render the following text in English:

**MARKETS ADJUST TO ANAEMIC ECONOMY**

*15 November 2012 By Laurence Knight Business reporter, BBC News*

Global stock markets fell again on Wednesday, continuing a four-week-long slide, as investors lowered their expectations for the global recovery. Key unresolved issues are the US fiscal cliff, Greece's bid to stay in the euro, and

China's leadership change. The US markets were underwhelmed by hints by the Federal Reserve that it may resume monetary stimulus. The S&P 500 - the US shares index most closely followed by the market - fell 1.4%, bringing its total slide to 7.3%. The Japanese and European markets are down by about 4% since 18 October.

**Tepid recovery**

In the US, President Obama made clear at a press conference on Wednesday that he was not willing to countenance any further extension to Bush-era tax cuts for the top 2% income earners in the US. He rejected Republican offers to make high earners pay more tax by closing loopholes rather than raising tax rates. If the two sides fail to reach a compromise, automatic spending cuts and tax rises, dubbed the "fiscal cliff" will kick in on 1 January - something the International Monetary Fund has warned could knock four percentage points off the US growth rate. The federal government would also run perilously close to the statutory limit on its borrowing ability, forcing it to choose between ignoring the limit or reneging on one of its spending obligations. However, even if a compromise is reached, the US economic recovery is widely expected to remain tepid, despite recent encouraging signs from the housing market.

Minutes from the Federal Reserve's latest meeting released on Wednesday suggested the central bank was readying to buy up more long-term government debt if US unemployment fails to fall quickly enough and inflation remains subdued. Despite the news of more monetary stimulus, the market continued to slide, reflecting a growing consensus among investors that the Fed's policies are becoming less effective.

*http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/business-20334354*

## CARD 9

## 1. Read and make a written translation of the following text into Russian:

**MONEY: DEFINITION AND FUNCTION**

In traditional societies, goods were exchanged for goods. But even today, the barter system is still practiced in some rural areas. Due to the monetization of the economy, the use of money has increased. There are three approaches to the demand for money developed by the Classical, Cambridge and Keynesian approaches. Money is supplied in the economy on a regular basis by the reserve bank. The determinants of money and the velocity of the circulation of money determine the total volume of money in the economy.

In traditional societies, not the actual money but its proxy was used in all transactions. There were various forms of money: commodity, representative or credit money. These forms of money are explained as follows:

1. **Commodity money**

In ancient times, the barter system existed in societies. People exchanged commodities for commodities through a common agreement between two parties. The net gain from sharing of commodities was assumed to be equal for both parties. Such transactions were practiced for a long time in the developing countries. But there are a number of limitations. Some commodities were not perfectly divisible. One party may want to exchange commodities for another commodity which was indivisible; for example, animals such as pigs and cattle were often considered as commodities. Secondly, there was an absence of a common value in multi-commodities trade. If all commodities were exchanged for other commodities, it was difficult to determine and remember the value of one commodity when exchanged for another Thirdly, perishable commodities could not be substituted for other commodities. They could not be stored for long periods of time nor carried over long distances. Due to all these limitations, commodity money use declined and almost disappeared.

2. **Representative money**

Representative money is any type of money that has a face value greater than its value as a material, such as precious stones and metals like gold or silver, which were used extensively in ancient transactions. Such a representative money was used in commodity transactions. Representative money also suffered from a number of limitations; one of which was that some representative commodities were overvalued while other commodities were undervalued. Also, representative money was limited in quantity and therefore, not available for common transactions which people required all the time.

3. **Credit money**

Most of the commodities were exchanged based on a credit basis. Other assets such as land, houses, and factories were also used in the exchange of

commodities. But such commodities were not liquid and available for the masses. Therefore, credit money had severe limitations for it to be used extensively in commodities exchanges.

## 2. Render the following text in Russian:

### WHAT IS "EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT"?

Employee engagement is the level of commitment and involvement an employee has towards their organization and its values (Vazirani, 2007). Engagement is the willingness and ability to contribute to company success, the extent to which employees put discretionary effort into their work, in the form of extra time, brainpower and energy (Towers Perrin, 2007). Often used as a synonym for motivation or motivation and retention; engagement is really more fundamental. Engagement is an employee's decision to apply his discretionary effort to the goals of the enterprise, to accept those goals as his own and wholeheartedly commit himself to achieving them. (Fineman & Carter 2007).

According to a 2008 study by Gallup, about 54 percent of employees in the United States are not engaged and 17 percent are disengaged. Only 29 percent are engaged. In December 2008, Towers Perrin's Global Workforce Study of almost 100,000 employees in 20 countries found that only 22% of the US workforce is engaged, 66% not engaged and 11% disengaged.

We have discussed engaged and disengaged workers but what is a "not-engaged" worker? These employees occupy the middle ground and are normally the majority in most organizations. They tend to concentrate on tasks rather than the goals and outcomes they are expected to accomplish. They often want to be told what to do just so they can do it and say they have finished. They focus on accomplishing tasks vs. achieving an outcome. Employees who are not-engaged tend to feel their contributions are being overlooked, and their potential is not being tapped. They often feel this way because they don't have productive relationships with their managers or with their coworkers.

In our assessment, there also exists another category of workers, the "actively disengaged." Though a small minority (because they typically leave voluntarily) while they are in the organization, they can do tremendous damage. They are often disruptive and negative toward the organization and its mission. They're not just unhappy at work; they're busy acting out their unhappiness. They sow seeds of negativity at every opportunity. Every day, actively disengaged workers undermine what their engaged coworkers accomplish. As workers increasingly rely on each other to generate products and services, the problems and tensions that are fostered by actively disengaged workers can cause great damage to an organization's functioning. If an organization cannot change these employees quickly, they should terminate them. Some actively disengaged workers have no intention of leaving voluntarily, in effect, they "quit and stay".

*http://www.enterpriseengagement.org/articles/content/8288917/the-economics-of-engagement/*

## 3. Render the following text in English:

**QUALITY CONTROL IN SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES**

It is quite possible that a small-scale entrepreneur, especially of barefoot type, may not be conversant with the techniques described above. But then concern for quality is not technique dependent. The entrepreneur may exercise considerable influence on quality via personal observation and direct intervention. For example, a roadside eating joint or a restaurateur may personally supervise the ingredients that go into the preparation of food and sample check the ultimate dishes before they are served. He may even oversee the waiters or usherers to personally monitor food and beverage services. However, as the organization grows, the cult of quality must spread to the grass root level and the entrepreneur may be well advised to put in place the applicable quality systems. International Organisation for Standards (ISO) has come up with series of quality standards e.g., ISO-9000 in this regard. It may be pointed out that adherence to ISO specifications is an absolute must for the exporting entrepreneurs. Attainment of quality necessitates fostering good management practices. The entrepreneur may be well advised to be aware of such measures as quality circles, kaizen

(continuous improvement), benchmarking and so on. Most importantly, the entrepreneur has to come out of the mindset that quality is an expensive proposition; experience suggests that quality improvement practices pay for themselves.

In India, Bureau of Indian Standards (BIS) has been doing a great service by prescribing quality standards for a large number of products. It not only prescribes but also persuades small industries to adhere to quality of their products. In the small scale sector quality control is based on four parameters:

(a) Indian standards specifications
(b) Quality marketing schemes
(c) Company standards for ancillary units
(d) Standards specified by government purchasing agencies

The following Indian Standards have been published so far for controlling quality of products manufactured by small units

(a) Methods of statistical quality control during the production period;
(b) Manual on basic principles of lot sampling and
(c) Sampling inspection tables

Several State Governments have also been operating quality marketing schemes and standards for various products of small-scale industries. When the small units manufacture their products according to the standards set, the Quality Marketing Centers of the Government stamp the "O" mark on their products. This is an assurance for the customers that the product has been manufactured adhering to certain quality standards.

*.http://www.du.ac.in/fileadmin/DU/Academics/course_material/EP_09.pdf*

## CARD 10

## 1. Read and make a written translation of the following text into Russian:

**MONEY: CONCEPT AND DEFINITION**

Money is any object that is accepted as a method of payment for goods and services. It is a medium of exchange. Money is sometimes defined as a store of value. The important characteristics of money are as follows:

1. Acceptability

Money has universal acceptability. The coins are supplied by the government. The currency notes are supplied by the reserve bank. Therefore,

money is widely acceptable to people despite its unique size, shape and color for every country.

2. Durability

Money is durable and cannot be easily destroyed. If money is to be kept for a long time then it must retain its color and shape for long periods. Durability depends on the quality of paper, color, size, etc. Even though it is exchanged and circulated in the economy, money remains durable and usable for long periods of time.

3. Divisibility

Money is perfectly divisible. It means that money can be converted into different forms of notes. A five-hundred-rupee note is easily exchanged for fifty ten-rupee notes. It can be used to pay an actual amount for goods and services purchased. Such divisibility facilitates commerce and trade. Easy divisibility of money is an important feature of money.

4. Uniformity

Money is uniform in that it has a consistent shape, size, color, etc. Money can be used in all transactions because it is uniform. Money in the form of currency is available to all the people. Uniform money helps people identify money within a short period of time. The money printed in the past and present are in the same form. If old coins or notes are going out of circulation, or undergo any change in size or shape, the people will be so informed in the newspapers and other media in a timely manner.

5. Recognizability

People can easily recognize and identify money and use money when needed. Even small children recognize money. Money is used in regular transactions all over the world.

6. Scarcity

Money is scarce and not easily available. In order to get money, a person has to take on debt, borrow or work for it. Farmers have to produce commodities in their farms. Industries must produce goods. Money cannot be transferred easily from one person to another. The scarcity factor forces money to be used wisely because it has alternative uses. If money were cheap and too easily available, the monetary authority will decide to reduce its supply through monetary policies and instruments.

7. Stability

Money provides stability for individuals as well as economies. Scarce money can be saved and used when required. During economic crises and recessions, money needs to be used wisely so the crisis can be converted into an opportunity. More stability is expected with more money. Therefore, all people like to earn money and store it for future needs.

## 2. Render the following text in Russian:

### PRODUCTIVITY AND PRODUCTION MANAGEMENT

*By Ismael D. Tabije*

In economics, productivity is the amount of output created (in terms of goods produced or services rendered) per unit input used. For instance, labor productivity is typically measured as output per worker or output per labor-hour. Production, however, is the act of making things; in particular the act of making products that will be traded or sold commercially.

Production decisions concentrate on what goods to produce, how to produce them, the costs of producing them, and optimizing the mix of resource inputs used in their production. Productivity and production management is the art of conducting and directing, through the application of frameworks and techniques, all aspects and operations of developing, creating, and innovating products. Productivity and production management's ultimate goal is the efficient consumption and allocation of resource inputs to maximize the quality and quantity of goods produced or services rendered.

To improve productivity and production management, organizations should use forecasts on demand to preordain production plans. Through it, miscalculations could be sidestepped. Businesses that produce to order would be able to supervise the backlog of unfilled orders, while those that produce to stock would be enabled to observe and control the level of inventory. Forecasting capabilities could be enhanced by way of incorporating excellent information technology.

Another tool for enhancement is standardization—a necessary foundation on which innovations can be focused. Standardizing methods can be implemented by prognosticating revolution on product and on process. These involve methodologies such as process reengineering and major product redesign, both requiring process automation. Some enterprises

choose to do small upgrading at a time to minimize the cost of these processes.

Another way to improve productivity and production management is keeping managers vigilant of the factors that constitute problems regarding quality, cost and time in the production area. The most popular approaches are lean manufacturing and workplace improvement. Both approaches encourage worker and management collaboration emanating mutual respect; and straightforward and transparent improvement methodologies.

*http://www.simplysearch4it.com/article/51236.html*

## 3. Render the following text in English:

*13 November 2012*

**GREECE SECURES SHORT-TERM FINANCE**

The Greek government has managed to sell 4.06bn euros ($5.15bn; £3.24bn) of treasury bills, which are very short-term bonds. It sold the one-month bills at an interest rate of 3.95% and the three-month bonds at 4.2%. The money is needed to cover 5bn euros of old treasury bills, which are due for payment on Friday. Greece needs to raise the money this way because it has not yet received the next tranche of its bailout loans. The remaining 940m euros needed will be raised over the next few days, but not through auctions. Eurozone ministers agreed earlier in the week to give Greece two more years, until 2016, to meet its deficit-reduction targets. But they delayed a decision on releasing the latest 31.5bn-euro tranche of bailout funds. The ministers will meet again on 20 November to discuss releasing the latest installment of bailout funds. Greece had been pushing for the funds to be released after passing a tough budget for 2013, including further cuts to pensions and wages, in a vote on Sunday night. The interest rate paid on the three-month bills was slightly lower than at the last auction, when the rate was 4.24%. There was no comparable rate for the one-month bills.

**Avoiding default**

Demand for the three-month bills was slightly down on the last auction, with coverage of 1.66 times, down from 1.90 in October. The Greek programme that was debated last night by eurozone ministers involves spending cuts and tax rises worth 7% of GDP in 2013-14, the majority in the first year" The debt that needs to be repaid on Friday was incurred at an auction of three-month bills in August. That auction, in turn, was also needed to avoid a default, because of delays in the payment of bailout loans from the troika of the European Central Bank, International Monetary Fund and European Union. The latest 31.5bn-euro tranche will have to be approved by some national parliaments, including Germany's. There is a continuing debate in Europe about whether, in addition to giving Greece extra time to reduce its deficit, it should also get extra time to cut its debt. The deficit is the amount of money it is spending in a year over and above what it is earning through taxation, while the debt is the total amount it owes. Some eurozone finance ministers have argued that Greece should be allowed until 2022 to reduce its debt to 120% of its GDP, which is the total amount produced by the economy. But the International Monetary Fund has said that the existing deadline of 2020 should remain.

*http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/business-20311701*

## CARD 11

## 1. Read and make a written translation of the following text into Russian:

The **components** or functions of production management are as follows:

1. Selection of Product and Design,
2. Selection of Production Process,
3. Selecting Right Production Capacity,
4. Production Planning,
5. Production Control,
6. Quality and Cost Control,

7. Inventory Control, and
8. Maintenance and Replacement of Machines

The above functions of production management are briefly discussed below.

**1. Selection of Product and Design**

Production management first selects the right product for production. Then it selects the right design for the product. Care must be taken while selecting the product and design because the survival and success of the company depend on it. The product must be selected only after detailed evaluation of all the other alternative products. After selecting the right product, the right design must be selected. The design must be according to the customers' requirements. It must give the customers maximum value at the lowest cost. So, production management must use techniques such as value engineering and value analysis.

**2. Selection of Production Process**

Production management must select the right production process. They must decide about the type of technology, machines, material handling system, etc.

**3. Selecting Right Production Capacity**

Production management must select the right production capacity to match the demand for the product. This is because more or less capacity will create problems. The production manager must plan the capacity for both short and long term's production. He must use break-even analysis for capacity planning.

**4. Production Planning**

Production management includes production planning. Here, the production manager decides about the routing and scheduling.

**Routing** means deciding the path of work and the sequence of operations. The main objective of routing is to find out the best and most economical sequence of operations to be followed in the manufacturing process. Routing ensures a smooth flow of work.

**Scheduling** means to decide when to start and when to complete a particular production activity.

**5. Production Control**

Production management also includes production control. The manager has to monitor and control the production. He has to find out whether the actual production is done as per plans or not. He has to compare actual production with the plans and finds out the deviations. He then takes necessary steps to correct these deviations.

**6. Quality and Cost Control**

Production management also includes quality and cost control. Quality and Cost Control are given a lot of importance in today's competitive world. Customers all over the world want good-quality products at cheapest prices. To satisfy this demand of consumers, the production manager must continuously improve the quality of his products. Along with this, he must also take essential steps to reduce the cost of his products.

**7. Inventory Control**

Production management also includes inventory control. The production manager must monitor the level of inventories. There must be neither over stocking nor under stocking of inventories.

If there is an **overstocking**, then the working capital will be blocked, and the materials may be spoiled, wasted or misused.

If there is an **understocking**, then production will not take place as per schedule, and deliveries will be affected.

**8. Maintenance and Replacement of Machines**

Production management ensures proper maintenance and replacement of machines and equipments. The production manager must have an efficient system for continuous inspection (routine checks), cleaning, oiling, maintenance and replacement of machines, equipments, spare parts, etc. This prevents breakdown of machines and avoids production halts.

*http://kalyan-city.blogspot.ru/2011/12/functions-of-production-management.html*

## 2. Render the following text in Russian:

**QUALITY INFRASTRUCTURE -A PREREQUISITE FOR BUSINESS**

Standards and quality have been part of human society since ancient times. Not only are they likely to stay, but experience also shows that they increasingly shape commercial prospects for developing and transition economies.

In one form or another, they have always underpinned trade and business. Standards support compatibility and can drive down costs through the use of common parts, specifications and methods.

They can facilitate the creation of new industries and allow new technologies to be exploited. They are also crucial to realizing and maintaining market access.

Over the past decades, standards and related concepts have gained in importance and have become subject to more and more scientific and technological scrutiny and definitions. At the same time, the business world and society have been changing rapidly. Because of global trade, many of today's products are built with components sourced from around the world, which must fit together and perform as expected. Product life cycles are becoming shorter and the pace of technological development is accelerating. Consumers are demanding ever higher levels of safety, performance, reliability and sustainability. All these have to be facilitated by an effective and efficient network of service providers known as the quality infrastructure (QI).

**What is a quality infrastructure?**

The national quality infrastructure (NQI) can be understood as the totality of the institutional framework (public or private) required to establish and implement standardization, metrology (scientific, industrial and legal) and the accreditation and conformity assessment services (inspection, testing, and product and system certification) necessary to provide acceptable evidence that products and services meet defined requirements, whether these are imposed by the authorities (in technical regulations and sanitary and phytosanitary measures) or the marketplace (i.e. contractually or inferred).

A simplified model identifies five main components of an NQI: standardization, testing, metrology, certification and accreditation, which are

closely related and depend on each other. Enterprises need to manufacture products according to the standards, technical regulations and sanitary and phytosanitary measures prevailing in their export markets; they need to be able to use testing laboratories to determine compliance of their products; these laboratories should have access to metrology and calibration services to ensure that their test equipment are giving reliable results.

*http://www.intracen.org/uploadedFiles/intracenorg/Content/Publications/Export%20Quality%20Management_web.pdf*

## 3. Render the following text in English:

### 'QUALITY FADE': CHINA'S GREAT BUSINESS CHALLENGE

*Published: July 25, 2007 in Knowledge@Wharton*

Numerous news stories this past month have focused on concerns about the quality and safety of certain Chinese exports. In this opinion piece, Paul Midler, founder and president of China Advantage, a services firm that provides outsourcing and supply chain management to U.S. and European companies, discusses what he calls "quality fade" in China, which he defines as "the deliberate and secretive habit of widening profit margins through a reduction in the quality of materials."

Recent media reports detailing a series of quality problems with Chinese-made exports -- pet food tainted with prohibited chemicals, toys covered with lead paint and tires that fall apart at high speed -- have understandably alarmed the American public and resulted in a number of international product recalls. But supply chain professionals not directly affected by these recalls remain unusually calm. "Everything will be all right," said one U.S. importer on a buying mission to China. "As the country continues to develop, the quality of its products will naturally rise."

It's the sort of comment that sounds logical, but is not necessarily true. Quality does not always rise over time, as China's own history shows. At the end of the 19th century, the West rushed to buy China's

beautiful silk products. Demand quickly expanded, and new players moved into the market. As competition intensified, manufacturers began to cut corners on quality, and silk products out of China soon gained a reputation as inferior goods. By the beginning of the 20th century, traders were already looking elsewhere, and Japan, which had been building a reputation for delivering a more consistently high-quality product, became an attractive alternative. By 1930, Japan was exporting twice as much silk as China.

One of the problems facing China is that manufacturers continue to engage in a practice I call "quality fade." This is the deliberate and secret habit of widening profit margins through a reduction in the quality of materials. Importers usually never notice what's happening; downward changes are subtle but progressive. The initial production sample is fine, but with each successive production run, a bit more of the necessary inputs are missing.

*http://knowledge.wharton.upenn.edu/article.cfm?articleid=1776*