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STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

OBJECTIVES

HYPOTHESIS (ES)

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

FINDINGS

RECOMMENDATIONS/SUGGESTIONS

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APPENDIX/ANNEXURE

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BOOKS

- Bowersox, Donald J., Closs, David J., (1996), "Logistical Management." Tata McGraw, Hill, New Delhi.

- Hunker, H.L. and A.J. Wright (1963), "Factors of Industrial Location in Ohio" Ohio State University, Nigeria.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO BOOKS

- Sharma T., Kwatra, G. (2008) Effectiveness of Social Advertising: A Study of Selected Campaigns, Corporate Social Responsibility, Edited by David Crowther & Nicholas Capaldi, Ashgate Research Companion to Corporate Social Responsibility, Chapter 15, pp 287-303.

JOURNAL AND OTHER ARTICLES

- Schemenner, R.W., Huber, J.C. and Cook, R.L. (1987), "Geographic Differences and the Location of New Manufacturing Facilities," Journal of Urban Economics, Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 83-104.

CONFERENCE PAPERS

- Garg, Sambhav (2011): "Business Ethics" Paper presented at the Annual International Conference for the All India Management Association, New Delhi, India, 19–23

UNPUBLISHED DISSERTATIONS

- Kumar S. (2011): "Customer Value: A Comparative Study of Rural and Urban Customers," Thesis, Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra.

ONLINE RESOURCES

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WEBSITES

- Garg, Bhavet (2011): Towards a New Gas Policy, Political Weekly, Viewed on January 01, 2012 http://epw.in/user/viewabstract.jsp

MARKETING PRACTICES OF SELECT RURAL INDUSTRIES IN SPSR NELLORE DISTRICT

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ABSTRACT
Rural marketing determines the carrying out of business activities bringing in the flow of goods from urban sectors to the rural regions of the country as well as the marketing of various products manufactured by the non-agricultural workers from rural to urban areas. Number of strategies like product, price, promotion, distribution, marketing and sales strategies can help various organizations to capture large market share of rural India. However, it is not that easy to operate in rural market because of several problems such as underdeveloped people and underdeveloped markets, Inadequate Media coverage for rural communication, Multi language and Dialects, Traditional Values, Lack of proper physical communication facilities. But every problem has its solution. So, the problems of rural marketing can be solved by improving infrastructure, transportation, communication, warehousing and packing facilities. The paper includes method of selling of products, marketing planning, marketing objectives, selection of the products, Nature of competition, furnish details of customers, area wise sales, sales promotion, products require packaging, strategy of pricing method, distribution channels, goods transportation, promote of products and production sample units in Nellore district.

KEYWORDS
selling methods, products require packaging.

INTRODUCTION
In the context of development of a nation then the most important thing is to contribute in development of industrialization, which is very large area to develop the existing product and new product in the market with the help of branding techniques. The rural industries have a very big role in development of Indian industry and Indian economy. Rural Industries generally use power driven machine and also apply modern methods of production, engage labour on wage produce for expanded market, wherever cottage industry gives the new way in the context of employment for poor people and growth of the rural industry. Such industries can be managed with little resources and in terms of result provide much better results.

OBJECTIVES
1. To examine the methods of selling the products of the selected Rural Industries in Nellore district.
2. To examine the various channels of marketing the products of select Rural Industries in Nellore district.

METHODOLOGY
SPSR Nellore District is purposively selected for the study because of the proximity and familiarity of the researcher. The primary data covering all the aspects of rural industries units in accordance with the objectives of the study are collected through personal interviews with the entrepreneurs and managers of the sample units with the help of a schedule, which is to be specially designed for the study.

SAMPLING
Primary data will be collected from the Rural Industries in SPSR Nellore district. A sample of (3202 Rural Industries in 2015-16) 10 per cent will be drawn at random covering all categories of Rural Industrial artisans belonging to different groups and different product lines. In selecting the sample enterprises, the researchers will be used a sample technique known as "Stratified Random Sampling with proportional allocation".

Table 1 shows that 55 (17.19 per cent) of the rural industrial units sell personally, 46 (14.38 per cent) units are through mediators, 35 (10.94 per cent) through foreign agencies, 38 (11.88 per cent) through whole sellers, 30 (9.38 per cent) each through retailers and franchising units, 33 (10.31 per cent) through commission agents, 24 (7.50 per cent) through brokers and 29 (9.06 per cent) through others. The leather and leather footwear units highest with 20 and chemical based units lowest with 2 in sell personally. The Food and agro based units highest with 7 and mineral and textile based units lowest with 2 each sell through mediators. The plastic and rubber units highest with 6 and paper board units lowest with 0, the textile based and forest based units 3 each sell through franchising (out of 30). In Engineering based units out of 34, 6 (17.65 per cent) each are personally and commission agents sell products, 3 (8.82 per cent) each though mediators and retailers, 9 (26.47 per cent) though wholesalers and 5 (14.71 per cent) through foreign agencies sell the products.

TABLE 1: CATEGORY - WISE METHODS OF SELLING THE PRODUCTS OF SAMPLE UNITS IN SPSR NELLORE DISTRICT

S. No	Industrial Category	Methods of selling the products									Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
1	Textile based units	10 (26.32)	02 (5.26)	03 (7.89)	03 (7.89)	03 (7.89)	05 (13.16)	03 (7.89)	04 (10.53)	05 (13.16)	38 (100)
2	Forest based units	08 (20.00)	03 (7.50)	06 (15.00)	03 (7.50)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	09 (22.50)	08 (20.00)	03 (7.50)	40 (100)
3	Mineral based units	05 (19.23)	02 (7.69)	00 (0.00)	07 (26.92)	06 (23.08)	00 (0.00)	03 (11.54)	03 (11.54)	00 (0.00)	26 (100)
4	Leather and footwear units	20 (50.00)	04 (10.00)	02 (5.00)	00 (0.00)	04 (10.00)	06 (15.00)	00 (0.00)	04 (10.00)	00 (0.00)	40 (100)
5	Food and agro based units	00 (0.00)	07 (25.00)	02 (7.14)	02 (7.14)	07 (25.00)	02 (7.14)	03 (10.71)	00 (0.00)	05 (17.86)	28 (100)
6	Engineering based units	06 (17.65)	03 (8.82)	05 (14.71)	09 (26.47)	03 (8.82)	02 (5.88)	06 (17.65)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	34 (100)
7	Chemical based industrial units	02 (8.33)	06 (25.00)	07 (29.17)	02 (8.33)	00 (0.00)	03 (12.50)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	04 (16.67)	24 (100)
8	Building material units	02 (9.09)	04 (18.18)	02 (9.09)	03 (13.64)	00 (0.00)	03 (13.64)	00 (0.00)	03 (13.64)	05 (22.73)	22 (100)
9	Electronics units	00 (0.00)	05 (33.33)	02 (13.33)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	03 (20.00)	03 (20.00)	02 (13.33)	00 (0.00)	15 (100)
10	Plastic and rubber units	00 (0.00)	03 (20.00)	02 (13.33)	02 (13.33)	02 (13.33)	03 (20.00)	03 (20.00)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	15 (100)
11	Paper board units	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	03 (21.43)	05 (35.71)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	06 (42.86)	14 (100)
12	Printing units	02 (15.38)	04 (30.77)	00 (0.00)	04 (30.77)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	03 (23.08)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	13 (100)
13	Miscellaneous units	00 (0.00)	03 (27.27)	04 (36.36)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	03 (27.27)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	01 (9.09)	11 (100)
	Total	55 (17.19)	46 (14.38)	35 (10.94)	38 (11.88)	30 (9.38)	30 (9.38)	33 (10.31)	24 (7.50)	29 (9.06)	320 (100)

Note: Figures in parenthesis represent the percentages

Source: Field Survey

1. Personal selling, 2. Through Mediators, 3. Foreign Agencies, 4. Wholesalers, 5. Retailers, 6. Franchising, 7. Commission agent, 8. Brokers and 9. Others.

Marketing planning of the sample units is shown in table 2. It indicates that out of 320 rural industrial units, 119 (37.19 per cent), have developed annual marketing planning, 103 (32.19 per cent) have more than one year plan and 98 (30.63 per cent) do not prepare any kind of marketing planning in this regard. The leather and footwear units rank highest with 17 (42.50 per cent) and the miscellaneous units rank lowest with 1 (9.09 per cent) as per more than one year marketing planning, the textile based units highest with 14 (36.84 per cent) and miscellaneous units rank lowest with 1 (9.09 per cent) as per no marketing planning and the forest based units rank highest with 21 (52.50 per cent) and the paper and printing units lowest with 6 (46.15 per cent) have developing annual marketing planning. Out of the total number of 320 rural industrial units in Nellore district, 38 are in textile based industries, and out of those 38 textile based industries 14 (36.84 per cent) have no marketing planning, 11 (28.95 per cent) have developed annual marketing planning, and 13 (34.21 per cent) have plan for more than one year. Out of 320 rural industrial units in Nellore district, miscellaneous units are the lowest with 11 only. Out of 11 miscellaneous units, 1 (9.09 per cent) have no marketing planning, 9 (81.82 per cent) have plan for more than one year and 1 (9.09 per cent) have developed annual market planning.

TABLE 2: CATEGORY - WISE FORMAL MARKETING PLANNING OF SAMPLE UNITS IN SPSR NELLORE DISTRICT

S. No	Industrial Category	Formal marketing planning			Total
		No marketing planning	Developing annual marketing planning	Developing plans for more than one year	
1	Textile based units	14 (36.84)	11 (28.95)	13 (34.21)	38 (100)
2	Forest based units	11 (27.50)	21 (52.50)	08 (20.00)	40 (100)
3	Mineral based units	10 (38.46)	06 (23.08)	10 (38.46)	26 (100)
4	Leather and footwear units	09 (22.50)	14 (35.00)	17 (42.50)	40 (100)
5	Food and agro based units	08 (28.57)	08 (28.57)	12 (42.86)	28 (100)
6	Engineering based units	12 (35.29)	12 (35.29)	10 (29.41)	34 (100)
7	Chemical based industrial units	06 (25.00)	05 (20.83)	13 (54.17)	24 (100)
8	Building material units	08 (36.36)	10 (45.45)	04 (18.18)	22 (100)
9	Electronics units	05 (33.33)	07 (46.67)	03 (20.00)	15 (100)
10	Plastic and rubber units	05 (33.33)	10 (66.67)	00 (0.00)	15 (100)
11	Paper board units	03 (21.43)	00 (0.00)	11 (78.57)	14 (100)
12	Printing units	06 (46.15)	06 (46.15)	01 (7.69)	13 (100)
13	Miscellaneous units	01 (9.09)	09 (81.82)	01 (9.09)	11 (100)
Total		98 (30.63)	119 (37.19)	103 (32.19)	320 (100)

Note: Figures in parenthesis represent the percentages

Source: Field Survey

The nature of competition faced by the sample rural industrial units under study is presented in table 3. It reveals that 112 (35 per cent) units are facing heavy competition, 125 (39.06 per cent) units are facing moderate competition and 83 (25.94 per cent) units are facing low competition. The Leather and footwear units among the sample rank

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highest with 23 (57.50 per cent) and the building material units rank lowest with 2 (9.09 per cent) under the units facing heavy competition, the Paper board units rank highest with 34.29 per cent and the forest based units rank lowest with 25 per cent under units with moderate competition. The Mineral based units rank highest with 46.15 per cent and plastic and rubber units lowest with 13.33 per cent under units with low competition. It can be concluded that the sample industrial units in the district on the whole face moderate competition.

TABLE 3: CATEGORY - WISE NATURE OF COMPETITION PRODUCTS OF SAMPLE UNITS IN SPSR NELLORE DISTRICT

S. No	Industrial Category	Nature of competition product			Total
		Heavy competition	Moderate competition	Low competition	
1	Textile based units	11 (28.95)	17 (44.74)	10 (26.32)	38 (100)
2	Forest based units	20 (50.00)	10 (25.00)	10 (25.00)	40 (100)
3	Mineral based units	05 (19.23)	09 (34.62)	12 (46.15)	26 (100)
4	Leather and footwear units	23 (57.50)	11 (27.50)	06 (15.00)	40 (100)
5	Food and agro based units	12 (42.86)	07 (25.00)	09 (32.14)	28 (100)
6	Engineering based units	10 (29.41)	15 (44.12)	09 (26.47)	34 (100)
7	Chemical based industrial units	05 (20.83)	12 (50.00)	07 (29.17)	24 (100)
8	Building material units	02 (9.09)	11 (50.00)	09 (40.91)	22 (100)
9	Electronics units	07 (46.67)	05 (33.33)	03 (20.00)	15 (100)
10	Plastic and rubber units	05 (33.33)	08 (53.33)	02 (13.33)	15 (100)
11	Paper board units	05 (35.71)	09 (64.29)	00 (0.00)	14 (100)
12	Printing units	03 (23.08)	07 (53.85)	03 (23.08)	13 (100)
13	Miscellaneous units	04 (36.36)	04 (36.36)	03 (27.27)	11 (100)
Total		112 (35.00)	125 (39.06)	83 (25.94)	320 (100)

Note: Figures in parenthesis represent the percentages

Source: Field Survey

Category-wise product sales in different types of markets by the rural industrial units are exposed in table 4. It divulges that 96 (30 per cent) rural units are selling their products in local market, 116 (36.25 per cent) in regional markets, 65 (20.31 per cent) in national market and only 43 (13.44 per cent) in international markets. The textile based units ranked highest with 11 (28.95 per cent) and the Engineering based units lowest with 3 (8.82 per cent) under units selling in local markets. The textile based units rank highest with 19 (27.66 per cent) and the Building material units lowest with 2 (9.09 per cent) under units selling their products regional. The leather and footwear units ranks highest with 15 (37.50 per cent) and chemical based industrial units lowest with 2 (8.33 per cent) under units selling in national markets. The engineering based units rank highest with 8 (23.53 per cent) and textile based units lowest with 2 (5.26 per cent) under units selling their products international level.

TABLE 4: CATEGORY - WISE AREA SALES OF SAMPLE UNITS IN SPSR NELLORE DISTRICT

S. No	Industrial Category	Area wise Sales				Total
		Local	Regional	National	International	
1	Textile based units	11 (28.95)	19 (50.00)	06 (15.79)	02 (5.26)	38 (100)
2	Forest based units	08 (20.00)	16 (40.00)	06 (15.00)	10 (25.00)	40 (100)
3	Mineral based units	07 (26.92)	11 (42.31)	05 (19.23)	03 (11.54)	26 (100)
4	Leather and footwear units	09 (22.50)	16 (40.00)	15 (37.50)	00 (0.00)	40 (100)
5	Food and agro based units	07 (25.00)	07 (25.00)	10 (35.71)	04 (14.29)	28 (100)
6	Engineering based units	03 (8.82)	13 (38.24)	10 (29.41)	08 (23.53)	34 (100)
7	Chemical based industrial units	07 (29.17)	13 (54.17)	02 (8.33)	02 (8.33)	24 (100)
8	Building material units	10 (45.45)	02 (9.09)	05 (22.73)	05 (22.73)	22 (100)
9	Electronics units	06 (40.00)	05 (33.33)	02 (13.33)	02 (13.33)	15 (100)
10	Plastic and rubber units	07 (46.67)	05 (33.33)	00 (0.00)	03 (20.00)	15 (100)
11	Paper board units	11 (78.57)	03 (21.43)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	14 (100)
12	Printing units	04 (30.77)	02 (15.38)	04 (30.77)	03 (23.08)	13 (100)
13	Miscellaneous units	06 (54.55)	04 (36.36)	00 (0.00)	01 (9.09)	11 (100)
Total		96 (30.00)	116 (36.25)	65 (20.31)	43 (13.44)	320

Note: Figures in parenthesis represent the percentages

Source: Field Survey

Table 5 reveals the category-wise sales promotion methods adopted by rural industries in Nellore district. It could be seen from the table a gigantic portion of 52 units Newspapers, an oily contribution of food and agro based industries of 10.71 per cent, 14.71 per cent of engineering based and 21.05 per cent textile based industries respectively. Electronics based units have very good performance of 33.33 per cent. In mineral based 11.54 per cent, forest based 25 per cent, chemical based 16.67 per cent, leather and footwear units 7.50 per cent, building material units 9.09 per cent, printing based board units 21.43 per cent and printing units 23.08 per cent. Next portion occupies 47 units of wallpapers, while a greasy contribution of a gargantuan portion of engineering based units is 41.18 per cent, 22.50 per cent of leather and footwear units, 12.50 per cent of forest based, 11.54 per cent of mineral based, 10.53 per cent of textile based, 7.14 per cent of food and agro based, 20.83 per cent of chemical based and 21.43 per cent of paper board units. Next place is occupied by Outdoor advertising of 44 units with 8.82 per cent of engineering based, 10 per cent of food and agro based, 17.50 per cent of forest based, 10.53 per cent of textile based, 12.50 per cent of chemical based and a gigantic portion of mineral based units with 26.92 per cent. Sales promotion methods adopted by rural industries advertising of television are 40 units, of these units contribution of 21.43 per cent of food and agro based, 21.05 per cent of textile based, 25 per cent of forest based, 7.69 per cent of mineral based and printing based industries of 30.77 per cent are observed. Banners also as sales promotion of units are 30 and of these contributions of 36.36 per cent are miscellaneous units; remaining industrial categories are below 20 per cent. Pamphlets advertising of 32 units of these units have a contribution of 20 per cent of the chemical based, electronic based and plastic and rubber based industries.

TABLE 5: CATEGORY - WISE SALES PROMOTION METHODS OF SAMPLE UNITS IN SPSR NELLORE DISTRICT

S. No	Industrial Category	Methods of Sales promotion								Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
1	Textile based units	08 (21.05)	08 (21.05)	06 (15.79)	04 (10.53)	04 (10.53)	02 (5.26)	02 (5.26)	04 (10.53)	38 (100)
2	Forest based units	10 (25.00)	06 (15.00)	00 (0.00)	05 (12.50)	07 (17.50)	03 (7.50)	06 (15.00)	03 (7.50)	40 (100)
3	Mineral based units	03 (11.54)	02 (7.69)	06 (23.08)	03 (11.54)	07 (26.92)	00 (0.00)	03 (11.54)	02 (7.69)	26 (100)
4	Leather and footwear units	03 (7.50)	05 (12.50)	00 (0.00)	09 (22.50)	04 (10.00)	09 (22.50)	05 (12.50)	05 (12.50)	40 (100)
5	Food and agro based units	03 (10.71)	06 (21.43)	06 (21.43)	02 (7.14)	02 (7.14)	05 (17.86)	00 (0.00)	04 (14.29)	28 (100)
6	Engineering based units	05 (14.71)	05 (14.71)	00 (0.00)	14 (41.18)	03 (8.82)	00 (0.00)	02 (5.88)	05 (14.71)	34 (100)
7	Chemical based industrial units	04 (16.67)	00 (0.00)	03 (12.50)	05 (20.83)	03 (12.50)	02 (8.33)	05 (20.83)	02 (8.33)	24 (100)
8	Building material units	02 (9.09)	02 (9.09)	08 (36.36)	02 (9.09)	06 (27.27)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	02 (9.09)	22 (100)
9	Electronics units	05 (33.33)	00 (0.00)	04 (26.67)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	03 (20.00)	03 (20.00)	15 (100)
10	Plastic and rubber units	00 (0.00)	02 (13.33)	05 (33.33)	00 (0.00)	02 (13.33)	03 (20.00)	03 (20.00)	00 (0.00)	15 (100)
11	Paper board units	03 (21.43)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	03 (21.43)	05 (35.71)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	03 (21.43)	14 (100)
12	Printing units	03 (23.08)	04 (30.77)	03 (23.08)	00 (0.00)	01 (7.69)	02 (15.38)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	13 (100)
13	Miscellaneous units	03 (27.27)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	04 (36.36)	03 (27.27)	01 (9.09)	11 (100)
Total		52 (16.25)	40 (12.50)	41 (12.81)	47 (14.69)	44 (13.75)	30 (9.38)	32 (10.00)	34 (10.63)	320 (100)

Note: Figures in parenthesis represent the percentages

Source: Field Survey

1.   Newspapers, 2. Television, 3. Electronic Displays, 4. Wallpapers, 5. Outdoor advertising, 6. Banners, 7. Pamphlets and 8. Brochures.

Use of packing materials by the sample rural industrial units is shown in Table 6. It shows that 99 (30.94 per cent) sample units use polythene covers for their product packing, 112 (35 per cent) units are use paper covers, 65 (20.31 per cent) units use jute bags and 44 (13.75 per cent) units use other materials. The mineral based units' score highest 65.38 per cent and miscellaneous units are lowest score with 9.09 per cent using polythene covers. The paper board units with the highest 57.14 per cent and mineral based units lowest with 26.92 per cent use paper covers. The printing based units with the highest 38.46 per cent and chemical based units lowest with 8.33 per cent use jute bags. The Plastic and rubber units with the highest 53.33 per cent and mineral based units lowest with 5.26 per cent use other material for packing of products.

TABLE 6: CATEGORY - WISE PACKAGING OF PRODUCTS OF SAMPLE UNITS IN SPSR NELLORE DISTRICT

S. No	Industrial Category	Products require any packaging				Total
		Polythene Covers	Paper Covers	Jute Bags	Others	
1	Textile based units	13 (34.21)	13 (34.21)	10 (26.32)	02 (5.26)	38 (100)
2	Forest based units	06 (15.00)	17 (42.50)	11 (27.50)	06 (15.00)	40 (100)
3	Mineral based units	17 (65.38)	07 (26.92)	02 (7.69)	00 (0.00)	26 (100)
4	Leather and footwear units	07 (17.50)	20 (50.00)	10 (25.00)	03 (7.50)	40 (100)
5	Food and agro based units	07 (25.00)	05 (17.86)	06 (21.43)	10 (35.71)	28 (100)
6	Engineering based units	17 (50.00)	06 (17.65)	08 (23.53)	03 (8.82)	34 (100)
7	Chemical based industrial units	09 (37.50)	10 (41.67)	02 (8.33)	03 (12.50)	24 (100)
8	Building material units	10 (45.45)	05 (22.73)	05 (22.73)	02 (9.09)	22 (100)
9	Electronics units	06 (40.00)	06 (40.00)	00 (0.00)	03 (20.00)	15 (100)
10	Plastic and rubber units	00 (0.00)	05 (33.33)	02 (13.33)	08 (53.33)	15 (100)
11	Paper board units	03 (21.43)	08 (57.14)	00 (0.00)	03 (21.43)	14 (100)
12	Printing units	03 (23.08)	04 (30.77)	05 (38.46)	01 (7.69)	13 (100)
13	Miscellaneous units	01 (9.09)	06 (54.55)	04 (36.36)	00 (0.00)	11 (100)
	Total	99 (30.94)	112 (35.00)	65 (20.31)	44 (13.75)	320 (100)

Note: Figures in parenthesis represent the percentages

Source: Field Survey

The pricing objectives of the rural industrial units are presented in Table 7. It exposes that 48 (15 per cent) rural industrial units have for their pricing objectives market penetration, 57 units (17.81 per cent) have market skimming, 47 (14.69 per cent) current revenue maximizing, 69 (21.56 per cent) target profit, 42 (13.13 per cent) units on promotion and 57 (17.81 per cent) on no profit and no loss objective. The engineering based units registered highest with 23.53 per cent and food and agro based units lowest with 7.14 per cent in the objective of market penetration. The Plastic and rubber units which are the highest 40 and food and agro based units which are lowest with only 7.14 per cent under the market skimming. The engineering based units stand highest with 38.24 per cent and the forest based units with the lowest with 7.50 per cent in the current revenue maximizing category. The printing based units are highest with 53.85 per cent and miscellaneous units the lowest with 8.33 per cent under target profit. Of the 42 units which come under the category of promotion, the food and agro based units are highest with 25 per cent and leather and footwear units lowest with 5 per cent. The chemical based units had highest with 45.83 per cent and food and agro based units the lowest with 7.14 per cent under no profit and no loss objective. It can be concluded that the majority of the rural industries i.e., 69 (21.56 per cent) base their rising objective Target profit.

TABLE 7: CATEGORY - WISE PRICING METHODS OF SAMPLE UNITS IN SPSR NELLORE DISTRICT

S. No	Industrial Category	Strategy of pricing method						Total
		Market penetration	Market skimming	Current revenue maximizing	Target profit	Promotional	No profit No loss	
1	Textile based units	03 (7.89)	10 (26.32)	03 (7.89)	07 (18.42)	09 (23.68)	06 (15.79)	38 (100)
2	Forest based units	06 (15.00)	10 (25.00)	03 (7.50)	08 (20.00)	08 (20.00)	05 (12.50)	40 (100)
3	Mineral based units	06 (23.08)	06 (23.08)	00 (0.00)	05 (19.23)	03 (11.54)	06 (23.08)	26 (100)
4	Leather and footwear units	08 (20.00)	09 (22.50)	08 (20.00)	13 (32.50)	02 (5.00)	00 (0.00)	40 (100)
5	Food and agro based units	02 (7.14)	02 (7.14)	08 (28.57)	07 (25.00)	07 (25.00)	02 (7.14)	28 (100)
6	Engineering based units	08 (23.53)	03 (8.82)	13 (38.24)	05 (14.71)	00 (0.00)	05 (14.71)	34 (100)
7	Chemical based industrial units	06 (25.00)	00 (0.00)	03 (12.50)	02 (8.33)	02 (8.33)	11 (45.83)	24 (100)
8	Building material units	00 (0.00)	05 (22.73)	02 (9.09)	08 (36.36)	00 (0.00)	07 (31.82)	22 (100)
9	Electronics units	05 (33.33)	03 (20.00)	00 (0.00)	05 (33.33)	02 (13.33)	00 (0.00)	15 (100)
10	Plastic and rubber units	00 (0.00)	06 (40.00)	00 (0.00)	02 (13.33)	02 (13.33)	05 (33.33)	15 (100)
11	Paper board units	03 (21.43)	03 (21.43)	06 (42.86)	00 (0.00)	02 (14.29)	00 (0.00)	14 (100)
12	Printing units	01 (7.69)	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	07 (53.85)	02 (15.38)	03 (23.08)	13 (100)
13	Miscellaneous units	00 (0.00)	00 (0.00)	01 (9.09)	00 (0.00)	03 (27.27)	07 (63.64)	11 (100)
	Total	48 (15.00)	57 (17.81)	47 (14.69)	69 (21.56)	42 (13.13)	57 (17.81)	320 (100)

Note: Figures in parenthesis represent the percentages

Source: Field Survey

Share of profit margin of the rural industrial units is shown in Table 8. It shows that 166 (51.88 per cent) sample units are satisfied with their present profit margin and 154 (48.13 per cent) units are not satisfied. Out of 38 forest based industries 22 (57.89 per cent) have been satisfied and 16 (42.11 per cent) are not satisfied. Out of 166 (51.88 per cent) satisfied units 22 are in textile based, 12 in forest based, 23 each in mineral and engineering based, 17 in leather and footwear units, 16 in food and agro based units, 12 each in chemical based, printing based and building material units and 4 in plastic and rubber units. Out of 154 (48.13 per cent) not satisfied units, 23 units are in food and agro based, 16 in textile based, 3 in mineral based units, 28 in forest based, 14 in paper board units, 12 each in chemical and food and agro based, 11 each in engineering and rubber based units, 10 in building material units and 6 in miscellaneous based units.

TABLE 8: CATEGORY - WISE DISTRIBUTION CHANNELS OF SAMPLE UNITS IN SPSR NELLORE DISTRICT

S. No	Industrial Category	Present distribution channels are satisfactory		Total
		Satisfactory	Not satisfactory	
1	Textile based units	22 (57.89)	16 (42.11)	38 (100)
2	Forest based units	12 (30.00)	28 (70.00)	40 (100)
3	Mineral based units	23 (88.46)	03 (11.54)	26 (100)
4	Leather and footwear units	17 (42.50)	23 (57.50)	40 (100)
5	Food and agro based units	16 (57.14)	12 (42.86)	28 (100)
6	Engineering based units	23 (67.65)	11 (32.35)	34 (100)
7	Chemical based industrial units	12 (50.00)	12 (50.00)	24 (100)
8	Building material units	12 (54.55)	10 (45.45)	22 (100)
9	Electronics units	08 (53.33)	07 (46.67)	15 (100)
10	Plastic and rubber units	04 (26.67(	11 (73.33)	15 (100)
11	Paper board units	00 (0.00)	14 (100.00)	14 (100)
12	Printing units	12 (92.31)	01 (7.69)	13 (100)
13	Miscellaneous units	05 (45.45)	06 (54.55)	11 (100)
Total		166 (51.88)	154 (48.13)	320 (100)

Note: Figures in parenthesis represent the percentages

Source: Field Survey

Types of transportation being had by rural industrial units are shown in table 9. It shows that 61 (19.06 per cent) sample units have their own transport, 126 (39.38 per cent) units hired transport, 81 (25.31 per cent) sample units have transport arranged by customers and 52 (16.25 per cent) units have transportation on contract. Of the units which have their own transport, the plastic and rubber units score the highest of 46.67 per cent and the printing based units the lowest of 7.69 per cent. In using hired transport, the forest based units score the highest 72.50 per cent and the chemical units the lowest 8.33 per cent. The building material units score the highest 45.45 per cent and the forest based units lowest 7.50 per cent in using the transport arranged by customers. The mineral based units score the highest 38.46 per cent and forest based units score lowest 7.50 per cent engaging on contract. It is clear from the table that the majority of the sample units 126 (39.38 per cent) have their goods carried by hired transport.

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TABLE 9: CATEGORY - WISE METHODS OF TRANSPORTATION OF SAMPLE UNITS IN SPSR NELLORE DISTRICT

S. No	Industrial Category	Methods of transportation				Total
		Own transport	Hired transport	Transport arranged by customer	On contract	
1	Textile based units	03 (7.89)	14 (36.84)	14 (36.84)	07 (18.42)	38 (100)
2	Forest based units	05 (12.50)	29 (72.50)	03 (7.50)	03 (7.50)	40 (100)
3	Mineral based units	03 (11.54)	07 (26.92)	06 (23.08)	10 (38.46)	26 (100)
4	Leather and footwear units	09 (22.50)	11 (27.50)	16 (40.00)	04 (10.00)	40 (100)
5	Food and agro based units	10 (35.71)	08 (28.57)	05 (17.86)	05 (17.86)	28 (100)
6	Engineering based units	06 (17.65)	20 (58.82)	00 (0.00)	08 (23.53)	34 (100)
7	Chemical based industrial units	05 (20.83)	02 (8.33)	10 (41.67)	07 (29.17)	24 (100)
8	Building material units	02 (9.09)	10 (45.45)	10 (45.45)	00 (0.00)	22 (100)
9	Electronics units	05 (33.33)	05 (33.33)	05 (33.33)	00 (0.00)	15 (100)
10	Plastic and rubber units	07 (46.67)	05 (33.33)	00 (0.00)	03 (20.00)	15 (100)
11	Paper board units	02 (14.29)	06 (42.86)	06 (42.86)	00 (0.00)	14 (100)
12	Printing units	01 (7.69)	04 (30.77)	03 (23.08)	05 (38.46)	13 (100)
13	Miscellaneous units	03 (27.27)	05 (45.45)	03 (27.27)	00 (0.00)	11 (100)
	Total	61 (19.06)	126 (39.38)	81 (25.31)	52 (16.25)	320 (100)

Note: Figures in parenthesis represent the percentages

Source: Field Survey

Type of promotional activity of sample rural industrial units is presented in Table 10. It shows that out of the total 320 units, 68 (21.25 per cent) sample units are undertaking promotional activity through advertising, 114 (35.63 per cent) units through publicity, 44 (13.75 per cent) units through free samples, 52 (16.25 per cent) units through lable/branding and 42 (13.13 per cent) units through sign boards. The plastic and rubber units score the highest 53.33 per cent (out of 15) and engineering based units score the lowest 5.88 per cent (out of 34) in using advertising techniques. The leather and footwear units score the highest 57.50 per cent (out of 40 units) and paper board units score the lowest with 21.43 per cent (out of 14) in using publicity. The printing based units score highest with 30.77 per cent and engineering based units lowest with 5.88 per cent in using free samples. The paper board units with highest 42.86 per cent and forest based units with lowest 5 per cent are using label and branding. The building material units score highest with 22.73 per cent and plastic and ruuber based units lowest with 6.67 per cent in using signboards. It can be concluded that the majority of the sample units i.e., 114 (35.63 per cent), (out of 320) are using publicity.

TABLE 10: CATEGORY - WISE PROMOTION METHODS OF PRODUCTS OF SAMPLE UNITS IN SPSR NELLORE DISTRICT

S. No	Industrial Category	Promote of products					Total
		Advertising	Publicity	Free samples	Label/ Branding	Sign boards	
1	Textile based units	08 (21.05)	09 (23.68)	03 (7.89)	13 (34.21)	05 (13.16)	38 (100)
2	Forest based units	10 (25.00)	13 (32.50)	07 (17.50)	02 (5.00)	08 (20.00)	40 (100)
3	Mineral based units	07 (26.92)	07 (26.92)	02 (7.69)	08 (30.77)	02 (7.69)	26 (100)
4	Leather and footwear units	03 (7.50)	23 (57.50)	07 (17.50)	04 (10.00)	03 (7.50)	40 (100)
5	Food and agro based units	12 (42.86)	07 (25.00)	03 (10.71)	02 (7.14)	04 (14.29)	28 (100)
6	Engineering based units	02 (5.88)	18 (52.94)	02 (5.88)	07 (20.59)	05 (14.71)	34 (100)
7	Chemical based industrial units	03 (12.50)	09 (37.50)	07 (29.17)	05 (20.83)	00 (0.00)	24 (100)
8	Building material units	05 (22.73)	08 (36.36)	04 (18.18)	00 (0.00)	05 (22.73)	22 (100)
9	Electronics units	04 (26.67)	06 (40.00)	02 (13.33)	00 (0.00)	03 (20.00)	15 (100)
10	Plastic and rubber units	08 (53.33)	04 (26.67)	00 (0.00)	02 (13.33)	01 (6.67)	15 (100)
11	Paper board units	03 (21.43)	03 (21.43)	00 (0.00)	06 (42.86)	02 (14.29)	14 (100)
12	Printing units	02 (15.38)	03 (23.08)	04 (30.77)	02 (15.38)	02 (15.38)	13 (100)
13	Miscellaneous units	01 (9.09)	04 (36.36)	03 (27.27)	01 (9.09)	02 (18.18)	11 (100)
	Total	68 (21.25)	114 (35.63)	44 (13.75)	52 (16.25)	42 (13.13)	320 (100)

Note: Figures in parenthesis represent the percentages

Source: Field Survey

CONCLUSION

Rural marketing have to play a vital role in the economic development of a developing country, is beyond doubt at present. An intensive effort in order to provide the basic facilities to rural consumers is the need of the hour. Indian rural marketing system should be made much more competitive by infusing competition within the country and preventing the external system equation from interfering with the local markets in the larger interests of the nation.

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AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON CONSUMERS BUYING BEHAVIOUR TOWARDS ONLINE SHOPPING

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ABSTRACT

The change in technological area all over the world has changed the concept of information and communication. The use of internet for commercial purposes gave rise to the existence of the electronic commerce (e-commerce) phenomenon. Online shopping or e-shopping is a form of electronic commerce which allows consumers to directly buy goods or services from a seller over the Internet using a web browser. The study focuses on consumers buying behavior towards online shopping. Questionnaire was used to collect the primary data. The sample size of the study was 125 and the sample design adopted was convenience sampling. This paper tried to find out the impact of online market towards purchase behaviour of consumers and gives suggestions to improve the same.

KEYWORDS

online shopping, consumers, e-marketing, internet marketing.

INTRODUCTION

Internet has become increasingly important as a marketing tool in recent years. It brings opportunities for retailers to sell and communicate with their customers by an interactive and flexible medium. An online platform in businesses enables to promote products and services and ensure good customer service by enabling businesses to deal directly and reach out to a wider market. The use of the Internet as a marketing tool in business industry offers great benefits. The benefits include communication, transaction and distribution channel functions. A website plays a vital role in business marketing strategy as a channel for providing information about products and services. The quality of presentation and usefulness of the business content was the major website.

Purchase of products and services on the Internet is known as online shopping. Online shopping has become increasingly popular, due to convenience (and often lower prices). Especially in the holiday season, online shopping saves an individual the hassle of searching several stores and then waiting in long queues to buy a particular item. Consumer buying behavior is the sum total of a consumer's attitudes, preferences, intentions, and decisions regarding the consumer's behavior in the marketplace when purchasing a product or service. The study of consumer behavior draws upon social science disciplines of anthropology, psychology, sociology, and economics**.**

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To identify the most preferred online shopping sites
2. To find out the preferred product for purchase through online shopping
3. To analyse the consumer opinion on the risk involved in online shopping.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Abhigyan Sarkar (2011) finds that consumers with high hedonic shopping values tend to avoid online shopping. They perceive more risks and lesser benefits in online shopping. They are likely to avoid online shopping, as they cannot touch the product or interact with the salespeople directly while shopping online. A customer with high hedonic shopping values tends to prefer direct interaction with the product or salespeople, which become stimuli in creating the hedonic arousal. It is also reinforced the fact that the customers with high utilitarian shopping values perceive greater benefits in online shopping. Most of the online stores provide the utilitarian benefits to their customers by saving their time and costs.

Kotler and Armstrong (2012) find that due to technological innovations, the traditional way of shopping has become insufficient for individuals. Individuals now prefer easy ways to reach brands and stores and it can be said that that 'The Internet has fundamentally changed customer's notions of convenience, speed, price, product information and service. As a result, it has given marketers a whole new way to create value for customers and build relationships with them.

Balamurugan, Sathish and Sathyanarayanan (2013) identified that most of respondents are satisfied with online shopping. Only few of respondents are not satisfied with the online shopping. The reason being, the delivery delay and defective products shipped etc. The online retailers should make sure that they deliver products with quality at the promised time, which will ultimately increase the customer satisfaction.

S.Ranjit Kumar (2013) identified that the relation between education and online purchasing has been positive i.e., highly educated respondents involve more in online purchases. All age groups prefer 6pm to 9 pm followed by 2pm to 6pm and 9pm to 11 pm for online searching or purchasing of products and services. Product choice, lowest price and convenience are important features required by the respondents for online shopping.

Blazquez (2014) identifies that hedonic values have significantly higher importance than utilitarian while shopping online. **Devinder Pal Singh (2014),** state that hedonic and utilitarian motivations substantially affect online information search and online shopping intention. Even though both utilitarian and hedonic shopping motivations drive 'online information search' and purchase intentions but among these hedonic motivations have emerged as strong predictors.

Florine Scheer (2014) identifies that females and older people have lower intentions to shop online for utilitarian products. **Scarpi, Pizzi and Visentin (2014),** say that retailer should strategically choose whether to enhance hedonistic or utilitarian motivations; hedonism and utilitarianism couldn't be used interchangeable.

Pui-Lai To, E-Ping Sung (2014) indicate that the most frequently mentioned hedonic motivations are pleasure of bargaining, privacy, social, learning trends and online shopping achievement accordingly. It appears that consumers fully enjoy having the choice to interact with someone (pleasure of bargaining and social) or not interact with anyone (privacy) on the Internet.

Debansu Chatterjee and Indrajit Ghosal (2015) point that across different demographics factors; gender has impacted possession of internet and frequency of online purchase of consumers. **Ainnecia Yoag and Ruth S. Siganul (2015)** state that website content has naturally become one of the most important tissues for modern retailers to promote their products and services in order to maximize profits in the global competitive market.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The Researcher used Descriptive Research Design in this research. Primary Data's were collected using questionnaire and Secondary data's were collected from journals, books and websites. The collected data were edited, coded, classified and tabulated for analysis. The sampling technique used by the researcher is convenience sampling. Sample size taken for the study is 125.

DATA ANALYSIS & INTERPRETATIONS

TABLE 1: RANKING OF PRODUCTS PURCHASED THROUGH ONLINE SHOPPING

Online Products	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Rank
Electronic products	125	1	10	3.54	1
Clothes	125	1	10	4.58	2
Books	125	1	10	5.12	4
Musics	125	1	10	4.85	3
Cosmetic & Jewellery	125	1	10	5.46	6
Gifts	125	1	10	5.79	7
Games	125	1	10	6.14	9
Housewares	125	1	10	6.64	10
Tickets	125	1	10	5.25	5
Food	125	1	10	6.01	8

Source: From Primary data

Result: From the above table it is clear that electronic products rank 1 in online shopping and it is followed by clothes in the 2nd rank and Music in the 3rd rank and houseware products are ranked 10th in online shopping.

TABLE 2: RANKING OF ONLINE SHOPPING SITES

Online Sites	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Rank
Amazon.in	125	1	11	3.04	1
Flipkart.com	125	1	11	3.26	2
Snapdeal.com	125	1	11	4.18	3
Paytm.com	125	1	11	5.18	5
Ebay.in	125	1	11	5.09	4
Jabong.com	125	1	11	6.20	6
Myntra.com	125	1	11	6.34	7
Shopclues.com	125	1	11	7.22	8
Pepperfry.com	125	1	11	7.48	10
Goodlife.com	125	1	11	7.36	9
Bigbasket.com	125	1	11	8.06	11

Source: From Primary data

Result: From the above table it is inferred that Amazon.in is ranked 1st in online shopping sites by the respondents followed by Flipkart.com and Snapdeal.com in the 2nd and 3rd rank. Bigbasket.com is in the 11th rank in online shopping sites.

TABLE 3: CONSUMERS OPINION ON PRODUCT RISK IN ONLINE SHOPPING

OPINION OF CONSUMERS ON PRODUCT RISK IN ONLINE SHOPPING	MEAN	STD. DEVIATION
I might not get what I ordered through online shopping	3.30	1.253
I might receive malfunctioning merchandise	3.25	1.133
It is hard to judge the quality of merchandise over Internet	3.39	1.175
I might get damaged product	3.32	1.290
I may not get after sale service	3.35	1.335
Risk involved in exchange of product	3.28	1.324

Source: From Primary data

Result: From the table it is inferred that major risk involved in risk in online shopping is the difficulty to judge the quality of product through internet value with a mean value of 3.39 followed by difficulty that may involve in availing after sale service with a mean value of 3.35, damaged product with a mean value of 3.32, risk in not getting the product ordered through online with a mean value of 3.30, risk involved in exchange of product with a mean value of 3.28 and receipt of malfunctioning merchandise with a mean value.

TABLE 4: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON CONSUMERS OPINION ON PERCEIVED RISK IN ONLINE SHOPPING

OPINION OF CONSUMERS ON PERCEIVED RISK IN ONLINE SHOPPING	MEAN	STD. DEVIATION
I feel that my credit-card details may be compromised and misused if I shop online	3.79	1.056
I might get overcharged if I shop online as the retailer has my credit-card information	3.32	1.126
I feel that my personal information given for transaction to the retailer may be compromised to 3rd party	3.15	1.280

Source: From Primary data

Result: From the table it is inferred that risk about credit card is the major perceived risk in online shopping with a mean value of 3.79, followed by over change that may be imposed with a mean value of 3.32 and compromise of person information with third party with a mean value of 3.15.

TABLE 5: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON CONSUMER OPINION ON CONVENIENCE RISK IN ONLINE SHOPPING

CONSUMER OPINION ON CONVENIENCE RISK IN ONLINE SHOPPING	MEAN	STD. DEVIATION
Finding right product online is difficult	3.55	1.181
If I shop online I cannot wait till the product arrives	3.56	1.086
I cannot get to examine the product when I shop online	3.34	1.310
I feel that it will be difficult settling disputes when I shop online	2.92	1.414
It is not easy to cancel orders when shop online	3.01	1.350
I will have problem in returning product bought online	3.34	1.271

Source: From Primary data

Result: From the table it is inferred that anxiety till the product arrives is an important major factor in convenience risk with a mean value of 3.56 followed by difficulty in finding right product online with a mean value of 3.55. Other subsequent factors that contribute towards convenience risk in online shopping include that not possible to examine product in online shopping with a mean value of 3.34, problem encountered in returning the product when purchased through online with a mean value of 3.34, difficulty to cancel orders when shop online with a mean value of 3.01 and difficulty to settle disputes when shopped online with a mean value of 2.92.

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TABLE 6: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON NON-DELIVERY RISK IN ONLINE SHOPPING

OPINION OF CONSUMERS ON NON DELIVERY RISK IN ONLINE SHOPPING	MEAN	STD. DEVIATION
I might not receive the product ordered online	3.43	1.032
I do not shop online because of non-availability of reliable & well-equipped shipper	3.51	1.069

Source: From Primary data

Result: From the table it is inferred that with regard to non -delivery risk, non-availability of reliable & well-equipped shipper is the major factor with a mean value of 3.51 followed by the fact that they may not receive the product ordered online.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

- Electronic products are ranked number 1 in online shopping and it is followed by clothes in the 2nd rank and Music in the 3rd rank with regard to the products purchased through online shopping.
- Amazon.in is ranked 1st in online shopping sites by the respondents followed by Flipkart.com and Snapdeal.com in the 2nd and 3rd rank in preferred online shopping sites.
- Major risk involved in risk in online shopping is the difficulty to judge the quality of product through internet value with a mean value of 3.39 followed by difficulty that may involve in availing after sale service with a mean value of 3.35
- Risk about credit card is the major perceived risk in online shopping with a mean value of 3.79, followed by overcharge that may be imposed with a mean value of 3.32.
- Anxiety till the product arrives is an important major factor in convenience risk with a mean value of 3.56 followed by difficulty in finding right product online with a mean value of 3.55.
- With regard to non -delivery risk, non-availability of reliable & well-equipped shipper is the major factor with a mean value of 3.51.

DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Online retailing is a growing in a phenomenon way worldwide. Many studies have been conducted by various research scholars and academicians at national level and global level by exploring various factors that affect buying behaviour of online consumers. Findings in this study contribute to understanding the concept of online shopping and the risk that influences on customers' purchase behaviour. The findings can help managers better understand how customers evaluate online shopping risk and how they are performing on different dimensions to identify possible areas that need improvement. Hence this platform provides managers with an opportunity to create better impressions that may convey service quality of online shopping to customers. Managers spend time, effort and often finances in designing the interiors of their physical stores, the online managers should also give importance to good interior design even for their online stores.

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EXPLORING THE STRATEGIES OF INDIAN RURAL NEWSPAPER DURING THE DIGITAL ERA

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ABSTRACT
Not only that of the urban but also of the rural the face of media has change and so is the operation. The preferences and taste of information seeking people has change too. And all the credit goes to the innovation of new technology. Selling hard news alone doesn't suffice the readers thirst for information, so major newspapers start taking innovative steps and created a new trend which will provide news in an entertainment form. The format and contents of the newspapers have to be change drastically as of to stay in the market and to overcome the overwhelming competition posed such by the new electronic media. This paper discussed the strategies to tackle such threat and competition faced by the rural newspaper.

KEYWORDS
media strategy, newspaper, rural press.

INTRODUCTION
Recent studies have pointed out that the print newspaper market is blooming whereas the international market have seen the impeccable impact of the internet and other new media. In India the print media enjoys better circulation and readership especially in the language sector. According to The National Readership Survey (2006) it was reported that there were an estimated 204 million readers of daily newspapers and 222 million readers of all publications in India and by the year 2013 the number has increases to 281 million which is a very significant growth. The situation is still quite promising for the Indian print media also since the number of publications is constantly increasing even though the print media literacy has not increased substantially in the country.

The factors that have been driving the growth of print media in India have been the dominant field of research over the last decade. Most of the studies have pointed out that the ability of the print media to provide more space towards the issue of the general public, and their of setting better agenda, and the print media has the highest credibility among the readers, many readers believed that the information required will be provided to them and trust the print media to make decision on their behalves, print newspaper has higher accuracy and better written in comparison to its substitute which is online news, the tremendous growth of economy and the peoples purchasing power, and escalation of the literacy status. Will the development trends in circulation and readership particularly in the Indian language hold their ground as there emerge the new media?

Although a lot of studies have shown the print media looks strong and viable but, the inner core values of newspaper marketing has been shaken by the new media tools. The biggest challenge for the print media is to find the solution and tackle the problem before bowing down to the new media. The very economic foundation of the Indian press has been traumatized to its root due to the revolution of new media technology like the computer, mobile phone, websites such as social media and other newer interactive digital tools. The traditional flow of newspaper has been interrupted by the digital communication medium, to retain readers as a counter measures modern newspapers began to create websites that offer information in a rich variety and multimedia contents.

THE NEW MEDIA
The innovation of new technology has always been considered to be the extinction of the old existing media. Regardless of the nature of the new technology innovation always have been a major threat to the traditional media. And the survival of the print media has, since the inception of a strong technological presence, been threatened by the prevalence of on-line publications and other substitutes, such as radio, television, the Internet, electronic media and outdoor advertising and the cell phone over the past two decades. With the innovation of radio, newspaper was expected to cease from existing likewise in the later stage when television was invented people believes that the newspaper and the radio production would extinct. Although the subscription of print media and listeners for the radio broadcast has highly been effected by the innovation of television but far from extinction both the media remains a worthy competitor for the television. And this we can expect to continue in the long term. But the competition has never been tougher, so as to stay in the market a healthy strategy must be developed. With the introduction of internet and the birth of much more mobile technology the print media has been losing a lot reader. Our technology has never been more mobile which enables us to access any information from any part of the world. Accessing our favorite news comes in a different ways and form like video clips, audio or the visual online newspapers. Although, the media's ability to connect and sustain networks, has certainly increased with the digital development (Andersson & Jansson 2010), the challenge still lies with the rural print media industry where there are no high speed internet and the people doesn't have the latest technology to access or the necessary skills to use such complicated mobile machines.

RURAL MEDIA SCENARIO
Rural newspaper has been defined as one that is primarily publishes from a rural area devoting at least 50 per cent of its contents to the problems relating to the rural community, in a language akin to the ideas of the rural readers (Raja 2011). In our society today 70% of the population still lives in the rural area, but the urban bias is clearly reflected in the contents of the newspapers wherein the news regarding rural areas hardly comprise of 25% of the total media exposure. Khan & Khan (2012) has describe in their research that rural markets in India has the potential to generate bigger revenues in the country, as the rural areas encompass of the maximum buyers in this country. Based on the society and the surroundings that we lived in people need different information. The Rural Press is a link between the policy makers, development bureaucracy and farmers. It is a second line of conversion of scientific knowledge into information for utilization in the field situations. Its importance as a vehicle for reinforcing the literacy habit and for promoting social awareness and development is being increasingly recognized. The rural press is a promising medium for disseminating information and knowledge about nutrition, health, hygiene, improved farm practices, family planning measures and development plans to those sections of society where the information is mostly needed (Raja 2011). Although there's been a vast and free information available on the internet many people in the rural have no access to the internet. In the meantime, that internet information provided by those players couldn't really meets the desired audience and the information requirement of the rural news reader. For instance, people in the rural needs information about their society or community and also information related to agriculture as most of the population in rural are engage in farming. News about celebrities and mega

events happening in urban areas were of no much important to the village people. Village life starts early and exhausted from their day labor they retired early at night, the amount of time spends on reading and listening to radio or watching television were relatively much lower comparing to the urban population. And this short amount of time people spend on news media could be utilized in a proper and affective way. It could be almost regarded as a habit that most of the people during their free time would grab a newspaper if it is lying around.

Rural press is one of the most important, viable and effective means of communication for reaching out to the vast majority of rural population. The role of rural press has been universally recognized by all those who are interested in development (Justice G.N. Ray 2009). The local print newspapers have little source of revenue as compared to urban newspaper where the expenses were met by the advertising column. Rural newspapers also rely heavily on advertising revenues rather than the relatively meagre subscriptions fees and newsstand sales to stay in the competition. The rising disposable income has increased the purchasing powers of consumers in India's villages a phenomenon that certainly will encourage consumer goods companies to penetrate the market hoping to increase the appeal of their products or services through ads adapted to local languages and cultures. Khan & Khan (2012), Firms operating in industries are currently employing innovative marketing practices for their survival which is advertising as well as to increase their market share. For all this reason the rural newspaper market has the potential to rise beyond an average growth. However, rural areas have their own limitations in terms of large number of villages with thin population density, accessibility, infrastructure, telecommunication network, illiteracy, social and cultural backwardness and low disposable income (Khan& Khan 2012). In the back-drop most of the local papers were run by a family with limited employee and of course limited knowledge of expansion and without proper management skills. And the information has highly been influence by their personal perception and opinion. But, with more amount of investment of time and money they could probably do small miracles.

The problem has been exacerbated by a reduction in consumers' demand, and a change in consumers' preferences on account of the increased presence of both social media, which have been circulating gratis, and on-line publications. Another threat of the Internet is that information is delivered speedily and it is updated frequently throughout the day. The printed word is only available when the next edition is published. The cost of reaching to the customers sitting or located in rural and remote areas requires a lot of investment especially in case of unconventional modes. Only 57 percent of rural households have any type of mass media connections. Of these, 23 percent have access to print media and 36 percent are the viewers of televisions.

The number of languages and dialects vary from state to state and region to region. The distribution of scattered population warrants proper strategies to decide the extent of coverage of rural market. It becomes a real challenge to reach out a large number of people at an affordable cost. At the same time people do not adapt to new practices as life in rural areas is based very strongly on tradition and customs.

MEDIA STRATEGIES

Many people can have great ideas so the real challenge is learning how to manage ideas. The basis of media strategies should highlight the localness of approach and dissemination of culturally appropriate information. The strategies would have to be innovative, realistic, chiseled and shaped to fine-tune the aspirations of the people and preferably be adopted by the local resource persons. The general use of print media is to provide information, to sensitize, reach and stabilize groups of rural people. Until recently, the print media has the advantage of being relatively cheap, as well as convenient to read because of the fact that written words or pictures on a paper medium becomes highly portable and available to a wide range of people. But the recent trends in technology has reshape the overall media platform. There are six factors that every rural newspaper manager need to analyze seriously as to tackle the internet effect.

ENVIRONMENTAL SCANNING

The first and fore most important thing to do before taking a huge leap is to study the environment thoroughly so as to determine preferences and taste of the targeted audience. The media industry is experiencing extreme environmental change, arising from contiguous but unrelated changes in technology, regulation, and consumer behavior (kung 2007). The aim of the environmental scan is to research and compare how different jurisdictions use media. The research shall explore implications of media usage arising from convergent administrative and social trends by examining the environmental impact of news reading habit. Environmental scanning seeks out both potential opportunities and challenges by surveying different public sector experiences.

- **COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT:** It is a term that is used to describe the involvement of the public with knowledge of reading or listening, developing their understanding of, and interacting with, non-specialists. Participatory engagement is an ideal that many media organization aspire to and the emergence of new ICTs, particularly social media has transform this ambition more reachable.
- **NEW TECHNOLOGY CHALLENGES**: The invention of the telegraph was believed to disrupt print news industry, the same happen with radio and television but, print newspapers have confronted challenges over the decades and yet publishers have each time adapted and endured. But, the Internet over a few years of its existence has shaken the traditional newspaper model and prove to be a fierce foe. Small and large newspapers alike may have no choice but to abandon their traditional methods for a more innovative approach when faced with such an adversary.
- **COMPETITORS**: The local newspapers are not without competition, there has been an imminent threat from the national dailies and free community newspapers let alone the internet. The advent of the Internet has meant increased competition for news service provider as the internet provides vast amount of information for free. Such trends in combination with additional factors have left many newspapers in risk of closing down or being forced to undertake drastic cost cutting.
- **POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT**: Non-market forces are as important as market factors for not only newspaper firms but as well as for many businesses. The collaboration between government organizations, elected bureaucrats, policy-oriented activists and NGOs shape the legal environment for newspaper firms in ways that have direct implications for their bottom line. The rules and regulations were created by the politicians and it have a very significant impact on the cost of running a business and the way it can market products and services.

BUILDING SKILLED/EFFECTIVE TEAM: Team building is a process that helps a group of workers to become into a unified unit. Whether it be a local community, place of work or professional sports, building team always requires deep understanding of their strengths and motivating them to get excited to work along others. Team building requires the administration of personalities and their consistent for consideration. Team building is considered both as an art and a science and the leader who can consistently build high performance teams will always monitor their progress and effectiveness. In order for an organization to thrive, it is essential to figure out how to shape a team that works well together which may prove be a difficult task. Building a team means elaborating people with different skillsets and personal qualities to work towards a common complex goal. Likewise, employing the right person for the right job save you from unexpected blunders and hiring a person with the necessary skill save you time and money. When the team consist of a right proportionate amount of evenly distributed skilled worker having required knowledge, the work flow faster and the training time can be reduced.

CREATIVITY AND INNOVATION: Do the traditional news operations really need innovation are they ready? The ability of firms to innovate is a primary factor in gaining and sustaining competitive advantage (Nelson and Winter, 1985). Allocate more budget on research and innovation, as this will be the growth driver in the future. To meet the desired requirements of the reader it is always necessary to be creative as readers seeks not only news but infotainment in the present era. Technology represents both a new platform that facilitates innovation in terms of the distribution of existing products and services, and a platform for publishing which enables innovations in journalism and user interaction, (Krumsvik, Skogerbø & Storsul 2013). Without doubt, like every other organization to excel print media requires creativity as much to stay in the competitive market. This strategic relevance of creativity for organizational performance in the media industry is without doubt to be highly prioritize. The approach was design to liberate and provide autonomy to journalists in pursuing their jobs within the bounds of journalistic values and ethics. Creativity and innovation will transpire only when such freedom is granted to the various level of workers and journalists. At the same time, it is as much important that higher authorities to recognize the talent and cultivate their employees' creativity into actual performance.

RISK TAKING: Creativity and innovation always leads to an uncertain outcome which may or may not always be desirable. When it comes to risk journalists are known to take a lot of risk in their jobs, of course it's done in the course of reporting a story. But there is also other risk involved in starting or operating and

running of business, or taking critical decision of changes on how the existing business is run. Few of the examples are whether or not to introduce paywalls for online news, or trying to build up community coverage and re-establish a connection with readers by spending more money to penetrate the intense local markets. There is a huge difference between survival and success and one needs to really understand the concept as to gain competitive advantage and their risk is always involved. The truth is that the success of the media industry is extremely unpredictable, you can't be sure that you will succeed even if you have the right strategy to deal with. Especially, during the internet age where everyone uses their laptop, tablet and cellular phones to access their favorite news online. The failure to oversee danger can highly be disastrous for progress activities and the marketing environments are increasingly complex as they strive to position for changing consumer behavior, channel proliferation and the demands of innovation.

VALUE CREATION: Organizations have seen the daily paper as the essential product of value created by the organization and did not adjust the newsroom schedules that had been made through the decades for creating that item productively. The advance of the Internet is leading to significant disruptions in the newspaper industry value chain. Network size is a fundamental driver of value in network externalities. It is important that to strengthen the newspaper's network, series of strategic alliances should be established with bigger national or international newspapers and media. To confront such a challenge, organizations must have a clear objective that clarify how the changes will not only address economic actualities but similarly endure the professional values that journalists consider important to their professionalism.

ADAPTING TO CHANGES/ CHANGE CAPACITY: Consumers increasingly embrace online newspapers (Kaye and Johnson 2004). Every business should always be dynamic as always a new challenges or competitors always appears from nowhere to ruin your business. As also for the rural newspaper it is strategically viable to move along with the new technology as to widen the readership base community. Companies assumed the Internet was "cannibalizing" contents that used to be more profitable than websites. But usage grew faster than expected and when traditional companies wanted to come back, it was too late (Pérez-Latre, 2003). The internet has converted the world into global village (Mohanty and Parhi 2011).

Since the introduction of internet there has been many newspaper firms that offer free information on their websites. This has been the measure taken by the big media player as to retain their loyal readers using the latest technology. There are blogs and which are completely free and easy to access, these becomes the most important tools for the rural print managers to retain their readers during the era of new information technology where readers seek their information online. The internet enables higher and better interaction between the news provider and their reader which would lead to the exchange of information where the writer provides news and the reader provide opinions, suggestion and comment. These information proves to be highly important as they represent the preference of the reader.

CONCLUSION

Newspapers have faced a series of challenges for many years, not always successfully. Newspaper publishing companies will have to find their way in the information and communications landscape. This information and communications landscape is a playing field larger than the traditional publishing environment. In order to survive and prosper in the today's changing industry structure and competitive situation, newspapers publishing companies clearly require a viable competitive strategy.

For newspaper publishing companies to maintain or create a sustainable competitive advantage, it is important to identify specific industry environments within which the cost advantage and differentiation strategy are likely to succeed. A publisher's ability to change its organizational structure and existing activities and businesses along the evolution of technology in the industry can be seen as a major source of failure or success. The strategic choices pursue by individual newspaper publishing companies will be influenced by a variety of local market conditions and internal organizational and operational factors. Although the strategies will differ among companies, they must continually emphasize and improve on their strength in news, context, and analysis.

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A STUDY ON THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL MEDIA ON THE CAR CONSUMERS - WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO ERODE DISTRICT, TAMIL NADU

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ABSTRACT
The automotive industry in India is one of the largest and is experiencing a significant growth each year. With increase in paying capacity and improved lifestyles, the industry is set to grow. According to Society of Indian Automobile Manufacturers, the country is home to the largest two-wheeler productions with domestic market share of 81% in 2014-2015. The country produced over 23 million vehicles in 2014-2015 and is expected to be the global leader by 2020. Social Media Marketing is also boosting public relations business. Several PR agencies in India are undertaking brand building exercises for corporate organizations, brands and celebrities. A simple random sampling technique is adopted in the paper to select the sample respondents. The source of data is the primary research done by conducting survey of the targeted individuals. The targeted sample size was 50 respondents. Vast majority (78 per cent) of the respondents were very effective opinion about overall performance of social media. There is a significant difference between brand preference and their overall performance of social media. The research can find its usefulness in equating the impact social media leaves on the end consumers.

KEYWORDS
social media, car consumers, automobile industry.

INTRODUCTION
ndia has 71 million active internet users. Social Media is really picking up new heights in India. According to the 2010 Regus Global Survey of business social networking, India tops the usage of social networking by business – it has the highest activity index, 127, far more than the US'97, and 52% of the Indian respondent companies said that they had acquired new customers using social networks while 35% American companies managed that. Many companies are coming big way for Social Media Optimization for their Product or Services nowadays. During Election 2009 Social Media was used for Influence Indian Voters. Social Media Marketing in India is being undertaken by brands like Tata Docomo, MTV India, Channel V, Clear Trip, Tata Photon, Axe deodorants, Microsoft, Naukri, Shaadi and many more. Besides, numerous Indian celebrities are also using SMM platform to promote their movies, music and events via Twitter, Face book and personalized blogs.

Social Media Marketing is also boosting public relations business. Several PR agencies in India are undertaking brand building exercises for corporate organizations, brands and celebrities. However, to the delight of many among us, the biggest gainers from SMM till date have been the organizations from the Not-for Profit sector. Several Campaigns like 'Bell Bajao' and 'Jaago Re' have been quite successful on Social Networking Sites. These campaigns have been spreading the word about their cause through blogs, Twitter and Facebook.

Social media in particular is one area that has radically changed the market and given a new face to the businesses. Consumers are much smarter and are not just interested in messages being broadcast to them and are engaging more with social networks. Through these they are finding out what products to buy, services to use, and so on, based on trusted recommendations from their friends and family. It is estimated that 78% of the time if you read a recommendation from friends online you trust that recommendation but what's more interesting is that if you read that recommendation from someone you don't know you still trust it 60% of the time. Internet Marketing is one of the means used widely to market business online.

(a) Social Media Marketing: It uses social media sites like Face book, Google+, Twitter, You tube, Instagram, etc. to advertise and promote the products. The real time updates keep the users interest intact towards the products. It also helps the companies to know about consumers' interest which helps them to market their product in a better way.

(b) Email Marketing: The sales and promotions are made via email to the registered customers as well as the potential customers. Different advertisements of products are sent through email which makes the customers familiar about the product. Moreover, to promote sales, the customers are sent different discount coupons through email to gain more attraction towards the products.

(c) Web Marketing: Through web marketing, knowledge about the product can be gained just by surfing different websites which includes all the information. Customers need not to actually go to the stores to know about the products which indeed have popularized web marketing.

ROLE OF SOCIAL MEDIA IN MARKETING
Social media is now increasingly becoming an ingrained aspect of political campaigns, national defense strategies, public policy, public relations, brand management and even intra company communication. Since the major task of marketing as tool used to inform consumers about the company's products, who they are and what they offer, Social marketing plays an important role in marketing.
o   Social media can be used to provide an identity about the companies and the products or services that they offer.
o   Social media helps in creating relationships with people who might not otherwise know about the products or service or what the companies represent.
o   Social media makes companies "real" to consumers. If they want people to follow them they need not just talk about the latest product news, but share their personality with them.
o   Social media can be used to associate themselves with their peers that may be serving the same target market.
o   Social media can be used to communicate and provide the interaction that consumers look for.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Satish Kumar (2012), the paper investigated the changing ideal models of Marketing Communication and highlighted the vitality of Social Media as a successful advertising specialized apparatus. The paper looked at the Ford India's procedure of utilizing Social media as a part of making mindfulness and inclination for its Ford Figo auto. The Ford Motors were fit to adjust their autos and advancement devices to the Indian market. The achievement of Ford was mostly ascribed to its

development and successful promoting system for Indian market. The organization was fit to manufacture solid brands and reinforce its client relationship by successfully utilizing Social Media. The paper talked about the Social Media fight "Uncover Smart Drive" embraced by Ford India for its Ford Figo auto and the results of the battle. The paper additionally clarified the key triumph components and how Ford India could viably utilize social media for the Ford Figo's "Discover Smart Drive" campaign.

Michael A. Stelzner (2013) in his report examined that to know how advertisers utilized Social media to develop their business led a study of 3000 advertisers and found that there was a period responsibility from advertisers side on week after week foundation on social advertising subsequently they got real preferences from social promoting exertions, uncovered which stage was utilized generally by them to advertise their items or administrations, social destinations they were intrigued to research.

Automobile Digest (2013) in their report examined about the web advertising correspondence fights which incorporated 30 publications, advertorial and videotorial stages with constraining customer flag promoting and messaging. They presented their site called automotivedigest.com is an on-line media magazine that gave an electronic media overview of the most noteworthy news, improvements, and exercises.

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The paper focuses on four wheeler automobile industry in India for studying the existing and potential usage of social media in marketing & promotional activities. Four wheeler segments in India have a high potential to grow in near future. Proper means of marketing elements may elicit the company's performance. Hence this study has been conducted to know the awareness level of social media, existing usage of social media in marketing of four wheelers and consumer preferences towards different forms of social media.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEMS

Social media usage in India is in primary stage and needs to be explored to strengthen marketing activity or brand image of an automobile company for two-wheeler. For achieving marketing goals, one should have the clear understanding of perceptions and preferences of consumers about social media usage.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

o   To understand the current scenario of social media usage in Indian automobile (four-wheeler) industry.
o   To find out the consumer preferences for social media channels or activities of a four wheeler company.
o   To acquire understanding about consumer perceptions towards social media usage by a company.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology followed in this research was descriptive research. A simple random sampling technique is adopted in the paper to select the sample respondents. The source of data is the primary research done by conducting survey of the targeted individuals. The respondents filled up the data using online forms. For this purpose, a survey was made using Google Forms as an application and an excel file was maintained for the same. The file was analyzed using in-depth analysis and insights were drawn which are shared in this paper. The targeted sample size was 50 respondents.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

It is a well-known fact that with the advent of increasing purchasing power and changing life style towards luxury, now car has become a commodity of necessity and has become one of the most important elements of life even to the middle class people. With the advent of social media penetrating into every other industry, automotive industry too can sense its footprint. Many manufacturers and dealers have to adopt new business strategies to adapt themselves with the going flow of social media marketing. The paper aims at studying the scope of the social media and its influence in the Indian automotive sector and the mood of today's consumer. The research can find its usefulness in equating the impact social media leaves on the end consumers.

Study is limited within Erode districts of Tamil Nadu as it would be feasible to analyse the population where awareness of internet technology is high. Sample units include mix of students, professionals, businessmen etc. Following forms of social media are considered for the market study. Social Networking Sites (like MySpace, Facebook etc.) Wikis (like Wikipedia etc.) Micro-blogging (like Twitter etc.) Blogs (WordPress, Blogger, TypePad etc.) Forums (like Consumer forum etc.) RSS feeds (like Google alerts etc.) Content Communities (like YouTube, Flickr, and Slideshare etc.)

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

TABLE 1: CLASSIFICATION TOWARDS PERSONAL PROFILE AND PERCEPTION WISE

items	No.of respondents (n=50)	Percentage (100%)
Gender		
Male	46	92
Female	4	8
Occupation		
Business	29	58
Professors	14	28
Others	7	14
Reason for buying		
Fuel Efficiency	5	10
Updating of Car	39	78
Trouble free	2	4
Less Maintenance	4	8
Reason for choosing Brand		
Looks Good	36	72
Very Popular Brand	5	10
Highly Advertised	6	12
Fuel Efficiency	3	6
Purpose of using Car		
Prestige symbol	42	84
Family travel	5	10
Convenience	3	6
Reasons for social media usage in four wheeler industry		
To browse four wheelers related information	32	64
To make comparisons	6	12
To search preferred dealer network	4	8
To check reviews of brand	3	6
To refer latest news about company	3	6
To check for promotional schemes	2	4
Brand Preference		
Maruti Suzuki	12	24
Hyundai	7	14
Mahindra & Mahindra	3	6
Toyota	2	4
Tata Motors	4	8
Honda	2	4
Ford	4	8
Chevrolet	3	6
Volkswagen	4	8
Renault	5	10
Nissan	3	6
Skoda	5	10
Fiat	6	12
HM-Mitsubishi	5	10
Overall performance of social media		
Very effective	39	78
Effective	7	14
No opinion	1	2
Ineffective	2	4
Very ineffective	1	2

Vast majority (92 per cent) of the respondents was male and remaining 8 per cent were female. More than half (58 per cent) of the respondents were worked in business, 28 per cent were professor and remaining 14 per cent were others. Vast majority (78 per cent) of the respondents were buying reason for updating of cars, 10 per cent were fuel efficiency, 8 per cent were less maintenance and remaining 4 per cent were trouble free. Vast majority (72 per cent) of the respondents were brand chosen reasons for looking good, 12 per cent were highly advertisement, 10 per cent were very popular brand and remaining 6 per cent were fuel efficiency. Vast majority (84 per cent) of the respondents were using prestige symbol, 10 per cent were family travel and remaining 6 per cent were convenience. Majority (64 per cent) of the respondents were browse four wheelers related information, 12 per cent were make comparisons and remaining 8 per cent were preferred dealers network. Nearly one fourth (24 per cent) of the respondents were preferred Maruti Suzuki brand, 14 per cent were Hyundai, 12 per cent were fiat and remaining less 10 per cent were others brands. Vast majority (78 per cent) of the respondents were very effective opinion about overall performance of social media, 14 per cent were effective, 4 per cent were in effective and remaining each 2 per cent were no opinion and very ineffective.

TABLE 2: DIFFERENCE BETWEEN BRAND PREFERENCE AND THEIR OVERALL PERFORMANCE OF SOCIAL MEDIA

Overall performance of social media	n	Mean	S.D	Statistical inference
Maruti Suzuki	12	4.52	0.843	
Hyundai	7	3.59	0.815	
Mahindra & Mahindra	3	3.15	0.948	
Toyota	2	3.68	0.997	
Tata Motors	4	3.86	0.999	
Honda	2	3.51	0.841	
Ford	4	3.81	0.891	f=19.973
Chevrolet	3	3.78	0.884	0.004<0.05
Volkswagen	4	3.84	0.948	Significant
Renault	5	3.42	0.845	
Nissan	3	3.97	0.884	
Skoda	5	3.25	0.918	
Fiat	6	3.68	0.847	
HM-Mitsubishi	5	3.86	0.987	

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

There is a significant difference between brand preference and their overall performance of social media.

The above table reveals that there is a significant difference between brand preference and their overall performance of social media. Hence, the calculated value less than table value ($p<0.05$). So the research hypothesis is accepted.

CONCLUSION

This research depicted quite principal results and it can be inferred that a lot of research is expected to fully utilize the social media influences in the automotive consumers. The number of people searching information relating to their next purchase vehicle was significantly dependent on Social Media platforms and reviews formed a good part in influencing the buying decision of the same. It can also be inferred that many people look forward toward connected vehicle technology. Most of the people today are present on some or the other social media platforms and new vehicle launches related posts followed by promotions attracted most of the response. It can be concluded that social media marketing is one of the key areas the manufacturers need to focus on in this modern era for the promotions of new advancements and activities.

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EFFECTIVENESS OF VALUE ADDED SERVICE IN PUBLIC SECTOR BANKS - A FACTOR ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT
Public sector banks provide various value added services to the customers. The awareness level of customers is increasing day by day. Their expectations are also increasing for choice of choosing the product and services. The Public sector banks offering Value Added Services like bill payments, transfer of money, enquiring account balances, buying and selling of financial instruments such as securities, credit cards, mutual funds, ATM cum debit card, insurance policy, demat accounts and so on. Creation of all those facilities involves very huge investment. So it's most important to increase the usage of Value Added Services among the customers to improve the operational efficiency and get maximum benefit from the investment made in these facilities.

INTRODUCTION

Banking industry in India has achieved a new height with the changing times. The use of technology has brought a revolution in the working style of the banks. Today technology not only facilitates automation of process and data processing but also provides more value addition to the entire banking business. Further, it's directly and visibly linked to 'value to customer'. Banking today has transformed into a technology intensive and customer friendly model with a focus of convenience. Information Technologies also facilitates the introduction of new delivery channels – in the form of Automated Teller Machine, Net Banking, Mobile Banking, card mechanism and the like. All though Information Technologies enhances the banks in achieving higher customer satisfaction by extending value added services.

Public sector banks provide various value added services to the customers. The awareness level of customers is increasing day by day. Their expectations are also increasing for choice of choosing the product and services. The Public sector banks offering Value Added Services like bill payments, transfer of money, enquiring account balances, buying and selling of financial instruments such as securities, credit cards, mutual funds, ATM cum debit card, insurance policy, demat accounts and so on. Creation of all those facilities involves very huge investment. So it's most important to increase the usage of Value Added Services among the customers to improve the operational efficiency and get maximum benefit from the investment made in these facilities.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Banking services are regarded as one of the important services. Banks provide financial services to the customers. Banks need to create and develop the services which can satisfy the consumer needs. Therefore, the present research work has been carried out to analyze the customer perception towards customer services with value added services of Public sector banks in Erode town. It is limited only to customers of Selected Public sector banks in Erode town. The data was collected from 700 respondents from June 2014 – Dec 2016. The present study mainly highlights the customer perception towards value added services are utilized by the customers provided by the public sector banks.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In the present world, the customer is a customer of the bank and not of the branch. Consequently, transforming customer demands and explosion of new technologies, such as CBS (Core Banking Solution), Business process Re-engineering (BPR), ATMs, Real Time Gross settlement (RTGS), make it necessary for banks to move from transaction banking to customer-centric solutions.

In order to increase the number of customers using these Value Added Services, it is imperative to understand the customer's awareness and preference for use of Value Added Services, the factors that influence the adoption of these facilities, problems encountered in using Value Added Services and customers expectations. Information on the above aspects would be useful to formulate programme to motivate more and more customers to utilize the value added facilities.

Most of the value added features have been worked out, based on today's technology empowerments and changes in the life style of the users. Now billions of customers are being handled with care and caution by services without scarifying the concepts of privacy and reasonable care. In future, people have to transact using remote banking and virtual banking facilities.

Banks are increasingly launching Self-service banking in the front lobby of branches enables customers to use alternative banking channels-ATMs, Phone Banking, Check Deposit Machine and Pass Book printer without entering the branch, any time of the day, irrespective of whether the branch open or closed. The per transaction cost incurred on one customer in the physical branch is Rs.50 on an average, while using Value added service cost will about minimum of Rs.10 for similar transaction. This study would help establish the framework for value added services are utilized by the customers.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The specific objectives of the study are:
1. To suggest measures for improving the usage of Value Added Service.
2. To examine the expectations and the level of satisfaction of the customers towards the Value Added service rendered by Public sector bank.
3. To identify the various services enjoyed by the customers.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN
SOURCES OF DATA

The current study is descriptive in nature. The study is focused on customer perception towards customer services with value added services of public sector banks in Erode town. In this study two types of data have been used. There are primary data and secondary data. Primary data is a type of information that is obtained directly from first-hand sources by means of surveys, observation or experimentation. It is data that has not been previously published and is derived from a new or original research study and collected at the source.

The study mainly based on primary data. There are several methods of collecting primary data like interview, observation, case studies and so on. The primary data was collected by the respondents from selected public sector banks in Erode town through a well-designed questionnaire.

Data has been collected secondary sources such as reports, books, journals, documents, magazines, periodicals, newspapers and website and other reference material available from various sources. The researcher approach various institutions like, RBI staff training college, Chennai, Institute for financial management and research (IFMR), Chennai, Madras University Library, Chennai, Bharathiyar University Library, Coimbatore, Bharathidasan University Library, Thiruchirapalli, Periyar University Library, Salem, The Lead Bank, Erode.

SAMPLE SELECTED FOR THE STUDY

The study is to determine the customer perception towards customer services with value added services of Public sector banks in Erode town. The sample Public sector banks have been selected on the basis of size and services provided by the bank, which are utilized by the customers. The primary data collected from the customers of selected Public sector banks, for this purpose to list the operating banks in Erode Town records were obtained from Indian Bank, The Lead Bank of Erode.

There are totally 15 Public sector banks in Erode town. Out of 15 banks only 10 banks have been selected for this study. The selected Public sector banks in Erode Town as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.1

S. No	Name of the Bank
1	Indian Bank
2	Bank of Baroda
3	Bank of India
4	Canara Bank
5	Central Bank of India
6	Indian overseas Bank
7	Punjab National Bank
8	State Bank of India
9	Syndicate Bank
10	Union Bank of India

From the 10 Public sector banks 700 respondents were selected for the study by adopting the method of convenient random sampling method.

SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

The Erode Town was chosen for the purpose of the study on the basis of convenient sampling. Respondents were chosen at random from the selected public sector banks.

In order to study customer perception towards customer services with value added services of public sector banks in Erode town. A Non random sampling technique of "convenient sampling" procedure is applied to collect various respondents from selected Public Sector Banks in Erode town. Out of 750 respondents only 700 respondents were selected. Hence, due to unfilled questionnaire, 50 respondents have been rejected and 700 respondents have been finally accepted for analysis and interpretation.

STATISTICAL TOOLS

The primary data collected from the respondents were analyzed and presented in the form of tables, Bar charts and Pie diagrams are used. The entire statistical test in this study was carried out at 5% and 1% level of significance. In this present study the following statistical tools are used.
- Factor analysis
- Regression Analysis

PERIOD OF STUDY

The period of study was three years from 2014 to 2016. The data were collected from 700 respondents by 10 selected Public sector banks in Erode town. The primary data was collected from the respondents from June 2014 – Dec 2016.

INTRODUCTION OF FACTOR ANALYSIS

Factor analysis is a multivariate analysis procedure that attempts to identify any underlying 'factors' that are responsible for the co-variation among group independent variables. The goals of a factor analysis are typically to reduce the number of variables used to explain a relationship or to determine which variables show a relationship. The variables must represent indicators of some common underlying dimension or concept such that they can be grouped together theoretically as well as mathematically.

The banking customers' value added towards services offered by the public sector banks in Erode district is discussed with the factor analysis multivariate technique. However, before applying factor analysis, the data were tested for its appropriateness. For this purpose, twenty six variables has been selected viz., Var 1 (ATM), Var 2 (Tele banking), Var 3 (Demat Account), Var 4 (Electronic Clearing System), Var 5 (Mobile Banking), Var 6 (Financial Advisor), Var 7 (Anywhere Banking), Var 8 (International Debit Card), Var 9 (Credit Card), Var 10 (Electronic Fund Transfer), Var 11 (Internet Banking), Var 12 (Inter – Bank fund transfer services), Var 13 (Intra – Bank fund transfer services), Var 14 (Electricity, Gas, DTH, Telephone, Water), Var 15 (Insurance Premium payments), Var 16 (Mutual fund), Var 17 (Government & Municipality Tax payment), Var 18 (Institution fee payment), Var 19 (Fees payment to School, College, Universities), Var 20 (Donation for Charity), Var 21 (Mobile recharge), Var 22 (New Pension system), Var 23 (PAN service Agency), Var 24 (Any Branch Banking), Var 25 (International ATM cum Shopping Card), Var 26 (Others). All the 26 factors were selected for factor analysis by using principle component extraction with an orthogonal (Varimax) rotation. The factor matrix is a matrix of loading and correlations between the variables and the factors.

TABLE 1: COMMUNALITIES

Variables	Initial	Extraction
ATM	1.000	0.597
Tele Banking	1.000	0.534
Demat account	1.000	0.531
Electronic clearing systems	1.000	0.654
Mobile Banking	1.000	0.539
Financial Advisor	1.000	0.536
Anywhere Banking	1.000	0.588
International Debit Card	1.000	0.533
Credit card	1.000	0.520
Electronic Fund Transfer	1.000	0.546
Internet Banking	1.000	0.546
Inter – Bank fund transfer services	1.000	0.610
Intra – Bank fund transfer services	1.000	0.623
Electricity, Gas, DTH, Telephone, Water	1.000	0.575
Insurance Premium payments	1.000	0.611
Mutual funds	1.000	0.686
Government & Municipality Tax payment	1.000	0.666
Institution fee payment	1.000	0.718
Fees payment to School, College, Universities	1.000	0.654
Donation for Charity	1.000	0.618
Mobile Recharge	1.000	0.635
New pension system	1.000	0.608
PAN service Agency	1.000	0.517
Any Branch Banking	1.000	0.530
International ATM cum Shopping Card	1.000	0.679
Others	1.000	0.571
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis		

The above Table 1 enumerates that the communalities of the selected 26 variables have good reliability and keenly checked that no one variable has low loading, i.e., less than 0.5. Thus finally, the 26 variables are selected for the factor analysis. The appropriateness of the data for the factor analysis is discussed in the following KMO and Bartletts' test.

TABLE 2: KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.953
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1.059
	df	325
	Sig.	0.000

The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) and Bartletts test of Sphericity are applied to verify the adequacy or appropriateness of the data for factor analysis. In this study, the value of KMO for overall matrix is found to be good (0.953) and Bartletts test of Sphericity is highly significant (p < 0.001). The results thus indicate that the samples taken are appropriate to proceed with the factor analysis. Also, the Bartletts Test of Sphericity, the KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Communality values of all the variables are observed.

Further, to define the factors clearly, it was decided to delete any variable that had loading below ± 0.50. With this criterion, a series of factor analysis was performed on the data. Following each analysis, items which did not meet the criteria were deleted from the analysis. After this preliminary step, factor analysis with principal component analysis as an extraction method was performed on the remaining items.

TABLE 3: TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.918	45.838	45.838	11.918	45.838	45.838	5.354	20.593	20.593
2	1.328	5.109	50.947	1.328	5.109	50.947	4.925	18.943	39.535
3	1.156	4.447	55.394	1.156	4.447	55.394	3.578	13.762	53.297
4	1.019	3.919	59.313	1.019	3.919	59.313	1.564	6.015	59.313
5	0.935	3.595	62.908						
6	0.902	3.470	66.378						
7	0.803	3.090	69.468						
8	0.760	2.925	72.392						
9	0.653	2.510	74.902						
10	0.598	2.298	77.201						
11	0.566	2.178	79.379						
12	0.517	1.989	81.368						
13	0.483	1.858	83.226						
14	0.463	1.782	85.008						
15	0.454	1.748	86.756						
16	0.439	1.690	88.446						
17	0.420	1.615	90.061						
18	0.380	1.463	91.524						
19	0.341	1.312	92.836						
20	0.337	1.294	94.131						
21	0.330	1.269	95.400						
22	0.286	1.098	96.498						
23	0.282	1.083	97.581						
24	0.254	0.978	98.559						
25	0.191	0.734	99.293						
26	0.184	0.707	100.000						
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.									

TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED

The Table 3 depicts the total variance explained with rotation. The Eigen values for the factors 1, 2, 3 and 4 are 11.918, 1.328, 1.156 and 1.019 respectively. Percentage of variance after the rotation for the factors 1, 2, 3 and 4 are 20.593, 18.943, 13.762 and 6.015 respectively. Cumulative percentage for the factors 1, 2, 3 and 4 after the rotation are 20.593, 39.535, 53.297 and 59.313 respectively. It indicates that the 4 factors extracted from the total of 26 variables have a cumulative percentage up to 59.313 per cent of the total variance.

ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX

After obtaining the factor solutions, in which all the variables have a significant loading on a factor, the researcher attempted to assign meanings to the pattern of factor loadings. Variables with higher loadings are considered more important and have a greater influence on the name or the label selected to represent a factor. The researcher has already examined all the underlined variables for a particular factor and placed greater emphasis on those variables with higher loadings to assign a name or a label to a factor that accurately reflects the variables' loading on that factor. The names or labels are not derived or assigned by the factor analysis computer programme, rather, the label is intuitively developed by the factor analyst based on its appropriateness for representing the underlying dimension of a particular factor. All the four factors are given appropriate names on the basis of the variables represented in each case.

The Table 4 explains the rotated component matrix, in which the extracted factors are assigned a new name related together. Based on the fixing criteria, it is noted that no one loading variable are having the loading value less than 0.5 and so no variables are removed from this analysis. Further four factors have been taken for naming of new variables.

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TABLE 4: ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX

Variables	Component			
	F1	F2	F3	F4
ATM	0.007	-0.024	-0.046	**0.771**
Tele Banking	0.403	**0.569**	0.191	0.102
Demat account	0.214	**0.584**	0.379	-0.002
Electronic clearing systems	0.291	**0.748**	-0.010	0.100
Mobile Banking	0.377	**0.549**	0.210	0.226
Financial Advisor	0.499	**0.507**	0.173	0.018
Anywhere Banking	0.149	**0.731**	0.137	0.113
International Debit Card	0.370	0.371	0.330	**0.386**
Credit card	0.360	0.196	**0.457**	0.378
Electronic Fund Transfer	0.252	0.381	0.408	**0.413**
Internet Banking	0.219	0.366	**0.443**	0.410
Inter – Bank fund transfer services	0.252	**0.569**	0.446	0.154
Intra – Bank fund transfer services	0.254	**0.596**	0.451	0.015
Electricity, Gas, DTH, Telephone, Water	**0.608**	0.274	0.309	0.187
Insurance Premium payments	**0.626**	0.417	0.196	0.077
Mutual funds	**0.674**	0.415	0.243	-0.004
Government & Municipality Tax payment	**0.652**	0.440	0.215	0.017
Institution fee payment	**0.788**	0.182	0.217	0.126
Fees payment to School, College, Universities	**0.753**	0.167	0.191	0.151
Donation for Charity	**0.604**	0.366	0.340	-0.053
Mobile Recharge	**0.619**	0.153	0.413	0.240
New pension system	**0.497**	0.470	0.330	-0.174
PAN service Agency	0.313	0.334	**0.541**	0.123
Any Branch Banking	0.298	**0.509**	0.422	-0.065
International ATM cum Shopping Card	0.270	0.082	**0.759**	0.153
Others	0.239	0.203	**0.675**	-0.133
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.				
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.				
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.				

Factor 1 is the most important factor which explains 20.593 per cent of the variation. The variables Electricity, Gas, DTH, Telephone, Water (0.608), insurance premium payment (0.626), Mutual funds (0.674), Government & Municipality Tax payment (0.625), Institution fee payment (0.788), Fees payment to School, College, Universities (0.753), Donation for charity (0.604), Mobile recharge (0.619) and New pension system (0.497) shows highly inter-correlated with together. These statements reflect the satisfaction of the selected customers towards value added services offered by the public sector banks in the study area. Hence, the researcher names these segments of the consumers are satisfied with the **payment related value added services of the public sector banks**. The reliability of these nine variables is measured by using Cronbach's Alpha.

Factor 2 explains 18.943 per cent of the variation and consist of nine variables. The variables Tele Banking (0.569), Demat account (0.584), Electronic clearing system (0.748), Mobile Banking (0.549), Financial advisor (0.507), Anywhere Banking (0.731), Inter – Bank fund transfer services (0.569), Intra – Bank fund transfer services (0.596) and Any Branch Banking (0.509) shows highly inter-correlated with together. The nine variables reflect the satisfaction of the customers towards tele banking, electronic clearing system mobile banking services offered by the public sector banks in the study area. Hence the researcher names these segments of the consumers are satisfied through **technical related value added services** offered by the public sector banks in Erode district**.** The reliability of these nine variables is measured by using Cronbach's Alpha.

Factors 3 explain 13.762 per cent of the variation and consist of nine variables. The variables Credit card (0.457), Internet Banking (0.443), PAN service Agency (0.541), International ATM cum shopping card (0.759), Other (0.675) shows highly inter-correlated with together. The five variables reflect the satisfaction of the customers towards Internet banking, PAN service agency services offered by the public sector banks in the study area. Hence the researcher names these segments of the consumers are satisfied through **tangible value added services** offered by the public sector banks in Erode district**.** The reliability of these nine variables is measured by using Cronbach's Alpha.

Factor 4 is the most important factor which explains 6.015 per cent of the variation. The variables ATM (0.771), International Debit Card (0.386) and Electronic Fund Transfer (0.413) shows highly inter-correlated with together. These statements reflect the satisfaction of the selected customers towards value added services offered by the public sector banks in the study area. Hence, the researcher names these segments of the consumers are satisfied with the **online related value added services of the public sector banks**. The reliability of these nine variables is measured by using Cronbach's Alpha.

Banking customers' satisfaction towards value added services in the present study composes four factors namely Payment related value added services, Technical related value added service, Tangible value added services and online related value added services. The initial instrument which is having 26 variables was adjusted to account for four factors.

Table shows the total composition of each factor that provides information regarding the items that constituted these four factors with their factor loadings, eigen values and the variance explained by each factor. The four-factor solution accounted for 59.313 per cent of the explained variance. The four-factor solution might be suggested for the customers' satisfaction towards value added services offered by the public sector banks in the study area. All the dimensions are named on the basis of the contents of final items making up each of the four dimensions. The commonly used procedure of Varimax Orthogonal Rotation for the factors whose eigen values are greater than 1.0, is employed in the analysis. The factors so generated have the eigen values between 11.918, 1.328, 1.156 and 1.019. All the items are found highly loaded under these four factors, which indicate that the customers are highly satisfied with the value added services offered by the public sector banks in Erode district. The values of communalities (h^2) range from 0.517 to 0.718 for various factors. It means that the factor analysis extracted a good amount of variance in the variables.

REGRESSION ANALYSIS

To assess the overall effect of the instrument on customers' satisfaction towards value added services in Erode district and to determine the relative importance of the individual dimension of the generated scale, Multiple Regression analysis is performed. For regression analysis, the study adopts the use of a single-item direct measures of overall customers satisfaction in the study area is excellent at five-point Likert scale. The regression model considers the 2 dimensions as the independent variables and the overall influencing factors as the dependent variable. The adjusted R^2 of 0.981 (p=0.000) indicates that 98.1 per cent of variance in overall customers' satisfaction towards value added services is predicted. Further, the results also indicate that all the two variables tangible value added services and intangible value added services to be the significant predictors (p<0.001) of overall customers' satisfaction. Further, VIF values score from 1.168 to 1.197 indicates that multi-collinearity among the independent variables is not a problem.

TABLE NO. 5: EFFECT AND RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE INDIVIDUAL DIMENSIONS OF CUSTOMERS' SATISFACTION – MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

No.	Factors	Standardized Coefficient β	t Value	'p' Value	VIF
	Constant	3.526			
1	Tangible value added services	2.170	13.758	0.000	1.542
2	Intangible value added services	3.011	12.456	0.000	1.423

The resulted equation is
Customers' Satisfaction
= 3.526
$(2.170 \times$ Tangible Value Added Services) +
$(3.011 \times$ Intangible Value Added Services)
It is found that, one unit increase of customers' satisfaction is predicted from 2.170 unit increases of Tangible Value Added Services and 3.011 unit increases of Intangible Value Added Services.

CONCLUSION

It could be found from the factor analysis that the selected 29 factors related to customers' satisfaction towards value added services offered by the public sector banks into two major factors representing Tangible Value Added Services and Intangible Value Added Services and noticed that customers' satisfaction towards value added services is predicted from 2.170 unit increases of Tangible Value Added Services and 3.011 unit increases of Intangible Value Added Services and these two factors are having significant impact on the overall customers satisfaction towards value added services provided by the public sector banks in Erode district. Further, among the two factors, intangible value added services is one of the major satisfaction factor than the tangible value added services among the selected banking customers in Erode district.

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CHALLENGES FACED BY WOMEN IN INTERNATIONAL CAREER

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ABSTRACT
The success of a multinational organisation depends on the effective international human resource management and in identifying the skilled expatriate. The sociocultural, economic, political and organisational factors in home and host country affect the participation of women in international assignments. Women face greater barriers when compared to men in taking up international jobs owing to socio cultural norms, worklife balance issues and lack of organisational support. These barriers prevent the career progression of women. The negative stereotypes about women, occupational segregation and the masculine culture of organisation hinder the integration of women at all levels. Inspite of skill shortage and rising global competition, the participation rate of women is very low at international context. Acknowledging the gendered nature of organisation, inclusion of women at all levels, addressing to their special needs and providing supportive organisational policies and provisions will empower women and promote gender diversity. This article discusses the numerous organisational barriers to international positions for women and how each barrier disadvantages women. It also briefs how the present male centered organisational culture is detrimental to women's development.

KEYWORDS
diversity, expatriation, gender, global organisation, international career, women.

INTRODUCTION
Women, confined to domestic works for long time in history have been pursuing career in various sectors. It is heartening to see increasing number of women CEOs in global organisations. However, they have a long way to go. Though the number of working women is gradually increasing, they face innumerable problems both inside and outside organisations. There have been various researches focusing on the barriers faced by working women for more than a decade. As organisations go global, women also pursue their career in global organisations. But the difficulties that women face in domestic organisations get compounded when they move to international career. The barriers are from various organisational and sociocultural factors. This article focuses on the organizational factors that play a major role in promoting or hindering the career progression of women in international organisations. This also highlights the significance of international assignments and the need for organisational support to women expatriates in various aspects.

SIGNIFICANCE OF INTERNATIONAL CAREER
The expansion of multinational companies across the globe has created a need for expatriates to conduct operations and establish business globally. This has opened up numerous international jobs for employees who are relocated to a host country in a professional capacity. The role of expatriates is significant in expanding global market and in attaining success. The expatriate must be potential enough to conduct business across varied cultures. The successful performance of an international assignment is purely dependent on the skills and ability of an expatriate. These expatriates coordinate various operations abroad and facilitate the communication process between the home country and host country organisation. They represent their company, take control of processes and protect the company interests by getting understanding of the international operations and expanding their company's knowledge base. Though the international assignments are challenging, they are developmental. They involve broader responsibilities, working in new and risky environment, higher level of autonomy and adjustment difficulties arising out of cross cultural differences. These assignments need fulfillment of broader criteria, possession of unique skills and cultural awareness. The expatriates must be open minded and flexible to adapt to the culture and expectations of the host country.

The multinational organizations of almost all countries have difficulty in identifying, attracting and retaining potential employees with required skill set and knowledge base to stay competitive in a global environment. Torrington (1994) suggested from his research that "there is no profile of the ideal expatriate but that culture, economic development, geographical location and the job are important issues that should be considered in the selection of expatriates" (cited in Linehan & Scullion, 2001). This has been proved by a survey that the respondents who find it difficult in identifying potential candidates has increased from 67% in the previous year to 74% (Frazee, 1996 as cited in Haines III & Saba, 1999).

Almost 15% of the employees have been reported to reject the offers of international assignments due to the career of their spouse (Punnet, 1997). The relocation and repatriation problems like loss of status, loss of career direction and loss of autonomy, financial difficulties, and family problems affect the attractiveness of international offers. It has been reported that 25% of repatriated employees leave or intend to leave the organization within one year of repatriation as the companies fail to support them (Selmer & Leung, 2002). Though the attractiveness of international career is declining, they are considered to be significant for career progression.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
1.   To study the organisational barriers to international positions for women and how each barrier disadvantages women by hindering their career progression.
2.   To present male centered organisational culture is detrimental to women's development.

INTERNATIONAL CAREER OF WOMEN
The organisation must consider women at the instance of rising demand for expatriates. Women in international positions are not studied much and it remains an under researched area. The role and influence of gender at international level were not studied to a greater extent. Many researches were conducted to know the level of success, adjustment and performance of expatriate managers, but have neglected to study the women's perception and evaluation of their jobs in an international work environment (Guzzo et al., 1994; Caligiuri, 2000; Shore and Martin, 1989; Ostroff, 1993 as cited in Culpan & Wright,2002). The gender of expatriates were not considered to the extent that the descriptive and prescriptive studies of expatriation have perpetuated the profile of an expatriate as male

and married to a trailing spouse (Harris, 2001). It was also found that even the studies carried out in countries like Europe, Australia and USA focused only on international move by men particularly married men.

The expatriate positions are generally occupied by upper level employees and so the prevalence of glass ceiling has reduced the number of women expatriates (Selmer & Leung, 2002). Adler and Izraeli (1994) pointed out that inspite of improvement in the qualification of women, increase in their commitment to career and less availability of expatriates, female managers occupy only a small fraction of senior management positions (cited in Linehan & Walsh, 1999b). International Labour Organisation (1998) (as cited in Tzeng, 2006) has found from a survey that although women occupy 40% of the world's workforce, only 20% of them occupy management positions and 2-3% of them are found in top positions in most powerful organizations. The number of women expatriates has increased from 3% in 1980 (Adler, 1984) to 15 - 20% in 2008 (Brookfield, 2009a; ORC Worldwide, 2008 as cited in Shortland, 2011). This shows that the increase in women expatriates is at a much slower rate when compared to the proportion of women employees employed in domestic organisations.

The slow increase of women expatriates may be due to greater level of gender discrimination and family responsibility issues encountered by them when compared to women working in home country organizations (Moran & Riesenberger, 1994 as cited in Tzeng, 2006). Hence, the organization must expand their recruitment base and promote gender diversity at top level management thereby increase the pool of potential expatriates. The study based on a group of American and Canadian personnel managers showed that "companies' reluctance to select women was based on: traditional male chauvinism, greater risk involved in sending women with no overseas track record, and the paucity of women with sufficient technical training and domestic managerial experience to qualify for high level line management positions overseas" (Adler, 1984). Although the actions promoting equal opportunity are acknowledged as socially worthwhile, the organizations view it as a burden rather than investment (Rubery et al., 2003 as cited in Shortland, 2009). On the other hand, according to Fisher, 1992 (as cited in Paik & Vance, 2002) the personal characteristics like gender, ethnic background are found to be irrelevant to achieve success in global market. Adler (1994) found that the success rate of women expatriates is higher than that of North American male expatriates. This has encouraged many companies to send more women abroad and they have also been promoted based on their performance overseas. It is interesting to note that the financial performance of companies with more female executives has improved during 1990s (catalyst 2004 as cited in Tzeng, 2006). As more women are recognised to perform well overseas, the growth trend of women expatriates are expected to intensify.

BARRIERS TO INTERNATIONAL CAREER OF WOMEN

1. MALE MODEL OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT

As men had traditionally been to employment, organizations consider the male model of career development to be appropriate which disadvantages women during recruitment, selection and other career development processes. The occupational segregation, formal policies and informal processes act as barriers for women from attaining senior management positions. A career-development process for female managers is essential to retain and promote female managers. The career development model for women is different and complicated to design as women have a necessity to balance work and family (Linehan & Scullion, 2001b). The organization favours the male lifestyle that measures managerial commitment by number of hours an employee works. Hence, organizations do not favour women as they would not fit in to this model due to their greater family responsibilities. A female career plan must include maternity leave, career breaks for child rearing or part-time working opportunity to balance their worklife which are often seen unfavourably by the senior management.

In a study by Haines III & Saba (1999), it was found that women gave high ratings for career related international mobility policies and practices that includes mentoring opportunity, cross cultural training before international assignments, opportunity to use the competence acquired during their assignment upon their return, assignments not exceeding two years of duration. However, no gender differences were found in ratings on family and financial mobility policies and practices. This shows the importance women place on their career and their cautious approach in managing international career.

Mathur-Helm (2002) stated that women are expected to behave like men and work harder to fit in to male model in order to progress. Home country male managers believe that the male characteristics are necessary for effective management. The successful managers are expected to prove themselves in their earlier thirties and the career breaks for family issues are unfavourably seen as lack of organizational commitment (Linehan & Scullion, 2001a). This is further supported by Harris (1995) that senior managers make initial assessment of managers during their early stages of career and chooses high potential managers who would qualify to work abroad (cited in Linehan & Walsh, 1999a). This forces female managers to follow traditional male linear model in order to display themselves as highly potential.

2. STEREOTYPE

Married women are discriminated for international assignments with an assumption that they will not accept due to family responsibilities. They had to ask the organization for their next career move to show their readiness rather than waiting for opportunities to be offered by the organization (Linehan et al., 2001). There is a myth that women do not want to be international managers. Various researches have disproved the myth and results showed that both men and women are equally interested to take international positions and they wanted to take it at some point in their life time (Adler,1994; Chusmir and Frontczak, 1990; Hill and Tillery, 1992 as cited in Altman & Shortland, 2001).

Adler (1994) also added that a few organizations limit women to work internally with their own employees and do not prefer to send women externally to deal with clients with the assumption that their own employees are less prejudiced than people outside. The organizations assume that the cultural norms of host country will be unfavourable for women and may have hostile working environment for women which leads to selection bias against women (Paik & Vance, 2002). The organizations hesitate to send women for foreign assignments as they believe that the foreigners are prejudiced against women that might impact their success. However, in reality women faced more problems and prejudices from home country nationals than outside. Getting opportunity for international assignments by overcoming resistance from home country is the biggest challenge for women. Women expatriates' biggest obstacle is the low performance expectation held by their home country managers. This is further supported by Shortland (2009) in his literature that "Women's unsuitability for expatriate roles, particularly in respect of deployment to perceived masculine (Hofstede, 2001) or machismo (Owen and Scherer, 2002) societies, is based on home country managers' stereotypical views of women as managers, rather than local societal cultural factors". Adler (1994) explained the Gaijin Syndrome, according to which, female expatriates are seen as foreigners, not as local people and is not expected to act like the local women. The social and cultural norms of the local people that limit their access to managerial positions do not apply to foreign women. Mandelker (1994) derived the term "glass border" that describes stereotypical assumptions by home-country senior management about women as managers and about their availability, suitability and preferences for international appointments (Linehan & Scullion, 2001b). The glass border discriminates against women from getting international opportunities.

Vinnicombe and Sturges (1995 as cited in Linehan & Walsh, 1999a) suggest that few organizations consider married men as assets with an assumption that married men will have supporting network at home and can give his full dedication towards his career. On the other hand, married women are seen as a liability because they are more likely to sacrifice their career at the expense of their family. The impact of marital status of men and women on careers are perceived differently by the managers of the home country organisations. The marriage is considered to be a stabilizing and sustaining factor for male expatriates whereas it is perceived to suffer greater risk of failure of assignments for women due to their additional difficulties with their trailing spouses. Another study by Izraeli and Zeira (1993) suggests that women expatriate whether married or single, their family status is presumed to be problematic. Male managers believe that single women expatriate, away from social influence of home country, is vulnerable to harassments and other dangers than a men whereas married women are disadvantaged due to family and dual career issues. The situations of uncertainty and absence of reliable knowledge about their performance leads to stereotypical beliefs about the characteristics and ability of women expatriates.

"The organisation must not assume that the male partner's career will always take precedence, and that the female partner will always subordinate her career aspirations to those of her partner" (Pierce and Delahaye, 1996 as cited in Linehan & Scullion, 2001a). Females are mostly considered to be a trailing spouse as it is not a norm for a family to relocate to facilitate female's career. The accepted social role of men is to work and that of women is to take care of the family. Such social norms, family pressures, relocation problems of spouse and stereotypes about women question the flexibility of women in moving abroad. This obstructs the career of women taking international roles.

Futoran and Wyer (1986) suggested that "the use of sex stereotypes can be activated by repeated observations of one sex in a certain type of job" (Harris, 2001). The same happens in the selection of international managers where the existing managers are mostly men and the informal organizational system prevents the opportunity from reaching women. This occupational segregation and expectation that an occupation ought to be filled by only one sex prevents women from taking international assignments that were traditionally held by men. Generally, such attitudes of bias and discrimination are typically based upon generalized beliefs and perceptions.

3.   LACK OF MENTORING

Mentoring is an essential and active contributor to the career development of employees. Mentoring helps in discussing problems and in finding solutions for the same, improves self-confidence and aids in promotional aspects. Linehan et al., (2001) discussed that the number of female in top management and in international positions is very less to mentor other female protégée. Hence, females are more likely to be mentored by men but many don't get mentoring opportunity. However, Linehan et al., (2001) also added that male mentors are more likely to prefer male protégées that disadvantages women and at the same time the mentoring needs of women are also different from that of men. Women need more psychological support in handling the barriers faced by them inside and outside an organisation. Women who had male mentors were reluctant talk about discrimination and glass ceiling as men perceive that such barriers do not exist (Mathur-Helm (2002). Though mentoring relationship is important for men, it gains more importance for female mangers as they face greater organisational, interpersonal, and individual barriers to advancement (Linehan, 2000; Burke and McKeen, 1994; Collins, 1983 as cited in Linehan & Scullion, 2002). This is essential especially in international context compared to domestic context and particularly during early stages of career.

Mentoring helps in providing international assignments, providing contacts, support from home country and facilitates their reentry. This support of the mentor through which the mentee receives the benefits of an intensive developmental relationship provides organisational reward through career enhancement (Baruch and Bozionelos, 2010 as cited in Shortland, 2011). Linehan & Walsh (2000) suggested that women felt that regardless of gender, cross gender mentoring was of great help in their career development. However, researches by Arnold & Davidson (1990) and Fitt & Newton (1981) contradicted with this result and observed the existence of sexual tension in cross gender mentoring (Linehan & Walsh, 2000). Extending support through mentoring is found to be a critical factor in the advancement of women.

4.   LACK OF NETWORKING

Unlike mentoring, peer relationship is essential at all stages of career development and is a key factor for career progression especially in international context. This is essential both during and after international assignments to maintain contact and alleviate the feel of isolation. This would be of great help for those women who do not get mentoring opportunity. "Peer relationships are different from mentoring relationships in that they often last longer, are not hierarchical, and involve a two-way helping" (Linehan et al., 2001). Networking helps in their promotions and awareness about their career opportunities. Shortland (2011) found the following from interviews: networking has helped women in understanding the country and regarding the lifestyle of people in that country, to gain insights about the real work and be proactive in preparing to face the issues, to learn about vacancies in subsidiaries in other countries, to facilitate career development and to learn about different functions in the organizations across countries. It provides a sense of affiliation and belonging in the host country (Hutchings, 2008). Formal networks were found to be more advantageous in learning and in getting professional support than informal networks. Some feel that women-only network further enhances solidarity and excludes women from men's network instead of integration. Women-only network creates an artificial divide between sexes rather than promoting diversity and also reinforces stereotypes. The networking gains its importance on moving towards senior management level as jobs are few and difficult to get. A supportive peer relationship is essential to deal with the issues of women like discrimination, stereotyping, work life balance and social isolation. Men use networking to widen their contacts with variety of people in their profession and discuss their business issues for their development. Women are excluded from such networks and do not gain access to it easily. Men always try to maintain their dominance and do not want women to be a part of their network thereby they strengthen their old boy's network. Men uses various forms of social capital in order to preserve and enhance male patriarchal structures rather than to widen women access and leave women as expatriate tokens (Kanter, 1977 as cited in Shortland, 2009). This perpetuates negative attitude towards women. Not much literature is found related to organizational support through policies for networking arrangement and how these are implemented and its effect on women's participation in international roles. Managerial women are still less integrated in organisational networks that can influence promotion and acceptance. Denial of access to it leads to less career satisfaction for women. Maintaining more number of professional contacts can improve their level of satisfaction. Linehan et al., (2001) explained that men's networking extends beyond working hours (through involvement in club, sports etc.) that strengthens their male bonding whereas women feel that they don't have enough time for networking due to family responsibilities. According to Shortland (2009) "even when the organization include open and formal selection processes for expatriate positions and the inappropriate gendered assumptions are contradicted, women still face hurdles to reach such positions due to lower social capital".

Men working in a female dominated environment do not face challenges similar to women in male dominated environment (Bozionelos, 2009 as cited in Shortland, 2011). It was also found from the study that women at more senior levels with high experience and who have already taken many international assignments are more positive towards and recognise the value of networking (Nicolaou-Smokoviti and Baldwin, 2000 as cited in Shortland, 2011). The author also added that it is difficult for women to maintain relationship with two different groups (female social group and senior male managerial group) and the intergroup sanctions prevent them from fitting into either.

Linehan (2000) pointed from researches that while female expatriates often rely singularly on their family and partners in creating social contact with expatriate networks, males have numerous other options like sporting activities and male bonding sessions (Hutchings et al., 2008). This supports the notion that male expatriates would be more likely than their female counterparts to have higher levels of PESS (perceived expatriate social support), regardless of their family status whilst on assignment (Hutchings et al., 2008). Westwood and Leung (1994) found a significant number of expatriates indicated dissatisfaction with their social lives, particularly single women (as cited in Hutchings et al., 2008). This may be due to that it is more culturally acceptable for single men to socialise than for women.

Policies on and provision to access networks, mentors, sponsors and role models may act as facilitators to improve the social capital of women expatriates. The social capital and experiences gained by expatriate helps in developing tolerance, flexibility, patience by allowing them to develop a global outlook (Hamza, 2006 as cited in Schearf, 2008). Flexible forms of international assignments and communications technology might potentially enable women to have greater access to network communities. This is supported by Nicholson (2000) (as cited in Shortland, 2009) who states that technology provides a basis for expanding women's social capital. However, Collinson and Hearn (1996) suggest, "the development of trans-national organisations facilitated through communications are likely to result in male-dominated networks expanding from a local domain to an international one rather than networks being opened up to women as a result of increasingly global spans of communications" (as cited in Shortland, 2011). As the availability of women expatriate role models and mentors remains low, women need to largely rely on men to achieve this.

5.   DISADVANTAGEOUS POSITION OF WOMEN

Women need to prove themselves succeeding in their careers and stay highly competent by putting extra efforts in increasing their visibility. They need to face additional demands when compared to their male counterparts to grab international assignments. Promotion of women to international senior management positions is also very slow over the past 20 years. In a research by Linehan & Walsh (1999b), female managers who have reached senior manager positions believed that they need to be more qualified, more ambitious and more mobile than male managers. They had to break the glass ceiling first and then glass border and had to ask for their next career move rather than wait for the international offer. They need to volunteer for projects, meet frequently with board of directors and decision makers and learn things beyond their capacity. Powell (1999) (as cited in Tzeng, 2006) noted that the objective credentials such as education loses its importance at the higher management level and the discriminatory practices in selection process is more at higher levels. He also added that the equal employment opportunity laws and affirmative programs are helpful for women only at the entry level positions.

Even though women are competent with same talents as that of men, they are not recognized and rewarded due to gender stereotypes. The US Department of Labor (1995) has reported that women are not given rotational job assignments or special assignments that increase their visibility and promote career development. Women are poorly rated in male dominated organizations when compared to organizations with more than 50% of women (Sackett et al., 1991 as cited in

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Selmer & Leung, 2002). Women had less availability of fast-track career programs, less individual career counselling, and less availability of career planning work-shops compared to men (Selmer and Leung, 2003). Hence, when female expatriates less often attain their career goals, it makes them to feel that expatriation is a less successful career path than men.

The organizations tend to follow what they observe as successful practices of their competitors. Hence, the organizations deploying expatriates try to reflect the male expatriate norm and establish conformity in resembling each other in a similar environmental condition (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983 as cited in Shortland, 2009). Traditionally expatriation is perceived to be a male role and there is articulation of shared norms, practices and shared rules of conduct among organizations through various professional relations including industry ties, professional bodies. Hence, imitation of the organizational policies and practices at individual level, firm level and inter firm level excludes women from expatriate world (Shortland, 2009).

According to Adler (1994), the companies generally offer short term temporary assignments with duration of six months to women rather than permanent assignments that extend up to 2 to 3 years. The organizations try to be cautious as women are new to such assignments and this communicates lack of trust and confidence to host country managers and they do not take women managers seriously. Due to this, the assignments become difficult or have chances of failure which leads to self-fulfilling prophecy.

6. INFORMAL SELECTION PROCESS

Most of the top level positions and the holders of organizational power who have the responsibility of sending employees to other countries are men and they in turn prefer male subordinates for international assignments rather than female. Roper (1996) (as cited in Selmer & Leung, 2002) points out that as organizations are dominated and governed by men, senior managers frequently appoint in their own image, leading to the reproduction of power and gender segregation. Such subtle bias and overt discrimination processes obstruct the careers of female expatriates. As only few women are found on boards and at decision making levels, women find it difficult in accepting the structures and behavior created by men. The formal organizational policies are framed based on gender based societal assumptions and the managers believe that these formal policies reinforce the informal processes that affects the participation of women managers in international management (Linehan et al., 2001). Women find themselves excluded from expatriation through biased, informal and haphazard selection processes (Linehan and Scullion, 2001b). Hence, the gendered nature of organizations must be acknowledged and objective recruitment and selection processes must be implemented.

The organizations find it difficult to identify and measure the competencies of employees and the line managers circumvent the framed selection criteria as they want to play safe in decision making process that leads to lack of clarity in the selection process of expatriates (Reiche and Harzing, 2011 as cited in Shortland, 2011). The organizations rely on personal recommendation from either a specialist personnel staff member or line manager for selection of expatriates and the selection interviews are conducted to negotiate the terms of offer rather than to determine the suitability of the candidate (Brewster, 1991 as cited in Linehan & Scullion, 2001b). This excludes women from selection process.

According to Harris (2001), the suitability and acceptability are considered as different components and being objective in assessing the appropriate personality and behavioural trait is questioned. Even though women are considered to be suitable for international positions, there are few forces that obstruct them from being seen as acceptable. Harris (2001) discusses about the categories of selection procedures as: organizations either use open or closed selection procedures. In open system, any candidate with the appropriate qualification and experience can apply for the vacancy. It is more or less formalized testing and decisions are taken on the basis of consensus among selectors. In closed systems, the line managers have the authority to accept or reject candidates nominated by selectors from headquarters. The interview is conducted to negotiate the terms with the selected candidates. The formal and informal systems combined with open and closed selection procedures provide four categories of selection processes (open-formal, closed-formal, open-informal and closed-informal) that influences the participation of women in international management. Formal and open system provides equal opportunity for all employees with well-defined criteria for selection and restricts subjective judgments. Even though closed and formal system also has well defined criteria, there is lack of personal contact that has chances of bringing in subjective judgments. Here, there are chances of omission of suitable candidates during nominations. In case of open and informal system, even though all employees have access, decisions are made by the relevant managers on the basis of personal recommendation and reputation and are almost already made. In case of closed and informal systems, employees are not aware of the process and there is lack of clarity in the criteria for selection and so this is considered to provide a worst situation. The recruitment and selection procedures are not formal, open, elaborate and transparent in most cases (Borg and Harzing, 1995; Brewster,1991 as cited in Linehan & Walsh, 2000).

7. REPATRIATION PROBLEMS

Organizations do not recognise and pay attention to the problems of repatriation. According to Linehan & Walsh (2000); Shortland (2011), expatriates returning to home country organisation are found to experience loss of status, loss of autonomy, no opportunity to utilize the skills acquired during international assignment, difficulty in reintegration socially with home country organization. Home country managers find it difficult to allocate suitable positions with similar status and responsibility to those held by expatriates abroad after their reentry. Research evidence suggests that the individuals who return from overseas assignments and leave their organisation within one year after repatriation, is approximately 25 per cent (Black, 1989; O'Boyle, 1989 as cited in Linehan & Scullion, 2002). It has a profound impact both on the expatriate and family members upon their return. Many required readjustment period of six to nine months in their home country organizations. In most cases, subsequent job position on repatriation is not considered as a part of overall career plan which must be planned before making the international move. Women face more difficulties on repatriation than men due to their low representation and low networking. The repatriates experience unanticipated re-entry culture shock or sense of loss and isolation resulting from a lack of current behavioural understanding of the repatriates' home country (Linehan & Scullion, 2002).

8. GLASS CEILING

The term glass ceiling refers to barriers faced by women who attempt or desire to get promoted to senior positions in an organisation. It prevents the upward mobility of women. The socialization process, tradition and negative stereotypes about women forms the layer of glass ceiling that results in discrimination against women. Glass ceiling is also a main reason for less women expatriates as expatriate management positions generally involve upper level management. Expatriates need enough senior managerial experience in their domestic organization to avoid greater risk during their work abroad. Berthoin-Antal and Izraeli (1993) suggested that "the role of the expatriate involves even more uncertainties than that of the domestic manager and, as uncertainty increases the need for trust, this is perceived as having further implications for limiting women expatriate managers" (cited in Linehan & Walsh, 2000). As women find it difficult to break the glass ceiling, their opportunity to international career is also affected to a greater extent which resulted in a very few women with international experience. Even if the organizations are prepared to promote women across hierarchy in domestic management, they are not given opportunity to expand their career at international levels (Adler and Izraeli, 1988 as cited in Linehan & Walsh, 2000).

It was also observed that as women move up in the managerial hierarchy, the glass ceiling also appeared to move up (Linehan & Walsh, 2000). Women managers sometimes are not aware of the existence of glass ceiling effect and even those who are aware of it are unwilling to share openly with others. Women managers must acknowledge its existence and equip themselves to produce adequate performance to be successful in their career (Mathur-Helm, 2002). Flexibility, net-working, proving oneself and letting the management know their career aspirations will help to break the glass ceiling. Studies by Schein et al. (1994) established that "male sex typing of the managerial job is strong, consistent, and pervasive and appears to be a global phenomenon among males" (cited in Linehan & Walsh, 2000). Hence it was found from the research that adopting an individualistic style combining best of both male and female leadership traits will help in breaking the glass ceiling.

It was found that the status of women in the organization has a major influence in the perception of host country nationals towards women expatriates (Caligiuri and Cascio, 1998 as cited in Mathur-Helm, 2002). Higher the position they occupy, greater is the favourable treatment and less discrimination by host country organisation. Empowerment of women through greater power and autonomy to make decisions would deliver more respect towards women and would protect against gender stereotypes and discriminations.

9. HIGH VISIBILITY

Women suffer stress due to high visibility and critical attention in a male dominated environment as they belong to a minority group in an organisation. Loss of privacy adds further burden to women. The feeling of isolation owing to culture, gender barriers and tokenism are more prevalent for female managers in a foreign

country on comparison with domestic organization. The female expatriates need to take responsibility to represent other female managers and their success would help in encouraging and developing confidence in other female managers. According to Tanton (1994), women being members of a minority group can lead to various uncomfortable roles and issues such as loneliness at work, little recognition for achievements and being taken for granted (cited in Linehan & Walsh, 2000). The social support of other female colleagues is found to be more important to come out of these stresses.

10. LACK OF ORGANISATIONAL TRAINING

The time span before transfer to abroad is actually very less ranging from few weeks to few months which does not allow enough time for preparation and training. The managers also believe that the international expertise can only be learned through experience and gives little importance for training programs on relational skills, cross cultural skills that are essential for the success of international assignments (Linehan & Walsh, 1999a). Training before transfer is very important for women managers as they act as pioneers in making international moves in most cases. As they move farther from home countries, they experience more cultural shock and different set of adjustment problems. Most of the organizations over look and do not plan things seriously at the preparatory stage. Work by Harvey (1985) (as cited in Linehan & Walsh, 2000) highlighted the importance of including all family members in training programmes as most of the stresses associated with the international assignments falls on the family members. Training programs should also be conducted after repatriation to facilitate re-entry in to the domestic organization. However, most of the training programs are based on the experiences of male expatiates. As there is growth in female expatriates, the organization must reevaluate the cross cultural training programs and consider the unique issues of women expatriates (Linehan et al., 2000).

11. LACK OF ORGANIZATIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES

The organizations do not have family related policies to support and facilitate the international move of dual career couples (Linehan & Walsh, 2000). It was also added that organisations do not consider flexible work arrangements like part time working, work from home that would help working mothers to meet their demands. These arrangements are considered to deviate from male norms of work. The career breaks of women take them out of competition for jobs. It is also found that the organizations are inflexible and forces the family to meet the organizational demands and do not give freedom for women to develop other areas of life (Linehan & Walsh, 1999b). Women had to take most of their life decisions based on their family circumstances which affects women in their career growth. The organizational support for partner and children is essential for women to have less work adjustment difficulties and work family conflicts (Harris, 2004). As most international women managers act as pioneers and representatives of future female managers, the lack of supportive policies will discourage women from taking up international assignments.

According to Kanter (1997) (as cited in Selmer & Leung, 2002) women are deprived of career resources, information resources and support from organization that affects their career success whereas these are available for men. The organisation especially the corporate headquarters need to support women at all stages of international career as they encounter different challenges and issues arising out of sex role stereotypes. The legislation in few countries support women against employment related discriminations that force organizations to send women for foreign assignments even if they do not desire. The US congress amended the Civil Rights Act, 1991 to protect US citizens from employment discrimination by US multinationals in their overseas operations (Cava and Mayer, 1993 as cited in Selmer & Leung, 2002). However, Tzeng (2006) reported that "While they presumed their companies would not have a gender-biased policy in foreign assignment due to anti-discrimination laws in their home countries, in fact, this is not an accurate presumption because their home countries' anti-discrimination laws do not cover corporate promotion such as foreign postings."

There is evidence that many business failures in the international arenas are associated with poor human resources management (Desatnick and Bennett, 1978 as cited in Selmer & Leung, 2002). It is predicted that women with high perceived organizational support (POS) have high expatriate career satisfaction (ECS) whereas men are predicted to maintain their level of expatriate career satisfaction irrespective of the level of perceived organizational support (Hutchings et al., 2008). This may be due to the fact that men did not relate the organizational support with their career satisfaction whereas women did. Hutchings et al., (2008) pointed that female expatriates do not perceive equal treatment especially in terms of organizational support.

It was also found that organisational policies designed to support employees in balancing their family and work did not produce much impact in reducing work family conflict (Goff et al., 1990 as cited in Harris, 2004). This is because the family concerns are more complicated and broader and requires the support of family most of all. Few companies have formulated formal policies to support dual-career couples that includes career and life-planning counseling, inter-company networking, job-hunting/fact-finding trips, continuing education, international spouse assistance programmes, intra-company employment, commuter marriage support and short-term assignments (Harris, 1993). However most of these initiatives are based on the assumption that the trailing spouse is female.

CONCLUSION

Given the context of patriarchal values, which is pervading in all aspects of life, women stand to face innumerable difficulties. The article has highlighted the barriers that women face in international organisations. It is imperative that international organisations must evolve a proactive policy consisting of affirmative measures and practices to facilitate, support and empower women so that they are able to withstand the difficulties they face and pursue their career similar to their male counterparts. Organisations must encourage, promote and support women at all stages of their career. The gendered nature of the organisation must be acknowledged and necessary measures must be taken to promote diversity. Addressing to both organizational/ career issues and individual issues by developing integrated approaches, effective mentoring, formal and informal networking will help in successful repatriation of female managers. The organization with formal HR systems for selection and career development programs must ensure whether similar proportion of women are promoted to next level to that of their initial recruitment.

Providing training and development programs for substantial period of time before and after expatriation will improve the cost effectiveness of an organisation. It should also focus on measures to cope with additional stress arising out of trying to balance work and family life in a new environment. Maintaining regular contact with expatriates while abroad will provide emotional support to them. International assignment policies must include equal opportunities, diversity and affirmative action that would encourage women participation. Transparent and objective implementation of policies, use of communication technology, provision of flexible arrangements such as short-term, commuter, frequent flyer and other variable working patterns would promote women's career progression. The organisation must address these issues and facilitate the career progression of women both at domestic and international level.

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EMPOWERING WOMEN IN KERALA: ROLE OF MICRO FINANCE INSTITUTIONS

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ABSTRACT

In a country like India, where almost seventy per cent of the population is in the rural areas, with little or no access to the main stream financing options, micro-finance has a huge role to play and a huge population to uplift. Microfinance, thus simply brings the rural population closer to reaching a better life style by helping them with small credit amounts that they acquire with no collateral. The impact of microfinance on women's decision-making and empowerment has been the subject of several studies in the last two decades. Many of these quantitative studies have focused on the impact of microfinance—with a majority proving that microcredit increased the standard of living—raised awareness, aided decision making, and reduced poverty among rural beneficiaries. This study makes an attempt to know about the role MFI's in empowering women in all aspects of our economy. The result shows that a positive impact or changes have been taken place in the standard of living of women in our country with the introduction of various programmes through MFI's.

KEYWORDS

micro finance, empowerment, women.

INTRODUCTION

overty eradication and women empowerment are the widely discussed topic all over the world. Microfinance is a novel economic development tool aimed at alleviating poverty through financial inclusion, socioeconomic empowerment, and self-sufficiency. Yet low-income families especially in rural areas need financial services to build their businesses and meet other necessities such as education and healthcare, and simple grants of aid are not a sustainable mechanism for the economic development of a community. As a result, rather than the formal financial sector, the poor generally address their needs through informal relationships that possess serious limitations. A range of institutions in public sector as well as private sector offers the micro finance services in India. They can be broadly categorized into two categories namely, formal institutions and informal institutions. The former category, that provide micro finance services in addition to their general banking activities are referred to as micro finance service providers. On the other hand, the informal institutions that undertake micro finance services as their main activity are generally referred to as Micro Finance Institutions (MFIs). The microfinance in India is mostly perceived through SHG-Bank linkage model and Micro-finance institution model. The Micro finance practices of these institutions primarily focused on women as their target group. They adopt group approach for achieving their targets. The group approach focuses on organizing the people into small groups and then introducing them to the facility of micro financing.

Microfinance programs have significant potential for contributing to women's economic, social and political empowerment. Access to savings and credit can initiate or strengthen a series of interlinked and mutually reinforcing 'virtuous spirals' of empowerment. A number of agencies:- Government as well as Non-government Organizations are, today involved in micro finance development initiatives. The role of Micro finance institutions (MFIs) is to provide small loans to the low income earners, creation of employment opportunities, capacity building to borrowers by offering different skills such as use of loans, entrepreneurship and managerial skills. Women need access to MFIs so that they can further raise their income.

Kudumbashree is a microfinance institution with a radical difference from its counterparts in the rest of the world and it has tremendous potential for enlarging freedom, and enhancing and widening the capabilities and choices of poor women in the state of Kerala. Kerala has a high female literacy rate of 92.09% and female labour force participation rate has been as low as 15.9% and has decreased over recent years. More than 15 lakhs of Kerala families are in poverty, with women and children being the prime victims of its negative socio economic effects. Thus, there is certainly more than sufficient demand in the state for the services of micro finance organizations aimed at alleviating poverty and empowering women. In Kerala, micro finance has become a novel and a vital strategy of poverty reduction. Government-based and NGO based micro finance systems exist side by side in the State. Both have played a dominant role in making micro finance a real movement in Kerala. The present study is an attempt to analyse empowering women through the micro finance institutions (MFIs) in Kerala and suggest some remedies.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A number of studies have been carried out by researchers and the agencies that have emphasized role of micro finance institutions on economic and social empowerment of women. Joseph Schumpeter (1934) has stressed upon the role of credit in breaking the so called vicious circle of poverty, and Hicks (1969) too deals with the role of financial intermediaries on growth and development.

In her study, Sylvie Bossoutrot (2010) says, in Russia, micro finance has emerged as a mechanism to support self-employment and small-scale entrepreneurship primarily in trade and services, which developed in response to the transition and collapse of large state-owned enterprises of the early 1990s. While micro finance in the developing world emerged to address the needs of largely uneducated and semiskilled workforces, in Russia as in neighbouring transition countries, it emerged as a vehicle to support a well-educated class of —new poor who turned to self-employment out of necessity.

Malathy Ramanathan (2004) narrates the story of Shri Mahila Griha Udyog Lijjat Pappad model, an attempt to make women economically self-reliant, thus paving the way for their concurrent empowerment in the other facets of their lives. The significant factor here is that Lijjat provides a beacon of light to the lower class women in India, irrespective of their caste, religion or region, a path towards better future. The capacity to earn one's livelihood and the resultant self-confidence was necessarily the first step in the ladder to empowerment.

Raghavan and Saleena (2005) examine the socio economic impact of Kudumbashree projects on the rural and urban poor in salvaging from deprivation and creating gender equity. The study overviews the projects under implementation and also analyze the participatory mechanism of community involvement in the anti-poverty programme by highlighting the cases of Alappuzha and Malappuram models being the genesis of multifaceted Kudumbashree mission. The study also presents extended Kudumbashree programmes under operations along with some new programmes being launched most recently.

Kamdar Sangeeta (2009) in her study reveals that micro finance has to combine with other activities for reducing poverty. End results are better when micro finance is combined with an overall development programme. She comments that when micro finance is part of a programme which has a broader objective of developing livelihood activities; it positively reinforces empowerment of women. She concludes her paper with a note that micro finance activity should be a part

of a more integrated approach which aims at inclusive growth and building incomes of vast majority and can be achieved through —equality of opportunity in terms of access to resources and markets.

Nupur Tiwari (2009) reveals in her study on Kudumbashree initiative that financial security is the prerequisite for any empowerment and the Kudumbashree movement has helped women to stand on their own feet by giving them greater economic self reliance through establishment of micro-enterprises and other income generating activities. Women share and discuss issues affecting their sources of income and livelihoods in the weekly meetings of NHGs. The Kudumbashree network also ensures that women are actively involved in planning and development processes as they take part in preparing micro plans at the NHGs level and higher level plans through both ADSs and CDSs, which are then integrated into the poverty eradication plans of local governments. This combination of hard work, joint action, inventiveness, planning and active participation in local governance is the key to success.

T.C. Chandrashekhar and S.C. Shrinivasan (2010) in their study state that micro finance can be a powerful instrument that initiates a cyclical process of growth and development. Micro finance activity improved access of rural poor to financial services both savings and credit. Increased access signifies overcoming isolation of rural women in terms of their access to financial services and denial of credit due to absence of collateral.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The study aims to examine the role of micro finance institutions (MFIs) have contributed to poverty alleviation and empowerment of women in Kerala.

METHODOLOGY
'Empowerment' has been used to represent a wide range of concepts and to describe a proliferation of outcomes. women's access to savings and credit gives them a greater economic role in decision-making through their decision about savings and credit (see figure 1). When women control decisions regarding credit and savings, they will optimize their own and the household's welfare.

FIG. 1

Conceptual Framework
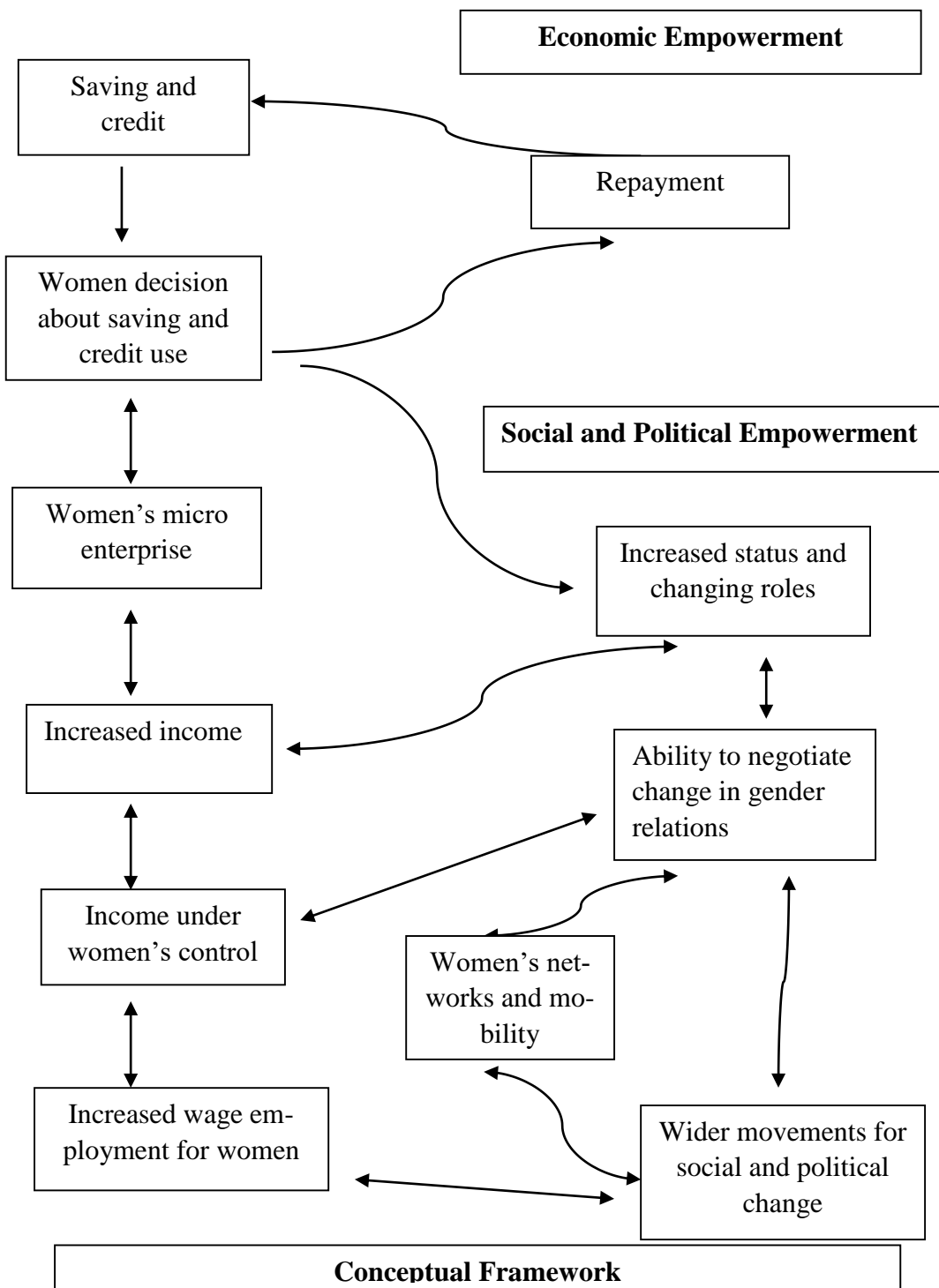
DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

Microfinance is a grass-root development strategy that followed a trickle up approach to eradicate poverty. The group based approach of microfinance facilitates the poor to accumulate capital by way of small savings and also enables them to have easy access to formal credits for taking up micro enterprises, which will help them to come out of poverty. The joint-liability, strict discipline in providing credit and collecting repayments, and peer monitoring in borrower's activities in the microfinance system ensure better loan recoveries and productive utilization of credit.

In Kerala, microfinance has become a novel and a vital strategy of poverty reduction. Government-based and NGO-based microfinance systems exist side by side in the State. Both have played a dominant role in making microfinance a real movement in Kerala. Kudumbashree is the Government initiated microfinance programme in Kerala. It is a participatory, women-oriented poverty-reduction programme for eradicating absolute poverty from the State through microfinancing. Kudumbashree identifies the poor transparently and organizes them into a Community Based Organizations under the leadership of Local Self-Governments. It has adopted the strategy of convergent community action and self-help to enhance the capacity of the family to meet their basic needs. NGOs are the fore-runners of microfinance programmes in the State. They have made great strides in the promotion and growth of microfinance programmes in Kerala. They are actively involved in the formation of SHGs, capacity building, and linking with banks for income-generating activities. They work with poor to find ways to alleviate poverty. Kudumbashree experiment is built around three critical components – micro-credit, entrepreneurship and empowerment. Neighborhood groups, popularly known as NHGs, of women from poor families, identified on the basis of risk indices, have been formed all over the State. These women's collectives implement the various projects of Kudumbashree. In the light of the fact that anti-poverty programmes seldom reach the marginalized destitute, Kudumbashree has formulated a specific project with the assistance of the Central Government to reach out to the downtrodden and neglected all over the State. Over a hundred Panchayaths of the State have already come up with individual specific projects for destitute care and rehabilitation.

With the rise of neighbourhood groups (NHGs) at the sub Grama Sabha level known as Ayalkoottams, a new dimension to decentralisation and participation has been added in the state. Even though the formation of the NHGs is not mandatory, more and more Panchayaths are found to be favourably disposed to their formation thereby adding to growth in associational life in Kerala. Unlike many of the traditional organisations owing allegiance to political parties of which dense networks already exist, these new institutions are largely non-political, although not altogether free from the influence of dominant political groups (Chathukulam, John, 2002). The role of women is vital and productive in state economy. The poor people of Kerala, especially women, have already accepted Kudumbashree as their own movement. It is envisaged as a process and delivery mechanism for the poor who gives importance to health, nutrition, education, employment and economic status and social improvement of a family.

Figure 1 outlines the different features between formal banking channels and micro finance channels. In contrast to formal banking, micro credit is characterized by small size, shorter loan duration, emphasis on thrift, and the absence of collateral security and informal procedures. In the absence of collateral security and formal documents there can be little legal recourse against defaulters. Peer group pressure, however, has proven even more effective than loan repayment mechanisms in the formal banking system. While the banking system is a purely commercial organization, the lower tiers in the micro finance system are social organizations and motivated by non-economic objectives.

FIGURE 1 COMPARISON OF MICRO FINANCE AND FORMAL BANKING

Characteristics	Micro finance	Formal banking
Size of loan	Small size of credit	Medium/large credit
Duration of loan	Short duration	Medium and long duration
Thrift	Emphasis on drift as well as loan	Focus on loan only
Screening and monitoring	Group formation and informal methods	Formal procedures
Enforcement of repayment	Peer pressure and weekly repayment	Collateral and legal pressures for repayment
Nature of organization	Social organizational form	Commercial organizational form
Motivation	Self help motivated	Profit motivated
Outreach	Access to poor without collateral (All members)	Access limited

The two main economic functions of Micro Finance Institutions are savings and credit. As credit organisations, they have solved the problem of how to extend credit to those who have no assets to pledge. The system of group guarantee combined with individual responsibility is the innovation that has enabled credit to be extended to hundreds of millions of poor, assetless women around the world. While credit is the main function of MFI, from which they earn an interest income or service charges, MFIs begin with the promotion of savings. Most institutions require a period of regular savings before individuals and groups can graduate to receiving credit.

NABARD categorized three types of Micro Finance Institutions: **(i) Not-for Profit MFIs**: it includes (a) Societies registered under Societies Registration Act, 1860 or similar State Act; (b) Public Trusts registered under the Indian Act, 1882; (c) Non-Profit Companies registered under Section 25 of the Companies Act, 1956; **(ii) Mutual Benefit MFIs:** it includes (a) State Credit Co-operatives; (b) National Credit Co-operatives; (c) Mutually Aided Co-operative Societies; and **(iii) Non-Banking Financial Companies (NBFCs)** registered under the Companies Act, 1956.

CONCLUSION

Women empowerment is critical to the process of development of the economy. It plays a crucial role in the alleviation of poverty and in the all round progress of the nation. Among the various measures targeted towards women empowerment, the provision of micro finance assumes great importance. Evidences from successful experiments testify that micro credit has helped to improve the status of women and has enabled the poor to expand and diversify their enterprises and also to increase their income. Organisation of women into Self Help Groups is an effective way for the provision of micro finance and women empowerment. The SHGs offer the most powerful, cost effective and yet democratic, transparent model for micro financing and women empowerment. It is evident from the present study that the Kudumbashree project in Kerala has been instrumental in the economic, political, social/cultural, personal and familial empowerment of members through micro financing. The thrift and credit activities of Kudumbashree at the NHG level have enhanced their saving habits and access to credit. It has played a significant role in freeing them from the clutches of unscrupulous money lenders. Micro enterprises have also been able to open up avenues for the economic empowerment of women. In spite of the different constraints and challenges, the Kudumbashree project has the potential to transform the entire economy of the State. In order to achieve greater success in the empowerment of women and for the better functioning of the Kudumbashree project, various suggestions made in the study may be effectively implemented.

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LEGISLATIVE ROLE OF IRDA IN PROMOTING AND REGULATING AN ORDERLY GROWTH OF LIFE INSURANCE BUSINESS IN INDIA

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ABSTRACT

The present study is mainly aimed to evaluate the overall growth of life insurance industry in India after the enactment of IRDA. The basis of this evaluation is based on the growth of number of life insurance companies, growth in collection of life insurance premium, growth in penetration of life insurance business, growth in number of life insurance policy holders, growth in number of life insurance offices, growth in capital infusion in life insurance industry and so on. The study is based upon secondary data collected from various sources for last 15 years i.e. from 2000-2001 to 2014-2015.

KEYWORDS
IRDA, life insurance, orderly, regulatory.

INTRODUCTION

The concept of insurance was originated and developed on the principle of reciprocity, mutual help, probability and co-operation. This is the true nature of insurance. Insurance is neither gambling nor a charity but a well knitted and well-conceived device of mutual co-operation. Insurance cannot prevent the occurrence of losses and risk related to family, society, business and industry; but the loss and risk of one person is shared by a group of persons estimated in advance on the principle of probability and premium is distributed over a number of years to cover the loss and risk. Thus, insurance provides a canopy of protection to the families and businesses of the society. Insurance is promoting and strengthening the feelings of trust, confidence, friendship, mutual help and co-operation among the general public, entrepreneurs and entrepreneurs on the one hand and is collecting huge funds for socio-economic development on the other hand. In fact, insurance sector is shaping the future development, progress and growth of Indian economy.

Life insurance sector was on the path of continuous growth since the establishment of Life Insurance Corporation of India, a public sector behemoth on 1st of September 1956; but in the year of 1991 with the introduction of new industrial policy it was almost clear that within a very near future India is going to be powerful financial hub. In Indian financial sector the life insurance industry was flourishing in extremely safe pair of hands, under the leadership of Life Insurance Corporation of India, a public sector corporation.

The penetration of life insurance was very low in our country compared to the international standards which was a major cause of concern. Our government wanted to find out the reasons for low penetration so that it could take necessary steps to increase the overall growth in insurance sector by protecting the interest of the life insurance consumer and for that reason the government of India had initiated a step by forming a committee under the leadership of Sri R.N. Malhotra in the year 1993. The committee submitted its recommendations to the Government of India for consideration and on behalf of those recommendations IRDA bill was passed in December 1999, in the Indian Parliament and eventually the Insurance Regulatory Development Authority was set up on 19th April 2000. The main aims of this act were to protect the interest of policy holders, to regulate the insurance market, to promote and to ensure the orderly growth of insurance industry. Presently, this Act is known as the Insurance Regulatory and Development Authority of India Act.

After this act was passed, the private insurance players were allowed to do insurance business in India with a maximum participation of 26% foreign capital. The result of this amendment was the end of monopolistic regime of public sector insurance companies in India. It was the birth of new era in the field of insurance industry but on a much regulated platform. Now, almost one and a half decade has elapsed so it becomes necessary to evaluate the performance of the Life Insurance Industry in India under the regulated regime provided by IRDAI.

1. SCENARIO OF LEGAL HISTORY OF INSURANCE LEGISLATION IN INDIA

Insurance is a federal subject according to the provisions of constitution of free and independent India. The legal history of insurance legislation demonstrates the following features:-

1. Formation of Oriental Life Insurance Company Ltd. in 1818.
2. Indian Life Insurance Companies Act, 1912
3. The Indian Insurance Act, 1928 to collect information and datamation on life and non-life insurance business in India.
4. The Insurance Act, 1938.
5. The Insurance Rules, 1939.
6. Life Insurance Corporation Act, 1956.
7. The Insurance Regulation and Development Authority Act, 1999.

2. EMERGENCE OF INSURANCE REGULATORY AND DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY (IRDA) ACT, 1999

The New Industrial Policy Resolution on July 24, 1991 opened doors for Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization (LPG). The Government liberalized the financial service sector so as to rejuvenate and accentuate the process of socio-economic development. Insurance Sector was being strengthened so as to encourage the private players in insurance business. In 1994, a high powered committee was set up by central government under the leadership of Sri R.N. Malhotra to examine the structure of insurance industry and to give new suggestions and recommendations to improve the health of insurance sectors. The committee gave suggestions to establish IRDA as a corporate body having perpetual succession, separate legal entity and a common seal like SEBI. The main recommendations were as follows:

1. Strengthening the regulatory system.
2. Setup of IRDA on the lines of SEBI.
3. Deputing of independent controller in insurance sectors.
4. The structure of insurance industry must be viable.
5. Competitive environment must be ameliorated.

6.   Rate of returns on investment must be enhanced.
7.   The standard of customer service must be satisfactory.
8.   Application of modern technology like automation, computerization must be encouraged.
9.   Initiation of unit linked pension plans.
10.   IRDA Act must be enacted as a mighty lever so as to promote an orderly growth of the entire insurance industry.

The above recommendations were deeply discussed by various fora such as parliament, ministry of finance, top management of life and non life insurance corpo-rations, leaders of trade unions, employees, organizations like Ficci and chamber of commerce, consumer associations and others. A wide support was extended by all these groups and bodies. Eventually, this act was passed by Parliament in December 1999 and received presidential assent in January 2000 as an "Insurance Regulatory and Development Authority Act 1999 and this extends the whole of India. The Insurance Regulations and Development Authority were set up under sub section (1) of section 3 of this act to look after the entire insurance industry.

3. COMPOSITION OF IRDA

The proposed authority shall be a body corporate having statutory character, perpetual succession and a common seal. The composition of Insurance Regulatory and Development Authority under section 4 of the IRDA Act, 1999, signifies authority. The authority is a 10 member team consisting of a chair person and other nine members duly appointed by Central Government. Out of these five are whole timers and four, part timers. These members are persons of eminence in various disciplines such as insurance business, actuarial science, law, accountancy, finance, economics, commerce, administration, and entrepreneur ship. These members must be persons of ability, integrity, better understanding, knowledge and wide experience in the opinion of Central Government. The tenure of chairperson and members shall be for five years. The retirement age for chairperson and members shall be sixty-five years and sixty two years respectively. Any person from the office may be removed in case of insolvency, mental or physical incapability, convicted under offence of moral turpitude, acquire any other office of pecuniary interest of the office detrimental to public interest.

4. LEGISLATIVE POWERS OF THE AUTHORITY

This authority is a supreme corporate body formed to revive and regulate the orderly growth of insurance and reinsurance business in India. The authority is empowered under section 14, 26, 30, 31 and 32 of this act to exercise legislative powers. The authority has enacted nearly 50 rules and regulations so far duly approved by both the houses of parliament. Section 30 empowers the legislative authority to amend the insurance act 1938. Similarly, section 31 of this act empowers the authority to amend the LIC act 1956. Section 32 empowers the authority to amend the general insurance business (Nationalization) act, 1972, according to the schedules 1, 2, and 3 of this act. Section 25 of this act provides power for the formation of Insurance Advisory Committee (IAC) consisting of 25 members. The main object of insurance advisory committee is to advise the authority on all those matters relating to the making of its regulations under section 26 duly approved by the parliament. The whole insurance business in India is regulated by the stewardship of IRDA.

5. LEGISLATIVE ROLE OF IRDA

Today IRDA Act 1999 is a single piece of insurance legislation concerned and framed as suggested by Law Commission. All weaknesses, inadequacies and redun-dancies have been demolished and removed by this act in the field of insurance business. In fact, the insurance business has undergone a tremendous metamor-phosis simile from April 2000 coupled with changing profiles and expectations of the insurance consumers especially in the context of opening up of the insurance business for private sector entrepreneurs. The act has also demolished the exclusive privilege and monopoly of LIC of India. Today, public and private sector insurance companies are running on the same road duly administered by IRDA. The wave of modernization and excellent integration is flourishing year after year in insurance sector. Thus, IRDA has inculcated the goals of law and spirit in the entire insurance business. In fact, IRDA is discharging its legislative role very efficiently and successfully. Its regulations are strictly followed by all the insurance players in the sector. The involvements of private sector insurers have generated an insurance revolution in the country. Today the life, non-life and re-insurance business is well governed by the rules and regulations framed by IRDA. The task of IRDA is praiseworthy and appreciating. The authority makes its own legislations termed as regulations to carry out the purpose of IRDA Act 1999. It is the pious duty and responsibility of the authority to see that its regulations are strictly adhered to and are followed in spirit by the insurance companies operating in the insurance sector. In fact, the authority is acting as a watch dog coupled with the framing of insurance legislations.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main objectives of this study are to figure out the overall growth pattern in life insurance sector after the setting up of an insurance regulatory authority and to see how efficiently the regulatory body is working for the development of this sector. The paper also highlights the (growth study) data study of both public and private insurance companies.

DATA ANALYSIS

In this study the secondary data is collected and this data is analyzed on the following two basis i.e.:

1.   **Overall growth rate method :-** In this method the overall growth for 15 years is calculated as under :-

(CY figure – Base year figure) x100/Base year figure x Number of years.

2.   **Yearly calculation of growth/de-growth method** :- In this method growth/de-growth has been calculated as under :-

(CYfigure-LY figure) x100/ LY figure

Note: base year 2001

DATA COLLECTION

Data is collected from annual reports published by IRDA for the year 2001-2015.

GROWTH PATTERN OF LIFE INSURANCE BUSINESS IN INDIA

Under mentioned tables show the data collection and growth chart for last 15 year Life Insurance business in India.

TABLE 1: REGISTERED INSURERS IN INDIA: (AS ON 31ST MARCH 2016)

Type of Business	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total
Life Insurance	1	23	24
Non Life Insurer	6	18	24
Reinsurance Insurer	1	0	1
Health Insurer	0	5	5
Total	8	46	54

It is observed that after nationalization of life insurance industry in the year 1956 there was only one company, LIC of India which belonged to public sector and same was continue till the year 2000. After the establishment of IRDA the industry is showing phenomenal growth. Now there are 24 companies working in the field of life insurance business that means 2400 % growth in last 15 years.

TABLE 2: REGISTERED LIFE INSURANCE OFFICES IN INDIA: (DATA AS ON 31.03.2015)

Year (1)	Public Sector (2)	Private Sector (3)	Total (4)	Growth (5)
2001	2186	13	2199	NA
2002	2190	116	2306	4.86
2003	2191	254	2445	6.02
2004	2196	416	2612	6.83
2005	2197	804	3001	14.89
2006	2220	1645	3865	28.79
2007	2301	3072	5373	39.01
2008	2522	6391	8913	65.88
2009	3030	8785	11815	32.56
2010	3250	8768	12018	1.72
2011	3371	8175	11546	(-)3.93
2012	3455	7712	11167	(-)3.28
2013	3526	6759	10285	(-)7.90
2014	4839	6193	11032	7.26
2015	4877	6156	11033	0.01
Overall growth rate	**8.21%**	**3150.26%**	**26.76%**	

Table number 2 shows the number of registered offices working in India in life insurance business. The number of offices were 2199 in the year of 2001, the very first year of IRDA establishment. Out of these only 13 offices belong to private insurance companies. At the end of year 2008 the number of offices were 8913 with a growth rate of 65.88, the ever highest in the regime of IRDA. It starts showing negative growth very first time in the year 2011. The overall growth in private sector comes out 3150.26% in last 15 years (see column-3). The growth rate in public sector is also good and shows a positive growth rate of 8.21% (see column-2)

TABLE: 3 INSURANCE PREMIUM PENETRATIONS AS % OF GDP

Year (1)	Public Sector (2)	Private Sector (3)	Total (4)	Growth (5)
2001	2.15	0.56	2.71	53.10
2002	2.59	0.67	3.26	20.29
2003	2.26	0.63	2.88	(-)11.65
2004	2.53	0.65	3.17	10.07
2005	2.56	0.61	3.14	(-)0.95
2006	4.20	0.60	4.80	52.87
2007	4.10	0.60	4.70	(-)2.08
2008	4.00	0.60	4.60	(-)2.12
2009	4.60	0.60	5.20	13.04
2010	4.40	0.71	5.11	(-)1.73
2011	3.40	0.70	4.10	(-)19.77
2012	3.17	0.78	3.96	(-)3.41
2013	3.10	0.80	3.90	(-)1.51
2014	2.6	0.70	3.30	(-)15.38
2015	2.72	0.72	3.44	(+)4.24
Overall growth rate	**1.76%**	**1.9%**	**1.8%**	

Table number 3 shows the measurement of insurance penetration and its growth in last 15 year. The penetration is measured ratio of premium in USD to GDP in USD. It was 2.32 % as on 31.12.2000, out of this life insurance share was 1.77%. It shows massive growth rate 53.10 % in the very first year of operation of the insurance business under IRDA regulation. Overall growth rate in last 15 year comes @ 1.8 % approximately per annum. (See column-4)

TABLE 4: INSURANCE DENSITY (Premium per capita in USD)

Year (1)	Public Sector (2)	Private Sector (3)	Total (4)	Growth (5)
2001	9.10	2.40	11.5	51.31
2002	11.70	3.00	14.7	27.82
2003	12.90	3.50	16.4	11.56
2004	15.70	4.0	19.7	20.12
2005	18.3	4.40	22.70	15.23
2006	33.20	5.20	38.40	69.16
2007	40.40	6.20	46.6	21.35
2008	41.2	6.2	47.2	1.29
2009	47.7	6.7	54.4	15.23
2010	55.7	8.7	64.4	18.38
2011	49.0	10.0	59.0	(-)8.38
2012	42.7	10.5	53.2	(-)9.83
2013	41.0	11.0	52.0	(-)2.25
2014	44	11.0	55.0	5.77
2015	43.2	11.5	54.7	(-)0.54
Overall growth rate	**24.98%**	**25.28%**	**25.04%**	

Table 4 shows the growth in insurance density which is measured as the ratio of premium in USD to total population. Total insurance density was 9.9 % as on 31.12.2000. Out of this life insurance share was 7.6%. In the very first year regime of IRDA it shows the growth rate of 51.31%. It was in the positive territory up to the year 2010 but after that it starts showing some negative growth. Overall in the last 15 years life insurance density growth rate pegged @ 25.04% per annum. (See column-4)

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TABLE 5: PAID UP CAPITAL OF LIFE INSURANCE COMPANIES IN INDIA

Year (1)	Public Sector (2)	Private Sector (3)	Total (4)	Growth (5)
2001	5.00	539.78	544.78	NA
2002	5.00	1664.00	1669.00	206.36
2003	5.00	2229.13	2234.13	33.86
2004	5.00	3238.71	3243.71	45.16
2005	5.00	4347.81	4352.81	34.19
2006	5.00	5885.95	5890.95	35.34
2007	5.00	8119.41	8124.41	37.91
2008	5.00	12291.42	12296.42	51.35
2009	5.00	18249.77	18254.77	48.55
2010	5.00	21014.99	21019.99	15.15
2011	5.00	23656.85	23661.85	12.57
2012	100.00	24831.92	24931.92	5.37
2013	100.00	25418.72	25518.72	2.35
2014	100.00	25838.51	25938.51	1.65
2015	100.00	26144.14	26244.14	1.18
Overall growth rate	**126.66%**	**316.23%**	**314.49**	

Table number 5 shows the growth rate in capital infusion. The capital infusion is one the most critical factors for any business. In life insurance business, capital infusion growth rate is showing massive positive growth rate @ 314.49 % per annum in last 15 year. (See column-4)

TABLE 6: TOTAL PREMIUM COLLECTED BY LIFE INSURANCE COMPANIES

Year (1)	Public Sector (2)	Private Sector (3)	Total (4)	Growth (5)
2001	34892.02	7.13	34899.15	NA
2002	49821.91	272.54	50094.45	43.54
2003	54628.49	1109.62	55738.11	11.27
2004	63167.61	3120.32	66287.93	18.91
2005	75127.29	7727.51	82854.80	24.31
2006	90792.22	15083.54	105875.76	27.28
2007	127822.84	28253.01	156075.86	47.38
2008	149789.99	51561.42	201351.41	29.01
2009	157288.04	64503.22	221791.26	10.15
2010	186077.31	79369.94	265447.25	19.69
2011	203473.40	88133.60	291604.99	9.85
2012	202889.28	84182.83	287072.11	(-)1.57
2013	208803.58	78398.91	287202.49	0.05
2014	236942.30	77359.36	314301.66	9.44
2015	239667.65	88433.49	328101.14	4.39
Overall growth rate	**39.13%**	**82680.1%**	**56.01%**	

Table number 6 shows the premium income which is the main source of income. The collection of premium is the lifeline for life insurance industry. In the last 15 years overall premium income grew @ 56.01% but if we see the growth rate of private life insurance companies it shows the huge growth rate @ 82680.1% per annum which seems beyond thought. The growth rate of Public Sector Life Insurance Company also shows positive growth rate @ 39.13 % per annum. Overall a great performance in the regime of IRDA.

(Data source- Annual Reports published by IRDA)

CONCLUSION

Studying the life insurance sector as a whole, I could see all round robust growth during the last 15 years working regime of IRDA. I feel that set up of this regulatory body was a right move of the government and I hope that more positive results are yet to come.

THE TASK AHEAD

Formerly, the head office of IRDA was in New Delhi now it has been transferred to Hyderabad. The operational area of insurance business is comprehensive consisting of life insurance, health insurance and general insurance. The main goal of insurance business is said to be human welfare and upliftment. Insurance schemes aim to benefit the individuals and their families, businessmen and the society at large. Now the authority should promote the prosumer culture in the globalizing Indian economy. The word **prosumer i**s coined with the help of two words namely **production + consumer.** Prosumerism is rapidly flourishing in competitive and globalizing world. Hence authority should teach a lesson of prosumerism to all its insurance players. In future, all insurance players must introduce such life insurance products which are liked by the insurance consumers and could satisfy the basic needs of the consumers because insurance industry stands for the excellent services generated for the welfare of masses. Insurance products cannot prevent the happening of natural disasters, catastrophes and misfortunes but it can reduce the burden of insecurities. Therefore, prosumer culture is essential and inevitable to be developed in future. This prosumer culture should be in prevalence in the service sectors operating in Indian economy. This is a major task ahead to be achieved under the well knitted legislations of IRDAI.

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ASSOCIATION BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE AND THE USAGE OF SELECT DURABLE COMMODITIES BY "LOW-LITERATE" PEOPLE USING MULTIPLE RESPONSE SET

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ABSTRACT
This paper concentrates on the people whom a few earlier researches have termed as "Low-Literate" consumers. Work on these set of people have been very limited in the world till date and practically no evidence of any work with these people let alone on their consumption of durables in this country has been revealed in the course of the study. We have tried to find out their usage pattern of durables within a selected variety of eight consumer durables ear-marked for the purpose of the study. With the help of Multi-Response set we have tried to determine their usage pattern and frequency of the select durables considered for the study. Thereafter, we have tried to determine if demographic attributes like education, age, income and occupation does play a role in the consumption process of these selected consumer durables and if there is an association between these various demographic attributes.

KEYWORDS
consumer durables, low-literate, age, income, education, occupation.

INTRODUCTION
The Indian economy has come off a long way. The protectionist regime of closed door economic policies that prevailed for nearly 44 years after India attained independence from the 'British Raj' had to finally give way to a much more wholesome and outward-oriented one through 'economic liberalization' in 1991 (Brahmbhatt, 1996). The results are quite visible as we find from the Government of India economic reports that in 1991 India's GDP stood at Rs. 5,86,212 crores, while about 25 years later it stands at Rs. 1,35,76,086 crores, that is, an upward swing of 2216 percent. A clear proof that the 'sales era' has been replaced by an era of 'consumerism' and in the age of consumerism the consumer stands as the king (McGuire, 2000).

The Indian marketplace went through significant changes post economic liberalization wherein the age old model of shortage of products with limited product choice options became obsolete. In its place a new order came into being which gave the consumers the liberty to choose multiple products offered by various brands (Jain and Goel, 2012). We can further substantiate this as we take a look into the 'Consumer Durables' sector of India which yielded a staggering revenue of US $ 9.7 billion in FY 2015 and further went up to US $ 12.5 billion in FY 2016. The last few years have experienced the rise of demand of different consumer goods significantly (Chunawalla, 2000). Inspite of the boom in overall consumerism, the consumption pattern of very lowly literate or illiterate consumers is not yet investigated which this paper intends to pursue. This paper essentially would deal with the consumption pattern of low literate consumers for select durable commodities.

Natalie (2005), suggests that anyone who has received formal education of standard six and below are considered as 'low literate'. In this respect taking cue from the Census 2011 data we find that the effective literacy rate of India as of 2011 stands at 74.04 percent. Here it must be noted that in India "a person aged 7 years and above who can both read and write with understanding in any language is considered as literate" (Educational Statics at a Glance, Government of India, MHRD, 2016). If we compare this with specific information then we find that in the U.S. 1/5th of the adult population is classified as 'functionally literate', that is, they possess reading, interpreting, and comprehending skills of prose, documents or simple mathematical functions below a fourth grade level (Natalie, 2005). While the National Adult Literacy Survey conducted in the U.S. with a sample of 13,600 adults estimates that half of the population of the country has acquired a literacy skill which is equivalent to below sixth grade of formal education (Kirsch et al. 1993). However, in India the census 2011 data do not categorically distinguish between high literacy rate and low literacy rate of the population. This has resulted in making it very difficult for us to understand the size of the low literate population of the country.

The customers and the consumers in India now have been given a plethora of options to choose their durable commodities to satisfy their need, but the basics have been forgotten in the process. The consumer or the customer to make his or her choice needs to be literate enough to identify what would be good to him or her. To buy or to arrive upon a decision to buy, consumer needs information which when processed in a meaningful way would lead to a satisfying buying decision. But information about the consumers who are lowly literate, that is, below standard six level of formal education is practically non-existent (Natalie, 2005). It is expected that these people also must be using so many durable commodities in their everyday life wherein they are expectedly exercising some method to process the product information reaching them. But evidence relating to how they get the information about products and how they get their needs met in the market place is almost not there (Natalie, 2005). Consumer education gains relevancy in terms of importance as the nature of the marketplace grows (Halatin and Taylor 1994; Viswanathan, Harris, and Ritson 1998). It is very much evident that these low literate people must be encountering endless problems which might result in choosing a wrong product at the end of the day or misunderstand the information about the price of a certain commodity (Adkins, and Ozane, 1998). Del Vecchio (2004) felt through in his study that low literate consumers often are subject to experience lower quality product choices chiefly as they depend heavily on factors like advertising or information from the packaging of a product. It is also being addressed that the low literate people while making purchase decisions often face difficulties in relation to matters like effort versus accuracy trade-offs (Viswanathan, Rosa, and Harris, 2003).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
1. To identify the usage of selected durable commodities by low-literate consumers of the city of Kolkata.
2. To understand the association of different demographic attributes in their usage behaviour.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Demographic factors play a very dominant role in the usage of products in general. It has been found that factors like age, gender, occupation, educational qualification and income has a significant influence on the consumption process. Chowdhury (1989), states that the young consumers, predominantly the adolescent category in general, showed remarkable difference from the elderly people in their look out for information about the products of their choice. This happens to indicate in a way that 'Age', one of the demographic factors has a major say in product usage. Zolo (1995) demonstrated in his paper that the adolescent people generally happens to be the trendsetters in the fashion market and that they set the fashion trend and culture for the rest of the people of any age. Roper (William, 2002) on the other hand puts forward a completely different picture about the elderly people that they are adverse to change. He reported that the elderly people

are quite willing and open to change and are often willing to try new brands and are also responsive to new marketing initiatives. In another study in this field Chin-Feng (2002) made use of the demographic variables and compared them with the psychographic variables sticking to the differences in brand preference of the consumers, to bring out the elementary character of different market segments and in the process identify sub-markets which would be smaller in size but, much more defined and would help enable a market player to attain increasing competitive advantage over others. The use of information grows rapidly when the consumers are found to have higher educational standards (Kjell, 1974). Such consumers are found to be much more engaged in evaluating more number of alternatives (Kjell 1974). Formal education precisely schooling, helps in stimulating to develop the cognitive cues in an individual and tends to pay more attention towards information (Le Vine et al. 1991) before going for decisive decisions. Elo and Preston (1996) also corroborates the fact that schooling could have significant impact towards processing of a specific set of information which is relevant towards taking buying decisions. Caldwell (1979) has gone one step ahead suggesting that "schooling can shift the distribution of authority within the household and equip individuals with the social confidence needed to claim extra house-hold resources." This brings us the valid proof that educational background does play a dominant role in the information processing of a given commodity. Like the other two (discussed already) demographic factors namely 'age' and 'education', evidence taken from earlier researches show that a person's occupation also does have a significant role in determining the products he or she would like to use (Terpstra and Sarathy, 1997). A given product or a brand has practical significance to a given consumer. It does have a high degree of relative importance of representation to a given consumer too (Bhat and Reddy, 1998). Kitayama (1991) further suggests that it is highly likely that a consumer would prefer to use a brand as he would be happy to illustrate before others how similar or different he is from his own group of people. The 'Self' concept is the key for which products are being used by the consumers as they prefer to reinforce the concept, that is 'Self' to themselves (Wallendorf and Arnould, 1988) thus bringing satisfaction to them.

RESEARCH IDEA
Investigations into this area revealed that almost no work or very little work has been done with people who are 'Low-literate. Study about their consumption behaviour has not been captured as yet in this country. So, this gave us a viable reason to explore this area with respect to investigating their consumption behaviour of certain durable commodities in the city of Kolkata.

RESEARCH GAP
Extensive literature review suggests that very little work have been done till date with this set of consumers. We have failed to find out any work related to the use of durable commodities especially the ones we have selected for the purpose of our study involving this set of consumers. In the process this paper would consider the following research gaps:
1. The rate of consumption of the select durable commodities by these people (lowly literate) under consideration in this research.
2. The effect of the relationship between ownership of durable commodities with Education and Age.
3. The effect of the relationship between ownership of durable commodities with Education and income.
4. The effect of the relationship between ownership of durable commodities with Education and occupation.

METHODOLOGY
A pilot study was taken up with a primary data sample of 89 people within the city of Kolkata, who had met the set condition of the study, that is, they were all having a formal education of class VI and below. The study helped in designing the final questionnaire which was used to collect data from a sample of 400 people belonging to the same category. Multiple responses were called from them on a select enquiry which categorically recorded their present usage pattern of the select durables under consideration.

Multiple Response Set has been primarily used to understand the usage pattern of consumer durables like Television, Refrigerator, DVD/CD, Washing Machine, Air Conditioner, Water Filter, Mobile Phone (for self use), and Mobile Phone (for family use). Multiple Response Category Variables do originate or are a familiar thing in research studies involving primary data where the respondents select more than one given options which includes study of swine management (Agresti and Liu, 2001; Bilder and Loughin, 2004) study related to use of contraceptives (Foxman at el., 1997; Bilder and Loughin, 2002) study to understand the symptoms of patients (Bilder and Loughin, 2001). Multiple Response questions involving multiple answers from the respondents can be analyzed truly by very few statistical methods; one such is the Chi-square test of association (Andrzej Matuszewski and Krzysztof Trojanowski, 2001). This has been the reason for which we have applied the Chi-square test to investigate the association of the different demographic attributes.

HYPOTHESIS TESTING
1. H_{11}: Associationship exists between ownership of durables with education and age.
2. H_{12}: Associationship exists between ownership of durables with education and income.
3. H_{13}: Associationship exists between ownership of durables with education and occupation.

TABLE 1.1: SHOWING THE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF DURABLES FOR DIFFERENT (TWO) GROUPS OF EDUCATION AND AGE

Television				age_m		
				Lower	Upper	Total
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	202	76	278
		Lower	Count	12	60	72
	Total		Count	214	136	350
Refrigerator						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	133	46	179
		Lower	Count	4	44	48
	Total		Count	137	90	227
DVD/CD						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	51	23	74
		Lower	Count	0	17	17
	Total		Count	51	40	91
Washing M/c						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	32	14	46
		Lower	Count	0	14	14
	Total		Count	32	28	60
AC M/c						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	33	21	54
		Lower	Count	1	17	18
	Total		Count	34	38	72
Water Filter						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	70	31	101
		Lower	Count	2	24	26
	Total		Count	72	55	127
Mobile (self)						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	225	74	299
		Lower	Count	17	61	78
	Total		Count	242	135	377
Mobile (family)						
yes	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	185	70	255
		Lower	Count	13	61	74
	Total		Count	198	131	329

Table – 1.1: The above table has been constructed using the fuzzy clustering method by which both "educational qualification" and "age" has been clustered into two categories "Upper" and "Lower" for operational ease and efficiency of analysis. Though, it need not to be mentioned repeatedly that the study pertains to people who are at the most having a literacy level of class VI or below. The above table clearly indicates that people who are deemed to be somewhat 'Upper' (that is, till class V) in their educational standards use more of the said durable products in contention. Therefore, it indicates that there is a high possibility of an association existing between education and age in the use of durable commodities. This gives the premise to validate it through testing of hypothesis using the Chi-Square model followed by Phi and Cramer V tests.

TABLE 1.2: SHOWING THE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF DURABLES FOR DIFFERENT (TWO) GROUPS OF EDUCATION AND INCOME

				Income		
Television				Lower	Upper	Total
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	168	110	278
		Lower	Count	29	43	72
	Total		Count	197	153	350
Refrigerator						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	73	106	179
		Lower	Count	6	42	48
	Total		Count	79	148	227
DVD/CD						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	17	57	74
		Lower	Count	1	16	17
	Total		Count	18	73	91
Washing M/c						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	1	45	46
		Lower	Count	1	13	14
	Total		Count	2	58	60
AC M/c						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	0	54	54
		Lower	Count	1	17	18
	Total		Count	1	71	72
Water Filter						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	19	82	101
		Lower	Count	2	24	26
	Total		Count	21	106	127
Mobile (self)						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	190	109	299
		Lower	Count	36	42	78
	Total		Count	226	151	377
Mobile (family)						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	146	109	255
		Lower	Count	31	43	74
	Total		Count	177	152	329

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Table – 1.2: This table further indicates that people who are identified as 'Upper' in their qualification and also belong to the 'Upper" income level use the durable commodities at a much higher frequency than the rest. It should be noted that when both are low the usage of the durables gets affected. So, this indicates that there is a high possibility of an association existing between education and income while it comes to use of durable commodities. This gave us the impetus to validate it through testing of hypothesis using the Chi-Square model followed by Phi and Cramer V tests.

TABLE 1.3: SHOWING THE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF DURABLES FOR DIFFERENT (TWO) GROUPS OF EDUCATION AND OCCUPATION

				Occupation		
Television				Lower	Upper	Total
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	63	215	278
		Lower	Count	10	62	72
	Total		Count	73	277	350
Refrigerator						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	48	131	179
		Lower	Count	10	38	48
	Total		Count	58	169	227
DVD/CD						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	41	33	74
		Lower	Count	8	9	17
	Total		Count	49	42	91
Washing M/c						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	26	20	46
		Lower	Count	7	7	14
	Total		Count	33	27	60
AC M/c						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	31	23	54
		Lower	Count	9	9	18
	Total		Count	40	32	72
Water Filter						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	36	65	101
		Lower	Count	8	18	26
	Total		Count	44	83	127
Mobile (self)						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	64	235	299
		Lower	Count	10	68	78
	Total		Count	74	303	377
Mobile (family						
	Qualification_m	Upper	Count	59	196	255
		Lower	Count	10	64	74
	Total		Count	69	260	329

Table – 1.3: Indicates that people who are identified as 'Upper' in their qualification and also belong to the 'Upper" occupation level use the durable commodities at a much higher frequency than the rest. It should be noted that when both are low the usage of the durables gets affected. So, this indicates that there is a high possibility of an association existing between education and income while it comes to use of durable commodities. This gave us the impetus to validate it through testing of hypothesis using the Chi-Square model followed by Phi and Cramer V tests.

Testing of Hypothesis:

H$_{01}$: No Associationship exists between ownership of durables with education and age.

H$_{11}$: Associationship exists between ownership of durables with education and age.

CHI-SQUARE TEST OF QUALIFICATION AND AGE

CHI-SQUARE TESTS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	87.067[a]	1	.000		
Continuity Correction[b]	84.783	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	400				

SYMMETRIC MEASURES

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.467	.000
	Cramer's V	.467	.000
N of Valid Cases		400	

The Pearson Chi-Square value of 87.067, with a significance level (LoS) of 5%, and a P value of 0.000, shows that a significant relationship exists between qualification and age. Consequently, high measures of Phi (0.467) which is also significant at 5% LoS (P=0.000), suggests a very strong influence of qualification on age and its subsequent effects in the usage of consumer durables. This is also substantiated through other symmetric measures namely Cramer V and Contingency Coefficient. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

H$_{02}$: No Associationship exists between ownership of durables with education and income.

H$_{12}$: Associationship exists between ownership of durables with education and income.

Chi-Square test of Qualification and Income

CHI-SQUARE TESTS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.042[a]	1	.044		
Continuity Correction[b]	3.564	1	.059		
N of Valid Cases	400				

SYMMETRIC MEASURES

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.101	.044
	Cramer's V	.101	.044
N of Valid Cases		400	

The Pearson Chi-Square value of 4.042, with a significance level (LoS) of 5%, and a P value of 0.044, shows that a significant relationship exists between qualification and income. Consequently, high measures of Phi (0.101) which is also significant at 5% LoS (P=0.044), suggests a very strong influence of qualification on income and its subsequent effects in the usage of consumer durables. This is also substantiated through other symmetric measures namely Cramer V and Contingency Coefficient. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

H$_{03}$: No Associationship exists between ownership of durables with education and occupation.

H$_{13}$: Associationship exists between ownership of durables with education and occupation.

CHI-SQUARE TEST OF QUALIFICATION AND OCCUPATION

CHI-SQUARE TESTS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.657[a]	1	.031		
Continuity Correction[b]	4.021	1	.045		
N OF VALID CASES	400				

SYMMETRIC MEASURES

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.108	.031
	Cramer's V	.108	.031
N of Valid Cases		400	

The Pearson Chi-Square value of 4.657, with a significance level (LoS) of 5%, and a P value of 0.031, shows that a significant relationship exists between qualification and occupation. Consequently, high measures of Phi (0.108) which is also significant at 5% LoS (P=0.031), suggests a very strong influence of qualification on occupation and its subsequent effects in the usage of consumer durables. This is also substantiated through other symmetric measures namely Cramer V and Contingency Coefficient. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS

This paper clearly indicates that demographic variables like age, qualification, income, and occupation of a "Low-Literate" person does have significant role in influencing a person's usage of consumer durables. Within the "Low-Literate" segment, people having relatively higher age, qualification, income, and occupation are more likely to use different consumer durables (in contention of the study) at a higher rate as understood.

This paper has tried to find if there exists a relationship between demographic variables as discussed earlier. But the study can further be extended to see what factors really induce people of this segment to go for the purchase decision in favour of a particular durable commodity (studied in this paper).

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EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STORE IMAGE AND STORE LOYALTY OF AN ORGANIZED GROCERY RETAIL

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ABSTRACT
The Indian retail sector has seen a boom from past few years. The rise in the disposal income, urbanization and increasing FDI has helped the industry grow. India is ranked 6th largest country in terms of food and grocery. The food and grocery sector is the largest category with in the retail sector India. In order to survive in the market competition to have loyal customers is a very important for the organizations. A deeper understanding of what engenders store loyalty would be beneficial to retailers in developing appropriate strategies to satisfy loyal customers and to maintain a competitive advantage. The objective of the study will be to analyze the store loyalty of grocery retail. The data will be collected from the customers who will be shopping at these selected stores. The total of 300 customers from selected city will be sampled using mall intercept survey. This research consists of three variables, store image, store satisfaction and store loyalty. The independent variable is store image and it was divided into eight variables Store satisfaction will be introduced as mediator variable between store image and store loyalty. Store loyalty is the dependent variable for this study. The Results of the study showed that there exists a mediating relation between Store image and Store loyalty through Store Satisfaction. More ever the study also reveals the direct effect of some variables of store image with store loyalty.

KEYWORDS
retailing, grocery, loyalty, store image, satisfaction.

INTRODUCTION
India is the most attractive retail industry in the world now; it tells the fact that the growing number of retailers in India is not going to stop or slow down in near future. The most 'benefited' cities from this rapid growth will be the metro cities like Mumbai, New Delhi and Hyderabad etc. The factors responsible for rapid growth in retail are Urbanization, rise in income, increase in working women and allowing FDI. Kearney's 2015 annual Global Retail Development Index has ranked India as the 5th largest retail destination globally. The Indian retail industry has experienced growth of 15% between 2010 and 2015 and is expected to increase to USD 1000 billion by 2020 with its share going up from 8% to 15-20%. Of the proposed investment ($25 billion), 60-70% would go in setting up the supply chain for food and groceries (Kalhan, 2007).

Food and Grocery is the largest category within the retail sector with 69 per cent share followed by Apparel and Mobile segment. The food retailing industry has annual sales of about $176 billion, a little over half of total retail sales of $ 330 billion. Over the past few years, the industry had grown at about 10% a year, exceeding the GDP growth rate. Food retail outlets account for one third of all retail outlets and 63% of total retail sales

As more retail stores are opening up, more difficult it would be for them to retain customers. Sensing this issue some retailers have started spending marketing efforts for gaining customer loyalty for them. The need of the hour is to attract the footfalls, convert them into customers and try to retain them as long as possible. So having the store loyal customers gives a competitive advantage to the retailers. Almost all the retail stores irrespective of big or small do loyalty programs like profit club, payback cards and loyalty points to attract and retain the customers.

The concept of store loyalty is derived originally from the brand loyalty concept which refers to the tendency to repeat purchase the same brand. Osman in his paper concludes that at the store level, it refers to the tendency to repeat purchase at the same store, for similar or other products. Though much work has been done on brand loyalty but there is still no clear conceptualization of what store loyalty means. It has been construed as related to attitudes (brand loyalty is an attitude which may result in a purchase behavior" (Tidwell and Horgan, 1992). The concern for increasing customer loyalty has spread to the grocery retailing industry. The importance of store loyalty in grocery retailing, was however, acknowledged by Tate already in 1961. In the article The Supermarket Battle for Store Loyalty, he argued for store loyalty as an important success factor in the increasingly competitive field of grocery retailing.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Loyalty has been defined and measured in many different ways. Dick and Basu (1994) conceptualized loyalty as the relative attitude toward an entity (brand/service/store/vendor) and repeat buying and visiting to that entity. Positive evaluations of image have additionally been linked to the development of store loyalty. For example, Lessig (1973) found a definite relationship between store image and store loyalty. Sirgy and Samli (1985) suggest that image of a shopping area may influence store loyalty. They indicated that if individual have a favorable image of the store, they are likely to develop a certain degree of loyalty commensurate to the favorableness of the image. Osman (1993) found that customer patronage behavior towards a particular store is dependent on the image of that particular store, the more favorable the store image, the higher the valence of the store to the customer. Koo (2003) examined whether various store image components have a direct bearing on store satisfaction and store loyalty in the discount retail environment. It is found that location, after sales service and merchandising have a direct impact on store loyalty. Chang and Tu (2005) findings suggest that store image is significantly associated with customer's loyalty in the hypermarket industry. In their study, the four image dimension (facilities, store services, store activities and convenience) can effectively predict customer loyalty. However, Mitchell and Kiral (1998), in a review of a number of store image studies, concluded that they had not identified a link between the store attributes and store loyalty. One such study by Garton (1995), for instance, discovered that perceptions of quality and service provided by the store contributed relatively little to the customer's intention to return to the store. Bloemer and Ruyter (1998) were also unable to find direct effect of store image on store loyalty. Based on these mixed results, this research investigates whether various image dimension have a direct bearing on store loyalty.

STORE IMAGE, STORE SATISFACTION AND STORE LOYALTY
Bloemer and Ruyter (1998) studies suggest that the store image has an indirect impact on store loyalty. They found that the relationship between store image and store loyalty is mediated by store satisfaction. Chang and Tu (2005) found out that the customer satisfaction acted an intermediation role between store image and customer loyalty. Therefore, there is both evidence for a direct relationship and an indirect relationship for store image and store loyalty whereby store satisfaction acts as a mediator. So, it is worthwhile to explore the relationship between store image and store loyalty via store satisfaction in this research.

GAPS IN THE LITERATURE
- The majority of the studies have been done on products, brand, customers and on services or channel intermediaries. The research on the relationship between store, customers, and situational factors along with store image, satisfaction and store loyalty has remained limited.
- There are some evidences that store loyalty may be determined by store image Bloemer and Ruyter (1998). However, it has remained unclear what's the exact relationship Between image, satisfaction and loyalty in retail settings therefore the focus of the research is to investigate relationship between store image and store loyalty taking into consideration the mediating effect of store satisfaction. A model adapted from Bloemer and Ruyter (1998) will be used for this research

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES
1. To analyze the Store loyalty of Grocery Specialty Stores
2. To examine the effect of store satisfaction on store image, and store loyalty.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
The retail sector in India is growing at a very high speed thus in turn increasing the competition in the market. So in order to survive in the market competition to have loyal customers is a very important for the organizations. A deeper understanding of what engenders store loyalty would be beneficial to retailers in developing appropriate strategies to satisfy loyal customers and to maintain a competitive advantage. Therefore, this research intends to explore the relationship between store image, store satisfaction, trust, commitment and store loyalty.

METHODOLOGY: RESEARCH DESIGN
This study aims to examine the interrelationship between store image, store satisfaction, trust commitment and store loyalty. The research will be conducted in Metro Politian city i.e. Hyderabad, of India. Top three stores of groceries store like Reliance Fresh, Big Bazaar, More, will be selected based on Revenue generated and number of stores in these cities for this study. Both primary and secondary data will be taken for the study.

TABLE 1: TOP FIVE GROCERY STORES IN INDIA

Grocery stores	Ownership	Number of stores	Revenue of stores
Reliance industries	Reliance Fresh	886	17640
Future Group	Big Bazaar	530	11557
Aditya Birla Group	More	655	2,510

POPULATION
The population of this research consists of all the customers who visit the retail specialty stores and buy Grocery products in India. As it is impossible to include all the consumers and all the retailers into the study so sampling method will be adopted in order to choose the sample which is represents the whole Population.

SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUE
The individual customers who visit the grocery specialty stores will be considered as a unit of sample into the study.

SIZE OF SAMPLE
There are different views of authors on criteria for determining sample size and that depends on the nature and data requirement of the study. As the aim of our study is to examine the direct and indirect relation among the constructs so the technique like Structural equation modeling is required to analyze the data. So in order to analyze this data analysis technique there should be more than 200 sample required (snoj, Korda,Mumel 2004), also the number of units in the sample and in the variable included in analysis should be at a ratio of 8:1 or more (bentler and chou, 1987; kelloway 1998). So the total of 300 customers from city will be sampled using mall intercept survey. More ever According to Roscoe (1975), sample size larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for most research (as cited in Sekaran, 2000)

TABLE 2: TARGET SAMPLE SIZE

Retailer	Reliance Fresh	Food Bazaar	More	Total
Hyderabad	100	100	100	300

VARIABLES
This research consists of three variables, store image, store satisfaction and store loyalty. The independent variable is store image and it was divided into eight variables i.e. Advertising by the Store, Physical Characteristics of the Store, Convenience of Reaching the Store, Availability of parking facility, Merchandize Selection, Store Personnel, Prices Charged by the Store, Dependability of the Store. Store satisfaction will be introduced as mediator variable between store image and store loyalty. Store loyalty is the dependent variable for this research.

VARIABLE MEASURES
All of the items indicating the store image, store satisfaction, and store loyalties were drawn from previous literature. Five-point Likert scales will be adopted to measure the concepts.
Store image was divided into eight variables Advertising by the Store, Physical Characteristics of the Store, Convenience of Reaching the Store, Availability of parking facility, Merchandize Selection, Store Personnel, Prices Charged by the Store, Dependability of the Store by Mueller, Wallace and Price, 1992; Patchel, 1965; Stephenson, P. Ronald, 1969. The Store satisfaction scale used in this study was adopted from Bettencourt (1997), Bitner et al. (1997), and Sivadas and Baker-Prewitt (2000). Specifically, Store satisfaction with a specialty store is measured by satisfaction with price, product quality, product assortment, and service. Loyalty will be measured by the dimensions' conative loyalty. Conative loyalty describes people's willingness or intention to be loyal Six conative loyalty measures were adopted from Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996).

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION
The descriptive statistics test showed that 61% of the respondents were female, and 39% were twenties and 35% were thirties in their age. 60% were married. Validity and reliability of the scales SPSS 21.0 was adopted for the exploratory factor analyses and structural equation model for the confirmatory factor analyses to verify the validity of the scales and structural relationships among exogenous and latent concepts. Two-stage analysis was utilized (Hair et. al., 1995, p. 635). The exploratory factor analyses and structural equation model for the confirmatory factor analyses to verify the validity of the scales and structural relationships among exogenous and latent concepts, the result were partially supported. The results show that store images have a positive impact on store satisfaction. Store atmosphere (coefficient= 0.176, t =3.282), value (coefficient=.273, t=2.883) have significant influence on satisfaction. But images including location, convenient facilities, employee service, after sales service and merchandising are not statistically significant. The results suggest that store atmosphere and value should be carefully bolstered in order to promote the level of satisfaction experienced by customers in discount retail stores. The results confirm those derived by Bloemer & Ruyter (1998), Sirgy & Samli (1985), Kumar & Karande (2000), Thang & Tan (2003), all of who stipulate that store images have a direct impact on satisfaction. It is may be because atmosphere and value are easy to realize or to evaluate good and/or valuable, compared to other images. Three image dimensions have a direct impact on store loyalty. It is revealed that location (coefficient= 0.268, t=4.736), after sales service (coefficient=.142, t=2.990), merchandising (coefficient=.197, t=2.841) are statistically significant in affecting store loyalty. This result is contradictory to that by Bloemer & Ruyter (1998), who proved that store image has no direct effect on loyalty, but an indirect impact on store loyalty through satisfaction. This contradictory result may lie in difference in conceptualization. While Bloemer & Ruyter (1998) conceptualize store image as a single dimension, this study conceptualized store mages as multi-attribute factors. But the result shows that satisfaction has an insignificant positive effect on retail store loyalty (coefficient=0.087, t =1.333). This result is parallel to that by Cronin & Taylor (1992), but

does not coincide with most previous studies from services industry by Ruyter et al. (1997); Spreng & Mackoy (1996) and from retail businesses by Bitner(1990), Bloemer & Ruyter(1998), Rust& Zahorik(1993), Cronin & Taylor(1994), Parasuraman et al.(1994), Macintosh & Lockshin(1997). Bloemer & Ruyter (1998) and Caruana (2002), for example, stipulate clearly that store image or service quality has an indirect effect on store loyalty mediated through store satisfaction (p. 509). But this study shows that there exists no direct relationship between store satisfaction and store loyalty. This may imply that satisfaction is to be treated as a resulting variable (Keller, 1993; Na et. al., 1999), rather than a determinant of, store loyalty (Bloemer & Ruyter, 1998). In addition, this may be because the effects of store images on loyalty are too strong. This is observed in the revised structural model. When there are no paths from store image dimensions to loyalty, the effect of satisfaction to loyalty is statistically significant (coefficient= 0.184, t=3.116). But the paths from images to loyalty are added, the effect becomes non-significant. This situation is mainly due to many stores recently entering the market. Newly entering retail stores give many attractive deals including coupons, reduced prices, etc. Customers in this environment may be busy trying to visit many different stores, or may it be too early for customers to evaluate many different stores. This means customers do not have sufficient experiences to distinguish diverse stores and to fully form psychological responses, i.e. satisfaction

CONCLUSION

The study explored the relation between store image, store satisfaction and store loyalty. The results were partially Supported to earlier findings. As store image has an impact on store satisfaction and store image has a direct impact on store loyalty. This study further explains that there is no direct relationship between store satisfaction and store loyalty. In addition, this may be because the effects of store images on loyalty are too strong. This is observed in the revised structural model. When there are no paths from store image dimensions to loyalty, the effect of satisfaction to loyalty is statistically significant. But the paths from images to loyalty are added, the effect becomes non- significant. For the future researches it would be interesting to determine how the identified factors influence the degree of selection of certain product categories, particularly in research that considers the frequency of purchase as well.

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REFLECTIONS OF INDIAN TOURISM SECTOR IN REFERENCE TO WORLD TOURISM

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ABSTRACT
Tourism is one of the key sectors of the Indian economy leading the international trade in services and representing the leading income generator for many regions. Tourism industry in India is growing at a fast rate and it has vast potential for generating employment and earning large amount of foreign exchange as the study has revealed. Tourism in India should be developed in such a way that it can accommodate and entertain visitors in such a manner that they count India as a preferred destination for all kinds of Tourism activities. The specialized services, demographic dividend and reasonably low priced workforce add up to make Travel & Tourism sector as a cash cow for India. The major part is being played by visitor's experience and in this we need to drive value through outstanding visitor's experience. To achieve all, current Tourism Policy launches few flagship programmes regarding Human Resource which leads to total satisfaction in Service providers and service takers and generates competitive advantage for India as a most sought out tourism destination.

KEYWORDS
Indian tourism sector, tourism activities, tourism policies.

INTRODUCTION
Tourism sector is one of the major service sectors which are not only a sector of growth generation but also an employment generator. According to past year's records this sector has a huge capacity to create large scale employment both direct and indirect and that too all the sections of society from most specialized to unskilled workforce.

The U.N. World Tourism Organization(WTO) and World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC) defines tourists as people who travel to and stay in places outside their usual environment for more than 24 hours and not more than one consecutive year for Leisure, Business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited". The Indian department of tourism's definition is almost same. It explicitly includes people travelling for the following reasons: Leisure-recreation, holiday, health, study, religion, sport, business, family meetings (GOI, 2008: 257-260)

Various kinds of Tourisms are
1. Adventure Tourism
2. Wild Life Tourism
3. Medical Tourism
4. Pilgrimage Tourism
5. Eco Tourism
6. Cultural Tourism
7. Recreational Tourism
8. Sports Tourism

EMERGENCE & DEVELOPMENT OF TOURISM SECTOR IN INDIA (PLAN WISE DESCRIPTION)
The Travel & Tourism competitiveness Report 2015 ranks India 52nd out of 140 Countries overall. On the price competitiveness Indian tourism sector ranked 8th out of 141 countries. Air transport ranked 35th and ground transport ranked 50th. On natural and cultural resources India ranked 12th which is on higher side.

Second Five year plan (1956-61) was the starter of Tourism and it becomes a constituent of the planning process with an allocation of Rs. 3.36cr for both centre and state collectively. After that 6th Five year plan (1980-85) was a landmark in the history of Indian Tourism, "Tourism Policy" was announced during 1982 which specifies the development objectives and also drafted an action plan for same. The diversification of tourism products, growth accelerated in tourism Infra, marketing effectiveness and removal of all impediments to tourism comes in 8th Five Year plan (1992-97). Ninth plan has much to speak over the Tourist and Tourism policy; thrust areas are Product Development, Human Resource Development, Promotion and Marketing, Coordinating and Marketing.

The allocation for Tourism from Ist Five Year Plan onwards is as shown below:

TABLE 1

Sr. No	Five Year Plan	Tourism(in Cr)
1	1951-56	-
2	1956-61	3.36
3	1961-66	4.001
4	1969-74	25.00
5	1974-77	23.62
6	1980-85	72.00
7	1985-90	138.68
8	1992-97	272.00
9	1997-02	595.00
10	2002-07	2,900.00
11	2007-12	5,156.00
12	2012-17	22,000.00

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To review and place emergence & Development phases of Tourism sector in India
2. To analyze the performance of Indian tourism sector with respect to World Tourism Sector

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The present work is descriptive by nature and secondary sources like Travel and Tourism Economic Impact 2015 India, Travel and Tourism Economic Impact 2016 World, Indian Tourism Ministry- Annual Report 2015-16, National Tourism policy 2015 have mainly been accessed to collect the required data. Reference period for the study is 10 years from 2006 to 2015.

Following parameters are considered for analysing in performance of Indian Tourism Sector.

- Contribution of Travel & Tourism to GDP
- Contribution of Travel & Tourism to Employment

Contribution of Travel & Tourism to GDP and Employment comes out of the contribution by Direct Travel & Tourism, Indirect Travel & Tourism and also from the induced contribution.

TABLE 2

Direct Travel & Tourism Contribution	Indirect Travel & Tourism Contribution	Induced contribution (Spending of direct & indirect employees)	Total Travel & Tourism contribution
1. COMMODITIES - Accommodation - Transportation - Entertainment - Attractions 2. INDUSTRIES - Accommodation Services - Food& Beverage Services - Retail Trade - Transportation Services - Cultural Sports & recreational Services 3. Sources of Spending - Residents domestic T&T Spending - Businesses domestic travel spending - Visitor exports - Individual government T&T spending	- T&T investment spending - Government collective T&T spending - Impact of purchases from suppliers	- Food & beverages - Recreation - Clothing - Housing - Household goods	- To GDP - To Employment

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

TABLE 3: FOREIGN TOURIST ARRIVALS IN INDIA AND FOREIGN EXCHANGE EARNINGS FROM TOURISM FOR THE YEAR 2006-2015

Year	Foreign Tourist Arrivals (in nos.)	Percentage Change over Previous Year	Foreign Exchange Earnings (Rs. Cr)	Percentage Change over Previous Year
2006	44,47,167	13.5	39,025	17.8
2007	50,81,504	14.3	44,360	13.7
2008	52,82,603	4.3	51,294	15.6
2009	51,67,699	-2.2	53,700	4.7
2010	57,75,692	11.8	64,889	20.8
2011	63,09,222	9.2	77,591	19.6
2012	65,77,745	4.3	94,487	21.8
2013	69,67,601	5.9	1,07,671	14
2014	76,79,099	10.2	1,23,320	14.5
2015	80,27,133	4.5	1,35,193	2.6
Total	**6,13,15,465**		**7,91,530**	
Average		**7.58**		**14.51**
Growth Rate	**80.50**		**246.43**	

Source: WTTC

Total Foreign Tourist Arrivals in India is in last decade is 6,13,15,465 with an total Foreign Exchange Earnings of Rs. 1,35,193 Cr. The Growth rate in Foreign Tourist Arrivals in India in last decade is 80.50 %. A general trend of growth is seen with an exception in year 2008-09, where there is a decrease of 2.2%. The growth rate in Foreign Exchange Earnings in last ten years is 246.43% which shows the increasing contribution of Travel & Tourism sector in the Foreign Exchange earnings. The maximum percentage increase over previous year was found in 2011-12, which is 21.8%.

TABLE 4: PERFORMANCE OF TOURISM SECTOR IN INDIA AND WORLD

Year	Contribution of Travel & Tourism to GDP		Contribution of Travel & Tourism to Employment	
	Indian (INR bn)	World(US$bn)	Indian (INR bn)	World(US$bn)
2010	6125.7	5876	33931	251380
2011	6361.7	6214	34854	258022
2012	6776.3	6462	35255	265110
2013	7124.6	6717	35736	271474
2014	7642.5	6956	36895	276340
Average	**6806.16**	**6445**	**35334.2**	**264465.2**
S.D.	**604.63**	**422.05**	**1095.83**	**10041.01**
Growth Rate	**24.76**	**18.38**	**8.74**	**9.93**

Source: WTTC

After the performance review of Tourism Sector in India & World in the last 5 Years from 2010-2014, it was found that the contribution of Travel & Tourism sector in India to GDP is average 6806.16 INR bn with an standard deviation of 604.63bn but on world scale the travel & Tourism average contribution to GDP is 6445

US$bn average for same time period. The Growth rate in the Contribution of Travel & Tourism sector in India to GDP is 24.76% which is way ahead of the Contribution of Travel & Tourism sector in world which is 18.38 %, which shows India as a fast growing market as compared to world.

The average Contribution of Travel & Tourism sector in India to Employment for the last 5 years from 2010-14 is 35,334.2 INR bn which is 2, 64,465.2 US$bn in the case of world average in the same period. The Growth rate in the contribution of Travel & Tourism sector in India employment is 8.74% which is slightly less to the world growth rate in employment which is 9.93%. It shows slightly sluggish speed in comparison to Travel & Tourism contribution at world level.

TABLE 5: GROWTH RATE OF TRAVEL & TOURISM: INDIA Vs. WORLD

Year	Growth % of Travel & Tourism in GDP		Growth % of Travel & Tourism in Employment	
	Indian	World	Indian	World
2010	4.5	1.3	-2.1	-0.9
2011	3.9	5.8	2.7	2.6
2012	6.5	4	1.2	2.7
2013	5.1	3.9	1.4	2.4
2014	7.3	3.6	2.7	1.8
Average	**5.46**	**3.72**	**1.18**	**1.72**

Source: **WTTC**

On an average the average growth percentage of Travel & Tourism sector in India's GDP is 5.46 % which is 3.72% in case of Travel & Tourism sector percentage growth in GDP at world scale. It clearly depicts that on an average Indian Tourism Growth percentage is 5.46 comparatively 1.76 more than world level which is 3.72%.

The average growth percentage of Travel & Tourism sector in India's Employment is 1.18 % which is 1.72% in case of Travel & Tourism sector percentage growth in employment at world scale. It clearly depicts that on an average Indian Tourism Growth percentage is 1.18 comparatively 0.54 less than world levels which is 1.72%.

WAY AHEAD

Tourism is one of the key sectors of the Indian economy leading the international trade in services and representing the leading income generator for many regions. Tourism industry in India is growing at a fast rate and it has vast potential for generating employment and earning large amount of foreign exchange as the study has revealed. Tourism in India should be developed in such a way that it can accommodate and entertain visitors in such a manner that they count India as a preferred destination for all kinds of Tourism activities. The specialized services, demographic dividend and reasonably low priced workforce add up to make Travel & Tourism sector as a cash cow for India. The major part is being played by visitor's experience and in this we need to drive value through outstanding visitor's experience. To achieve all, current Tourism Policy launches few flagship programmes regarding Human Resource which leads to total satisfaction in Service providers and service takers and generates competitive advantage for India as a most sought out tourism destination.

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DIGITISATION IN INDIA A ROAD AHEAD

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ABSTRACT

Digitisation is a system where the financial and non-financial control is exercised with the help of technology. In India this process has taken speed when the government has taken extreme and immediate steps to demonetisation of currency notes of Rs. 500 and Rs. 1000. The population at large was not aware of the use of digital services but demonetisation forced them to switch over to the plastic currency. The paper is the empirical analysis of demonetisation in India and its comparison with Sweeden. It studies the various modes of digitisation, government initiative, problems in implementation etc. The paper concludes that no doubt the digitisation brings transparency in books of accounts but in order to implement it successfully literacy of people, strong cyber laws, and digital transfer of funds to political parties can make this process strong and can help in curbing black money and terrorism.

KEYWORDS
demonetisation, cyber laws, aadhar card, mobile banking, internet.

INTRODUCTION
Demonetisation by government of India in 2016 had a huge effect on the cash transactions. Government demonetised Rs 500 and Rs. 1000 notes which had accounted for 85% of the total value of bank notes in circulations. Its shortage necessitated the government to encourage electronic medium for the payment of different services used and products purchased. The best way to reduce corruption and black money in economy is to move towards electronic transfers of cash from cash transfers which require banking facility where the receiver and the payer are known to the bank and their identity can be well checked. The digital India programme is a flagship programme of the government of India with a vision to transform India to a digitally empowered society and knowledge economy.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
The paper is an empirical analysis of digitisation where comparison is made with the developed nation Sweeden to see the differences in different prospects of the two countries and its pace of digitisation.

THE VARIOUS MODES OF CASHLESS TRANSACTIONS
1. BANKING CARDS
It offers convenience and security to the customers. The example of card payment are debit card, credit card, rupay, visa and master card. It makes the travel easy without holding cash a person can buy items from shops through mail or through internet. It saves time and money to the customers. International cards can be used throughout the world.

2. USSD
It is an unstructured supplementary service data. In order to use this service there is no need to have mobile internet data facility.

3. AEPS
It is aadhaar enabled payment system. In this system by using aadhaar authentication financial transaction are done. A customer is required to enter aadhar number and choose a bank for transaction.

4. UPI
It is unified payments interface which provide multiple bank accounts into a single mobile application.

5. MOBILE WALLETS
It is the digital way of carrying cash. Individuals bank account is required to be linked with the mobile phone.

6. POINT OF SALE
It is place where the sales are made. It can be a mall or market where a customer completes its transactions.

7. INTERNET BANKING
This is the facility given by bank to the account holders to make electronic payment. It is also known as online banking, e-banking or virtual banking.

8. MOBILE BANKING
Through mobile phone also money transfer takes place. The holder of mobile phone is required to download the app provided by the bank.

9. MICRO ATMs
ATMs are used to withdraw or deposit the money. A holder of debit card need not to go to bank for withdrawal rather he can use the services of ATM. A holder of ATM card is not required to carry cash all the time he can buy things by making payment through card.

10. RUPAY
The national payment corporation of India has launched Rupay under the Jan Dhan scheme. It provides the account holder a debit card with Rs. 1,00,000 accidental insurance. Since majority of poor people have Jan Dhan account so it covers the low income group of the society. This is an attempt to include poor people in the cashless economy.

11. NATIONAL AUTOMATED CLEARING HOUSE
It is a web based solution for making bulk transactions towards distribution of subsidies, dividends, internet, salary, pension etc. and also for bulk transaction towards collection of payments pertaining to telephone, electricity, water etc.

12. NATIONAL ELECTRONIC FUND TRANSFER
It is a nationwide payment system facilitating one to one fund transfer. Under this scheme individual, firms and corporate can electronically transfer funds from any branch in the country participating in the scheme.

13. IMMEDIATE PAYMENT SERVICE
It offers an instant twenty four hour interbank electronic fund transfer service through mobile, ATMs and internet.

REASONS TO BE CASHLESS
India is a developing country and majority of population lives in villages. Major hurdle in the development of India is terrorism, corruption, black money, poverty and illiteracy. In order to check terrorism and black money it has become important to for government to ban use of those currencies which were in circulation and that too in majority. People of India had shortage of currency in circulation for that particular period of time. That necessitated the use of cashlessness in society. In order to control most populateD country like India only digitisation can handle the problems. It can be seen from the other advanced and developed

nations where digitisation is fully implemented control has become easier and chances of error have reduced. People start behaving in disciplined and organised way.

CHART SHOWING DIGITISATION IN INDIA

Type	%age
1. Financial Institution a/c	52.8%
2. Has debit card	22.1%
3. ATM the main mode of withdrawal	33.1%
4. Used a debit card to make payment	10.7%
5. Used a credit card to make payment	3.4%
6. Used the internet to pay bill or make purchases	1.2%

(This data is of 2014 from www.worldbank.org)

INDIA Vs. SWEEDEN

Among top five cashless economies in the world Sweeden is one. It is the first country to promise to go 100% cashless by 2020. The citizens over there used banks, buses, streets vendors etc. through plastic money. The difference in India and Sweeden is Sweeden has population at 9.85 million and literacy rate is 100% whereas India has population of 1260 million and literacy rate is 75%. Per capita income is 435% of the world's average in Sweeden but it is 14% in India. In Sweeden 85.5% population lives in urban area and in India 32% lives in urban area. Such wide difference in two countries also brings gap in the process of digitisation in India.

CHALLENGES IN IMPLEMENTATION OF DEMONETISATION IN INDIA

Majority of people in India lives in villages and they are illiterate. That portion of population is needed to be encouraged to be literate. It is equally important to frame cyber laws. Availability of ATMs in rural areas, facility of internet and smart phones are required to give speed to digitisation. When we talk of democratic government a huge black money is used in funding political parties it is equally important to bring transparency in funding these parties. When the transaction are done in digital way no doubt the book keeping will be easy, the receiver and payer can be identified and the amount cannot be manipulated. Following are the challenges of digitisation.

1. More cash transaction.
2. Limited availability of point of sale.
3. Less ATM in rural areas.
4. Poor internet services.
5. Illiteracy and poverty.
6. No cyber laws.

RECENT POLICY MEASURES FOR PROMOTING DIGITISATION

1. The central government PSUs will give discount of 0.75% of the sale price to consumers on purchase of petroleum/diesel if payment is through digital mode.
2. The central government through NABARD will extent financial support to eligible banks for deployment of 2 point of sale devices each in one lakh villages with population of less than 1000.
3. The central government through NABARD will also support rural regional banks and co-operative banks to issue Rupay kissan cards to 4.32 crore kisan credit card holders to enable them to make digital transactions at Point of Sale machine/micro ATMs.
4. If payment is through digital mode railways will provide discount up to 0.5% to customers from January1, 2017.
5. All railways passengers buying online ticket shall be given free accidental cover of up to Rs. Ten lakh.
6. Public sector insurance companies will provide incentives by way of discount or credit up to 10% of premium in general insurance policy and 8% in new life policies of Life Insurance Corporation sold through the customer portal in case payment is made through digital means.
7. For the payment of toll at toll plaza on national highways using radio frequency identification technology (RIFD) card/fast tags a discount of 10% will be available to users.

CONCLUSION

Demonetisation has pushed the citizens of the country towards digitisation as the currency in circulation decreases. Through digitisation payment can be made without holding cash. With digitisation the transparency will increase as the receiver and giver are traceable. This will help in maintaining books of accounts where the chances of fraud and errors will be reduced. This automatically will help in keeping check on corruption. But just going for digitisation is not sufficient rather proper steps must be taken to implement digitisation such as educating people, opening banks and ATMs in rural areas and also framing cyber laws which can give security of digital transactions. Attachment of all the details of an individual to aadhar card is also not a rational idea as if the information of an individual is hacked it can be misused same is the case of fund transfer on gun point or threat for purchases reduces the security of the individual's money.

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TQM INFLUENCE ON QUALITY PERFORMANCE AT WORKING IRON AND STEEL FIRMS OF KARNATAKA

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ABSTRACT

Steel production is considered as the forefront indicator of the economy in the contemporary world. India has been fetching an impressive share in the steel market. However, techno-economic efficiency has been somewhere pro-castigating competitive advantage of Indian iron and steel sector over competitors like China. As proved by Japanese, the left option for enhancing competitive advantage is quality management through Total Quality Management. The present study focussed on extent of TQM practices and their impact on quality performance at iron and steel firms in Karnataka region. The general objective of this research is to portray the picture of TQM at Iron and steel firms of India and also to address the quality issues of the firms at the backward region like Hyderabad-Karnataka. In this regard, study emphasizes relationship between widely used TQM practices and quality performance indicators using correlation and regression analysis.

KEYWORDS
TQM, TQM practices, steel, iron and steel industry, quality performance, quality performance indicators.

INTRODUCTION
Steel besides alloy is referred as the backbone of human civilization, as it has been serving mankind for its social, cultural, political and economic needs. At modern times, it is considered to be crucial for the development of any economy. Steel is shining up to the extent that any country's socio-economic development and standard of living is also determined by its per-capita consumption. According to World Steel Association, the global steel demand is estimated to realize 3000 million tons in 2025. The past growth in production and consumption of steel has largely been at the cornerstone of the heightened economic activity in the emerging economies, especially China, whose demand remains a pivotal factor driving the global steel industry.

The steel industry in India has also carved a rapid rise in production over the past few years through capacity enhancement. This resulted India becoming the third largest producer of crude steel (after China and Japan) and the largest producer of sponge iron in the world. However, India needs to further concentrate and improve its share in the major import markets, there are import markets where India has export competitiveness, but the exports are at relatively at lower levels. These markets are the potential growth drivers for iron and steel exports of India, which need to be strategically targeted.

However, the preceding facts in terms of techno economic efficiency of operations reveal that our steel making units are nowhere near their global competitors. In order to improve the sectoral performance and competitiveness there is an urgent need to address its basic structural and operational constraints irrespective of equity size and nature of operations. Therefore, in the epoch of buyer's market, irrespective of nature of organizations opened themselves to understand, learn and formulate a road map for quality is the only strategy left behind. This paved the way for the surge of quality and become the integral part of blood stream of the enterprises. The manifold competition of quality has pulled firms to search nitty-gritty to stay competitive. Accordingly, many enterprises made an attempt to adopt and implement a set of management practices that help them to improve the efficiency of organizational operations. One of the popular and effective management practices is TQM.

Though a lot of research work has been carried out in the field of ISO and TQM, it gives still an obscured picture of Indian iron and steel firms. This holds true too in case of regional industrial sector of Hyderabad- Karnataka region, where sponge iron firms attrition rate is high. If no effort is made to assist the said firms especially at the Hyderabad- Karnataka region, attrition rate overtime can increase the casualties in the current business environment and make the region still weaker. Hence it is decided to carry out a detailed research with the help of a survey of iron and steel firms with a view to assess as to how are they managing the issue of Quality? And help firms to implement and practice TQM successfully and allow them to reap the benefits always been embraced by developed economies. At the outset, steel industry of Hyderabad- Karnataka region is having more than 30 registered units is competent with other developed regions of the country and have the capability to take away the tagline of backward region with the help of competitive advantage supplemented by implementing TQM in their systems of practice. Hence, the research was incepted to address these problems.

NEED AND IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY
After all, the issue in Indian steel industry is not the shortage of resources, rich scientific and technical manpower but quenching the thirst of assistance and nourishment of firms through understanding and implementing TQM and allowing them gain the sustainable competitive advantage as that of the developed economies. The following two needs of the study to be accomplished are presented.
a. Upgrade the total quality aspect of iron and steel firms in terms of organizational effectiveness so as to improve the economy by meeting the growing demands of domestic and global markets, domestic consumption and exports.
b. Provide quality impetus of quality to the iron and steel firms of the economically backward regions like the Hyderabad- Karnataka region so as to debug the economy oriented regional imbalance.
c. Contribute to the knowledge of TQM effectiveness.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
The study makes an attempt to know the extent of TQM implementation in iron and steel firms. Accordingly, this study is embodied as 'Examination of TQM influence on quality performance at Working Iron and Steel Firms of Hyderabad-Karnataka Region'

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
1. To perceive TQM perspective of Indian Iron and steel industry.
2. To examine TQM influence on quality performance at working iron and steel firms in the select districts of Hyderabad-Karnataka region.

HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY
H0: There is no significant impact of TQM practices on Quality Performance.
H1: There is a significant impact of TQM Practices on Quality Performance.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY
The scope of the study encompassed working steel industry, iron and steel firms, Total Quality Management, Implementation, Organizational Effectiveness, Respondents of all the twenty one working firms (out of 38 firms registered, 17 were locked out) in Ballari and Koppal districts of Hyderabad- Karnataka region. It also included the environment and ecosystem of steel industry in general and iron and steel firms in particular. Going further the causal relationship between TQM

implementation and quality performance were measured by using established models and theories apart from scaling techniques. Specifically the geographical region of the study was confined to Ballari and Koppal districts of Hyderabad- Karnataka region, as iron and steel firms are located in these two districts only.

METHODOLOGY

1. TYPE OF RESEARCH
The proposed study adopted descriptive study, survey and cause and effect study.

2. SAMPLING
Universe: i. Working iron and steel firms in Ballari and Koppal districts
Sample units:
i. Executives.
ii. Non executives.

COMPOSITION OF SAMPLES

Sl. No.	Categories of Respondents	Size	Sampling Technique
1.	Working iron and steel firms in Ballari and Koppal districts of Hyderabad Karnataka- region	21 firms	Purposive sampling
2.	Top Management and Executives. (05 respondents from each firm)	105	Judgemental Sampling
4.	Non- Executives (10 respondents from each firm)	210	Stratified Random sampling

3. DATA COLLECTION

a. Secondary Data.
The secondary data for the study included books, articles, reports, journals, magazines, news papers, published and unpublished thesis, e-resources on the topic of the study.

b. Primary Data.
The primary data was collected on the TQM implementation in the working iron and steel firms of Ballari and Koppal districts of Hyderabad Karnataka region under the study. It used the research instruments of questionnaire, schedule and personal interviewing of the respondents. E mail survey was also resorted to.

4. PLAN OF ANALYSIS
The collected data was analyzed with the help of statistical tools and techniques such as averages, percentages, dispersion, correlation, multiple regressions, factor analysis, cluster analysis, Cronbach alfa and the like. Wherever necessary, tables, charts, graphs, diagrams and figures were used. SPSS and AAR software were also used for statistical analysis.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
a. The validity and reliability assessment and analysis performed are based on 30 selected companies only.
b. For measuring TQM examination time tested and universally acceptable measurement tools are very rare. Therefore the measurement results under the study are only approximate are not accurate.
c. At times "what is" (fact) is equated with "what should be" (value)

LITERATURE SURVEY
Zhihai Zhang (1993) in his research work investigated the effects of TQM implementation on overall business performance in Chinese manufacturing firms and obtained a TQM implementation model for Chinese manufacturing firms. The study was carried out by
- Developing TQM implementation constructs and TQM practices;
- Developing overall business performance constructs;
- Designing evaluation models, to measure the extent of TQM implementation, TQM practices and impact of TQM implementation on overall business performance.

The study found out that TQM implementation has positive effects on overall business performance and not necessarily all TQM elements to be present to ensure the success of the TQM programs and overall business performance

Shivraj kumar (2014) in his research work tried to determine the extent to which TQM and organizational effectiveness are correlated to each other and expounded how TQM impacts various phases of business planning. The study considered very general constructs of TQM implementation and organizational effectiveness in its way.TQM constructs encompass commitment, culture, continuous improvement, co-operation, customer focus and control. As per their nature, some do not confirm the characteristics of construct

Yogesh A Chauhan (2013) in his research work gave a detailed picture of quality management issue of manufacturing SMEs in terms of TQM apart from ISO 9000 and other off –record practices. It emphasized the exploration, development and ranking of constructs in TQM, benefits and difficulties and help the SMEs to grow in terms of their business, working system, employee satisfaction, customer satisfaction etc.

Darshana S Shiroya (2015) surveyed on "TQM practices and performance in ISO certified manufacturing facilities". The researcher was curious in exploring, developing and examining TQM practices/ critical factors and their impact on quality, business and organizational performances. Extensive literature was reviewed in exploring and developing the plausible 16 elements of 10 TQM practices.

Saraph et al. (1989) conducted a study on "A Instrument for Measuring the Critical Factors of Quality Management". They explored, examined and developed eight CSFs of quality management referring to twenty two manufacturing and service organizations in the USA.

Shekoufeh Nekoueizadeh et al. (2013) conducted a research on 'the impact of TQM on organizational performance of telecommunication industry in Iran'. The principal aim was to determine the correlation between TQM practices and the organizational, quality and innovation performances. Researchers explored, examined and developed TQM practices and variables of package of performances.

Flynn et al. (1994) conducted a research on "A framework for quality management research and an associated measurement instrument". They explored and developed six CSFs of TQM which encompasses of quality information system, process management, product design, workforce management, supplier involvement and customer involvement. They expounded that top management support creates a congenial environment for quality activities to surge.

Ali Bakhit Jaafreh. (2012) in his research work 'the effect of quality management practices on organizational performance on Jordan banking sector' set an aim to examine the extent to which quality management practices and organizational performance are correlated and to determine the impact of the practices on organizational performance.

Powell (1995) made a study on "Total quality management as competitive advantage: A review and empirical study". He revealed that the successful implementation of TQM is dependent on certain tactics, behaviour, features and TQM tools and techniques like top management commitment, effective communications, employee involvement, training in quality, flexibility in manufacturing, process management, benchmarking and performance measurements for realizing competitive advantage.

S D Kalpande et al. (2013) conducted a survey on 'Business performance of SMEs in Vidharabha and Khandesh region of India: A TQM implementation'. Researchers aimed at identifying importance of factors and sub-factors for successful implementation of TQM in SMEs. They explored and examined TQM components and factors influencing TQM implementation from the existing literature followed by using Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) for prioritization and operationalization.

Fuzi Abusa (2011) conducted a study on 'TQM implementation and its impact on organizational performance: a case study of Libya'. He examined the correlation among TQM elements, TQM and organizational performance, Size & ISO 9000 and TQM implementation. The result showed that none of the six TQM elements have correlated with all organizational performance indicators, except Supplier quality management.

Antony Jiju, et al. (2002) conducted a research study on "Critical success factors of TQM implementation in Hong Kong industries".This is an empirical study on the identification of the critical success factors (CSFs) of TQM implementation in Hong Kong industries. Through a thorough and detailed analysis of the literature, 11 success factors with 72 elements were identified to develop a questionnaire.

Yogesh A Chauhan et al (2014) surveyed 'Perceptions of SMEs towards the key elements of TQM'. They focussed on examining and exploring the level of awareness and the importance SMEs have over key elements of TQM.

Bayazit (2003) conducted a study on "Total quality management practices in Turkish manufacturing organizations". He expouded that upper management support, employee involvement and commitment, customer focus, quality education and training, teamwork and use of statistical techniques are the most critical factors for the successful TQM implementation in Turkish manufacturing organizations.

A Al Nofal et al (2013) conducted a study on 'Critical factors of TQM: an update on the literature' with an objective to present the most important factors of TQM implementation often emphasized by researchers, supported by the discourses of quality gurus. A wide range of comprehensive elements of TQM have listed.

Z. Irani, et al. (2004) surveyed on "Total Quality Management and Corporate Culture: constructs of organizational excellence". In this effort, the researchers discuss the concept of corporate culture, place this social construct within the arena of TQM and highlight the relationships that exist among culture quality and competitiveness. T

Faisal Talib et al (2012) conducted a research on 'Pareto Analysis of TQM factors critical to success for service industries'. They made an attempt to sort out critical success factors of TQM according to frequencies of their occurrences by applying Pareto analysis tool and list out vital few critical success factors of TQM.

Phan Chi Anh & Yoshiki Matsui (2006) made a research on "An empirical analysis of Quality management practices in Japanese Manufacturing Companies". The aim was to investigate the utilization of quality management practices and its impact on quality performance and competitive performance.

Kanagi Kanapathy (2013) surveyed on 'Critical factors of quality management used in research questionnaires: a review of literature'. He opined that quality expounders and gurus have used different combinations of critical factors or constructs of TQM to design questionnaires and to measure quality management practices in different parts of the world.

RESULTS

1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON TQM PRACTICES

The following table shows the distribution of the responses against the list of TQM practices.

TABLE 1: SHOWING FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES AGAINST THE LIST OF TQM PRACTICES

ID	TQM Practices	Frequency (Yes)	Percentage	Frequency (No)	Percentage
A	Top Management Commitment	311	98.7	4	1.3
B	Customer Focus	299	94.9	16	5.1
C	Employee Empowerment/involvement	301	95.6	14	4.4
D	Supplier Partnership	247	78.4	68	21.6
E	Continuous improvement	269	85.4	46	14.6
F	Quality Management	302	95.1	13	4.1
G	Recognition and Reward	266	84.4	49	15.6
H	Education and Training	262	83.2	53	16.8
I	Process Management	279	88.6	36	11.4

CHART 1: SHOWING FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES AGAINST THE LIST OF TQM PRACTICES

	TMC	CF	EE	SP	CI	QM	RR	ET	PM
Yes	98.7	94.9	95.6	78.4	85.4	95.1	84.4	83.2	88.6
No	1.3	5.1	4.4	21.6	14.6	4.1	15.6	16.8	11.4
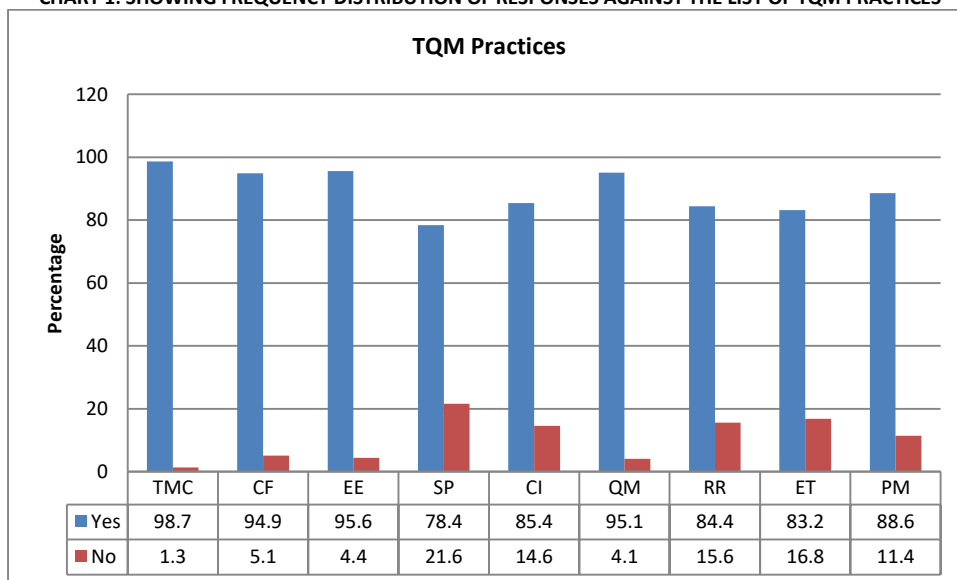
Table 1 illustrates the perception of respondents against list of TQM practices. On an average of approximately 90% of the respondents agreed that all the listed practices belonged to TQM. Among the practices, Top Management Commitment (TMC) led the response with 98.7% followed by Employee Empowerment (EE) and Quality Control (QM) with 95.6% and 95.1% respectively. The least response was given to Supplier Partnership (SP) with 78.4% followed by Education and Training (ET) and Recognition and Reward (RR) with 83.2% and 84.4% respectively. The remaining practices Customer Focus (CF), Process Management (PM) and Continuous Improvement (CI) placed in between with 94.9%, 88.6% and 85.4% respectively. This indicates most of the respondents are aware of TQM practices and have the ability to practically respond to the technicalities of TQM.

2. MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF TQM PRACTICES

TABLE 2

Variables	Maximum	Minimum	Mean	Standard Deviation
TQM Practices				
Top Management Commitment	5.00	3.14	4.24	0.35
Customer Focus	5.00	3.20	4.14	0.38
Employee Empowerment	5.00	2.25	4.07	0.42
Supplier Partnership	5.00	2.86	4.09	0.42
Continuous Improvement	5.00	3.00	4.18	0.40
Quality Control	5.00	3.00	4.34	0.52
Recognition and Reward	5.00	2.33	4.13	0.41
Education and Training	5.00	2.75	4.16	0.43
Process Management	5.00	2.71	4.08	0.36
TQM Practices (overall)	**5.00**	**3.33**	**4.14**	**0.31**

3. CORRELATION BETWEEN TQM PRACTICES AND QUALITY PERFORMANCE MEASURES

TABLE 3: CORRELATION BETWEEN TQM PRACTICES AND QUALITY PERFORMANCE MEASURES

TQM Practices (Independent Variables)	Quality Performance Measures					
	QP1	QP2	QP3	QP4	QP5	QP6
TMC	0.216**	0.247**	0.382**	0.157**	0.210**	0.195**
CF	0.407**	0.410**	0.398**	0.253**	0.195**	0.332**
EE	0.565**	0.358**	0.456**	0.464**	0.354**	0.576**
SP	0.356**	0.314**	0.341**	0.244**	0.319**	0.300**
CI	0.498**	0.335**	0.382**	0.241**	0.097	0.333**
QC	0.262**	0.285**	0.230**	0.129*	0.92	0.107
RR	0.528**	0.384**	0.413**	0.432**	0.262**	0.430**
ET	0.329**	0.211**	0.286**	0.233**	0.179**	0.264**
PM	0.307**	0.160**	0.176**	0.236**	0.253**	0.209**
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).						

(Qp1-Defect rate, QP2-Rework, QP3-Cost per product, QP4-Customer complaints, QP5- Cycle time and QP6-Delivery time)
Table 3 expounds that QP1, QP2, QP3 and QP4 led the preceding matrix by getting correlated with all the nine TQM practices followed by QP6 and QP5 with eight and seven TQM practices respectively. The Correlation matrix shows that highest correlation between variables is EE and QP1 with r=0.576. The second highest correlation is between EE and QP1 with r= 0.565. The third highest correlation is between RR and QP1 (r= 0.528). Among all independent variables TMC, CF, EE, SP, CI, ET and PM are correlated with all the six dependent variables. QC got correlated with QP1, QP2, QP3 and QP4 only.

4. REGRESSION ANALYSIS

To test the hypothesis first researcher has tested over all regression model by taking all the dependent variables (i.e. Defect rate, Rework, Cost per product, Customer complaints, Cycle time and Delivery time) and check that whether they are individually affected by conducting multiple regression analysis. The results are discussed below:

4.1 REGRESSION MODEL

H10: There is no significant effect of TQM practices on quality performance.

TABLE 4: SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TQM PRACTICES AND ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS IN TERMS OF QUALITY PERFORMANCE MEASURES

TQM Practices (Independent Variables)	Quality Performance Measures			
	B	Std. Error	B	t
Constant	-1.316	0.518		-2.541
Top Management Commitment (TMC)				
Customer Focus (CF)				
Employee Empowerment (EE)	1.086	0.147	0.564	7.372*
Supplier Partnership (SP)				
Continuous Improvement (CI)				
Quality Control (QC)				
Recognition and Reward (RR)	0.582	0.149	0.290	3.910*
Education and Training (ET)				
Process Management (PM)	-0.362	0.138	-0.160	-2.623**
R	0.639			
R2	0.408			
F	23.331			
Sign. (p value)	0.000			

Note: Significance: * p<.001; ** p <.01; *** p<.05.

Table 4 shows that quality performance is explained by the regression model as evident from R-square value of 0.408. The model indicates that 40.8% of the variations in quality performance can be explained using TQM practices. The p-value is less than 0.05; it can be argued that the model is valid for using linear regression. Since p-value is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis has been rejected and there exists the relationship between quality performance and TQM practices. The regression coefficient expounds that the TQM practices are having capacity to predict quality performance and the extent of the contribution power. Employee Empowerment, Recognition and Reward and Process Management are statistically significant with p-value less than 0.05. So at 5% significance level of significance null hypothesis is rejected which shows that there is a relationship between these three factors and quality performance and alternative hypothesis is accepted which is as under.

H1: There is statistically significant impact of TQM practices on quality performance measures.

FINDINGS WITNESSED BETWEEN TQM PRACTICES AND QUALITY PERFORMANCE

In this study Quality performance improvement is measured by,

a. Decrement in defect rates
b. Decrement in rework
c. Decrement in cost per unit
d. Decrement in customer complaint
e. Decrement in cycle time and
f. Decrement in delivery time

Out of the nine TQM practices empirically identified in the study, the TQM practices which have influenced on quality performance are varied as discussed below:

TABLE 7: REGRESSION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN SIGNIFICANT TQM PRACTICES AND QUALITY PERFORMANCE

ID	Organizational Effectiveness Indicators	Regression coefficient (R Square)	Variance in%	Significant TQM Practices
QP	Quality Performance	0.408	40.8	EE, RR
QP1	Defects rate	0.4040	40.4	TMC, EE
QP2	Rework	0.219	21.9	CF
QP3	Cost per product	0.289	28.9	EE, PM
QP4	Customer complaints	0.297	29.7	EE, RR
QP5	Cycle time	0.195	19.5	EE, CI
QP6	Delivery time	0.400	40.0	EE, PM

1. **TQM practice, Employee Empowerment has an effect on quality performance in terms of:**
a. Decrement in defects rate (QP1)
b. Decrement in cost per unit (QP3)
c. Decrement in cost per product (QP4)
d. Decrement in cycle time (QP5)
e. Decrement in delivery time (QP6)
2. **TQM practice Recognition and Reward has an effect on quality performance in terms of:**
a. Decrement in defects rate (QP1)
b. Decrement in rework (QP2)
c. Decrement in cost per unit (QP3)
d. Decrement in cost per product (QP4)
e. Decrement in delivery time (QP6)
3. **TQM practice Supplier Partnership has an effect on quality performance in terms of:**
a. Decrement in cost per product (QP4)
b. Decrement in cycle time (QP5)
c. Decrement in delivery time (QP6)
4. **TQM practice Continuous improvement has an effect on quality performance in terms of:**
a. Decrement in defects rate (QP1)
b. Decrement in cost per product (QP4)
c. Decrement in cycle time (QP5)
5. **TQM practice Process Management has an effect on quality performance in terms of:**
a. Decrement in rework (QP2)
b. Decrement in cost per unit (QP3)
c. Decrement in delivery time (QP6)
6. **TQM practice Top Management Commitment has an effect on quality performance in terms of:**
a. Decrement in defects rate (QP1)
b. Decrement in cost per unit (QP3)
7. **TQM practice Customer Focus has an effect on quality performance in terms of:**
a. Decrement in rework (QP2)
8. **TQM practices Quality control and Education and Training have no an effect on quality performance.**

Thus, these findings show that out of nine TQM practices seven play role in improving quality performance of the organization. They are:

1. Employee Empowerment (EE),
2. Recognition and Reward (RR),
3. Supplier Partnership (SP),
4. Continuous Improvement (CI),
5. Process Management (PM),
6. Top Management Commitment (TMC), and
7. Customer focus (CF),

The overall regression model showing relationship of TQM practices and quality performance (Table 6.) shows that out of the above seven, TQM practices EE, RR and PM are significant. SP, CI, TMC and CF are not statistically significant. They explain 40.8% variance (F= 23.331, t= 2.541 p<.001).

CONCLUSION

TQM is not confined to production process and production &quality departments only; instead it is beyond all these. The employees of Indian iron and steel industry are aware of the holistic and strategic nature of TQM. Most of firms of the industry follow, quality management practices; but with different nature. Among the contemporary TQM practices, Top management commitment and Employee empowerment are popular ones in the industry; but the firms have no idea of the impact of practices supplier partnership in quality management. Among the contemporary TQM tools and techniques, the firms still are fond of traditional tools such as cause and effect diagram, quality circles; but the modern and advanced techniques such as quality function deployment, failure mode effect analysis are remote in their knowledge base. The TQM practices namely Employee empowerment and Recognition and reward jointly helps to improvise organizational effectiveness in terms of quality performance by reduced defects rate and rework, thereby reduced cycle time and improved delivery time and ultimately reduced cost per product and customer complaints. The study reveals that there is need for focusing over empowering and rewarding the employees of the iron and steel firms along with support in process management, which are acting as the nerves of quality management as per the study.

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A STUDY ON CONTRIBUTION OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY TO THE ECONOMIC GROWTH OF KERALA

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ABSTRACT

Tourism and hospitality has been an effective instrument for generating employment, earning revenue and foreign exchange, enhancing environment, preserving culture and tradition. It can ensure an overall development in a sustainable manner. Economic diversification and technological improvement have created a conducive environment for tourism development in the present age of globalization. Tourism Industry Contributes Significantly to National GDP, it is a Major Contributor of SDGP of Kerala. Total tourism revenue of Kerala (both direct and indirect) during 2015 was Rs 26,689 crore, showing a rise of 7.25 per cent over last year. S This shows an increasing trend over the past few years. And the aim of the study is to analyse the contribution of tourism and hospitality industry to Kerala's economic growth. Here, the economic growth is measured in terms of employment generation and impact on GDP. And also examine the various marketing initiatives in Kerala tourism and hospitality industry to attract tourists and impact of these initiatives to economic growth. Therefore, the careful management of the sector is essential in order to reap in the maximum benefits with the minimum negative impact and to make it more environmentally and socially sustainable.

KEYWORDS

GDP, tourism and hospitality, economic growth, initiatives.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is an economic and industrial activity in which many individuals, firms, corporations, organisations and associations are engaged and are directly concerned with many others. It is economically important as it provides a source of income, provides employment, brings infrastructural improvements and may help regional development. The present-day state of Kerala was created in 1956 from Travancore, Kochi and Malabar. Malabar was formerly part of Madras state. Kerala is one of the most progressive, literate and highly educated states of India. Unlike in other part of the country, in Kerala, tourism is not a seasonal activity since the state has some event or the other which is being celebrated in regular intervals that covers almost eight to nine months in a year. Many religious functions are being celebrated in a big way to attract overseas and inland tourists. In addition to these, many beautiful hill stations, world famous beaches, backwaters and nature destinations do attract thousands of tourists into the state every year. In the recent past, tourism has emerged as Kerala's core competency sector. The private sector will be encouraged to participate only if the financial assistance and basic amenities such as quality access, water, power, communication and waste management facilities are provided at places where the tourism infrastructure is to be provided. The support of the Central and State government should be in the form of a facilitator by providing investor friendly atmosphere, policies and initiatives.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the regional context of Kerala, a few scholars have attempted to discuss some of the pertinent issues of tourism. As an attempt on the economic aspects of tourism in the State, the study conducted by **Joseph (1990)** is worth mentioning. Through a primary survey of foreign tourism to Kerala, he reveals the economic background and the pattern of preferences of the tourist for different types of tourism attractions. **Sudhir (1993)** reveals that banks and travel attractiveness of the agencies are the facilities that rank the highest regarding sufficiently in the state and facilities which are considered relatively more important to the tourists, namely accommodation and transport area ranked second and third respectively. **Kamalakshi (1996)** argues that the growth of the hotel industry in any place is an index of the economic development of that region, especially industrial development in terms of tourist industry. **Kumar (1998)** observed that the psychological factors have influenced their spending pattern during their tourist map. **Dileep (2004)** conducted a study on the current tourism scenario at Kovalam in view of its prominent position among the best beaches with tourism activities in India. **Biju (2004)** examined the potential of eco-tourism in Kerala. **Sreekumar & Parayil (2002)** analyzed the role of tourism as a development model in Kerala and has pointed out the lack of economic, cultural and social benefit sharing to the local population. However, on the other side some of the tourism operations like house boat operations has been confirmed by **Kokkranikal & Morrison (2002)** as an entrepreneurship involving much of local participation. **Ravindran and Vinodan (2009)** in a study seek to identify the role of micro finance in the changing tourism development scenario as it is considered as one of the viable option for inclusive growth. The investigation is to unravel tourism options in micro finance not only to the destination facilitation but travel enhancement among the low-income people through an exploratory study on tourism sector by citing the case studies from Kerala. Even though both models of destination facilitation and travel enhancement found to be viable, destination facilitation model is more conducive to employment generation, gender development and inclusive growth.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The state government, either directly or indirectly has to take further initiatives to encourage private investment in providing tourism infrastructure at all potential tourist destinations.

OBJECTIVES

1. To analyse the contribution of tourism and hospitality industry to Kerala's economic growth
2. To examine the various marketing initiatives in Kerala tourism and hospitality industry to attract tourists and impact of these initiatives to economic growth.

NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Kerala is today the most acclaimed tourist destination in India with its distinctive 'God's Own Country' branding. Kerala is increasingly rated as one of the must-see destinations, not only by the discerning foreign tourists, but also by the domestic tourists. In Kerala, where unemployment among the educated youth is a burning problem, tourism is considered to be a major employment generating industry. Tourism would not be a focus of economic development strategy based on its job creation potential, turnover for local companies and millions of capital investments, but it also has a deep impact on the social and cultural life of any country or city

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study is based on the secondary data which has been collected through websites, newspapers, magazines, govt reports, books, research papers etc.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Kerala has projected that tourism sector would contribute almost 20 per cent to the Gross State Domestic Product (GSDP) in the next five years. Currently, tourism accounts for roughly 12 per cent of the GSDP, Kerala Tourism Deputy Director Nandakumar K P told Business Standard here. He said that the tourism and Information Technology (IT) sectors were the two major services sectors making maximum contribution to the state economy. About five years back, tourism sector contribution to the Kerala economy was just 6-7 percent; he said that adding the state government had been taking several measures to boost tourism. "The state has been acting as a catalyst in creating and expanding the vital infrastructure for tourism such as roads, power, water etc. The state provides subsidy and various other assistances, apart from quicker clearances to proposals from the private sector related to tourism," he informed. Total tourism revenue (both direct and indirect) during 2015 was Rs 26,689 crore, showing a rise of 7.25 per cent over last year. "This year, we are targeting over 10 per cent growth in domestic tourist inflow,"

Over the last few years, Kerala tourism has been proactively holding promotional meets and events at various tier II and III towns in the country, which has paid rich dividends in the form of higher tourist inflow and revenue.

- Foreign Tourist arrival to Kerala during the year 2016 is 10,38,419. It shows an increase of 6.23% over the previous year's figure of 9,77,479
- Domestic Tourist arrival to Kerala during the year 2016 is 1,31,72,535. It shows an increase of 5.67% over the previous year's figure 1,24,65,571.
- Foreign exchange earnings for the year 2016 is Rs. 7749.51 Crores which recorded an increase of 11.51% over the previous year.
- Total Revenue (including direct & indirect) from Tourism during 2016 is Rs. 29658.56 Crores, showing an increase of 11.12% over the last year's figure.

Month wise foreign and domestic arrivals during the year 2016 as shown here:

TABLE 1: MONTH WISE FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC ARRIVALS DURING THE YEAR 2016

Sl no	Month	Foreign	Domestic
1	January	136539	1077231
2	February	141143	1006111
3	March	107037	960467
4	April	78099	1012844
5	May	37994	1206350
6	June	37368	891614
7	July	56666	913886
8	August	81070	1043362
9	September	62599	1129260
10	October	82551	1337191
11	November	96155	1187620
12	December	121198	1406599
	Total	**1038419**	**13172535**

From the table it is clear that the domestic arrivals to Kerala is increasing month by month, except in March and June. But in the case of foreign arrivals shows a fluctuating trend in the previous year. But in last four months it shows an increasing trend.

EARNINGS FROM TOURISM

TABLE 2

Year	Foreign exchange earnings (in crores)	Percentage of increase	Total revenue generated from tourism (in crores)	Percentage of increase
2010	3797.47	33.09	17348.00	31.12
2011	4221.99	11.18	19037.00	9.74
2012	4571.69	8.28	20430.00	7.32
2013	5560.77	21.63	22926.55	12.22
2014	6398.93	15.07	24885.44	8.54
2015	6949.88	8.61	26689.63	7.25
2016	7749.51	11.51	29658.56	11.12

Tourism is the biggest industry in the world from the point of view of turnover. The capital investment in this industry is now even more than oil-industry. Many countries in Europe and Asia now completely depend on the income coming from tourism. Again being labour oriented industry, tourism generates maximum number of employment directly or indirectly.

In India, tourism is a late started industry. After the independence, the Govt. started taking plans to organize and develop the tourism destinations scattered all over the country. Now tourism in India is in such a position which is desirable countries economy. From the civil aviation to hotel industry, everywhere the infrastructural development is remarkable. After the reformation of Indian economy in 1990 with the open policy taken by the then Finance Minister Dr. Manmohan Singh, the Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is now increasing gradually.

The steps taken by Central Govt.:

1. Plans for regional development with the help of tourism where other industries are not in their best.
2. Started one – window policy to boost the direct and as well as indirect investment in tourism.
3. Plans preservation of cultural, heritage and environment at tourist destinations to attract more tourists.
4. Development of infrastructure to meet the present and future needs of tourist.
5. Started different types of luxurious trains like Palace on Wheels, Royal Orient or Deccan Queens.
6. Developing basic infrastructure.
7. Started overseas offices at different countries to promote India as a tourism destination.
8. Proper coordination between the states and central tourism departments been ordered to develop the destinations.
9. Started different packages to attract for those destinations attracting more tourists.
10. Developed different Tourism Circuits like Golden Triangle or Buddhist Circuit to attract more tourists.
11. ITDC is now taking part in different tourism fairs all over the world.
12. Trying to provide best of the services in Air India and in Indian Rail.
13. Building accommodation in Govt. level and encouraging the private companies to invest in accommodation sector by giving them different tax benefits.

Kerala was a relatively unknown state among tourist circles until the early 1960s. The first initiative to popularize Kerala as a tourist destination was undertaken by Travancore's Prince Consort Col. Godavarma Raja started Kerala Tours Limited to popularize key tourist locations in Travancore Kingdom. When Travancore merged with India, Kerala Tours Limited became a private entity under the Travancore royal family. For more than 20 years since Independence, Kerala trend to ignore tourism as a key industry, leaving KTL and other private players to lead the role. In the 1960s, KTL struck gold, by collaborating with Thomas Cook and started popularizing Kovalam in western countries which started the advent of hippie culture in Kovalam Beach. The strong inflow of tourists into Kovalam started Kerala government to consider tourism as a key industry. Though it tried to nationalize Kerala Tours Limited, it soon fell into legal issues. This resulted in the government to think starting a new entity known as Kerala Tourism Development Corporation (KTDC) IN 1966.

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Started as a government department, KTDC became a separate commercial entity by the 1970s. Several premium guest houses of Kerala Government were identified and converted into hotel brands. Lt. Col. G. V. Raja was also the President of Tourism Promotion Council of Kerala. He was the main architect in developing Kovalam as an international tourist spot.

Framework of Kerala Tourism- This framework below is as per the National Tourism policy for Kerala State on which the whole strategy is formulated.

FIG. 1

Source-a report on Kerala's Approach to Tourism Development: A Case Study Ministry of Tourism Government of India and CRISIL

MARKETING COMMUNICATION STRATEGY OF THE KERALA TOURISM IMPLEMENTS

1**. Web Promotions**–Kerala Tourism website receives nearly 1.5 million hits and 2.50 lakhs page views per month. The key contents in the website includes Key Contents of the Website include Ayurveda, Cuisine, Boat Races, "Plan Your Trip", Festival Calendar, Shopping Options, Picture and Video Gallery, Destination Gallery, and Visitor Queries.

2. **MICE Tourism**–It is positioned as the 'Corporate Playground'. This product is highlighted in all road shows and trade meets. The websites through its strategy of trade promotions uses its USP like the backwater and promote foreigners in the pictures to indicate tourism while they are on their business trip.

3**. Separate promotion of Eco Tourism and Business Tourism**

4**. Separate International Print and Website Advertising**–Promoting Beaches and other destinations with a foreign people in the advertising.

5. **Sponsorship of Events** like Co-sponsor of Kovalam Literary Festival, the India International Boat Show, organized by Kerala Tourism jointly with India Tourism, Sponsored VAGA Fest at Kerala

6. **Participation in International Fairs**-Kerala tourism participates in all the major international events related to its identified source markets. Some of the key international fairs the state has participated in the year 2003 were-International Tourism's Bourse (ITB) 2003, Berlin, Arabian Travel Mart (ATM), 2003, Dubai, PATA Travel Mart 2003, Singapore, World Travel Mart (WTM) 2003, London etc.

7. **Overseas Partnership**-Kerala is the first state in India, and indeed the world, to become the 'partner state' to the World Travel and Tourism Council which is a global forum for travel and tourism

8. **Collaboration With PATA and Germany for international Branding** by participating in meets and forums and using the Bilateral Agreement Germany has agreed to development of tourism market in Kerala example development of backwaters, Solid waste management, Human Resources Development in Kerala are some of the initiatives

9. **Certification of Places**-Certifications of tourist resources like 'Gold Star' and 'Silver Star' Certifications for Houseboats, 'Green Palm' Certifications for Eco-friendly Measures, 'Green Leaf' Certifications for Ayurveda Centres, 'STEP' Certification for Safe-To-Eat Places certification creates benchmarks for tourist spots and gives tourists an Idea about tourism credibility in terms of food, safety and services.

MAJOR FUNCTIONS OF THE KERALA TOURISM DEPARTMENT

The Department of Tourism has three major functions such as (i) Hospitality wing of the State Government (ii) Estate Office duty and (iii) Tourism Development.

i. Hospitality Wing

The Department provides accommodation and transport to the State Guests including VVIPs and VIPs. Maintains 24 Guest Houses at Kovalam, Thiruvananthapuram, Ponmudi, Attingal, Varkala, Kollam, Kottayam, Ernakulam, Aluva, Devikulam, Munnar, Peermade, Cheruthuruthy, Idukki, Thrissur, Guruvayoor, Malampuzha, Malappuram, Kozhikode, Sulthan Battery, Kannoor, Kasargod,Yathri Nivas at Thiruvananthapuram and Ernakulam and Kerala House at Kanyakumari and New Delhi. All reservations to these establishments except Yatri Nivas, Thiruvananthapuram and Kochi are made through GAD (Political) Govt. Secretariat, Thiruvananthapuram.

The Department of Tourism has a fleet of cars of various models and brands to provide transport to the guests as well as the Ministers, Speaker, Leader of Opposition, etc.

ii. Estate Office Duty

It is the responsibility of the Department of Tourism to provide furnished Residential Bungalows to the Ministers, Leader of Opposition, Chief Whip, Speaker etc. The transport facility is also provided to the above by the Department of Tourism.

iii. Tourism Development

A shift in the emphasis from Hospitality Management to Tourism Planning, Development & Marketing was the major change the Department witnessed in the 1980s.

The Budget pattern underwent a sea change by the 1990s to provide more for Tourism Development. The activities under this head can be broadly classified into: (a). Marketing & Promotion, (b).Planning & Development. and (c). Support to other agencies.

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Effective marketing and promotional measures are essential to attract tourists and to highlight Kerala as a distinct destination. For this, various measures such as media advertisement, printing and distribution of multi-colour brochures, hospitality to travel writers, conducting festivals, participating in National and International fairs & festivals etc are being adopted.

As part of Tourism Development, new destinations are being identified and various schemes are being implemented to develop them as important tourist spots in the State. Department is providing assistance to District Tourism Promotion Councils (DTPCs) in all the districts. Private sector investment needs encouragement from the Government. Accordingly, Tourism was declared as an industry way back in 1986 and certain concession/incentives were offered for investment this sector.

Online Tour Operator accreditation

A completely online system has been instituted for accrediting Tour Operators based in Kerala. The system includes facility for online submission of applications. Please click here for details in www.keralatourism.gov.in.

E-submission of Tourist Arrivals

As a part of its efforts to streamline and expedite collection of tourist arrival data, Kerala Tourism has introduced a facility for e-submission of tourist arrival data. The accommodation providers in the state have been provided with a unique user id and password, with which they can upload details of tourist arrivals in their properties on a daily basis. The details can be submitted nationality-wise in terms of foreign tourist arrivals and state-wise in terms of domestic tourist arrivals. It will help Kerala Tourism to have real time data on tourist arrivals and plan the promotional strategies accordingly.

Online Homestay accreditation

Accreditation process is initiated for ensuring the quality and competence of homestays working inside the state. Now all homestays must get accreditation from the Dept of Tourism, Govt of Kerala, for its operations. An online system is introduced to facilitate the process of homestay accreditation. Homestays can fill accreditation form, upload documents and images through this system.

CONCLUSION

Kerala have been giving their health tourism a boost. The eye-catching sceneries and traditional health care system really becomes a perfect combination to lead their state at the top of the fierce competition in medical tourism. They were lucky enough to be blessed with such natural wonders that become very much advantageous to them in the promotion of tourism. It would be very much adequate if they manage to continue such practices among the entire state and also within the entire country of India. Their highly develop health care system really enables them to attract foreign patients from abroad. Moreover, the government of the State of Kerala is noticeably very responsible enough to come up with activities that would be beneficial not only for the state but as well as the inhabitants of the state. They become capable of eliminating poverty, unemployment and suicide rates within their area. Hence, if one is capable of providing such changes that will result to good outcome to the welfare of the state and the people, then this should be considered as a change among other states in India and even the other nation within the globe.

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SUPER EFFICIENCY ANALYSIS OF CO-OPERATIVE SUGAR MILLS IN TAMILNADU

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ABSTRACT

Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) is used to examine the Super efficiencies and relative technical efficiency of 15 Co-operative Sugar mills in Tamilnadu using Charnes, Cooper & Rhodes (CCR) model and Banker, Charnes and Cooper (BCC) model. Based on the analysis, the efficient sugar mills are found. For inefficient sugar mills, the degree to which each inputs needs to be reduced for optimum output is derived using Benchmarking. Super efficiency analysis indicates that Kallakurichi-II sugar mill dominates the sugar mills under study with a super-efficiency score equal to 1.5471. Cheyyar, Dharmapuri, Subramania Siva and Kallakurichi-I sugar mills occupy second, third, fourth and fifth place respectively.

KEYWORDS
Tamilnadu co-operative sugar mills, super efficiency, data envelopment analysis.

1. INTRODUCTION
Sugar mills across India face multitude of problems ranging from seasonal raw input, fluctuations in sugar price, old and inefficient machinery, increasing labour cost, huge borrowings with heavy interest and underutilisation of capacity. These problems are especially more notable in co-operative sugar mills in Tamilnadu. This research was carried out to understand the efficiency of 15 co-operative sugar mills, and to ferret out the Super-Efficient co-operative Sugar Mills. These super-efficient sugar mills will form the benchmark for less efficient Sugar Mills and help the co-operative sugar mills as a group to become more efficient and profitable.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW
Many researchers have contributed to the technical analysis of Sugar Mills though none have carried out Super Efficiency analysis of co-operative sugar mills in Tamilnadu. Singh S. P. (2006) applied data envelopment analysis in his paper to estimate the relative efficiencies of sugar mills of Uttar Pradesh. Benni Basavaraj (2007) conducted a study on "Interstate sugar factory efficiency: A Comparative analysis". The study compared the average efficiency ranks of the various sugar producing states on the basis of their respective average technical efficiency scores. Mishra and Tripathi (2013) evaluated the operational efficiency of selected sugar mills in Maharashtra using data envelopment analysis. The results revealed that generally there was inefficiency in the operation of the mills. Kumar Krishna (2002) in his research took the issues about comparative behavior of the public sector enterprises and the private sector enterprises into consideration. His study revealed that overall performance of the state corporation mills is better than that of cooperative sugar mills and the private mills. Khanna Gauri (2006) employed the stochastic production frontier to estimate technical efficiency at the farm level. The study results indicate the presence of technical inefficiency. It captures 51% to 55% of the differential between observed and best practice output. Singh N.P. et al. (2007) assessed the performance of sugar mills in India in terms of technical efficiency. The stochastic frontier production function was applied by them to assess sector wise efficiency scores of the Uttar Pradesh sugar mills. The study revealed that there were a majority of mills working in the efficiency range of 60-80 %.

3. METHODOLOGY
Sample and Sampling Method
No sampling was done. All co-operative sugar mills in Tamilnadu was taken on record. Data on all fifteen co-operative sugar mills in Tamilnadu was collated from annual reports and from Tamil Nadu Co-operative Sugar Federation. The mills studied are Ambur, Amaravathi, Salem, Kallakurichi-I, National, Dharmapuri, Tirupattur, Vellore, Chengalrayan, Tiruttani, N.P.K.R.R., M.R.K., Cheyyar, Subramania Siva and Kallakurichi-II sugar mills. The input and output data for efficiencies and super efficiency analysis are given below:
- The inputs are Cane Purchase cost, Transport Cost, Material Cost, Conversion Cost, Total Interest, Over Heads and Salary &Wage expense. All values are average over the study period of 2005-06 to 2014-15 and are in lakhs of Indian rupees.
- The Output is average Total Sugar Sales in Lakhs of Indian Rupees.

Period of study
10 year data from 2005-2006 to 2014-2015 was used for the analysis.

Procedure
Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) was used to calculate the relative efficiencies and Super Efficiencies of the Co-Operative Sugar Mills. DEA is a linear programming methodology for evaluating the relative technical efficiency for each member of a set of peer decision making units (DMUs) with multiple inputs and multiple outputs. It has been widely used to measure performance in many areas. Technical efficiency refers to the degree of the industry technology level that the production process of a production unit reaches. Technical efficiency can be measured from two aspects - input and output. In the case of the given input, the technical efficiency is measured by the degree of output maximization. Under the condition of the given output, the technical efficiency is measured by the degree of input minimization. When there are more than one inputs or outputs, the weight coefficient reflecting the relative importance between inputs and outputs has to be calculated. One method is to adopt the fixed weight, for example, determining the weight of each input and output through subjective forms such as expert consultation or discussion. Another approach is to get the weight of input and output by the data itself, which is the method used by data envelopment analysis (DEA).

There are two major methods to calculate the technical efficiency based on inputs.

Input-oriented CCR Model: Charnes, Cooper and Rhodes derived this model hence it is named CCR model. In the CCR model, the returns to scale is assumed constant. It is called 'Constant Return to Scale' (CRS). It indicates that there is constant ratio between inputs and outputs. Increasing the inputs leads to an equivalent increase in the output. The technical efficiency derived from CCR Model includes the component of scale efficiency, which therefore is also referred to as the Comprehensive Technical Efficiency or Over All Technical Efficiency (OTE)

Input-oriented BCC Model: Banker, Charnes and Cooper jointly developed this model. The BCC model is based on the Variable Returns to Scale (VRS) and the technical efficiency obtained eliminates the effect of scale, so it is called "Pure Technical Efficiency" (PTE). This is the more suitable model for real production as most producing units are not in a state of optimal scale of production.

Based on above two models, Scale efficiency can be derived.

Scale Efficiency: This shows if the production unit (Sugar mills) are of right size to use the inputs for optimum output. The CCR model gives the efficiency value which is not a pure technical efficiency, but contains the component of scale efficiency. The BCC model gives just the technical efficiency which is also referred to as "pure technical efficiency". Based on these two, the scale efficiency value can be separated by using the formula SE = OTE/PTE.

Scale Efficiency = $\dfrac{\textit{Over All Technical Efficiency (Obtained from CCR Model)}}{\textit{Pure Technical Efficiency(Obtained from BCC Model)}}$

Over all Technical Inefficiency: The overall Technical Inefficiency can be calculated from Over all technical efficiency. OTIE= (1-OTE)×100

Pure Technical Inefficiency: The overall Pure Technical Inefficiency can be calculated from Pure technical efficiency. PTIE=(1-PTE)×100

Scale Inefficiency: The Scale efficiency can be calculated from Scale efficiency score. SIE=(1-SE)×100

Super Efficiency: All the efficient DMUs have OTE scores equal to 1 in theCCR model which makes it impossible to rank and differentiate the efficient DMUs with the CCRmodel. However, the ability to rank or differentiate the efficient DMUs is of practical importance. Further discrimination across the efficient DMUs is desirable to identify top performers. For ranking the efficient DMUs, Andersen and Petersen proposed the super-efficiency DEA model. The core idea of super-efficiency. DEA model is to exclude the efficient DMU under evaluation from the reference set. Thesuper-efficiency score for efficient DMU can take any value greater than or equal to1. This procedure makes the ranking of efficient DMUs possible. Higher super-efficiency score implies higher rank.

4. DATA ANALYSIS

The result of DAE CCR input oriented analysis is tabulated in Table 1:

TABLE 1: CCR INPUT ORIENTED OVERALL TECHNICAL EFFICIENCIES OF SUGAR MILLS

No.	DMU	OTE Score	Benchmark(Lambda)
1	Ambur	0.855907	Dharmapuri (0.499565); SubramaniaSiva (0.016834)
2	Amaravathi	0.964304	Dharmapuri (0.504031)
3	Salem	0.968718	Subramania Siva (0.510708); Kallakurichi-II (0.494457)
4	Kallakurichi-I	1	Kallakurichi-I (1.000000)
5	National	0.860146	Dharmapuri (0.516491); Subramania Siva (0.171812)
6	Dharmapuri	1	Dharmapuri (1.000000)
7	Tirupattur	0.972328	Dharmapuri (0.654627)
8	Vellore	0.877822	Dharmapuri(0.591434); Subramania Siva(0.214248)
9	Chengalrayan	0.892851	Kallakurichi-I(0.272929); Dharmapuri(0.510265); Kallakurichi-II(0.262854)
10	Tiruttani	0.761316	Dharmapuri(0.373416); Subramania Siva(0.264323)
11	N.P.K.R.R.	0.800853	Dharmapuri(0.602708)
12	M.R.K.	0.876578	Kallakurichi-I(0.119261); Dharmapuri(0.407629); Kallakurichi-II(0.239349)
13	Cheyyar	1	Cheyyar(1.000000)
14	Subramania Siva	1	Subramania Siva(1.000000)
15	Kallakurichi-II	1	Kallakurichi-II(1.000000)

From the table it can be deduced that the technical efficiency score of 5 DMUs is 1. It indicates that out of 15 DMUs, these five DMUs viz., Kallakurichi-I, Dharmapuri, Cheyyar, Subramania Siva and Kallakurichi-II Sugar mills don't contain any other DMU or linear combination of other DMUs and they are technically efficient. These efficient sugarmills together define the efficient frontier of all sugar mills under study and thus form the reference set for inefficient sugar mills. Every DMU is Benchmarked against other efficient sugar mills which have OTE score of 1. If the input of inefficient DMU is multiplied by the lambda of Benchmark, then for an inefficient DMU, theamount by whichinput hasto be reduced in order to make the DMU efficient can be obtained.

Taking Ambur sugar mill as an example, the calculation for optimum input and output - also called 'Projected Value for Efficiency' or 'Strong efficiency Projection'- is done as delineated below:

From Table 1 it can be seen that for Ambur sugar mill, the benchmark sugar mills are Dharmapuri (0.499565) and Subramania Siva (0.016834). The figures in the brackets are the lambda value. Each input of the benchmark has to be multiplied by the lambda value to get the optimum input.

Ambur Projected Value for optimum efficiency = Original input values of Dharmapuri sugar mill X Lambda + Original input values of Subramania Siva X Lambda.

The calculation is tabulated in Table below. All figures except lambda value are in Lakhs of Rupees:

TABLE 2: STRONG EFFICIENCY PROJECTION CALCULATION OF AMBUR SUGAR MILL : BENCHMARK METHOD

	CanePurchase	TransportCost	MaterialCost	ConversionCost	Total Interest	OverHeads	Salary&Wages
Original Value of Dharmapuri	4208.914	213.326	4594.388	394.629	332.803	1647.646	1127.92
Lambda Value	0.499565						
Original Value of Subramania Siva	5666.528	315.898	6220.696	350.672	554.063	1813.555	916.15
Lambda Value	0.016834						
Projected value for Efficiency of Ambur	2198.016	111.888	2399.915	203.046	175.584	853.636	578.892
Reduce Input of Ambur by	370.044	154.225	545.782	83.782	610.496	656.954	97.458

- The perusal of the above table shows that for Ambur Sugar mill to become efficient under Constant Return to Scale model, it has to reduce CanePurchase by Rs.370.044 Lakhs, TransportCost by Rs.154.225 Lakhs, MaterialCost by Rs.545.782 Lakhs, ConversionCost by Rs.83.782 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs.610.496 Lakhs, OverHeads by Rs.656.954 Lakhsand Salary and Wages by Rs.97.458 Lakhs.

Similar calculations for all the inefficient sugar mills were carried out and the results are tabulated in Table 3.

TABLE 3: STRONG EFFICIENCY OF ALL INEFFICIENT SUGAR MILLS : BENCHMARK METHOD (in Rs. Lakhs)

Sugar Mills		CanePurchase	TransportCost	MaterialCost	ConversionCost	Total Interest	OverHeads	SalaryWage
Amaravathi	Reduce Input	-78.5301	-36.439	-131.966	-85.3257	-323.83	-464.48	-144.283
	Projected value	2121.424	107.523	2315.715	198.9053	167.7431	830.465	568.5068
Salem	Reduce Input	-209.658	-260.594	-546.319	-83.1046	-140.26	-81.4826	-26.2471
	Projected value	6492.481	347.5211	7107.662	377.2784	427.302	1642.929	812.7929
National	Reduce Input	-511.755	-210.334	-733.288	-197.222	-1190.84	-1244.68	-120.314
	Projected value	3147.444	164.456	3441.75	264.072	267.0844	1162.585	739.966
Tirupattur	Reduce Input	-78.4143	-89.1709	-174.876	-11.841	-547.08	-648.628	-117.743
	Projected value	2755.271	139.6491	3007.613	258.335	217.862	1078.594	738.3674
Vellore	Reduce Input	-515.442	-69.8854	-608.503	-189.159	-243.212	-270.734	-120.167
	Projected value	3703.334	193.8486	4050.046	308.5276	315.5376	1363.023	863.373
Chengalrayan	Reduce Input	-724.779	-35.9874	-811.972	-214.648	-538.798	-566.776	-119.892
	Projected value	6039.408	299.8746	6585.406	463.0306	603.2134	1966.122	999.0284
Tiruttani	Reduce Input	-962.325	-188.978	-1169.65	-197.188	-846.075	-970.389	-207.968
	Projected value	3069.465	163.1582	3359.887	240.0512	270.7252	1094.62	663.3421
N.P.K.R.R.	Reduce Input	-630.811	-39.0057	-710.952	-139.088	-1416.33	-1869.73	-254.773
	Projected value	2536.747	128.5733	2769.075	237.8461	200.5831	993.0497	679.8066
M.R.K.	Reduce Input	-608.57	-30.5965	-670.882	-106.884	-148.872	-373.671	-103.018
	Projected value	4322.255	217.3055	4715.649	325.0994	361.3797	1343.838	731.6625

- The perusal of the above table shows that for Amaravathi Sugar mill to become efficient under Constant Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -78.53 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -36.439 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -131.966 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -85.326 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -323.83 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -464.48 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -144.283 Lakhs.
- Similarly, Salem Sugar mill to become efficient under Constant Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -209.658 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -260.594 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -546.319 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -83.105 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -140.26 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -81.483 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -26.247 Lakhs.
- The perusal of the above table shows that for National Sugar mill to become efficient under Constant Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -511.755 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -210.334 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -733.288 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -197.222 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -1190.84 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -1244.675 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -120.314 Lakhs.
- From above table it can be inferred that for Tirupattur Sugar mill to become efficient under Constant Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -78.414 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -89.171 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -174.876 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -11.841 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -547.08 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -648.628 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -117.743 Lakhs.
- The perusal of the above table shows that for Vellore Sugar mill to become efficient under Constant Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -515.442 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -69.885 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -608.503 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -189.159 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -243.212 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -270.734 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -120.167 Lakhs.
- Data from tableindicates that for Chengalrayan Sugar mill to become efficient under Constant Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -724.779 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -35.987 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -811.972 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -214.648 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -538.798 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -566.776 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -119.892 Lakhs.
- The perusal of the above table shows that for Tiruttani Sugar mill to become efficient under Constant Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -962.325 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -188.978 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -1169.65 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -197.188 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -846.075 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -970.389 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -207.968 Lakhs.
- In order to become efficient under Constant Return to Scale model, N.P.K.R.R. Sugar mill has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -630.811 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -39.006 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -710.952 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -139.088 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -1416.335 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -1869.731 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -254.773 Lakhs.
- The perusal of the above table shows that for M.R.K. Sugar mill under Constant Return to Scale model can become efficient byreducing Cane Purchase by Rs. -608.57 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -30.596 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -670.882 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -106.884 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -148.872 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -373.671 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -103.018 Lakhs.

To analyse the Pure Technical Efficiency, DAE with BCC method, with input orientation andwith Variable Return to Scale was carried out. The results are tabulated in Table 4.

TABLE 4: BCC INPUT ORIENTED PURE TECHNICAL EFFICIENCIES OF SUGAR MILLS

NO	DMU	PTE Score	Benchmark(Lambda)
1	Ambur	1	Ambur (1.000000)
2	Amaravathi	1	Amaravathi (1.000000)
3	Salem	0.971252	Subramania Siva (0.476842); Kallakurichi-II (0.523158)
4	Kallakurichi-I	1	Kallakurichi-I (1.000000)
5	National	0.889526	Amaravathi (0.709674); Subramania Siva (0.260185); Kallakurichi-II (0.030141)
6	Dharmapuri	1	Dharmapuri (1.000000)
7	Tirupattur	1	Tirupattur (1.000000)
8	Vellore	0.90288	Amaravathi (0.424471); Dharmapuri (0.415061); Subramania Siva (0.024563); Kallakurichi-II (0.135905)
9	Chengalrayan	0.906195	Kallakurichi-I (0.294190); Dharmapuri (0.371458); Kallakurichi-II (0.334352)
10	Tiruttani	0.811179	Ambur (0.078918); Amaravathi (0.715974); Kallakurichi-II (0.205108)
11	N.P.K.R.R.	0.941422	Amaravathi (0.801042); Dharmapuri (0.198958)
12	M.R.K.	0.949479	Amaravathi (0.475417); Kallakurichi-I (0.089522); Dharmapuri (0.165895); Kallakurichi-II (0.269166)
13	Cheyyar	1	Cheyyar (1.000000)
14	Subramania Siva	1	Subramania Siva (1.000000)
15	Kallakurichi-II	1	Kallakurichi-II (1.000000)

From the table it can be seen that 8 Sugar mills attained PTE score equal to 1 and can be considered as relatively efficient under Variable Return to Scale in BCC Model. Out of these 8 sugar mills, 5 sugar mills were also relatively efficient under Constant Return to Scale assumption in CCR Model with an OTE score equal to 1. **Thus, in only 3sugar mills the Overall Technical Inefficiency (OTIE) is caused entirely by inappropriate choice of the scale size instead of managerial incapability to organize the resources in the production process. These 3sugar mills are Ambur, Amaravathi and Tirupattur sugar mills.**

To find how much input has to be reduced to attain PTE in inefficient DMUs (Sugar mills), the input of inefficient DMU is multiplied by the lambda of Benchmark. This is similar to the calculations made for earlier CCR model.

Taking Salem sugar mill as an example, the calculation for optimum input and output - also called 'Projected Value for Efficiency' or 'Strong efficiency Projection' - is done as delineated below:

From Table 4 it can be seen that for Salem sugar mill, the benchmark sugar mills are Subramania Siva (0.476842) and Kallakurichi-II(0.523158). The figures in the brackets are the lambda value. Each input of the benchmark has to be multiplied by the lambda value to get the optimum input.

Salem sugar mill's Projected Value for optimum Pure Technical efficiency
$$= Original\ input\ values\ of\ Subramania\ Siva\ sugar\ mill\ \times Lambda\ + Original\ input\ values\ of\ Kallakurichi - II\ \times Lambda.$$

TABLE 5: STRONG PURE TECHNICAL EFFICIENCY PROJECTION CALCULATION OF SALEM SUGAR MILL : BENCHMARK METHOD

	CanePurchase	TransportCost	MaterialCost	ConversionCost	Total Interest	OverHeads	Salary&Wages
Original Value of Subramania-Siva	5666.528	315.898	6220.696	350.672	554.063	1813.55	916.15
Lambda Value	0.476842						
Original Value of Kallakurichi-II	7277.772	376.554	7949.547	400.819	291.912	1449.537	697.55
Lambda Value	0.523158						
Projected value for Efficiency of Salem	6509.463	347.6307	7125.158	376.9068	416.9166	1623.116	801.7877
Reduce Input of Salem by	192.6758	260.4843	528.8228	83.4762	150.6454	101.2959	37.25234

- The above table shows that for Salem Sugar mill to become efficient under Variable Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. 192.6758 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. 260.4843 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. 528.8228 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. 83.4762 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. 150.6454 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. 101.2959 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. 37.25234 Lakhs.

Similar calculations for all the Pure technical inefficient sugar mills were carried out and the results are tabulated in Table 6.

TABLE 6: STRONG PURE TECHNICAL EFFICIENCY OF ALL INEFFICIENT SUGAR MILLS : BENCHMARK METHOD (in Rs. Lakhs)

		Cane Purchase	Transport Cost	Material Cost	Conversion Cost	Total Interest	Over Heads	Salary Wage
Salem	Reduce Input	-192.67633	-260.48435	-528.82333	-83.476212	-150.64531	-101.29581	-37.252268
	Projected value	6509.4627	347.63065	7125.1577	376.90679	416.91669	1623.1162	801.78773
National	Reduce Input	-404.24465	-179.08231	-579.84413	-156.26198	-956.11004	-972.72101	-95.038172
	Projected value	3254.9544	195.70769	3595.1939	305.03202	501.81396	1434.539	765.24183
	Projected value	2833.685	228.82	3182.489	270.176	764.942	1727.222	856.11
Vellore	Reduce Input	-409.72915	-55.14796	-479.44427	-150.15717	-158.67632	-158.67111	-95.521784
	Projected value	3809.0468	208.58604	4179.1047	347.52983	400.07368	1475.0859	888.01822
Chengalrayan	Reduce Input	-634.51505	-31.505559	-713.72947	-228.59167	-536.33848	-633.85666	-207.87478
	Projected value	6129.672	304.35644	6683.6485	449.08733	605.67252	1899.0413	911.04522
Tiruttani	Reduce Input	-761.28663	-150.82765	-914.07887	-128.88997	-642.93696	-721.33764	-164.52163
	Projected value	3270.5034	201.30835	3615.4581	308.34904	473.86304	1343.6714	706.78837
N.P.K.R.R.	Reduce Input	-567.90527	-9.816475	-605.2414	-70.738431	-1156.9336	-1497.6633	-139.19655
	Projected value	2599.6527	157.76253	2874.7856	306.19557	459.98443	1365.1177	795.38345
M.R.K.	Reduce Input	-567.90527	-9.816475	-605.2414	-70.738431	-1156.9336	-1497.6633	-139.19655
	Projected value	2599.6527	157.76253	2874.7856	306.19557	459.98443	1365.1177	795.38345
Cheyyar	Reduce Input	-578.72163	-12.5242	-615.23228	-72.231008	-25.778324	-194.21083	-42.168676
	Projected value	4352.1034	235.3778	4771.2987	359.75199	484.47368	1523.2982	792.51132

- From the above table it can be deduced that for Salem Sugar mill to become efficient under Variable Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -192.676334 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -260.484348 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -528.823329 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -83.476212 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -150.645308 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -101.295811 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -37.252268 Lakhs.
- The perusal of the above table shows that for National Sugar mill to become efficient under Variable Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -404.244645 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -179.082312 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -579.844127 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -156.261983 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -956.110037 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -972.721012 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -95.038172 Lakhs.
- The above table data shows that for Vellore Sugar mill to become efficient under Variable Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -409.729154 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -55.14796 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -479.444265 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -150.15717 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -158.676319 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -158.67111 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -95.521784 Lakhs.
- The scrutiny of the table shows that for Chengalrayan Sugar mill to become efficient under Variable Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -634.51505 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -31.505559 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -713.729467 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -228.591671 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -536.338482 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -633.856661 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -207.874777 Lakhs.
- Examination of the above table reveals that for Tiruttani Sugar mill to become efficient under Variable Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -761.286628 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -150.827649 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -914.078871 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -128.889965 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -642.936956 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -721.337642 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -164.521627 Lakhs.
- The above table shows that for N.P.K.R.R. Sugar mill to become efficient under Variable Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -567.905266 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -9.816475 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -605.241395 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -70.738431 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -1156.933567 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -1497.663302 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -139.196551 Lakhs.
- It can be seen from the above table that for M.R.K. Sugar mill to become efficient under Variable Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -567.905266 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -9.816475 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -605.241395 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -70.738431 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -1156.933567 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -1497.663302 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -139.196551 Lakhs.
- The perusal of the above table shows that for Cheyyar Sugar mill to become efficient under Variable Return to Scale model, it has to reduce Cane Purchase by Rs. -578.721626 Lakhs, Transport Cost by Rs. -12.5242 Lakhs, Material Cost by Rs. -615.232276 Lakhs, Conversion Cost by Rs. -72.231008 Lakhs, Total Interest by Rs. -25.778324 Lakhs, Over Heads by Rs. -194.210832 Lakhs and Salary and Wages by Rs. -42.168676 Lakhs.

EFFICIENCY AND INEFFICIENCY ANALYSIS

In this section, Overall Technical Efficiency (OTE), Pure Technical Efficiency (PTE) and Scale Efficiency (SE) scores are obtained by executing the CCR and BCC Data Envelopment Analysis models. The results pertaining to Return To Scale (RTS) are also provided. It should be noted that the OTE and PTE are the same as that derived in earlier sections. The results of the analysis are tabulated in Table 7.

TABLE 7: EFFICIENCIES, INEFFICIENCIES AND RETURN TO SCALE OF SUGAR MILLS

Sugar mills	OTE	PTE	SE	RTS	OTIE	PTIE	SIE
Ambur	0.855907	1	0.855907	Increasing	14.4093	0	14.4093
Amaravathi	0.964304	1	0.964304	Increasing	3.5696	0	3.5696
Salem	0.968718	0.971252	0.997391	Decreasing	3.1282	2.8748	0.2609
Kallakurichi-I	1	1	1	Constant	0	0	0
National	0.860146	0.889526	0.96697	Increasing	13.9854	11.0474	3.303
Dharmapuri	1	1	1	Constant	0	0	0
Tirupattur	0.972328	1	0.972328	Increasing	2.7672	0	2.7672
Vellore	0.877822	0.90288	0.972247	Increasing	12.2178	9.712	2.7753
Chengalrayan	0.892851	0.906195	0.985274	Decreasing	10.7149	9.3805	1.4726
Tiruttani	0.761316	0.811179	0.93853	Increasing	23.8684	18.8821	6.147
N.P.K.R.R.	0.800853	0.941422	0.850684	Increasing	19.9147	5.8578	14.9316
M.R.K.	0.876578	0.949479	0.92322	Increasing	12.3422	5.0521	7.678
Cheyyar	1	1	1	Constant	0	0	0
Subramania Siva	1	1	1	Constant	0	0	0
Kallakurichi-II	1	1	1	Constant	0	0	0

OTE: Overall Technical Efficiency Score, PTE: Pure Technical Efficiency Score,

SE : Scale Efficiency Score, RTS: Return to Scale, OTIE: Over all Technical Inefficiency,

PTIE: Pure Technical Inefficiency, SIE: Scale Inefficiency

From the table it can be seen that five sugar mills are relatively efficient under Constant Return to Scale assumption in CCR Model with an OTE score equal to 1. Eight Sugar mills attained PTE score equal to 1 and can be considered as relatively efficient under Variable Return to Scale in BCC Model. **Out of these eight sugar mills, only in three sugar mills the Overall Technical Inefficiency (OTIE) is caused entirely by inappropriate choice of the scale size instead of managerial incapability to organize the resources in the production process. These three sugar mills are Ambur, Amaravathi and Tirupattur sugar mills.**

It can be noted from the table that there are significant variations in OTIE at the level of individual sugar mills. The highest and lowest levels of OTIE have been recorded for Tiruttani sugar Mill with an OTIE score of 23.8684 percent and Tirupattur sugar mill with OTEI score of 2.7672 percent.

One of the most significant features of DEA is its capacity to determine whether a DMU is operating in the region of Constant Return to Scale (CRS), Increasing Return to Scale (IRS), or Decreasing Return to Scale (DRS). A DMU exhibiting CRS has optimum or most productive scale size (MPSS), and operates at flatter portion of long-run average cost curve. On the other hand, when a DMU exhibits DRS, a percentage increase in inputs produces less than proportional expansion of outputs. The DMUs experiencing DRS lie above the optimal scale of operations (i.e., at the rising portion of long-run average cost curve) and would improve their efficiency by downsizing their scale of operations (e.g., by splitting into two or more production units). Further, a DMU is considered to exhibit IRS when a percentage increase in inputs produces more than proportional expansion of outputs. The DMUs experiencing IRS lies below the optimal scale of operations (i.e., at the declining portion of long-run average cost curve) and would improve their efficiency by expanding the size of their scale of operations. As noted above, the existence of increasing or decreasing returns-to-scale can be identified by the equality or inequality of the efficiency scores under CRS, VRS and NIRS assumptions. Table 7 provides the nature of RTS for individual sugar mills. **It can be inferred from the table that 8 (53.34 percent) sugar mills are operating below their optimal scale size and, thus, experiencing IRS. These sugar mills have sub-optimal scale size and increase in average productivity in these sugar mills would require an expansion in terms of size. In contrast, 2 (13.34 percent) sugar mills experience DRS. These sugar mills have supra-optimal scale size and downsizing is needed for achieving efficiency gains. Further, 5 (33.34 percent) sugar mills are found to be operating at MPSS and experiencing CRS.**

In order to get deeper understanding of efficiencies, the descriptive statistics of the efficiency score is tabulate in Table 8 and frequencies of the scores are tabulated in Table 9.

TABLE 8: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF OTE PTE AND SE

Statistics	OTE	PTE	SE
Sugar mills numbers	15	15	15
Mean	.922055	.958129	.961790
Median	.964304	1.000000	.972328
Std. Deviation	.0803918	.0576949	.0499692
Minimum	.7613	.8112	.8507
Maximum	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
25 th Percentile	.860146	.906195	.938530
50 th Percentile	.964304	1.000000	.972328
75 th Percentile	1.000000	1.000000	1.000000

TABLE 9: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES

Efficiency Score (ES)	OTE	PTE	SE
ES < 0.5	0(0 %)	0(0 %)	0(0 %)
0.5 ≤ ES <0.6	0(0 %)	0(0 %)	0(0 %)
0.6 ≤ ES <0.7	0(0 %)	0(0 %)	0(0 %)
0.7 ≤ ES <0.8	1(6.7 %)	0(0 %)	0(0 %)
0.8 ≤ ES <0.9	6(40 %)	2(13.3 %)	2(13.3 %)
0.9 ≤ ES <1.0	3(20 %)	5(33.3 %)	8(53.3 %)
ES = 1.0	5(33.3 %)	8(53.3 %)	5(33.3 %)

From table 8, it can be observed that OTE scores range between 0.7613 and 1, and their mean and standard deviation (Std. Deviation) are 0.922 and 0.080 respectively. This indicates that the average level of Overall Technical Inefficiency (OTIE) in Sugar mills under study is 7.8 percent. **It can thus be concluded that the same level of outputs in the sugar mills could be produced with 7.8 percent lesser inputs.**

The analysis of frequency distribution of OTE scores reveals that about **6.7 percent of sugar mills have efficiency score below 0.8 and, thus, have OTIE more than 20 percent.**

From table 9, it can have deduced that mean value of PTE scores is 0.9581 (with SD of 0.057), and PTE scores range from the lowest figure of 0.8112 to the highest of 1. The extent of pure technical inefficiency (PTIE) in sugar mills under study is 4.19 percent. The results show that 4.19 percentage points of 6.7 percent of OTIE identified earlier in the sugar mills under study is due to inappropriate management practices that are being followed by sugar mill managers in organizing inputs in sugar mill operations. The remaining part of OTIE is due to the sugar mills operating at sub-optimal scale size. This implies that in South Indian sugar industry, PTIE is a more dominant source of OTIE, and scale inefficiency (SIE) is relatively small.

SCALE EFFICIENCY (SE)

The SE score for each Sugar mill can be obtained by taking a ratio of OTE score to PTE score. The value of SE equal to 1 implies that the sugar mill is operating at most productive scale size (MPSS) which corresponds to constant returns-to-scale. At MPSS, the sugar mill operates at minimum point of its long-run average cost

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curve. SE<1 also implies that the sugar mill is experiencing OTIE because it is not operating at its optimal scale size. An inspection of Table 8 reveals that mean SE for sugar mills as a whole is quite high being 0.961 (with SD equal to 0.0499), and SE scores range from a minimum of 0.8507 to maximum of 1. The connotation of this finding is that average level of SIE in the sugar mills is to the tune of about 3.83 percent. **This finding reiterates the earlier findings that SIE is smaller source of OTIE relative to that of PTIE in the sugar mills. Further, 5 sugar mills attained SE score equal to 1 and thus it can be concluded that they are operating at most productive scale size (MPSS). The remaining 10 sugar mills are operating with some degree of SIE and have either Decreasing RTS or Increasing RTS. Further it can be concluded that all sugar mills are operating with scale efficiency above 80 percent.**

SUPER EFFICIENCY

The Anderson and Peterson's super-efficiency scores obtained for the efficient sugar mills and their ranks are tabulated in Table 10.

TABLE 10: SUPER-EFFICIENCY SCORES AND RANKS OF EFFICIENT SUGAR MILLS

Sugar mills	Super efficiency score	Rank
Kallakurichi-II	1.5471	1
Cheyyar	1.3046	2
Dharmapuri	1.149	3
Subramania Siva	1.0616	4
Kallakurichi-I	1.0291	5

It can be inferred from the table that among the Overall Technical Efficient sugar mills, **Kallakurichi-II sugar mill dominates the sugar mills under study with a super-efficiency score equal to 1.5471** and is hence ranked first among the 15 sugar mills under consideration. Cheyyar, Dharmapuri, Subramania Siva and Kallakurichi-I sugar mills occupy second, third, fourth and fifth place respectively.

5. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The efficiencies and inefficiencies of all 15 sugar mills were derived using Data Envelopment Analysis CCR, BCC and Super efficiency model. The benchmarks and lambda was calculated and the amount of reduction in inputs required to achieve efficiency was calculated for all inefficient sugar mills under study. The study shows that out of 15 Sugar mills, five sugar mills viz., Kallakurichi-I, Dharmapuri, Cheyyar, Subramania Siva and Kallakurichi-II Sugar mills are technically efficient. OTE, PTE and SE analysis showed that the existing level of outputs in the sugar mills could be produced with 7.8 percent lesser inputs. All sugar mills are operating with scale efficiency above 80 percent. 5 sugar mills are operating at most productive scale size (MPSS). In Ambur, Amaravathi and Tirupattur sugar mills, Overall Technical Inefficiency (OTIE) was caused entirely by inappropriate choice of the scale size instead of managerial incapability to organize the resources. It was also found that eight (53.34 percent) sugar mills are operating below their optimal scale size are experiencing Increasing Return to Scale. These sugar mills have sub-optimal scale size and increase in average productivity in these sugar mills would require an expansion in terms of size. In contrast, 2 (13.34 percent) sugar mills experience Decreasing Return to Scale. These sugar mills have supra-optimal scale size and downsizing is needed for achieving efficiency gains. Five (33.34 percent) sugar mills are found to be operating at MPSS and experiencing Constant Return to Scale. Super efficiency analysis indicates that Kallakurichi-II sugar mill dominates the sugar mills under study with a super-efficiency score equal to 1.5471.Cheyyar, Dharmapuri, Subramania Siva and Kallakurichi-I sugar mills occupy second, third, fourth and fifth place respectively.

6. CONCLUSION

The research highlights the super-efficient co-operative sugar mills and shows the methodology to use these sugar mills to benchmark other inefficient sugar mills. The methodology can be adapted to make sugar mills in other states more productive. The methodology used in this research can also be extended to other industry clusters and an inter-company efficiency cluster can be created to improve efficiencies of other industries. This study contributes to technical efficiency literature and can form the basis of more extended study in super efficiency measures.

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DEMONETIZATION: 'ILLUSION OR REALITY'

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ABSTRACT

Demonetization is a radical monetary step in which a currency's status in as a legal tender is declared invalid. The series of currency is not acceptable as legal currency. This is usually done where there is a change of national currency replacing the old currency unit with new one. Same happened in India on the eve of 8th November 2016 when Indian government announced that the Rs. 500 and Rs. 1000 denominated currency notes will cease to be legal tender. The move was targeted towards tackling black money, Corruption, Terrorism etc. Declaration of 86% of currency notes as illegal tender was just a blink of time on the eve of 8th November 2016 created immediate interruption in daily lives of the people. The chaos was created in every strata of society either it was upper, middle or lower. Where some welcomed the move as it was seen for curbing black money, many others suffered by this move. Supreme sufferers of this move were the informal sectors of Indian economy where cashless transactions were minimal. Informal sectors include activities like agriculture, works in construction, local transport, community services & small workshops like shoe makers & garment makers, rural population, urban poor and middle class. After initial Euphoria, questions began to emerge. What are costs of this demonetisation, will it be effective if people can still create fresh black money there after? Will it increase the GDP? Will it increase inflation? What about tax revenues. In this paper I want to discuss the short term and long term pros and cons of recent demonetization.

KEYWORDS
demonetisation, remonetisation, informal sectors.

INTRODUCTION

Demonetization is stripping a currency unit of its status as legal tender. Demonetization becomes a necessity when there is a change of national currency the old unit has to be retired and replaced with a new unit of currency. It includes either introducing new notes of the same denomination or completely replacing the old denomination. Which is often carried out as an ambush on the black money and market. Opposite of demonetization is remonetisation in which a form of payment is restored as a legal tender. Currency is a commonly accepted form of money which is issued by a government and circulated within an economy. As used for a medium of exchange of goods & services, currency forms the basics of any trade.

Demonetization of Nov. 2016 is a generation's memorable experience and is going to be one of the economic events of our life. Its impact was felt by every Indian citizen. Demonetization affected the economy through the liquidity side. Its affect is worth telling because nearly 86% of currency value in circulation was withdrawn without replacing bulk of it. As a result of withdrawl of Rs.500 and Rs.1000 notes, there occurred huge gap in the currency composition as after Rs.100; Rs.2000 is the only denomination. Absence of intermediate denominations like Rs.500 and Rs.1000 reduced the utility of Rs.2000. Effectively, this made Rs.2000 less useful as a transaction currency though it can be store value denomination.

OBJECTIVES OF THE PAPER
1. To study the history of Indian Demonetization.
2. To analyse the Instant implications of demonetization on Indian economy.
3. To work out the probable consequences of demonetization in future.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
This paper is based on secondary data. The data has been collected from the internet

DEMONETIZATION: HISTORY & BACKGROUND IN INDIA
- This is not the first time when currency is demonetised in India.
- First demonetization took place in the year 1946 and the second in 1978 when an ordinance war promulgated to phase out notes with denomination of Rs. 1000, Rs. 5000 and Rs. 10000.
- The highest denomination notes ever printed by Reserve bank of India was Rs. 10000 note in 1938 and again in 1954. But these notes were demonetized in Jan. 1946 and again in Jan. 1978, according to RBI.
- Rs. 1000 and Rs. 10000 bank notes were in circulation prior to January of 1946.
- Higher denomination bank notes of Rs. 1000, Rs. 10000 were reintroduced in the year 1954 and all of them were demonetized in January 1978.
- The Rs. 1000 note made to comeback in November 2000, Rs. 500 note came into circulation in October 1987.
- The move was then justified as attempt to contain the volume of bank notes in circulation due to inflation.

India carried out demonetization exercises twice before, in 1946 and 1978. In Jan. 1978 episode, currency worth INR 1.46 bn (1.7% of total notes in circulation was demonetized) of this INR 1.0 bn (or 68%) was tendered back. In 1978 the value of demonetization was very -very small (only 0.1% of GDP)

However, the 2016 demonetization efforts cover 86% of total currency in circulation (11% of GDP)

DEMONETIZATION OF THE YEAR 2016
On the 8th of November 2016 when the sun had descended below the horizon & the light of the day had completely faded, and people were returning back home from a long day at work, a misty light of a new economy was brewing over the country. All Rs. 500 and Rs. 1000 bank notes of the Mahatma Gandhi series ceased to be as legal tender in India from 9 November 2016.

The Government claimed that the demonetization is an effort to stop counterfeiting of the current bank notes allegedly used for funding terrorism, as well as a crackdown on black money in the country. The move was described as an effort to reduce corruption, counter fieting of currency.

However, in the days following demonetisation, banks & ATMs across the country faced severe cash shortages. Also, after Modiji's announcement, the BSE, SENSEX and NIFTY 50 stock indices crashed for the next two days.

The term demonetisation has become much more than a household name, since the old Rs. 500 and Rs. 1000 were pulled out of circulation. While as per dictionary demonetization means "ending something (e.g. gold or silver) that is no longer the legal tender of a country" one needs to understand that there is much more than the literal meaning to the word demonetization.

One needs to understand that 80% of India's Labour force is employed in the informal sector, of the country, which comprise of 45% of the GDP of our country. Over 60% population of India lives in below the international poverty threshold line of 1.9$ per day. Since our economy is an under banked economy, present demonetization moves, no doubt caused a severe social experiment across the segment of our vast population.

Demonetization has been a radical unprecedented step with short term costs and long term benefits. The liquidity squeeze was less severe than suggested by the headlines and has been since end tenement December 2016. A no. of follow up actions would minimize the costs and maximize the benefits of demonetization.

INSTANT IMPLICATIONS OF DEMONETIZATION

Pros

1. ATTACK ON BLACK MONEY HOLDERS

People who possess huge amount of black money in hard cash were at a complete loss at the time of demonetization. Their black money in hard cash became a pile of trash. If a black money holder wanted to deposit money in bank account, then he/she had to show ID proof. There was 200% penalty on income tax amount.

2. DEATH KNELL TO FAKE CURRENCY RACKET

Most of the fake currency used to be in the form Rs. 500 and Rs. 1000 notes, Modiji busted all these unethical rackets completely.

3. END OF TERRORIST FUNDING

Huge sums of money especially in hard cash in the demonetization of Rs. 500 and Rs. 1000 was used to fund Islamic Terrorists, nexalites, etc. After demonetization, these organisations suffered from shortage of funds.

4. TRANSPARENCY

Online Transactions= more transparency. Financial intelligence unit can track all online transactions. Now there will be more transparency in real estate sector also.

5. END OF HUGE DONATION

Huge amount of donations that is taken in private education and health care sectors stopped after demonetization. Schools, Engineering & Medical Colleges and Hospitals (Private ones) used to take huge amount of money as donations especially in the form of hard cash in the denomination of Rs. 500 and Rs. 1000. These money minded people running these institutions could not make easy money then at the time of demonetization. Same applies to real estate sector also.

6. TOWARDS A CASHLESS ECONOMY

While it is practically impossible to have a 100% cashless economy. But the proportion of hard cash decreased during the period of demonetization. So, our economy got more digitized. This resulted is greater transparency. Now the government has put some limitations for cash withdrawal from bank accounts. So, the people had to go for online payments. And use more of debit and credit cards.

7. HAWALA TRANSACTIONS END

Most of the hawala transactions used to be carried out in the form of Rs. 500 and Rs. 1000. Using this ban, Modiji delivered a fatal blow to the unethical hawala traders as they couldn't trade any more using denominations of Rs. 500 and Rs. 1000.

Cons

1. RUSH AT BANKS

Banks were extremely overcrowded by people. People forgot everything else and throng to the places where the banned notes were being officially exchanged which led to tremendous chaos.

2. SHORTAGE OF MONEY TO COMMON PEOPLE

Common people had to suffer from shortage of money.

3. STOCK MARKET

Due to currency being sucked out of market coupled with trump's victory, the mood at the stock market was completely bearish. Sensex lost 1600 points at open. This led to negative effect on trade in general.

4. PROBLEMS FOR HOUSE WIVES

Many Indian house wives store money secretly. So that they could be of help during times of financial crisis in their households. The accumulated money of our respected Indian house wives was of no use then until those are exchange in banks & post offices.

5. SHORT TERM INFLATION

Due to shortage money in the market, a short term cost push inflation occurred. Price of gold became sky high. Prices of vegetables and fruits also soared burdening the common man.

6. MARRIAGE SEASON

Families, which had marriages during that period also had to suffer a lot due to shortage of funds.

7. ATTACK ON CONSUMPTIONS

When liquidity shortage stroke, it was consumption that was going to be adversely affected first.

DUE TO SHORTAGE OF CONSUMPTION

Consumption → Production → Employment → Growth → Tax revenue

LONG TERM IMPACTS

1. IMPACT ON COUNTERFEIT CURRENCY

The real impact will be on counterfeit take currency as its circulation will be checked after this exercise.

2. IMPACT ON BLACK MONEY

Only a small portion of black money is actually stored in the form of cash. Most of the, black income is kept in the form of physical assets like gold, land & building, etc. So, impact of demonetization would be less than expected. But more than anything else, demonetization has big propaganda impact. People are now much convinced about the need to fight against black income. Such a nation wise awareness and urge will encourage government to come but with even strong measures.

3. LOSS OF GROWTH MOMENTUM

India risks its position of being the fastest growing largest economy. Reduced consumption, income, investment, etc. may reduce India's GDP growth as the liquidity impact itself may last three to four months.

4. IMPACT ON BANK DEPOSIT AND INTEREST RATES

Deposits in the short term may rise but in the long term, its affect will come down. The savings in the banks are actually liquid cash people stored. It is difficult to assume that such ready cash once stored in their hands will be put into savings for a longer time. They saved this money into banks just to convert their old notes into new notes. These are not voluntary savings aimed to get interest. It will be converted into active liquidity by the saver when full-fledged new currency supply take place. This may reduce interest rates in the short\medium term. But they cannot follow it in the long term.

5. REAL ESTATE CLEANING

It is said that real estate is an industry built on mostly black money. The extent of black money floating around in this sector in huge. According to an estimate at least 40% of real estate transactions in Delhi, NCR are in the black money. Modi's demonetization move will curtail the flow of black money into the real estate sector. This will help in making the much needed correction in this sector. The impact: An unexpected dip in land and property prices.

CONCLUSION

The demonetization effort being led by PM Modiji in India was appreciable to an extent but followed both positive and negative impacts. The most prominent reason brought forward for this far reaching move were to curb black money, to eliminate counterfeit notes and to promote the use of electronic payments. Though this move caused a lot of difficulties for common people but also welcomed by them also.

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DISCLOSURE OF INTANGIBLE ASSETS IN INDIAN CORPORATE SECTOR: A CRITICAL APPRAISAL (INFORMATION SECTOR)

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ABSTRACT
Intangible Assets are fixed assets without physical nature, which cannot touch like goodwill, copyright and working skill of employees who work in the company. This research is based on data from the 2006-07 to 2015-16 of companies of information sector selected from BSE-500 index. Annual reports of these companies were used for examine the level of disclosure of Intangible assets. The result shows that disclosure of highest Intangible Assets score sheet (92 %) out of five categories of Intangible Assets. Find positive correlation of intangible assets disclosure categories with demographic (sales, assets, average age) and, profitability variable (return on investment, return on equity and earning per share and return on assets). However firm value and return on assets has a negative relationship but firm value has a positive relationship with human capital variable

KEYWORDS
content analysis, correlation and regression analysis.

1. INTRODUCTION
Intangible Assets are identifiable non-monetary assets. These are used for production or supply of goods or services. Intangible Assets are the assets without physical nature, which cannot be touched like goodwill, copyright and working skill of employees who work in the company. These assets provide a different identity to the company.

Intangible Assets of a company can be classified into four main categories-Human resources, External assets, internal assets and Intellectual property assets. (Meritum (2000), Guthrie, Petty & Johanson (2001), Vergauwen & Alem (2005))

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE
2.1 Some of the previous research studies related to Intangible asset are given as:

Barth and Mcnichols (1999) found analyst coverage was significantly greater for firms with larger research and development and advertising expenses relative to their industry.

Chander and Mehra (2011) examined the level of disclosure of Intangible Asset information and showed that external capital was the most disclosed Intangible Asset category

Matarneh and Bashir (2013) examined Intangible assets were in the competeness of many firm in development of economy of Jordan. It was attempt to evaluate the value of Intangible Assets so that industries invest more in it for its long term success.

Mhedhbi (2013) found the intangible investment and showed that, in spite, those enterprises wear conscious of the importance of the intangible in their activities they remained even incapable to follow efforts and the Intangible Assets appropriately

Kolesnikova et al (2014) found intangible resource had a great impact on competitiveness and efficiency of economic activity and defined that the improvement of country as well as region increased the intangible nation wealth.

Shirali et al (2014) investigated investment of production companies in intellectual capital had a direct and positive relationship with the increase of profitability revenue of assets, each dividend and revenue of companies share.

Wang (2014) found out the relationship between Intangible Assets and financial performance and predict that research and development investment and sale staining were beneficial to firm and financial performance while employee benefit expenses was not

Ely and Waymira (2015) found the positive relationship between in intangible Assets and stock price and impact of manager's greater flexibility in reporting cost associated with intangible.

Pandya and Jain(2015) examined the effect of profitability, Leverage, Firm size and Industry type on the disclosure of Intangible Assets the firms with better financial performance disclose their intangibles to a larger extent regression analysis used to found the effect of corporate attributes

Schaeffer and Robins (2015) addressed the obligation of any acquiring company to identify and value intangibles as it was acquired in the transaction. Researcher said that franchise companies and all other MNEs with substantial value invested in their brand or other IP conduct an inventory or legal audit of their protected and unprotected Intangible Assets

Wyatt (2015) examined the extent to which management made accounting choices to record intangible assets based on their insights into underlying economic of there firm

3. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
1.   To undertake assets wise comparative analysis of disclosure of Intangible Assets.
2.   To examine the relationship and impact of firm size, firm value and firm age profitability on Intangible Assets disclosure

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
4.1 Research Design in Study: In this research study empirical research design has been used.
4.2 Scope of the Study: The study focuses on the disclosure and critical analysis of Intangible Assets in Indian information technology sector. The study has undertaken assets wise comparative analysis of disclosure of Intangible Assets and impact of firm size, firm value and firm age profitability on Intangible Assets disclosure

4.3 Sample size: for this analysis information sectors has been selected from BSE-500 index. Top twenty five companies have been selected. Data for these companies has been analysed from financial year 2006-2007 to 2015-16. The data related to the study has been collected from secondary sources such Websites and annual reports selected companies.

4.4 Research tools

➢ Content analysis has been used for finding the disclosure of intangible assets.

➢ Correlation has been to find the relationship between intangible Assets disclosure, demographic variable (sales, assets, average age) and operating efficiency ratios (ROA, ROI, ROE, EPS and firm value.

➢ Regression analysis has been conducted to find impact of demographic and operating efficiency variable on the intangible assets disclosure.

Through analysis testing impact of demography variables and operating efficiency on Intangible Assets disclosure variables

- Human capital $=\alpha +\beta1$ sales $+\beta2$ assets $+\beta3$ average age $+\beta4$ ROA $+\beta5$ ROI $+\beta6$ ROE $+\beta7$ EPS $+\beta8$ Tobin's q $+E$
- External capital $=\alpha +\beta1$ sales $+\beta2$ assets $+\beta3$ average age $+\beta4$ ROA $+\beta5$ ROI $+\beta6$ ROE $+\beta7$ EPS $+\beta8$ Tobin's q $+E$
- Internal capital $=\alpha +\beta1$ sales $+\beta2$ assets $+\beta3$ average age $+\beta4$ ROA $+\beta5$ ROI $+\beta6$ ROE $+\beta7$ EPS $+\beta8$ Tobin's q $+E$
- Intangible Assets score sheet $=\alpha +\beta1$ sales $+\beta2$ assets $+\beta3$ average age $+\beta4$ ROA $+\beta5$ ROI $+\beta6$ ROE $+\beta7$ EPS $+\beta8$ Tobin's q $+E$
- Mandatory disclosure requirement $=\alpha +\beta1$ sales $+\beta2$ assets $+\beta3$ average age $+\beta4$ ROA $+\beta5$ ROI $+\beta6$ ROE $+\beta7$ EPS $+\beta8$ Tobin's q $+E$

5. DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 INTANGIBLE ASSETS DISCLOSURE INDEX

Content analysis has been used for attribute wise disclosure of intangible assets five categories for ten years attribute wise disclosure score has been calculating for all attributes which include in Intangible Assets disclosure index by dividing the total weighted disclosure score attained for that attribute with the maximum weighted disclosure score.

DISCLOSURE OF INTANGIBLE ASSETS

TABLE 5.1: ATTRIBUTE WISE DISCLOSURE OF INTANGIBLE ASSETS

Attribute	2006-07		2007-08		2008-09		2009-10		2010-11		2011-12		2012-13		2013-14		2014-15		2015-16	
	Weighted disclosure score	% disclosure	Weighted disclosure score	% disclosure	Weighted disclosure score	% disclosure	Weighted disclosure score	% disclosure	Weighted disclosure score	% disclosure	Weighted disclosure score	% disclosure	Weighted disclosure score	% disclosure	Weighted disclosure score	% disclosure	Weighted disclosure score	% disclosure	Weighted disclosure score	% disclosure
Employee																				
Number	34	68	34	68	32	64	32	64	36	72	38	76	38	76	40	80	46	92	44	88
Gender	8	16	12	24	8	16	11	22	9	18	15	30	17	34	17	34	26	52	28	56
Professional qualification	20	40	18	36	18	36	15	30	17	34	17	34	18	36	18	36	19	38	20	40
Experience	36	72	32	64	32	64	28	56	32	64	30	60	32	64	29	58	35	70	35	70
Compensation	34	68	36	72	36	72	37	74	38	76	37	74	36	72	33	66	36	72	36	72
Training and Development	23	46	23	46	24	48	25	50	27	54	29	58	30	60	29	58	30	60	32	64
Work related Knowledge	21	42	23	46	22	44	25	50	26	52	29	58	31	62	30	60	30	60	31	62
Entrepreneurship skill	18	36	18	36	18	36	21	42	20	40	20	40	22	44	21	42	21	42	23	46
Human resource Accounting	22	44	22	44	23	46	23	46	24	48	24	48	23	46	24	48	25	50	25	50
EXTERNAL CAPITAL																				
Brand and their Description	14	28	15	30	16	32	16	32	14	28	14	28	18	36	18	36	17	34	15	30
Brand valuation	13	26	12	24	14	28	15	30	13	26	15	30	17	34	20	40	19	38	22	44
Distribution channels	24	48	25	50	29	58	27	54	26	52	29	58	29	58	31	62	32	64	31	62
Customer satisfaction	13	26	14	28	17	34	16	32	15	30	16	32	17	34	18	36	18	36	19	38
Customer information no.	16	32	22	44	20	40	20	40	26	52	22	44	21	42	25	50	29	58	29	58
Market share	14	28	11	22	19	38	14	28	16	32	15	30	16	32	14	28	15	30	19	38
Business collaboration	14	28	13	26	13	26	15	30	19	38	18	36	14	28	16	32	18	36	20	40
Social activities	12	24	14	28	18	36	16	32	18	36	22	44	25	50	27	54	32	64	33	66
INTERNAL CAPITAL																				
Research project	13	26	14	28	10	20	11	22	14	28	14	28	14	28	15	30	17	34	18	36
Networking and information system	26	52	28	56	25	50	26	52	26	52	27	54	26	52	27	54	29	58	28	56
Organization structure	33	66	34	68	39	78	36	72	40	80	43	86	47	94	47	94	48	96	47	94
Corporate culture	11	22	10	20	14	28	12	24	14	28	17	34	15	30	18	36	20	40	21	42
Patent	8	16	10	20	10	20	10	20	13	26	16	32	15	30	15	30	11	22	12	24
Copyrights	4	8	4	8	4	8	5	10	5	10	7	14	7	14	6	12	6	12	6	12
Trademark	4	8	4	8	4	8	4	8	4	8	5	10	5	10	5	10	5	10	7	14
INTANGIBLE ASSETS SCORESHEET	26	52	26	52	26	52	28	56	40	80	48	96	48	96	48	96	48	96	46	92
MANDATORY DISCLOSURE REQUIREMENT																				
Details of amortization rate carrying amount at beginning and end of year	24	48	23	46	25	50	25	50	31	62	36	72	36	72	38	76	39	78	39	78
Classification of intangible assets	14	28	13	26	14	28	14	28	17	34	20	40	21	42	20	40	20	40	19	38
Amortizing of intangible assets more than 10 year	6	12	6	12	6	12	8	16	10	20	12	24	12	24	12	24	14	28	18	36
Intangible assets Valuation	14	28	12	24	12	24	15	30	23	46	39	78	41	82	43	86	43	86	45	90

The attribute wise disclosure for each category has been analysed in details in following:

HUMAN CAPITAL

Table 5.1 shows companies disclose the highest Employee number have a weight disclosure score attribute it has 68% in 2006-07 and 2007-08. However, it has reduced 64% in 2008-09 and 2009-10. It has reached 92% in 2014-15 and 88 % in 2015-16. Disclosure of Professional qualification and experience has 40 % and 72% in 2006-07. Beside it declined in 2007-08 to 2013-14 but in 2014-15 it achieves 38 and 70 and 40 and 72 in 2015-16. Disclosure of Training and development, work related knowledge have a closest to each other it is a 46, 42, 36 percentage in 2006-07 and 50, 50, 42 in 2009-10. These are get 72, 60 and 62 percentage in 2013-14 but these are little declined, it is 69, 62 and 46 % in 2015-16. These attributes are defined knowledge, qualification, experience and working skill of employees whose work under an origination.

EXTERNAL CAPITAL

In external capital companies disclosed social activities and distribution channel have most reported attributed its disclosure is 48, 24 %in 2006-07 and these have reached at 54 and 32 % in 2009-10. These are 50 and 58 % in 2012-13 and 62 and 66% in 2015-16 respectively. Customer satisfaction and number of customer information has disclosed by companies 26 and 32% in 2006-07 as well as these have achieved 30 and 32 % in 2010-11 and 38 and 52% in 2015-16 respectively. Brand valuation and market share disclosure is 26 and 28 % in 2006-07. Moreover, it has 28 and 38 % in 2008-09. Both have a same score in 2011-12 it is 30% after this year band valuation disclosure is miner increased as compared to market share. It is a 44 and 38% in 2015-16

INTERNAL CAPITAL

In internal capital organisation structure disclosure have been disclosed by information technology sector more disclosure variable for ten years it is disclosed 66 and 68% in 2006-07 and it has reached 80 and 86% in 2010-11. Moreover, it is also increased in 2014-15 and 2015-16 as a 96 and 94 %. Networking and information is a second most frequently disclosure variable. This is 52 and 56 2006-07 and 2007-08 respectively as well as same disclosed in 2010-11 and 2012-13 it is 52% and 2015-16 have a 56%. Patents, tread marks copy right have a 16, 8 and 8 % disclosure in 2006-07. Copyright and trademark have a same disclosure in 2006-07 to 2009-10. Patents are 24% in 2015-16. Copy right and trademark has a 12 and 14 % in year 2015-16.

5.2 INTANGIBLE ASSETS SCORE SHEET

Intangible Assets score sheet have a same disclosed in 2006-07 to 2008-09 it is a 52% and 56% in 2009-10. It discloses 96% in 2011-12 to 2014-15 and it is miner decline in 2015-16 its score is 92%

MANDATORY DISCLOSURE REQUIREMENT

As -26 required companies should provide the details of amortization rate method amount of starting and end of the year it is 48, 46, 50% in 2006-07, 2007-08 and 2008-09 respectively. Companies disclosed same disclosure in 2011-12 and 2012-13 it is 72%. In 2013-14 it is reached at 76 %. In year 2014-15 and 2015-16 also have same disclosure it is 78%. in India, Intangible Assets valuation is high awareness among corporate to disclosed the attribute this categories has received disclosure score 28, 29,24, 30 and 46 % in 2006-07 to 2010-11 and 2013-14, 2014-15 and 2015-16 have a 86, 86 and 90 % respectively. Classification of intangible assets has a 28 and 26% disclosure in 2006-07 and 2007-08   respectively 42 and 40 % in 2012-13 and 2013-14 and it reached 38% in 2015-16. Amortizing of Intangible Assets more than 10 year disclosure has a same disclosure in 2006-07 to 2008-09 it is a12% and 2011-12 to 2013-14 it has a 24 % 2009-10 and 2010-11 has a 16 and 20 %. At 2014-15 and 2015-16 have a 28 and 36% respectively.

TABLE 5.2 CORRELATION ANALYSIS BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC, OPERATING EFFICIENCY AND INTANGIBLE DISCLOSURE CATEGORIES

Variable	sales	Assets	average age	ROA	ROI	ROE	EPS	Tobin's q
human capital	.949**	.945**	.909**	-.943**	0.296	.867**	0.287	0.135
external capital	.977**	.978**	.953**	-.931**	0.404	.903**	0.442	-0.007
internal capital	.877**	.865**	.769**	-.844**	0.444	.894**	0.547	-0.014
Intangible assets score sheet	.968**	.959**	.895**	-.934**	0.425	.950**	0.506	-0.043
Mandatory disclosure requirement	.948**	.938**	.867**	-.907**	0.4	.948**	0.534	-0.03

**correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Human capital, external capital, internal capital and intangible assets score sheet and mandatory disclosure requirement have a positive relation with sales, assets average age ROE which is significant at 0.01 level while there is smaller and non-significant positive correlation between intangible assets categories and return on investment and earning per share. However intangible assets categories have a negative as well as significant at 0.01 level with return on assets. Moreover firm value have week but non-significant positive correlation with human capital beside it's have a non-significant negative correlation with external capital, internal capital and intangible assets score sheet and mandatory disclosure requirement

5.3 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

5.3.1 IMPACT OF DEMOGRAPHY AND OPERATING EFFICIENCY ON HUMAN CAPITAL

MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.989a	0.977	0.898	1.55283

a.   Predictors: (Constant), Tobin's q, sales, ROI, EPS, average age, ROE, ROA

ANOVAb

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	206.971	7	29.567	12.262	.077a
Residual	4.823	2	2.411		
Total	211.794	9			

a.   Predictors: (Constant), Tobin's q, sales, ROI, EPS, average age, ROE, ROA
b.   Dependent Variable: human capital

COEFFICIENTSa

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		standardized Coefficient	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	30.914	29.429		1.050	.404
Sale	.004	.004	1.955	.922	.454
Average age	-.409	.687	-.521	-.595	.612
ROA	2.378	2.942	1.013	.808	.504
ROI	.001	.001	.135	.752	.530
ROE	.016	.013	.876	1.166	.364
EPS	-1.423	.832	-.889	-1.711	.229
Tobin's q	.054	.153	.048	.351	.759

a.   Dependent variable human capital

EXCLUDED VARIABLES[b]

Model	Beta In	T	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
					Tolerance
1 Assets	-7.090[a]	-1.377	.400	-.809	.000

Table 5.3.1 shows that R square is 0.977 which means that 97.7% variation in the human capital is being explained by demographic and operating efficiency ratios. Result of regression coefficient value of sale is.004 which means that one unit change in sales than 0.4% variation happen in human capital. The t -statistical value is.922. Assets is an excluded variables the coefficient value assets is -7.090 means that negative change in dependent variable by change in assets and t-state value is.400 coefficient value of average age is -.409,which means that negative change in human capital and t-state value is -.595 coefficient value of Return on assets is 2.378, it is effect the positively human capital. The t -statistical value is.808. Return on investment coefficient value is.001 and t-state value is -.752 and coefficient value of Return on equity is.016 and t-state value is 1.166 human capital also have a positively changed by return on investment and return on equity and Earning per share coefficient value is -1.423 which means that negative variation occur in human capital and t-state value is -1.771. Tobin's q coefficient value is.054, one unit change in firm value than 54% variation in human capital and t-state value is.351 with p value >0.05.

5.3.2 IMPACT OF DEMOGRAPHY AND OPERATING EFFICIENCY ON EXTERNAL CAPITAL

MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.993a	0.987	0.941	1.32979

b.   Predictors: (Constant), Tobin's q, sales, ROI, EPS, average age, ROE, ROA

ANOVAb

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	266.720	7	38.103	2.547	.045a
Residual	3.537	2	1.768		
Total	270.256	9			

c.   Predictors: (Constant), Tobin's q, sales, ROI, EPS, average age, ROE, ROA
d.   Dependent Variable: external capital

COEFFICIENTSa

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		standardized Coefficient		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	58.370	25.202		2.316	.147
Sale	-.001	.004	-.588	-.366	.750
Average age	.816	.588	.921	1.387	.300
ROA	-3.333	2.519	-1.257	-1.323	.317
ROI	.000	.001	.051	.374	.744
ROE	-.016	.011	-.784	-1.377	.302
EPS	.821	.712	.454	1.153	.368
Tobin's q	-.074	.131	-.058	-.563	.630

e.   Dependent variable external capital

EXCLUDED VARIABLES[b]

Model	Beta In	T	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
					Tolerance
1 Assets	6.213a	2.645	.230	.935	000

a.   Dependent Variable: external capital

Table 5.3.2 shows that R square is 0.987 which means that 98.7% variation in external capital explained by operating efficiency, demographic variable. Regression coefficient between demographic ratios, operating efficiency ratios and external capital the coefficient value of sale is -.001 which means that - 0.1% in external capital has been explained by sales ratios. The t-statistical value is. -366. Assets is a excluded variables the coefficient value assets is 6.213 it is positive change external capital and t-state value is 2.645 coefficient value of average age is.821 it shows 82.1% variation in external capital and t-state value is 1.387 coefficient value of Return on assets is -3.3332 which has a negative impact on external capital. The t -statistical value is -1.323. Return on investment coefficient value is.000 it means that no change in external capital by change in Return on investment and t-state value is.374, it has explained 37.4% in dependent variable and coefficient value of Return on equity is -.016 means one unit change in Return on equity as well as external capital natively effected and t-state value is -1.377 and external capital is 82 % changed by Earning per share its coefficient value is.821 i and t-state value is 1.153. Moreover, Tobin's q coefficient value is -.074 it has a negative impact on the external capital and t-state value is -.563 with p value >0.05.

5.3.3 IMPACT OF DEMOGRAPHY AND OPERATING EFFICIENCY ON INTERNAL CAPITAL

MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.977a	0.955	0.799	9.44103

f.   Predictors: (Constant), Tobin's q, sales, ROI, EPS, average age, ROE, ROA

ANOVAb

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	3815.334	7	545.048	6.115	.148a
Residual	178.266	2	89.133		
Total	3993.600	9			

g.   Predictors: (Constant), Tobin's q, sales, ROI, EPS, average age, ROE, ROA
h.   Dependent Variable: internal capital

COEFFICIENTSᵃ

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		standardized Coefficient	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	118.950	178.923		.665	.575
Sale	4.112E-7	.027	.000	.000	1.000
Average age	-3.333	4.175	-.979	-.798	.508
ROA	-12.308	17.884	-1.208	-.688	.562
ROI	.006	.008	.183	.724	.544
ROE	.029	.081	.375	.356	.756
EPS	3.522	5.056	.507	.697	.558
Tobin's q	1.494	.933	.306	1.601	.251

i.   Dependent variable internal capital

EXCLUDED VARIABLESᵇ

Model	Beta In	T	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
					Tolerance
1 Assets	-11.634ᵃ	-2.988	.206	-.948	.000

a.   Dependent Variable: internal capital

Table 5.3.3 shows that value R square is 0.955 which means that 95.5% variation in operating efficiency, demographic and internal capital and the coefficient value of sale is 4.112E.4 it has positive impact on internal capital. The t-statistical value is .0. Assets is an excluded variable the coefficient value assets is -11.634 it has negative impact on internal capital and t-state value is .204 coefficient value of average age is -.333 it has 33.3% negative impact on internal capital and t-state value is -.798 coefficient value is of Return on assets is -12.308. it means that one unit change in Return on asset negatively variation in internal capital The t -statistical value is -.688. Return on investment coefficient value is .006 it has 6% variation in internal capital and t-state value is .724 and coefficient value of Return on equity is .026 which means that 26% variation in internal capital explained by return on equity and t-state value is .356 and Earning per share coefficient value is 3.522 and t-state value is .697. Tobin's q coefficient value is .494 and t-state value is 1.601 means EPS and firm value has a positive impact on internal capital with p value >0.05

5.3.4 IMPACT OF DEMOGRAPHY AND OPERATING EFFICIENCY ON INTANGIBLE ASSETS SCORE SHEET

MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.989a	0.978	0.902	1.35858

j.   Predictors: (Constant), Tobin's q, sales, ROI, EPS, average age, ROE, ROA

ANOVAb

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	166.114	7	23.731	12.857	.074ᵃ
Residual	3.691	2	1.846		
Total	169.806	9			

k.   Predictors: (Constant), Tobin's q, sales, ROI, EPS, average age, ROE, ROA
l.   Dependent Variable: Intangible Assets score sheet

COEFFICIENTSᵃ

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		standardized Coefficient	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	42.949	25.747		1.668	.237
Sale	.000	.004	-.213	-.103	.927
Average age	-.103	.601	-.147	-.172	.879
ROA	-1.819	2.574	-.865	-.707	.553
ROI	.001	.001	.137	.779	.517
ROE	.006	.012	.395	.539	.644
EPS	.221	.728	.154	.304	.790
Tobin's q	.083	.134	.082	.618	.599

m.   Dependent variable Intangible Assets score sheet

EXCLUDED VARIABLESᵇ

Model	Beta In	T	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
					Tolerance
1 Assets	-6.442ᵃ	-1.142	.458	-.752	.000

a.   Dependent Variable: Intangible Assets score sheet

Sources; author own work

Table 5.3.4 shows that R square is 0.978 which means that 97.8% variation in operating efficiency, demographic ratios and Intangible Assets score sheet the coefficient value of sale is 007. Means Intangible Assets score sheet 7% explained by sale. The t -statistical value is -.103. However, assets are an excluded variable the coefficient value assets are -6.442 it has negative impact on dependent variable and t-state value is -1.142 and coefficient value of average age is -.103 and t-state value is -.172 which means that 17.2% negative impact on Intangible Assets score sheet as well as return on assets also explained negative impact on dependent variable its coefficient value is -1.819. The t -statistical value is -.707. Return on investment coefficient value is .001 and t-state value is .779 and coefficient value of Return on equity is .006 and t-state value is .539 and Earning per share coefficient value is .221 and t-state value is .304. Tobin's q coefficient value is .083 and t-state value is .618 ROI, ROE EPS and firm value also explained positive impact on intangible assets score sheet it has a 1%, 6%,22.3% and 30.4% respectively with p value >0.05

5.3.5 IMPACT OF DEMOGRAPHY AND OPERATING EFFICIENCY ON MANDATORY DISCLOSURE REQUIREMENT

MODEL SUMMARY

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.982a	0.964	0.839	5.5983

n.   Predictors: (Constant), Tobin's q, sales, ROI, EPS, average age, ROE, ROA

ANOVAb

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	1692.218	7	241.745	7.713	.120a
Residual	62.682	2	31.341		
Total	1754.900	9			

o. Predictors: (Constant), Tobin's q, sales, ROI, EPS, average age, ROE, ROA

COEFFICIENTSa

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		standardized Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	42.289	106.097		.399	.729
Sale	.002	.016	.262	.099	.930
Average age	-1.190	2.476	-.527	-.481	.678
ROA	-4.083	10.605	-.604	-.385	.737
ROI	.001	.005	.046	.204	.857
ROE	.027	.048	.533	.566	.628
EPS	.905	2.998	.197	.302	.791
Tobin's q	.476	.553	.147	.860	.480

p. Dependent variable human capital

EXCLUDED VARIABLESb

Model	Beta In	T	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
					Tolerance
1 Assets	-10.933a	-11.583	.055	-.996	.000

Table 5.3.5 shows that value of R square is 0.964 which means that 96.4% variation in operating efficiency, demographic ratios and Mandatory disclosure requirement. The coefficient value of sale is.002 means 2% Mandatory disclosure requirement explained by sale the t -statistical value is -.009. Assets is an excluded variables the coefficient value assets is -10.933 assets has a negative impact on dependent variable and t-state value is -11.583 coefficient value of average age is -1.190 and t-state value is -.481 coefficient value is of Return on assets is -4.803. Which mean that one unit has change in average age and Return on assets as well as Mandatory disclosure requirement also have a negative variation. The t -statistical vale is -385. Return on investment coefficient value is.001 and t-state value is.204 and coefficient value of Return on equity is.027 and t-state value is.566 and Earning per share coefficient value is.905 and t-state value is.302. Tobin's q coefficient value is.479 and t-state value is.860 which means that positively variation in Mandatory disclosure requirement due to one unit change in Return on investment (1%), Return on equity (27%). Earnings per share (90.5%) and firm value (47.9%) respectively with p value >0.05

CONCLUSION

- Intangible Assets score sheets is a more disclosure categories for ten year 2006-07 to 2015-16.out of five categories
- Attributes wise disclosure in five categories number of employee (human capital) more reported. Distributed channel (external capital), organisation structure (internal capital) and Intangible Assets valuation, details of amortization method and carrying amount at beginning and end of the period (mandatory disclosure requirement)
- Intangible Assets disclosure categories have a positive correlation with demography variables (sales, assets and average age), profitability ratios (ROI, ROE and EPS) and ROI and Tobin's q have a negative correlation only human capital have a positive correlation with firm value (Tobin's q)
- Demography variable have a positive correlation with firm value and profitability ratios (ROI, ROE and EPS) and ROA has a negative correlation.

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INFLUENCE OF MONITORING AND EVALUATION PRACTICES ON PROJECT PERFORMANCE IN COUNTIES: THE CASE OF MOMBASA COUNTY, KENYA

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ABSTRACT

Projects are great ways to take up strategic business changes. However, projects have not performed as well as expected probably due to deficiencies in monitoring and evaluation. Monitoring and evaluation are vital components of project success as they imply overseeing the process of implementation and at the same time judging the worth of the project. The purpose of this study therefore was to investigate the influence of monitoring and evaluation practices on project performance in counties, with special reference to Mombasa County Kenya. More importantly, given that devolution in Kenya was meant to improve service delivery at the county level through the implementation of projects, a review of literature reveals deficiencies in studies on monitoring and evaluation practices on the performance of projects in counties in Kenya. These study was based on four objectives; to establish the influence of stakeholder participation on project performance, to examine the influence of capacity building on project performance, to determine the influence of budgetary allocation on project performance and to examine the moderating influence of politics on the relationship between monitoring and evaluation practices and project performance. The theoretical foundation of this study was based on the Participatory theory, theory of change and Resource Based View. Empirical literature was carried out sequentially as per the study objectives. A descriptive study design was employed using a sample of 271 respondents. The questionnaire was the main data collection tool and was based on a five point Likert scale items. The tool had an acceptable reliability coefficient of 0.69. Data analysis was done by statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 22. The findings revealed that there were significant and positive associations between stakeholder participation and project performance, between capacity building and project performance and between budgetary allocation and project performance. Politics was also seen to have a moderating effect on the relationship. However, the relationships were weak indicating that there were other factors affecting project performance. The conclusion therefore, is that stakeholders need to be involved, capacity building done and adequate funding is provided for projects. The study however recommends for further exploration of other factors associated with project performance since there is evidence of other variables interfering with the association between the independent and dependent variables.

KEYWORDS
stakeholder participation, capacity building, budgetary allocation, project performance, monitoring and evaluation, politics.

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS
M & E   : Monitoring and Evaluation
P M & E   : Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation
RBV   : Resource Based View
NIMES   : National Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation System
PETS   : Public Expenditure Tracking Surveys

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY
Project practitioners recognise that projects are the best way to take up business changes (Turner, 2009). Accordingly, business success worldwide is pegged upon success in projects. According to Buttrick (1997), projects are carried out with an aim of supporting the effecting of business strategies. Consequently, for organisations to have any success, they need to make sure that their projects do first succeed. This means therefore that there is increased pressure from stakeholders including governments, the public and the private sector among other stakeholders for good project governance, accountability in project work and transparency in how the project is undertaken. There is supposed therefore to be greater developments in effectiveness and delivery of greater results from project work (Porter & Goldman, 2013). This calls for improvements in undertaking monitoring and evaluation practices in projects.

The activity of monitoring is concerned with regularly having a check of whether or not an intervention is rolling on as planned while evaluation is concerned with establishing the worth of an intervention (Kusek & Rist, 2010). Both monitoring and evaluation (M & E) practices are therefore powerful tools for public management that would be used to give useful feedback required to improve how governments and organizations realize outcomes. According to the International Federation of the Red Cross (IFRC) (2011), the activities of M & E do offer significant support to project implementation via providing the requisite details for making decisions, organizational learning and sharing of knowledge. M & E on national projects further provide the needed feedback to the economy for economic development and policy interventions (Mugo & Oleche, 2015).

After perceiving the major role that M & E plays in national economies, nations came up with agencies that were devoted to M & E. According to Lopez, Rivera, Lycia and Hwang (2010), South Africa and Colombia among others have reinforced their regulatory structures to expect regular scrutiny and assessment to ensure public dissemination of information. The nations of Spain, Chile, New Zealand, Australia and India are examples of countries that have adopted inventive M & E tools in order to strengthen the budgeting and planning of their activities. According to Lopez, et al. (2010), and Mackay (2007) Chile's story is worth being classified a success story. Chile carries out a broad and comprehensive government M & E system aspects. The country embarks on an ex ante cost-benefit analysis in all their public projects, gathers performance indicators in all public projects, and carries out a comprehensive management reporting annually for public disclosure purposes. Chile carries a meticulous impact evaluation as well as a public spending review. Colombia, the other success story, employs quite a big number of various indicators, takes hard measures on flops and posts all accountability. In Australia, a formal evaluation planning essentially lists all major government programs that the ministry intends to evaluate on an annual basis. The relevant ministry must involve that of finance in these activities. Each programme is required to be evaluated at least once in a span of 5 years. In addition, in Australia, each ministry's project objectives are reviewed jointly by both ministry and treasury. According to Lopez, et al., (2010) Uganda is a success story too in M & E in Africa. Uganda has had a number of M & E successful systems and initiatives. A case in point is the 1990s programme known as Public Expenditure Tracking Surveys (PETS). In partnership with the World Bank then, Uganda created the PETS program in 1990s as a vehicle to track the proportion of funding flowing from the central government down to basic schooling institutions. A survey conducted on the programme had earlier established that just a paltry 13 percent of the central government money did in actual fact trickle down to primary schools and that 20 percent of the teachers' salaries were unaccounted for. The stakeholders then mounted so much pressure that the government had to eventually take action. All

the survey findings on the public funds and expenditure were made public as a way of being accountable. This action seemed to bear fruit as the two follow-up PETS found that now lesser funding could not be accounted for. Additionally, there was an improvement in the flow of the nonwage funds by a massive 90 percent. Lopez et al., (2010) conclude that PETS helped increase the amount of funds reaching primary schools by a significant margin. Use of M & E in Uganda therefore demonstrated that managers of funds were held accountable as there was significant improvement in both funds absorption and utilization.

Apart from Uganda, Kenya has also been extensively involved in M & E. History indicates that Kenya has had some form of M & E since 1980s in its projects and programmes. As observed by Mugo and Oleche, (2015) the District Focus for Rural Development (DFRD) of 1983 was created in such a manner that beneficiaries would be able to monitor the funding and the activities the fund was meant for. Recently, Kenya has made M & E a crucial performance management tool that aims at trimming down economic risks and uncertainties. As the case was in Uganda, the M & E activity has been undertaken to track various government pro-grammes and projects. M & E is widely employed on projects in Kenya (Mugo & Oleche, 2015). For example, the National Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation System (NIMES) was created in 2004 and was tasked with a responsibility of tracking policy, programme and project implementation during the Economic Recovery Strategy period ending 2007 (Andersson et al, 2014). The NIMES system was further used to track the performance of Medium-Term Plans (MTPs) of the Kenya Vision 2030, Kenya's economic blueprint. Though it was not yet at its maturity, according to Anderson et al., (2014), NIMES was expected to focus on providing information to policy makers so that the policy makers would be able to make informed decisions. Kenya has also lately placed M & E across all government and department functions in various forms including in the office of the Controller of Budget and the office of the Auditor-General who are supposed to evaluate the governmental on the use of budgetary resources.

For M & E to have any effect on performance of projects a few key components must be incorporated in it. The theory of stakeholder participation holds that that stakeholder participation is vital and therefore has a positive relationship with project performance and must therefore be incorporated in any M & E system (UNDP, 2009). Stakeholder participation is realized where stakeholders share in the process, share in the control measures as well as share in the corrective measure being employed. Equally, the Resource Based View (RBV) holds that resources, in this case, budgetary allocation, affect project performance (Jurevicius, 2013). The resources need to be adequate, relevant and timely. The RBV also hold for capacity building as factors affecting M & E of programmes since this is a resource. Training the stakeholders may be done on the job or in some workshop somewhere outside the organization. Policy issues and political challenges are assumed to have a moderating effect on M & E and therefore success of the project. Transparency and institutional guidelines are viewed in some quotas as a major factor in project implementation (IFRC, 2011).

Stakeholder participation is a key element in success of M & E. The Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMI) define stakeholders in a project as the individuals or institutions that are, in one way or the other, involved in the project, whose needs are indispensable and therefore may be affected by the project (PMI, 2010). Stakeholder participation is therefore considered a vital component of success in projects and project management. Indeed various bodies of knowledge on project management such as Project Management Body of Knowledge (2010) and the Association of Project Managers of Australia (2013) have accorded it considerable attention in space in their bodies of knowledge. Several researchers such as Theyel and Hofmann (2012) and Martinez and Olander (2015) have viewed stakeholder participation in terms of involvement of all interested parties that leads to improved project performance. Participatory monitoring and evaluation (PM&E) can be viewed as the practice of bringing together the key and interested parties to engage in monitoring and evaluating a particular initiative.

The value of stakeholder participation cannot therefore be gainsaid. M & E provides information for policy decision making (UNDP, 2009). Mwangi et al., (2015) carried out a study on the effectiveness of M & E and established that stakeholder participation had a positive and significant contribution to M & E. Participation involves using stakeholders at the various levels engaged in monitoring and evaluating interventions through sharing control over content, sharing the activity as well as the results of the M&E activity and further engaging in identifying and taking up corrective actions. Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation is geared on the active engagement of key stakeholders. However, Mugo and Oleche (2015) on another study on the impact of monitoring and evaluation of developments projects on economic growth in Kenya held that stakeholder participation surprisingly had a negative effect on M & E performance.

Apart from stakeholder participation, capacity building is necessary because M & E can only be done effectively by trained personnel. Of guidance to training are answers to questions such as the existence or non-existence of experts and how their expertise matches with the needs, M & E support from the organization implementing the project/programme, and any experience from the target beneficiary. M & E training has a strong and positive relationship with M & E (Wanjiru, 2013). According to IFRC, (2011) before any M & E can take place, it is of necessity to build the capacity of the participants after identifying the requisite M & E needs. Capacity building may be informal or formal. Informal training may include on-the-job guidance and supervision, mentorship in various activities, giving comments on reports or guidance on how to use data management tools. Formal training on the other hand may include taking up course work and workshops on project/programme design, M & E planning, collection of data and its management, analysis and reporting, etc. specific needs and audience. According to Mackay, (2007) a highly trained M & E staff is a necessity for effective M & E activity.

All M & E researchers and practitioners are in agreement that the activity, just like any other, needs adequate funding. According to UNDP, (2002) budgeting and therefore funding for M & E depends upon the complexity of the project and the outcome to be evaluated coupled with the purpose of the exercise. M&E budgetary allocation is defined as the amount of money to be spent on the M&E functions in a specific project (Mugo & Oleche, 2015). It is expected that an increase in the amount allocated would positively affect M & E of projects and vice versa.

Political influence, construed to imply either support for the undertaking from the top organizational echelon or its lack of support or active opposition has had varying effects. Conflicting findings have been established by researches on the effect of politics on projects. For example Mugo and Oleche (2015) found an insignificant effect while Mwangi et al., (2015) indicated a significant effect. This may be interpreted to mean that politicians may support or interfere or even be aloof towards a project depending on their "political maximisation" position.

Generally, timely monitoring and evaluation practices are vital in an economy. M & E is expected to offer reliable information that can guide in managerial decision making, it adds to knowledge sharing in form of shared experiences and uphold accountability and transparency besides allowing stakeholder feedback. For ex-ample, M & E in form of NIMES was used to track the implementation of Vision 2030 in Kenya and give suggestions on how to improve the same. Monitoring and evaluation in Kenya has been used to unearth many dubious practices within government functionaries. Therefore project performance may be indicated by acceptability of the project deliverables, timely completion, completion within budget and right quality.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The essence of having projects is to ensure that they lead to changes through performing as expected. M & E is intended to aid in improving project performance across board by tracking the entire project process and giving vital information needed to make vital adjustments. M & E is made up of standard practices such as stakeholder involvement, personnel capacity building and the availing adequate budgetary allocation.

However, despite the national government allocating between 25 to 35 percent of its annual budget to county governments, county governments have not im-plemented projects as expected. It is important to note that M & E in projects is important given the resources that have been channelled by the national govern-ment and donors. Best practices require that projects are closely monitored not only for control but also for transparency, accountability for resource use and impact, good project performance and organizational learning to benefit future projects. County governments invest billions of shillings annually in a number of projects in various sectors. However, most of these projects experience performance challenges in terms of implementation and completion, thereby leading to wastage due to ineffective M & E.

Studies and theory indicate that stakeholder participation, capacity building and adequate budgeting are factors that contribute to improved project performance. However, there are a few contradictions with some studies indicating a situation where well recognized approaches such as stakeholder involvement are either subtly contributory to success or plainly counter-productive. Mugo and Oleche (2015), contrary to theory and other findings, established that stakeholder partici-pation in projects M & E significantly contributed to failure of monitoring and evaluation. Some other researchers have also contradicted each other, in some cases saying that political influence is positively related to M & E while others say the reverse. By remaining in this state of affairs M & E is weakened by lack of clarity due to this contradiction between theory and practice. Therefore, the essence of this study was to establish the influence of monitoring and evaluation practices on county project works.

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1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of M & E practices on project performance in counties; the case of Mombasa County, Kenya.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study was based on the following objectives;
1. To establish the influence of stakeholder participation on project performance, in Mombasa County.
2. To examine the influence of capacity building on project performance, in Mombasa County.
3. To determine the influence of budgetary allocation on project performance, in Mombasa County.
4. To establish the moderating influence of politics on the relationship between monitoring and evaluation practices and project performance in Mombasa County.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study answered the following questions;
1. To what extent does stakeholder participation influence project performance, in Mombasa County?
2. To what extent does capacity building influence project performance, in Mombasa County?
3. To what extent does budgetary allocation influence project performance, in Mombasa County?
4. To what extent does politics influence the relationship between monitoring and evaluation practices and project performance in Mombasa County?

1.6 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The study also tested the following hypothesis at 95% level of significance.

i. H_0; There is no association between stakeholder participation and project performance in Mombasa County.
H_1; There is a significant relationship between stakeholder participation and project performance in Mombasa County.

ii. H_0; There is no association between capacity building and project performance in Mombasa County.
H_1; There is a significant relationship between capacity building and project performance in Mombasa County.

iii. H_0; There is no association between budgetary allocation and project performance in Mombasa County.
H_1; There is a significant relationship between budgetary allocation and project performance in Mombasa County.

iv. H_0; There is no significant relationship between politics and project performance in Mombasa County
H_1; There is a significant relationship between politics and project performance in Mombasa County.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study may be of benefit to the national government, County governments including the County government of Mombasa as well as any other organization undertaking projects. They may employ the recommendations that are given in this study so as to improve their project performance. Key stakeholder may also gain understanding of their role in projects performance. Finally, the study shall serve as a source of knowledge to academicians and practitioners alike by way of expanding the current knowledge on monitoring and evaluation practices.

1.8 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As with the case in social studies, this study had delimitations. The sample used was of 187 respondents who were scientifically selected from the population of study. The study covered projects carried out by the county government of Mombasa County only and took about 3 months to complete. It relied on cross sectional data collection and as such it did not capture all aspects throughout the growth of the project. The study had only three research variables; stakeholder participation, capacity building and budgetary allocation.

1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study depended on self-reporting from the managers of the projects and as such some bias would have been encountered. Bias due to self-reporting was mitigated by debriefing the respondents on the use of the information. There was also the problem of having inadequate secondary data as several county projects were in their infancy and that county governments were still setting up shop as devolution was barely 5 years old.

1.10 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was based on the assumption that the county government of Mombasa employs M & E practices to monitor project performance. Another key assumption was that the study variables i.e. stakeholder participation, capacity building and budgetary allocation significantly influence project performance in Mombasa County.

1.11 DEFINITION OF SIGNIFICANT TERMS

The following are the significant terms as used in this study.
Project Performance - A measure of how project success in terms of completing the project within schedule, cost and quality and satisfying the client is attained. It is also about delivering benefits that are sustainable.
M & E Practices – The ordinarily accepted and employed ways or methodologies of monitoring and evaluating project activities.
Stakeholder Participation – Whereby stakeholders are actively influencing the decision-making process through their input.
Capacity Building – The entire process of establishing the M & E needs, determining the extent of local participation and the need for expertise and improving the skills of the stakeholders.
Budgetary Allocation – The amount of funding that is set aside for an activity. In this study it is the amount of funds allocated for specific projects.

1.12 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

This research project is organized into five chapters. Chapter one provides an introduction to the study. This covers the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, research hypotheses, significance of the study, both the delimitations and limitations of the study, assumptions of the study and a definition of significant terms. Chapter two covers empirical and theoretical literature on the influences of M & E practices on project performance. Also included here is the conceptualization of the study in a framework and the research gaps that informed the study. Chapter three covers the research methodology used in the study. It includes research design, target population and sample size and data collection instruments. The chapter further captures the data collection procedure and data analysis, ethical considerations and the operational definition of variables. Chapter four covers the presentation of findings, their analysis and interpretation. Chapter five is a summary of the findings, discussions and conclusions. Further, the last chapter gives recommendations as per the study findings and also gives suggestions for further studies.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses relevant literature on the study. Both empirical and theoretical literature is analysed. Several theories exist that attempt to explain the relationship between M & E practices and project performance, these include, Participatory Theory, the Theory of Change and the Resource Based View (RBV). The empirical literature reviews literature on the relationship of M & E practices and project performance. The practices reviewed are stakeholder participation, capacity building, budget allocation and political influence. A summary of the literature reviewed has also been done so as to highlight the gaps that were filled by the specific study.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF COUNTY GOVERNMENTS

The 2010 devolved governance system Kenya resulted in County Governments assuming a considerable contribution on development matters, service delivery to the public and financial accountability responsibilities. This required M & E to be institutionalised at these county levels in order to make possible the monitoring of programmes at that level. According to the Kenya Law Reports (2012), the Kenyan constitution promulgated in 2010, was aimed at putting development in the hands of the people. Development decisions were now expected to be in the hands of the local people as opposed to the earlier case where it was centralized by the national government. The constitution envisaged devolved units which played important roles in national development. County governments, the centres of devolution were expected to among other functions, allow the local communities to take care of their own affairs especially in terms of development, uphold the socio economic development of the people and ensure a fairer sharing of resources. These major undertakings would be in form of projects. These projects needed to be monitored so as to establish whether or not they are attaining what they were meant to and if or not, they are worth the resources. Measures are also supposed to be taken to ensure that the projects are contributing towards the vision of the constitution in devolving development.

A major principle of devolution was the aspect of empowering the locals, including the minorities and the marginalized. These parties were supposed to be stakeholders in county projects by way of enhancing their participation in project activities in those counties.

2.3 THE CONCEPT OF MONITORING AND EVALUATION

In the life of any project, monitoring and evaluation are important parts and parcels. Monitoring is the continuous or regular assessment to check if activities are as planned. The assessment is also reflective and participatory (UNDP, 2010). Evaluation, on the other hand is an examination of an activity which is episodic (IFRC, 2011). Monitoring and evaluation are vital because they help be accountable to stakeholders, identify problems to projects and correct them.

IFRC, (2011) highlights the value of monitoring and evaluation. It gives support to projects by availing reliable and valid data for appropriate decision making, it contributes to sharing of knowledge through reflecting on the experiences gained. M & E is useful in ensuring compliance to set standards, and also ensures that donor requirements are adhered to. It avails opportunities for stakeholders to give their feelings and complaints in form of feedback. M & E allow people to celebrate their achievements useful for building team morale. Generally, the value of monitoring and evaluation may be compared as in the table 2.1.

TABLE 2.1: VALUE OF MONITORING AND EVALUATION

	Monitoring	Evaluation
Why?/Purpose	Done to check that project activities are being implemented as planned	Done to check if the project objectives are being attained
Type of indicator	Focus on quantitative and ease to measure outputs	Focus; qualitative objectives
Use of Results	To improve quality of implementation and adjust planning	The result are used to judge the impact and amend objectives

Source: Kusek & Rist (2010)

2.4 THE CONCEPT OF PROJECT PERFORMANCE

A review of literature indicates that project performance is multifaceted a concept. Project practitioners and researchers have viewed it from different dimensions depending on one's interest. According to Kariuki (2015), some studies view project performance as synonymous with project success; completing the project within schedule, cost and quality and satisfying the client. Serra and Kunc, (2014) and Jenner (2012) contend that project performance may also be viewed in terms of equality. They concur with that project performance may be measured by attainment of the constraints of time, budget and quality and also delivering benefits but also by delivering that which is sustainable and acceptable to the client.

2.4.1 STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE

Martinez and Olander (2015) concur that there are varied meanings of participation and that the benefits of participation in a project are numerous. Participation is a democratic way of working, it leads to improvements in decision-making and also re-establishes credibility of the entire process. Participation therefore is a key factor in project performance. Martinez and Olander (2015) reviewed literature on two case studies of a property development project. They concluded that sustainable property development was possible through among other factors, participation of the stakeholders which was found necessary as it provided for a dialogue and interactions. The findings were, however, based on just two cases therefore making it difficult to generalize. Additionally, though the study was based on participation, it does not focus on M & E as the key variable.

Nyandika and Ngugi (2014) conducted an investigation on the influence that stakeholders' participation has in the performance of road projects in Kenya National Highways Authority. The study used a descriptive research design targeting a population of 251, prequalified contractors and top management. A stratified random sampling was used to come up with 30% of the target population. An analysis was done by multiple regressions. The results were that stakeholder participation through various forums had a positive relationship to project performance. IT skills were found to have a positive effect. Top management support was found critical in project performance and financial resources were found to be relevant.

Ibanga, Valentine, Shukla and Eugene (2016) specifically focussed on the influence of beneficiary participation in project monitoring and evaluation on project success. The study employed a case study with main objectives of identifying the types of inputs provided by the M & E beneficiaries during monitoring and evaluation process, establish the stages where beneficiaries are involved in the process and the methodology used. Karl -Pearson product-moment correlation was used to estimate the relationships between the variables. The findings were that the beneficiary participation contributed positively to the dimensions of project success; timely completion, attainment of project goals, sustainability and relevance.

The research by Mugo and Oleche (2015) focussed on establishing the impact of monitoring and evaluation of developments projects on economic growth in Kenya. The M & E practices that were under investigation included stakeholder involvement. After employing a Binary Probit Model to estimate the effect of the independent variables on status of the projects (Economic Growth) the study found that stakeholder involvement had a negative and significant influence on the projects. Stakeholder involvement, contrary to theory and other empirical results was found to interfere with performance of the project. This result however, contradicted theory. Probably, according to the study, the participants may have been given free will and unguided participation. Additionally, the measure of the dependent variable only considered two states of M & E implementation; presence or absence therefore did not account for the levels of participation in the continuum. The findings therefore may not be accurate.

2.4.2 CAPACITY BUILDING AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE

Other than stakeholder participation, capacity building is deemed necessary for any project activity to successfully take place. Capacity building is essentially involved with improving the available skills of all stakeholders (IFRC, 2011). Such a process may be informal whereby it is done through on-the-job experience or formal whereby an organized training program is carried out officially probably in some other location.

Wachamba (2013) did a study on the determinants of the effectiveness of NGO M&E systems within Nairobi County, Kenya. The objectives included to establish M & E training among other factors, influenced the effectiveness of the M&E system. A population of 8,503 was taken from 200 Nairobi-based NGOs which had successfully implemented projects and were in the process of evaluating them. Sampling was done by stratified random sampling method. Data was analysed by correlation coefficient and multivariate regression analysis. Among other results, training in M&E aspects was found to be fundamentally contributing to improving both the quality and quantity of the M&E personnel. The main drawback of this study was that it relied on self-reporting which is prone to bias.

Mugambi and Kanda (2013) equally made contributions in the field of M & E by exposing the main determinants of success in projects. They focussed on the determinants of M & E of donor funded and government community projects. They engaged in extensive desk research of refereed journal and other relevant

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papers on monitoring and evaluation so as to extract the determinants of M& E. More specifically the study cantered on donor funded public projects. The study then concluded that empowering the M & E team, allocating adequate finances, conducting field visits to validate results and communicating results aided in project success. The main weakness of this study is that it relied on secondary data and had no validation in the field whatsoever. The study further failed to explain its methodology clearly in terms of the number of materials that were analysed.

Mugo and Oleche (2015) carried out a study on what impacts monitoring and evaluation of projects. Capacity building on the personnel on M & E was considered as one of the independent variables and was measured in terms of the duration taken to train the participants. Training was about improving skills of the participants. M & E implementation status was taken as the dependent variable. Mugo and Oleche (2015) used a model known as Binary Probit for data analysis were the dependent variable was assigned a value of 1 if the M & E was implemented and 0 if it was not. The findings of the study were that there is a significantly positive relationship between capacity building of participants and M & E implementation. The chances of successfully implementing the program increased with an increase in the duration of training. In fact an extra duration of capacity building increased M & E success by 1.4 per cent all other factors constant. However, the measure of the dependent variable only considered two states of M & E implementation; presence or absence therefore did not account for the levels of participation in the continuum.

2.4.3 BUDGETARY ALLOCATION AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE

Finally, adequate budgetary allocation is also deemed to be an essential ingredient to successful performance of monitoring and evaluation. According to the IFRC (2011) adequate funding is very relevant for an M & E exercise. IFRC (2011) recommends an industry standard of 3 up to 10 per cent of a project budget being set aside for M&E. Generally, the budgetary allocation must not be so meagre that it compromises the rigour of the results, but neither should it divert project resources to the extent that execution is impaired. All literature reviewed is of the view that adequate budgetary allocation is needed for an M & E exercise to succeed. Mwangi et al., (2014) established that budgetary allocation was a significant contributor to project success. An increase in one unit of budgetary allocation towards monitoring and evaluation explained about a quarter of the increase in effectiveness of the monitoring and evaluation programs for CDF projects in the constituency. Mugo and Oleche (2015) established that of all factors, budgetary allocation played a key role in project success. Their study on the impact of M & E on projects using the Probit Model found that budgetary allocation was very significant to the undertaking because it had large robust coefficient of 0.656939 at a Z statistic of 4.92, and also a high marginal effect of 0.1312997 at a Z statistic of 5.44. Mugo and Oleche (2015) concluded that a budget for monitoring and evaluation of activities was a positively significant determinant of M&E implementation in projects. The implication is that an increase in the amount of budget allocation to M & E in project is highly likely to improve on the likelihood of monitoring and evaluation execution significantly by up to 13.13 per cent if other variables were held constant.

2.4.4 POLITICS AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE

Building a monitoring and evaluation system is likely to have a contingent effect on the independent variable – dependent variable relationship. This is because projects are political in nature and therefore the role of politics in the effectiveness of monitoring and evaluation in projects cannot be gainsaid (Mugo & Oleche, 2015; Mwangi et al., 2015). Mwangi et al (2015) did a study on the effectiveness of monitoring and evaluation of CDF projects. Among the factors under study was political strength. Data was analysed descriptively and inferentially using tools of mean and multiple regressions. The study findings were that politics do influence the monitoring and evaluation of projects. However, in a study to establish the effect of monitoring and evaluation on projects, Mugo and Oleche (2015) found contrasting results. The study established that politics had an insignificant influence on monitoring and evaluation implementation in projects. There is therefore the need to establish the effect of politics as a moderating variable.

2.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A rigorous study is based on sound theory that explains how concepts, constructs and propositions are related (Coopers & Schindler, 2014). This study is therefore based on some relevant theories including the participatory theory, Change theory and RBV theory.

2.5.1 PARTICIPATORY THEORY

This theory seeks to explain the contribution of participation on the end results. The participatory theory is an approach to development that has received quite impressive attention from development researchers and development agencies. The participatory theory may have been conceptualized by Mahatma Gandhi's in his struggles for community inclusion in the development of their social life. However, the modern participatory theory emerged as a critique of the traditional top down development practices which are usually Eurocentric, has been propounded by Chambers.

According to the theory, participatory development has grown and currently most development agencies take participation of the beneficiary as mandatory in development projects. This is because participation is quite often regarded as a vital component to development projects where participation improves effectiveness and efficiency (Nelson & Wright, 1995). The activities of information sharing, contributing labour and other community resources leads to local ownership and promotion of self-reliance. Participation as an end in itself may increase confidence of the local citizenry and empower them. In addition, the use of local knowledge may aide in clarifying needs, enhancing solutions, reducing the chances of misunderstandings, increase people's commitment hence improve the likelihood of sustainability and success of the project. Participation in M & E, according to this theory therefore empowers the stakeholders and eventually leads to the desired outcomes.

2.5.2 THEORY OF CHANGE

According to Stein and Valters, (2012) the theory of change emerged in the 1990s as an enhancement of the then evaluation theory. This theory is considered a tool for creating solutions to complex social problems. The uniqueness of the theory is in distinguishing between desired and actual outcomes (Brest, 2010). It requires stakeholders to model their desired outcomes before they decide on the forms of intervention that are needed in order to achieve the outcomes. Modelling is what turns out to be capacity building so that the stakeholders may be able to decide the interventionist mechanism.

From this theory therefore, there must training to stakeholders for change to take place. In this research, the researcher argues that the right atmosphere in form of capacity building must be created for the expected change to take place; the right practices for M & E must be adopted in order for projects to succeed.

2.5.3 RESOURCE BASED VIEW

This theory basically explains the role of adequate budgeting to funding as task. It essentially spells out the fact that for success in any task, the right amount of funding need to be allocated. The theoretical basis of RBV dates back to 1950's Penrose's view of an organization as a pool of resources. The RBV consider the resources of a firm as being essential determinants of the firm's competitive advantage and performance. The Resource Based View (RBV) was more clearly explored in 1980s and 1990s after very important studies by Wernerfelt (1984), Prahalad, Hamel and Barney (1991) among others. The theory posits that organizations need to consider the internal strengths of the organization. A resource is a valuable asset that may include capital and may also be considered an internal strength.

According to Jurevicious (2013) and Rothaermel (2012) resources would help organizations to increase the value offered to the customers thereby increase performance. An organization with valuable resource can achieve at least temporary competitive advantage. RBV theory implies that with the application of the right resources, in this case funding M & E, would most likely positively impact on project success.

2.6 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This study is based on M & E practices and literature reviewed.

FIGURE 2.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
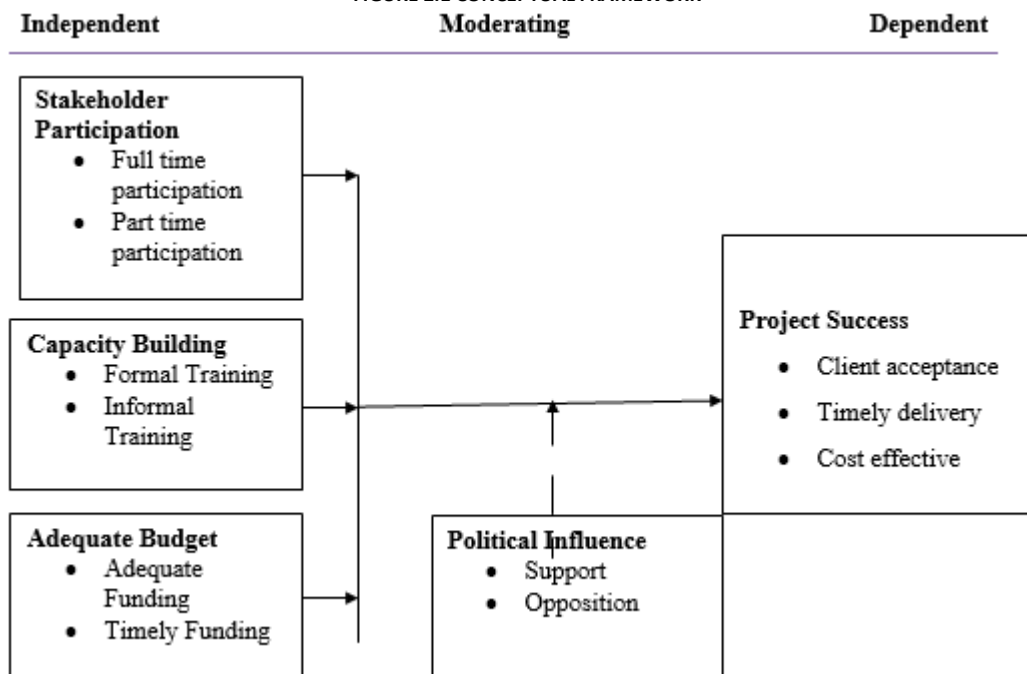
The dependent variable in this study is project performance measured in terms of project acceptance, project timeliness and budget. The independent variables are stakeholder participation measured in terms of comprehensive as well as partial participation where either the stakeholders are involved throughout the project or intermittently as the case may dictate. Capacity building is indicated by both formal and informal trainings as concerns the project. Budgeting is measured by the amount of funding received and the timeliness of the funds.

2.7 RESEARCH GAPS

Literature review came up with the research gaps as summarized in table 2.1.

TABLE 2.2. RESEARCH GAPS

Variable	Author	Title of Study	Findings	Gap
Stakeholder participation (Independent Variable)	Martinez and Olander (2015)	Stakeholder Involvement for Sustainable Property Development	Stakeholder participation contributes to project success	Though the study was based on participation, it does not focus on M & E
Stakeholder participation (Independent Variable)	Ibanga, Valentine, Shukla & Eugene (2016)	Influence of beneficiary in M & E on project success	Stakeholder participation was positively related to project performance	Findings not generalizable as they are based on one case only
Stakeholder participation (Independent Variable)	Mugo & Oleche (2015)	Impact of M & E on economic growth	Stakeholder participation negatively influenced project performance	Finding contradicts theory
Capacity Building (Independent Variable)	Wachamba (2013)	Effectiveness of NGO M & E Systems in Nairobi	Training improved project M & E performance	Report not generalizable as its based on self reporting
Capacity Building (Independent Variable)	Mugambi & Kanda (2013)	Determinants of M & E Donor Funded and Community Projects	Capacity building is positively related to project performance	Study lacks empiricism
Budgetary Allocation (Independent Variable)	Mwangi et al (2014)	Effectiveness of M & E programs for CDF	Adequate budget contribute to project performance	Relied on self reporting Unsuitable analysis

2.8 SUMMARY

The chapter captured the key theories including participatory theory, the theory of change and RBV that were useful in explaining the influence of M & E practices on project performance. Guided by the objectives, the chapter explored the relevant studies. This was then conceptualized into a relationship as in figure 2.1. A research gap in terms of contradictions between the studies was identified.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research strategy and empirical techniques that were applied. The research study discusses the research design, the targeted population and the sample size and associated sampling procedures. The chapter also details data collection instruments including methods that were implemented to maintain their validity and reliability. The chapter concludes by looking at the data analysis techniques, ethical considerations and operational definition of variables.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

This study adopted a descriptive research design. A descriptive design is an approach that attempts to describe a phenomenon as it is (Magenda & Magenda, 2008). This research attempts to understand and therefore explain the M & E practices that determine success of monitoring and evaluation in projects. The study sought to determine how three independent variables namely stakeholder involvement, capacity building and adequate budgeting predict the dependent variable. A fourth independent, political influence was expected to moderate the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables because a one on one relationship rarely exist (Coopers & Schindler, 2014).

3.3 TARGET POPULATION

A population is defined by Kothari, (2004) as all elements under some study. The projects under consideration that make up the target population are the 36 projects that were tendered for and started in the periods 2013/14, by the Mombasa County government. Each of the projects is at different phases of their implementation. Each project is monitored by a team made up of one county government project manager, the project contractor, a site agent and a committee of nine (9) community members for a total of twelve (12) people. The 36 county projects are therefore monitored by a total of 432 personnel. These county projects are selected because they represent a wide variability of practices in the M & E profession.

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3.4 SAMPLE SIZE AND SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Cooper and Schindler (2014) state that sampling is beneficial in research since an optimum sample is appropriate for the fact that it lowers the cost of doing the research, it leads to greater preciseness of results and facilitates speedy data collection and analysis.

3.4.1 SAMPLE SIZE

The study took an appropriate sample of 271 from the target population of 432 as illustrated in table 3.1.

<div align="center">

TABLE 3.1: SAMPLE SIZE

Strata	Population (N)	Sample (S)
Contractors	36	32
Project Managers	36	32
Site Managers	36	32
Committee	324	175
TOTAL	**432**	**271**

</div>

3.4.2 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The sample was arrived at using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) formula. In this formula, the study would be based on p = 0.05 where the probability of committing type I error is less than 5 %, i.e. p <0.05. The formula is;

$S = X^2 NP(1-P) / d^2 (N-1) + X^2 P(1-P)$

Where;

S = Sample size

X^2 = table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level of 0.05 (X^2 = 3.841).

N = *population* size.

P = *population* proportion (assumed to be 0.50 since this would provide the maximum sample size.

d = *degree* of accuracy expressed as proportion (0.05).

To make the sample representative, stratified sampling was employed to get the right number of project contractors, the project managers and the site managers. Each of the mentioned has 36 from where, according to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a sample of 32 per cluster was taken for a total of 96 subjects. As for the nine committee members per project making a total of 324 only 175, according to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), were considered. This made up a sample of 271 respondents. The calculation for each cluster therefore gives the samples as indicated in table 3.1.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Data was collected through semi structured questionnaires with the main questions structured and other questions unstructured. The major focus was to establish the influence of M & E practices in the opinion of stakeholders. A Likert Scale whose range is between "strongly agree (SA) to strongly disagree (SD)" was employed. A Likert scale is suitable for attitudinal measures (Serra & Kunc, 2014). A middle scale of neither agree nor disagree is included for respondents who are unsure and also in cases where the aspect was not considered. The use of a semi structured questionnaire is advantageous since for it allows the respondent to give extra details and is fairly easy for analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The use of a questionnaire is easy and relatively cheap to administer (Kothari, 2004).

3.5.1 PILOT TESTING OF INSTRUMENT

Piloting was carried out to identify any defects in the instrument. In this research 50 subjects from the population were selected randomly for pilot testing. The questionnaire was brought to their attention and results used to improve any questions that were ambiguous and remove repetitions.

3.5.2 VALIDITY OF THE INSTRUMENT

The instrument was subjected to content validity, face validity as well as to construct validity examinations. Content validity was ensured through the use of getting expert opinion and guidance from the study supervisor (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2008). Face validity was attained through the same supervisor and by conducting and getting feedback from the pilot group (Coopers & Shindler, 2013). Finally, construct validity was attained by ensuring that operationalisation of the variables is founded on theory (Coopers & Schindler, 2013); in this case the theories that formed the basis of the study.

3.5.3 RELIABILITY OF THE INSTRUMENT

Reliability of an instrument is about the extent to which the research instrument is not affected by random errors (Cooper & Schindler, 2014) and as such it provides consistent results. The reliability of this research instrument was established through the split half method whereby the items in the questionnaire were framed in such a manner that they counter checked each other. A Cronbach Alpha coefficient of at least 0.7 would indicate a high and adequate reliability of the instrument and therefore would lead to accepting the instrument. A lower Cronbach Alpha would force the researcher to edit the tool so that it met the threshold.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Data was collected by means of a set of Likert scale questions in a questionnaire. A Likert scale is a commonly used and therefore appropriate in this case because a respondent is given the leeway to give his view on an issue. It contains a middle ground item for those who are not sure or do not want to commit themselves. Kothari (2014), state that a Likert scale is far more reliable than the other data collection instruments. The study employed questionnaires on drop-and-pick-later basis.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

The IBM statistical software SPSS version 22 was employed for the analysis. This programme was reliable easy to use. Data was presented as summaries in tables. A correlation analysis would then follow. A correlation analysis aims at describing the strength of an association between two variables by testing the degree of scatter of the data values. The less scattered the data values are the stronger the correlation is said to be (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2008). The commonly used and more reliable Karl Pearson's coefficient of correlation approach was employed because it gives an indication of the strength of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable.

A correlation coefficient of positive one (1) implies a perfect relationship between the two variables while a negative correlation (-1) correlation coefficient means that the two variables are perfectly unrelated. The correlation coefficient values therefore lie between negative one and positive one. The appropriate descriptive statistical measure for ordinal data is the median as the other measures of central tendency would not make sense on ordinal data.

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics are concerned with the moral principles that govern an individual's behaviour when conducting an activity (Hornby & Crowther, 1995). In research therefore ethics are concerned with a moral way of conducting oneself while undertaking a research (Coopers & Schindler, 2014).The sole aim of having ethics in research is to protect respondents against any harm from the research activities (Kothari, 2004) and ensure data is collected and processed fairly so as to come up with genuine results. Ethics in this research was observed through ethical treatment of the respondents and all concerned parties. Data collection started by explaining to the respondents about their rights and their benefits then getting consent from them. The interview method was in such a manner as to reduce. The respondents right to privacy was observed by giving the subjects free will to choose whether to take part in the study or not.

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3.9 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF VARIABLES

The table summarizes how the variables are being operationalized.

TABLE 3.2: OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF VARIABLES

Objective of Study	variable	Indicator	Measure	Scale	Tool of Analysis
To establish the effect of stakeholder participation in M & E on project success	**Stakeholder participation**	Full participation Partial participation	**Likert mean**	**ordinal**	**Karl Pearson correlation Coefficient**
To establish the effect of stakeholder capacity building in M & E on project success	**Stakeholder Capacity building**	Formal training Informal training	**mean**	**interval**	**Karl Pearson Correlation Coefficient**
To establish the effect of budgetary allocation on M & E on project success	**Budgetary Allocation**	Adequacy budget Budget timeliness	**mean**	**ordinal**	**Karl Pearson Correlation Coefficient**
	Political Influence	Support Opposition	**Mean**	**Ordinal**	**Karl-Pearson Correlation Coefficient**
	Project Success	Client Acceptance Timely output Cost effective delivery	**Mean**	**Ordinal**	**Karl Pearson Correlation Coefficient**

4. DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the response rate is highlighted and reliability and validity of the measuring instrument discussed. The research findings are presented and analyzed through descriptive tests and then the findings discussed and interpreted.

4.2 QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN RATE

From the target population of 271 respondents, 187 complete responses were received. In terms of the distribution of the responses, the project site manager's response was the highest with an 81.25 per cent response rate, followed by committee member's responses at 69.14 percent and project managers' responses at 68.75 per cent. The project contractor's response was at 56.25 per cent. This gives an average response rate of 68.85 per cent. This is indicated in table 4.1.

TABLE 4.1: QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN RATE

Strata	Sample	Response	Response Rate (%)
Project Contractor	32	18	56.25
Project Manager	32	22	68.75
Site manager	32	26	81.25
Committee	175	121	69.14
TOTAL	**271**	**187**	**68.85**

Such a response is rated as good and therefore suitable for further analysis, according to Saunders et al., (2007) assertion. In addition, this response rate was within the range of responses rate for similar researches. For instance, Mwangi et al., (2015) used a response rate of 61 percent and Kariuki (2005) had a 67 percent response rate in their studies on M & E.

4.3 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

The section sought to establish the respondents' profiles.

TABLE 4.2. EXPERIENCE IN YEARS AND GENDER CROSS TABULATION

			Gender		
			F	M	Total
Experience in Years	0 - 5	Count	20	31	51
		% within Gender	39.2%	22.8%	27.3%
	6 - 10	Count	22	54	76
		% within Gender	43.1%	39.7%	40.6%
	11 - 14	Count	7	28	35
		% within Gender	13.7%	20.6%	18.7%
	15 +	Count	2	23	25
		% within Gender	3.9%	16.9%	13.4%
Total		Count	51	136	187
		% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 4.2 indicates that about 72 percent of the respondents had an experience of at least six years in managing projects or participating. This demonstrates that a majority of respondents were valid due to their experience. This is deemed so because experience in project work is seen to have a significant influence in projects (Kariuki, 2015).

However, experience across gender was found to be unfairly skewed in favour of the male gender. As in table 4.2, male numbers dominate female numbers by huge margins across all experience categories. In the first class, male outnumber females by 31 to 20, in the second class male ratio is higher at 54 to 22 and the third class male dominate female by 28 to 7. In the last category, male to female ratio stand at 23 to 2. The overall situation therefore is that the ratio of male gender to female gender ids 136 to 51.

4.4 PROJECT PERFORMANCE

Project performance was indicated in terms of three dimensions of acceptability, timeliness and budget. Acceptability is whereby the client signals their assent to the project deliverable. Timeliness is about bringing forth the project deliverables within the agreed timelines while budget implies finishing the project as per the cost estimates. The three perspectives of project performance were measured using the 5 point Likert scale.

Table 4.3 shows the descriptive statistics on the three dimensions of project performance; project acceptance, project timeliness and project cost.

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TABLE 4.3. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Project Acceptance	187	3.00	5.00	4.3583	.62645	-.443	.178
Project Timelines	187	2.00	5.00	3.7594	.94519	-.234	.178
Project Cost	187	2.00	5.00	4.0535	.84709	-.371	.178
Valid N (listwise)	187						

From table 4.3 a mean of 4.3583 for acceptability, 3.7594 for timeliness and 4.0594 for budget implies that on average the respondents were in agreement and strong agreement that the project deliverables were acceptable, was within acceptable limits and cost. The data is negatively skewed meaning that the mode is greater than mean (Kothari, 2008) and that majority of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that the projects were successful.

4.5 PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

This section correlates the findings between various variables under study. The first part indicates correlates stakeholder involvement and project performance, the second between capacity building and project performance while the third is between budget and performance. The effect of politics on project performance is also correlated with the other variables of study.

4.5.1 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE

To fulfil the first objective, a correlation between stakeholder participation dimensions and project performance dimensions were carried out and the results tabulated in table 4.4.

TABLE 4.4. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE

		Full Participation	Partial Participation	Project Acceptance	Project Timelines	Project Budget
Full Participation	Pearson Correlation	1	.592**	.210**	.055	.005
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.004	.452	.944
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Partial Participation	Pearson Correlation	.592**	1	.171*	.068	-.134
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.020	.353	.067
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Project Acceptance	Pearson Correlation	.210**	.171*	1	.056	.045
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.020		.450	.543
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Project Timelines	Pearson Correlation	.055	.068	.056	1	-.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.452	.353	.450		.813
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Project Budget	Pearson Correlation	.005	-.134	.045	-.017	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.944	.067	.543	.813	
	N	187	187	187	187	187

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2- tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.4 indicates a positively significant correlation between full participation and project acceptance at 99% level of confidence (r =.210, p < 0.010) and between partial participation and project acceptance at 95% level of confidence (r =.171, p < 0.050). However, there is no significant relation between stakeholder participation and the other indicators of project performance. The study concurs with Martinez and Olander (2015) and Ibanga, Valentine, Shukla and Eugene (2016) but contradicts Mugo and Oleche (2015).

4.5.2 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAPACITY BUILDING AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE

The second objective was attained by assessing the relationship between capacity building and project performance. Capacity building was viewed in terms of both formal and informal trainings while project performance was assessed through dimensions of project acceptance, project timelines and project cost. The correlations are as summarized in table 4.5.

TABLE 4.5. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN CAPACITY BUILDING AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE

		Formal Training	Informal Training	Project Acceptance	Project Budget
Formal Training	Pearson Correlation	1	-.191**	.146*	.246**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.009	.047	.001
	N	187	187	187	187
Informal Training	Pearson Correlation	-.191**	1	-.003	.103
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009		.968	.162
	N	187	187	187	187
Project Acceptance	Pearson Correlation	.146*	-.003	1	.045
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.047	.968		.543
	N	187	187	187	187
Project Budget	Pearson Correlation	.246**	.103	.045	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.162	.543	
	N	187	187	187	187

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.5 indicates a positive and significant correlation between formal training and project acceptance at 95% level of confidence (r = 0.146, p<0.050) as well as project budget at 99% level of confidence (r = 0.246, p<0.010). Informal training was found to be not significantly related to any project performance.

These findings are consistent with Nyandika and Ngugi (2014), Mugambi and Kanda (2013) and Mugo and Oleche (2015). For example, Mugo and Oleche (2015) had established that the likelihood of successfully implementing a project increased with an increase in the duration of training.

4.5.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BUDGET AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE

Objective three sought to establish the relationship between budget and project performance. In the study, the indicators of budget were its adequacy and timeliness while the indicators of project performance were project acceptance, project timeliness and project cost. Table 4.6 gives a summary of the results analysis.

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TABLE 4.6: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN BUDGET AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE

		Adequate Budget	Timely Budget	Project Timelines	Project Budget
Adequate Budget	Pearson Correlation	1	.079	.004	.581**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.281	.958	.000
	N	187	187	187	187
Timely Budget	Pearson Correlation	.079	1	.671**	.089
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.281		.000	.225
	N	187	187	187	187
Project Timelines	Pearson Correlation	.004	.671**	1	-.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.958	.000		.813
	N	187	187	187	187
Project Budget	Pearson Correlation	.581**	.089	-.017	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.225	.813	
	N	187	187	187	187
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Table 4.6 shows a positive significant relation between adequate funding and completing the project in budget (r = 0.581, p = 0.000). There is, likewise, a positive and significant correlation between timely funding and completing the project within stipulated time frames (r = 0.671, p = 0.000). However, budgeting has no significant relation with project acceptance. The findings mirror those of Mwangi et al., (2014), Mugo and Oleche (2015) and Mugambi and Kanda (2013).

4.5.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POLITICS AND STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION

Since politics had been cited by several studies as a factor moderating the relationship between the independent variables and project performance, it was necessary to test the same. The relationship between politics and stakeholder involvement is as summarized in table 4.7.

TABLE 4.7: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN POLITICS AND PARTICIPATION

		Political Support	Political Opposition	Full Participation	Partial Participation
Political Support	Pearson Correlation	1	.256**	.261**	.240**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.001
	N	187	187	187	187
Political Opposition	Pearson Correlation	.256**	1	.058	.130
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.433	.076
	N	187	187	187	187
Full Participation	Pearson Correlation	.261**	.058	1	.592**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.433		.000
	N	187	187	187	187
Partial Participation	Pearson Correlation	.240**	.130	.592**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.076	.000	
	N	187	187	187	187
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2- tailed).					

Table 4.7 shows that there is a positive and significant relationship between political support and stakeholder full participation in the project at 99% level of confidence (r = 0.261, p < 0.000). There is also a positive and significant relationship between political support and partial stakeholder involvement in the project at 99% level of confidence (r = 0.240, p = 0.001). However, political opposition to projects was not found to be significantly related to stakeholder participation.

4.5.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POLITICS AND AVAILABILITY OF ADEQUATE BUDGET

The moderating relationship between politics and adequacy of budget is as summarized in table 4.8.

TABLE 4.8: CORRELATION BETWEEN POLITICS AND ADEQUACY OF BUDGET

		Political Support	Political Opposition	Adequate Budget
Political Support	Pearson Correlation	1	.256**	.470*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	187	187	187
Political Opposition	Pearson Correlation	.256**	1	-.074
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.316
	N	187	187	187
Adequate Budget	Pearson Correlation	.470*	-.074	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.316	
	N	187	187	187
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).				

Table 4.8 indicates that political support has a positive and significant correlation with adequacy of finance at (r = 0.470, p = 0.000).

4.5.6 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POLITICS AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE

Politics was defined as either support for a project or opposition to it. The correlation between politics and performance of projects was as analyzed in table 4.9.

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TABLE 4.9: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN POLITICS AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE

		Political Support	Political Opposition	Project Acceptance	Project Timelines	Project Budget
Political Support	Pearson Correlation	1	.256**	.576**	.130	-.050
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.076	.498
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Political Opposition	Pearson Correlation	.256**	1	-.132	-.022	-.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.073	.766	.630
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Project Acceptance	Pearson Correlation	.576**	-.132	1	.056	.045
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.073		.450	.543
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Project Timelines	Pearson Correlation	.130	-.022	.056	1	-.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.076	.766	.450		.813
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Project Budget	Pearson Correlation	-.050	-.035	.045	-.017	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.498	.630	.543	.813	
	N	187	187	187	187	187
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						

Table 4.9 demonstrates that political support has a positive and significant correlation to project deliverable acceptance at 99% level of confidence (r = 0.576, p = 0.000). However, the relationship between politics and the other dimensions of project performance, timeliness and adherence to the budget were not found to be related to politics. Nyandika and Ngugi (2014) similarly established that political support from the top contributed to project performance.

4.6 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS
The study had three objectives. The first objective was to establish any relationship between stakeholder involvement, as indicated by full and partial involvement, M & E and project performance as indicated by deliverable acceptance, project timelines and the budgetary constraint. The second objective was to examine the influence of capacity building on project performance and the third objective sought to establish the association between budgetary allocation and project performance. Capacity building was measured in terms of formal or informal training while budget was viewed in terms of adequacy and timeliness of the required funding. The findings from the data collected are analyzed next.

4.6.1 THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN STAKEHOLDER INVOLVEMENT AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE
The hypothesis was that there is an association between stakeholder participation and project performance. The findings were that both dimensions of stakeholder involvement, i.e. full and partial stakeholder involvement were significantly correlated to one dimension of project performance, project acceptance. It was also realized that stakeholder involvement was not associated with project timeliness and project budget. From the findings therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative accepted. The findings imply that stakeholder involvement in M & E is appropriate for project performance in terms of beneficiary acceptance of the project deliverables.

4.6.2 THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN CAPACITY BUILDING AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE
The second objective was to examine the influence of capacity building on project performance. The hypothesis tested was that there is an association between capacity building and project performance. The findings were that there was a positive and significant correlation between formal training and two dimensions of project performance; project acceptance as well as adherence to set costs. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected and the alternative accepted. There is a close association between capacity building and project performance.

4.6.3 THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN BUDGETARY ALLOCATION AND PROJECT PERFORMANCE
The study also sought to determine the influence of budgetary allocation on project performance and the hypothesis of study was that there was an association between budgetary allocation and project performance. The findings indicated that both adequate and timely funding was related to project cost performance and time performance respectively.

5. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
5.1 INTRODUCTION
The chapter is mainly a summary of the study findings. It discusses the findings with reference to the literature that was reviewed in chapter two under each objective. Further, the chapter gives recommendations based on the findings of this study.

5.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS
The key purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of monitoring and evaluation practices of county projects in Mombasa County. So as to achieve the objective, a descriptive research design was employed to collect data. Data was therefore collected from people who were involved in various projects in the county; project managers, site managers and project committee members. The study realized a 68.85 percent response rate.

In the life of any project, monitoring and evaluation are important parts and parcels. Monitoring is the continuous or regular assessment to check if activities are as planned. The assessment is further reflective and participatory (UNDP, 2010). Evaluation, on the other hand is an episodic examination of an activity (IFRC, 2011). Monitoring and evaluation are vital because they help in attainment of accountability to stakeholders, identify problems in projects and hence correct them.

Monitoring and evaluation is valuable to projects. It makes available reliable and valid data for appropriate decision making, it contributes to sharing of knowledge through reflecting on the experiences gained and also ensures there is compliance to set standards and also ensures that donor requirements are adhered to. M & E gives an opportunity to stakeholders to make their feelings in the project be known. In testing hypotheses, project performance was evaluated from the perspective of client acceptance, adherence to time and adherence to the budget.

5.3 DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS
The first objective was to establish the influence that stakeholder participation has on performance of projects. The related research hypothesis assessed the relationship between stakeholder involvement and project performance. The findings were that there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between stakeholder involvement in M & E and project performance in terms of client acceptance. These findings are in congruence with Martinez and Olander (2015), Nyandika and Ngugi (2014) and Ibanga et al., (2016). However, the study findings are contrary to those of Mugo and Oleche (2015). Thus, when stakeholders are meaningfully involved in projects their acceptance of the deliverables will significantly improve.

The second objective was to examine any relationship between capacity building and project performance. They relevant hypothesis therefore tested this relationship. The study results were that there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between capacity building and two dimensions of project performance; project deliverable acceptance and adherence to costs. The findings are consistent with Mugambi and Kanda (2013) and Nyandika and Ngugi (2014). Therefore the more the capacity building in projects, the higher the chances of the project performing as expected in terms of acceptability and budget.

Objective three was interested in examining the relationship between budgetary allocation and project performance. By way of hypothesis testing, the study established a positive and statistically significant relationship between the two variables and project cost and time performance. The findings therefore concur with Mwangi et al., (2014), Mugo and Oleche (2015) as well as with Mugambi and Kanda (2013). It can therefore be concluded that an adequate and timely budget is positively related to project performance.

The fourth objective was to determine the moderating effect of the political dimension on project performance. The hypothesis tests revealed that political support had a moderating effect on the relationship between independent and the dependent variables. However, political opposition to a project was not found to have any significant effect on project performance. The results concur with Nyandika and Ngugi (2014) who had established similar findings.

5.4 CONCLUSION

The study aimed at determining the effect of M & E practices on project performance. The objectives were to establish the influence of stakeholder participation on project performance, to examine the influence of capacity building on project performance, in Mombasa County as well as to determine the influence of budgetary allocation on project performance, in Mombasa County. Based on the findings of the study, it is concluded that stakeholder involvement is an important ingredient to project performance as it contributes to client acceptance. Capacity building is also an additional ingredient to project performance. Its presence in a project leads to project acceptance and cost adherence. Additionally, funding was also found to be a main component of project performance as it leads to project cost and time performance. Political support was found to be a key moderator of the relationship between the independent variables and project performance, the dependent variable.

From the study findings it can be concluded that stakeholder participation in M & E is a determinant of project performance and hence the project leadership should endeavour to always involve stakeholders. It is also concluded that capacity building is key to project performance and therefore the project management team should always train its staff and other close stakeholders so that they may discharge their functions more effectively. Funding should also be adequate and timely as budget has a significant effect on project performance. The study further concludes that political perspective on the project does have an impact and that it is important to consider this perspective as well. In addition, the study concludes that there are many other variables that interfere with the independent variable – dependent variable relationship that probably explains the weak associations.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICY ACTION

Based on the three objectives, it is recommended that projects do consider the contributions of stakeholder involvement, capacity building and a budget as non-negotiable components of project success. It is also recommended to consider the weight of the external political atmosphere as political support is suitable for project performance. Other interfering variables on the original relationship may also be looked at.

5.6 SUGGESTED AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Due to some weaknesses of this study as captured in section 1.9, it is suggested to undertake the following. Firstly it is recommended that longitudinal data is used in a similar study. A longitudinal study is more suitable as it captures all the phases of a project and would therefore provide more valid findings. Secondly, it would be more appropriate, in another study, to take in the views of the final project beneficiaries as opposed to the views of the project managers as the later tend to be biased.

Secondly, due to the low level associations between the variables of study, there is a need to establish through research, the other variables whether endogenous or exogenous. Thirdly, this study was undertaken in one county and this may have an effect on its generalizability. As a consequence it is recommended that a more representative sample from every county in the country is considered for study.

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APPENDIX

<div align="center">QUESTIONNAIRE</div>

Instructions: This questionnaire consists of two sections; section A and B. Section A is demographic information while section B is project information. Please answer both sections truthfully.

Section A; Demographic details
1.   Name (Optional)………………………………………………………………
2.   Gender; ()Male () Female
3.   Role in the project (please tick)
     () Contractor () Project Manager () Site Agent () Committee Chair () Committee Secretary () Committee Treasurer
4.   Please indicate the number of years' experience in project work………………………

Section B; **Give the responses based on a recent project in which you were involved in the monitoring and evaluation activities.**
Please rate by how much you agree with the following statements by putting a tick (v) appropriately in the table below (Key ; **SD – Strongly Disagree, D- Disagree, Neutral, A – Agree and SA – Strongly Agree**)

1.   Project Performance

Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA
The project was acceptable to the clients					
The project was delivered within the agreed time lines					
The project was delivered within the agreed budget					

2. Stakeholder Participation and Project Performance

Statement		SD	D	N	A	SA
i.	Stakeholders participated in the entire M & E process					
ii.	Stakeholders were only involved only in taking corrective action					
Effect of Stakeholder involvement						
i.	Comprehensive stakeholders involvement leads to client acceptance					
ii.	Comprehensive stakeholders involvement creates timely delivery					
iii.	Comprehensive stakeholders involvement leads to cost effective delivery					
iv.	Partial stakeholder involvement improves client acceptance					
v.	Partial stakeholder involvement creates timely delivery					
vi.	Partial stakeholder involvement leads to cost effectiveness					

3.   Capacity Building and Project Performance

Statement		SD	D	N	A	SA
i.	There was formal training of stakeholders during project					
ii.	There was informal training of stakeholders during project life					
Effect of Capacity building						
i.	Formal training to stakeholders improves client acceptance					
ii.	Formal training to stakeholders creates timely delivery					
iii.	Formal training to stakeholders improves cost effectiveness					
iv.	Informal training to stakeholders improves client acceptance					
v.	Informal training to stakeholders improves timely delivery					
vi.	Informal training to stakeholders improves cost effectiveness of delivery					

4.   Budgetary Allocation and Project Performance

Statement		SD	D	N	A	SA
i.	There was adequate funding in the life of the project					
ii.	There was timely funding in the life of the project					
Effect of budget						
i.	Adequate funding improves client acceptance					
ii.	Adequate funding improves to timely delivery					
iii.	Adequate funding improves cost effectiveness					
iv.	Timely funding improves client acceptance					
v.	Timely funding improves timely delivery					
vi.	Timely funding improves cost effectiveness					

5.   Political Influence and Project Performance

Statement		SD	D	N	A	SA
i.	There was political support for the project					
ii.	There was political opposition to the project					
Effect of political influence						
i.	Political support for project influenced client acceptance					
ii.	Political support for project influenced timely delivery of output					
iii.	Political support for project affected cost effectiveness					
iv.	Political opposition to project influenced client acceptance					
v.	Political opposition to project influenced timely delivery					
vi.	Political opposition to project affected cost effectiveness					

HOW THE DEMONETIZATION IMPACTED STOCK INDICES IN INDIA?

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study is to examine the impact of Demonetization on Indian stock market with the help of different sector Indices of National Stock Exchange (NSE). An analytical approach has been used to analyse the significant changes in return of stock Indices between pre and post demonetization. The authors found that there is no significant impact of demonetization on any of the Indices, which had been taken for study.

KEYWORDS

NSE, demonetization, stock indices, black money, nifty, investments.

1. INTRODUCTION

On 8th November 2016, India had witnessed a historical announcement of demonetization by the Prime Minister of the country. All the currency notes of Rs. 500 & Rs. 1000 were declared as illegal tender and they became useless with immediate effect. The only possible way to utilize those currency notes was to deposit them in banks.

Basically such a policy had been implemented to resolve some major issues of the country such as counterfeiting of Indian National Rupees (INR), to put a check on tax evasion, funding of terrorist activates, corruption; among all these majors, black money and corruption were the main reasons behind demonetization.

Demonetization is a process which extinguishes the existing currency from a particular economy. Generally demonetization is being used as a normal policy in day to day working of Reserve Bank of India (RBI) it is helpful in solving the problem of counterfeiting. But on 8th November 2016, it had been implemented in a different way and its consequences are still debatable because many factors are involved in it. Although this policy had been implemented by many countries including USA, in different circumstances still no county has adopted this in last 50 years except two nations Libiya and Zimbawe.

In this study the researchers have tried to find the immediate repercussion of demonetization on different sectors of the economy, with the help of fluctuations in different stock indices of National Stock Exchange (NSE).

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A study by Laverde et al., (2009), showed that political uncertainty and crime are important determinants of market returns volatility. Mukherjee & Leblang (2007) observed that investors hope high interest rate when Democratic Party and Labour Party are on government benches in USA and UK respectively. According to Shiller (2003), investors tend to under- or overreact to new information. Martinez and Santiso (2003) provided the additional evidences on the political event and examined how Wall Street reacts to major Latin American political events. Li and Born (2006) had reported that the mean daily common stock return rises in the roughly three-month period before a US presidential election when the outcome of the election is uncertain. Beaulieu et al. (2006) in a study found that the referendum outcome did affect portfolio returns of firms in Quebec. In another study, Kramer and Hyclak (2002) revealed the statistically significant negative effects of the announcement of a strike on the cumulative average stock market returns of struck firms.

3. METHODOLOGY

Generally, all kind of activities whether they are political, economical or natural always affect the volatility of returns of any stock market. According to the Random walk theory – the way to predict future prices is to develop a familiarity with past patterns of price behavior in order to recognize situations of likely recurrence. This study has been conducted to gauge the impact of demonetization on Indian stock market and for this purpose four Indices of National Stock Exchange (NSE) has been taken for analysis. These indices are as follows:- Nifty Bank, Nifty Financial Services, Nifty IT & Nifty Reality. The data had been extracted from the NSE website and the data was of 30 working days prior to demonetization and 30 working days after it.

3.1 DESCRIPTION

To analyze the data daily market value of indices have been collected for the aforesaid period and daily market return has been calculated for each index as follows:

$R_{mt} = (M_t - M_{t-1})/M_{t-1}$

Whereas,

R_{mt} = Return on day t.

M_t = Market index value today.

M_{t-1} = Market index value of last day.

Then, T test was applied in order to find any significant changes in the average return of each index and any abnormal movement of share prices due to the demonetization.

4. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

TABLE 1

| Indices	Pre-Demonetization Average Return	Post-Demonetization Average Return	Difference in Returns	P value
Nifty Bank	0.293917	0.055594	0.238323	0.350466
Nifty Financial Services	0.345850	0.049647	0.296203	0.327622
Nifty IT	0.410646	0.067769	0.342877	0.35427
Nifty Reality	0.183339	0.125894	0.057445	0.810013

**1. NIFTY BANK**

FIG. 1

Nifty Bank
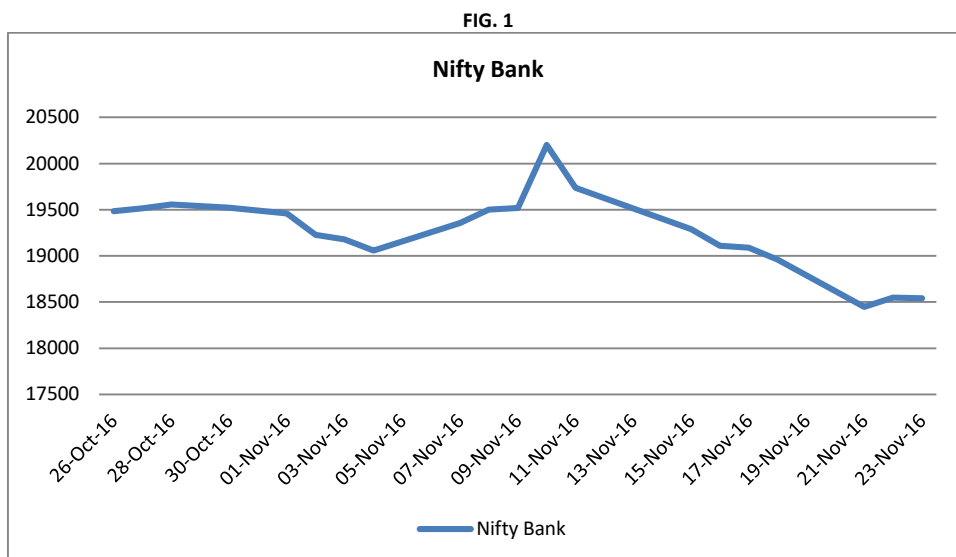
Actually the banking sector was expected to be in a very strong position during the demonetization because huge inflow of money predicted to get deposited in banks. But the impact of demonetization was statistically insignificant on bank index, it is also evident from the graph that the share prices were not showing any kind of sub normal variation because of demonetization. However, the number of shares traded became almost twice on the very next day but after 3-4 days it started decreasing and became normal. Although the demonetization had a statistically insignificant impact on nifty bank, still this sector is expected to get bene-fitted in the long term because a lot of money had been deposited in bank which will be helpful for banks to address their *non-performing assets* (NPA).

2. NIFTY FINANCIAL SERVICES


FIG. 2

Nifty Financial Services
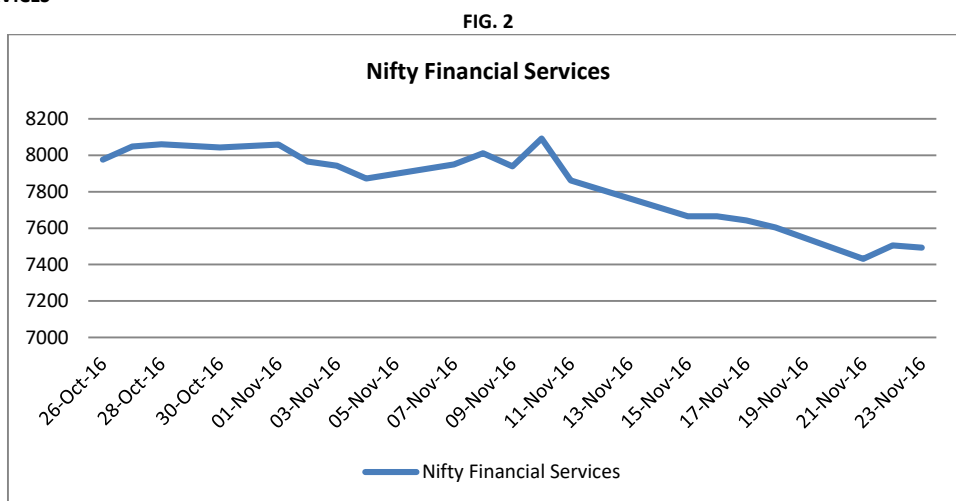
This index had also shown a statistically insignificant impact of the demonetization. It is evident by the graph that the prices of shares were following a normal trend throughout the period. There was no sudden and abnormal variation in the prices of shares because of the demonetization. The number of shares traded suddenly became more than twice as same had happened with banking sector.

3. NIFTY IT

FIG. 3

Nifty IT
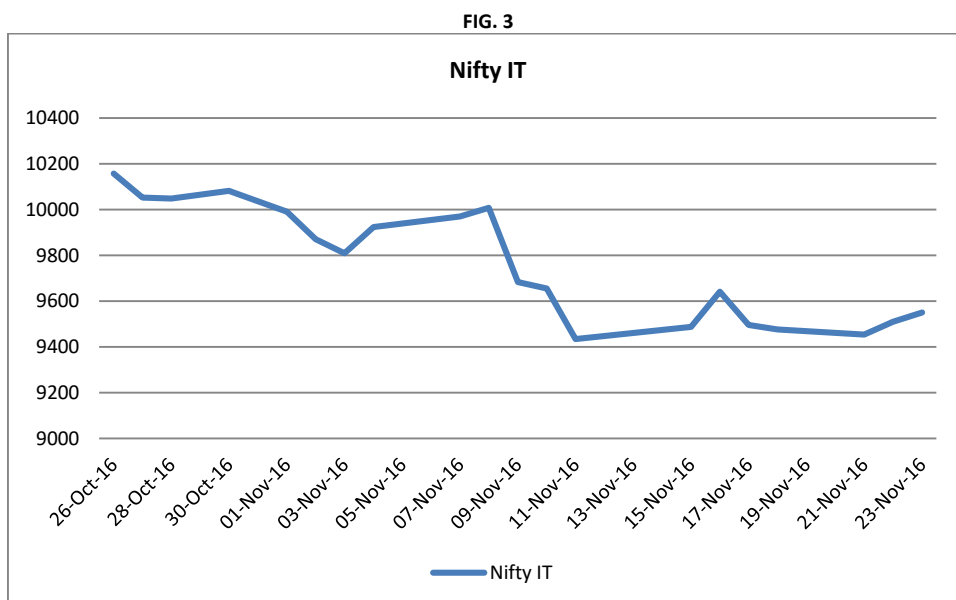
The IT index also had a statistically insignificant impact of demonetization. It is evident from the graph that the share prices were following a similar trend but its turnover had suddenly increased on the very next day after demonetization. The insignificant impact of demonetization on Indian IT sector was expected also, because already it is export oriented and is largely a cashless sector and therefore could not get affected by the cash had been taken out of the circulation.

4. NIFTY REALITY

FIG. 4
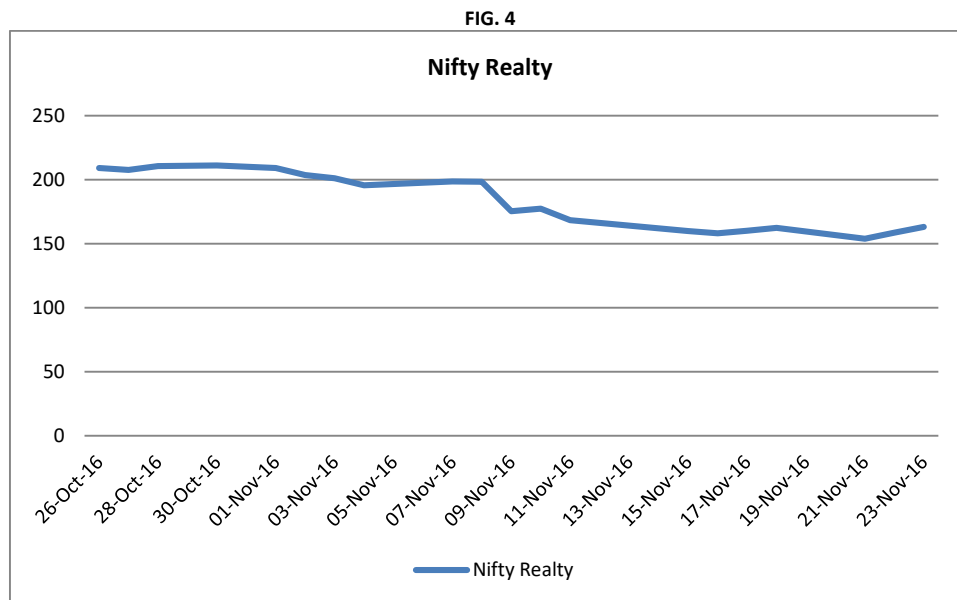
It had been expected that the real estate index would be the most effected sector after the demonetization. This assumption is statistically insignificant because demonetization hardly affected the real estate index. The graph shows that the share prices were following a normal trend, there was no sudden fall or rise in the prices of shares because of demonetization. The real estate index had shown an immediate rise in its turnover for next 4-5 days after demonetization.

5. CONCLUSION

It is evident from the statistical analysis of the data which had been provided by the NSE, that the demonetization had an insignificant impact on all these indices. The currency which had been declared illegal tender was contributing almost 86% of the total economy and it was expected that many economic issues would be resolved. It had happened in many sectors as well like real estate, gold etc. The money which had been deposited in the banks definitely will be helpful for the economic activities in the country. Everybody have to declare the wealth and pay the taxes on it. All these kind of revenues generated by the government will help in resolving all economic issues.

In India the real estate used to be the most preferred destination for investing black money. Although statistically there is no significant impact of demonetization on its index, still it is true that the prices of real estate fell down suddenly after the demonetization. The same has happened with gold market which used to be the second most preferred avenue of investing black money.

Actually the real and long term impact of demonetization on Indian economy will only be gauged after a passage of time. Initially we can conclude that the demonetization had a statistically insignificant impact on these indices of NSE, but in actually it impacted all the activities of the country.

6. LIMITATIONS

1. This study shows the impact of demonetization on certain indices of NSE only.
2. It lacks the actual impact of demonetization on Indian economy.
3. Time duration for pre and post demonetization may not provide accurate average market return.

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DEVELOPING A FRAMEWORK FOR EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS OF MANAGEMENT GRADUATES

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ABSTRACT

Employability skills are the skills almost every employee needs to perform any job. They are the skills that make technical knowledge and specific job skills fully productive. Higher education has focussed on employability skills at an institutional level, through graduate attributes or through consideration across specific disciplines. As such higher education does not have a single commonly agreed framework for employability skills. This paper aims at examining factors that influence employability of Management Graduates, the basis of Employability Skills from the requirements in the business world, the models and frameworks of Employability that will help in the development of graduate employability skills. Although there is no consensus on how employability should be viewed, it could be said in general that it reflects people's potential of acquiring employment. The existing frameworks/ models developed by authors, adapted by universities are discussed, are analysed in order to identify the factors influencing employability to synthesize the knowledge on this topic and come out with a practical model to enhance employability of Management graduates. It is found that it is crucial for management graduates to develop the required skills and competencies to primarily get a job, hold the job, to contribute to their organisation and progress in their career. Hence they need Technical and Academic Skills specific to the Job they intend to get which includes numeric capacity, listening, reading, written communication, oral presentation, language, global awareness, critical analysis, creativity and self-management; Process Skills which are problem-solving skills, decision making skills, planning and delegating, teamwork, prioritizing, ethical sensitivity and Personal Qualities such as self-esteem, self-confidence, self-control, honesty, integrity, adaptability, flexibility, willingness to learn, emotional intelligence, punctuality, efficiency social skills and ability to manage stress.

KEYWORDS
employability skills, management graduates.

INTRODUCTION

The fast pace at which the business world is changing has changed the way in which organisations hire talent today. Across the globe nations and companies are competing to attract, develop and retain the best and the most highly skilled workers. A post graduate degree from a good institution alone doesn't guarantee a job and employers hire people who have the skills and competencies that are of interest to the organisation. They also provide further training to their employees to enhance employability. Businesses have to grow and adapt and be open to embrace change in order to be sustainable. Hence, they need employees who are ambitious and strive to improve their performance standards because the optimum use of graduate skills enhances the competitiveness of organisations (Nabi, 2003).

Organisations are becoming "lean" and are reducing their unproductive units and less valuable employees. Having employability skills is job security. Today, careers are built around the portfolio of skills we have and our ability to learn and acquire more skills as and when required. They are no longer built on aspirations alone. On the other hand, there is an increasing number of job opportunities across various sectors. However the major problem is the shortage of quality talent in the economy. To employers, a "degree" determines a certain level of competence and it represents a minimum standard they are looking for. Smith and Kruger (2008) proposed that, apart from being skilled, from having the required knowledge in a specific discipline and from having the up-to-date technical skills required in a profession, graduates also need generic skills. Maclean and Ordonez (2007) opine that the required skills set for jobs is changing so rapidly that employers are looking more for "trainable" recruits with generic skills sets, such as flexibility, an ability to learn quickly and communicate well and be good at teamwork, rather than recruits trained for specific employment.

Graduates often assume that they have the skills required for the world of work but are subsequently disillusioned when not appointed. Many companies find that the applicants for various positions lack the basic skills the companies are looking for even though they possess the degrees and diplomas. Also candidates do not have a clear understanding of what companies expect from them, what the job position involves, what they will be expected to do on the job etc. Hence candidates are unable to present themselves well and demonstrate where they have used these skills, how they will use their skills on the job and display the high level of professional standards expected of them.

Nowadays more people want to start their own business, all the more reason to work on developing them. These skills are more crucial for entrepreneurship than they are for jobs. Entrepreneurs need to identify opportunities, create value, develop competencies to be successful, be committed, think creatively and focus on innovation.

In recent years a number of models of employability are discussed to get a comprehensive idea on the subject of employability. Each university/ college has formed its own model of employability incorporating competencies employers required from students. Employability training focuses on a few aspects of employability. Some studies present a broad framework for analysing employability in which there are individual factors, personal circumstances and external factors, and also the supply- and demand-side factors. Employability is an issue of concern in many areas of the economy, but in this context the focus is on Indian students who graduate from the MBA programme.

OBJECTIVES OF THE PAPER

This paper aims to bring about an understanding of Employability, establish the basis of Employability Skills, identify the KSA's required for employability, review and discuss the existing models and approaches to employability. The objective is to synthesise the frameworks and come out with a model to bridge the gap between theory and practice. It also aims to evolve a list of competencies that could help develop concrete indicators of managerial performance.

THE CONCEPT OF EMPLOYABILITY

In the past, employability skills were thought to be primarily of a job-specific nature not inclusive of the academic skills that are most commonly taught in the schools. "It is the probability, for a given group, at a given time, of finding a job or emerging from unemployment" (Lefrense, 1999). Current thinking, however, has widened the definition of employability skills to include academic skills, and a variety of attitudes. According to Harvey et al, (1997), employers look for graduates who are proactive, can use higher level skills including 'analysis, critique, synthesis and effective communication to facilitate innovative teamwork and

contributing towards the transformation of their organization'. Employability is a combination of "employment" and "ability", ability here refers to the personal attributes, skills and competencies based on labour market demands. Broadly, it is 'gaining, sustaining and progressing in employment'. In simple terms, employability is the ability to be employed, ie. the ability to gain initial employment (Qaisar, 2008). Measuring employability on the basis of whether or not a graduate has managed to secure a job within six months of graduating provides a very vague and imprecise indication of what the student has gained from his education. The question is whether the graduate is using the skills, knowledge and understanding gained through education.

DEFINING EMPLOYABILITY

CORE SKILLS

An employable individual is a person who can apply for and receive a desirable job in a relatively short period of time when the need arises. Therefore, Employability may be defined as the characteristics that make an individual desirable to organisations. And hence the term "employability" is used to describe the assets, attributes and achievements that make individuals more likely to gain employment and maintain productive work over the period of their working life (Lange and Topel, 2004). Employability skills are not just attributes that employers desire in prospective employees, they are crucial even to be considered for employment (Cotton, 1993). "A person's 'employability assets' (Buck and Barrick, 1987), consists of their knowledge (what they know), skills (what they do with what they know) and attitudes (how they do it)"(Hillage and Pollard, 1998). Moreover, it is 'a set of achievements – skills, understandings and personal attributes – that make graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupations, which benefits themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy' (Mantz Yorke, 2004). Brown and Hesketh (2004) define employability as 'the relative chances of getting and maintaining different kinds of employment. It not only depends on whether one is able to fulfil the requirements of specific jobs, but also how one stand relative to the others within a hierarchy of job seekers.' (Forrier and Sels, 2003). While most people view employability in absolute terms, focussing on the need for individuals to obtain credentials and knowledge, the concept of employability can also be seen as subjective and dependent on contextual factors.

DEPLOYMENT SKILLS

Merely possessing the above employability skills is insufficient to land a job and so the manner in which the job seekers present those assets to employers: the ability to demonstrate the employability assets and present them to the market in an accessible way (Hind and Moss, 2011) is also part of employability. Career management skills and life skills (self-awareness, opportunity awareness, decision making skills and transition skills) (Hillage and Pollard (1998), what is required is effective job search skills and a strategic approach to finding a suitable job. Demonstrating employability skills through CV writing, work experience/track record, references, testimonies and giving interviews are what will actually get them the job. And these in fact are even more important in terms of landing a job than the core skills. Many graduates who possess 'deployment skills' may be able to get a job quicker. The context of getting a satisfying job (Harvey, 2001; Arnold, 2007) or 'Chosen occupation' may mean different things to different people. Some people may prefer a part time, a full time job or a portfolio of careers. Employability is also about the ability to make plans for the future, and the skills, knowledge and confidence to progress these plans further. The quality of work the individual gets is important because a person may be able to get a job but it may be below his/her level of skill, educational standard (Dearing, 1997) or in low paid, undesirable conditions for example, financial pressures after incurring educational debts.

KEY CHARACTERISTICS OF EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS

They are not the same as finding employment but it refers to the capacity of keeping a fulfilling job (Hillage and Pollard, 1998). Employability skills are teachable (Lorraine, 2007) and are transferable (Yorke, 2006). Transferable skills include the ability to "solve complex, multidisciplinary problems, work successfully in teams, exhibit effective oral and written communication skills, and practice good interpersonal skills" (Schmidt, 1999) (cited in Padmini, 2012). These skills can be learnt. "Skills are malleable individual attributes susceptible of being systematically developed. They are conceived as behavioral procedures aimed at acquiring or applying knowledge to tasks" (Mumford, Peterson, & Childs (1999). Employability skills need to be practiced and the absence of practice leads to a process of decay and eventually lost of skills (Arthur, Bennett, Stanush, & McNelly, 1998). If one wants to remain employable throughout his/her career, he/she must respond to the changing demand of skill sets by acquiring new skill sets hence a work specific active adaptability is required realise career opportunities (Sanders & De Grip, Fugate et al, 2004) being willing and able to manage employment transitions between and within organisations (Qaisar, 2008)

OTHER FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE EMPLOYABILITY

Employability is not limited to individual attributes, other within-organisation factors such as the current and predicted states of internal labour markets may affect employability (Arnold, 2007). The individual's ability to find work is also affected by external factors such as the national economy, level of opportunity within the market, regional variations, other personal constraints such as geographical mobility, family responsibilities etc. As such employability is affected by both supply-side and demand-side factors which are often outside of an individual's control (Hind and Moss, 2011). A good knowledge of these factors too enables a person to make the most of his/her employability assets.

External Employability refers to the ability and willingness to switch to other (or similar) jobs in other organisations and therefore reflects the value of workers' human capital in the external labour market while Internal Employability refers to a worker's ability (and willingness) to remain employed with the current employer, which is the value of a worker's human capital in the internal labour market. Perceived employability refer to individuals' beliefs about his/her possibilities of finding new or better employment. How people perceive their possibilities of getting employment reflects how they efficiently search for a job. The combination of situational and individual factors were identified as important for employability perceptions (cited in Berntson, 2008). National economic prosperity, living/working in metropolitan areas, poor physical and good psychological work environments, formal education and competency development were found to be positively associated with perceived employability (cited in Berntson, 2008).

It is arguable that specific definitions are less important than a focus on approaches to promote transferable skills and developing attributes that will enable graduates to find suitable employment, excel in their work and contribute to the success of the organisation. Peter Hawkins (1999) summed this up: 'To be employed is to be at risk. To be employable is to be secure.'

EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS

Employability Skills is not a new concept. They describe technical skills and competencies that have always been an important part of effective and successful participation in the workplace. What is new about Employability Skills is the emphasis it is being given. Employability has become a major concern nowadays with the uncertain economic conditions that expose employers and employees to ambiguities. Employability skills or competencies encompass the abilities, aptitudes, achievements and qualities developed by an individual that can be applied to an occupation or career.These help an individual to get a job as well as hold the job and succeed at a career of his/her choice. They are also referred to as core skills, generic skills, transferable skills, career skills, catalytic skills, soft skills, career readiness skills, work-readiness skills, job skills, life skills, foundational skills, essential skills, enabling skills or key competencies. These are non-technical skills and they are required across all organisational levels and in all functional areas. These are the foundational skills upon which job specific skills should be built.

DEVELOPING EMPLOYABILITY

Developing employability skills includes developing employability attributes, developing self-promotion and career management skills, developing the willingness to learn and reflecting on learning. The onus for managing and developing one's employability lies with each individual (Nilsson, 2010). Hence if students take the responsibility to develop these skills, they will be able to get the jobs they seek. The educational institutions facilitate the development of these skills by providing a suitable learning environment where these skills can be acquired and honed and a culture that promotes life-long learning. Merely teaching the skills required

won't be enough, institutions have to develop the students' aptitude to learn, they need to reflect upon situations in order to learn from them, and developing expertise in self-improvement. These initiatives will produce graduates who are ready for the future.

MODELS AND FRAMEWORKS OF EMPLOYABILITY

Whilst these models are able to capture to some extent the meaning of this elusive concept of employability, they are either too elaborate to be practically used or too simple to do justice to this multidimensional issue. Hence a more comprehensive model is developed.

Several models on employability used by various governments and formulated by numerous universities were analysed and

DOTS model developed by Bill Law and A.G. Watts (1977) has 4 dimensions of employability Self awareness, Option awareness, Decision learning and Transition learning.

Another model, **USEM** (Knight and Yorke, 2004) classifies employability as four broad and inter-related components; Understanding (appropriate subject knowledge, apprehension and applicability), Skills (subject specific and generic abilities including the deployment of skills), Efficacy beliefs (awareness and understanding of one's self and one's abilities) and Meta-cognition (the ability to reflect on and regulate one's own learning and behaviour). This approach, strongly links the graduate attributes frameworks and assumes that these qualities which enable a graduate to complete a degree would also help him to be successful in his/her chosen career. However, this is not the case. Many graduates who perform well in academics find it difficult when they have to demonstrate their employability in (for example), interviews. Employers in many fields look for candidates who are self starters and can take charge of their own development. But these models don't really take into account some of the important factors that often have a significant impact on an individual's real chances of getting a job: social class, age, gender and ethnic background and fluctuations in the job market.

The **CareerEDGE model** of employability attempts to incorporate elements from both DOTS and USEM. It comprises of Career Development Learning, Experience, Degree subject knowledge, understanding and skills, Generic skills like adaptability/flexibility, willingness to learn, working in a team, good communication (oral and written), numeracy and finally, Emotional intelligence. This model clearly articulates what employability is theoretically and in a simple manner for practitioners and students. The framework also opens up new opportunities for the development of assessment tools and research into the impact of various employability interventions.

A psychosocial model of employability developed by Fugate et al. (2004) emphasizes the interactions between Career identity, Personal adaptability and Social and Human capital. Employability has a unique influence on job search behaviours, job choice and job search outcomes. Thus, Employability is synergistic collection of individual characteristics that is energised and directed by an individual's career identity. This person-centred focus emphasises the major shift in responsibility for career management and career development from employers to employees. In short the responsibility is on the job seekers to acquire the knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) valued by current and prospective employers. Fugate et al. (2004) demonstrated that employability is particularly beneficial to employees in transition – coping with job loss and job search. For such employees, employability facilitates identification of potential jobs and realisation of occupational opportunities quickly.

A very useful insight into determining what employability is in today's work environment is the **Emotional Intelligence model** developed by Daniel Goleman (1998). EI is 'the capacity for recognising our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships'. Research has shown that people with high levels of emotional intelligence motivate themselves and others to achieve more, enjoy greater career success, build lasting personal relationships and enjoy superior health than those with low levels of emotional intelligence (Cooper, 1997). Jaeger (2003) demonstrated that emotional intelligence can be improved through teaching and learning in a higher educational setting and is positively correlated with academic achievement. Moynagh and Worsley (2005) suggest that in the future knowledge-based economy, emotional intelligence will become even more relevant. If the large amount of research looking at the academic and life success of people with high levels of emotional intelligence is taken into account (Qualter et al., 2007,) it is difficult to see how any model of graduate employability would be complete without Emotional Intelligence.

However, Mantz Yorke argued that Employability 'is a curricular process that aids the student in the development of appropriate skills and learning.' It also represented the attainment of achievements in specific areas that are relevant to a particular job. Higher education is much more than a production line for employment-ready graduates. Nevertheless, people see higher education (or in this context, management education) as a stepping stone to a lucrative job. Education plays an important role in acquiring human capital, improving labour productivity, and hence determining one's future income path (human capital theory). The Employability of management graduates depends on the quality of the instruction they receive in business school and how well they meet employers' requirements and match industry expectations. (Andrews & Higson, 2006). In combination with the time, energy and involvement the individual puts into learning, the characteristics and quality of the education influences the levels of competencies the graduate acquires.

PROCEDURE

The above theories and frameworks were studied and the following Framework on employability was arrived at based on interviews with recruiters (at Tier 2 Tier 3 institutions offering management education), consultation with experts on skills, academicians and placement officers.They were asked to mention specific skills and qualities they expect students to possess, and the level of the same, in order to develop concrete indicators of employability.

The study also analysed secondary data from books, periodicals, journals and previous research conducted in this field.

FRAMEWORK

The four dimensions of the Framework are Self-Management Skills, Communication Skills, Social Skills, Placement Skills and Deployment Skills.

SELF-MANAGEMENT SKILLS

Self-Awareness: This includes awareness of one's strengths, weaknesses, drives, personality type, habits and values; being able to manage his/her emotions and also seek feedback from others to improve oneself.

Confidence: This refers to maintaining optimism regarding one's own ability, feeling and displaying a high level of confidence that others sense his/her capability without having to rely on others to boost his/her confidence. Candidates who possess the attributes of Self-efficacy and confidence are proactive in their career development, open to learning opportunities and also adapt to changes easily.

Motivation: It involves knowing what motivates you, feeling that you are responsible for your success and creating opportunities for your own growth, taking initiative consistently and being proactive, even when things get difficult.

Attitude & Enthusiasm: This consists of looking at the positive side of things, having enthusiasm to do things, being open to learning and quickly reorienting negative to positive outlook.

Discipline & Punctuality: This is reflected in having self-discipline, being on time always, being well organised, completing work on time and within deadlines.

Ambition & Goal Setting: This involves being ambitious, setting goals for oneself regularly, prioritising work, evaluating and monitoring one's own performance.

Adaptability: This refers to being able to confidently, competently and easily adapt to changing environments.(also ideas and technology) This enhances employability significantly.

Resilience: This consists of being strong, able to spring back from difficulties without getting discouraged easily. And also consider setbacks as learning opportunities.

Problem Solving: This involves the ability to identify problems, look at them objectively, decide based on facts, develop practical and creative solutions and follow a process to solve them without being overwhelmed by them or being dependent on others to solve them.

Decision Making: It involves being objective, using one's own judgment, following systematic steps, considering one's inner voice, and accepting responsibility for one's decisions.

Learning: This includes being open to learning, setting aside time for learning, looking for opportunities to continuously learn and improve oneself. The ability to keep on learning influences how fast and how well we acquire knowledge and skills.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Active Listening: This involves the ability to listen carefully, understand, interpret, evaluate, accurately recall and summarise information.

Reading Comprehension: This includes the ability to read fast and comprehend well. This is the result of reading regularly and widely on several topics and it enriches knowledge, skills and attitude.

Written Communication: This refers to being able to write letters, reports and other communication effectively and without errors.

Speaking Skills: This refers to being able to stand in front of others and articulate one's ideas effectively, clearly, and confidently in public.

Body language: This is being aware of appropriate body language, being comfortable and confident in interacting with others in all professional and other situations.

SOCIAL SKILLS

Empathy: This reflects the ability to perceive, understand and respond to the emotions and needs of others in most situations.

Leadership: This involves being willing to take on leadership roles, being persuasive, assertive, able to motivate oneself and others, translate ideas into action, lead a team towards a goal, get things done and take responsibility for the results.

Team Work: This refers to the being efficient, able to relate to different kinds of people, being comfortable and able to work well with others, collaborate and contribute to team results.

Conflict Management: This includes knowing what to do in conflict situations, knowing the basics of negotiation, being able to negotiate and resolve conflicts as they occur without complicating them further.

PLACEMENT AND DEPLOYMENT SKILLS

Self-Introduction: This refers to the ability to highlight one's strengths, establish a "fit" between one's skills and the skills required for the job, ability to confidently give an impressive self-introduction.

Self-Presentation (Appearance, Dressing): This involves appearing confident and comfortable, maintaining good hygiene and being neat and presentable, and having a professional manner in presenting oneself.

Manners and Etiquette: This refers to the impressive manner in presenting oneself and dealing with others. It requires awareness of social etiquette, polite behaviour and good manners.

Group Discussion: This includes the ability to speak fluently, confidently, logically, with clarity and consistency relevantly and lead and encourage discussion and interact effectively in a group.

Resume Writing: This involves being able to write an impressive, winning resume to suit the job position one has applied for. It includes highlighting one's achievements, skills and qualifications and presenting in a professional manner.

Facing Interviews: This refers to being well prepared for the interview, the ability of candidate to face any type of interview (technical, stress etc) and comfortably answer questions and show that he has the capability to perform the job and the interest to excel at it.

Case Studies: This involves the ability to read and understand the case well, analyse it systematically and thoroughly, apply concepts and answer questions based on the case.

Making Presentations: This refers to the knowing how to make a good presentation, ability to prepare meaningful presentations and deliver them effectively and professionally.

Subject Knowledge: This includes having a thorough knowledge of one's subject and confident of being able to apply it in the context of work and also being able to share on this knowledge.

Current Affairs: This involves reading regularly and widely being update with what is happening around the world,in many important fields.

Business Awareness: This refers to having a good knowledge of how business is influenced by local, national and global politics and economics, and also what the job position one is interested in involves, skills and attributes needed to be successful.

Quantitative Ability: This includes knowing how to use the relevant formulae appropriately and being able to quickly solve problems.

Verbal Ability: This involves having a strong command of English, understanding the question well and being able to identify the right answers.

Analytical Skills: This refers to knowing what to look for, how to analyse data, visualise, articulate, make inferences and draw conclusions based on data. This skill is crucial to making sound management decisions.

MS Word: This involves being able to type fast, align well, use commands, and make the document error free and presentable.

MS Excel: This includes the ability to create, type, use commands and formulae,analyse data, present data in charts etc.and comfortably use all the functions on Excel.

MS PowerPoint: This refers to knowing the commands and the ability to create original and effective presentations using all the features of PowerPoint.

Information Technology skills: This includes being able to operate a computer, send/receive emails, effectively use search engines toaccess relevant resources.
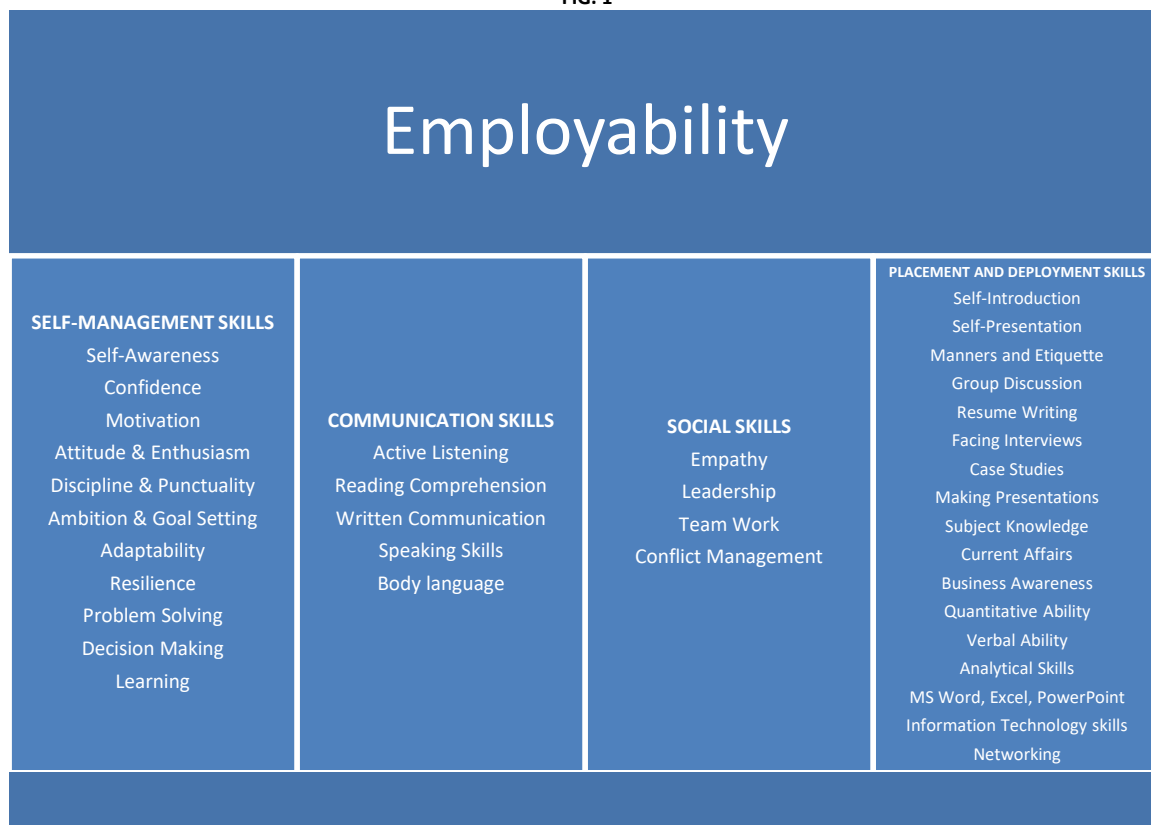
Networking: This refers to knowing where to find out information about jobs he/she is interested in, getting references, building and nurturing contacts and utilising them to source opportunities. The students who are good at networking have an edge over the others because this is crucial to actually land a job. Students who aren't so good at networking rely entirely on campus placement and many of them are dissatisfied with the companies or the salaries offered. However,there are several factors which influence campus placements every year.

CONCLUSION

This framework incorporates the important features of the other frameworks along with other relevant contemporary features mentioned by recruiters and skill experts and serves to bridge the gap between industry expectations and university output. This knowledge will be invaluable to develop Employability and hence the quality of Management Education. Management Education is required to contribute towards the success of the workforce and also to the personal fulfilment of the individual's goals, and so job-skills, career advice and an understanding about the working of the business world should be embedded in the academic programme. Hence job seekers, academicians and organisations can focus on these aspects and enhance their productivity.

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FIG. 1

Employability

SELF-MANAGEMENT SKILLS

Self-Awareness

Confidence

Motivation

Attitude & Enthusiasm

Discipline & Punctuality

Ambition & Goal Setting

Adaptability

Resilience

Problem Solving

Decision Making

Learning

COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Active Listening

Reading Comprehension

Written Communication

Speaking Skills

Body language

SOCIAL SKILLS

Empathy

Leadership

Team Work

Conflict Management

PLACEMENT AND DEPLOYMENT SKILLS

Self-Introduction

Self-Presentation

Manners and Etiquette

Group Discussion

Resume Writing

Facing Interviews

Case Studies

Making Presentations

Subject Knowledge

Current Affairs

Business Awareness

Quantitative Ability

Verbal Ability

Analytical Skills

MS Word, Excel, PowerPoint

Information Technology skills

Networking

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