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   REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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   STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

   OBJECTIVES

   HYPOTHESES

   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

   RESULTS & DISCUSSION

   FINDINGS

   RECOMMENDATIONS/SUGGESTIONS

   CONCLUSIONS

   SCOPE FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

   ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

   REFERENCES

   APPENDIX/ANNEXURE

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CONTRIBUTIONS TO BOOKS

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AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON WHAT MOTIVATES PEOPLE TO CHOOSE TEACHING CAREER IN ENGINEERING INSTITUTIONS

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ABSTRACT
The main purpose of this paper is to explore the reasons advocated by faculty members of engineering institutions for choosing the teaching profession. The study is vital in to order to evolve the important factors that decide the faculty to be within an institution and take active part in the development of technical education and also the institution. The study is significant at the time when institutions of higher learning are struggling to recruit and retain talented teaching faculty to run their regular courses. The current study was undertaken among 324 teaching faculty from various engineering institutions in Tamilnadu, India. Faculty were administered a modified version of Factors Influencing Teaching Choice(FIT) scale (Watt & Richardson, 2007) to rate the importance of various factors in influencing their career choice. The findings of the study would contribute to the body of knowledge on motivating factors to choose teaching career. The study also helps academic administrators, higher education leaders to identify and enhance the factors that drive young graduates towards academic career. The findings of the study revealed that, majority of the faculty choose the teaching career because of their self belief about their teaching ability, importance they attach to teaching career and the commitment to teaching for younger generation.

KEYWORDS
Teaching Faculty, Motivation, Career Choice, Career Decision.

1. INTRODUCTION
Good teaching faculty is the most valuable resource, the pivot around which the whole teaching- learning process revolves in an educational institution (Thankamma et al., 2010). Recruiting and retaining competent faculty is considered as a perennial problem facing higher education system in many countries all over the world (OECD, 2004). Faculty crunch in Indian higher education system especially in technical education is more severe than many countries. There is a dearth of about 4 lakh faculty members in Indian higher education system (Ranganth, 2012). The rapid growth in economy accelerated by industrial operations together with the explosive progress in information and technology has forced the technical institutions to increase the intake of students to a large level. Unfortunately the availability of qualified faculty members to match the growing student population has not improved in spite of various measures. Institutions are struggling hard to get the required faculty members to satisfy the teacher to student ratio as per AICTE (All India Council for Technical Education) norms. The important issue which needs immediate attention is the failure of institutions to attract a sufficiently large number of talented youth to the life of teaching and scholarship (Sunder, 2011). Even though the institutions are producing good number of engineering graduates every year, most of the graduated students are not impressed to take up teaching job as their initial profession. Faculty shortage persists to be a severe problem in the branches of engineering where the market demand for engineers is very high. Richardson & Watt (2005) rightly pointed that unless teaching can be made an attractive career choice for new graduates as well as for those who switch to teaching after pursuing other careers, the shortage of suitably qualified and experienced teachers' promises to worsen.

2. NEED FOR THE STUDY
There is growing concern about the quality of faculty in higher technical institutions in the country (Rao, 2006). A high-power committee for faculty development in technical institutions, appointed by the All-India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) in the year 2006, has come out with startling revelations about the quality of faculty in the country's 1,500-odd engineering institutions. The findings of the committee reported that technical competence of the faculty throughout the country has been abysmal and concluded that the shortage of competent teachers is the gravest problem bedeviling the country's system of technical education. This problem would become worse as the intake of engineering students posed to grow threefold in five years.
Engineers of current generation have various career options and opportunities after graduation. The rapidity in the growth of Information and Technology (I.T.) sector has opened up wide range of career opportunities for young engineers and also to other graduates who wish to migrate to I.T. industry. Further, there is a general opinion in the Indian society that teaching is not considered as a lucrative career in terms of salary and benefits. In spite of various detractors from choosing a career in teaching, it is interesting to know why still people choose to enter teaching profession in engineering institutions (Watt & Richardson, 2009). Thus the foci of the study were intended to enquire into the profile of characteristics and motivations for those who enter into and remain in teaching profession. Thus the study aimed to investigate "whether those who are attracted into teaching have the sufficient ability, knowledge, self interest and enthusiasm for teaching to enliven and sustain the interest of students". Hence it is vital to understand what motivates and attracts people to choose teaching profession.
Most of the international research on motivating factors to choose teaching career has originated from western literature especially from North America. However recent research interest in this domain has been advanced by the seminal work of Watt & Richardson (2007) through their FIT-Choice(Factors Influencing Teaching Choice) framework which provides a comprehensive and coherent model to guide systematic investigation into this problem. As it was vital to study the motivation for choosing teaching as a career in Indian context using a standard measure, the authors proposed to use standardized measures to analyze the problem. The current study was such an effort to apply Modified FIT-Choice based model in Indian context to study the motivation for choosing teaching career. Though the initial framework was developed, tested and validated in the Australian context, every effort were while modifying the scale to suit the Indian context.

3. RESEARCH EXPERIMENT DESIGN
This study employed a quantitative research methodology in which a questionnaire was used. A questionnaire based research instrument was most appropriate for collecting data from large number of participants and it was also easier also for the participants to complete within a timeframe. The instrument was validated by a panel of experts as most appropriate and feasible for answering research questions. The instrument consisted of two parts. The first part contained 39 items to measure the 11 constructs of motivation to choose teaching career. The second part dealt with the demographic details of the

participants. The validity of the instrument was verified by conducting validity tests. The data obtained was analyzed using the software package – SPSS 17.0 to study the significant results.

3.1. SAMPLE AND SETTING

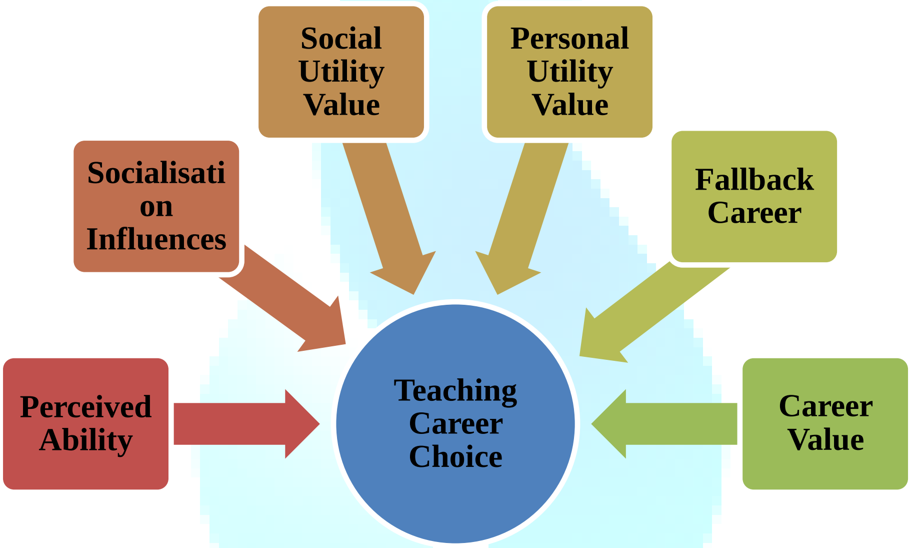
The study was conducted among the randomly selected sample population consisting of 324 faculty from various self financing engineering institutions situated around Chennai, Tamilnadu. All the participating institutions are conducting four year degree courses leading to Bachelor of Engineering (B.E.) / Bachelor of Technology (B.Tech.) degrees. All the institutions participated in the study are privately managed and affiliated to the Anna University, Chennai. The reason for conducting the study with private institutions is that they enroll more than 80% of students in engineering studies (Banerjee and Muley, 2010).

3.2. DEVELOPMENT OF INSTRUMENT USING - MODIFIED FIT FRAMEWORK

Motivations for choosing teaching as a career were assessed using the *FIT-Choice* [Factors Influencing Teaching Choice] scale (Watt & Richardson, 2007). The scale was designed to measure the major motivation constructs such as *perceived ability, career value, personal utility values, social utility values, socialization influences and fallback career.* Here, *perceived ability* refers to the one's self confidence in their ability to perform a task, while *career value* relates to the enjoyment one gets from completing a given job. *Personal utility values* measure the extent to which individuals consider tasks to be important, in terms of their personal goals, while *social utility values* are intended to measure ones desire to provide a service to society and make worthwhile contribution. *Socialization influences* measure the extent of influence of others on one's decisions. *Fallback career* means considering teaching as a second career choice, should one's first choice of career is not available(Watt & Richardson, 2007).

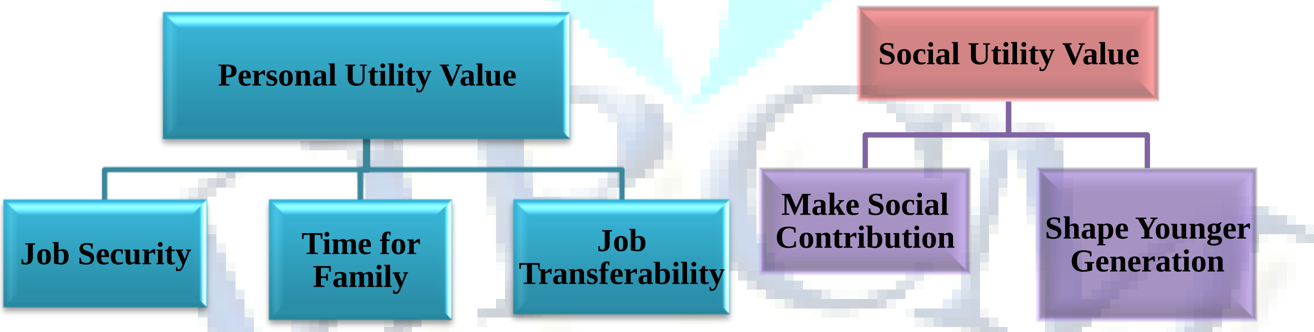
The authors made few changes to the original instrument which was developed to suit Australian sample. Though the redesigned scale contains all the six major motivations (Figure 1), some of the sub-constructs are removed which does not fit well in Indian context. Hence the final scale contains 39 items to measure 6 motivation factors. Each factor was measured by multiple item indicators with response options from 1 (Strongly Disagree) through 6 (Strongly Agree). Reliability analysis was conducted and the scale yielded Croan bach alpha value of .814, which is well above acceptable level.

FIGURE 1: INFLUENTIAL FACTORS IN TEACHING CAREER CHOICE



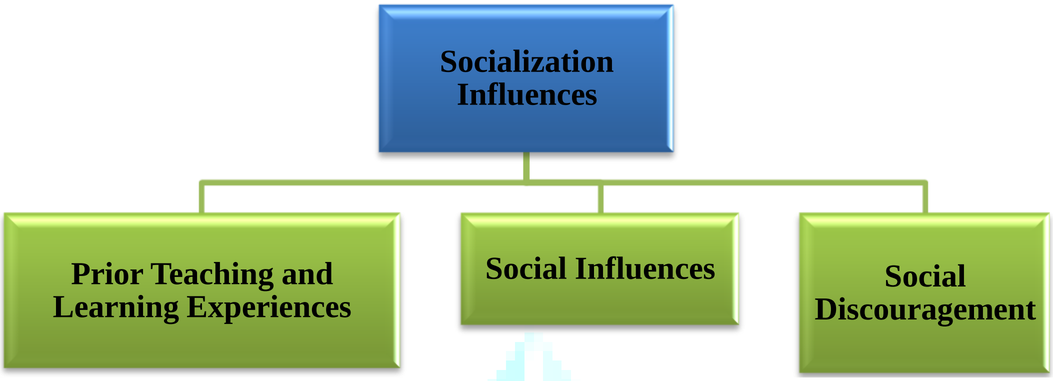
Among the six motivating factors, personal utility value measured three sub-constructs such as job security, time for family, job transferability. Similarly social utility value comprised two sub-constructs namely make social contribution and work with younger generation.

FIGURE 2: SUB CONSTRUCTS OF UTILITY VALUES



Socialization influences (Figure 3) included two sub-constructs such as prior teaching and learning experiences, social influences, social discouragement. Hence the total number of motivating factors including sub-constructs count to 11.

FIGURE 3: SUB CONSTRUCTS OF SOCIALIZATION INFLUENCES



4. DEMOGRAPHICS

The distribution of the respondents in terms of their Gender and Marital status was as shown in the Table 1.

TABLE 1: DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE SAMPLE

Factor	Variable	N	%
Gender	Male	181	56
	Female	143	44
Marital Status	Married	161	49.6
	Unmarried	163	50.4

The distribution of the respondents in terms of their experience category was as shown in the table 2.

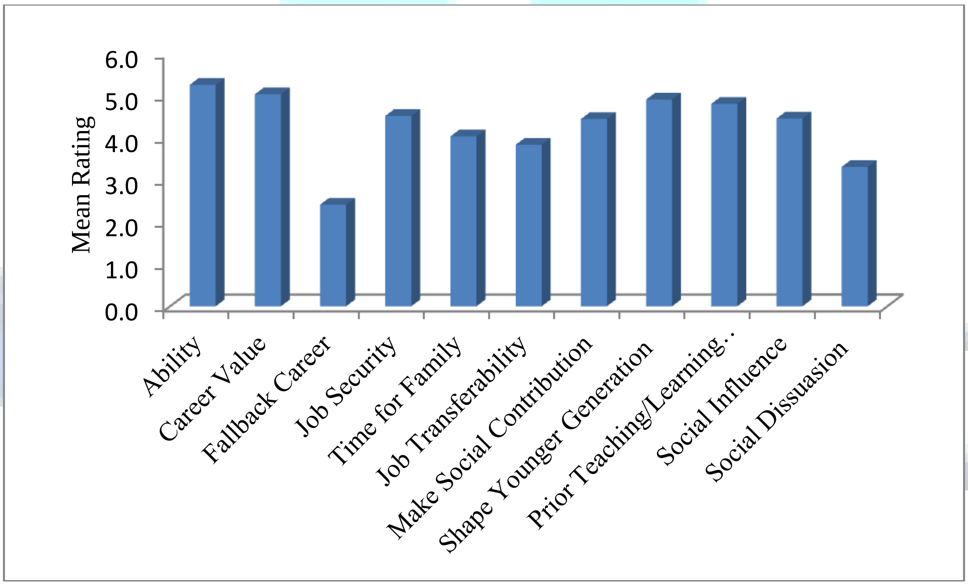
TABLE 2: EXPERIENCE CATEGORY

Experience Category	N	%
0-2 Years	109	34
3-10 Years	157	18
More than 10 Years	58	48

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Mean rating scores for the various motivating factors were displayed in the bar graph as shown in figure 4. Overall faculty rated that perceived ability to teach as the dominant motivating factor (Mean=5.3) to choose teaching profession. Similarly faculty considered the intrinsic value they place on teaching career as the next important motivation (Mean = 5.0). Social utility values such as shape younger generation(Mean = 4.9) and positive prior experiences of teaching and learning(Mean = 4.8) were also rated as important motivating factor. The lowest rated motivation to choose teaching career was considering it as a fallback career something they choose because their career options were limited with mean rating of 2.4. Social discouragement against opting for teaching profession was also rated as a lowest motivation factor with mean value of 3.3. These patterns of motivations thus obtained are similar to those previously documented for teachers across different domains and areas of teaching (Richardson & Watt, 2006). However social influence factor with mean rating of 4.5 was significantly higher in comparison with other studies(Richardson & Watt, 2006, 2009). This could be attributed to the influence of society which consists of parents, relatives and friends on the career decisions of people in Indian society.

FIGURE 4: MOTIVATING FACTORS TO CHOOSE TEACHING CAREER



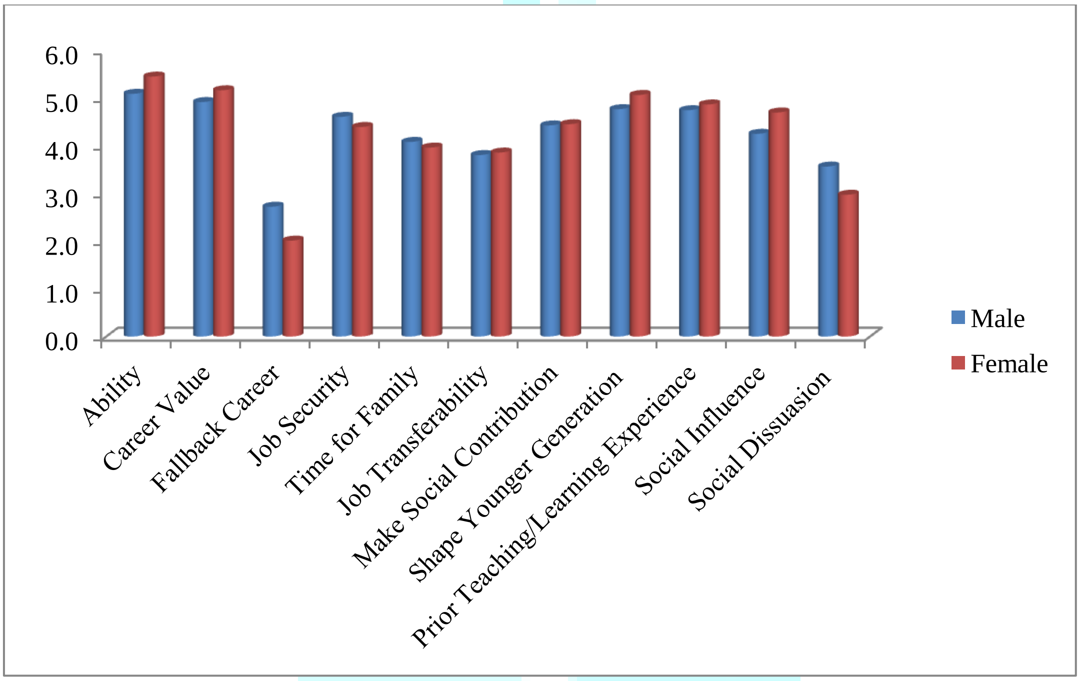
5.1. EFFECT OF GENDER ON MOTIVATIONS TO TEACH

Independent sample t-test was conducted to study the effect of gender on motivating factors to choose teaching career(Figure 5). Significant differences were observed between male and female on majority of factors.

- Female faculty gave higher ratings (M = 5.45, SD = .62) for their perceived ability to teach than male faculty (M = 5.09, SD = .71) with the level of significance $t(322) = 4.79$, $p < .001$.
- Similarly female faculty valued teaching career on a much higher scale (M = 5.17, SD = .76) than male faculty (M = 4.92, SD = .76) and the level of significance was $t(322) = 2.88$, $p < .005$.

- Even though faculty rated fall back career as the lowest motivation for choosing teaching career significant differences exists among male and female in their level of motivation to choose teaching as a last resort career [$t(322) = 5.61, p < .001$]. Male faculty reported stronger motivation ($M = 2.72, SD = 1.20$) than female ($M = 2.01, SD = 1.0$) to choose teaching career when they could not find job elsewhere other than teaching.
- Male faculty believed that teaching career is more secured ($M = 4.61, SD = .65$) than any other profession compared to female ($M = 4.39, S = .82$) and the level of significance was $t(322) = 2.60, p < .005$. Male faculty believed that the demand for faculty positions in engineering institutions continues to grow as government is keen to increase enrollment in higher education from the current 17% to 30% by the year 2020 (Chetan Chouhan, 2012). Moreover it is widely believed that the economic recessions in the past did not affect the education sector to a great extent in India.
- Female faculty reported working with younger generation as the most important motivation factor($M = 5.07, SD = .82$) compared to male faculty ($M = 4.77, SD = .96$) and the level of significance was $t(322) = 2.93, p < .005$. This finding is synonymous with previous studies by Watt & Richarson(2009) with the Australian sample.
- Social influences played a vital role in career decisions among female faculty ($M = 4.7, S = .65$) compared to male faculty ($M = 4.25, SD = .91$), $t(322) = 5.12, p < .001$. The most important influences for women to choose teaching were family members and teachers.
- Similarly social discouragement from society to choose teaching career was significantly higher for male faculty ($M = 3.56, SD = .94$) than female faculty ($M = 2.97, SD = .91$), reported significant value was $t(322) = 5.67, p < .001$. This could be attributed to the general belief that teaching has traditionally not been perceived as a high paying profession.

FIGURE 5: EFFECT OF GENDER ON MOTIVATIONS TO TEACH



5.2. EFFECT OF CAREER STAGE ON THE MOTIVATIONS TO TEACH

A one-way ANOVA between subjects was conducted to study the effect of career stages of faculty on the decision to choose teaching career. Career stage of faculty was classified into three categories such as *early career stage*(experience between 0-2 years), *mid career stage*(experience of 3-10 years) and *late career stage*(experience > 10 years). There were significant differences at $p < .05$ among the career stage of faculty for five factors.

- There was significant difference between career stage of faculty and their perceived ability to teach [$F(2, 321) = 7.08, p = .001$]. Early career faculty reported their ability to teach on a higher mean rating (M = 5.5, SD = 0.67) compared to mid career (M = 5.1, SD = 0.72) and late career faculty (M = 5.2, SD = 0.62).
- Early career faculty reported higher mean rating for career value (M = 5.1, SD = 0.77) compared to compared to mid career (M = 4.9, SD = 0.75) and late career faculty (M = 4.9, SD = 0.78). It is interesting to find those early career faculty members who comprise cohorts of fresh graduates new into teaching are highly motivated and enthusiastic about the teaching career, which is good sign for the engineering education of the country.
- There was significant difference between career stages of faculty members in considering the teaching as a fallback career [$F(2, 321) = 10.47, p = .000$]. Mid career faculty with mean rating (M = 2.7, SD = 1.24) and late career faculty with mean rating (M = 2.5, SD = 1.05) differ significantly from early career faculty with mean rating (M = 2.0, SD = 1.07).
- There was significant difference between career stage of faculty in reporting the job transferability construct[$F(2, 321) = 7.85, p = .000$]. Mean rating of mid career faculty was higher (M = 4.0, SD = .75), late career faculty reported mean rating (M = 3.8, SD = .72) and early career faculty (M = 3.6, SD = .85). Faculty in the mid stage of their career are bound to search for better alternatives in other institutions, if they are not satisfied in current position. Hence a teaching career provides a good opportunity for them, to easily migrate to other institutions.
- Social influence was significantly different between career stage of faculty [$F(2, 321) = 4.15, p = .017$]. Early career faculty exhibited stronger mean rating (M = 4.6, SD = 0.81) compared to mid career faculty (M = 4.3, SD = 0.86) and late career faculty with mean rating (M = 4.4, SD = 0.80). As it is apparent that career decisions of young graduates are influenced by their relatives and friends, they reported a stronger motivation for social influences.
- Social discouragement which is the degree with which others advised against pursuing a career in teaching, differed significantly across career stages of faculty [$F(2, 321) = 14.02, p = .000$]. Mean rating of mid career faculty was higher (M = 3.6, SD = .96) than late career faculty with mean rating (M = 3.3, SD = .71) and early career faculty (M = 2.9, SD = 1.01). The reason could be there were diverse career options for mid career faculty compared to late career faculty and hence they were strongly distracted against choosing teaching career. On the other hand early career faculty members who are predominantly female were encouraged to opt for teaching career.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The study has provided a detailed portrait of who chooses teaching career in engineering institutions. The effect of demographic variables such as sex and marital status, career stage on the factors influencing career choice was studied. It was identified that teaching ability related beliefs such as intrinsic career value, social utility value like shaping the younger generation, positive prior experiences of teaching and learning were all important motivations for faculty to choose teaching career. However male faculty participated in the study has reported strong experiences of social discouragement, which typically reflects the perception of Indian society about the teaching profession. Female faculty reported strong social influence which again echoes the Indian culture where career decisions of women are strongly influenced by their family members and relatives.

Understanding influential motivations for individuals who choose teaching career has important implications for recruitment and retention process. It is suggested that faculty recruitment process could include relevant procedures to target the positive motivations to effectively attract young engineering graduates into teaching career. Similarly positive encouragement from society to choose teaching profession can significantly influence the career decisions of younger graduates. On the other hand, social discouragement to choose teaching career should be minimized by creating awareness among public about the values and benefits of teaching profession. Academic leaders can strategize methods to identify students with good teaching abilities and motivate them to take up teaching profession. Thus they ultimately become better teachers of tomorrow.

The collective implication of the study insists that at the recruitment level, the intrinsic and altruistic reasons for candidates to join teaching are a positive aspect that needs to be recognized and nurtured during the initial period. Moreover, there is a need to ensure that the motives for entering into teaching are realized during their teaching career. In other words, there must be a good match between expectations before coming into teaching and reality when in the profession. Unless issues facing the teaching community such as equity in pay and promotion are addressed and better working environment is not guaranteed any efforts to retain the competent faculty will be unsuccessful.

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TIMELINESS: AN ESSENCE OF CORPORATE REPORTING PRACTICES

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ABSTRACT

The paper examines empirically the timing behaviour of the selected Indian companies because timeliness in the corporate reporting influences the decisions of the stakeholders. The delay in reporting reduces the relevance of the information given in the financial reports. The present study covers the period of seven years from 2002-2003 to 2008-2009. Three basic aspects of timeliness in corporate reporting are considered in the paper i.e., variation in date of end of the accounting year, reporting period gap and time lag. The results of the study show that there is less variation in reporting period gap and date of end of accounting year but lag between balance sheet dates to Annual General Meeting could not depict a definite trend. The study suggested that all the companies should balance their accounts on same date and reporting period gap should be of twelve months because large variations in these two aspects may make inter-company and inter-period comparison complicated. The shorter the time between balance sheet dates and Annual General Meeting, the greater the benefits that can be derived from the financial statements.

KEYWORDS

Corporate reporting**,** financial statements, Stakeholders, Timeliness.

INTRODUCTION

Corporate annual reports are prepared to transmit the information to the stakeholders according to their needs. As the informational needs of the stakeholders who have active interest in corporate reporting are on rise has persuaded for timely and credible corporate reports. The American Accounting Association (1954) observed, "Timeliness of reporting is an essential element of adequate disclosure." In this chapter, the timing behavior of companies which are preparing annual reports have been analysed for the period 2002-2003 to 2008-2009.

According to the International Accounting Standards Board (IASB, 2008:40,) timeliness of financial reports is the "availability of information needed by decision makers for useful decision making before it loses its capacity to influence decisions." Timeliness of annual reports is an important determinant of their usefulness. Economic and financial decisions by users of the annual reports are greatly influenced by the time value of information. In general, the significance of the information diminishes with increase of time lag in publication of annual report of a concern.

Timely disclosure of information improves the image of the corporate body. Shorter the time between the end of the accounting year and the publication date, the greater the benefit that can be derived from the financial reports. The delay in releasing the financial reports is most likely to enhance uncertainty associated with the decisions based on the information contained in the financial reports. In this backdrop, this paper attempts to analyse the timeliness of corporate reporting practices and problems associated with the observed phenomena.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Various researchers have studied the different aspects of timeliness in corporate reporting.

Givoly and Palmon (1982) discovered that there was an improvement in the timeliness of annual reports of 210 companies listed on New York Stock Exchange (NYSE) over a period of 15 years from 1960 to 1974. To describe timeliness corporate size and complexity of operations were taken into consideration. According to them, delay in reporting appeared to be more closely associated to industry patterns and traditions rather than to the company attributes studied and reporting time lags decreased over time.

Sharma (1991) examined financial reporting in Central Public Government Enterprises incorporated under Companies Act 1956. He concluded that t size of the firm and age has a significant relationship with its reporting time lag. Meena (1995) in his study of Corporate Reporting practices in Public Enterprises established that the Age of the organization, Turnover, Capital Employed, and Rate of Turnover had no influence on the reporting time lag, Audit time lag and total time lag.

Ahmad (2003) investigates the timeliness of corporate annual reporting in three South Asian countries, namely, Bangladesh, India and Pakistan from 558 annual reports of different companies for the year 1998. It is found that around 90 Per cent of the companies' balance sheet end date falls in June and December in Bangladesh, March in India, and June and September in Pakistan. A multivariate regression analysis indicates that financial year-end date is a significant determinant in each country.

Ismail & Chandler (2004) examines the timeliness of quarterly financial reports published by companies listed on the Kuala Lumpur Stock Exchange (KLSE). In their study they also determine the association between timeliness and each of the following company attributes – size, profitability, growth and capital structure. An analysis of 117 quarterly reports ended on 30 September 2001 reveals that all, except one company reported within an allowable reporting lag of two months. According to the study, there is a significant association between timeliness and each of the four companies attributes.

Conover, Miller, & Szakmary (2008) study financial reporting lags, the incidence of late filing, and the relationship between reporting lags, firm performance and the degree of capital market scrutiny. They use a large sample of firms spanning 22 countries over eleven-year period. A focal point of our analysis is whether the incidence of late filing, and the relations between reporting days and other variables differ systematically between common and code law countries. Relative to U.S. firms, they report that the time taken and allowed for filing is usually longer in other countries and that the statutory requirement is more frequently violated. Timely filing is found to be less frequent in code law countries. Poor firm performance and longer reporting lags are more strongly linked in common law countries Therefore, the above analysis describes that plenty of research has been conducted to explore new insights into the field of timeliness in corporate disclosure.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The present paper is being conducted for the purpose of following objectives:

1. To analyse the diversity in closing of balance-sheet of Indian company
2. To study the reporting period gap followed by Indian companies over the period of time.
3. To analyse the time lag problems of Indian companies.

NATURE OF THE DATA

The study is based on secondary data. The data has been collected from the annual reports of the 50 selected companies from the BSE Index of 500 companies by exploring various sources including companies' websites, personal visits to the companies, stock exchanges, broker offices, investors research institutes and libraries etc. The present study covers the period from 2002-2003 to 2008-2009. To achieve the objective of the present study statistical tools like average and proportions have been used.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The present study covers the timeliness aspect of the selected companies because variations are found in the date of balance sheet, reporting period gap and time lag.

FINDING OF THE STUDY

DIVERSITY IN CLOSING OF BALANCE-SHEET

According to Sections 2 (17) and 210 (4) of the Companies Act, 1956 the companies can select any date for closing of their annual accounts. So, the companies are free to opt any date to close their annual accounts.

TABLE 1: DIVERSITY OF BALANCE-SHEET DATES (in Numbers, Percentage)

Sr. No.	Month	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09
		NO. OF COMPANIES						
1	January	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	February	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	March	45 (90)	45 (90)	44 (88)	44 (88)	44 (88)	44 (88)	44 (88)
4	April	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	May	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	June	1 (2)	1 (2)	1 (2)	-	-	-	-
7	July	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	August	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	September	1 (2)	1 (2)	1 (2)	1 (2)	1 (2)	1 (2)	1 (2)
10	October	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	November	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12	December	3 (6)	3 (6)	4 (8)	5 (10)	5 (10)	5 (10)	5 (10)
	Total	50	50	50	50	50	50	50

Source: Annual Reports of selected companies, 2003-2009.

Note: figures in parentheses represent percentage.

To study the diversity in closing of balance-sheet, the balance-sheet dates of companies have been analyzed and presented in Table 1 Table shows that majority of the companies, i.e., 45 (90 per cent) closed their books of accounts on 31st march for the year first two years i.e., 2002-03 and 2003-04 and 44(88 per cent) companies for the remaining years closed their books of accounts on March 31. Only one company, namely, Gujarat Ambuja Cement Ltd. closed its balance-sheet in the month of June for first three years. Similarly one company, namely, Siemens Limited closed its balance-sheets in the month of September. During first two years i.e., 2002-03 and 2003-04 three companies which are Nestle-India Limited, Bosch Limited and Ranbaxy Laboratories Limited closed their books of accounts on December 31. In year 2004-05, ACC Cement Limited changed its closing date March to December, similarly Gujarat Ambuja Cement Limited preferred to close the books of accounts on December 31, 2005-06. Hence, for the year 2008-09, the total number of 44 companies (88 per cent) selected the month of March to close their books of accounts, one company (2 per cent) preferred the month of September and 5 companies (10 per cent) chosen the month of December to close their books of accounts. Therefore, Table 5.1 highlights that majority of the large companies selected March 31, followed by December 31 and September 30 of the dates for closing their balance-sheets. None of the companies balance their books of accounts in any other month than these. Thus, the analysis of diversity in balance-sheet dates in companies reveals that there is a very low diversity in balance-sheet dates.

On the other hand, large diversities lead to various implications. Large diversities in balance-sheet dates may make inter-company and inter-period comparison complicated. Due to these complications, confusion and doubts arise in the minds of the investors and it affects the rationality of their decisions. All the companies under study have chosen the month of March to balance their accounts. So, it is a healthy sign and good gesture of these companies that they are cautious about balancing their books of accounts as it affects the rationality of the stakeholders' decisions.

REPORTING PERIOD GAP

Reporting period gap refers to the duration of the reporting period. Section 2 (17) of the Companies Act, 1956 defines a "financial year" as the period in respect of which any profit and loss account of the body corporate laid before it in annual general meeting is made up, whether that period is a year or not. Section 210 (4) of the Act requires that the financial year of a company may be less or more than a calendar year, but it shall not exceed fifteen months. Further, it may be extended to eighteen months where special permission has been granted in that behalf by the Registrar. So, the maximum acceptable duration of reporting period may be eighteen months. Hence, diversity is seen in the duration of reporting period.

TABLE 2: LENGTH OF REPORTING PERIOD (in Numbers, Percentage)

	NO. OF COMPANIES					
Year	**6 Months**	**9 Months**	**12 Months**	**15 Months**	**18 Months**	**Total**
2002-03	-	-	50 (100)	-	-	50
2003-04	-	-	50 (100)	-	-	50
2004-05	-	1 (2)	49 (98)	-	-	50
2005-06	-	-	49 (98)	-	1 (2)	50
2006-07	-	-	50 (100)	-	-	50
2007-08	-	-	50 (100)	-	-	50
2008-09	-	-	50 (100)	-	-	50

Source: Annual Reports of selected companies, 2003-2009.

Note: figures in parentheses represent percentage.

Diversity in the reporting period gap practices affects the inter-company, intra-company and inter-period comparisons. Diversity in the reporting period gap also acts as a obstacle in the way of attaining the goals of corporate accounting The behavior of the selected companies towards the length of reporting period has been studied by calculating and identifying the opening and closing dates of balance-sheets and their results has been shown in Table 2. The table shows that majority of the companies, i.e., 48 (96 per cent) have adopted 12 months reporting period throughout the period of study. During the first six years of study, all the companies (100 per cent) followed 12 months period to report their annual results. Only two companies, namely, ACC Ltd. and Gujarat Ambuja Cements Ltd., the reporting period length is found to be 9 months and 18 months respectively. Hence, the reporting period length analysis of companies highlights the fact that majority of these companies have preferred 12 months period to disclose their annual results. Less variation has shown by the selected companies while opt for the length of reporting period.

TIME LAG

Time lag in corporate disclosure refers to the time gap between the end of the accounting period and the date on which the corporate annual financial reports are issued. Section 210 (3) of the Companies Act, 1956 states that the accounts of a company shall relate:

(a) In the case of the first annual general meeting of the company, to the period beginning with the incorporation of the company and ending with a day which shall not precede the day of the meeting by more than nine months; and

(b) In the case of any subsequent annual general meeting of the company, to the period beginning with the day immediately after the period for which the account was last submitted and ending with a day which shall not precede the day of the meeting by more than six months, or in cases where an extension of time has been granted for holding the meeting by more than six months.

Section 219 (1) of the Act also states that a copy of annual report which is to be laid in annual general meeting by a company must be delivered at least twenty-one days before the date of the meeting to every member of the company.

Section 619 of the Act describes that in the case of Government company, annual report on the working and affairs of that company to be prepared within three months of its annual general meeting before which the audit report is placed and further as soon as possible, it should be laid before both the Houses of Parliament or State Legislature, as the case may be, together with a copy of audit report and the comments made by the Comptroller and Auditor General of India.

Thus, companies are allowed maximum six months to present the annual accounts to their shareholders in the annual general meeting and nine months in the case of extension. However, government companies have three months additional time.

The lag can be studied in a number of ways. There are a number of time gaps between the end of the accounting period and the issuance of corporate annual financial reports which may include the following:

1. Time-lag between the end of the reporting period (balance sheet date) and the date of auditor's report;•'
2. Time-lag between the date of auditor's report and the date of annual general meeting (AGM) notice;
3. Time-lag between the end of the reporting period (balance sheet date) and the date of annual general meeting (AGM) notice;
4. Time-lag between the end of the reporting period (balance sheet date) and the date on which actual annual general meeting (AGM) is holds;
5. Time-lag between the auditor's report and the date of holding annual general meeting (AGM); and
6. Time-lag between the date of annual general meeting notice and the date on which the actual annual general meeting (AGM) is held.

According to the above explanation, there are as many as ten important time-lags between the closing of an accounting period and the date of holding annual general meeting. However, preliminary research of the annual reports of the selected companies showed that majority of the companies have disclosed only three dates, i.e., the date on which accounting period ends (balance-sheet date), date of auditor's report and the probable date of holding the annual general meeting. Therefore, in this part of the chapter time-lag has been studied by taking into consideration three time-lags, i.e. lag 1 (balance-sheet date and date of auditor's report), lag 2 (date of auditor's report and AGM date), and lag 3 (balance-sheet date and AGM date).

TIME LAG BETWEEN BALANCE SHEET DATE AND AUDITOR'S REPORT

The pattern and trend in time lag between balance sheet date and auditor's report in the selected companies has been shown in Table 3. It is clear from Table that during 2002-03, the highest proportion i.e. 28 percent of the companies used to take 20 to 40 days and a similar proportion of companies used to take 40 to 60 days from balance sheet date to auditor's report. The average time taken from balance sheet date to auditor's report worked at 48.08 days.

TABLE 3: TIME LAG BETWEEN BALANCE SHEET DATE AND AUDITOR'S REPORT (in Numbers, Percentage)

Time Lag (days)	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09
NUMBER OF COMPANIES							
0-20	5 (10)	4 (8)	3 (6)	3 (6)	3 (6)	2 (4)	2 (4)
20-40	14 (28)	12 (24)	15 (30)	16 (32)	17 (34)	19 (38)	18 (36)
40-60	14 (28)	20 (40)	17 (34)	17 (34)	21 (42)	19 (38)	23 (46)
60-80	6 (12)	8 (16)	8 (16)	9 (18)	3 (6)	3 (6)	2 (4)
80-100	5 (10)	3 (6)	3 (6)	3 (6)	3 (6)	5 (10)	2 (4)
100-120	2 (4)	2 (4)	2 (4)	1 (2)	2 (4)	1 (2)	1 (2)
120 & above	4 (8)	1 (2)	2 (4)	1 (2)	1 (2)	0	2 (4)
Average days	48.08	45.24	44.70	41.32	39.14	35.78	38.16

Source: Annual Reports of selected companies, 2003-2009.

Note: figures in parentheses represent percentage.

During 2003-04, the highest proportion i.e. 40 per cent of the companies took 40 to 60 days from the date of balance sheet to auditor's report, followed by 24 per cent companies taking 20 to 40 days. There were only 2 per cent of companies who took more than 120 days. The average time taken from the date of balance sheet to auditor's report came to be 45.24 days.

During 2004-05, the highest proportion i.e. 34 per cent of the companies took 40 to 60 days from the date of balance sheet to auditor's report, followed by 30 per cent companies taking 20 to 40 days. There were only 4 per cent of companies who took more than 120 days. The average time taken from the date of balance sheet to auditor's report came to be 44.70 days.

During 2005-06, the highest proportion i.e. 34 percent of the companies took 40 to 60 days from the date of balance sheet to auditor's report, followed by 32 per cent companies taking 20 to 40 days. There were only 2 per cent of companies who took more than 120 days. The average time taken from the date of balance sheet to auditor's report came to be 41.32 days.

During 2006-07, the highest proportion i.e. 42 per cent of the companies took 40 to 60 days from the date of balance sheet to auditor's report, followed by 34 per cent companies taking 20 to 40 days. There were only 2 percent of companies who took more than 120 days. The average time taken from the date of balance sheet to auditor's report came to be 39.14 days.

During 2007-08, the highest proportion i.e. 38 per cent of the companies took 40 to 60 days from the date of balance sheet to auditor's report, followed by an equal proportion of companies taking 20 to 40 days. There was none of the companies who took more than 120 days. The average time taken from the date of balance sheet to auditor's report came to be 35.78 days.

During 2008-09, the highest proportion i.e. 46 per cent of the companies took 40 to 60 days from the date of balance sheet to auditor's report, followed by 36 percent companies taking 20 to 40 days. There were only 4 per cent of companies who took more than 120 days. The average time taken from the date of balance sheet to auditor's report came to be 38.16 days.

The analysis highlighted that time lag between balance sheet dates to auditor's report reduced from 48.08 days in 2003-03 to 38.16 days in 2008-09 i.e. a reduction of 10 days. However, the reduction in 2007-08 was more than 12 days. This indicated that time lag from balance sheet date to auditor's report improved over the period of the study.

TIME LAG BETWEEN AUDITOR'S REPORT AND ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING

The patter and trend in time lag between auditor's report and annual general meeting in the selected companies has been shown in Table 4. It is evident from Table 5.6 that during 2002-03, the highest proportion i.e. 34 percent of the companies used to take 60 to 80 days and 18 percent of companies used to take each 80 to 100 days and 40 to 60 days from auditor's report to annual general meeting AGM. The average time taken from auditor's report to annual general meeting worked at 74.28 days.

TABLE 4: TIME LAG BETWEEN AUDITOR'S REPORT AND ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING (in Numbers, Percentage)

Time Lag (days)	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09
NUMBER OF COMPANIES							
0-20	1 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
20-40	4 (8)	2 (4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (4)	1 (2)	0 (0)
40-60	9 (18)	13 (26)	12 (24)	21 (42)	11 (22)	9 (18)	9 (18)
60-80	17 (34)	17 (34)	19 (38)	11 (22)	14 (28)	13 (26)	18 (36)
80-100	9 (18)	7 (14)	10 (20)	7 (14)	13 (26)	18 (36)	10 (20)
100-120	4 (8)	5 (10)	5 (10)	10 (20)	7 (14)	6 (12)	8 (16)
120 and above	6 (12)	6 (12)	4 (8)	1 (2)	3 (6)	2 (4)	5 (10)
Average days	74.28	76.64	78.6	74.20	77.84	78.62	83.40

Source: Annual Reports of selected companies, 2003-2009.

Note: figures in parentheses represent percentage.

During 2003-04, the highest proportion i.e. 34 per cent of the companies took 60 to 80 days from the auditor's report to annual general meeting, followed by 26 per ent companies taking 40 to 60 days. There were 12 percent of companies who took more than 120 days. The average time taken from the auditor's report to annual general meeting came to be 76.64 days.

During 2004-05, the highest proportion i.e. 38 per cent of the companies took 60 to 80 days from the auditor's report to annual general meeting, followed by 24 per cent companies taking 40 to 60 days. There were 8 per cent of companies who took more than 120 days. The average time taken from the auditor's report to annual general meeting came to be 78.60 days.

During 2005-06, the highest proportion i.e. 42 per cent of the companies took 40 to 60 days from the auditor's report to annual general meeting, followed by 22 per cent companies taking 60 to 80 days. There were only 2 percent of companies who took more than 120 days. The average time taken from the auditor's report to annual general meeting came to be 74.20 days.

During 2006-07, the highest proportion i.e. 28 per cent of the companies took 60 to 80 days from the auditor's report to annual general meeting, followed by 26 per cent companies taking 80 to 100 days. There were only 6 per cent of companies who took more than 120 days. The average time taken from the auditor's report to annual general meeting came to be 77.84 days.

During 2007-08, the highest proportion i.e. 36 per cent of the companies took 80 to 100 days from the auditor's report to annual general meeting, followed by 26 per cent of companies taking 60 to 80 days. There were only 4 per cent of the companies who took more than 120 days. The average time taken from the auditor's report to annual general meeting came to be 78.62 days.

During 2008-09, the highest proportion i.e. 36 per cent of the companies took 60 to 80 days from the auditor's report to annual general meeting, followed by 20 per cent companies taking 80 to 100 days. There were 10 per cent of companies who took more than 120 days. The average time taken from the auditor's report to annual general meeting came to be 83.40 days.

The analysis highlighted that time lag between auditor's reports to annual general meeting increased from 74.28 days in 2003-03 to 83.40 days in 2008-09 i.e. an increase of 9 days. This indicated that time lag from auditor's report to annual general meeting deteriorated over the period of the study.

TIME LAG BETWEEN BALANCE SHEET DATE AND ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING

The patter and trend in time lag between balance sheet date and annual general meeting in the selected companies has been shown in Table 5. The analysis given in Table 5.7 that during 2002-03, the highest proportion i.e. 50 per cent of the companies used to take 100 to 150 days, followed by 34 per cent of companies used to take each 150 to 200 days from balance sheet date to annual general meeting. The average time taken from balance sheet date to annual general meeting worked at 133.50 days.

TABLE 5: TIME LAG BETWEEN BALANCE SHEET DATE AND ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING (in Numbers, Percentage)

Time Lag (days)	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09
NUMBER OF COMPANIES							
0-100	7 (14)	12 (24)	6 (12)	12 (24)	10 (20)	8 (16)	9 (18)
100-150	25 (50)	22 (44)	26 (52)	22 (44)	24 (48)	29 (58)	21 (42)
150-200	17 (34)	15 (30)	18 (36)	15 (30)	15 (30)	12 (24)	19 (38)
200-250	1 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (2)	0 (0)	1 (2)
250 & above	0 (0)	1 (2)	0 (0)	1 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Average days	133.50	125.00	134.00	125.00	127.00	122.50	132.50

Source: Annual Reports of selected companies, 2003-2009.

Note: figures in parentheses represent percentage.

During 2003-04, the highest proportion i.e. 44 percent of the companies took 100 to 150 days from the balance sheet date to annual general meeting, followed by 30 per cent companies taking 150 to 200 days. There were 2 percent of companies who took more than 250 days. The average time taken from the balance sheet date to annual general meeting came to be 125 days.

During 2004-05, the highest proportion i.e. 52 per cent of the companies took 100 to 150 days from the balance sheet date to annual general meeting, followed by 36 per cent companies taking 150 to 200 days. There was none of companies who took more than 250 days. The average time taken from the balance sheet date to annual general meeting came to be 134 days.

During 2005-06, the highest proportion i.e. 44 per cent of the companies took 100 to 150 days from the balance sheet date to annual general meeting, followed by 30 per cent companies taking 150 to 200 days. There were only 2 percent of companies who took more than 250 days. The average time taken from the balance sheet date to annual general meeting came to be 125 days.

During 2006-07, the highest proportion i.e. 48 per cent of the companies took 100 to 150 days from the balance sheet date to annual general meeting AGM, followed by 30 per cent companies taking 150 to 200 days. There were only 2 per cent of companies who took more than 200-250 days. The average time taken from the balance sheet date to annual general meeting came to be 127 days.

During 2007-08, the highest proportion i.e. 58 per cent of the companies took 100 to 150 days from the balance sheet date to annual general meeting, followed by 24 per cent of companies taking 150 to 200 days. There were 16 percent of the companies who took less than 100 days. The average time taken from the balance sheet date to annual general meeting came to be 122.50 days.

During 2008-09, the highest proportion i.e. 42 percent of the companies took 100 to 150 days from the balance sheet date to annual general meeting, followed by 38 per cent companies taking 150 to 200 days. There were 2 percent of companies who took more than 200 to 250 days. The average time taken from the balance sheet date to annual general meeting came to be 132.50 days.

The analysis highlighted that time lag between balance sheet dates to annual general meeting could not depict a definite trend, rather it remained fluctuated between 122.50 days in 2007-08 to 134 days in 2004-05. Declining trend of time lag between balance sheet dates to annual general meeting should be set out.

CONCLUSION

On the basis of the above analysis, the following conclusions can be drawn that most of the companies have selected the month of March to balance their annual accounts.Reporting period gap analysis reveals that majority of the company's preferred 12 months period to report their annual accounts. Moreover, Lag analysis reveals that time lag from balance sheet date to auditor's report improved over the period of the study, time lag from auditor's report to annual general meeting deteriorated over the period of the study and lag between balance sheet dates to annual general meeting could not depict a definite trend.

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A STUDY ON CONSUMERS PREFERENCE ON BRAND LOYALTY

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ABSTRACT
The aim of this paper is to analyze and explore factors that influence consumers trust in the global brands. Summarizing relevant scientific articles and academic literature on brand trust, it was found that there is a need to conduct research which will be dedicated to the consumer trust in the global brands. Until now there is lack of study in this field of trust in the context of global brands and this will be research based in the scientifically way which will shred light in the existing discipline but new way of treatment of case. To be much scientifically we use hypotheses in order to have relevant results from the consumers‟ perspective. However, in this study survey methodology has been adopted, factors that have impact in the global brand trust were considered.. The results will have positive impact in the field of branding, respectively in the field of global brand trust. A total of 50questionnaire responses were used to empirically test the consumer trust for global brands. This study found that the brand trust has a significant influence in the customer loyalty. In addition, Brand trust has a positive impact on the consumer preference. As well as, the reliability scale for all variables that has been used in this study were .802 (Cronbach's Alpha = .802)

KEYWORDS
Brands, global brands, trust, brands trust.

INTRODUCTION
Among the changes that businesses make as they move toward globalization is a shift in marketing emphasis from product brands to corporate branding (e.g.Aaker, 1996; Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000; Balmer, 1995, 2001a; de Chernatony, 1999; Dowling, 2001, 1993; Harris and de Chernatony, 2001; Hatch and Schultz, 2001, Ind, 1997; Kapferer, 1992; Keller, 2000a, b; Knox *et al.*, 2000; Olins, 2000; Schmitt and Simonsen, 1997). This is usually ascribed to the difficulties of maintaining credible product differentiation in the face of imitation and homogenization of products and services, and the fragmentation of traditional market segments that occurs as customers become more sophisticated and markets more complex. In an era when companies can no longer base their strategy on a predictable market or a stable preferential product range, the ground rules for competition change. Differentiation requires positioning, not products, but the whole corporation. Accordingly, the values and emotions symbolized by the organization become key elements of differentiation strategies, and the corporation itself moves center stage.

In the context of consumer perspective we can say that we all live in the era of brands, respectively this century is century of global brands. However, even if today's economy can be seen as being in a global era, cultural differences are still important.

Consumers reinterpret the brands according to their cultural backgrounds and own perspectives which can lead to that the brand perception by the consumers can differ from the brand expression communicated from the company. The proximity between local culture and local brands is important for companies because it allows them to build better relations to their consumers and also to better respond to and meet their needs

THEORETICAL REVIEW GLOBAL BRANDS
Going global seems to be the dominant theme of modern marketing as researchers have found that many consumers prefer global brands over local competitors because global brands are associated with superior quality, worldly knowledge on consumption trends, and higher social prestige.

Erdogmus *et al.,* (2010) argue that the most important challenges when it comes to standardization of branding include decisions on three matters:

1. *Brand positioning and core values* – this includes unique and distinct values that are specifically emphasized in brand positioning to differentiate the brand from competitors.
2. *Visible brand elements* – which are name, logo, package, label, product design and features.
3. *Brand peripherals* – which is aspects of branding strategy that relate more closely to general marketing strategy such as warranties and after-sales services.

BRAND TRUST
Based in the many academic literature trust has receive attention from scholars in the field of marketing, management even nowadays in psychology, economics and others applied areas. Brand trust is defined as „"*the willingness of the average consumer to rely on the ability of the brand to perform its stated function*" (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). On the other hand, Aker (1997) argued that measures trust under the dimension of sincerity, which is one of the five brand personality dimensions. This dimension as part or overall brand personality dimensions is made up of traits such as down-to-earth, honest, wholesome and cheerful. Davies *et al*., (2004) measures trust under the dimension of agreeableness with their measure for corporate image or character.

METHODOLOGY
Measuring consumer brand trust is not easy issue. To be clear and understandable for our research we tried to find relevant literature which are dedicated to the brand trust. In the different literature we found many suggestions related to the many scales and models with multi dimensions construct. Based in this context Morgan and Hunt (1994) developed a scale to measure brand trust using a seven point liker scale. However, this scale is based in a number of statements with different traits describing trusting relationships, like faithful, integrity, honest and truthful. Compare to the Morgan and Hunt model of consumer brand trust, Hess (1995) has proposed a special brand trust scale, defined as a multi-dimensional construct containing honesty, an altruism, and a reliability dimension. The instrument adopted in this research was a self administered questionnaire, comprising Mainly of Liker-type five item scales with end-anchors (**1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree**). The questionnaire consists of three main variables, as we have presented in the theoretical model like brand dimensions with the subgroup variables, as we have explain in table number 1, 2.

The four hypotheses have been tested using t-test or independent –sample t-test and ANOVA.

In order to validate all variables, we first have analyzed the reliability of all variables in this questionnaire. The overall reliability for all item (N= 24) was .80 (Cronbach's Alpha = .802) which means that all variables that we have selected in this case are reliable and this is good point to continue with further quantitative analysis. The value of this indicator ranges from 0 to 1 and a guideline in research, based on Annually (1978) as cited by Hinkin (1995, p.979), is that for a scale, the value of at least 0.7 is required. However, despite the reliability of all variables we have measured, as well reliability for three main components. So the reliability, for brand trust, brand preference and brand loyalty is showed below in the table:

TABLE 1

	BRAND TRUST	BRAND PREFERRENCE	BRAND LOYALTY
B.T	1	.968	.805
BP	.968	1	.904
BL	.905	0.904	1

H1: The brand trust has significance on Customer Loyalty

BRAND TRUST

TABLE 2

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	f	Sig.
Between groups	6.970	5	1.394	91.832	.000
With in groups	3.097	204	0.15		
total	10.067	209			

Results in the ANOVAs table provide evidence for the second hypothesis. Based in this evidence null hypothesis is rejected because p - value is less than alpha 0.05, respectively 0.000<0.05 and we can conclude that there is significant influence relationship between brand trust and consumer loyalty, respectively consumers loyalty is influenced by the brand trust.

H2: ***Brand trust has a positive impact on the consumer preference***

TABLE 3

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	f	Sig
Between groups	7.629	5	1.526	127.672	.000
With in groups	2.438	204	.012		
total	10.067	209			

Findings based in the ANOVAs table provide support for the second hypothesis, we can conclude that null hypothesis is rejected because p - value is less than alpha 0.05, respectively the level of significance is 0.000<0.05 and there is significant positive relationship between self-image congruency and brands preference.

H3: There is a difference between genders in the brand trust Group Statistics

TABLE 4

	n	mean	sd	Standard error
males	132	4.8286	0.23684	0.02061

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

According to the finding this study provides interesting data from the reliability analysis and hypothesis testing. In all three important dimension of theoretical model seems that exist strong positive reliability, on the other hand the study model is significant. Moreover, we can conclude that there is not a statistically significant difference between male and female in the context on brand trust and brand loyalty. On the other hand, all variables are highly correlated each other, between three main components is high correlation. Based in the analyses, we can conclude that global brands are trusted from consumers despite their gender, age, income and education level, respectively demographic factors. Important part, are consumers preferences for global brand, which is related with significant relationship with brand trust.

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STUDY ON THE IMPACT OF AGE PROFILE ON MARKET SEGMENTATION

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ABSTRACT
Every company wants to cater the needs of maximum customers, but it can not satisfy all the customers with a single product. However, to increase the demand of the product, it divides the whole market into various segments based on certain common characteristics. Dividing the whole market on the basis of age and other related demographic factors is one the most widely used method in the market segmentation. But with the changing scenario in the markets and changing habits of the customers, the needs and requirements of the individuals of different age groups show no consistency. This research paper tends to verify the impact of the purchase behavior of the individuals representing different age profile of the customers.

KEYWORDS
market segmentation, customer satisfaction.

INTRODUCTION
Age is one of the first variable in demographic segmentation. The reason can be this that needs and wants changes with the change in age of the customers. A youngster or teenager look for stylish things might want a mobile phone but an earning professional will want a communicator with lots of extra features such as email and file editing support. Thus even though the basic functionality of the product is same, the wants are different. This is the primary reason for using age as a variable in demographic segmentation.
Tynan and Drayton (1987) argue that demographic variables are weakly related to product choice. Additionally, these variables are not efficient to use due to that even if people share the same age, sex and so forth, they do not inevitably have common values, motivations and beliefs (Morgan 2003). Accordingly, it is difficult for a company to act on demographics (Winter 1984).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The objective of the study was to see the impact of demographic profile of the respondents on the purchase behavior of the respondents.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
The study was descriptive in nature; a structured questionnaire was used for this research. Random sampling technique was used to select 500 customers of the bathing soap and the respondents were contacted personally for the same. The study was carried out in the major cities of Punjab and for data analysis, IBM SPSS software was used

FINDINGS
Demographical Analysis of the respondents:

TABLE 1: GENDER CLASSIFICATION

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	376	75.2	75.2	75.2
Female				
Total	124	24.8	24.8	100.0
	500	100.0	100.0	

It was found that out of the total respondents 75.2% were male where as only 24.8% were female.

TABLE 2: AGE CLASSIFICATION

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 20	13	2.6	2.6	2.6
Between 20 to 30	301	60.2	60.2	62.8
Between 30 to 40	111	22.2	22.2	85.0
More than 40	75	15.0	15.0	100.0
Total	500	100.0	100.0	

Most of the respondents (60.2%) were in the age group of 20 to 30, 22.2% were the respondents in the age group of 30 to 40, 15% respondents were over 40 and very little (2.6%) were below 20 years.

TABLE 3: INCOME CLASSIFICATION

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No Income	163	33	33	33
Less than 10k	75	15	15	48
Between 10k to 20k	86	17	17	65
More than 20k	176	35	35	100
Total	500	100	100	

33% respondents were not having any income as most of them were the students and some of them were looking for job, where as 15% respondent were earning less than Rs 10000 per month, 17% respondents were earning between Rs 10000 to Rs 20000 and a large number of the respondents(35%) were earning more than Rs 20000 per month.

That shows, the high degree of income inequality between respondents.

TABLE 4: CLASSIFICATION BY MARITAL STATUS

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Un Married	200	40.0	40.0	40.0
Married	300	60.0	60.0	100.0
Total	500	100.0	100.0	

60% respondents were married and 40 % of the respondents were unmarried.

TABLE 5: CLASSIFICATION BY EDUCATION LEVEL

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No Education	25	5.0	5.0	5.0
School	73	14.6	14.6	19.6
Graduation	199	39.8	39.8	59.4
Post Graduation	203	40.6	40.6	100.0
Total	500	100.0	100.0	

40.6 % of the respondents were post graduate, 39.8% respondents were graduates, and 14.6% have done basic schooling only, only 5% were having no education. This shows the increasing number of literacy rate in Punjab and Haryana

TABLE 6: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BUYING ROUTINE OF BATHING SOAP AND THE AGE OF THE RESPONDENTS

			Age				Total
			Less than 20 years	Between 20 to 30 years	Between 30 to 40 years	More than 40	
How often bathing soap is being purchased	Once in a week	Count	0	12	0	0	12
		% within Age	.0%	4.0%	.0%	.0%	2.4%
	Once in fortnight	Count	0	64	0	0	64
		% within Age	.0%	21.3%	.0%	.0%	12.8%
	Once in a month	Count	0	114	37	38	189
		% within Age	.0%	37.9%	33.3%	50.7%	37.8%
	Not Fixed	Count	13	111	74	37	235
		% within Age	100.0%	36.9%	66.7%	49.3%	47.0%
Total		Count	13	301	111	75	500
		% within Age	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

CHI-SQUARE TESTS

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	82.585a	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	111.646	9	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	21.038	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	500		

SYMMETRIC MEASURES

	Value	Asymp. Std. Errora	Approx. Tb	Approx. Sig.
Interval by Interval Pearson's R	.205	.034	4.682	.000c
Ordinal by Ordinal Spearman Correlation	.204	.041	4.649	.000c
N of Valid Cases	500			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

CONCLUSION

The analysis has shown that none of the respondents under 20 years of age are fixed about their buying routine. Respondents between 20 to 30 years of age like to purchase bathing soap once in a week 4%, 21.3% like to purchase bathing soap once in fortnight , 37.9% like to purchase once in a month and 36.9% are not fixed about their buying routine.

Respondents between 30 to 40 years of age prefer purchasing once in a month (33.3%) or they are not fixed about their buying routine (66.7%).

50.3% respondents above 40 years have the buying routine monthly or they are not fixed (49.7%).

That has shown that the respondents from all the age groups have different buying routines. So the buying routine tends to be different for respondents under 30 years and above 30 years of age. In nutshell, it remains not fixed (47%) or purchasing once in a month (37.8%). Therefore, there is not much impact of the change of age of the respondents on the purchasing routine of the respondents.

Chi square, likelihood ratio and linear by linear association has the significant value .000 each that has shown that their exist a significant relation between buying routine and gender of the respondents.

Furthermore, Pearson's R and Spearman Correlation has values .205 and .204 respectively, which has shown that data was indeed associated and its significance value .000 has also shown that data was significantly interrelated.

So based on above findings its being concluded that purchase routine is independent of the age or it does not varies with the change in the age of the respondents.

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GLOBAL BRANDS' LOCAL ACTIONS: COLLECTION CENTERS FOR RECYCLING AND REVERSE LOGISTICS

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ABSTRACT

In reverse logistics, 'Recycling' has become a term of great importance for the firms who want to communicate their environmentally friendly image to their consumers and stakeholders. Considered as a noticeable action on the waste generated, it enables them recovery of useable parts from used/ waste products; thus managing with resource constraints as well as satisfying demands of environmentally conscious consumers and stakeholders. Since firms with electronic product portfolio have been facing criticism for their waste generated at consumers' end, many of them have initiated multi-aimed actions for elimination/ reduction of waste. This study reviews the literature related to reverse logistics and aims to explore the reputed firms' actions related to collection and recycling of used electronic products. An interview-based study was conducted in collection centers in Mumbai (India) to develop a framework for the collection, recycling and reuse -related activities being undertaken by firms in the Indian market. The analysis reveals that reuse is identified as the main aim of such actions. It further explores the facts related to the arrangements made at collection centers for recycling activities, staff knowledge about the recycling process, incentive-related aspects, marketing and promotion, and customers' involvement in recycling activities.

KEYWORDS

collection centres, recycling, reverse logistics, global brands.

1. INTRODUCTION

The products such as mobile phones, computers and other new technology based electronic products, which have short life cycle and high disposal rate, have increased the relevance of reverse logistics in business operations at present (Lau and Wang, 2009; Chan and Chan, 2008; Tan and Kumar, 2006; Knemeyer *et al.*, 2002). The main objective of reverse logistics is value recovery and material reuse; using methods such as recycling, disassembly and remanufacturing. For the manufacturing companies, value recovery activities have emerged as a major focus in business operations (Kapetanopoulou and Tagaras, 2011). This paper makes an attempt to first understand the importance of reverse logistics and then, practically realize the e-waste collection activities by global brands at local levels.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Reverse logistics

'Reverse Logistics' is defined as "the role of logistics in product returns, source reduction, recycling, materials substitution, reuse of materials, waste disposal, and refurbishing, repair, and remanufacturing" (Stock, 1998). Hence, reverse logistics is an umbrella term rather than a homogenous subject and encompasses a number of different operational contexts (Bernon *et al.*, 2011). According to Carter and Ellram (1998), it includes (i) Distribution planning (physical transportation of used products from first consumer back to a re-producer), (ii) Inventory management (sorting and management of used product by re-producer for conversion), and (iii) Production planning (actual conversion into marketable products). Rogers and Tibben-Lembke (2001) identified recycling, reusing, and remanufacturing as important functions of reverse logistics.

Recycle. As an important aspect of an effective and efficient solid waste management as well as reverse logistics, recycling is described as "the process through which materials previously used are collected, processed, remanufactured and reused" (Hu and Hsu, 2010; Tan and Kumar, 2006). It includes wide variety of activities, from cannibalizing entire sub-assemblies to extracting materials to resell as a commodity (Hazen *et al.*, 2011).

Reuse. It means injecting back into the supply chain the unused or less used products and reusable packaging or shipping materials which does not require to upgrade to return to new status (Hazen *et al.*, 2011).

Remanufacture. When direct reuse of returned products is infeasible or uneconomical, remanufacturing occurs. It involves improving the product from its current condition to that of a condition acceptable for reuse by repairing, refurbishing, or overhauling an item (Hazen *et al.*, 2011).

Further, Chan and Chan (2008) identified several drivers for implementing reverse logistics such as recapture value and recover assets (recovery of tangible assets for economic benefits such as remanufacturing, repackaging and reselling), strategic weapon (competitive advantage), and good corporate citizenship (social responsibility as a tool to gain publicity and for marketing incentive). In many of the markets, it is a legal binding for manufacturers and retailers to take back their products at the "end of life" for disposition activities such as recycling, destroying, refurbishing, land filling, maintenance, repairing and value recovery (Abraham, 2011; Bernon *et al.*, 2011; Skinner *et al.*, 2008). Value recovery involves two main activities: (i) Collection (for reprocessing), and (ii) Reprocessing (for making materials into substitutes for primary materials) (Flygansvær *et al.*, 2008; Jahre, 1995a). To recover value from the used/ returned products, the collection is an important activity which is either carried out by the firms or by third parties (Kapetanopoulou and Tagaras, 2011).

The retailers and the customers have always been the key players in reverse logistics (Bernon *et al.*, 2011; Anderson and Brodin, 2005) because retailers who collect scrap from the customers; work as an interface between the customers and the companies, and customers are the ones who give back the used products to the companies through retailers. This accounts for other factors as well such as customers' awareness, ability and willingness to give back used products as well as to accept the incentives offered such as cash vouchers and rental contracts etc. (Canning, 2006).

Product reuse and recycling: A part of eco-design research

Over a long period of time, the literature on eco-design has been considered as a part of green supply chain. It includes product design elements such as easy to recycle, easy to decompose, designed to reuse, design for disassembly and design-for-remanufacturing (Zhu *et al.*, 2010; D'Souza *et al.*, 2006; Pujari and Wright, 1996; Wu and Dunn, 1995) and, the packaging design elements such as minimum packaging waste, reduced weight and reduced volume (Nunes and Bennett, 2010; Kassaye 2001; Mandaraka and Kormentza, 2000).

To cater to these design elements, many significant dimensions have emerged in the green supply chain literature such as lifecycle management, waste minimization, product recycling, product recovery and reuse, and environmental collaboration with customers and suppliers (Azevedo *et al.*, 2011; Caniato *et al.*, 2011;. Hu and Hsu, 2010). For recycling and reuse purposes, product recovery and take-back program for used products and packaging materials at suppliers' and consumers' end are identified of great importance (Davis and Wolski, 2009; Andersen and Skjoett-Larsen, 2000; Beamon, 1999; Wu and Dunn, 1995). For this, companies have been collaborating with local recycling organizations so that the objectives of resource reduction, value recovery from used products and reduction in disposal costs can be met (Hu and Hsu, 2010; Nunes and Bennett, 2010; Pun, 2006). Certain other actions in this direction include labeling information on product components for recycling, communicating the life expectancy of products, appropriate disposal instructions of used products, educating consumers for disassembly and offering product disassembly instructions/ manuals (Hu and Hsu, 2010; Davis and Wolski, 2009; Pun, 2006; Pujari and Wright, 1996).

Hence, the mechanism of product recovery seems taking shape of a closed loop; encompassing the entire supply chain from end customers back to the original suppliers of raw materials and thus, facilitating eco-design (Andersen and Skjoett-Larsen, 2000). This is a considerable advancement for developing an effective and sustainable reverse logistics.

3. METHODOLOGY

Over a long period of time, e-waste has been found as a major concern from the environmental perspective (Kapetanopoulou and Tagaras, 2011; Hu and Hsu, 2010; Davis and Wolski, 2009; Mandaraka and Kormentza, 2000). So, the companies who are in the business of electronic products are assumed to be responsible for the proper treatment of their products after their end-of-life and thus, the e-waste generated (Hu and Hsu, 2010). Keeping this viewpoint in mind, this research aims to study the e-waste treatment-related actions of the companies which have electronic products in product portfolio and are operating in the Indian market.

To begin with, an internet search of the companies for electronic consumer durables was done. These products include refrigerator, television, air-conditioner, high value audio equipments, washing machine, microwave oven and phone (Ong *et al.*, 2010; Rajagopal and Rajgopal, 2008; Sultan, 1999; Martinez *et al.*, 1998; Yoon and Kijewski, 1997; Martínez and Polo, 1996; Beier and Ardishvili, 1995).

In total, 33 companies were identified which have been reporting their environmental visions, long-term goals, short-term goals, actions and activities. The corporate websites of companies were thoroughly searched upon and studied to find their environmental actions and activities. From the reverse logistics perspective, it was learnt that the activities related to recovery of used products are being carried out by many of the companies in different parts of the globe and in the India as well. The purpose is to facilitate recycling, reuse, remanufacturing and re-processing, as identified in the literature related to reverse logistics. These companies are taking back electronic wastes such as PCs, notebooks, i-pod, i-phones, batteries, printers, printing materials, faxes, air conditioners, CRT televisions, waste plastic, refrigerators, freezers, washers, cell phones, paper, floppy disks, CDs, CD jewel box, cartridges, inkjet, hardware products, rechargeable batteries, mercury lamp assemblies, drum units, toner bottles and all-in-one devices, and of all the brands.

Fifteen of the websites mentioned that the collection of used products was being done either at collection centers of these companies or by 'home pick-up services' at different locations in several cities across the globe. It has been observed that companies have named some of their present retail outlets as collection centers. In India, these collection centers are available in cities such as Mumbai, New Delhi, Chennai, Bangalore, Kolkata, Pune etc. Three of the companies have listed on their corporate websites the addresses, contact numbers and name(s) of contact person(s) of their collection centers.

For the purpose of the study, the list of these collection centers was retrieved from the three corporate websites. The information about the collection centers such as addresses, contact numbers, name of contact person and the route to reach to the place was also retrieved.

First intervention was done in the month of February 2012 and March 2012 to inquire about their facilities and services in collection centers in the Mumbai city (earlier known as Bombay), India. The city has three parts i.e. Mumbai suburban area, Mumbai town and Navi Mumbai area. This intervention was done in all the collection centers of Mumbai city, as mentioned on the corporate websites of the three companies. The initial enquiries in these collection centers were conducted as consumers (rather than researcher); with the aim of capturing the recycling related activities and facilities available. These initial enquiries were used to frame the research questions. These research question(s) are as follows:

1. How is recycling facilitated in the collection center(s)?
2. What are the promotional efforts to encourage consumers' participation in take-back program?

Also, it was identified that some of the retail outlets mentioned as collection centers had closed these recycling services. The retail outlets which are operating as collection centers, were selected for the study. The store manager(s) of these retail outlets were personally contacted and were made familiar with the objective(s) of the research. Those who agreed to participate in the research were approached for a suitable appointment in the months of March 2012 and May 2012 and were interviewed with certain research questions. For the study, the store manager(s) and their staff member(s) were interviewed.

4. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

As per the details provided on the corporate websites of the three companies, the retail outlets (which are named as collection centers) were approached for the interview purpose.

For the first company, there is only one retail outlet operating as collection center in Mumbai. When manager of the retail outlet was contacted, he was found unaware that his retail outlet was named as collection center by the company and stated that recycling related services were not being offered in the outlet.

For the second company, the corporate website mentions that there are 18 retail outlets operating as collection centers in Mumbai. This company has named some of the outlets as collection centers and some of them as drop-off locations. Names of some of the outlets appeared on the website as collection center as well as drop-off location. When these retail outlets were contacted, store managers of most of the outlets were found unaware that their outlets are mentioned on the company website as collection center(s) and/or drop-off location(s) and stated that recycling related services were not being offered in their outlets. One of the outlet managers suggested to contact Mumbai zonal office for the purpose. Mumbai zonal office too did not have any such information and directed us to contact company head office in Noida. Contacting head office was out of the scope of this study.

Response from the third company was valuable for the study. Out of the 17 retail outlets operating as collection centers in Mumbai (as mentioned on the corporate website), 5 of them were not operating as collection centers anymore. Out of the remaining 12, the interviews were conducted with 9 of the outlets.

Hence, the analysis in the study is based on the interviews conducted in the retail outlets of the third company.

The analysis of the interviews yielded the following facts:

(i) Purpose(s) of take-bake program

Many purposes of take-back program are identified. Reuse is identified as the main objective of the program. The used products are collected from the consumers and are sent to the factories of the company. These products are disassembled there and the usable parts are separated. The usable parts are sent to the manufacturing and assembly of new piece(s) of the product(s).

Re-sale is identified as another objective of the take-back program. Some of the products which are returned by the consumers under the take-back program but are in usable stage, are sold at lower prices. The prices of these products are based on bargaining between the seller(s) and the customer(s).

(ii) The take-back program showcase

The showcase contains a plastic bin of dimensions as '48 inches * 12 inches * 12 inches' and it has a steel lid of '4 inches * 4 inches' which is used to drop the used products in the bin. Its look has been made attractive by using unique calligraphy and style of writing the process of recycling on its walls. This bin is placed at one corner of the reception counter. Also, a booklet is kept at the reception desk on the side where the bin is kept. This booklet contains the information related to recycling, its importance for the environment and some interesting related facts. It also contains the contact information of the company representative(s) for the program. This booklet is accessible to the customers.

(iii) Incentive-related issues

Incentives under the take-back program are offered when the used products are returned in bulk quantity. It also depends upon the existing value of the used product. It varies from 5% to 10% of the original or current value of the product. For example, if the product can be resold, the value offered is more compared to if it can only be sent for recycling.

(iv) Marketing efforts and promotion

The recycling program and its campaign are endorsed by the celebrities as well as literature (leaflets and brochures) available in the retail outlets. Also, the service centers promote the program by insisting customers to hand over their product(s) if it is not suitable for further use and if its maintenance cost quite high.

(v) Customers' involvement and response

When consumers walk in to the collection center(s) and enquire about the program, their queries are entertained by the staff member(s) and replied to the suitable extent. They are introduced to the take-back program through the leaflets and are shown the showcase that facilitate the recycling program. The booklet and brochures available in the collection centers are given to the customers to read and any further queries raised are also entertained by the staff. The complete process of recycling and its impact on the environment as well as the role of an individual customer are also explained by the staff in detail. The customers are also informed about the company website and the related link(s) to get the detailed information. The customer(s) are also requested to leave their contact details in the visitors' book available in the collection center(s).

On an average, 2 to 10 consumers per month visit collection center to enquire about the program and a few come back with their used product(s) for recycling.

5. CONCLUSION

From the interviews, it can be understood that the recycling is considered as a responsible activity in the Mumbai city and take-back program is able to facilitate it in the right direction. The noticeable fact is that the existing retail outlets and the service centers of the companies are assigned the responsibility of take-back program and thus are named as 'collection center'. This way, companies have not invested to set up new outlets as 'collection center' and also, the consumers are familiar with these existing outlets in their areas. Thus, it can be inferred that familiarity of the consumers with the stores and their staff members is an important factor under consideration for promoting the 'take-back' program.

The incentive for returning bulk amount of used products has triggered the program but the response rate is quite low. Further, it can also be inferred that incentive for only bulk amount has reduced the scope of participation from individual consumers. In other words, the participation of individual customers is solely dependent upon their sense of environmental responsibility and they do not seek great benefits in participating in take-back program which may discourage a large segment of the consumers. So, the policies and regulations are required to set up structure so that all are equally benefited and a balanced system of recycling can be developed.

The study has witnessed some structural differences in the city. The collection centers in the town area of the city such as Grand Road, Colaba and Churchgate are more organized, bigger in size, have presentable showcase (recycling bin), more number of staff members than those in suburban areas such as Dadar, Mulund, and Bandra. For example, the recycling bin in the collection centers in town area was kept at one corner of the reception desk and was visible from the entrance so that customers can notice it as soon as they enter in the premises. The staff knowledge and their willingness to explain the related information were high in collection centers in the town area, and with more appropriate communication skills. Hence, presentation of the facilities, staff knowledge, staff willingness and their communication skills are other considerable factors.

Further work can be done to highlight upon the disposal of non-usable part(s) of used products and why certain outlets have closed down their services for recycling.

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ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF CUSTOMER RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT IN HOTEL INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the study is to identify the antecedents of Customer Relationship Management (CRM) in Hotel and also to examine Linkage between the antecedentsof CRM and Guest Satisfaction and Guest Loyalty. This study was conducted in five major cities in TamilNadu. The researcher used questionnaire method for collecting data from guests and purposive sampling method has been adopted by the researcher. This study was undertaken during the period of October 2013 to March 2014. This study identified six important antecedents of CRM, namely Convenience, Responsiveness, Reliability, Commitment, Empathy and Trust.This study shows that there is a relationship between Responsiveness, Commitment, empathy dimensions of CRM and Guest satisfaction, Furthermore, this study also reveals that there is a significant relationship between Responsiveness, Commitment, and Empathy with Guest Loyalty. This study would help the policy makers to monitor and improve the CRM practices at Hotel Industry in the world class standard.

KEYWORDS

Convenience, Empathy, Reliability, Responsiveness & Trust.

INTRODUCTION

The high level of competition has been one of the difficult challenges in the Hotel Industry. It is reflected in increasingly narrow margins and growing pressure to provide more and better service, which has led to increasing costs, reduced Customer Loyalty and Subsequently a decrease in occupancy rate (Sigala, 2005; Verdugo et al., 2009; Wang and Wang, 2009; Yi – Wen and Edward, 2010). New forms of competition and structural modifications of exchange process have led to the emergence of a relationship paradigm for creating long – term relationships among customers and suppliers. This is partly on account of the globalization of business, Internationalisation, deregulation, information technology advances, shorter product life cycle, (morgan and Hunt, 1994; Zineldin andJonsson, 2000; Chandra and Kumar, 2000; Sahay, 2003). Guests are at the forefront of operations within the Hotel Industry (Zineldin, 1999). CRM is essential to the Hotel Industry, in particular to chains of hotels operating either nationally, worldwide or through International partnerships (Diana Luck, Geoff Lancaster, (2013). Relationship marketing stresses the development and maintenance of long – lasting relationships between the firm and its customers (Sheth and Parvatiyar, 1995). Long – term customerrelationships are considered to be one of the most important business assets for business organizations (Collier and Bienstock, 2006). Several studies revealed the positive impact of relationship marketing,in seller performance as the increase of selling market share and profit (Crosby et al., 1990; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; De Wulf et al., 2001).Although the clients may be affected by their relationships with the firm, they are even more affected by their interpersonal relationship (Palmatier et al., 2007). Relationship quality is considered as an overall assessment of the strength of a relationship (Garbarino and Johnson, 1999), and captures the essence of relationship marketing (Jap et al., 1999, Ural, 2007). A strong relationship is an intangible asset, which cannot be easily duplicated by competitions (Wong et al., 2007).Several studies have been conducted with regard to the positive benefits of relationship marketing. Research conducted by Athanassopoulou, (2006) concluded that it is five times more expensive to acquire new customers than to keep existing ones. The development of a strong customer relationship can improve customer Loyalty, which in turn leads to increased profits for the firm (Reichheld, 1993, Athanassopoulou, 2006).Hotel – companies have increasingly attempted to strategically differentiate themselves through the development of relationship with the guests. (Diana Luck and Geoff Lancaster, 2013), Customer retention is economically more advantageous than constantly seeking new customers (Verhoef, 2003, Reichheld and Sasser, 1990). Therefore, to improve both customer satisfaction and enhance profitability, hotels must focus on implementing a CRM strategy that aims to seek, gather and store the right information, share it through the entire organization and then use it all organizational levels to create a personalized and unique customer experience (Olsen and Connolly, 2004, Wu and Li, 2011). CRM is considered as the best strategies and practices for hotel to improve their performance and ultimately to ensure their long term business survival. (Kasim and Minai, 2009; Sigala, 2005; Wu and Li, 2011). With this background the researcher indents to study the antecedents and consequences of CRM in Hotel Industry.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Several studies have been revealed that only limited research and publications within the Hospitality industry (Hermans et al., 2009; Vogt, 2011, Wu and Lu 2012). Line and Runyan (2012) reviewed hospitality marketing research published from 2008 to 2010 in Top Hospitality Journals to identify the trends and gaps in the literature. The study found that CRM isone of the most popular topics in hospitality marketing research and therefore there is an opportunity for hospitality researchers to contribute to the development of theory in the field.Abdul alem Mohammad et al., (2013), identified the customer orientation, CRM organization, knowledge management, and technology based CRM have a positive and significant impact on different perspectives on hotel performance.A study conducted by Diana Luck and Geoff Lancaster (2013) concluded that success of CRM strategy in Hotel Companies not only on the ability of a company to identify and understand what the target customers need and want, but also on the company's ability to deliver enhanced value in terms of their specific needs and wants.CRM – related research on the hotels has looked at various specific practices in isolation. They include loyalty programs, brand loyalty, customer satisfaction, knowledge management, information and communication technologies and internal and external marketing (Bouncken, 2002; Choi and Chu, 2001; Engstrom et al., 2003; Kandampully and Suhartanto, 2000; Lee et al., 2005; Minghetti, 2003; Palmer et al., 2000; Piccoli et al., 2003, Sigala, 2005; Sigala et al., 2001; Tepeci, 1999).Wu and Lu (2012) suggested that hotels are part of the service industry and therefore marketers in hotel industry setup CRM systems to find and retain their customers and develop long – term relationships with loyal customers in order to enhance greater profits. CRM enables a company to optimize revenue and increase customer value through understanding and satisfying the individual customer needs (Liu and Yang, 2009; Kaufmann et al., 2012). CRM is very important for the hotel industry. Hotels need to have a deep knowledge of their customer's needs, Behavior and preferences to be aware of the ways in which their hospitality services will be delivered (Papaioannou et al., 2011).CRM strategy is putting more emphasis on involving and engaging customers in the long – term relationships, so that the firm can learn about customers' individualneeds (Payne et al., 2009; Peppers and Rogers, 2010). Gilbert et al., (1999) suggested that relationship marketing is highly suitable for the hotel industry. CRM has its philosophical basis in relationship marketing (Chen and Popovich, 2003). Piccoli et al., (2003) argued that the hotel sector has the greatest potential of all industries with regard to the CRM application.A study conducted by Kim et al., (2006), revealed thatthe hotels require a better understanding of customer orientation, which is of a great importance for their performance. Several studies have been conducted with regard to CRM dimensions in the hotel sector. (Sin et al., 2005; Akroush et al., 2011; Sadek et al., 2011).Loyalty, Purchase intention and word of mouth are the important consequences of relationship marketing. (LovaRajaobelina and Jasmin Bergeron, 2009).Huntely (2006) identified that when the quality of relationship is high, customers are more willing to recommend the seller's offering to colleagues and they purchase more from the seller. Customer loyalty has been considered as an important source for long term business success (Rust and Zahorik, 1993) and building relationship with a customer is a good way to retain loyal customers in the long term (Sheaves and Barnes, 1996). Loyal customers are less likely to switch to a competitor on account of price inducement and these customers make more purchases compared to less loyal customers (Baldinger and Rubinson, 1996). Even though numerous studies have been conducted with regard to theHotel Industry, only few studies have been conducted in the Indian perspective. Therefore the researchers intend to study the antecedents of CRM and consequences of CRM.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following are the objectives of the study:

1. To identify the important antecedents of Customer Relationship Management in Hotel.
2. To examine the impact of perception on the antecedentsof CRM on the Guest Satisfaction and Gust Loyalty in Hotel Industry.
3. To reveal the Guest's perception on various antecedentsof CRM in Hotel.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The scope of the study is confined only to the Erode, Coimbatore, Salem, Karur, Namakkal, and Citiesof Tamil Nadu. From each identified cities five hotels with restaurants were selected randomly. From each identified hotels, 6 guests were identified with the help of Hotel Managers. Therefore the total sample size came to 300 guests. Even though the researcher made several efforts to collect data from the respondents, Only 127 questionnaires have been collected from the respondents. Therefore the response rate of the study was 42.33 percent. This study was conducted during the period of October 2013 to March 2014. The researcher collected data from the respondents adopting the questionnaire method. The questionnaire consists of four parts. The first part of the questionnaire consists of the demographic profile of the guests the second part of the questionnaire consists of various antecedents of customer relationship variables related to Hotel. The third and fourth part of the questionnaire covers the guest satisfaction and guest loyalty. The guest has been asked to rate the variables at five point scale.

The researcher adopted purposive sampling method for collecting data. Before collecting the data, pre-test was conducted. Furthermore, content validity of the questionnaire was verified by constituting a panel which consists of one hotel managers, two senior professors who have handling service marketing subject more than two decades. Based on the feedback received from experts and pilot studies, suitable modification has been made in the existing questionnaire to suit the requirements of the present study.

QUESTIONNAIRE DEVELOPMENT

The variables relating to this study was drawn from the previous work of Brotherton(2004). Suitable modification has been made in the existing questionnaire to suit the requirement of the study.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

With regard to gender of the respondents, 66 percent of the respondents are male category; about 32.1 percent of the guests were 35 to 45 years old. In terms of educational qualification, 20 percent of the guests have a post graduate qualification. With regard to the monthly income of the guests, 24.4 percent of the respondents have earned more than Rs. 50,000/- as monthly income, 72 percent of the respondents are hailing from the nuclear family system, 42 percent of the respondent's occupation is business, 38 percent of the guests are staying in the Hotel on account of Business purpose.

INSTRUMENT VALIDITY

To ascertain the reliability of the antecedents of CRM in Hotel, the Cronbach Alpha Value was computed. According to Nunnally (1978), reliability co-efficient of 0.70 or more are considered important criterion for internally consistent construct. The results of the Cronbach Alpha as shown in Table No: 1 reveals that six dimensions of the antecedents of CRM in Hotel strongly meet the acceptable level of 0.70 (or) higher.

TABLE NO. 1: INSTRUMENT VALIDITY OF VARIOUS ANTECEDENTS OF CRM

S.No	Antecedents of CRM in Hotels	No. of Original Statement	No. Of Statement Retained	Cronbach's Alpha
1	Convenience	5	5	0.821
2	Responsiveness	4	4	0.798
3	Reliability	5	5	0.701
4	Commitment	3	3	0.738
5	Empathy	3	3	0.732
6	Trust	3	3	0.714

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

To explain the relationship among the six antecedents of the CRM withGuest Satisfaction and six antecedents of CRM with Guest Loyalty, the following hypotheses are formulated.

1. Convenience dimensions directly impact the Guest Satisfaction.
2. Responsiveness dimensions directly impact the Guest Satisfaction.
3. Reliability dimensions directly impact the Guest Satisfaction.
4. Commitment dimensions directly impact the Guest Satisfaction.
5. Empathy dimensions directly impact the Guest Satisfaction.
6. Trust dimensions directly impact the Guest Satisfaction.
7. Convenience dimensions directly impact the Guest Loyalty.
8. Responsiveness dimensions directly impact the Guest Loyalty.
9. Reliability dimensions directly impact the Guest Loyalty.
10. Commitment dimensions directly impact the Guest Loyalty.
11. Empathy dimensions directly impact the Guest Loyalty.
12. Trust dimensions directly impact the Guest Loyalty.

ANTECEDENTS OF CRM IN HOTEL INDUSTRY

The guests are asked to rate the various antecedents of CRM related variables at five point scale accordingly to their perception, namely Highly Satisfied, Satisfied, Moderate, Dissatisfied and Highly Dissatisfied. The assigned marks on these scales are 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively. The marks of the various factors of CRM in Hotel have been included to find out the antecedents of CRM with the help of factor analysis. Before administering factor analysis, the test of validity of data for factor analysis have been examined with the help of Kaiser – Meyer – Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartletts Test of Sphericity. The minimum acceptable level of KMO measure and level of significance of Chi-square Value are 0.5 and 5 percent level. (Rao and Saikia, 2006).These two tests satisfy the validity of data for factor analysis. The factor analysis results in six important factors, namely Convenience, Responsiveness, Reliability, Commitment, Empathy and Trust. The Antecedents of CRM Hotel Dimensions, Number of variables included, Eigen Value, and Percentage of Variation explained by the factors are shown in Table No: 2.

TABLE NO. 2: ANTECEDENTS OF CRM IN HOTEL

S.No	Antecedents of CRM in Hotel Dimensions (ACHD)	No. of Variables included	Eigen Value	Percentage of Variance Explained	Cumulative Percentage of Variance Explained
1	Convenience	5	10.368	17.661	17.661
2	Responsiveness	4	2.972	17.224	34.885
3	Reliability	5	1.470	10.584	45.469
4	Commitment	3	1.161	9.627	55.096
5	Empathy	3	1.078	6.903	62.000
6	Trust	3	1.004	4.863	66.862
KMO measures of sampling Adequacy 0.877			Bartlett's Test Sphericity Chi-square Value 2048.711		

The most important antecedents of CRM in Hotel are 'Convenience' since its Eigen value and the percent of variation explained by this factor are 10.368 and 17.661 percent respectively. The second and third antecedents of CRM factor Identified by the factor analysis are 'Responsiveness' and 'Reliability' since their respective Eigen values are 2.972 and 1.470. These two factors consists of four and five factors respectively. The percent of variation explained by these two factors are 17.224 and 10.584 percent respectively. The fourth antecedents of CRM are 'Commitment since their Eigen values are 1.161 percent respectively, and this factor consists of three variables. The last two factors identified by the factor analysis are Empathy and Trust since their Eigen values are 1.078 and 1.004 respectively. The percent of variation explained by these two factors are 6.903 and 4.863 percent respectively. The narrated six antecedents of CRM factors explain the antecedents of CRM to the extent of 66.862 percent.

GUESTS' PERCEPTION ON ANTECEDENTS OF CRM

The perception on the antecedents of CRM is derived from the mean score of the antecedents of CRM variables in each antecedents of CRM dimension. The mean score of the perception on various antecedents of CRM have been computed to exhibit the Guests' perception on various antecedents of CRM in Hotel. The results are shown in Table 3.

TABLE NO. 3: PERCEPTION ON ANTECEDENTS OF CRM

S.No	Factors	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	Co - efficient of Variation(in percent)
1	Convenience	2.4157	0.68155	27.74
2	Responsiveness	2.3591	0.71151	30.16
3	Reliability	2.2882	0.60979	26.55
4	Commitment	2.2966	0.64683	28.16
5	Empathy	2.4665	0.75090	30.69
6	Trust	2.3504	0.76135	32.39

The highly perceived antecedents of CRM among the Guest are 'Empathy' since its respective mean score is 2.4665.It is followed by 'Convenience' and 'Responsiveness' with the mean score of 2.4157 and 2.3591 respectively. The higher fluctuations are seen in the perception of trust on the antecedents of CRM since their respective co – efficient of variation is 32.39 percent. The lesser fluctuation is seen in the perception of 'Reliability' since its relative, co – efficient of variation is 26.55.Reliability scored the lowest mean score of 2.2882.

INTER CORRELATION BETWEEN ANTECEDENTS OF CRM

The Interrelationship between the perceptions on the antecedents of CRM in Hotel is examined with the help of Karl Pearson Correlation co – efficient. The estimated correlation co – efficient and its respective significance are shown in Table No: 4.

TABLE NO. 4: INTER CORRELATION BETWEEN THE PERCEPTIONS OF CRM FACTORS

S.No	Factors	Factors				
	Convenience	Responsiveness	Reliability	Commitment	Empathy	Trust
1.	Convenience	0.656**	0.593**	0.712**	0.649**	0.645**
2.	Responsiveness		0.572**	0.651**	0.635**	0.648**
3.	Reliability			0.687**	0.619**	0.563**
4.	Commitment				0.693**	0.713**
5.	Empathy					0.127**
6.	Trust					

** - significant at 1 percent level

All Inter correlation co – efficient are positive. The significant positive correlation co – efficient is identified with convenience to Responsiveness, Reliability, Commitment, Empathy and Trust at one percentsignificant level. Regarding the Responsiveness the significant positive correlation co – efficient is identified with Reliability, Commitment, Empathy and Trust at one percent significant level. Regarding the Reliability, the significant relationship is identified with Commitment, Empathy and Trust since their respective correlation co – efficient are significant at the five percent level. Regarding the Commitment, the significant relationship is identified with Empathy and Trust since their respective correlation co – efficient are significant at theone percent level. The significant positive correlation is noticed between Empathy and Trust.

IMPACT OF PERCEPTION ON ANTECEDENTS OF CRM AND GUEST SATISFACTION

The antecedents of CRM are one of the important factors leading to Guest Satisfaction. The present study has made an attempt to examine the impact of perception on theantecedents of CRM and the Guest Satisfaction with the help of multiple regression. The score on the Guest Satisfaction is considered as dependent variable, whereas the score on the perception on the antecedents of CRM factors is treated as independent variables. The fitted regression model is

$Y = a + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 + b_4x_4 + b_5x_5 + b_6x_6$

Y = Score on Guest Satisfaction.

X_1 = Score on Perception on Convenience.

X_2 = Score on Perception on Responsiveness.

X_3 = Score on Perception on Reliability.

X_4 = Score on Perception on Commitment.

X_5 = Score on Perception on Empathy.

X_6 = Score on Perception on Trust.

b_1……… B_6 = Regression, Co – efficient of Independent Variables.

a = Intercept and

e = Error term.

The Impact of perception on the antecedents of CRM on Guest Satisfaction is illustrated in Table No. 5

TABLE NO. 5: REGRESSION CO – EFFICIENT ON ANTECEDENTS OF CRM WITH GUEST SATISFACTION

S.No	Independent variables	Un Standardized Co - efficient	Standard Error	Standardized Co - efficient	t - value	Significance
				Beta		
	Constant	0.168	0.101	--	1.655	.099
1	Convenience (x_1)	0.142	0.054	0.150	2.615	.010
2	Responsiveness (x_2)	0.234	0.049	0.258	4.736	.000**
3	Reliability (x_3)	0.046	0.056	0.044	0.828	.409
4	Commitment (x_4)	0.33	0.065	0.330	5.069	.000**
5	Empathy (x_5)	0.142	0.050	0.165	2.860	.005*
6	Trust (x_6)	0.113	0.052	0.125	2.161	.033
	R^2	0.843				
	Adjusted R^2	0.835				
	F Statistics	107.273				0.000

** 1 percent significant level
* 5 percent significant level

The result revealed that there is a strong and significant relationship between the antecedents of CRM with Guest Satisfaction. (F = 107.273, Probability F Statistics < 0.00). The significant F Statistics reveal the viability of thefitted regression model. The R^2 value of 0.843 revealed that independent variables explained 84.3 percent of the variance in antecedents of CRM with an adjusted R^2 of 0.835 percent. On the individual determinants 'Commitment' dimensions was found to be most important dimensions of CRM (β = 0.330, t = 5.069, p = 0.000 < 0.01). This was followed by Responsiveness dimensions of CRM (β = 0.258, t = 4.736, p = 0.000 < 0.01). The third predictor was 'Empathy' (β = 0.165, t= 2.860, p = 0.000 < 0.05). Therefore, it is concluded that Commitment, Responsiveness, Empathy dimensions directly impact the Guest's Loyalty. Therefore H_1 is accepted on these dimensions. The study revealed there is no significant impact on Convenience, Reliability, Trust dimensions of CRM with Guest's Satisfaction.

IMPACT OF ANTECEDENTS OF CRM ON GUEST LOYALTY

The impact of theantecedents of CRM and Guest Loyalty is examined with the help of multiple regression analysis. The included independent variable is the score of the perception on the antecedents of CRM whereas the dependent variable is the score of a Guest Loyalty. The resulted regression co – efficient are presented in Table No: 6

TABLE NO. 6: REGRESSION CO–EFFICIENT OF ANTECEDENTS OF CRM WITH GUEST LOYALTY

Independent variables	Un Standardized Co - efficient	Standard Error	Standardized Co - efficient	t - value	Significance
Constant	.161	.100	--	1.606	.111
Convenience (x_1)	.146	.054	.154	2.699	.008
Responsiveness (x_2)	.230	.049	.254	4.68	.000**
Reliability (x_3)	.046	.055	.044	0.836	.405
Commitment (x_4)	.327	.065	.327	5.052	.000**
Empathy (x_5)	.141	.049	.164	2.862	.005*
Trust (x_6)	.115	.052	.127	2.203	.029
R^2	.842				
Adjusted R^2	.834				
F Statistics	108.063				0.000

$0.161 + 146X_1 + 0.230\ X_2 + 0.046\ X_3 + 0.327\ X_4 + 0.141\ X_5 + 115\ X_6$

** 1 percent significant level
* 5 percent significant level

The result shows that there is a strong and significant relationship between the antecedents of CRM and Guest Loyalty (108.063), Probability, F Statistics < 0.00. The significant F Statistics show the viability of the fitted regression model. The R2 value of 0.842 revealed that independent variables explained 84.2 percent of variance in antecedents of CRM with an adjusted R2 of 0.835 percent.On the individual dimensions, commitment was found to be most important dimensions of CRM (β = 0.327, t = 5.052, p = 0.000 < 0.01). This was followed by Responsiveness dimensions of CRM (β = 0.254, t = 4.680, p = 0.000, 0.01). The third predictor was 'Empathy' (β = 0.164, t = 2.862, p = 0.000 < 0.05).Except the factors Convenience, Reliability, and Trust the remaining three dimensions showed significant impact with the independent variable. The study also proved that Responsiveness, Commitment, Empathy, Dimensions have a significant impact on Guest Loyalty.

CONCLUSION

In the study, six dimensions of various antecedents of CRM in Hotel Industry emerged. These are Convenience, Responsiveness, Reliability, Commitment, Empathy and Trust. Among the dimensions, Empathy has been highly viewed variable among the Guest. The study reveals that there is significant impact on Responsiveness, Commitment, Empathy dimensions of theantecedents of CRM and Guest Satisfaction. Among the six antecedents of CRM Responsiveness, dimensions have the greatest impact on Guest Loyalty. The study shows that there is no significant impact on Convenience, Reliability and Trust dimensions with Guest Satisfaction. Furthermore, the study also noticed that there is no significant impact on Convenience, Reliability and Trust dimensions of CRM with Guest Loyalty.

LIMITATION AND SCOPE OF FUTURE RESEARCH

Even though the study has achieved its objectives, certain limitation was found. This study has been conducted in Erode, Coimbatore, Salem, Karur, Namakkal cities of Tamil Nadu. Therefore the findings of this study cannot be generalized to other industries.This study considers only the Hotel with restaurant. In future similar study can be conducted in Luxury Hotels antecedents of CRM. This study considers only the twenty three variables for the study; In future more number of variables can be included. Furthermore, comparative study can also be conducted with regard to Government owned Hotels and private Hotels antecedents of CRM. In addition to this foreign tourist opinion on CRM implementation can also be studied. In addition, to this, comparative study can also be conducted regarding the perception of business customers and household customer perception on implementation of customer relationship management in theHotel Industry.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATION OF THE STUDY

The identified dimensions may help the tourism department, in particular, policy makers in general regarding the implementation of CRM in Hotel Industry. It is well known that the cost of retaining a customer is much less than the cost of acquiring customers.Therefore, these findings may help the Hotel Industry to ascertain the priorities of the Guests. Furthermore, Hotel Administration can design the suitable strategy regarding the customer retention. To achieve Loyalty and Guest Satisfaction, Hotel ought to satisfy its Guest, which can be implemented through proper a feedback system, on a continuous basis. Therefore, every Hotel should establish a research and development department to conduct market survey regarding CRM. In addition to this Hotel management should ensure the proper functioning of Research and Development Department.

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A STUDY ON MANAGEMENT OF NPAS AND IMPACT OF SECURITIZATION ACT, 2002 ON REDUCTION OF NPAS IN BANKS

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ABSTRACT

Banking sector plays an indispensible role in economic development of a country through mobilization of savings and deployment of funds to the productive sectors. During the past decade, a burning issue in the financial arena of the Indian economy has been the accumulation of Non-Performing assets (NPAs) in the banking sector. The profits of the bank came under pressure due to rise in Non-Performing assets. The Securitization Act is a fine, comprehensive piece of legislation which has been a panacea to the entire problem of NPAs. The Legal framework for Securitization in India was enforced with the enactment of "The Securitization and Reconstruction of Financial Assets and Enforcement of Security Interest Ordinance 2002(SRFAESI Act). Its purpose is to promote the setting up of asset reconstruction/Securitization companies to take over NPAs accumulated with banks and public financial institutions. This paper makes an attempt to find out the opinion of bankers on the impact of Securitization Act in reduction of NPAs in Public Sector banks.

KEYWORDS

NPA, Securitization Bank, Standard Asset, Gross NPA and Net NPA.

INTRODUCTION

Banking sector plays an indispensable role in economic development of a country through mobilization of savings and deployment of funds to the productive sectors. Bank lending is very crucial for it makes it possible, the financing of agricultural, industrial and commercial activities of the country. It is an established fact that a fragile banking system can, not only hamper the development of a particular economy but also it can deepen the real economic crisis and impose heavy social costs. So the health of the banking system should be one of the primary concerns of the government of each country.

Currently the Indian banking sector is not in a good health. The symptoms of the disease are vastly apparent viz. rising NPAs, high labor costs, competition from mutual funds, bureaucratic hurdle and redtapism. Most of these symptoms have been present in the Indian banking system since independence but it is the post reform era that they have become more ostensible.

The problem of NPA became apparent following the introduction of internationally accepted prudential accounting norms. Prudential norms were adopted with regard to income recognition, asset classification and provisioning norms put severe pressure on the profitability of PSBs.

Banks have so far been able to meet their requirements of additional capital by infusion of funds by the government or by accessing the markets. However, a stage has been reached where further efforts at restructuring some of these banks cannot be confined merely to infusion of capital and giving certain targets for improvement in performance. But major restructuring has to be done to improve the asset quality of the banks. Moreover, Securitization and Reconstruction of Financial Assets and Enforcement of Security Interest Act, 2002 was passed by parliament, which is an important step towards elimination or reduction of NPAs.

CONCEPT OF NPA

According to RBI guidelines with effect from 31st March 2004, a Non performing asset has been classified according to the market segments, which shall be a loan or an advance, where:

1. Interest and/or an installment of principal remain overdue for a period of more than 90 days in respect of a Term loan.
2. The account remains "out of order" for a period of more than 90 days, in respect of overdraft/cash credit.
3. The bill remains "out of order" for a period of more than 90 days in the case of bills purchased and discounted.
4. Interest and/or installment of principal remains overdue for two harvest seasons but for a period not exceeding two and half years in the case of advance overdue for a period of more than 90 days in respect of other accounts.

GROSS NPA AND NET NPA

Gross NPAs are the total outstanding of all the borrowers which are classified as non-performing assets (viz., sub-standard, doubtful and loss asset). Net NPAs are the Gross NPA minus gross accounts.

WHAT IS SECURITIZATION?

Securitization is a process whereby the 'originator' of the various financial assets including loans which are illiquid can transfer such assets to special purpose vehicles which issues the tradable securities against these loans and these are issued to the investors. It is an acquisition of financial asset by any securitization company from 'qualified institutional buyer' or by issue of security receipts representing undivided interests in such financial assets or otherwise.

Thus there will have to be some sort of understanding between the QIBs and the securitization company which can be 'originator' in the case of the banks and the Financial Institutions which has extended the financial assistance to the 'obligator' who is supposed to repay the financial assistance in installments on some future dates as per the agreement entered into by it with the bank. This can be referred to as the 'security interest' is created in favor of the secured creditors including the creation of the mortgage by the deposit of the title deeds with the secured creditors.

SECURITIZATION ACT, 2002

The need for the setting up an asset reconstruction company for acquiring distressed assets from banks and Financial institution with a view to develop market for such assets was being felt, since long, Narasimhan Committee 1&2 and the Verma Committee on restructuring of weak Banks has strongly recommended the setting up of Asset Reconstruction Companies(ARCs).

The business of Securitization and Reconstruction is primarily meant for more than one purpose:

- To regulate the business of securitization and reconstruction of the financial interest.
- To regulate enforcement of the security interest and for the matters connected therewith or the matters incidental thereto

The debt securitization is a new concept in the Indian financial markets and is primarily meant for enhancing the liquidity of the banks an had Financial Institutions which have extended financial assistance to the borrowers for various purposes.

The debt securitization makes available with these institutions the security papers against the financial assets which have been created out of the financial assistance sanctioned and disbursed by these institutions and in the case of a default by the borrowers the secured creditors can have a recourse to either the securitization of the financial asset or the reconstruction of the same.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Rao, Suryachandra and Krishna mohan (2007) in their article "Management of NPAs in Scheduled Commercial Banks" states that the phenomenon of NPAs in financial institutions came during 1990's study, identified specific reasons for NPAs in priority and non-priority sectors and explained the strategies adopted by banks.

Pillai, Manoj (2007) in his article "ARCIL and management of NPAs of Indian Banks" states that presence of NPAs had an adverse impact on the productivity of Indian banks and it resulted in erosion of profits. The research during last 4 years found that aggregate advances increased by 104% but NPAs has reduced over the year. This credit goes to establishment of ARCIL.

Mehalwant, Seema and Singh, Sumanjeet (2010) in their article "Problem of NPA in Indian Public Sector Banks" states that the problem of NPA is not only limited to developing or poor nations, but also in developed nations. Public Sector Banks are worst affected. Ineffective Project appraisal, political favor managing and incorrect projection of future demand in the industrial sector, coupled with the recession in the last few years, resulted in default of loan accounts, resulting NPA.

Sensarma, Rudra and Jayadev (2011) in their article "Are banks stock sensitive to risk management?" states that the risk management capabilities of banks have been improving overtime except for its last two years. The return through stocks is sensitive to risk management capabilities of banks. To tackle the issue various steps have been taken by RBI/Government of India on the lines of the recommendations of two reports of Narasimhan Committee on arresting and containing the growth of NPAs. The process initiated so far was provided with a further fillip with the introduction of the SARFAESI Act 2002 – a law permitting securitization and reconstruction of financial assets and providing for speedy enforcement of security interests. This new law has strengthened creditor's rights through foreclosure and enforcement of securities by banks and financial institutions.

The Reserve Bank of India has also conducted a study to ascertain the contributing factors for the high level of NPAs in the banks covering 800 top NPA accounts in 33 banks (RBI Bulletin). The study has found that the proportion of problem loans in case of Indian banking sector are very high. Loans of these banks formed 17.91 percent of their gross advances. This proportion did not include the amounts locked up in sick industrial units. Hence, the proportion of problem loans indeed was higher. The study revealed that the major factors contributing to loans becoming NPAs include diversion of funds for expansion, diversification, modernization, undertaking new projects and for helping associate concerns. This is coupled with recessionary trend and failure to tap funds in the capital and debt markets, business failure (product, marketing, etc.), inefficient management, strained labor relations, inappropriate technology/technical problems, product obsolescence, recession input/power shortage, price escalation, accidents, natural calamities, Government policies like changes in excise duties, pollution control orders, etc. The RBI report concluded that reduction of NPAs in banking sector should be treated as a national priority issue to make the Indian banking system stronger, resilient and geared to meet the challenges of globalization.

Vallabh, Bhatia & Mishra (2007) in their study explores an empirical approach to the analysis of Non-Performing Assets (NPAs) of public, private, and foreign sector banks in India. The NPAs are considered as an important parameter to judge the performance and financial health of banks. The level of NPAs is one of the drivers of financial stability and growth of the banking sector. This study aims to find the fundamental factors which impact NPAs of banks. A model consisting of two types of factors, viz., macroeconomic factors and bank-specific parameters, is developed and the behavior of NPAs of the three categories of banks is observed. This model tries to extend the methodology of widely-known Altman model. The empirical analysis assesses how macroeconomic factors and bank-specific parameters affect NPAs of a particular category of banks. The macroeconomic factors of the model included are GDP growth rate and excise duty, and the bank-specific parameters are Credit Deposit Ratio (CDR), loan exposure to priority sector, Capital Adequacy Ratio (CAR), and liquidity risk. The results show that movement in NPAs over the years can be explained well by the factors considered in the model for the public and private sector banks. The co-linearity between independent variables was measured by Durbin-Watson test and VIF characteristic and it was found to be a little for public and private banks. The factors included in the model explain 97.1% (adjusted R-square value of regression results) of variations in NPAs of public banks and 76.9% of the same of private banks. The other important results derived from the analysis include the finding that banks' exposure to priority sector lending reduces NPAs.

M. Karunakar et.al (2008), study the important aspect of norms and guidelines for making the whole sector vibrant and competitive. The problem of losses and lower profitability of NPA and liability mismatch in Banks and financial sector depend on how various risks are managed in their business. Besides capital to risk weightage assets ratio of public sector banks, management of credit risk and measures to control menace of NPAs are also discussed. The lasting solution to the problem of NPAs can be achieved only with proper credit assessment and risk management mechanism. It is better to avoid NPAs at the market stage of credit consolidated by putting in place of rigorous and appropriate credit appraisal mechanisms.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

During the past decade, a burning issue in the financial arena of the Indian economy has been the accumulation of Non-Performing assets (NPAs) in the banking sector. The presence of NPAs has affected the profitability, liquidity and competitive functioning of banks and finally the psychology of the bankers in respect of their disposition towards credit delivery runs and bank failures that lead to writing off of non-performing loans, restructuring, mergers and acquisitions and even closure of weaker banks. To tackle this issue various steps have been taken by RBI/Government of India on the lines of the recommendations of two reports of Narasimhan Committee on arresting and containing the growth of NPAs. The process initiated so far was provided with further introduction of the Securitization and Reconstruction of Financial Assets and Enforcement of Security Interest Act 2002(SARFAESI) – a law permitting securitization and reconstruction of financial assets and providing for speedy enforcement of security interests. This new law has strengthened creditor's rights through foreclosure and enforcement of securities by banks and financial institutions. Hence the present study is an attempt to study the opinion of the banks towards this act and its impact on reduction of Non-Performing Assets in banks.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To study the reasons for NPAs and the recovery mechanism adopted by banks.
2. To gain insight into the various provisions of the act with special emphasis on reduction of NPAs in banks.
3. To assess the effectiveness of the act in reduction of NPAs.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study mainly depends on primary data collected from 25 different branches of Nationalized banks situated in and around Bangalore. Questionnaire based survey method was used to collect data from select bank branches. The Sample bank branches were selected using the Non-Profitability convenience sampling. To analyze the data and to interpret the data analysis simple percentage, ranking and rating method are used. The study period span from July-2013 to Dec-2013. This study is subject to the views expressed by the concerned officials of banks.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

NPA: An asset is classified as Non-Performing Asset (NPA's) if dues in the form of principal and interest are not paid by borrower for a period of 90 days.
Standard Assets: Such an asset is not a Non-Performing Asset. In other words, it carries not more than normal risk attached to the business.
Sub-Standard Asset: It is classified as Non-performing Asset for a period not exceeding 18 months.
Doubtful Asset: Asset that has remained Non-Performing Asset exceeding 18 months is a doubtful asset.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

TABLE 1: REASONS FOR NPAS IN THE BANKS

Reasons	No of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Improper credit appraisal	13	52
Lack of effective follow-up	09	36
Diversion of funds	15	60
Absence of security	03	12
Management failures	05	20
Decrepit legal system	10	40
Cost in-effective legal measures	09	36
Difficulty in execution of decrees	09	36
Willful Default	12	48
Demand recession	03	12
Others	00	00

Source: Primary data

Interpretation
From the above table it is clear that the main reason for NPAs in banks is diversion of funds, improper credit appraisal and willful default by decrepit legal system, cost ineffective legal measures, lack of effective follow up and difficulty in execution of decrees are some of the important reasons.

TABLE 2: MEASURES FOR RECOVERY OF NPAS ADOPTED BY THE BANKS

Preference	No of respondents	Percentage(%)
Legal Measures	04	16
Non-Legal Measures	02	08
Both Legal and Non-Legal	19	76
Others	00	00

Source: Primary data

Interpretation
From the above table it can be interpreted that 76% of the respondents said that they have taken both Legal & Non-Legal measures for recovery of NPAs while 16% said that they have taken only legal measures and 8% said that they have taken only non-legal measures.

TABLE 3: THE RECOVERY MECHANISMS ADOPTED BY THE BANKS FOR NPAS--PRE-SECURITIZATION ACT

Recovery Mechanisms	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
Lok Adalats	05	20
Civil Courts	13	52
Debt Recovery Tribunal	13	52
One-Time Settlement Schemes	14	56
Others	00	00

Source: Primary data

Interpretation
From the above table it is evident that 56% of the respondents said that they adopted one-time settlement scheme for recovery of NPAs, while 52% of the respondents said both civil courts and Debt recovery tribunals as recovery mechanism and 20% said that they adopted Lok Adalats pre-securitization act.

TABLE 4: THE RECOVERY MECHANISM ADOPTED BY THE BANKS FOR NPAS--POST SECURITIZATION ACT

Recovery Mechanisms	No of respondents	Percentage(%)
Lok Adalats	03	12
Civil Courts	08	32
Corporate Debt Restructuring	04	16
Debt recovery tribunal	13	52
One-time settlement schemes	15	60
ARCs/Securitization Companies	10	40
Others	00	00

Source: Primary data

Interpretation
From the above table it is evident that 60% of the respondents said that they adopted one time settlement schemes as a recovery mechanism for NPAs, 52% said Debt recovery tribunals, 40% said Asset Reconstruction Companies, 32% said Civil Courts, 16% said corporate debt reconstruction and 12% said Lok Adalats after post-securitization act.

TABLE 5: EFFECTIVE MEASURES OF RECOVERY BY THE BANKS

Preference	No of respondents	Percentage(%)
One-time settlement schemes	15	60
Lok adalats	03	12
Debt Recovery Tribunal	03	12
Civil Courts	00	00
Corporate Debt Restructuring	01	04
ARCs/Securitization Companies	03	12
Others	00	00

Source: Primary data

Interpretation

From the above it is evident that 60% of the respondents said that one time settlement scheme is not most effective recovery mechanism, while 12% said Lok Adalats, 12% said Asset reconstruction companies, 12% said debt recovery tribunals and 4% said corporate debt restructuring.

TABLE 6: WHETHER THE SECURITIZATION ACT HAS EMPOWERED THE BANKS WITH ADDITIONAL POWERS OR NOT

Preference	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
Yes	25	100
No	00	00

Source: Primary data

Interpretation

From the above table it is clear that 100% of the respondents said that the securitization act has empowered the banks with additional powers by facilitating the setting up of asset reconstruction companies.

TABLE 7: WHETHER THE ACT REDUCED THE LEVEL OF NPAS IN THE BANK

Preference	No of respondents	Percentage (%)
Yes	22	88
No	00	00
Can't say	03	12

Source: Primary data

Interpretation

From the above table it is evident that 88% of the respondents said that the enactment of the Securitization Act has reduced the level of NPAs in the banks, while 12% said that they can't say whether the Act has helped in reduction of NPAs in the banks or not.

TABLE 8: RATE OF IMPACT OF THE ACT IN REDUCTION OF NPAS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 10

Rating	No of Respondents	Percentage(%)
Below 5	03	12
5 & Above 5	22	88

Source: Primary data

Interpretation

From the graph it is evident that 88% of the respondents rated the impact of Securitization act in reduction of NPAs as 5 and above 5, and 12% rated below 5. From this it can be interpreted that the act has been successful in reduction of NPAs in the banking sector.

ISSUES OF CONCERN OF THE BANK IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SECURITIZATION ACT FOR RECOVERY OF NPAs

The issues of concern expressed were as follows:

1. Disposal of securities is difficult without court intervention.
2. Lack of market for such securitized assets.
3. Non-commencement of Asset reconstruction and Securitization companies.
4. Difficulty in seizing the said property with tenants and leaseholders occupying the property
5. Under the act, the bank has to issue a notice and wait for 60 days before proceeding to take possession of the quality of assets and rendering them less valuable
6. Stay from civil courts by the parties against the action initiated by the banks for seizure.
7. Cost of maintenance to the bank of the seized assets
8. Parties delaying the process by contending in court/DTRs
9. Inability to prevent alienation of the said property by the borrowers during the notice period
10. Threats from the borrowers to the bankers

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The following are the main findings from the study conducted:

1. It was evident after the analysis as that 100% of the respondents said that the securitization act has empowered the banks with additional powers by facilitating the setting up of Asset reconstruction companies/Securitization companies.
2. It was evident that the Act has helped in reduction of NPAs in the banks as 88% of the respondents said that the enactment of the Securitization Act has reduced the level of NPAs in the banks and they rated the impact of Securitization Act in reduction of NPAs as five and above 5.
3. It was found that the main reason for NPAs in banks is diversion of funds, improper credit appraisal and willful default followed by decrepit legal system, cost ineffective legal measures, lack of effective follows-up and difficulty in execution of decrees.
4. The measures to tackle the NPAs adopted by the bank includes the increasing use of the forum of Lok Adalats, Civil Courts, Debt recovery Tribunal, use of Corporate Debt Re-Structuring, one-time settlement schemes and asset reconstruction/securitization companies.
5. Before the enactment of the securitization act bankers had limited option for recovery which consisted of having an intensive follow-up and interaction with the borrower and initiating legal action either thought courts or Debt recovery tribunals.
6. The securitization Act empowers Bank/FIs to change or takeover the management/possession of secured assets of the defaulting borrowers & sells or lease out the assets without the intervention of the court.
7. Although the Securitization Act empowers banks/FIs to seize the secured assets of the defaulting borrowers without the intervention of the courts, borrowers are still able to get proceedings under the act stayed by appealing in civil court and DRTs.
8. Despite the many issues of concerns in the implementation of the act overall the act has been a boom for the banking community. Majority of the bankers opined that the act was helpful in the reduction of NPAs.
9. At the macro level, NPAs have chocked off the supply line of credit of the potential lenders thereby having a deleterious effect on capital formulation and arresting the economic activity in the country.
10. At the micro level, unsustainable level of NPAs has eroded current profits of banks. They have led to reduction in interest income and increase in provisions and have restricted the recycling of funds leading to various asset-liability mismatches. Besides this, it has led to erosion in their capital base and reduction in their competitiveness.
11. The mounting menace of NPAs has raised the cost of credit, made Indian businessman uncompetitive as compared to their counterparts in other countries. It has made Banks more averse to risks and squeezed genuine small and medium enterprises from accessing competitive credit and has throttled their enterprising spirits as well to a great extent.
12. While the banking industries in India is progressively complying with the international prudential norms and accounting practices, there are certain areas like recovery management in which it does not have a level playing field as compared to other participants in the international financial markets. Our

existing legal frame work relating to the commercial transactions has not kept pace with the changing times, this resulted in slow pace of recovery of defaulting lone & mounting levels of NPA's in banks.

CONCLUSIONS

While the banking industries in India is progressively complying with the international prudential norms and accounting practices, there are certain areas like recovery management in which it does not have a level playing field as compared to other participants in the international financial markets. Our existing legal frame work relating to the commercial transactions has not kept pace with the changing time, this resulted in slow pace of recovery of defaulting NPA's in banks.
It could be concluded that the SARFAESI Act, 2002 holds the promise of reformulating the contours of asset management and of rectifying the imbalance between borrowers and lenders in India, a direct consequence of which has been the colossal accumulation of NPAs. The loopholes and inequalities of in the act need to be ironed out through appropriate legislative measures. The basic structure of the act must not be tampered with, though a few changes like making appeals easier, framing rules and guidelines to prevent misuse of the powers under the Act, making a reasonable distinction between willful and other defaulters etc., can be considered. IT must be said that the Act, by empowering lenders to exercise their right of expeditious attachment and foreclosure for the enforcement of security, has made a beginning in the right direction.
Moreover, if the banks have to survive in the competitive and increasingly globalized market conditions they should be helped both bh the RBI and the government in the form of faster recovery climate, especially for the legal processes of enforcement of contracts. Till such time the banks may be helped by recognizing their provisions against standard assets, additional provisions over and above the prudential norms etc., as tier II capital.

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A STUDY ON IMPACT OF CULTURAL CORRELATION BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AND PRODUCTIVITY IN RURAL BANKS

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ABSTRACT

The study is aimed at analyzing the Organizational Culture and its impact on organizational change and productivity in rural banks in Karnataka. Also examines the utilization, purpose, difficulties and satisfaction level of users about Internet based survey and statistical tools administered to the study. Explores the impact analysis of Organisational change can benefit the baking industry to accept the new culture to facilitate the users and benefit by expanding the market share. Further the study suggests that need to provide training on the use of Organisational Culture on productivity, so that the banking industry use the appropriate facilitation tools and techniques to obtain required productivity and output. The study aims at cultural correlation between organizational change and productivity especially in the Rural Banks in Chikkaballapur district. Researchers has administered SPSS statistical tool to evaluate the relationship between the change initiative and the amount of productivity derives on each initiatives pounderd on each occasion.

KEYWORDS
organizational change; productivity; Banks; Karnataka.

1. INTRODUCTION

Culture is a notoriously difficult term to define. In 1952, the American anthropologists, Kroeber and Kluckhohn, critically reviewed concepts and definitions of culture, and compiled a list of 164 different definitions. Apte (1994: 2001), writing in the ten-volume Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics, summarized the problem as follows: 'Despite a century of efforts to define culture adequately, there was in the early 1990s no agreement among anthropologists regarding its nature.'

The following extract from Avruch provides an historical perspective to some of the ways in which the term has been interpreted:

Much of the difficulty [of understanding the concept of culture] stems from the different usages of the term as it was increasingly employed in the nineteenth century. Broadly speaking, it was used in three ways (all of which can be found today as well). First, as exemplified in Matthew Arnolds' Culture and Anarchy (1867), culture referred to special intellectual or artistic endeavors or products, what today we might call "high culture" as opposed to "popular culture" (or "folkways" in an earlier usage). By this definition, only a portion – typically a small one – of any social group "has" culture. (The rest are potential sources of anarchy!) This sense of culture is more closely related to aesthetics than to social science.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There is no single definition for organizational culture. The topic has been studied from a variety of perspectives ranging from disciplines such as anthropology and sociology, to the applied disciplines of organizational behavior, management science, and organizational commitment. The following definitions are views of authors from the applied sciences disciplines and are more relevant to the scope of this research document.

Robbins (2000:34) postulates that culture, as a concept, has had a long and cheered history. In the last decade, it has been used by some organizational researchers and managers to indicate the climate and practices that organizations develop around their handling of people or to refer to the espoused values and credo of an organization.

Schein (1999:200) defines culture as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.

Mullins (1999:53) defines organizational culture as the collection of traditions, values, beliefs, policies, and attitudes that constitute a pervasive context for everything one does and thinks in an organization.

Aswathappa (2003:479) refers to culture as a, complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and other capabilities and habits acquired by man in a society.

Collins and Porras (2000:338) state that organizational culture refers to a system of shared meaning held by members that distinguish one organization from other organizations.

Whereas the evolutionists stressed the universal character of a single culture, with different societies arrayed from savage to civilized, Boas emphasized the uniqueness of the many and varied cultures of different peoples or societies. Moreover he dismissed the value judgments he found inherent in both the Arnoldian and Tylorean views of culture; for Boas, one should never differentiate high from low culture, and one ought not differentially valorize cultures as savage or civilized.

3. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The principal competitive advantage of successful organizations is their culture. Its study is a major constituent of organizational development—that is, the process through which an organization develops its internal capacity to be the most effective it can be in its work and to sustain itself over the long term.

Organizational culture may have been forged by the founder; it may emerge over time as the organization faces challenges and obstacles; or it may be created deliberately by management.

Organizational culture comprises the attitudes, experiences, beliefs, and values of the organization, acquired through social learning, that control the way individuals and groups in the organization interact with one another and with parties outside it.

4. RESEACH METHODOLOGY

This section deals with description of study procedures and the methods employed in the study. Areas covered include the research design, population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection procedures and analysis.

4.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

To study the impact of cultural correlation between organizational change and productivity especially in the Rural Banks in Chikkaballapur district.

4.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The main objective of this research is to establish the correlation between organizational culture and productivity especially in the Rural Banks in Chikkaballapur district.

The specific objectives are as follows:

1. To examine the factors responsible for the low support, in creating organizational culture towards managing of rural banks.
2. To identify specific actions required to secure the support of all in creating good organizational culture at rural banks in Chikkaballapur district.
3. To establish the relationship between good organizational culture and productivity of banks in Chikkaballapur district.

4.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What account for the low support for creating organizational culture by most banks in Chikkaballapur district?
2. What actions are necessary to get the support of all in creating good organizational culture banks in Chikkaballapur district?
3. Is there a link between good organizational culture and productivity banks in Chikkaballapur district.

4.4 RELEVANCE OF STUDY

The significance of the study is to:

1. Improve understanding of the role of organizational culture in the achievement of organizational objectives in rural banks in Chikkaballapur district.
2. Add to literature on organizational culture in Rural banks in Chikkaballapur district.

4.5 POPULATION OF THE STUDY

Population refers the group about whom the researcher wants to know more and from whom a sample will be drawn. This is often defined in terms of demography, geography, occasion time, etc.

The branch offices of the all public sector Bank in Chikkaballapur district. Public Sector Bank has 215 permanent staff at both their Regional and branch offices of Chikkaballapur district.

The targeted population for the study thus includes the following:

1. Branch Manager and all heads of the various departments at the different branches.
2. Clerical and other staff of the Bank at the Branch offices.

4.6 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

A sample size is a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole. When dealing with people, it can be defined as a set of respondents (people) selected from a larger population for the purpose of a survey (Neuman,1997).

The researcher adopted both the Survey and Purposive sampling technique. The survey sample technique ensured that each member of the targeted population has equal chance of being selected. Under the purposive or judgment sampling technique, the researcher purposively draws a sample from the population which he thinks is a representative of the population.

4.7 DATA COLLECTION

Because the study focuses more on attitudes and perception of bank employees, the importance of primary data is evident; here the views of respondents will be sort direct. Initial visit to the Bank was to introduce herself, familiarize researcher with the Bank as well as to seek their consent for the study.

4.8 SCOPE (DELIMITATION)

Organizational culture and its effect on productivity are important in all commercial and rural banks in Chikkaballapur district. However, this study is limited to public sector banks in Chikkaballapur district. This is due mainly to proximity, time and financial constraints' in carrying out this research.

4.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The researcher had to raise the finance for the research and carry out the research simultaneously since the research was not pre-finance and time to facilitate data collection and analysis.

5. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

Impact of cultural correlation between organizational change and productivity in rural banks emerged as the most critical workforce challenges in the present competitive modern organizations. The problem of cultural correlation between organizational change and productivity has become even more pronounced in the Indian Banking industry. Organizations devote more resource and time on retaining existing talented employees. The critical issues in cultural correlation between organizational change and productivity and assess the various influencing factors that Banks face.

The following Table - 1 shows the identified factors of cultural correlation between organizational change and productivity for employee retention in banking industry:

TABLE – 1: FACTORS INFLUENCING CULTURAL CORRELATION BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AND PRODUCTIVITY IN BANKING INDUSTRY

Sl No	Factors
1	Recognition of cross-cultural issues
2	Learning environment
3	work environmental factors
4	Trusting relationships and a safe space
5	Flexible in style and approach
6	Respond to culture and diversity
7	Use Human Resources effectively
8	Sufficient resources and Organisational support

ANOVA

Impact and influence of **Factors influencing cultural correlation between organizational change and productivity in banking industry**

H_o: There is no significant (statistically) difference in rank orders/ preferences of respondents between 72 responses of respondents with respect cultural correlation between organizational change and productivity.

H_1: There is a significant (statistically) difference in rank orders/ preferences of 72 responses of respondents with respect cultural correlation between organizational change and productivity

$H_o = \mu_{\text{Responses with}}$ cultural correlation between organizational change and productivity

H_1 = one of them not equal to another.

TABLE 2: MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND TEST STATISTICS OF CULTURAL CORRELATION BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AND PRODUCTIVITY

No.	Descriptive Statistics			Test Statistics[a,b]	
	Factor	Mean	SD	Asymp. Sig.	Decision
WC_1	Recognition of cross-cultural issues	4.71	0.45	0.303**	Not Sig
WC_2	Learning environment	4.82	0.43	0.311**	Not Sig
WC_3	work environmental factors	4.09	0.41	0.309**	Not Sig
WC_4	Trusting relationships and a safe space	4.19	0.47	0.315**	Not Sig
WC_5	Flexible in style and approach	4.86	0.43	0.310**	Not Sig
WC_6	Respond to culture and diversity	4.30	0.39	0.300**	Not Sig
WC_7	Use Human Resources effectively	4.62	0.46	0.302**	Not Sig
WC_8	Sufficient resources and Organisational support	4.03	0.45	0.307**	Not Sig

Interpretation

From the above Table 1, the mean of WC_1, WC_2, WC_3, WC_4, WC_5, WC_6, WC_7 and WC_8 which indicate that the respondents are in agreeableness with the factor '**cultural correlation between organizational change and productivity**', as the values are almost nearer to the response 'Strongly Agree'. Moreover, the standard deviation for all the statements WC_1, WC_2, WC_3, WC_4, WC_5, WC_6, WC_7 and WC_8 are in the range of 0.43 indicate that the there is not much deviation from the responses as expressed by the respondents with respect to the agreeableness of the factor '**cultural correlation between organizational change and productivity**'.

CHI – SQUARE TEST

TABLE – 3: CONSOLIDATED RESULTS OF 'χ^2 TEST

Sl No	**Relative Factors**	**χ^2 Value**
1	Recognition of cross-cultural issues	37.56
2	Learning environment	34.13
3	work environmental factors	16.62
4	Trusting relationships and a safe space	6.54
5	Flexible in style and approach	18.19
6	Respond to culture and diversity	2.47
7	Use Human Resources effectively	20.70
8	Sufficient resources and Organisational support	384.05

Critical Value for all the factors is 5.627 and the Degree of Freedom is 2

In order to find the relationship between the selected independent variables such as Recognition of cross-cultural issues, Learning environment, work environmental factors, Trusting relationships and a safe space, Flexible in style and approach, Respond to culture and diversity, Use Human Resources effectively, sufficient resources and Organisational support have been taken into consideration for analysis. Since the study centers on the dependent variable i.e., the Recognition of cross-cultural issues respond to culture and diversity, sufficient resources and Organisational support, a chi-square test was employed and some of the results of the test are shown in Table - 3.

As mentioned earlier, an attempt has been made to analyze the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. For this purpose the respondent's feedback has been classified based on cultural dimension viz, Recognition of cross-cultural issues Respond to culture and diversity and Sufficient resources and Organisational support.

FINDINGS

From the analysis, it is found that the Recognition of cross-cultural issues Respond to culture and diversity and Sufficient resources and Organisational support in banking organization and the employees expressed the view that they would leave the organization, if they were offered work with better working environment elsewhere.

An employee tends to leave the organization cross cultural environment and productivity would be low because of poor coordination and supportive Organisational environment. Other factors which would drive poor productivity found is substandard nature of the job, discontented personal factors, uncongenial organization support, dispirited perceptual factors and hostile organizational culture. From the results, it is found that work environmental factors have a positive relation on employee's decision to stay and also that the cultural development and advancement opportunities provided in the organization have a positive relation with employee retention.

SUGGESTIONS

Even though, it is impossible to scrap problems totally, there are certain ways by which the problem can be tackled. Since Banking Industry is unique, these organizations need to develop innovative ways to tackle them. The Leaders must address these issues and along with the management need to evolve strategies to sync cultural diversity among employees at all levels.

- Providing flexi work arrangements and work life balance:
- Connecting staff by means of mentors or coaches:
- Ensuring an effective leadership style, ensuring good relationships are formed and nurtured with the leaders:
- Fostering effective work environment
- Enable Recognition of cross-cultural issues in banking sector
- Fostering Learning environment in working environment
- Developing Supportive work environmental factors
- Developing Trusting relationships and a safe space
- Enabling Flexible in style and approach
- Develop a culture Respond to culture and diversity
- Application of Human Resources effectively
- Sufficient resources and Organisational support to enable productivity in banks

CONCLUSION

Companies today are forced to function in a world full of change and complexity, and it is more important than ever to have the right employees in order to survive the surrounding competition.

It is also a fact that a too high turnover rate affect company's in a negative way and retention strategies should therefore be high on the agenda. Organizations in banking industry must strive to set the right retention strategy, ensuring coming at par with the competitors.

It is seen that organisation and leaders which respect and value employees competency, Recognition of cross-cultural issues, Learning environment, work environmental factors, Trusting relationships and a safe space, Flexible in style and approach, Respond to culture and diversity, Use Human Resources effectively and Sufficient resources and Organisational support assure challenging work, value the quality of work life, provide chances for learning, etc have loyal and engaged employees. Therefore, leaders play a vital role in employee retention.

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OUTCOMES OF STRESS: A STUDY OF CAUSE & REMEDIAL ACTIONS FOR REDUCING STRESS

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ABSTRACT

Workplace stress is to be expected. Stress is a natural human response to its environment. In fact, moderate levels of stress are considered essential motivators. However, high levels of stress have the capacity to greatly impact physical and emotional health. As leaders, it is our responsibility to assess and manage levels of stress in the workplace to ensure a safe and productive work environment. Stress is a major hygiene factor that must be managed. The aim of this paper is to provide insight that will help the reader further improve his/her management competencies in managing stress in the workplace.

KEYWORDS

Stress, Workplace, Employee Productivity, Performance Employee Conflicts.

1. INTRODUCTION

Stress is defined as an imbalance between demand and resources or as occurring when pressure exceeds one's perceived ability to cope, yet, stress is not given due importance and it is becoming one of the major cause of employees becoming unproductive and demotivated. The impact of stress on cost and productivity is substantial to the organization; A number of factors (environmental, organizational and individual) moderated by individual differences cause an employee to feel stress. The more frequently these factors occur and the more intensely they are experienced by the employee, the greater the stress that he experiences; job related tension tends to decrease job satisfaction and performance. It causes individual to become disoriented and imbalanced. Stress itself is not necessarily a bad thing. Excessive stress is also costly. This is owing to the fact that stress leads to low productivity, encourages absenteeism, and leads to high turnover, disability pay-outs and an increased worker compensation scheme. Therefore, it is important for employees to identify any signs of stress among their colleagues and themselves early enough to prevent impacts on the organization's performance levels (Hicks & Caroline, 2007). This will help individuals recognize the underlying problem and seek measures to cope with it. Ultimately, it will reduce the impact of stress on organizational performance and productivity. This paper seeks to identify types of stress in the workplace and how the signs and symptoms of stress can be recognized by individuals. Finally, the paper will broadly discuss coping mechanisms that can assist individuals deal with stress.

OBJECTIVES

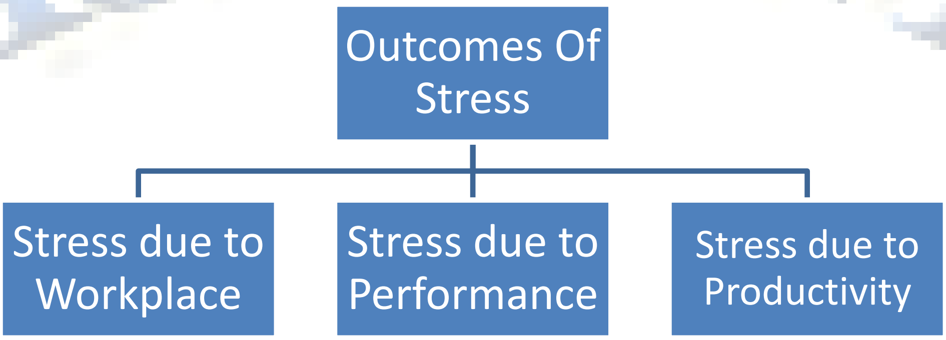
1. To study the causes of stress among employees.
2. To analyze the causes of stress on employees.
3. To study the effect of stress on productivity of an organization.
4. To study the effect of stress on performance
5. Effect of stress at workplace.

TYPES OF STRESS AT WORKPLACE

a. Time Stress: This is where individuals lack enough time to complete all of their assigned duties. Such workers feel trapped, hopeless and unhappy about their status. Workers under this type of stress worry about deadlines and most of the time rush to avoid being late (Fried, 2008).
b. Anticipatory Stress: This describes the stress that workers experience regarding the future. The basic premise is that workers naturally worry about the fact that something might go wrong in the near future..
c. Situational Stress: Situational stress occurs when individuals are in an intimidating situation over which they have no control. Such situations may involve a conflict of interest, loss of acceptance or change is status in an individual's group.
d. Encounter Stress: This type of stress revolves around individual contacts. People get stressed when they are anxious about interacting with a particular group of individuals or a particular person (Albrecht, 2010). It often occurs in a situation where workers interact with clients or customers who may be in some form of distress.

OUTCOMES OF STRESS

The first step in solving unproductiveness and disorientation is to know the causes of stress that employees go through. Once the causes of stress is identified, the organization can come up with good programs for stress management for its employees. There are various effects related to stress, some of them are mentioned below:



A) EFFECT OF STRESS AT WORKPLACE

The workplace is the physical location where someone works. Such a place can range from a home office to a large office building or factory. The workplace is one of the most important social spaces other than the home, constituting "a central concept for several entities: the worker and his/her family, the employing organization, the customers of the organization, and the society as a whole. Stressors can be divided into those that arise from within an individual i.e., internal, and from environment i.e., external. Internal conflicts, fears of inadequacy, fear of unknown and guilt feelings are examples of stressors that do not depend on the environment.

STATISTICS ON WORKSTRESS

- 40% of workers reported their job was very or extremely stressful.
- 25% view their jobs as the number one stressor in their lives.
- 29% of workers felt quite a bit or extremely stressed at work.
- 26% of workers said they were "often or very often burned out or stressed by their work".

STRESS AT DIFFERENT WORK LEVELS

EMPLOYEE	STRESS	REASON
Fresher/Trainee	Fear of loosing job	Incapability
Employee for less than 1 year	Mental Stress	Wrong comparison with co-workers
4-5 years of experience	Self induced stress	Unmarried and wants to settle in life
5+ years of experience	Less concentration	Lack of time management

SPECIFIC STRESSORS

1) Organizational problems
2) Unclear role specifications
3) Insufficient back-up
4) Role conflict Long hours, excessive overtime, shift work,
5) Unrealistically high self-expectations
6) Poor status, pay and promotion prospects
7) Unnecessary lengthy procedures
8) Job uncertainty and insecurity
9) Poor relations with co-workers
10) Frequent clashes with superiors
11) Conflicting demands
12) Isolation from colleagues' support
13) Lack of variety

TASK-RELATED STRESSORS

1) Poor communication
2) Difficult clients or subordinates
3) Inadequate leadership/poor supervision
4) Insufficient training
5) Inability to finish a task in time
6) Inability to help or act effectively

PHYSICAL STRESSORS

1) Physical agents (noise, heat, radiation, cold
2) Uncomfortable work area

ALARMING SYMPTOMS OF STRESS

1. Frequent headaches, jaw clenching or pain
2. Gritting, grinding teeth
3. Stuttering or stammering
4. Tremors, trembling of lips, hands
5. Neck ache, back pain, muscle spasms
6. Light headedness, faintness, dizziness
7. Heartburn, stomach pain, nausea
8. Excess anxiety, worry, guilt, nervousness
9. Increased anger, frustration, hostility
10. Insomnia, nightmares, disturbing dreams
11. Trouble learning new information
12. Forgetfulness, disorganization, confusion
13. Difficulty in making decisions
14. Increased frustration, irritability
15. Reduced work productivity
16. Lies or excuses covering poor work
17. Problems with communication
18. Social withdrawal or isolation
19. Constant tiredness, weakness, fatigue
20. Frequent use of over-the-counter drugs
21. Increased smoking, alcohol, or drug use

REMEDIAL MEASURES

There are a variety of steps you can take to reduce both your overall stress levels and the stress you find on the job and in the workplace. These include:

- **Taking responsibility** for improving your physical and emotional well-being.
- **Avoiding pitfalls** by identifying knee jerk habits and negative attitudes that add to the stress you experience at work.
- **Learning better communication skills** to ease and improve your relationships with management and coworkers.
- Yoga
- Relaxing Exercises
- Self distracting
- Alternative solutions
- Adopting problem solving techniques
- Listening to good music of favorite genre

- Spending more time with kids and pets
- Going for a long walk
- Light scented candles
- Curling up with a good book
- Having a conversation with old friends

Don'ts:

- Taking more sugar, chocolates and sweets
- Intake of excess caffeine (coffee), sodas, tea
- Consuming alcohol
- Zoning out for hours in front of the TV or computer
- Taking out your stress on others like lashing out, angry outbursts, physical violence
- Filling up every minute of the day to avoid facing problems
- Chewing tobacco, cocaine, heroin and other drugs
- Shopping and gambling sprees

B) EFFECTS OF STRESS ON EMPLOYEES PRODUCTIVITY

Workplace stress derives from many sources. It can be a demanding boss, annoying co-workers, angry customers, hazardous conditions, long commutes and a never-ending workload. Your work performance is also affected by stressors such as family relationships, finances and a lack of sleep stemming from fears and anxieties about the future. How you handle the effects of stress depends on whether it is easier to change the situation or change your attitude toward it.

a) Time Management An overwhelming workload, lack of peer support and too many demands at once, however, contribute to a sense of frustration and panic that there isn't enough time to complete the work. According to the authors of "Performance Under Pressure: Managing Stress in the Workplace," if these conditions routinely result in overtime or having to take work home, the stress of being unable to manage time efficiently can fuel employees' resentment toward the company as well as negatively influence their commitment and loyalty.

b) Relationships: Stress is a major contributor to job burn-out and strained interactions with peers and supervisors, says Bob Losvyk, author of "Get a Grip!: Overcoming Stress and Thriving in the Workplace." The combined feelings of helplessness and hopelessness generate heightened sensitivities to any and all forms of criticism, defensiveness, depression, paranoia about job security, jealousy and resentment toward co-workers who seem to have everything under control, short-fuse tempers, diminished self-esteem and withdrawal.

c) Focus: Stress affects your ability to remember things you already know, to process new information you are learning and to apply both to analytical situations and physical tasks that require concentration. When you are mentally exhausted from all of the worries, anxieties and tension brought on by a stressful environment or lifestyle, you are more easily distracted and prone to make costly, harmful or even fatal mistakes on the job.

d) Health: In addition to headaches, sleep disorders, vision problems, weight loss/gain and blood pressure, stress affects cardiovascular, gastrointestinal and musculoskeletal systems, says Richard Weinstein, author of "The Stress Effect." If you're not feeling well, you're not going to do your best work. Further, the amount of sick leave taken to rest and recuperate from stress-related illnesses often means that the work only accumulates during your absence and, thus, generates even more stress about how to catch up once you return.

REMEDIAL MEASURE

1) Individual Coping Strategies

- Physical Exercise such as Yoga, Swimming, Jogging, Playing, walking etc.
- Relaxation–Transcendental Meditation
- Work-home Transition
- Cognitive Therapy
- Networking
- Time Management
- Use of realistic goal setting

2) Organizational Level Coping Strategies

- Supportive organizational climate
- Job Enrichment
- Organizational Role Clarity
- Career planning and counseling
- Stress control workshops and Employee Assistance Programme.
- Improved personnel selection and job placement
- Training
- Redesigning of jobs
- Increased employee involvement
- Improved organizational communication

C) EFFECT OF STRESS ON PERFORMANCE:

According to recent research stress impacts the work performance of 49% of employees. It most often leads to difficulty concentrating, absenteeism and poor work quality. Gender differences exist in the influence of stress on work performance, yet variances by age are minimal. According to the study, difficulty concentrating is the most common way that personal problems and stress disrupt work performance for males and females. Females are absent more often due to personal problems, but males miss more days of work because of a personal issue.

REMEDIAL MEASURE

- Managers need to pay attention to female absenteeism since it may be a reflection of stress at home and/or in the workplace.
- **Positive work culture**: A positive work culture is one with **clear vision and purpose** and where staffs are aware of their individual contribution. This enables staff to be engaged with the success of the company.
- **Training and development**: Training and development opportunities add value to both the workplace and the individual. This may be observable directly through increased performance, sales and/or improved customer care.
- **Pay and remuneration, working hours, pressure, and other conditions of employment:** Contractual pay and conditions should reflect the responsibilities of the particular role, and the value the role represents to the organization. People working overtime should be compensated fairly with either overtime payments or be given time off in lieu. When employees are expected to work longer hours with no reward, this can lead to increased stress, lower performance and staff fostering resentment towards the organization. Over a period of time, this can lead to talented and experienced staff leaving an organization.

CONCLUSION

Stress is a naturally occurring phenomenon which can act as a motivator under the right circumstances. However, like so many other things in life, an excess of stress will have negative consequences with repercussions that will transcend personal and professional confines. Left untreated, excessive stress will ruin an individual's health and productivity.

As leaders and managers, we are uniquely positioned to identify the various sources and types of stress. Furthermore, we may even have the capacity to take action aimed at stemming these sources and types of stress. However, we must first be able to recognize the signs and symptoms of stress in order to effect the appropriate organizational changes. And, in cases where either the solution resides outside of our sphere of influence or, to help cope with residual stress, is it essential that we understand the various coping mechanisms available and help individuals select the most appropriate ones.

Stress management includes taking care of organisational issues like leadership, peer support, organisational culture and policies, work design and reporting arrangements as well as job analysis, staff selection and training to enhance role clarity such that there is a balance between the individual and his work environment. Effective systems for motivation and performance management are essential (Jennifer et al, 2006).

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GROWTH AND NECESSITIES OF FDI IN RETAILING IN INDIA

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ABSTRACT
Today each and every nation is trying to liberalize its economic policies in order to attract FDI to enhance a substantial level of economic and social development. Indian retail sector is in a boom period and attracting global retail giants due to its market opportunities. It can be observed from the above analysis that an entry of the global players in retailing leads to inflow of latest technical know how, establishment of well integrated supply chains, availability of quality products at cheaper prices to consumers, development of SSIs and SMEs, creation of more jobs, interest free capital,benefits to farmers, controls inflation and contributes for capital formation to increase nation's GDP.Taking into consideration, above necessities, FDI in retailing cannot be avoided in India.

KEYWORDS
FDI, retailing.

I. INTRODUCTION
Retailing is a distribution channel function, where one organisation buys product from supplying firms or manufacture product themselves, and then sells these directly to consumers.Retailing involves a set of business activities that adds value to the products and services sold to the final consumer for their use. There are more than 14 million retailing shops in the country, and only 4% of them have acquired more than 500sq.ft area. These outlets are run by family members, rarely employing one or more persons.Since India has embraced LPG, and signed on WTO agreement, entry to multinational giants has been allowed in this sector. In 1997, FDI in cash and carry (wholesale) with 100% owernership was allowed, and in the year 2006 51% investment in a single brand retail outlet was permitted. On 24th November 2011, the GOI allowed 51% stake in multibrand retail trade (MBRT) and raised the limit in single brand retail trade (SBRT) from 51 percent to 100 percent. FDI in retailing is an important and leading source of non-debt inflows of capital and provides opportunities to host countries to enhance their economic development and opens new opportunities to home countries to optimize their earnings by employing ideal resources.Taking the above description into consideration, the present paper is carried out to discuss the growth and necessities of FDI in retailing in India.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
OBJECTIVES
Objectives of the present paper are
(1) To discuss the nature of retailing in India.
(2)To study the present scenario of retailing in India and
(3) To analyse the need of retailing in India related to various sectors/ areas or groups.
COLLECTION OF DATA AND INFORMATION
The data and information collected is from secondary sources, i.e. from books, magazines, journals, newspapers and websites.

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Fulzele (2012) examined the impact of FDI in retailing in India on employment, consumers,capital inflow, infrastructure, farmers and retailers. Ranjan, (2010) suggested some recommendations to the retail industry as well as to the government to take adequate steps in order to face challenges raised at the time of entry of global retailers. Dey (2007), took note of certain issues related to FDI in India. Gupta (2010), her findings are FDI in the buzzing Indian Retail should not just be freely allowed but should be significantly encouraged. Mittal (2012) argued that the small family retailers will simply be overwhelmed by the entry of foreign organised retailers is a myth that has been blown out of proportion. Pant (2011) outlined some general issues about FDI. Malik (2012) concluded that Indian consumers are more concerned about service quality, store convenience, product quality and availability of new products in retailing. Pai (2011) says, the opening of multibrand retail is expected to bring down inflation and inflow of foreign funds may help finance the current account deficit.
Nayyar (2011) welcoming the FDI in retail says "the primary benefit to farmers from the growth of organised retail is a higher price for their produce. Guruswamy (2007) says that the retail industry in India is of late often being hailed as one of the sunrise sectors in the economy.

IV. NECESSITIES OF FDI IN INDIA
India needs large amount of foreign exchange through FDI in retailing to sustain and enhance its economic growth. There are number of issues to opening of the retail sector for FDI. FDI in India is expected to benefit the concerned, which are discussed as under.

V.1. GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF FARMERS
Farmers will be benefited by FDI. Farmers are getting only one fourth of price, what is sold in the market. Perishable nature of fruit and vegetables, without the option of safe and reliable storage, the farmers are compelled to sell their crop at whatever price they can get. The Govt. says that farmers will gain out of this investment due to omitting out of middlemen. India has 600 million farmers. The mandi system does not favour farmers because they lose 5% of the value in transportation, 10% in broker commission and 10% in quality parameters.Because of poor supply chain, large percentage of agricultural product is wasted. FDI in retail will be instrumental in the pricing, for farmers. Farmers association wishes reforms like increase in market accession, strong cold storage facilities, exclusion of middlemen etc. A better cold storage would help to prevent the existing loss of 34% of fruits and vegetables due to inefficient systems in place. Analysts said allowing in big foreign retailers would provide an impetus for them to set up modern supply chains, with refrigerated vans, cold storage and more efficient logistics. The biggest beneficiary would be the small farmers who will be able to improve their productivity by selling directly to large organised players.(wikipeadia) FDI is expected to push up this issue and restructure supply chain, making it smother and faster. This in turn may boost farm exports significantly. (Sengupta 2011)

V.2. GENERATING NEW EMPLOYMENT
The retail sector also acts as an important employment absorber for the present social system.One of the principal reasons behind the explosion of retail and its fragmented nature in the country is the fact that retailing is probably the primary form of disguised unemployment / underemployment in the country.

V.3. BENEFITS TO CONSUMERS
Entry of foreign retailers would eliminate middlemen and consumers will get fresh vegetable,goods and services at cheaper prices. The global retailers have advanced know how, inventory management, new technologies, quality of product and customer services that would result to improve productivity and

efficiency is likely to lower down the prices. Due to entry of global players in retailing would result in the cut-throat completion and price war. Ultimately, consumers would enjoy benefits in terms of a wide range of world-class products and services at competitive prices.

V.4. CAPITAL INFLOW
FDI in retail trade would attract large inflows of foreign investment and likely to promote the welfare of all sections of society. (Agrawal 2011) Government decided to attract foreign capital inflow of $590 billion to the economy; also investors are mandated to make investment of atleast $100 million including infrastructural facilities. As we know that we require huge foreign capital for our comprehensive and sustainable growth and development. If we allow FDI in retailing, would bring interest free capital in the economy. Considering the principle of capital formation and multiplier effect of economics there will be positive impact on the economy.

V.5. INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT
India is the second largest producer of fruits and vegetables and it has a very limited integrated cold-chain infrastructure. This leads to about 30% losses in certain perishable agricultural output in India, on average, every year. (kpmg) Farmers suffer heavy losses in terms of wastage in quality and quantity due to lack of adequate storage and handling facilities. Foreign investment makes a genuine contribution to the development of Indian infrastructure and logistics. It was projected that by 2010, 500 new malls would come-up. Allowing FDI in retail can bring about supply chain improvement, investment in technology, manpower and skill development, tourism development, greater sourcing from India, upgradation in agriculture, efficient small and medium scale industries,growth in market size and benefits to government through greater GDP, tax income and employment generation. Between 2010 and 2012, the organised retail real estate stock will grow from the existing 41 million sq ft to 95 million sq ft. (Knight)

V.6. DEVELOPMENT OF SSIs
FDI in retailing seems to have had a positive impact on the small manufacturers who now work in with large ones to work for modern retailers. Small and medium enterprises dominate the Indian retail scene. In respect of proposals involving FDI beyond 51 percent, 30 percent sourcing would mandatorily have to be done from domestic SMEs and cottage industries artisans and craftsmen. It is an evident that government of India, made compulsory to purchase materials and semi-finished goods from SMEs that would result to grow and prosper the SSI sector.

V.7. IMPROVING RETAILING SERVICES
There would no immediate impact on the existing retail sector, due to entry of organized retailers. Local retailers are expected to remain a key element in the ecosystem in the foreseeable future, with their ability to offer door step service and convenient access. The ICRIER has found that though initially, small stores located in the vicinity of big malls have seen a drop in scales and profit. Besides, the advantages of neighborhood kirana stores such as proximity, leverage on credit sales, and bargaining choice of customers, home delivery and convenient shop timing would remain even after entry of big retail chains. In this regard, a study conducted by Venkateshwarlu (2007) to see the impact of malls on retail trade.36 percent of the retailers feel that there is not much impact, 24 percent opine that there is scope for healthy competition, 22 percent say that there would be cut in margin because of such malls. During the last ten years number of malls and organised retailing shops have been opened, it is evident that no kirana shop has been closed up.

V.8. INFLATION CONTROL
Investments in cold-storage and warehousing will ease supply-side pressures that have driven inflation close to a double-digit. The Govt. advocated that there is need to open the retail sector.

V.9. INFLOW OF TECHNICAL KNOW–HOW
Giant in retailing will bring their technology and technical know-how. The inflow of technology and technical know-how is said to be a natural migration along with the global players in retailing. This would transform into Indian technological advancement, production improvements, better quality of goods and services, low cost, generation of exports, and hastening of manufacturing employment.

V.10. IMPROVED SUPPLY CHAIN MANAGEMENT
FDI is expected to restructure the supply chain, making it smoother and faster. Improved supply chain contributes to savings in food wastages which has been rampant on account of inadequate infrastructure. (Ghosh) FDI in retail would reduce cost of intermediation and entail setting up of integrated supply chains that would minimize wastage, give producers a better price and benefit both producers and consumers. An efficient supply chain may augment its linkage to the global supply chain. This in turn may boost farm export significantly.

V.11. COST REDUCTION
The global retailers have advanced management know how in merchandising and inventory management and have adopted new technologies which can significantly improve productivity and efficiency in retailing. The entry of large low-cost retailers and adoption of integrated supply chain management by them is likely to lower down the prices. Big players in retailing will direct purchases from farmers and SSIs which result to elimination of middlemen. This will bring down the cost of produce and services.

V.12. GRWOTH OF GDP
It is widely acknowledged that FDI can have some positive results on the economy that would lead to greater efficiency and improvement of living standards. According to the ICRIER, India is expected to grow at a CAGR of over 13% till FY12. In the year 2007 retail sales reached Rs 13,300 billion and amounting to around 33% of India's GDP at current market prices. According to the Central Statistical Organisation (CSO) estimates, the total retail trade constituted 13.0% of country's GDP in 1999-2000. In the year 2011 it has gone up to 15 percent .In light of the above, it can be concluded that allowing healthy FDI in the retail sector would lead to a substantial surge in the country's GDP and overall economic development.

VI. CONCLUSIONS
Today each and every nation is trying to liberalize its economic policies in order to attract FDI to enhance a substantial level of economic and social development. Indian retail sector is in a boom period and attracting global retail giants due to its market opportunities. It can be observed from the above analysis that an entry of the global players in retailing leads to inflow of latest technical know how, establishment of well integrated supply chains, availability of quality products at cheaper prices to consumers, development of SSIs and SMEs, creation of more jobs, interest free capital,benefits to farmers, controls inflation and contributes for capital formation to increase nation's GDP.Taking into consideration, above necessities, FDI in retailing cannot be avoided in India.

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CULTIVATION OF SHARED MINDSETS: AN IMPERATIVE TO HAVE WORK VALUE CONGRUENCE IN MERGERS & ACQUISITIONS

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ABSTRACT
In the current regime of global trade it is witnessed that more and more corporate entities are going global. Cross border mergers and acquisitions are taking place where companies go global. Such steps are carried out by the companies, as it has become obligatory to grow in order to be able to participate in the world of globalized business. This form of external expansion strategy supports the globalization of businesses. In this light, this conceptual paper discusses the need and importance for cultivating a healthy organizational culture in such global companies that can guide the employees of the company to attain work-value congruence with utmost efficiency and satisfaction.

KEYWORDS
Global Companies, Mergers and Acquisitions, Shared mindsets, Organizational Culture, Work Value Congruence.

INTRODUCTION
Mergers and Acquisitions is nothing, but, global expansion strategies whereby companies go global and deliver their products and services world over. Mergers are said to be done when two companies combine together to form a new entity and agree to move forward as a singular entity rather than separately owned and managed enterprises. Acquisitions are said to be done when one company is taken over by another and the acquiring company establishes itself as the new owner.

In the current era of hyper competitiveness wherein the world has become a global marketplace, it is imperative for companies to carve out their global presence with the thrust on 'going global '. The changing business dynamics have led not only large but even small and medium enterprises (SMEs) to go global and efflux the volume of global companies worldwide. Such companies (global companies) face a huge dilemma in order to sustain their existence in the market, arising from a situation where:

(i) On one hand these companies are required to master the local market strategies in the host country by adapting to their prevailing corporate culture and business dynamics; and

(ii) On the other hand require them to retain their global USPs and maintain their global brand image.

This critical issue of balancing between the global strategic virtues of the company and the native strategic business equations in the host country is of great paradox faced by all global companies irrespective of their size and sector today.

There are various aspects where the global companies need to integrate with the local country dynamics; involving social aspects, legal aspects, Psychological aspects, economic aspects, human aspects etc.

Amongst these human aspects have a prima-facie importance since happy employees yield happy customers.

In this light, this conceptual paper discusses the need and importance for cultivating a healthy organizational culture in such global companies that can guide the employees of the company to attain work-value congruence with utmost efficiency and satisfaction.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE
Culture in international business literature is defined as the acquired knowledge people use to interpret experiences and to guide their behavior; and it affects the manner in which the people think and behave (Kessapidou & Varsakelis, 2002).

In the current regime of globalization, especially in the case of global companies wherein there exists a mix-and-match kind of a culture, the relevance of the observed organizational culture grows manifold. In case of global companies, in almost all cases, there exists a wide gap between the culture and values observed in the mainland country and the respective host countries and the national culture of these respective countries. In such a scenario, it is mandatory for the company to breed an organization-wide culture that is conducive of the host company environment and culture as well as the values and culture of the mainland country.

Many authors have studied the concept of corporate/ organizational culture as follows:

S.No.	Authors	Definition
1	Kilmann et al (1985)	Kilmann et al (1985) defined corporate culture as "the shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms" that knit an organization together.
2	Deal (1986)	Deal (1986) defined organization culture as the human intervention that creates solidarity and meaning and inspires commitment and productivity
3	Uttal (1983)	Uttal (1983) defined it as a system of shared values (what is important) and beliefs (how they work) that interact with a company's people, organizational structures, and control systems to produce behavioral norms.
4	Deshpande and Webster (1989)	Deshpande and Webster, 1989 "the pattern of shared values and beliefs that help individuals understand organizational functioning, and thus provide them with norms for behavior in the organization.
5	Schein (1984)	Schein (1984) defines organizational culture as "a pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems.

The definitions given above are indicative of the fact that breeding of healthy organizational culture is imperative for the success of any organization and remains to be an important mission for any organization, whether stated or unstated. The breeding of such a culture is very difficult in the case of global companies with the wide diversity between the national cultures of the respective countries involved.

Where on one hand, authors like (Hofstede, 1980; Kogut & Singh, 1988; Shane 1994) have studied that differences in national culture directly influence the perceived difficulty surrounding the integration of foreign personnel into the organization; some other researches by (Hofstede, 1980; Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983; Morosini & Singh, 1994; Earley, 1994; Denison & Mishra, 1985; Newman & Nollen, 1996) supplement by claiming that management practices compatible with the national culture of the target or affiliated company can be used to produce better performance outcomes.

For cultivating such healthy and integrated organizational culture in global companies; and engaging a satisfied and motivated workforce, to phenomenal strategies can be adopted:

- Cultivating Shared Mindsets.
- Attaining Work Value Congruence.

CULTIVATING SHARED MINDSETS

A survey carried out by *Accenture* states that companies that nurture a set of enterprise -wide mindsets can maintain a unity of purpose, while at the same time successfully adapting practices to diverse local economic and cultural conditions. The concept of 'Shared Mindsets' represent a missing link between a company's values and business performance. The term '**Shared Mindsets'** refers to," a uniform way of thinking, perceiving and valuing both the goals of an organization and the processes used to reach these goals. They can be characterized as attitudes, values or basic assumptions." In furtherance to this, (Bellin and Pham, 2007) have propounded that when mindset are widely shared they translate established company's values into practices by means of commonly understood guidelines on how to recognize and solve problems – which, in turn, guide the organization in making decision when faced with many possibilities. The authors have stated three imperatives for focusing performance mindsets which are as follows:-

1) Mindsets , over a period of time , can help a company develop its own " way " - a unique approach to solving problems and making decisions. When the right mindsets are common throughout an organization, executives can communicate, plan, and implement strategies and operations on a global scale.
2) A unique "way "of doing things creates a common identity that can be codified and shared with new employees when the company enters into new regions. In this manner, a company can unify regional operations and overcome the challenges of operating among diverse cultures and in many countries.
3) Shared mindsets focus a global workforce on common goals, which enables managers at all levels and in all regions to understand and accept the tradeoffs involved in structuring a company to compete internationally.

Iterating the above proposition, even professors *Christopher Bartlett* of Harvard and *Sumantra Ghosal* of Business school , London have stated that for the companies to go global , companies not only have to change their business configurations and organizational structures , but also their ' behavioral context' – the motivation , values and commitment of the company's employees.

When Merger and acquisition takes place across cross borders addressing cultural issues requires management to take into consideration the cultural differences of both the nations. Efforts must be initiated by the top management to get the most out of on the cultural diversity and focus should be on doing away with psychological distances among the workforces. Top management is first and foremost required to articulate the vision of the new company to its workforce and motivate them to unite in that vision.

In the beginning itself all the people working in the organization must have shared mindset regarding some fundamental issues:-

- What is the purpose of our existence as a business?
- How would we work?
- Where would we be going as a business in the future?
- How are we going to get there?

As by making clarifications on these issues managers can set the tone for the long term success of the new entity.

WORK VALUE CONGRUENCE

(Mayer & Louw, 2011) have studied that in the globalized work environment that is prevalent today, it is of utmost importance that the companies redefine their individual and cultural values and identities and make possible the construction of multiple, trans-cultural identities that are aligned with adaptive value concepts. In this context, (Ucanok, 2011) has also studied that work values significantly predict work centrality and that this relation is moderated by work value congruence. The author has conceptualized work-value congruence on the premise that different work-values have varying degrees of influence on work-centrality. The author propounds that as the distance between the act of working and the value it relates to work-value congruence) differ, the relation between values and work centrality will change accordingly.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SUCCESSFUL MERGERS AND ACQUISITIONS

1. Vision and business plans of the company must be communicated to the staff as early as possible so that they have a unity of direction.
2. People from Human resource department must be appointed with the task of understanding the cultural factors of both the sides that would impact the workforce integrity.
3. All messages must be clearly and quickly communicated from top to bottom and vice versa.
4. A person can be appointed who can be contacted at anytime for any queries pertaining to any issue and also has direct access to senior management to be able to respond to the queries quickly.
5. Commitment from the employees must be obtained and this is achieved by current and future needs of the employees in congruence with the objectives of the organization.
6. To make the best use of the existing competencies of the employees to further the objectives of the company.

CONCLUSION

Global businesses today have although remolded the art and equations of doing business worldwide; but at the same time, equally important is the fact that in the roadmap of such strategic moves businesses need to focus on the basic yet prime issue of cultivating and engaging a happy and motivated workforce. The amalgamation of various national cultures in the workforce of a global company can be constantly a point of concern for the top management. In order to address this issue, such global companies should strive to cultivate the concept of shared mindsets amongst employees so that keeping aside their native national cultures they can be happily a part of the motivating organizational culture of the company and align their personal objectives with the goals of the organization as a whole. Also, the employees have to be given an organizational culture with a new value system whereby the employees can attain the congruence between their work values.

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A STUDY ON THE WORKING CAPITAL RATIO OF THE DISTRICT CENTRAL COOPERATIVE BANKS IN TIRUNELVELI REGION, TAMILNADU

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ABSTRACT
Banking is the life line of the nation and its people. In today's economy banking sector need to stand out in crowded and highly competitive markets. The pace of business is relentless, where today's innovation becomes tomorrow's status quo. DCCBs occupy a place of significance in the cooperative credit delivery system. They act as a spokesperson of the cooperative movement at district level. Inefficient functioning of cooperatives is due to bad debts, excessive overdue or otherwise investment. Therefore, the financial management occupies an importance place as the functions of these institutions. Hence, the analytical study on the Working Capital Ratio of District Central Cooperative Banks in Tirunelveli Region has been undertaken. The results of the study will help in identifying the lacuna if any in the financial performance of the DCCBs and to frame financial policies and programme to the benefit of the banks and the community.

KEYWORDS
financial analysis, co-operative banks.

1.1 INTRODUCTION
Financial Statements' refer to a package of statements such as balance sheets, income statement, funds flow statement, cash flow statement and statement of retained earnings. The balance sheet and income statement are traditional financial statements. Other statements are prepared to supplement them. The following are the main objectives of finance statement analysis.

- To estimate the earning capacity of the concern
- To judge the financial (both liquidity and solvency) position and financial performance of the concern.
- To determine the debt capacity of the concern.
- To decide about the future prospects of the concern.

According to the American Institute of Certified Public Accounts (AICPA), "financial statements reflect a combination of recorded facts, accounting principles and personal judgments." The term recorded facts refers to the data taken out from accounting records. Facts which have not been recorded in the financial books are not depicted in financial, however important they might be. For example, fixed assets are shown at cost irrespective of their market or replacement price since only cost price is recorded in the books. Certain accounting principles, concepts and conventions are followed in the preparation of financial statements. For example, the convention of valuating stock at cost or market price, whichever is less is followed. The principle of valuating assets at cost less depreciation is followed for balance sheet purpose. Personal judgment has an important bearing on the financial statements. For example, the selection of a method for stock valuation depends on the personal judgment of the accountant.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
DCCBs occupy a place of significance in the cooperative credit delivery system. They act as a spokesperson of the cooperative movement at district level. The success or otherwise of the cooperatives in a district level largely depends upon the efficiency of the functioning of DCCBs. The founders of the movement envisioned the role of DCCBs beyond the boundaries of mere financing bank. DCCBs are expected to serve as a financing bank for the primaries in a district, guide them in their day to day operations, supply of necessary manpower and technology wherever it is required, voicing on behalf of primaries at policy level etc,. Because of this integrated role, DCCBs are strategically located and integrated with the cooperative system.
Hence, they are not only acting as financing banks but also act as development banks for the cooperatives at district level. To do these multifarious functions DCCBs should have a well-defined management system. In the total management of the DCCBs, financial management occupies a place of importance as the functions of these institutions are also governed by the Banking Regulation Act. Even a minor deviation from banking norms would attract penal actions from the law enforcing authorities. On the one side, DCCBs are expected to act as a financing bank for the primaries, which are in majority of the cases managed by untrained work force. On the other side, DCCBs are expected to follow the banking norms as well as implement the State Governments schemes and programmes for the development of the state. Most DCCBs that fail seem to do so because of problems in their loan portfolio. Non-performing loans grow to such extent that revenues fall off and loan expenses as well as operating costs absorb all the earnings that remain. The bad loan situations usually arise from combination of factors. In this regard, it is pertinent to study how these banks mobilize the resources and deploy them. Hence funds management of the DCCBs is an important issue and their financial performance is to be studied with their impact on working capital ratio in DCCBs. In this context, the questions apt to arise are:

- Whether the financial performances of the banks are in satisfactory manner in terms of working capital ratio?

To find out the answer to these questions, an analytical study had to be undertaken. The results of such studies will help to find out the problem, difficulties, impacts etc., and to frame financial policies by the DCCBs for the benefits of the farmers, the community and other stakeholders.

1.3 REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Several individual researchers had studied a few facets of working capital ratio of selected DCCBs in selected areas. To know how far the ground is already prepared and to identify the gaps therein and to spell out the issues which need further intensive and comprehensive analysis, an attempt is made to review the related literature.
1.3.1 Gowthaman A. and Srinivasan T, (2010) in their article entitled, "Effective Funds Management by the Kumbakonam Central Cooperative Bank" has presented the DCCBs are modal centers of financial institution in the cooperative sector in a district. They have to mobilize the available resources and utilize them in the most efficient and profitable manner. As a consequence of this situation, efficiency in funds management has down considerably and profitability of

the DCCBs in Tamilnadu is found decreased. In this paper an attempt is made to analyze the funds management of the bank for the period of 1998-99 to 2007-08.

1.3.2 Surya Rao K, (2007) in his study, "Performance of Cooperative Banking. A study of DCCB - Eluru, Andhra Pradesh", applied ratio such as profitability analysis, productivity analysis, solvency position, and operational efficiency and SWOT analysis. The study revealed through productivity analysis that the rate of deposits per employee has lagged behind that of the loans per employee ratio. Thus there is need on the part of employees to mobilize deposit to meet loans demand in view of disparity in the growth rate in these two ratios. Accordingly the ratio values of deposits per employee, productivity of employees can be improved. The solvency ratios showed that the bank was maintaining an average cash reserve ratio of 11 per cent that is much more than the stipulated ratio of 6 per cent. The operational efficiency ratios concluded the satisfactory performance. Finally SWOT analysis revealed various aspects of the Eluru DCCBs. The study suggested strengthening of the working capital and to increase the deposit from member societies. The bank should utilize the opportunity of expanding their lending operations. Depending on external sources of borrowing such as refinance from apex bodies could be minimized by promoting deposits mobilization.

1.3.3 Fulbag Singh and Balwinder Singh, (2006) in their study "Profitability of the Central Cooperative Banks in Punjab- A decomposition Analysis", they analyzed the profitability position of the Central Cooperative Bank in Punjab. Two different years have been studied with the help of a frame work of Return on Equity (ROE) model. The sample of bank with high business volume and those with low business volume had been tested separately. The study could be concluded that as far as the profitability performance was concerned, the central Cooperative Bank of Punjab had worked well. The miscellaneous income in comparison to the total income has been in lower profile in these banks. The switching over to high yield non-farm sector advances has helped to register a positive trend in financial margin in almost all the banks. The implementation of prudential norms from 1996-97 have helped the banks to generate an awareness on adverse effect of overdue/ non-performing assets in these banks.

1.3.4 Raja. S, (2005) in his study, "Performance Evolution of MDDCB Ltd- an Application of Structural and Growth Analysis", analyzed the pattern of each component of the financial statements such as balance sheet and profit and loss account over a period of time. The study found out that performance of the Madurai District Central Cooperative Bank (MDCCB) using structural and growth analysis. Macro mean has been used to exhibit the strength and weakness of each factor considered. The major result of the study is macro mean which in respect of interest received constitutes 99% of the total income, 97% for interest paid, 21% in the case of operating expenses, 94% for spread and it is at 93% for burden. As regards book profit, it works out to be 7% the revolution of the growth rate analysis are that net loss has recorded the growth at 17%, operating expenses at 18%, spread at 13%, burden 20% advances and aggregate deposits at 6% each and fixed deposits and saving deposits at 9% each. The study concluded that the burden rate should be reduced by effecting cost control measure and spread rate be increased so that profitability can be at higher rate.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The specific objectives of the present study are:
1. To analyze the working capital ratio in the DCCBs, and
2. To offer suitable suggestions for the development of the DCCBs

1.5 METHODOLOGY
Mainly-analytical method has been followed for studying the working capital ratio of Tirunelveli (TIDCCB), Virudhunagar (VIDCCB), Thuthukudi (TUDCCB) and Kanyakumari (KADCCB) District Central Cooperative Banks in Tirunelvel Region, Tamil Nadu. The secondary data were collected from the profit and loss account and balance sheet for the selected DCCBs. The macro level data were collected from the office of the Joint Registrar of Cooperative Audit in Tirunelveli region, Tamilnadu State Apex Cooperative Bank, Tamilnadu State Cooperative Unions, National Federation of State Cooperative Banks, NABARD and RBI.

1.6 SAMPLING
The present study has adopted the purposive sampling method for the selection of sample banks. Among the five cooperative regions (Chennai, Coimbatore, Trichy, Madurai and Tirunelveli) categorized by the Registrar of Cooperative Societies, Tirunelveli region was purposively selected. The considerations kept in mind were that the Tirunelveli region of Tamilnadu is popular for Agriculture, Fisheries, Dairy and Industrial growth. This region also covers plain and coastal areas with different cropping patterns. Four districts of this region were served by the four District Central Cooperative Banks namely Tiruneveli, Viruthunagar, Thoothukudi and Kanyakumari DCCBs. These four banks were selected for the present study.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY
A strong network of the District Central Cooperative Banks is a prerequisite for the sound performance of the three tier cooperative credit structure. DCCBs not only provided much needed financial assistance to PACBs but also ensured the smooth flow of credit to various sectors in the district. The success of these banks depends on efficient management of funds. The study has mainly focused attention to study the working capital ratio of the four DCCBs in Tirunelveli Region. The results of this study will help in identifying the lacuna if any in the working capital ratio of the DCCBs and to frame financial policies and programme to the benefit of the banks and the community.

1.8 PERIOD COVERED BY THE STUDY
The period of the study has been taken-up from the financial year 1998--99 to 2008-09 (11 years) as complete and comprehensive secondary data both for macro and micro level were available only for these years. The period of eleven years was considered for analysis.

1.9 TOOLS USED FOR DATA COLLECTION
For collecting the required secondary data from the selected DCCBs, a comprehensive schedule was prepared and used. The schedule was pre-tested and finalized.

1.10 FRAME WORK OF ANALYSIS
The data collected were subdued into a digestible account by appropriate coding, computing and tabulations. The basic tools of statistical analysis like average and working capital ratio were employed.

1.11 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1.11.1 RATIO ANALYSIS
The relationship between two figures expressed mathematically is called a 'Ratio'. It is a numerical relationship between two numbers which are related in some manner. Ratio analysis is technique of analysis and interpretation of financial statements. It is the process of determination and interpretation of various ratios for helping in decision making. Ratio analysis involves three steps.

1.11.2 WORKING CAPITAL RATIOS
Working capital management as a part of financial management is a crucial function in the DCCBs. Working capital management is more or less deemed as cash management of the bank. The reason is clear as cash is vital one and its inflow and out flow have to be carefully watched and managed by the bank not only for its profitability but also for its survivability. Another reason behind it is that cash touches all the activities of the bank and all sections in the banks are highly related and combined together in management of cash effectively and efficiently. The normal practice followed by the cooperative banks to calculate the working capital just differs from manufacturing industries and other banking institutions. The sources of working capital of the DCCBs consists of i) Share Capital ii) Reserves and other funds iii) Deposits and iv) Borrowings.

Working capital or funds forecasting is one of the investment decisions which has been performed by the banks. It is necessary for an organization to run successfully its affairs to provide for adequate working capital. The working capital as decided should neither be insufficient nor excessive. The optimum level of working capital depends on capital requirements of the bank i.e., lending policy, RBI and Govt. policies, seasonal demands for the loan, etc. The financial position of any cooperative society is explained in terms of the volume of working capital. The size of the working funds and its proper management have their positive effects on the volume of business and there by contributing to the overall profitability. The data in relation to the working capital of the selected DCCBS during the study period are presented in table 9. The ratios worked out are based on the working capital are explained in the following paragraphs.

1.11.3 RATIO OF OWNED FUNDS TO WORKING CAPITAL

The proportion of owned funds to working capital need to be examined in the context of study of efficiency of management. The owned funds comprise of share capital and reserves funds of the banks. Their contribution to working capital is depicted below.

TABLE- 1.1: RATIO OF OWNED FUNDS TO WORKING CAPITAL *(Rs.in lakhs)*

Banks	TIDCCB			VIDCCB			TUDCCB			KADCCB			TOTAL		
Years	OF	WC	R	OF	WC	R	OF	WC	R	OF	WC	R	OF	WC	R
1998-99	1262	18207	7.2	1618	20575	7.8	1714	13721	12.5	1548	15673	9.9	6142	68176	9.1
1999-00	1514	23234	6.7	1677	24087	7.0	2513	16499	15.2	1754	18189	9.6	7458	82009	9.2
2000-01	1606	22586	7.4	1761	25496	7.7	2990	16682	17.9	2087	18524	11.3	8444	83288	10.5
2001-02	2041	24363	8.7	1824	27416	6.9	3991	18987	21.0	2231	20271	11.0	10087	91037	11.3
2002-03	3247	26768	12.6	1811	29612	6.4	5883	22322	26.4	2346	22597	10.4	13287	101299	13.4
2003-04	3667	27403	13.8	1987	30917	7.0	6769	21406	31.6	2945	27660	10.6	15367	107386	14.8
2004-05	3125	26811	12.1	1994	28753	7.3	5884	19715	29.8	2961	28334	10.4	13963	103613	13.8
2005-06	5358	28575	20.1	2128	30435	7.6	7737	21524	35.9	4073	31570	12.9	19296	112104	17.9
2006-07	5676	28676	21.2	3215	31034	11.0	8288	22297	37.2	4698	28978	16.2	21878	110985	20.5
2007-08	6467	32477	21.2	2172	33514	7.2	9254	24914	37.1	4774	32279	14.8	22667	123184	19.2
2008-09	6746	37393	19.1	2260	38827	6.4	9952	29812	33.4	5152	36199	14.2	24110	142231	17.6
Avg.	**3701**	**26954**	**13.6**	**2041**	**29151**	**7.5**	**5907**	**20716**	**27.1**	**3143**	**25479**	**11.9**	**14791**	**102301**	**14.3**

OF: Owned fund R: Ratio;

The ratio of owned funds to working capital during the study period had fluctuated; on an average it was 14.3 percent. Among the four banks VIDCCB had very low owned funds (7.5 percent on an average). Whereas TIDCCB, TUDCCB and KADCCB had very good performance in this respect. Putting all banks together, it was found that the proportion of owned fund to working capital was varied over the years. Based on the overall average ratio, it is concluded that the performance of the banks in this region with regard to owned funds to working capital ratio is satisfactory.

1.11.4 RATIO OF DEPOSITS TO WORKING CAPITAL

Mobilization of deposits is one of the main functions of the banking business and also an important source of funds of the bank. The success of the banking greatly lies on the deposits mobilization performance of the banks. The deposits normally include current, Saving, Fixed, Recurring and other special deposits to meet the varying requirement of the customers.

TABLE -1.2: RATIO OF DEPOSITS TO WORKING CAPITAL *(Rs.in lakhs)*

Banks	TIDCCB		VIDCCB		TUDCCB		KADCCB		TOTAL	
Years	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R
1998-99	15576	88.6	17141	83.0	11081	80.8	8179	52.2	51977	76.8
1999-00	20983	93.0	19922	84.1	13639	82.7	12656	69.6	67200	82.9
2000-01	19581	89.6	20976	91.1	13154	78.9	11200	60.5	64912	81.1
2001-02	19886	84.3	22008	83.3	13832	72.9	13323	65.7	69050	77.4
2002-03	20512	79.3	24062	85.0	15209	68.1	16036	71.0	75820	76.5
2003-04	17841	67.4	23336	82.0	12161	56.8	15849	57.3	69187	66.5
2004-05	16479	63.7	20976	77.0	12358	62.7	16683	58.9	66498	65.6
2005-06	14986	56.2	20074	71.1	11504	53.4	16512	52.3	63075	58.4
2006-07	16231	60.7	21889	77.0	11764	52.8	16886	58.3	66770	62.6
2007-08	20102	65.8	26235	87.0	14638	58.8	19067	59.1	80042	67.8
2008-09	25479	72.0	30467	86.0	17355	58.2	24025	66.4	97326	71.2
Avg.	**18878**	**71.5**	**22462**	**77.4**	**13336**	**65.5**	**15492**	**61**	**70169**	**70**

D: Deposits R: Ratio

It could be observed from the above table that the deposits to working capital ranged between 62 percent and 83 percent; on an average 71.5 percent of the total working capital of the selected DCCBs were by way of deposits. The VIDCCB has more of deposits to working capital ratio (i.e., 82.1 percent) and stood first among the four banks. The TUDCCB and KADCCB had below the optimum level deposits i.e., 66 percent and 61 percent respectively, the optimum being 70 percent. It can be inferred that, the overall performance of the banks in this respect is satisfactory.

1.11.5 RATIO OF BORROWINGS TO WORKING CAPITAL

In addition to the deposits, borrowings from other agencies such as loans from TNSCB, commercial banks etc., constitute an important source of working capital of the banks. The ratio of borrowings to working capital is presented in the following table.

TABLE 1.3: RATIO OF BORROWINGS TO WORKING CAPITAL *(Rs.in lakhs)*

Banks	TIDCCB		VIDCCB		TUDCCB		KADCCB		TOTAL	
Years	B	R	B	R	B	R	B	R	B	R
1998-99	1369	7.8	1952	9.4	926	6.8	5946	37.9	10193	15.1
1999-00	738	3.3	2249	9.4	346	2.1	3779	20.8	7112	8.8
2000-01	1399	6.4	2626	1.1	538	3.2	5237	28.3	9800	9.3
2001-02	2436	10.3	2584	9.8	1163	6.1	4717	23.3	10900	12.2
2002-03	3010	11.6	2430	8.6	1230	5.5	4214	18.6	10884	11.0
2003-04	5895	22.3	3188	11.0	2476	11.6	8867	32.1	20426	19.6
2004-05	7207	27.8	4438	16.0	1473	7.5	8691	30.7	21809	21.5
2005-06	8231	30.9	5970	21.0	2283	10.6	10985	34.8	27469	25.5
2006-07	6770	25.3	3499	12.0	2245	10.1	7393	25.5	19907	18.7
2007-08	5908	19.3	1825	6.0	1022	4.1	8438	26.1	17193	14.6
2008-09	5168	14.6	2580	7.3	2504	8.4	7022	19.4	17274	12.6
Avg.	**4376**	**15.5**	**2816**	**9.7**	**1473**	**6.9**	**6844**	**27**	**15509**	**14.9**

B: Borrowings R: Ratio

The average proportion of the borrowings to working capital of the banks is 15.3 percent. However this percentage was found to be very high only with KADCCB (27.0 percent) revealing the much dependence of the bank on borrowings. Lower borrowings generate more profit and high borrowings generate heavy loss. The overall analysis revealed that the performance of the DCCBs in this respect is satisfactory.

1.11.6 RATIO OF OWNED FUNDS TO BORROWED FUNDS

A higher level of owned funds is construed as a favorable financial factor for the DCCBs.

TABLE- 1.4: RATIO OF OWNED FUNDS TO BORROWED FUNDS *(Rs.in lakhs)*

Banks	TIDCCB			VIDCCB			TUDCCB			KADCCB			TOTAL		
Years	BF	OF	R	BF	OF	R	BF	OF	R	BF	OF	R	BF	OF	R
1998-99	16945	1262	7.5	19094	1482	8.5	12007	1714	14.3	14125	9027	11.0	62171	6006	9.9
1999-00	21721	1513	7.0	22171	1916	7.6	13985	2514	18.0	16435	13553	10.7	74312	7697	10.0
2000-01	20981	1606	7.7	21238	1894	8.3	13692	2990	21.8	16437	12429	12.7	72348	8577	11.7
2001-02	22321	2041	9.1	24593	2824	7.4	14995	3992	26.6	18040	14623	12.4	79949	11088	12.6
2002-03	23522	3246	13.8	26493	3120	6.8	16439	5883	35.8	20250	17390	11.6	86704	14596	15.3
2003-04	23736	3667	15.5	26524	4393	7.5	14637	6769	46.2	24716	17705	11.9	89613	17773	17.1
2004-05	23687	3125	13.2	25414	3339	7.8	13831	5884	42.5	25374	18514	11.7	88306	15308	15.8
2005-06	23217	5358	23.1	26044	4391	8.2	13787	7737	56.1	27496	19391	14.8	90545	21559	21.3
2006-07	23001	5675	24.7	25388	5646	13.0	14008	8288	59.2	24279	20029	19.4	86676	24308	25.2
2007-08	26010	6467	24.9	28060	5454	7.7	15660	9254	59.1	27505	21928	17.4	97234	25949	23.3
2008-09	30646	6746	22.0	33047	5780	6.8	19859	9953	50.1	31047	26675	16.6	114600	27631	21.0
Avg.	**23253**	**3701**	**15.3**	**25279**	**3658**	**8.1**	**14809**	**5907**	**39.1**	**22337**	**17387**	**13.6**	**85678**	**16409**	**16.7**

BO: Borrowed Funds R:Ratio

On an average the proportion of owned funds to borrowed funds of the selected DCCBs was about 16.7 percent during the study period. Comparatively, the Thirunelveli DCCB had very less (7.5 percent) ratio of owned funds to borrowed funds which is not considered good. The Thuthukudi DCCB's performance in this respect is comparatively better. Since the ratio of most of the banks is more than 8 percent it can be concluded that the financial performance of the banks in this respect is satisfactory

1.11.7 RATIO OF NET PROFIT TO WORKING CAPITAL

The net profit is also known as Net Margin or surplus. This ratio measures the relationship between net profit and working capital. Higher the ratio of net operating profit to working capital better is operational efficiency of the DCCBs. Net profit ratio of 5 percent is considered to be optimum. The ratio of net profit to working capital is presented below.

TABLE- 1.5: RATIO OF NET PROFIT TO WORKING CAPITAL *(Rs.in lakhs)*

Banks	TIDCCB		VIDCCB		TUDCCB		KADCCB		TOTAL	
Years	NP	R	NP	R	NP	R	NP	R	NP	R
1998-99	-43.8	-0.2	47.1	0.2	8	0.1	30.	0.2	41	0.1
1999-00	-328	-1.5	-902	-3.8	-41	-0.3	69.	0.4	-1203	-1.5
2000-01	-1143	-5.2	-444	-1.9	-949	-5.7	-152	-0.8	-2689	-3.4
2001-02	-298	-1.3	-320	-1.2	-791	-4.2	55	0.3	-1354	-1.5
2002-03	-1544	-6.0	-111	-0.4	-987	-4.4	93	0.4	-2550	-2.6
2003-04	-348	-1.3	-348	-1.2	-331	-1.5	111	0.4	-917	-0.9
2004-05	952.8	3.7	1908	7.0	1506	7.6	508	1.8	4876	4.8
2005-06	-1979	-7.4	-497	-1.8	-710	-3.3	-432	-1.4	-3618	-3.4
2006-07	-566	-2.1	6.09	0.0	777.8	3.5	10	0.0	227	0.2
2007-08	-2065	-6.8	-585	-1.9	-783	-3.1	53	0.2	-3379	-2.9
2008-09	101.5	0.3	722	2.0	4.39	0.0	5	0.0	832	0.6
Avg.	**-660**	**-2.5**	**-47.7**	**-0.3**	**-207**	**-1.0**	**31.7**	**0.1**	**-884.8**	**-0.9**

NP: Net Profit R: Ratio.

The Ratio of net profit to working capital of the selected banks ranges between -3.4 percent to 4.8 percent during the study period; on an average of -0.9 percent. The selected banks showed negative trend during many years. Comparatively, the TIDCCB, TUDCCB and VIDCCB had incurred heavy loss due to the non performing assets among them the KADCCB registered slightly higher performance (0.1 percent). The performance of the banks under this ratio analysis is unsatisfactory. The low ratio is not a sign of healthy banking operation.

1.11.8 RATIO OF GROSS PROFIT TO WORKING CAPITAL

Gross profit means the operating profit i.e., interest income on loans and advances and investments (+) other operating income. The optimum level of the ratio is 11 percent. The ratio of net profit to working capital and the gross income to working capital are presented below.

TABLE – 1.6: RATIO OF GROSS PROFIT TO WORKING CAPITAL *(Rs.in lakhs)*

Banks	TIDCCB		VIDCCB		TUDCCB		KADCCB		TOTAL	
Years	GP	R	GP	R	GP	R	GP	R	GP	R
1998-99	2312	13.2	2643	12.8	1395	10.2	2041	13.0	8391	12.4
1999-00	1734	7.7	3561	14.9	1879	11.4	2060	11.3	9235	11.4
2000-01	2392	10.9	3436	14.9	1947	11.7	2307	12.5	10082	12.6
2001-02	2783	11.8	4244	16.1	2053	10.8	3378	16.7	12457	14.0
2002-03	2638	10.2	3373	11.9	2598	11.6	2445	10.8	11054	11.2
2003-04	2695	10.2	3043	10.7	2023	9.5	3208	11.6	10969	10.5
2004-05	2142	8.3	6060	22.1	2800	14.2	3216	11.3	14218	14.0
2005-06	2191	8.2	3500	12.4	1726	8.0	3358	10.6	10775	10.0
2006-07	2160	8.1	2746	9.6	2253	10.1	3569	12.3	10728	10.1
2007-08	860	2.8	2736	9.0	1997	8.0	4944	15.3	10536	8.9
2008-09	3182	9.0	4288	12.1	2605	8.7	3741	10.3	13816	10.1
Avg.	**2281**	**8.7**	**3603**	**13**	**2116**	**10.4**	**31.14**	**12.3**	**11115**	**11.5**

GP: Gross Profit R: Ratio

The selected banks were able to earn consistent level of gross income of 11.4 percent throughout the study period. The annual average proportion of gross income to working capital for TIDCCB, VIDCCB, TUDCCB and KADCCB were 9.1, 13.3, 10.4 and 12.3 percent respectively. Hence it is concluded that the financial performance of the banks under this ratio analysis is satisfactory.

1.11.9 RATIO OF COST OF MANAGEMENT TO WORKING CAPITAL

The cost of management comprise of establishment expenditure (Salary and other allowances). This is an important expenditure of the banks and therefore its relationship with the capital employed in the business (working capital) need to be examined. The ideal level is less than 0.7 percent.

TABLE – 1.7: RATIO OF COST OF MANAGEMENT TO WORKING CAPITAL *(Rs.in lakhs)*

Banks / Years	TIDCCB		VIDCCB		TUDCCB		KADCCB		TOTAL	
	COM	R	COM	R	COM	R	COM	R	COM	R
1998-99	310	1.8	464	2.2	135	1	214	1.4	1123	1.7
1999-00	320	1.4	496	2.1	136	0.8	263	1.4	1215	1.5
2000-01	277	1.3	535	2.3	139	0.8	253	1.4	1204	1.5
2001-02	250	1.1	579	2.2	187	1.0	238	1.2	1254	1.4
2002-03	275	1.1	505	1.8	182	0.8	225	1.0	1187	1.2
2003-04	229	0.9	229	0.8	148	0.7	240	0.9	846	0.8
2004-05	240	0.9	240	0.9	157	0.8	235	0.8	873	0.9
2005-06	221	0.8	529	1.9	119	0.6	228	0.7	1096	1.0
2006-07	204	0.8	402	1.4	133	0.6	192	0.7	931	0.9
2007-08	217	0.7	527	1.7	147	0.6	216	0.7	1108	0.9
2008-09	221	0.6	415	1.2	141	0.5	248	0.7	1025	0.8
Avg.	**251**	**1**	**477**	**1.6**	**148**	**0.7**	**232**	**1**	**1078**	**1.1**

COM: Cost of Management R: Ratio.

It can be observed from the table that the banks are incurring on an average more than one percent on management cost which is above the ideal level of 0.7 percent. Hence the performance of the banks in this respect is not satisfactory. The bank should inculcate the cost consciousness among the staff and management so that a higher profit can be achieved.

1.12 FINDINGS

The present study, "A study on the working capital ratio of the DCCBs in Tirunelveli Region, Tamilnadu State" is an analytical one. The study was conducted in Tirunelveli Region, Tamilnadu state. Among the five Cooperative Regions in Tamilnadu, Tirunelveli Region covering four DCCBs was selected and secondary data were used for the analysis. A decadal period was covered by this (1998-99 to 2008-09). Statistical tools of statistical like average and ratio were used for analysis. The major findings and conclusion are presented in the following paragraphs.

WORKING CAPITAL RATIOS

Owned fund to Working Capital ratios

Among the four banks VIDCCB had very low owned funds. Whereas TIDCCB, TUDCCB and KADCCB had very good performance in this respect. Putting all banks together, it was found that the proportion of owned fund to working capital was varied over the years. Based on the overall average ratio, it is concluded that the performance of the banks in this region with regard to owned funds to working capital ratio is satisfactory.

Deposits to Working Capital

The VIDCCB has more of deposits to working capital ratio and stood first among the four banks. The TUDCCB and KADCCB had below the optimum level deposits. The optimal ratio of deposits to working capital is 70 percent. It can be inferred that, the overall performance of the banks in this respect is satisfactory.

Borrowings to Working Capital

This percent was found to be very high with only KADCCB (27.0 percent) revealing the much dependence of the bank on borrowings. Lower borrowings generate more profit and high borrowings generate heavy loss. This analysis revealed that the performance of the DCCBs in this respect is satisfactory.

Ratio of Owned Funds to Borrowed Funds

Comparatively, the Thirunelveli DCCB had very less ratio of owned funds to borrowed funds which is not considered good. The Thothukudi DCCB's performance in this respect is comparatively better. Since the ratio of most of the banks is more than 8 percent it can be concluded that the financial performance of the banks in this respect is satisfactory.

Ratio of Gross Profit to Working Capital

The selected banks were able to earn consistent level of gross income throughout the study period. Hence it is concluded that the financial performance of the banks under this ratio analysis is satisfactory.

Ratio of Net profit to Working Capital

The selected banks showed negative trend during many years. Comparatively, the TIDCCB, TUDCCB and VIDCCB had incurred heavy loss due to the non performing assets among them the KADCCB registered slightly higher performance. The performance of the banks under this ratio is unsatisfactory. The low ratio is not a sign of healthy banking operation.

Ratio of Cost of Management to Working Capital

The cost of management to working capital of the sample banks showed that high level during the study period. Hence the performance of the banks in this respect is not satisfactory.

TABLE 1.8: WORKING CAPITAL RATIO RESULT

S. No	Name of the Ratios	TIDCCB		VIDCCB		TUDCCB		KADCCB	
		S	NS	S	NS	S	NS	S	NS
WORKING CAPITAL RATIO									
1	Owned funds to Working Capital	S	-	S	-	S	-	S	-
2	Deposits to Working Capital	S	-	S	-	-	NS	-	NS
3	Borrowings to Working Capital	S	-	S	-	S	-	-	NS
4	Owned funds to Borrowed funds	-	NS	-	NS	S	-	S	-
5	Net Profit to Working Capital	-	NS	-	NS	-	NS	-	NS
6	Gross Profit to Working Capital	-	NS	S	-	-	NS	S	-
7	Cost of Management to Working capital	-	NS	-	NS	S	-	-	NS
	Total	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	4

S: Satisfactory NS: Not Satisfactory

1.13 CONCLUSION

Invariably in all the selected DCCBs of this study conducted in the Trirunelveli Region of the Tamilnadu State TIDCCB, KADCCB was not satisfactory and VIDCCB, KADCCB was satisfactory were found especially with reference to position in working capital ratio. The 'KRA's (Key Result Areas) with reference to working capital ratio was not upto the mark.

1.14 SUGGESTIONS

The working capital components are owned funds borrowings and deposits from public in general the cost of deposits from public will be minimum. Therefore the bank should actively mobilize deposits from public to increase its lending activities and achieve profit.

Owned funds have two components one is share capital and then second one is reserves. Reserves are accommodated out of profit generated by the bank. Though share capital have cost in the form of dividend distribution, where as reserve funds do not entail any cost. Therefore the bank attempt should be to generate more profit and transfer substantial portion of the profit to the reserve funds.

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GREEN PRODUCTS VERSUS CONVENTIONAL PRODUCTS: A SELECT STUDY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to compare green and conventional products. Consumers need information to make effective decision making. This paper also helps the marketers to develop advertising strategies for communicating the advantages of green products. Four consumer products: jute bags, CFL bulbs, eco-friendly paper and organic food are briefed in this paper by comparing them with their respective counter conventional products. This paper was written based on secondary sources for discussing the advantages of green products over conventional products. From this research it is found that green products are having positive impact on the environment but at the same time there is need for effective green supply chain strategies. Marketers should develop strategies for minimizing the price of green products which is a major barrier for consumers to adopt green products.

KEYWORDS

Eco-friendly products, Environment friendly products, Green marketing, Green products, Organic products.

INTRODUCTION

There are wide varieties of green products in the present world. Each green product has its unique advantages towards the environment. Products which do not cause any kind of harm to the environment are known as green products. The marketers had identified that there will be huge demand for 'green products' in future and started developing green marketing strategies. Organizations are bringing innovative green products for safety of the environment and also to sustain in the competitive business world. Consumers are becoming environmental conscious and looking for products which are harmless to the environment. Throughout this paper, the terms 'green products', 'eco-friendly products', 'environmental products' and 'sustainable products' mean the same. Green marketing is a movement which makes organizations to manufacture products which are harmless to the environment. The green products which are selected in this study are: CFL bulbs, Organic food, Jute bags and Eco-friendly paper. Each of these products has its unique advantages for protecting the environment.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The jute stands in the second place after cotton in natural fiber category products. The polypropylene had brought substitute products to jute but at the cost of environment (Boyce, 1995). The consumer behavior towards organic foods is positively influenced by values such as 'security', 'hedonism', 'stimulation', and 'self-direction' etc (Aertsens, 2009). Chen (2009) made an investigation to understand the attitude of organic foods and found that concern of health and concern for environment were the two most important determinants which influence the consumer in purchase decision. Hustvedt& Dickson (2009) had conducted a survey in United Stated and found that 38 percent of consumers who are interested to purchase organic cotton had self-identity as environment, organic and socially responsible consumers. Hoefkens et.al, (2009) made a comparative study between organic and conventional vegetables and found both of them are having unique advantages and disadvantages. Chakrabarthi (2010) conducted a survey among experts in organic food industry and stated that three attitudes: assurance, utility of organic foods and reputation of the store play a vital in consumer purchase decision process. Ghosh (2010) had explained the difference between traditional marketing and green marketing and also briefed how organizations move from one stage to another during the implementation of green marketing processes. The roles of social identify influence the consumers attitude towards green products and the branding of such green products is very important (Bartels& Hoogedam, 2011). Chen (2011) stated that organizations should modify their structure and adopt new culture for attaining green organizational identify. It also helps the organization to According to Pual & Rana (2012) the education, health consciousness and demographic have an influence on consumer attitude towards organic food products. Consumers are willing to pay 25 percent more for organic cotton apparel than conventionally produced cotton apparel (Ellis et.al, 2012).

RESEARCH GAP

Many studies were conducted on consumer attitude, consumer perception, consumer behavior regarding but there are no specific studies regarding comparison of green and non-green products. This paper is aimed to fulfill the research gap by comparison of selected green products versus traditional products.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The study is aimed to discuss the benefits of selected green products by comparing them with traditional products. It also provides insights for marketers and consumers in their respective decision making situations. The secondary objective of this paper is to provide information to advertisers for effective marketing of green products.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The secondary sources of data are used this study to describe about green versus non-green products. The information from text books, magazines, online sources and journal articles will be used to find the differences between green and non- green products.

CFL VERSUS INCANDESCENT BULBS

CFL bulbs are energy efficient and they are costly (Sahakian, 2010). The average life span of CFL bulbs is life span of 8,000 hours and they need 13-15 watts of electricity. The carbon dioxide emission of CFL bulbs is approximately 1051 pounds per year. The CFL bulbs are sensitive to external environment and may not function efficiently at low temperatures. The disposal of CFL bulbs is an issue because it contains mercury is toxic for health and environment. CFL bulbs are more suitable for household lighting than outdoor lighting.

The average life span of incandescent bulbs is 1,200 hours and they need 60 watts of electricity. The annual operating cost of incandescent is high compared to CFL bulbs. But incandescent bulbs do not contain mercury and they can be disposed easily compared to CFL bulbs. Incandescent lights turn on instantly and they are not sensitive to external environment compared to CFLs.

JUTE BAGS VERSUS PLASTIC BAGS

Jute bags are biodegradable and they are made from natural fiber. The manufacturing of jute bags does not consume petrol which is a scare resource. Jute bags are reusable and available in various designs. Jute bags do not add any toxic materials to the products which are packed in them. The average life span of jute bags is approximately five years. Jute bags are eco-friendly and helps in reducing global warming. Jute bags are not resistant to environment unless they are treated with chemicals. Using jute bags becomes a promotional tool for organizations and people because they communicate the environmental concern of people. Jute bags carry more weight than plastic bags.

Plastic bags create land pollution and add tons of carbon emissions to the environment. Plastic bags had endangered the life of aquatic animals when they are mistaken for food and consumed. The life span of plastic is thousands of years and depends on thickness of the material. Plastic bags are resistant to the external environment. In the present world the use of plastic bags is becoming negative promotional tool for organizations and people.

ORGANIC FOOD VERSUS CONVENTIONAL FOOD PRODUCTS

The organic food is manufactured without using synthetic chemicals, antibiotics and hormones during crop production (Dimitri& Greene, 2000). Organic food products are environment friendly and they are producing through organic farming systems like nutrient cycling, crop rotation, and animal manure are recycled etc. The pesticide residue is low and almost nil in some organic food products compared to conventional food products. The farming of organic food products causes less environmental impact than farming of conventional food products. Organic food consists of more vitamins and antioxidants for example scientists have observed that organic tomatoes have a type of antioxidant than conventionally grown tomatoes (Chang, 2012). The process of manufacturing makes organic products costly than non organic products. At present the organic products attributes like quality, physical shape are not comparable to their counterpart non organic food. But in future these issues may be avoided with support of research and development in the organic food sector.

The health consciousness and environment concern are the primary factors which positively influence consumers regarding organic food products. The carbon emissions caused by organic food manufacturing process is low. The process of manufacturing organic food products and the consumption of organic food helps the community to fight against global warming. Organic food do not cause any health related issues because pesticides and chemicals are not used during manufacturing process. The conventional food or traditional food had indirect health issues for using pesticides, and antibiotics etc.

ECO-FRIENDLY PAPER VERSUS CONVENTIONAL PAPER

Eco-friendly paper minimizes the impact on the environment during the manufacturing process. The consumption of energy, water, and carbon emissions are very low compared to manufacturing of regular paper. The raw material used for eco-friendly paper is renewable and it is recyclable. The deforestation is reduced to a greater extent with the consumption of eco-friendly paper. However the cost of eco-friendly paper is little bit more than conventional paper. Eco-friendly paper is certified by Forest Steward Council (FSC), an organization which encourages the sustainable forests around the world. The chemicals like chlorine are not used in manufacturing of eco-friendly paper.

DISCUSSION

The green products minimize the carbon footprint of human beings on this planet. These products are being marketed aggressively from the past three decades. The existing manufacturing process of green products is not satisfactory because the lack of green supply chain process is making them to have an impact on the environment. For example jute is second largest crop after cotton in the natural fiber industry but at the same time the transportation of raw jute is increasing the carbon foot print. The CFL bulbs which are environment friendly are becoming an issue at the time of disposal because of mercury in the bulb. The organic food products which are good for health may cause impact on the environment if they are not locally grown and consumed. The recyclable paper which is manufactured by consuming less energy may increases reverse logistics cost for the organizations. In this study it is observed that distribution of products is increasing carbon emissions due to transportation.

At present the organizations have taken an initiative and started the manufacturing of green products but at the same time these products are not becoming perfect substitutes of regular products. For example CFL bulbs which are sensitive to environment are not suitable in countries where temperature is low. The jute bags which are alternate to plastic bags are not suitable for carrying liquid products like milk, juices etc. Hence the organizations should develop sustainable product strategies for developing efficient products. The quality, color and design is also an issue with regard to organic food products compared to conventional food products.

CONCLUSION

To protect the earth from global warming and reducing carbon emissions the green consumption of green products is essential. The drastic climatic changes can be controlled with green products. The only choice before the world is to accept green products and minimize the carbon foot print on this globe. The green products like jute bags, CFL bulbs, organic food and eco-friendly paper have a positive impact on the environment. But at the same time organizations should continuously improve their green marketing products for the well being of mankind on this planet.

SCOPE FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

There are many innovative green products which are being introduced by organizations. The future researchers can select products like organic cotton, organic personal care products and green electronic appliances etc. Apart from comparing green products with regular products, researchers can study about importance of labeling and branding of green products. Due to time and other resource constraints only four green products are selected in this paper.

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SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF TAMIL MIGRANTS IN MALAPPURAM DISTRICTS OF KERALA

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ABSTRACT

This article is an attempt to study about socio – economic conditions of Tamil migrants in Malappuram district of Kerala. The study is based on primary data. The researcher with well prepared schedule went to the field and collected relevant information regarding socio-economic conditions of the workers. A sample of 300 Tamil workers from different regions of the said district, say Perinthalmanna (50), Nilambur (50), Malappuram (50), Kottakkal (50), Manjeri (50) and Arecode (50) were selected for the study. And the study mainly used 2001 census data. The main objectives of the study are: i) To know about the socio- economic conditions of Tamil migrant workers in Malappuram, Kerala. ii) To understand the education level of Tamil migrants in Malappuram. iii) To find out occupation and wages of Tamil migrant workers. iv)To know the native places and marital status of Tamil migrants in Malappuram, v) To Know religion and caste of Tamil migrants in Malappuram, Kerala. The study found that the distribution of Tamil migrants in the migrated villages mainly from those districts in Tamil Nadu which had close relation with Kerala boundary. In the case of educational status of migrants, more than ninety percent of them were not completed even formal education. The data on marital status of the migrants shows that seventy percent of the migrants were married while most of them did not bring their spouses to migrated places. Among female migrants most of them were coming with their husband to help them. The study found that about 85 percent of the migrants were belonging to Hindu religion while representatives of other religions were very low. Among Hindu, forty percent of the migrants were SC, others belong to OBC and general category. It also found that before migration and after migration, Most of the migrants were being un-skilled workers and engaged in less skill required works. While labours belong to skilled category were very low. Finding on wage indicate that there was high inequality or discrimination in giving wage between male and female migrants and between malayalee workers and migrant workers also.57% of the migrant workers are getting less than 400 rupees per day for their work. It is also noteworthy that migrant workers are getting much more remuneration in migrated places than in their native villages.

KEYWORDS
Tamil migrants, Malappuram district.

INTRODUCTION

Migration is defined as move from one area to another, usually crossing administrative boundaries made during a given migration interval and involving a change of residence (UN 1993).[1] According to the concise Oxford Dictionary, to migrate means to move from one place, country or town to another. Migration is the movement from one place to another within the country or outside it.[2] Everett S .Lee defines Migration very simply as "a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence". The change in residence may be either permanent or semi-permanent or on a temporary basis (Premi 1990)[3]. Due to expansion of communication and transport Migration has become a part of World Wide process of urbanization and industrialization. In most countries it has been observed that industrialization and economic development have been accompanied by large scale of movement of people from villages to town, from town to another town, from one country to another country.

People started to migrate since earlier period, for various reasons: some time in search of food, at other times to escape from natural calamities, threats, enemies or to seek adventure. Human migration takes place owing to lacks of social and economic opportunities at place one resides. Hence people start moving to those centers where they can meet their needs and miseries Migration from one area to another in search of improved livelihood is a key feature of human history. While people move ,the y consider the advantages and dis- advantages of staying versus moving ,as well as factors such as distance ,travel cost ,travel time and mode of transportation ,terrain and cultural barriers . Migration in traditional society is largely forced and is a response to push factors ,where in industrial or modern societies it is largely voluntary response to pull factors .Push factors push people of their former location i.e., famine ,drought , natural disasters and poor living conditions of housing ,unemployment and war ,etc. Pull factors pull or attract people to some places, i.e. . . . nicer climate ,better food supply ,employment ,higher income ,better health care ,education ,urban facilities ,way of life ,protection from conflict ,etc …, are the main causes of migration.[4]

TYPES OF MIGRATION

Migration is a term which includes a wide range of patterns from the geographical point of view .It may involve movement of people from one locality to another within the country or from one country to another .Such geographical mobility may take place from rural areas to rural areas, from rural to urban areas, and urban to rural areas, urban to urban. On the basis of duration of process migration may be classified in to

a) Permanent migration
b) Short term migration

Short term migration comprises seasonal migration and circular migration, involving the return of migrants to the place of origin. Further occupational migration can be brought off, which involve shift from one occupation to another, such as from agriculture to industrial or service occupation. Occupational migration may compass all occupational categories, un skilled labor to specialists and professionals. Broadly, migration may be of two types

a) Internal migration
b) International migration

Internal migration refers to a change of residence within national boundaries such as between states, provinces, cities and municipalities. An internal migrant is someone who moves to a different administrative territory .On other hand; International migration refers to change of residence over national boundaries .An international migrant is someone who move to different country.

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[1] United Nations, Readings in Population Research and Methodology, United Nations Population Fund, New york,1993.
[2] United Nations, Multilingual Demographic Dictionary.p.4
[3] K G Joshi," Migration and Mobility," Himalaya Publishing House, Bombay
[4]C.W.Kanmeyer Kenneth Population Studies: Selected Essays and Research ,Rand Monally College Publishing Company,Chicago,1978,p.170

International migration is further classified as legal immigrants, illegal immigrants and refugees. Legal immigrants are those who moved with the legal permission of the receiver's nation, illegal immigrants are those who moved without legal permission, and refugees are those who crossed an international boundary to escape persecution.[5]

Other types of migration are

- **Impelled Migration** (also called "reluctant" or "imposed" migration)**:** Individuals are not forced out of their country, but leave because of unfavorable situations such as warfare, political problems, or religious persecution.
- **Step Migration:** A series of shorter, less extreme migrations from a person's place of origin to final destination—such as moving from a farm, to a village, to a town, and finally to a city.
- **Chain Migration:** A series of migrations within a family or defined group of people. A chain migration often begins with one family member who sends money to bring other family members to the new location. Chain migration results in migration fields—the clustering of people from a specific region into certain neighborhoods or small town
- **Return Migration:** The voluntary movements of immigrants back to their place of origin. This is also known as circular migration
- **Seasonal Migration:** The process of moving for a period of time in response to labor or climate conditions (e.g., farm workers following crop harvests or working in cities off-season; "snowbirds" moving to the southern and southwestern United States during winter).
- **Involuntary or forced migration:** It takes place when a government forces large group of people out of a region, usually based on ethnicity or region.[6]

MIGRANTS IN KERALA

In India migrations are not required to be registered either at the place of origin or at the place of destination. In the absence of such system, the two major sources of data on internal migration in India are the Census-2001(Tabulated in D series) and the National Sample Survey for 1999-2000 (NSS)[7]. It may be noted that Census and NSS capture only permanent and semi-permanent migration. One way of categorizing the migrants in the Census of India is by place of birth.[8] As per this categorization, migrants are classified into:

I. Those who migrated from other districts of the state (intra-state migration)

ii. Those who migrated from other states (inter-state migration)

According to the Census 2001, 1.3 per cent of the population of Kerala is migrants (by place of birth) from other states. The largest number of in-migrants in the state is from the neighboring state of Tamil Nadu. Significant number of migrants also came from Karnataka, Maharashtra. While 67.8 per cent of those who have migrated to Kerala from other states had their place of birth in Tamil Nadu, 13.5 per cent had their place of birth in Karnataka. Other regions from where people have migrated to Kerala include Maharashtra (4.5 %), Andhra Pradesh (2.3%), Pondicherry (2.1%), Uttar Pradesh (1.4 %) and West Bengal (1.0%). 49.1 per cent of the migrants from other states are female migrants.

The NSS data, which differs from the census data due to differences in definition of migrant, also points to the massive inflow of migrants from other states to Kerala. According to NSSO data, migrants to the State in 1999-2000, numbered 10, and 05,000. It may be noted that both these surveys were conducted 5-6 years back. It is highly probable that larger number of people has migrated during the last few years.

According to Census 2001, the total number of in- migrants in Kerala was 412849, among the districts, Ernakulam district recorded (55977) the highest inflow of migrants from other states. Nearly 60 per cent of the migrants from other states in Eranakulam district came from the neighboring state of Tamil Nadu. Next in importance are the migrants from Maharashtra and Karnataka. Idukki was registered second position in in-migration of in- migrats(53056),third went to Thiruvananthapuram(48575).The district Malappuram registered ninth position(22092),the migrants came mainly from Tamil Nadu.The table shows that in-migrants was lowest in Aleppy (11180) and Pathanamthitta(13683).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To understand the socio-economic characteristics of Tamil migrant labours in the district of Malappuram in Kerala.
2. To understand the education level of Tamil migrants in Malappuram.
3. To find out occupation and wages of Tamil migrant workers in Malappuram districts of Kerala.
4. To know the native places and marital status of Tamil migrants in Malappuram,
5. To know religion and caste of Tamil migrants in Malappuram, Kerala.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The study is based primarily on a sample survey conducted among Tamil migrant workers in different regions at Malappuram district in Kerala. The study is of a pilot nature on internal migration in Kerala with a limited sample size of 300 casual workers, seeking work in the labour market on a day-to-day basis. Equal number of male and female workers was selected. The respondents were selected randomly from some of the major wards in the Panchayat where the migrant workers wait for the employers. Pre-tested semi-structured schedule was employed for collecting information from the respondents. The sample survey was supplemented by in-depth interviews with a few migrant workers, employers and local labours.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study focuses on the socio- economic characteristics of in-migrants, the distribution of labours on basis of their native place, the mode of occupation, and the condition of the wages they are getting in the villages. It further examines the educational level, marital status, religion and castes of these Tamil migrant labours.

DELIMITATION AND LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The present study is a micro level study .The study does not cover all aspects of migration due to time and cost constraints. The data used here to study in-migration is on 2001 Census, due to absence of availability of migration data 2011 Census. The findings of the study cannot be generalized as it is done within some selected regions at Malappuram district. Besides, the sample size is 300 (150 men, 150 women) and does not cover all the areas. Therefore findings and suggestion of the study would be applicable to areas with similar features as the study area. However, every attempt has been made to make the present study a comprehensive one.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Kerala is witnessing large inflow of migrant labour from different parts of the country in the recent years. Though labours from the states as far as West Bengal, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Orissa now flock to Kerala, those from Tamil Nadu outnumber others by big margin. Large majority of them are unskilled or semiskilled workers engaged in construction and road works, pipe laying etc. The shortage of local workers because of high Gulf migration from the state led to both

[5] International Labour Migration and Development: The Perspective 61th Session of the General Assembly High Level Dialogue on International Migration and Development, New York, 2006, p.3.

[6] www.google.com

[7] The latest report on migration is "Migration in India- 1999-2000", Report No. 470, NSSO 55th Round, September, 2001.

[8] The other classification in the Census is based on place of last residence

increase of employment opportunities and wage for un skilled workers and also led to the massive influx of migrant labour to the state .Following are some of the literature review.

Gordon L Clark (1982) his study on Dynamics of US interstate labour migration is considered in light of conventional assumptions regarding regional growth and decline. Both in-migration and out migration are modeled separately using Box-Jenkins techniques and focusing upon the underlying temporal processes (auto regressive, moving average and or some combination of both) and estimated parameters. Gross flows are cross correlated for a selected group of states to establish lead and lag relationship analysis indicates that gross migration is subject to distinct fluctuations over the short run and each set of flows is closely synchronized in time. Difference in parameter estimates and identified processes do, however, exist between growing and declining states. He found that interstate migration in south and south west is highest among rapid growth states. Why there are differences in net migration between growing and declining areas. The answer is that there are not enough job opportunities in slow growth states. Voluntary turnover is significantly less in these types of states. He revealed that job switching that involves out migration can of course occur with ease. However, job switching that involves in-migration is less likely because of the more limited set of the destination opportunities.

Speare, Kobrin and Kingkade (1982), their study applied to interstate migration, the notion that dissatisfaction with residence or community presages movement. The other side, the view that disposition to move is inhibited by satisfaction with job and place of residence and by social bonds is tested using data from a panel study in Rhode Island for the period 1969-1979.The study traced a panel of 1081 adults who were interviewed in 1969 and who at that time constituted a representative sample of the adult population living in households in that island. The panel members were reinter viewed in 1970,1971 and again in 1979.The 1979 reinter view tracing results will be used to determine migration over a ten years period, in 1979, the location of all but 23 of the 1081 still living original respondent was ascertained and 72% were re interviewed. The results of this study provide support for a model of household migration which emphasizes non-economic factors. People with strong social bonds in the state were less likely to have left the state than those with weak social bonds. Employment, which was predicted to retard migration, turned out to have the opposite effect, all though the couples with two jobs were less likely to move than those with one job. The general question on wish to move has a strong net effect. However, wish to move is restricted to those persons who either specified a location outside the island or failed to specify a location and thus focused directly on out-of-state migration. In contrast, the level of satisfaction with the community and job did not have as strong relationship to migration as had been expected.

N.D Kamble (1983),in his study on labour migration to Kerala and from Kerala ,told that size population in a region is the net result of births over deaths and in-migration over out-migration. He told that migration is generally is determined by economic opportunities and net quantitative and qualitative benefits .Migration of labour force in India was a)From rural areas to rural areas b)From rural areas to urban areas, c)From urban areas to urban areas, d) From urban areas to rural areas.

Each proceeding type is larger than succeeding one. The objective of the study were to know about Gross and net volume, type and direction of both in and out migration, their educational levels and employment patterns. He made use the data on migration from and to Kerala, was mainly collected from the Census of India Report of1961 and 1971.The study was based on the quantitative secondary data hence, simple statistical tools of analysis such as percentages, proportions, migration linkages and coefficients were used. He found that levels of education of migrant's workers are generally higher than those of non migrant workers in various economic activities. Migration of Keralites is relatively less than non - keralites. Most of the migration in Kerala is from neighboring states.

S.S Mehta (1987), the objective of this paper is to map the magnitude and the pattern of interstate migration in India during the sixties and seventies, with the accompanying economic factors. He relates migration to certain economic factors. As migration take place from less developed states to developed states .such regions become victors in this process. He presented the data with the help of report eighth finance commission and 1981 census. He told that migration is natural process and it is associated with high growth and high per capita income of many states. Therefore all barriers to migration should be removed. It needs to have a central scheme to implement the interstate migrant act effectively.

Kundu and Gupta (1996) focus on the dynamics of migration and urbanization in the context of changing structure of economic development in India. An attempt was made to examine whether there had been a slowing down of internal population mobility over the decades since independence and whether that attributed to investment in backward areas to decline regional imbalances. Data for the study were obtained from migration tables and Census of India, task force of urban development (1983) Report and National Sample Surveys. The study was carried out during 1961-81 completely and also data available for few states from 1991 Census. Percentages, averages and co-efficient of variation methods were used for the analysis. The study showed that mobility of population declined both in rural as well as urban areas during 1961-81.The percentage of inter censual male migrants (rural and urban and combined) with in the country had gone down from 11.3% in 1961 to 9.4% in 1971 and further to 8.8% in 1981.This declining trend posed major challenges for un balanced strategy followed by India. The study suggested to adopt a policy of balanced regional development and disperse economic and employment opportunities to backward regions through a planned effort.

Haberfeld, Menaria, Sahoo and Vyas(1999) attempted to study Seasonal migration of rural labors at Dungarpur district in Rajasthan. It also examines the determinants and impact of seasonal migration .For the data collection, the district Durgapur is divided in to 5 blocks. The sampled villages participating in the project were randomly selected from the population of all participating villages in each block. Overall, 8 villages were drawn in to the sample. Since the primary purpose of data collection was to evaluate the impact of project, 8 more villages from the population of non-participant villages were added to the sample. These villages were matched with participating sampled villages in terms of block –geo-physical conditions, size and socio-economic structure. Each village was then divided in to three spatial segments based on geographical neighborhoods (Phalas) and 13 households were randomly selected from each village segment. All these sampling procedures yielded a sample of 264 households. Over all 540 individuals belonging to 348 of the sampled households migrated from these 16 villages during 1995-96.The findings indicate that seasonal migration among rural laboures is wide spread. This migration improved their well-being by both reducing the impact of inferior conditions and raising the household income. This also found that these migrants' households are characterized by the lower education, income from agriculture.

Indani Gupta and Mitra(2002) examined the links between the duration of migration and distance of migration, occupation and incidence of poverty in slum areas in Delhi. The primary data were collected from 1000 sample and respondents from seven zones at Delhi in 1996. They employed three stratified random sampling framework and used proportion cluster stand in each zone and employed multinomial logic model in their studies. The study revealed that most of the migrants in slum areas in Delhi were engaged in informal tertiary activities. And poverty was highest among those who migrated 1-5 years ago, lowest among those who have been in Delhi for 12-25 years. They found that with experience the migrants more likely to move from low income casual jobs to high income and regular jobs. This leads to increase in standard of living

Solaki(2002) made an attempt to study the migration of artisans from rural to urban area in the district of Rohtak (Haryana) and Nagpur(Rajasthan).The primary data were collected from the artisans during the period of 1996 to 2000.The methodology employed for the study was questionnaire technique. The study shows that due to lack of money artisans were in-capable to buy raw materials in bulk and not able to make high inventory needed forsake marketing. The paper suggested that financial institution should liberalize their terms and conditions .And this also suggested that NGO's should inject confidence in these artisans.

Harris (2005) studied migration and development in developing and developed countries. The internal migration has significant role in re-distributing income between poor and rich areas and eradicating poverty. This study showed that migration is the only one factor which re-distributes income from rich areas to poor areas and remittance sending from developed countries to developing countries. This study found that these unskilled labors from developing countries were returning to their home countries as skilled labours. It is because they have been enriched with experience and training at abroad. So that the migration has been enhancing the human capital in developing countries and thereby reducing the poverty.

Surabhi and Ajithkumar(2007) studied the migration of Tamil labours at Kochi in Kerala .The higher wages for unskilled labour in Kerala, large opportunities of employment and shortage of local labour lead to massive influx of migrant labour to the state. Their study was based on limited sample size of 100 casual labours from Tamilnadu seeking work at selected centers on a day to day basis. The sample was drawn from city of Kochi. Their study conclude that the migrant labours get much higher monetary wages than in their native places, but they work for longer hours and their real wage may be lower as they have to incur higher cost of living. They presented the data from Census of India 2001 D-series. This study aims at altering the policy makers, planners and administrators, at states as well as at the local level on some of the issues resulting from the rapid growth of migrant population in Kerala. In the view of rising in- migration, questions related to governance, public health and sanitation, housing and education, law and orders etc…warrant greater attention at the level of policy planning and implementation.

Sabates, Wheeler and Ricardo Sabates, Castaldo (2008) attempted to study whether migration improved the livelihoods of migrants in Ghana and Egypt. The data for this paper comes from the survey of pull and push factors of international migration managed by NIDI and collected in the year 1997-98.The primary data on migration was collected 8 countries (southern and east Mediterranean area and from sub Saharan Africa to the European union) .Within this 5 are sending and 3 are receiving countries. But this paper made use the data only from 2 sending countries Ghana, Egypt .And one receiving county Italy. In sending countries four regions were selected on the basis of a number of criteria related to their development and migration history. Migrants and non migrants were sampled. And in each of the four regions above independent multi stage stratified disproportionate probability sampling took place to sample the target population for the survey. The sampling design of the Italian survey required a different approach. First, cities were chosen throughout the country based on exante knowledge of in migrant communities in these areas. In each area interviewees were randomly selected so that the total number of units would be roughly proportional to the total number of Egyptians or Afghanians living in that area. This authors also used probit model in this paper to estimate the current poverty status for poor and non poor. Authors found that for Ghana, migrants are statistically less likely to consider themselves to be poor than non migrant. While in Egypt, this model shows that migration is not a significant of current poverty status. In both countries past poverty is a significant of current poverty status. Due to migration, in Egypt both very poor and poor are more likely to have a livelihood improvement than other groups.

PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA

KERALA STATE

Kerala, regionally also **Keralam**, is a state located in the south-west region of India on the Malabar Coast. It was formed on 1 November 1956 per the States Reorganization Act by combining various Malayalam-speaking regions. Spread over 38,863 km^2 (15,005 sq mi) with a population of 33,387,677, of which male and female are 16,021,290 and 17,366,387 respectively (as per 2011 census data). In 2001, total population was 31,841,374 in which males were 15,468,614 while females were 16,372,760. Out of total population of Kerala, 47.72% people live in urban regions. The total figure of population living in urban areas is 15,932,171 of which 7,617,584 are males and while remaining 8,314,587 are females. Kerala is bordered by Karnataka to the north and north east, Tamil Nadu to the east and south, and the Laccadive Sea to the west. Thiruvananthapuram is the state capital among the 14 districts; other major cities include Kochi, Kozhikode, Kollam and Thrissur. The state has the highest Human Development Index (HDI) in the country with 0.790 according to the Human Development Report 2011. It also has the highest literacy rate; 93.91%.

Kerala has witnessed significant emigration of its people, especially to the Persian Gulf countries during the Kerala Gulf boom during the 70s and early 80s, and its economy depends significantly on remittances from a large Malayali expatriate community.

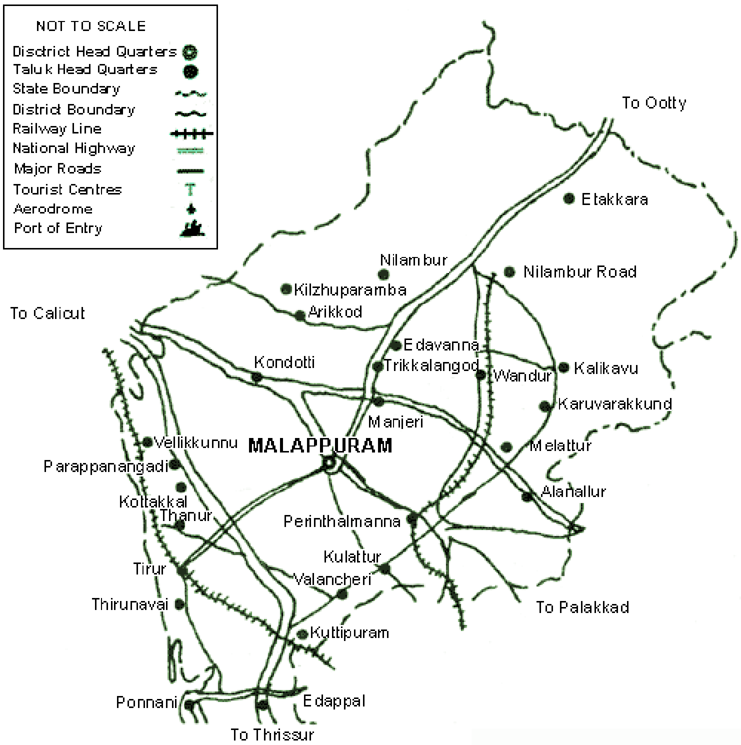
MAP 1

Economy depends significantly on remittances from a large Malayali expatriate community. Hinduism is practiced by the half of the population, followed by Islam and Christianity. Malayalam is the major spoken language. It is considered as the "cleanest state in India", however, the morbidity rate, at 118, is the highest in the country. Culture of the state traces its roots from 3rd century CE. It is a synthesis of Aryan and Dravidian cultures, developed over centuries under influences from other parts of India and abroad. The region had been a prominent spice exporter from 3000 BCE to 3rd century. The Production of pepper and natural rubber contribute to a prominent part of the total national output. In the agricultural sector, coconut, tea, coffee, cashew and spices are important. The state has 590 km of coastal belt, and around 1.1 million people of the state are dependent on the fishery industry which contributes to 3% income of the state. With 145,704 kilometers (90,536 mi) of roads, the state constitutes 4.2% of total India's roadways. There are three existing and two proposed international airports. Waterways are also used as means of transportation. The state has the highest media exposure in India with newspapers publishing in nine different languages; mainly English and Malayalam. Kerala is an important tourist destination, with the backwaters, beaches, Ayurvedic tourism, and tropical greenery among its major attractions.

MALAPPURAM DISTRICT

Malappuram district is a district in the state of Kerala, south India with headquarters at the city of Malappuram. The district was formed on 16 June 1969. The classic medieval center of Vedic learning and local politics, Thirunavaya, home of the traditional Ayurveda medicine, Kottakkal and one of the oldest centre of education of Islam the region, Ponnani are situated in Malappuram district along with rapidly expanding towns like Manjeri, Perinthalmanna, Chemmad and Edappal. In 1921, present day Malappuram district witnessed a series of devastating revolts and massacres known as the Moplah rebellions followed by decades of frozen economical, social, and political development. In the early years of the Communist rule in Kerala, Malappuram saw large land reforms under the Land Reform Ordinance. In the 1970s, huge oil reserves of Persian Gulf were opened to commercial extraction, and thousands of unskilled people migrated to "the Gulf" seeking fortunes. They sent money home, propping up a sleepy rural economy, and by late 20th century, the region had achieved first-world health standards and near universal literacy. The present development, both economical and social, of the Malappuram District owes to the Kerala Gulf Diaspora.

MAP 2



The district lies in northern Kerala and is bounded on the north by Wayanad and Kozhikkode districts, on the northeast by Tamil Nadu, on the southeast and south by Palakkad District, on the southwest by Thrissur District, on the west by the Arabian Sea, and on the northwest by Kozhikode District. At present Malappuram District consists of 2 revenue divisions, 6 taluks, 135 villages, 15 blocks, 7 municipalities and 100 panchayats.

Malappuram district comprises a vast wildlife collection and a number of small hills, forests, little rivers and streams flowing to the west, backwaters and paddy, areca nut, cashew nut, pepper, ginger, pulses, coconut, banana, tapioca, and rubber plantations. Malappuram is one of two Muslim majority districts; it is the most populous district in Kerala. The populations include Muslims, Hindus, and Christians, various tribal religion believers, Buddhists, Sikhs, Jains and others. In 2011, Malappuram had population of 4,110,956 of which male and female were 1,961,014 and 2,149,942 respectively. In 2001 census, Malappuram had a population of 3,625,471 of which males were 1,754,576 and remaining 1,870,895 were females. Its population growth rate over the decade 2001-2011 was 13.39%.

The density of Malappuram district for 2011 is 1,158 people per sq. km. In 2001, Malappuram district density was at 1,021 people per sq. km. Malappuram district administers 3,550 square kilometers of areas. Average literacy rate of Malappuram in 2011 were 93.55 compared to 89.61 of 2001. If things are looked out at gender wise, male and female literacy were 95.78 and 91.55 respectively. For 2001 census, same figures stood at 93.25 and 86.26 in Malappuram District. Total literate in Malappuram District were 3,328,658 of which male and female were 1,608,229 and 1,720,429 respectively. In 2001, Malappuram District had 2,754,509 in its district. With regards to Sex Ratio in Malappuram, it stood at 1096 per 1000 male compared to 2001 census figure of 1066. The average national sex ratio in India is 940 as per latest reports of Census 2011 Directorate. In 2011 census, child sex ratio is 960 girls per 1000 boys compared to figure of 960 girls per 1000 boys of 2001 census data.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CODITIONS OF TAMIL MIGRANT

This chapter includes the socio-economic profile of the sample respondents. The primary data is being collected from the regions of Perintalmanna, Nilambur, Malappuram, Kottakkal, Manjeri, and Arecode belongs to Malappuram District in Kerala through well scheduled questionnaire. The analysis of this sample survey is presented in the following section.

PLACE OF ORIGIN

TABLE 1: DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE MIGRANTS ACCORDING TO THE NATIVE DISTRICT (%)

District	Male	Female	Total
Madurai	40.0	61.0	50.5
Dindigul	22.0	18.0	20.0
Theni	13.0	5.0	9.0
Thiruchirappally	8.0	6.0	7.0
Selam	5.0	4.0	4.5
Karoor	5.0	---	2.5
Thanjavur	3.0	---	1.5
Toothukudi	2.0	---	1.0
Pudukkottai	---	4.0	2.0
Ramanathapuram	2.0	2.0	2.0
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

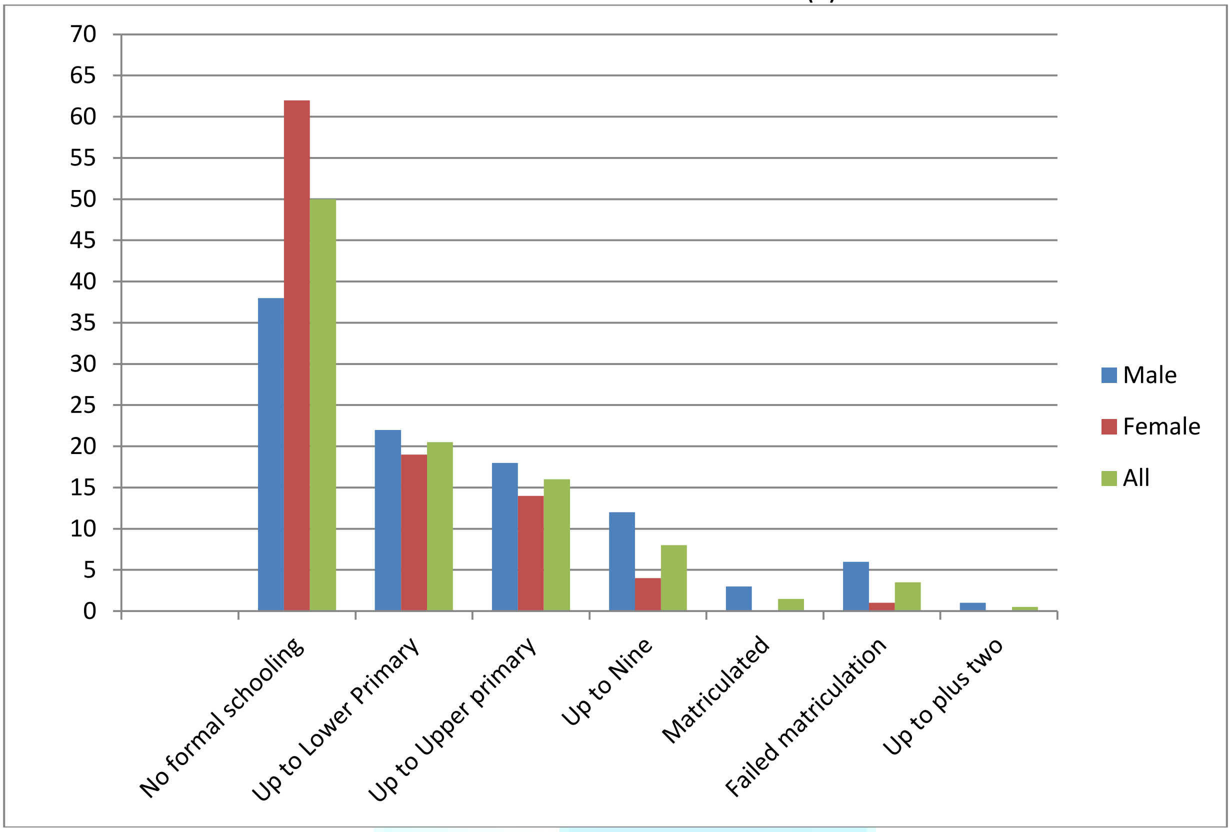
Source: Primary Data

Table 1 provides the details about the native districts of the respondents. Of the 32 districts in Tamil Nadu, migrants from only 10 districts found a place in the sample. Of this, migrants from district Madurai constitute more than half (50.5 per cent) of the sample. Other districts found to have significant representation in the sample include Dindigul (20.0per cent), Theni and Thiruchirappalli (9, 7 per cent simultaneously). Thus, 86 per cent of the Tamil migrants in our sample were from the four districts mentioned above. While Dindigul, Theni and Madurai are neighboring districts with the first two having borders with Kerala, Tiruchirappally district is located far off from Kerala border. It is possible that the regular daily train services to some of those districts and unfavourable conditions of labours in there have facilitated migration from these far off districts. Most of these migrant workers came from the rural areas of Tamil Nadu.

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Figure 1 shows that half of the respondents did not have any schooling. The proportion of female workers with no formal schooling was very high that of male workers. It was found that 62 per cent of female were having no formal education, while it was 38 percent for male. However, 1.5 per cent of the male migrants were matriculates; there was no female migrant completed matriculation. Among male migrants only one fellow completed plus two. It is surprising that about 95 percent of migrants did not complete even matriculation.

FIGURE 1: MIGRANTS BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL (%)



Source: Primary Data

MARITAL STATUS

The Table 2 shows that seventy percent of migrants were married. Only 21 percent of migrants were leading single life. However 4 percent of migrants were either widowed or separated. Unmarried workers were more among the males, widowed/separated were more among the females. While migrants leading single life was more than female. Fifty two per cent of the married respondents reside in villages with their spouses while the remaining left their spouse in the village. Among the married male migrants, 62 per cent left their wives in the village. Only 13 per cent of the married women have come to migrated Village leaving their husbands in the home village (not shown in the Table).

TABLE 2: MARITAL STATUS OF MIGRANT LABOURERS (%)

Marital status	Male	Female	All
Single	30.0	13.0	21.5
Married	65.0	76.0	70.5
Widowed	5.0	3.0	4.0
Separated	---	8.0	4.0
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: Primary Data

RELIGION

Table 3 shows large majority of the sample workers are Hindus (86 per cent). Eleven of them are Christians and the remaining two is Muslim. Among female migrants 95 percent of them were Hindus, while for male it was 17 percent less of female. Another notable thing that among migrants there was no single Muslim female migrant and female Christian migrants were also low.

One surprising thing is that, Compared to Muslims and Christians, Hindus tempt to migrate more. People from Muslim community and Christian were economically forward than Hindus.

TABLE 3: RELIGIOUS STATUS OF MIGRANT LABOURERS (%)

Religion	Male	Female	All
Hindu	78.0	95.0	86.5
Christian	18.0	5.0	11.5
Muslim	4.0	---	2.0
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: Primary Data

CASTE

Table 4 shows that scheduled Castes constituted 40 per cent and Scheduled Tribes three per cent of the sample. While both general and other back ward class were 28 each.

This sample is giving valuable information that temptation of migration was very high among Hindu Religion particularly among Schedule caste. It was found that Poverty and Poor standard of life among SC were the main cause for the migration of them to Kerala.

TABLE 4: CAST OF MIGRANT LABOURERS (%)

Cast	Male	Female	All
General	31.0	26.0	28.5
OBC	23.0	33.0	28.0
SC	42.0	39.0	40.5
ST	4.0	2.0	3.0
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: Primary Data

OCCUPATION

The details of primary occupation of workers before their migration to villages are given in Table 5.One-fourth of the migrant workers were engaged in agriculture and 4 percent of migrants were running small scale businesses in their native places. Majority of them (56%) were unskilled workers, these include shop keepers, helpers for construction of buildings/houses and wood cutters. While skilled labours were only 13 percent, in the skilled labours 'other skilled jobs' constitutes painters, carpenters etc.

Table proved that agriculture was the unique sector which provides majority of employment opportunities, but low price of agricultural products and continuous loss made them force to think differently and migrate to Kerala.

TABLE 5: OCCUPATION – BEFORE OF THE MIGRATION OF LABOURERS (%)

Category	Per cent of respondents
Skilled Labour	
Mason	5.0
Gold smith	2.0
Industrial worker	2.0
Other skilled jobs	4.0
Skilled – Total	**13.0**
Agriculture	**24.0**
Small Scale business	**4.0**
Unskilled labour	**56.0**
No occupation	3.0
Grand – Total	**100.0**

Source: Primary Data

Table 6 shows that among migrants 15 percent were engaging in agriculture on the basis of daily wage in the migrated villages and only 1.5 percent were doing small scale business like making of Papa dam. It also shows that about 70 percent of the migrated people were un-skilled workers, while only one by ten migrant were skilled labours and eight percent of female migrants were not going for any work, because they were house wives.

TABLE 6: OCCUPATION – AFTER THE MIGRATION OF LABOURERS (%)

Category	Male	Female	Total
Skilled Labour			
Mason	7.0	2.0	4.5
Carpenter	3.0	---	1.5
Gold Smith	2.0	---	1.0
Painter	2.0	---	1.0
Other skilled work	2.0	2.0	2.0
Skilled- Total	**16.0**	**4.0**	**10.0**
Un-Skilled Labour			
Road Work	23.0	42.0	32.5
Building/Home Construction	33.0	31.0	32.0
Shop keeper	3.0	7.0	5.0
Un skilled-Total	**59.0**	**80.0**	**69.5**
Agriculture	**22.0**	**8.0**	**15.0**
Small Scale Business	**3.0**	---	**1.5**
No Occupation	---	8.0	4.0
Grand -Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: Primary Data

Among un-skilled labours, about 80 percent of the migrants were engage in Road work, construction of Home and building and shop keepers. In these, most of the female migrants were working in Road making work (42%) then in Home construction (21%).

It was noticed during the survey that the Tamil labours were ready to take up any job. For instance, the respondents who work in a construction site one day will go for digging wells the next day, cleaning the drain or well. But majority of the respondents reported that they have their own primary employment. Most of the respondents whom we met are unskilled labours. Only nine per cent of them were engaged in some form of skilled jobs. Skilled migrant labourers were engaged in masonry work, painting and plumbing.

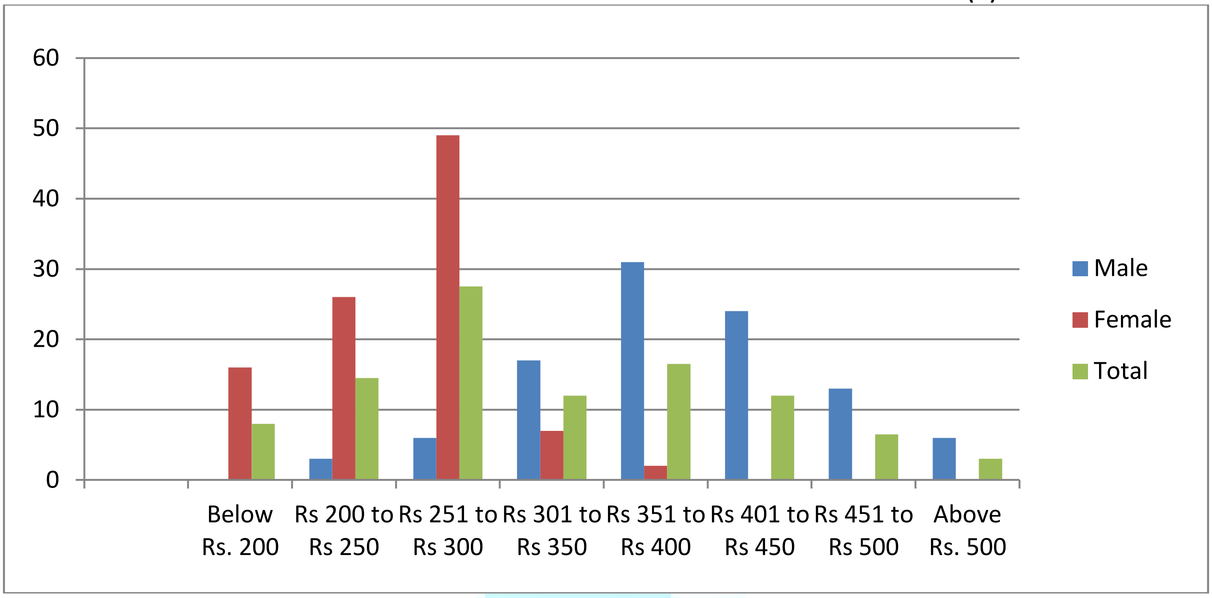
WAGES

Another important finding in respect of wages of migrants getting in migrated villages shows that about 28 per cent of the migrants have been working for the wage between Rs.251 and Rs.300.And about 17 percent of migrants have been getting the wage rate between Rs.351 and Rs.400 and 15 percent between the wage rate of Rs.200 and Rs.250.It also found that migrants getting wage between Rs.401 and Rs.450 were 24 and more than Rs.450 getting were only 19 percent respondents (figure 2).

The analysis of the sample convinced that all female migrants were getting below the wage rate of Rs.400.Among those, 16 percent of female migrants have been getting below Rs.200 wage. While only 57 percent of the male migrants were getting wage below Rs.400. In that only 3 percent had wage rate below Rs.250.Rest of the male migrants have been getting above Rs.400.

The findings show that there is great in-equality or discrimination in wages between male and female. However both male and female migrants were getting wages higher than what they could earn in their home land.

FIGURE 2: PER DAY WAGES EARNED BY MIGRANT WORKERS IN MIGRATED VILLAGES (%)



Source: Primary Data

The migrant labours were asked about the current wages in their home village. The results are presented in Table 7

TABLE 7: AVERAGE WAGE RATES IN THE VILLAGES AND IN THE PLACES OF ORIGIN

Particulars	Wage in Villages	Wage in Home Village
Male	377.7273	237.3684
Female	250.2717	144.8387
Total	319.6782	200.828
Gender Parity Index	66.257	61.018

Source: Primary Data

The earnings of the workers after migration were very higher than their earlier earnings in Tamil Nadu. The difference was much higher in the case of women migrants. While women migrant workers get about Rs.250 in migrated villages, they get Rs.144 in their home villages for a day's work. Male migrants get Rs.377 in the migrated villages, while they get Rs.237 in their home villages. The differentials in wage rates of men and women in migrated villages were more than in their native villages as may be seen from the more favorable gender parity index of wage rates. As against 61.012 in the villages of Tamil Nadu, the index for migrated villages was 66.26.

While there is substantial difference between the monetary wages for casual work in migrated villages and in the rural areas of Tamil Nadu, it is important to note that the difference in real wage rates to the migrant workers may not be as high, as they have to incur much higher costs for living in migrated villages than in their native places (e.g. Rent, cost of hotel food, transportation.,).

MAJOR FINDINGS AND POLICY IMPLICATION

Kerala State has been witnessing large inflow of migrant labour from different parts of the country for the years. Even though labourers from UttarPradesh, Bihar and Orissa, West Bengal now flock to Kerala, those from the neighboring state of Tamil Nadu are big margin. Higher wages for unskilled labour in the state, large opportunities for employment and shortage of local labour led to the massive influx of migrant labour to the state. The sign of rapid growth of state's economy and the increase in activities particularly in the infrastructure and construction sectors are the main cause of in-migration to Kerala.

MAJOR FINDINGS

The study found that the distribution of Tamil migrants in the migrated villages mainly from those districts in Tamil Nadu which had close relation with Kerala boundary. Regular train service from those places to Kerala was also reason for migration to Kerala. From the total 32 districts it is found that migrants came from 10 districts only.among these Madurai dominate with 50.2% then Dindigul (20%).

In the case of educational status of migrants, more than ninety percent of them were not completed even formal education. Compared to male migrants Female migrants were more uneducated. 62% of female migrants have no formal schooling while it is 38% in the case of male migrants.

The data on marital status of the migrants shows that seventy percent of the migrants were married while most of them did not bring their spouses to migrated places. Among female migrants most of them were coming with their husband to help them.

The study found that about 85 percent of the migrants were belonging to Hindu religion while representatives of other religions were very low. Among Hindu, forty percent of the migrants were SC, others belong to OBC and general category.

It also found that before migration and after migration, Most of the migrants were being un-skilled workers and engaged in less skill required works. While labours belong to skilled category were very low. After migration big portions (32%) of migrants have been engaging in both road and construction works.

Finding on wage indicate that there was high inequality or discrimination in giving wage between male and female migrants and between malayalee workers and migrant workers also.57% of the migrant workers are getting less than 400 rupees per day for their work. It is also noteworthy that migrant workers are getting much more remuneration in migrated places than in their native villages.

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GREENING OF SUPPLY CHAIN: BENEFITS AND CHALLENGES

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ABSTRACT
Supply chains have been developing over time since the inception of commercial trade and barter. Green supply chain management (GSCM) is a powerful way to differentiate a company from its competitors and it can greatly influence the plan success. With increased awareness to corporate responsibility and the requirement to meet the terms with environmental policy, green supply chain management (GSCM) is becoming increasingly important for companies. This paper explains the concept of green supply chain management, the difference between conventional supply chain management and green supply chain management and how GSCM benefits organizations while at the same time supporting a sustainable environment system. An effort has also been made to analyze research already done in this field while exploring the challenges and barriers that organizations face in implementing GSCM practices in their existing systems.

JEL CODES
M21, O44

KEYWORDS
Corporate Social Responsibility, Green Supply Chain Management, Environmental Sustainability, Business Strategy.

1. INTRODUCTION
Supply chain management (SCM) is the oversight of materials, information, and finances as they move in a process from supplier to manufacturer to wholesaler to retailer to consumer. Supply chain management involves coordinating and integrating these flows both within and among companies. [1]
According to Srivatsara, 2007 GSCM is integrating environment thinking into supply chain management, including product design, material sourcing and selection, manufacturing processes, delivery of the final product to the consumers, and end-of-life management of the product after its useful life. [2]
Green Supply Chain Management involves a proactive rigorous effort to incorporate environmental considerations into the decision making processes of an organization using the basic principles of green procurement, green manufacturing and green distribution thereby resulting in an integration of both environmental and supply chain management along with the elimination of waste [3][4][5]. A summary of differences between the conventional Supply Chain Management system and Green Supply Chain Management system is given below:
The conventional SCM concentrated on cost, efficiency and product variety with low regard to environmental consequences as opposed to the higher emphasis of GSCM on life cycle costing, asset efficiency, waste reduction and recycling.[5]
SCM involves more conventional decision making which commonly overlooks costs and benefits that may occur in departments to which the decision maker has no relation whereas GSCM requires an organizational commitment and a more proactive approach.[5][6]
In SCM, costs incurred due to environment related inefficiencies are usually hidden in overhead accounts, leading to potential environmental impacts proving to be financially detrimental. In comparison, the main aim of GSCM is to reduce the liability of an organization to the environment.[6]
A supply chain, even though easier to maintain, need not necessarily be profitable. A green supply chain on the other hand facilitates resource conservation and product innovation which could prove to be profitable in the long run.
A supply chain requires compliance with only the usual mandates as compared to a green supply chain which has to comply with all relevant environmental regulations along with the usual mandates.

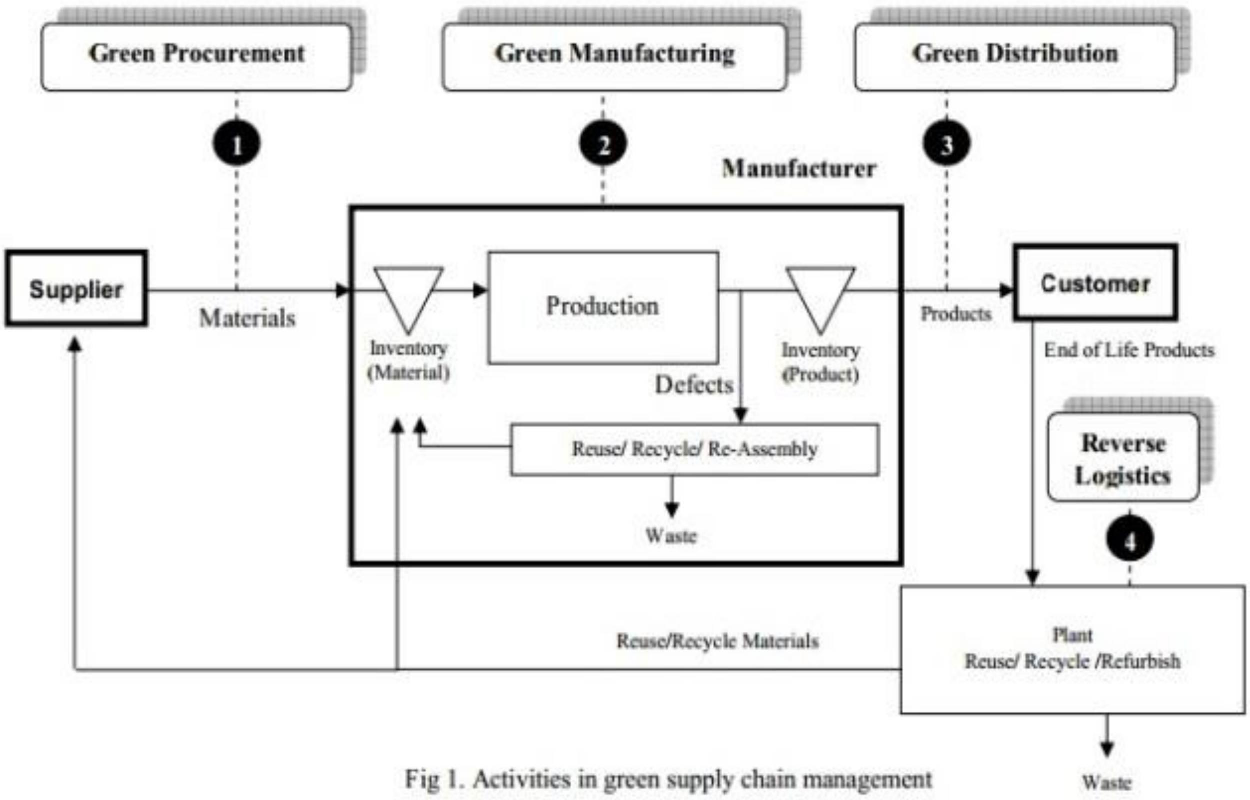


Fig 1. Activities in green supply chain management

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Science for Environmental Policy, European Commission (2010) had analysed two specific GSCM practices: assessment of suppliers' environmental performance and imposing requirements on suppliers to meet certain environmental criteria. GSCM was effective at improving environmental performance in the areas of natural resource use (energy and water), waste generation and wastewater emission. Benefits of GSCM such as improved reputation and innovation are intangible and with these there may be an increase in profits in the long run.

In an era of globalisation, manufacturers need to work with their suppliers of raw material and component, in order to produce environment friendly products. By using their purchasing power, the industries can set up environment criteria for their suppliers upstream in supply chain. Ultimately it can result in the greening of the supply chain. GSCM = Green purchasing + Green manufacturing / materials management + Green Distribution / marketing + Reverse Logistics. The idea of GSCM is to eliminate or minimize waste (energy, emissions, chemical/hazardous and solid wastes) along supply chain [10].

The decision to go green requires an organizational commitment to improving environmental sustainability, backed by meaningful measures of green performance. Far from maintaining the *status quo* with a few green performance metrics added for good measure, however, the decision to adopt a green supply chain will require many organizations to fundamentally change how they operate [5].

Pagell & Wu (2009) contend that managers not only need to be continuously cognizant of sustainability goals, but also to impress upon everyone in the firm that sustainability is a daily operation at every level of the firm.

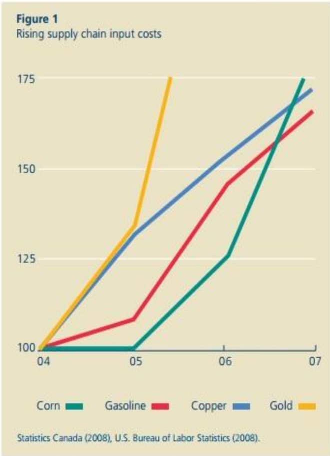
Research conducted to survey the current green activities in computer parts' manufacturers in Thailand suggests that, collaborative partnership among important stakeholders is a strong criterion to obtain efficient and effective in GSCM [3].

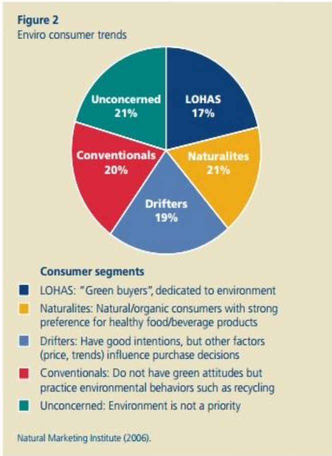
In the UAE, the Centre for Responsible Business of the Dubai Chamber of Commerce has done research since 2008 to assess the level of maturity of business in Dubai with regard to 'Green Supply Chain' and to identify the main trends in the field. A study in 2008 'Green Supply Chain in Dubai' by Dr. Belaid Rettab and Dr. Anis Ben Brik, suggests that lack of awareness is the major barrier towards greening of supply chain by corporates. Among companies that adopted measures, consumer expectations and legal regulations were the main motivators while company policies and competitor behaviour were also considered for change in practices. Another study 'Green Purchasing in Dubai: Practices, Drivers and Performance', conducted in 2009 reveals that even among businesses that were aware, a willingness to green does not translate into strategic alignment of green purchasing. Quality standard ISO 9000 is a well-established practice while Environmental Standards ISO 14000 and EMAS were a bit uncommon. Innovative techniques, such as low-density packaging and material purification and substitution were seldom used by businesses while eco-design and the eco-labelling of products were still embryonic in Dubai. A recent study in 2013 by Anis Ben Brik, Kamel Mellahi and Belaid Rettab 'Drivers of Green Supply Chain in Emerging Economies' reveal that in emerging economies like Dubai, it is not so much the presence of regulatory factors that bring in GSCM as is the ability of the government to monitor the implementation of such practices. While internal drivers are the leadership at the top and economic incentives that can be derived through competitive advantage, the main external drivers are regulations of the countries to which goods are exported and policies of headquarters for MNCs. The authors suggest that in emerging economies like Dubai it pays to be proactive in implementing GSCM in the corporate sector rather than being reactive. [7][8][9].

3. THE EVOLUTION OF GSCM

The evolution of green supply chain management started with the spike of public and consumer awareness in environmental sustainability, coupled with the rise in in prices of fuel, energy and commodities has changed corporate thinking and has given rise to new opportunities [5].

As is obvious from these trends, supply chain input costs have been on the rise due to the rise in prices of basic commodities which has led to a domino effect. Add the fact that more people are aware of the world's environmental problems, and you have an increased demand for GSCM. The environmental movement from the 1960s onwards led to increased pressure on organizations to address environmental management. This was mainly driven by increasing environmental degradation, diminishing natural resources as well as rising pollution levels. It led to the formation of the EPA which led the directive of enforcing regulations covering industrial processes along the supply chain. There arose the need for manufacturers to consider the financial and social benefits of recycling and reusing product components, for manufacturers to develop 'win-win' strategies that achieve profit and market share objectives by lowering environmental risks and increasing ecological efficiency. Slowly, organizations began seeing the bright side of GSCM, of how profitable it would be in the long run. The downside of conventional decision making was obvious looking at the losses incurred due to ecological inefficiency. More and more organizations began looking at how a shared focus on reducing waste and cost deepens customer relations and gave rise to opportunities for product and service innovation. Not so prominent a few decades ago, GSCM has begun picking up pace. Under the backdrop of globalization, green supply chain management is recognized as a direct and effective mechanism to address environmental problems along the global value chain. Using the purchasing power and consumption behaviors of governments, large enterprises and the public, green supply chain management is a market mechanism for reducing pollution and improving energy and resource efficiency[1][5][11][12].





4. WHY HAS GSCM TAKEN PROMINENCE

Green Supply Chain Management has risen to new levels, especially in south East Asia and China. Western European manufacturers, concentrating on reducing costs and on outsourcing operations, are moving production to the region of Central, Eastern and South-East Europe seeking cost-efficient production facilities [11].

Green Supply Chain Management improves operations by employing an environmental solution.

- improves agility – GSCM helps to mitigate risk and speeds up innovations;
- Increases adaptability – green supply chain analysis often leads to innovative processes and continuous improvements.
- promotes alignment – GSCM involves negotiating policies with suppliers and customers, which results in better alignment of business processes and principles [13].

Companies that successfully adopt a 'green' policy can generate profits, provide positive social impact, and reduce environmental impact. Establishing a green supply chain enables an organization to gain access to key markets, differentiate them from the competition and improve products, processes and quality.

Ideas from environmentally friendly packaging to carbon-footprint reducing logistics are saving money and providing competitive advantage. Such ideas have knock-on additional benefits, from waste reduction, to less resource being spent on adhering to regulatory issues.

Economic benefits from increased efficiency- By reducing wastes, companies decrease handling expenses, fines, and even costly inputs. Supplier's savings may be passed along to buyer companies [14].

Competitive advantage through innovation.-Efficient production is enhanced through the use of cleaner technologies, process innovation, and waste reduction. Reduction in wastes equals' dollars earned [14].

Improved product quality- Supply chain partnerships help maintain relationships between buyers and suppliers leading to increased control over product quality [14].

Consistent corporate environmental goals- In an era of multi-faceted, non-vertical manufacturing, companies include supplier outreach to address corporate environmental goals [14].

Improved public image-Consumers, investors, and employees respond positively to companies with a reputation for good environmental performance [14].

Some examples to show the benefits of companies that have adopted green supply chains-

- *Wal-Mart*, which in 2005 launched a sweeping business sustainability strategy, recently set the goal of a 5% reduction in packaging by 2013. The retail giant expects the cut in packaging will save 667,000 metric tons of carbon dioxide from entering the atmosphere. Moreover, the company anticipates $3.4 billion in direct savings and roughly $11 billion in savings across the supply chain [13].
- *Nestlé* employs an ongoing, company-wide sustainability program that has generated significant environmental and financial benefits. The company has applied the strategy to its use of product packaging by initiating an integrated approach that favors source reduction, re-use, recycling, and energy recovery. In particular, the company's packaging material savings between 1991 and 2006 led to $510 million in savings, worldwide, according to Nestlé's corporate website [13].
- *Heineken* committed to reduce fuel and electricity use through its "Aware of Energy" program. The company said in its 2006 sustainability report that it aimed to reduce fuel and electricity costs by 15% between 2002 and 2010. At the time of the Diamond report, Heineken had achieved savings of 6%—even after the acquisition of new breweries [13].

5. CHALLENGES FACED IN GSCM

Awareness - Each year a different consulting group authors The Carbon Disclosure report (CDP) which is based on private and public sectors responses. One interesting point from several reports is the lack of awareness at the C-suite. Green awareness is improving but has always been a challenge [15].

Business Case Development - Corporate social responsibility, competitive pressures, as well as where to use limited capital will be a choke point for multi-national supply chains in the future. Strategic planners will likely struggle with business cases as best practices are shared. One interim solution as new business models mature involves integrating tying carbon to future supplier contract. This concept will take years to evolve but is critical to managing greenhouse gases and level playing field in Europe and North America [15].

Sustainability Program Implementation - The Implementation of the program is a big challenge. It was found that implementation is a challenge because organizations don't know which rules or standards to follow [15].

Communications Planning - The environmental, sustainability, green space is very broad. It encompasses everything from renewable energy to various employee commute emissions and industry specific operational definitions. Organizations have to develop a communication strategy early in Green Supply Chain planning process. The communications strategy is key to driving long term compliance and reducing emissions [15].

Lack of appropriate technology and business processes needed - Technology provides energy efficient solutions that have a more favorable impact on the environment. Information technology can make the supply chain greener by optimizing the resources required to support the business and also enable more effective supply chain planning, execution and collaboration, thereby reducing resource requirements. Green supply chain technologies cannot work independent of the business processes in the supply chain. Both the green supply chain and the supply chain are complementary to one another. A supply chain technology cannot work without an infrastructure which is provided by the business process, There is need therefore to have a process that captures such data [16][17].

Trade-off between green requirements and lean practices - Lean and green strategies are often seen as compatible because of their shared focus on waste reduction. Leanness stresses on reduced amount of inventory to go through the supply chain which minimizes the negative environmental impact of the supply chain. However, lean strategies that employ just-in-time (JIT) delivery of small batch sizes which improves sufficiency can require increased transportation, packaging, and handling which increase emissions contradicting the green approach. Outsourcing also may involve parts of the manufacturing process being transferred to plants on the other side of the world, only for the products to be transported back for the next part of the supply chain process which requires additional transportation and thus increasing emissions [16].

Failure to integrate supply chain optimization efforts with green supply chain efforts - Cash and Wilkerson (2003) argue that most firms implementing green supply chain practices do not actually integrate environmental considerations into their supply chain management processes. Their approach is usually driven by a need to green an existing process or a piece of the chain. Although this may have a positive impact on the environment, the environmental aspects are frequently not considered when those responsible for reviewing a business's overall supply chain performance make changes in the supply chain. hey further argue that it is only after changes in the supply chain have been implemented and their effects on the environment revealed that the idea of greening the supply chain has the opportunity to emerge. There is no dearth of tools for supporting green supply chain initiatives. The challenge lies in selecting the right tool [16].

Lack of information about the green supply chain best practices - The aforementioned green supply chain survey found that it was not investment costs, but a lack of information on regulations and green supply chain best practices that left organizations with a limited view of what to do and implement. Green Supply Chain Operations Reference (SCOR) incorporated within the SCOR framework can provide immense help by offering information on best practices, waste disposal process and metrics to increase the success of GreenSCOR initiatives [17].

Global sourcing making tracing of carbon footprint difficult - Given global sourcing, tracking the carbon footprint of finished products can be difficult. Increasingly, however, new initiatives have emerged for adopting the practice of requesting a carbon footprint from suppliers. One of the examples is the carbon disclosure project that is being piloted by 11 multinationals including Dell, L'Oreal and Unilever. The project asks participating organizations to request carbon footprint information from suppliers and promote emission reduction measures across the supply chain [17].

6. CONCLUSION

Most of the time, greening the operations is related to corporate social responsibility or emotional aspect of business towards the environment. However for sustainability of the green initiatives, it is important that we look at this opportunity from business point of view. It is high time to focus on the tangible or intangible benefits associated with these green initiatives. Sustainability reports of many companies indicate that greening the supply chain has helped them to reduce their operating cost with increased sustainability of business. The result of a survey done by McKinsey shows that green supply chain has got maximum attention of companies. Only 3% respondents felt that it was important in past while 16% respondents felt that it is going to be very important over next 5 years and have placed it in top 2 goals of companies in supply chain management. Now it's not an option but a necessity for the companies to proactively invest in economically attractive opportunities in supply chain management that address environmental impact in the near or medium term and increases the overall sustainability of business.

Greening the supply chain takes a long-term commitment. Even for companies that have an environmentally focused culture, green supply chain implementation is a multi-year program, requiring significant resource investment. Successful green supply chain management companies include many profitable firms such as Herman Miller, Hewlett Packard, Timberland and Xerox. For these companies going green is not just a slogan, it an integral part of their business strategy.

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MANAGING DIVERSITY AND MULTICULTURALISM FOR ORGANIZATIONAL TRANSFORMATION

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ABSTRACT

The concept of multiculturalism and diversity embodies a new orientation towards the management of human resources .It is a multifaceted concept and has become a demographical reality across the globe due to expansion of domestic firms into global organizations. Firms that are moving in the direction of creating diversity at workplace can break upon a wide range of skills together with perhaps those which it may never have to use, but are likely to security it out when its highest probability assumption about future fail to deliver results. This paper explains the concept of multiculturalism, diversity and total quality diversity model. The aims of the paper are to give details of multiculturalism and diversity with the help of structural change and its implication for business and managers to understand how to manage multiculturalism and diversity issue at workplace. The paper conclude by bringing the light on the guidelines of the diversity management that tracks the various areas of diversity issues that need to be taken care in organizations.

KEYWORDS
Diversity, Globalization, Multiculturalism, Total quality management, Workforce.

INTRODUCTION

In an age of cultural pluralism, multiculturalism is needed to manage diversity efficiently. In essence, then, multiculturalism is the art of managing diversity in a total quality manner. It is the only option open to educators, leaders and administrators in an ever-increasing culturally pluralistic environment. In the business world the process of multiculturalism is best maintained through managing diversity it is an approach to business and human relations that acknowledge and respects the contributions which the diverse racial and ethnic groups, as well as women, have made to society, and incorporates these offerings in an overall program of human resources management which meets the needs of an ever-changing society and its demands on business, and is sensitive to the personal and social development of all entities concerned.

Diversity offers benefits like creativity, resistance against lawsuits, political favourers, better decisions, and better knowledge of markets. The cross border reach on corporations has been growing rapidly for the past two decades. It has now become the order of the day. These developments have given rise to new organization that brings together individuals and groups from different national and organizational cultures. Employees need to be prepare to be able to effectively handle inter cultural tasks. Wederspahn M Garry (2002).

Multicultural, multinational, multilingual communities emerged due to rapid expansion of comprehensive economy, worldwide opportunities and advancement in communications. Organizations concerned with the bottom line the maximizing of profit, whether material or nonmaterial are recognizing this new direction is the best way to manage their human resources across the globe. Workforce diversity refers to the composition of work units in terms of the cultural or demographic characteristics that are salient and symbolically meaningful in the relationships among group members. Although generally thought of as the purview of management research, the topic of workforce diversity draws from and is relevant to research from sociology and psychology Manish K Singh and Dutta Andrew (2003) .

The art of managing diversity is of great concern to all persons charged with the responsibility of overseeing the work of others. Organizations, however, that try to force today's reality into yesterday's management styles will seriously lay on the line the viability of their enterprise. Beyond the challenge of creating a humane working environment where management and staff of diverse backgrounds and experiences learn to appreciate each other, brings additional one of changing the structural arrangements.

THE CONCEPT OF MULTICULTURALISM

Multiculturalism is the cultural diversity of communities and the policies that promote this diversity. As a descriptive term, multiculturalism is the simple fact of cultural diversity and the demographic make-up of a specific place, sometimes at the organizational level, schools, businesses, neighbourhoods, cities, or nations. As a prescriptive term, multiculturalism encourages ideologies and policies that promote this diversity or its institutionalization. Kevin Bloor (2010).

Multiculturalism is a system of beliefs and behaviours that recognizes and respects the presence of all diverse groups in an organization or society, acknowledges and values their socio-cultural differences, and encourages and enables their continued contribution within a complete cultural context which empowers all within the organization or society.

One also needs to understand that there are number of factors which determine the issues of managing multiculturalism especially in relation to organizations. Specific cultural traits which individuals develop as a result of socialization process embedded in their own country's culture is one such factor. Managing cultural diversity in organization perhaps lies in understanding and unleashing the moral commitment on these different subcultures that are consistent with those of the organization. A research by the well-known theorist Geert Hofstede has concluded with the help of Geert Hofstede Model (1990) that societies may differ along four major cultural dimensions: Power distance is the degree to which society accepts inequalities in organizational relationship. The concept assumes that ethical or unethical behaviour in organizations is learnt through the process of interacting with peers rather than the superior. The practical implications stemming from the results of the application of this concept is that, in cultures where the degree of power distance is low or moderate, individual look more to their peers than to their superiors for guidance in terms of ethical conduct.

Uncertainty avoidance is the degree to which Individuals in a society feel threatened by situations that is unstructured, unclear or unpredictable. Due to differential norms and conducts of behaviour or the absences of formalized codes of conduct in a given culture, individuals may experience ambiguity in organizations when faced with different culture and value system. it has been found that individual from high uncertainty avoidance cultures are more likely to consider organizational code of ethics when forming their own de-ontological norms than those hailing from low uncertainty avoidance cultures.

Individualism is the extent to which individuals in a society view themselves as individuals or a part of a large group. The concept assumes that ethical or unethical behaviour in organizations is sometimes determined by the extent to which individual consider the group as being more important than themselves or vice-versa. Hence employees from individualistic culture propelled by their own self interest will tend to be influenced less organizational code of ethics. Masculinity is the extent to which a society's dominant values stress assertiveness and materialism versus concern for people and quality of life. The concept assumes that individuals from highly masculine cultures may be less likely than those from highly feminine cultures to be to be influenced by organizational codes of ethics.

STEPS TO MANAGE MULTICULTURALISM

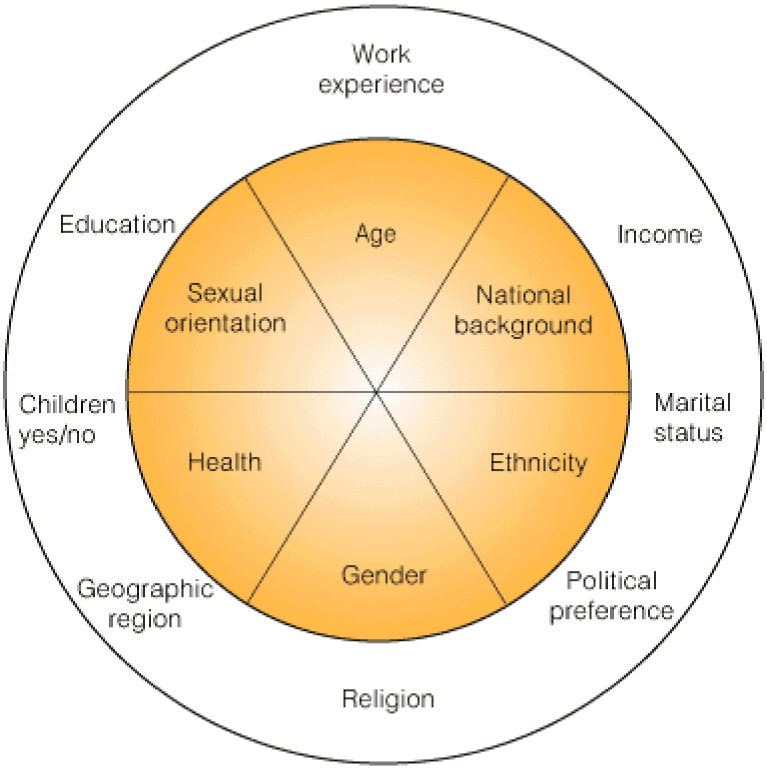
1. Recruitment and selection must be performance based
2. Training and development on cross-cultural differences
3. Developing group harmony
4. Distribute power according to each person's ability to contribute to the task
5. Reduce ethnic stereotypes
6. Empower group decision making

Today's employment pool is dramatically different than in the past. A sole uniform group no longer dominates that. People now devastatingly represent the labour force pool from a vast array of background and life experiences. It has become now a resource vital for companies to have a diversified pool of talent. That's why Organizations are becoming increasingly diverse in terms of gender, race, ethnicity, and nationality.

UNDERSTANDING DIVERSITY

Merriam Webster (2010) defines diversity as the inclusion of a variety of individuals differing in race, gender, or culture in a group or organization. Variety constitutes some inherent degree of uniqueness; a noticeable difference from others, which allows for new, potentially unconventional problem evaluation, constructive disagreement, and the deriving of new solutions and approaches to persistent challenges. Workforce Diversity has changed in recent year's .Not long ago, diversity referred to a person's gender or ethnic group. Diversity today encompasses age, tenure in an organization, educational background, sexual orientation or preference, physical abilities or qualities and social status, economic status, lifestyle, ethnicity and gender among many other characteristics.

FIG. 1



Source: http://www.sqaki.com/3/DiversityDimensions/screenshot.gif

Usually speaking, the term "employees Diversity" refers to policies and practices that seek to include people within workers who are considered to be, in some way, different from those in the prevailing constituency. While most organizations will acknowledge the importance of diversity in business considerations, the full potential of a diverse workforce appears to have not yet been leveraged and exploited. Such suboptimal use may branch from organization's general level of uncertainty of how to best quantify diversity related reward within the circumstance of typical business oriented key performance indicators, such as turnover, innovation and product development.

Organizations that mange their miscellaneous workforce can augment their productivity considerably through many ways. Cultural diversity describes a social system comprising people with distinctly different group affiliations of cultural significance (Amaram, 2007). Organizations that manage their diverse workforce can amplify their output through Social Responsibility, Legal Requirement, marketing Strategy, and Improved Management Quality.

Kochan and colleagues (2002) found that, the predominant psychological concepts behind diversity initiatives revolve around two main principles. The first centres on recognizing, understanding, and overcoming in-group-out-group dynamics, while the second aims to improve attribution and the resulting attitudinal behavioural linkages of the majority group. Workplace related in group dynamics occurs whenever the cohesion of an existing group is challenged by the arrival of some type of foreign, outside influence.

With possibly only limited exposure to diverse employees and their individual idiosyncrasies, majority group members may trust in, and provide more attention to their in-kind colleagues, which thus forms the in-group. Such dynamics carry the high potential for discrimination and suboptimal utilization of group member's diverse knowledge, skills, and abilities (Tesluk & Mathieu, 1999) Dass and Parker (1999) outline the three most common strategic responses; each of them ultimately rooted in the particular organizational culture and the resultant values, beliefs, and behaviour.

Leveraging diversity's benefits therefore seems to require a group's commitment to collectively (rather than individual-competitively) achieve optimal results, a principled leadership, and the flexibility to re evaluate, revise, and implement decisions based on newly discovered alternatives (Bassett-Jones, 2005).

As showcased by Bassett-Jones (2005) diversity effects on group cohesion and concert are influenced by an organization's inherent strategic negotiation between continuous innovation, and maintaining its social identity.

MANAGING DIVERSITY

As Robinson and Dechant (1997) state, organizational performance is directly related to team and subsequently to individual performance, as the sum of both ultimately defines the long-term financial standing and operational success. The first dimension of total quality dimension, focused on the individual, is the horizontal dimension concerned with embracing and valuing differences. This area is of tremendous importance, since staff and administration that do not get along, nor understand each other, are not able to maximize their greatest potential for optimal excellence. Here is where workshops on prejudice, cultural awareness, cross-cultural communication and conflict resolution are most helpful.

Second dimension, focused on the institution, is the vertical dimension fretful with harnessing and empowering diversity, the area that deals not only with corporate culture and construction, the way tasks are divided to accomplish the mission of the company, but also with thinking systems. This dimension holds the key to effecting the greatest change in a company, for it is here where exclusion finds it most comfortable home.

But change must be more than merely surface, such as totalling diverse looking inhabitants to the business. It must also examine in what ways the vision, values; mission and corporate structure of the corporation contribute or undermine effective utilization of the assets all persons bring to a work environment. Change at both of these dimensions results in Cultural Inclusion at the centre, where "living diversity" takes place. Wright, Ferris, Hiller, and Kroll (1995) compared companies with exemplary diversity management to those that had to pay legal damages to settle discrimination lawsuits.

This holistic model of managing diversity is called total quality diversity. Sketch the essential idea of quality from W. Edward Deming, who popularized the idea of quality, total quality management, the model goes beyond Deming, in that diversity was never an aspect of his model, largely because he worked for many years in Japan, a most homogeneous society. The total quality diversity model shows how prohibiting, as the model of the past, has been replaced by inclusion, the coming together at the centre of the vision-values-mission of the organization in Cultural enclosure. Dr. W. Edwards Deming taught that by adopting appropriate principles of management, organizations can increase quality and simultaneously reduce costs (by reducing waste, rework, staff attrition and litigation while increasing customer value). The key is to practice continual improvement and think of manufacturing as a system, not as bits and pieces.

CONCLUSION

Managing multiculturalism and diversity is an challenging aspect as well as innovative process .For whichever of these reasons that motivates them, it is clear that companies that diversify their workforces will have a distinct competitive advantage over other companies. Further, it is clear that the greatest benefits of workforce diversity will be experienced, not by the companies that have learned to employ people *in spite of* their differences, but by the companies that have learned to employ people because of knowledge and experiences in diverse areas. Integrating philosophy of total quality management into management of multiculturalism and diversity adds advantage to understand the employee's values, beliefs and ethical approaches. In Short management philosophies and practices are ethnically conditioned; it stands to the reason that there is much to be gained by including cultural studies in all executive or professional development. Diversity training must be provided for all employees in organization to deal with cultural, ethnic and knowledge diversity.

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INFLUENCE OF JOB SATISFACTION ON THE QUALITY OF TEACHING

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ABSTRACT

Teacher job satisfaction is of very high importance as it is the reason for educational growth. The longer a teacher remains the more comfortable and devote they become. It should be noted that teacher job satisfaction and education quality are not necessarily complementary objectives. Especially those measures ensuring control and incentive related working conditions for teachers, significantly increase student achievement while reducing teacher job satisfaction.

KEYWORDS
job satisfaction, teaching quality.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching is one of those things that nearly everybody thinks he or she can do better than the experts. Everybody has taught something to somebody at one time or another, after all. We begin our amateur teaching careers as children by imposing our superior knowledge on our younger siblings or playmates. As students, we pass judgement among our peers on this or that teacher's capabilities. As adults, those of us who do not teach professionally stand ever ready to criticize those who do. Teaching is a creative act, never more so than in primary and secondary schools. Because teaching is challenging often with expectations from administrators, supervisors, parents, politicians, not to mention children, teacher burnout and so stress related problems is a reality for part of the workforce. And when one's teaching is done under stress it is to be noted that it depletes the quality of teaching. As the success of children who are hungry to learn depends upon quality of teacher. So it necessitates to ensure job satisfaction of teachers as, teaching is one of those rare jobs in which one's work is wrapped up in one's personality.

Job satisfaction is termed as the positive emotional response to a job resulting from attaining what the employee wants from the job. Job satisfaction gives us motivation and helps us become more optimistic no matter what challenge we may face at work. It encourages workers to always give their best shot in everything they do. In addition, a person who is truly satisfied with his or her career life helps create a more positive work environment. Workers who have job satisfaction can help boost the morale of his or her co-employees and will encourage them to be optimistic about their job. It is generally perceived to be directly linked to productivity as well as to personal wellbeing. Job satisfaction implies doing a job one enjoys, doing it well, and being suitably rewarded for one's efforts. Job satisfaction further implies enthusiasm and happiness with one's work. The Harvard Professional Group (1998) sees job satisfaction as the keying radiant that leads to recognition, income, promotion, and the achievement of other goals that lead to a general feeling of fulfilment.

Teacher's job satisfaction, while difficult to define, may be even more difficult to measure. Determinants of job satisfaction are known to vary according to gender, age, experience, and position, and defining job satisfaction for teachers involves many wide-ranging differences as to what contributes to job satisfaction . While teachers' feelings about certain aspects of their jobs strongly affect their decisions to stay in teaching or leave the profession, it becomes clear that an understanding of teacher job satisfaction is important . Minarik, Thornton, and Perreault (2003) indicate that the ever increasing attrition of teachers due to job dissatisfaction has depleted human capital, disrupted instructional programs, inhibited student learning, and increased operational costs. Significant increases in the attrition rates of teachers have increasingly become a major barrier to continuous school improvement.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Many studies have revealed that Job Satisfaction of teachers and quality of teaching has a good deal of link.

Anna F.Lobosco and Dianna L.Newman (1992) studied 'Teaching Special Needs Populations and Teacher Job Satisfaction'. Teachers' perceptions of their jobs are strongly related to their perceptions of their students. This article confirms what one might expect: Working with students who are gifted and talented positively predicts job satisfaction, whereas working with students who have learning difficulties has a negative effect. Yet teachers 'self-reports of general job satisfaction reverse when asked about how the reality of their teaching experience compares to ideal conditions.

Zembylas, Michalinos; Papanastasiou, Elena (2004) studied 'Job satisfaction among school teachers in Cyprus'. The research report examines job satisfaction and motivation among teachers in Cyprus – a small developing country in the Eastern Mediterranean. The findings showed that, unlike other countries in which this questionnaire was used, Cypriot teachers chose this career because of the salary, the hours, and the holidays associated with this profession. The study analyzes how these motives influence the level of satisfaction held by the Cypriot teachers.

Ronit (2001) studied 'The Influence of Leadership Style on Teacher Job Satisfaction'. This study disclosed the effects of principals' leadership style (transformational or transactional), principals' decision-making strategy (autocratic versus participative), and teachers' occupation perceptions on teacher satisfaction from the job. More specifically, it attempts to find out how much of the variation in teachers' job satisfaction can be attributed to their perceptions of their occupation, as compared to their perceptions about their principals' leadership style and decision-making strategy. The most salient finding was that teachers' occupation perceptions strongly affected their satisfaction. Principals' transformational leadership affected teachers' satisfaction both directly and indirectly through their occupation perceptions. Implications of the study are discussed in relation to supervisors and principals, as well as to policy makers at the government level.

Judith Kleinfeld; G. Williamson and Mc.Diarmid, (1986) studied The Job Satisfaction of Alaska's Isolated Rural Teachers with their work life'. These teachers are highly satisfied about their relationship with students and their pay benefits. Large numbers of teachers are dissatisfied, however, with community amenities, their students' academic progress, and especially, school district management. Most of these teachers teach in Indian and Eskimo villages; yet they feel that inter organizational relationships with the district office cause them more stress than cross-cultural relationships with the students and community. The conclusions of the study stated that Alaska's rural teachers to express satisfaction with their pay and benefits and to express discontent with the hardships of living in isolated Native villages without many amenities. Similarly, the number of teachers who express dissatisfaction with the distant district office was unexpected.

Chung-Lim Ho and Wing-Tung Au of Chinese University of Hong Kong (2006) studied 'Teaching Satisfaction Scale' to measure Job Satisfaction of Teachers in China. In the present study proposes a teaching satisfaction measure and examines the validity of its scores. As hypothesized, teaching satisfaction as measured by the TSS correlated positively with self-esteem but negatively with psychological distress and teaching stress. The TSS scores had good incremental validity for psychological distress and teaching stress beyond earlier Job Satisfaction Scales. The TSS offers a simple, direct, reliable, and valid assessment of teaching satisfaction.

Clemence, S.M. (1989) found that role conflict affected job satisfaction of women teachers but social dimension of value influenced their job satisfaction rather favourably.

Ray, S. (1992) concluded that the mental health of teachers was positively correlated with job satisfaction and attitude towards pupils.

Reddy B.P., (1989) in his study found that over-qualified primary schoolteachers had low job satisfaction while teachers younger in age had higher level of job satisfaction, which had positive correlation with attitude towards teaching and job involvement.

So all these studies has stated the relevance of Job Satisfaction for teachers in order to improve quality of teaching and also reveals that many teachers leave their jobs as a result of job dissatisfaction. Several researchers have concluded that job satisfaction is affected by factors such as administrative support, teacher induction, collegiality, community support, students, working conditions, teacher preparation, rewards, and staff development.

And also we should know that, the concept of Job Satisfaction is not limited to corporate sector, but covers all the sectors, where there is involvement of the employees and workers. Here the study is been conducted to examine the Job Satisfaction of Higher Secondary Teachers from Thrissur district.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Job satisfaction plays a significant role in all sectors. It refers to the feelings of the individuals towards its work. It is measured through the contentment the worker under goes. The satisfaction level reflects the input of the worker. The keystone in the educational sector is doubtless the teacher. On them depends much more than any other, the progress and prosperity of children. Nobody can effectively take their place or influence children in the manner and to the degree; it is possible, for them alone to do. Here comes the importance of satisfaction level of teachers in their job. The profession becomes frustrating and stressful when they have to deal with large class strength, immense work load, unmotivated perks, less recognition, no conducive environment, frequent change in curriculum etc., So here a study is made to know how the job satisfaction affects the teaching quality of teachers.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To identify the criteria that satisfies most in the teaching profession.
2. To identify the measures used by the educational institutions to enhance the quality of teaching.
3. To find out the reasons for resisting frequent change in curriculum

METHODOLOGY

Sample Design: 100 samples were selected from different Higher Secondary schools from Thrissur district. Only Government Schools were considered for the study. 10 schools were selected for the according to the convenience. The selected schools are: GVHSS, Ollur; GHSS, Anchery; GMGHSS, Thrissur; GHSS, Ayanthole; GVHSSM Cherpu; GMHSS for Boys ,Thrissur; GHSS, Villadom; GSRVSS, Velur; Model Boy's HSS, Vadakanchery; GHSS, Peechi.

Data Collection: Primary data was collected through questionnaire. The secondary data was collected from journals, book, magazines, records and websites.

Tools used: Simple percentage was used for presenting the data.

ANALYSIS OF THE STUDY

PROFILE SAMPLE

A sample of 100 teachers was taken from different schools.

1) ***Gender categorisation:***

Female teachers: 78
Male teachers: 22

2) ***Age categorisation:***

25-30- 20
30-35- 25
35-40 - 43
40-45 - 12

3) ***Subject categorisation***

Commerce teachers- 30
Science teachers- 30
Humanities teachers - 20
English teachers- 10
Language teachers- 10

TABLE NO.1: SHOWING REASONS FOR CHOICE OF THE PROFESSION

Sl.No.	Particulars	No. of teachers	%
1	Highly Respected Profession	50	50
2	Love for Children	7	7
3	Better Working Conditions	13	13
4	Better Salary and Secured Job	20	20
5	Due to passion in teaching	7	7
6	Joined accidentally	3	3
7	Other reasons	_	_

Source: Collected from Primary data.

TABLE NO.2: SHOWING THE SATISFACTION LEVEL OF TEACHERS REGARDING THE MEASURES USED BY THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS TO ENHANCE THE QUALITY OF TEACHING

Criteria	Responses					
	Satisfied		Partially satisfied		Dissatisfied	
	No.s	%	No.s	%	No.s	%
Performance Evaluation	54	54	23	23	23	23
Promotional Procedure	53	53	10	10	37	37
Orientation Programs	37	37	37	37	26	26
Recognition & Appreciation for the work done	57	57	13	13	30	30

Source: Collected from Primary data.

TABLE NO.3: TABLE SHOWING THE REASON FOR RESISTING FREQUENT CHANGES IN CURRICULUM

Sl. No.	Reasons	No.of teachers	%
1	Effecting the quality of teaching	33	33
2	lack of time for major retraining	38	38
3	Lot of time required for preparation	23	23
4	Due to fear and suspicion	6	6

Source: Collected from Primary data.

FINDINGS

On the basis of Table no.1 it can be seen that majority of teachers have chosen this profession because it is considered to be a highly respected profession. And also this profession is considered to be very well secured and well paid. Better working condition is another factor for choosing this profession. The important factor in teaching is actually the “children” who are actually given less importance. Only 7% of the teachers have selected this profession due to love for children.

Table no.2 illustrates that most of the teachers are satisfied with the performance evaluation done by their respective institutions and also agree that these evaluation results has formed the basis for their promotional procedures. As well proper recognition and appreciation is been given for the work done. But there are teachers who are not happy with evaluation and promotional procedures of their institution, as they claim that the results are been biased according to the institutional interest. Well regarding the orientation program conducted by the institution opinion is somewhat stands in between as some are satisfied well some not.

Table no.3 shows the reason why teachers resist frequent change in curriculum. The main reason portrayed by them is lack of enough time for proper training. Proper training is not been provided regarding how the subjects are to be handled, what teaching methods need to be adopted. Most of the teachers are of the opinion that a rash training is being given just to show that necessary training is provided about the changed curriculum. And also teachers claim that , change in curriculum affects quality of their teaching as it takes time for them to understand the changed system of education. Apart from this , it also creates an overburden on them as a good time need to be spent for the preparation. Only 6% resisted due to fear and suspicion. And the fear was mainly due to the above mentioned reasons itself.

CONCLUSION

Job satisfaction plays a significant role in every job, whether it is a corporate sector or any other. Where ever there is presence of human in a job, the need arises to satisfy them in order to achieve whatever being desired by the employer. So to say, job satisfaction is an important factor in teaching sector also. As only a satisfied teacher can give up to their maximum. Teachers play an eminent role in moulding the future of the students. So the institutions are to take necessary steps to not only increase the satisfaction level of teachers but also to maintain it.

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OPTIMAL PETROLEUM FISCAL REGIME IN JOINT DEVELOPMENT ZONES: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF NIGERIA-SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE JDZ AND MALAYSIA-THAILAND JDA

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ABSTRACT
This study investigates and compares the petroleum fiscal regime of two joint development zones (JDZs). The study adopted descriptive comparative analysis method to determine the optimal fiscal system among the Nigeria-Sao Tome and Principe JDZ and Malaysia-Thailand JDA. This involves the use of cross-national comparative analysis to identify differences in the fiscal regimes of the two JDZs. The results of variation on the variables studied suggest that Nigeria-Sao Tome JDZ fiscal regime is more optimal, and hence offers a favourable condition for oil and gas projects, with less effect on Net Present Value (NPV) than Malaysia-Thailand JDA. The results provide some important findings that could assist policy formulation aimed at encouraging the viability of oil and gas projects, and attractiveness of optimal petroleum fiscal regime to both oil companies as well as joint authorities.

KEYWORDS
Joint Development Authority, Joint Development Zone, Production Sharing Contract.

1. BACKGROUND
The maritime boundary delimitation has for long become a major issue in the international relations for economic reasons (Dobronravin, 2009). The non-renewable resources located in the seabed of continental shelf has promotes territorial disputes among neighbouring states, and also give way to the new grate games. The introduction of the United Nation Convention on the Law of Sea (UNCLOS) in 1982, which was put into force in 1994, provides a means of international co-operations and diplomacy for seabed delimitations. This has provided international regulation for understanding and delimitating of petroleum resources claims between countries sharing borders. Accordingly, the UNCLOS has given rise to growing bilateral agreements amongst neighbouring oil-rich countries around the world. To this extent, about 24 bilateral agreements have been signed among different countries around the world (Tonnesson, 1999). These agreements are technically referred to as joint development of maritime resources (Ong, 1999 and Miyoshi, 1999). The states that reach joint development agreement set up what is commonly referred to as Joint Development Zone (JDZ) for the exploration and exploitation of hydrocarbon resources in the shared zone (Biang, 2010). Moreover, a designated joint authority is formed to execute the contracts on behalf of the benefitting states (Kuyen, 2006 and Tiny, 2005). Some of these joint developments includes; Japan-Republic of Korea Agreement for JDZ 1974, Malaysia-Thailand Memorandum of Understanding for the Joint Development Area (JDA) 1979 and Nigeria-Sao Tome and Principe Treaty Agreement for the JDZ 2001.

The joint development zones like any other oil producing states usually adopt the petroleum fiscal regime to be used in administering the petroleum exploration, development and production in the zone. Hence, the fiscal systems employed by JDZs range from concession to contractual with the aim of achieving equitable share of production by parties to the contracts (Kaiser and Publisher, 2004). However, due to the conflicting objectives of the parties to the joint development contracts, the choice of a petroleum fiscal system adopted by the JDZs may not be optimal after all (Bindemann, 1999). In this regard, different oil-rich countries adopt different fiscal systems for their operations depending largely on the peculiarities of the country. Further, many oil-rich countries have over the years altered some of their fiscal terms so as to be in tune with unfolding industry and economic realities. Hence, there may be no perfect fiscal regime suitable for all petroleum producing countries all the time (Davis, 2003). As a result, countries often time compare their fiscal regimes with those of their peers in order to upgrade or change to other systems as the case may be. It is in the lights of this, that this research attempt to compare the fiscal regimes of the Nigeria-Sao Tome and Principe Joint Development Zone (NSPJDZ) and Malaysia-Thailand Joint Development Area (MTJDA). Having compared the two, this study aims to address:

"Which of the fiscal regime of Nigeria-Sao Tome and Principe JDZ and Malaysia-Thailand JDA is more optimal"?

In order to address the aim of the study, the research collected data from relevant secondary sources such as books, journals, organisational reports, research papers, newspapers and most importantly treaty of the two joint development zones (see Section 5). The next sections discuss on joint development zones involved in this study.

2. NIGERIA-SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE JOINT DEVELOPMENT ZONE
In 2001, Nigeria considered a joint development agreement with São Tomé and Príncipe on their acclaimed overlapping maritime boundary. Hence, the Nigeria-São Tomé and Príncipe Joint Development Zone was established. The two heads of states signed the Treaty in respect of the zone, on 21st February 2001; which was later ratified by the two states' National Assemblies. The Treaty was intended to be a guide for the governance of petroleum and other resources in all areas of the economic zone. The total area of the zone is estimated at about 35,000 Sq km. The most significant clause in the treaty stipulates that costs and benefits, arising during the course of operational activities in the zone, are to be shared between Nigeria and São Tomé and Príncipe 60/40 percent respectively (JDA, 2010). So far, literature showed that the NSTP-JDZ is one of the most successful zone around the globe compared to its contemporaries (Biang, 2010). A number of achievements were recorded right from the establishment of the zone, these include: signing and ratification of the Treaty by the respective legislatures of the two countries within a short period of time; inauguration of the joint development authority in January; 2002, and the successful bids of 2003 and 2005 which generated a signature bonus of about US$123 and US$200 respectively among others (Vines, 2010 and Berman, 2005). Indeed, these could be classed as achievements considering the length of time the Malaysia-Thailand agreement took to be actualised. Again, despite all their economic and political differences, the two states managed their disputes and eventually agreed to explore the resources for the mutual benefit of their people.

3. MALAYSIA-THAILAND JOINT DEVELOPMENT AREA
The Malaysia-Thailand Joint Development Area (MTJDA) has approximately 7,300 kilometres square of the continental shelf claimed by two the countries, which is located in the Gulf of Thailand (MTJA, 2010). The JDA is reportedly holds 9.5 trillion cubic feats (EIA, 2009). The two countries signed the Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) in 1979, and agreed to jointly explore and develop the natural resources in the area for the period of 50 years (Thao, 1999). However, the

countries agreed to share the resources on equal basis (50:50). In 1990 the joint states review their joint development issues and introduced MTJA Act which includes legal provision for oil and gas activities in the area. In 1991 Malaysia-Thailand Joint Authority (JMTA) was created by the joint states, to assume right and responsibilities on behalf of the two governments. However, The MTJDA approved the fiscal regime in a form of PSC to administer the petroleum exploration, development and production in the area (MTJA, 2010). Besides the successful creation of JDZ, the Joint Authority will then engage into petroleum contracts with oil companies. Hence, the petroleum and tax regulations are employed in order to address the rules and principles applicable to oil and gas operation in the zone. Petroleum regime include; leasing, licensing and contracting; rent and royalty; accounting procedure, environmental protection and the right and obligation. The tax regulation also set the procedures and rules regarding the payment, calculation and charges of taxes (Tiny, 2005).

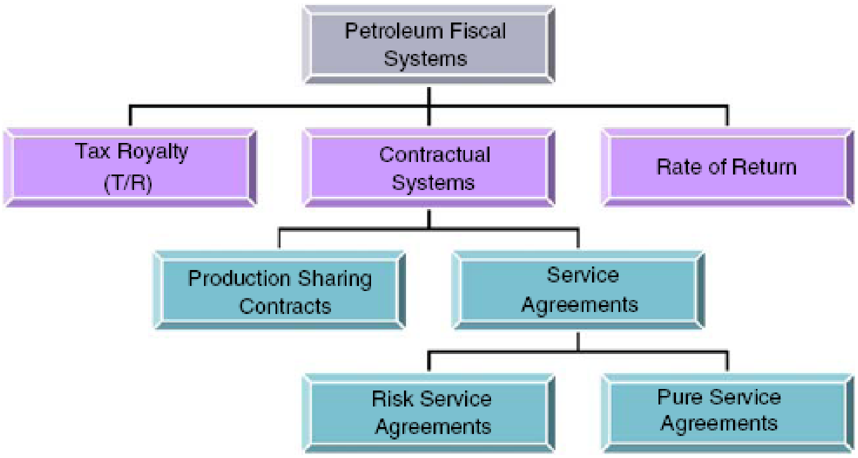
The Malaysia and Thailand have different fiscal system operation in the countries. Malaysia adopted PSC regime as opposed to Thailand concessionary system. Thus, the formation of MTJDA encountered delay in negotiations of fiscal arrangement due to structural differences in petroleum contracts used in the joint development area (Yerwa, 2003). However, with the approval of both states, MTJA Act 1990 empowered MTJA to award contracts for the oil and gas exploration and exploitation in a form of PSC (MTJA, 2010). The provision of the MTJA Act 1990 include; petroleum development regime, financial arrangement and the custom and taxation arrangement in the JDA (Ong, 1999). The 1979 MoU agreed to employ bonus system used in Thailand concessionary system to the MTJDA, where the signature bonus (also called Informative Bonus) is paid per Block upon signing of contract to the MTJA. However the contract pays production bonus (also called Annual Bonus). Though this bonus system was abundant from the Thailand fiscal system, but the MTJA adopted it for the purpose of JDA. The oil companies pay a fixed rate royalty at gross production to MTJA, deduct cost recovery and share the profit oil with MTJA. The contractor enjoys tax holiday for some years of their first operation and later charged tax in subsequent years. Furthermore, MTJA employ other fiscal term that support their petroleum operation, this includes export duty. All the payment made by the oil companies and the profit oil gain from the JDA to the MTJA are thereby shared by Malaysia and Thailand in equal proportion.

4. PETROLEUM FISCAL REGIME

The petroleum fiscal regime is essentially deal with upstream petroleum exploration, development and production (Mommer, 1990). The components of fiscal regimes are usually found dispersed in different policies, laws and contracts, which balance the interest of both host country and the oil companies. Fiscal regime has been developed to address the rights and obligation of host country and the private investors. This involved the conditions under which government grant FOCs right to explore, develop and produce oil and gas in accordance with legal, regulatory and fiscal frameworks. However, the purpose of fiscal regime is to secure the owner of natural resources the proper ground rate, and the investors' proper profit.

The petroleum fiscal regime has become the most important tool used by governments in maintaining its abundant oil and gas resources (Kjemperud, 2004). It is noted that the issues under fiscal system and also the petroleum arrangements such as legislations, tax and contractual issues varies between countries. Certainly, numerous vintages and negotiation of terms are involved in the any petroleum contracts (Van Meurs, 2008). Countries with vast non-renewable resources try to attain the highest possible benefits by adopting the different fiscal devises for oil and gas operation in their countries. Furthermore, varieties of these petroleum arrangements include Concessions or Tax/Royalty, contractual and lately Rate of Return (ROR) (Blake, 1996; Gallun, 2005; Kaiser and Publisher, 2004). The contractual fiscal system is further divided into PSC and Risk Service Contract (RSC), while the RSC is further subdivided into Risk and Pure service contracts. Figure 1 below shows these classifications. Despite the differences in the level of control exercise by host government, compensation arrangement and the ownership right, both systems can be used to accomplish the same purpose (Blake and Robert, 2006).

FIGURE 1: UPSTREAM PETROLEUM FISCAL SYSTEMS



Source: Blake and Robert, 2006.

For the reason that this research considers only two JDZs who adopted PSC model of contract, the study gives more emphasis on PSC, its frameworks and fiscal instruments.

4.1 PRODUCTION SHARING CONTRACT

The Production Sharing Contract/Agreement (PSA) permits FOCs to operate under agreed terms, and all decisions regarding petroleum activities are made together with host country (Johnson, 2003). Bonnerfoy et al. (2006) notes that the host government decide to retain ownership of mineral right as well as the decision making and managerial right over oil and gas exploration and production activities. Because the oil and gas mineral right is vested in the state, also all production facilities are usually owned by the state (Lawal, 2009).

Johnson (2003 p.356) defined PSC as "a contractual agreement between a contractor and host government whereby contractor bear all exploration cost and risk and development and production cost in return for a stipulated share of the production from this effort". Under the Joint development arrangement, PSC is used subject to bilateral negotiations and treaty agreement between the joint states (Bulama, 2007). In addition, the joint authority who assigned to operate activities in the JDZ engages into petroleum contracts with contractor (Oil Company). Oil and gas resources produced from the zone are shared between the concerned states as clearly defined in the contract agreement. However, the agreements in the petroleum contracts are subject to changes based on renegotiations to reflect changes in economic and political conditions (Al-Attar and Alomair, 2005).

Bindemann (1999) reports numerous provisions in PSCs spelling the duties of government and the contractor such as state participation in the operation, pricing, work program issues, payment policies etc. However, this study is concerned with PSCs provisions on royalty, cost recovery, profit oil and income tax:

a) **Royalty**; the petroleum regulation requires operator to pay royalty to the mineral interest owner for oil and gas production in the area. Royalty is a specified percentage of oil and gas produced from the field (Gallun et al. 2005).
b) **Cost Recovery**; operator recover some portion of its costs at a pre-specified percentage of oil and gas production, which is referred to as *Cost Oil* (Johnson, 2003).

c) **Profit Oil Split**; the profit oil which is net oil production/revenue after royalty and cost oil have been deducted is divided between the host government and FOC (Akinwumi, 2008).

d) **Taxes**: it is pure economic rent on profit gain from the oil and gas operation. The tax oil rate is applicable to each PSC which will be charged from the profit oil for the duration of the contract according to the tax regulations (Tiny, 2005).

e) **Ring Fencing**: it is a situation where host government will not allow oil companies to consolidate the operation of the specific license with another.

Generally, host countries give more emphasis to profit oil, as is the net revue after all necessary deductions. To this effect, Bindemann (1999) earlier explained the mode sharing profit oil and he posited that the sharing can be fixed or sliding scale basis. He notes the two common ways through which sliding scale are made based on the R-Factor or daily production. Table 1 and 2 present examples of two sliding scales used in Indonesia and Azerbaijan.

TABLE 1: PROFIT OIL SLIDING SCALE IN INDONESIA

Average Daily Production (barrel)	National Oil Companies (%)	FOCs (%)
0 – 50,000	61.5385	38.4615
50,000 – 150,000	71.1538	28.8462
> 150,000	80.7692	19.2308

Source: Bindemann, 1999.

TABLE 2: PROFIT OIL SLIDING SCALE IN AZERBAIJAN

R-Factor	NOC (%)	FOC (%)
R < 1.50	50	50
1.50 < R < 2.00	60	40
2.00 < R < 2.25	62.5	37.5
2.25 < R < 2.50	65	35
2.50 < R < 2.75	70	30
2.75 < R < 3.00	75	25
3.00 < R < 3.25	80	20
3.25 < R < 3.50	85	15
R > 3.50	90	10

Source: Bindemann, 1999.

From Table 1 and 2, the various level of profit oil goes to the FOCs vary depending on the way it calculated. The Indonesian system permit FOC share to receive 61.5385 percent if it produce 50,000 barrel of oil. However, the system used in Azerbaijan determines the R-Factor, which is the ratio of the accumulative revenue to total expenses. These methods according to Binbemann (1999) provide flexibility to contracts. It is also noted that the government take will increase when the profitability increases. Bindemann (1999) highlighted that the profit oil calculation using R-Factor sliding scale presents high Internal Rate of Return (IRR) than volume-based system.

Zhang (1997) studies the effect of tax regime in gas project. In this view, the tax imposed on petroleum production may distort the exploration and development of oil and gas fields. He notes specifically that deduction of contractor's revenue through economic rent significantly exhausts the capital expenditure of oil production available to recoup. The tax rate provides profit oil to the state which carefully avoids the obstructing free flow of investments (Mornrner, 1999). In his study, Bindemann (1999) found that a tax incentive such as tax holidays offers for some years of the contract may attract further investments, and also allow FOCs to deplete their reserves as quickly as possible in the tax-free time. Okobi (2008) compares analysis the fiscal regime of Venezuela and Alberta Canada. Her findings indicates that Alberta have a downward trend as against the high tax rate charges in Venezuela. It is further notes that the cost recovery in Venezuela is slower and therefore riskier, and also discourages investments and reinvestments.

5. RESEARCH APPROACH

This research employs the cross-national comparative methodology in order to fit the objective of the study, to determine the differences of the fiscal regime used in NSTPJDZ and MTJDA. The variables used in this research are selected from a number of fiscal instruments used in the PSCs. These variables are mainly Royalty; Cost Recovery, Profit Oil, Petroleum Tax, and others (any additional variable established in the fiscal regime by the Joint Authority is referred to as others).

a. First the analysis looks at the differences of the "***Royalty***" charges in percentages, and provides their implications in the contract. The analysis noted the royalty that have significantly affects the oil and gas operations in the joint development.

b. The analysis compares the "***Cost Recovery***" Ceilings. Cost recovery allows oil companies to recoup their investment cost from oil and gas produced in the zone. The analysis provides the fiscal regime that has impact on the remaining oil and gas available to split between the contracting parties. And also determines the possibility for the investors to recover their cost quickly from the project.

c. The examination shows the difference in "***Profit Oil Split***" between the Joint Authorities and the oil companies also in percentages. The result shows the fiscal system that presents a favourable operating environment. This includes minimal impact on contractor take in a low oil price situation.

d. The "***Petroleum Tax***" of the two systems was compared. The result offers the neutral tax regime that presents a low level of risk in the operating zone. The neutral tax has less effect on investors' behaviour, and therefore encourages investments.

e. New variables introduced by joint development are collectively called "***Others***" in this research. The analysis examines the new variables that are essential to the regimes, and critically the research look at their importance in the system.

In general, through this comparative analysis, the study attempts to understand the differences of the aforementioned variables in NSTPJDZ and MTJDA, and determine the more optimal in respect of oil and gas operations.

6. DATA ANALYSIS

This section presents the analyses of data particularly the critical examination of fiscal regimes adopted in Nigeria-Sao Tome and Principe JDZ and the Malaysia-Thailand JDA. The analyses mainly compare the fiscal regime of NSTPJDZ and MTJDA based on the following variables: royalty, cost recovery, profit oil, petroleum tax and others.

6.1 ROYALTY

The royalty rate is imposed in the contract by the Joint Authority and the contractor pays a certain percentage of oil and gas produced from the zone. Table 3 below shows the royalty rate charged in the two joint development zones.

TABLE 3: ROYALTY RATES

	Nigeria-STP JDZ	Malaysia-Thailand JDA
Royalty	Maximum of 5 percent	10 percent

Source: NSTPJDA (2010); MTJA (2010)

From the table above, MTJDA has 10 percent fixed royalty rate payable by contractor at gross rate of production for remittance to the joint states. The NSTPJDZ imposed royalty using sliding scale method based on daily production, with a maximum of 5 percent royalty oil. However, the royalty is excluded in gas production in the zone. The formula for royalty charges in NSTPJDZ is presented in table 4.

TABLE 4: ROYALTY SLIDING SCALE IN NSTPJDZ

Average Production Rate (mbopd)	Royalty Rate
< 20	0%
20 – 70	5% * (1 – [(70 – P) / (70 - 20)])
> 70	5%
Where P = Actual Production (mbopd) Mbopd = Thousand Barrels of Oil Per Day	

Source; (Gomes, 2003)

Table 4 showed that, contractor pays 0 percent royalty if produced <20 mbopd. And for every oil production 20-70 mbopd, contractor pays a considerable royalty rate which is below 5 percent. However, if oil produced exceeds 70 mbopd, the royalty charge is 5 percent.

From the information presented above of the two royalty systems, the MTJDA 10 percent royalty makes it insensitive to oil production and eventually regressive compared with NSTPJDZ. This is because the MTJA take would be higher during slow production. On the other hand, the royalty rate of NSTPJDZ permits JDA take to increase through sliding scale.

6.2. COST RECOVERY

Cost recovery allows contractor to recover all cost associated with oil and gas exploration, development and production in JDZ, and the unrecovered costs in any period is carried forward to a later period. Both NSTPJDA and MTJA provide cost recovery ceiling that permit contractor to capture from the oil and gas produced, see Table 5 below.

TABLE 5: COST RECOVERY RATES

	Nigeria – STP JDZ	Malaysia – Thailand JDA
Cost Recovery	76 – 80 percent	Not more than 50 percent

Source: NSTPJDA (2010); MTJA (2010)

The NSTP JDZ allow contractor to pull through costs from the zone with maximum of 80 percent cost recovery in a given period. While MTJDA contract terms permit contractor to recover up to 50 percent of the cost associated to the operations.

When comparing the cost recovery of the two systems, it is noted that NSTPJDZ has higher cost recovery ceiling with 30 percent difference. This shows that investors in NSTPJDZ would recover investment cost as quickly as possible; besides the cost-oil allowance demonstrates the degree of flexibility linked to rate of return. However, the MTJDA recovery cost would result to the lower net cash flow, and therefore, the oil and gas project will take a long time for investors to recover costs as well as to attain positive Net Present Value (NPV), thereby, increasing risk to investors (Bindemann, 1999).

In NSTPJDZ, the petroleum contracts are all ring fenced. This implies that all costs associated with oil fields must be recovered from the revenue generated from the fields in JDZ. The ring fencing condition was not stated in the MTJDA's fiscal regime.

6.3. PROFIT OIL SPLIT

The profit oil is presented to Joint Authority as the share of oil and gas produced form the zone. The profit oil is the remaining oil and gas after deducting royalty and cost recovery. In NSTPJDZ the tax regulation noted that petroleum tax is paid before the profit oil split to the contracting parties. Distribution pattern presented below:

TABLE 6: PROFIT OIL SPLIT RATE

	Nigeria – STP JDZ	Malaysia – Thailand JDA
Profit Oil	R Factor (Sliding Scale)	50:50

Source: NSTPJDA (2010); MTJA (2010)

The profit oil in MTJDA is shared between MTJA and contractor in the ratio 50 percent each. On one hand, the profit oil is allocated to each party using sliding scale method pursuant to accounting procedure in the NSTPJDZ. Table 7 below shows the sharing method.

TABLE 7: SLIDING SCALE OF PROFIT OIL IN NSTPJDZ

R Factor	Contractor Share	JDA Share
R < 1.2	P = 80%	100% - P
1.2 < R < 2.5	P = 25% + {(2.5-R)/(2.5-1.2)*(80%-25%)}	100% - P
R > 2.5	P = 25%	100% - P
Where: R= Cumulative Cost Recovery + (Cumulative Contractor Profit Share)		
P= Contractor's share of profit in %.		

Source; (Gomes, 2003)

The contractor and NSTPJDA takes are determined based on the R-Factor. The R-Factor is the ratio of the percentage from the petroleum sales to the cumulative expenditure (World Bank, 2007). Thus, *R* is the cumulative revenue form cost recovery and profit share earned by the contractor divided by the cumulative expenses in the given period. Initially, if *R* is less than 1.2, contractor share *P* would be 80 percent as well as 20 percent (100% - *P*) to NSTPJDA. Also if *R* falls between 1.2 and 2.5, the contractor profit oil share would be calculated using the formula given in table 4.5. However, when *R* is greater than 2.5, contractor receives less profit oil of 25 percent, while NSTPJDA rises to 75 percent.

The sliding scale usually present flexibility to the contract and increases Joint Authority take as the project profitability increases (Bindemann, 1999). The profit oil split used in NSTPJDZ allow contractor take to increase or decrease at various levels. The profit oil sharing system in NSTPJDZ is more favourably evaluated than MTJDA; this is because the sliding scale adopted reacts to economic environment and also minimize the impact of financial decision.

6.4. PETROLEUM TAX

The oil and gas produced from the JDZ is tax deductible. The negotiation in the contract provide the agreed term of the tax regulation. The tax rate is applicable to each contract to pay by contractor from profit oil. In the case of NSTPJDZ, tax is paid from petroleum revenue after deducting royalty and cost recovery before profit oil sharing. See Table 8 below.

TABLE 8: PETROLEUM TAX RATES

	Nigeria – STP JDZ	Malaysia – Thailand JDA
Petroleum Profit Tax (PPT)	50 percent flat rate	➢ First 8 years 0% ➢ Next 7 years 10% ➢ Subsequent years 20%

Source: NSTPJDA (2010); MTJA (2010)

The NSTPJDZ tax regulation provides a fixed tax rate of 50 percent applicable to each and for the duration of the contract, payable to NSTPJDA. However, the tax regime allows parties to consult each other for the amendment of the contract necessary to re-establish commercial benefit under the contract. The MTJDA tax system provide tax holiday for the first eight years of operation, and later, contractor begins to pay 10 percent petroleum income tax for the seven years ahead. 20 percent is also imposed as tax for the upcoming years until the end of the contract.

The MTJDA tax presents a downward trend, with a maximum of 20 percent. From the analysis, NSTPJDZ has 30 percent petroleum tax higher than MTJDA. The high fixed tax rate imposed in NSTPJDZ indicates that the investor's rate of recovery is slower and riskier, and will eventually discourage investment and reinvestment. However, the MTJDA tax regime shows the element of neutrality in oil and gas operation, and therefore has lower effect on investor's behaviour. This will encourage existing and future investors to reinvest and invest respectively (CEE, 1999). Moreover, the tax incentive given in MTJDA for certain period makes contractor deplete their reserves as quickly as possible (Bindemann, 1999).

6.5. OTHER VARIABLES

Other variables referred to as additional instruments introduce by the joint authority into its fiscal regime in order to effectively enhance its fiscal system. It is noted that MTJDA established two additional fiscal elements; these are research cess, export duty and the Custom and Taxation. The research cess is a levy paid by contractor to MTJA under the term of contract. This payment is used to support any development and research in the field of science and technology related to oil and gas exploration and production in MTJDA (Abdul AbdulRazak, 2004). The export duty is paid for consolidated oil and gas sold outside Malaysia and Thailand.

However, materials, equipment and goods imported for petroleum operation in MTJDA are accorded duty-exempted, while income derived from petroleum activities in the area are also tax deductable by both Thailand and Malaysia under their respective legislation (MTJA, 2010). The joint agreement and MTJA Act 1990 established the Fund referred to as MTJA Fund. The Fund involves the contributions from joint states and investments made from the Fund. However, the NSTPJDZ imposed free duty for both import and export for any petroleum equipment related to the zone. Results presented in Table 9 below.

TABLE 9: OTHER VARIABLES

	Nigeria – STP JDZ	Malaysia – Thailand JDA
Export Duty	Free	10% of Profit Oil
Research Cess	-	0.5% of Cost recovery and Profit Oil
Custom	Free	Free-Duty
Malaysia and Thailand Taxation	-	50% of Income from MTJDA
MTJA Fund	-	Sovereignty Fund

Source: MTJA (2010); Treaty (2001)

Table 9 above showed that the MTJDA imposes 10 percent of profit oil as export duty for oil and produced in the area and sold outside joint states, which is paid to the MTJA. On the other hand, both systems allow free-import to their zones which increases additional value to the fiscal regime. Further, 0.5 percent is chargeable by MTJA as research cess but according to the contract terms, the research cess fee is paid into the MTJA Fund. The governments of Malaysia and Thailand receive 50 percent of income available from MTJDA.

The research cess make MTJDA looks more advantageous than NSTPJDZ with regards to technological research, development and application in the area. Also, the export duties increase the MTJA take, while the free-duty offers remarkable commercial value for the oil and gas sales for the MTJDA. The provision MTJA Fund allow Joint Authority to borrow money from the fund in order to carry out its operation or discharging any of its duties, and also offer financial support in to companies, persons or bodies to advance debentures, shares and loan.

6 CONCLUSIONS

From the analysis so far, the substantial differences of fiscal regime between the MTJDA and NSTPJDZ are noted. The fiscal system design in each zone is formed for the purpose of managing effective petroleum operation. However, the fiscal system tested in the above analysis indicates that some variables in one fiscal regime are better than other variables and vice versa.

The Joint Authority found royalty payment attractive because it guarantees minimum revenue, but it has significant consequences on profitability and NPV of the oil and gas projects. This will be more sensitive particularly in oil fields that have low commercial quantity. The sliding scale system of royalty in NSTPJDZ is a clear example that can help joint developments in minimizing the impact of royalty on oil and gas projects. And this would bring about relative rate to balance the effect of royalty in fiscal regime.

Furthermore, high cost recovery ceiling smooth the contractor's operation and help them to recover cost as early as possible for the investment they have made. The NSTPJDZ cost recovery limit presents fabulous cap, as the uncertainty with regards to the development and production is the major concern to contractor. The oil companies usually want has maximum cost-oil allowance (Bindemann, 1999). This would allow them to minimize risk with regards to capital and operational costs. Consequently, high cost recovery has significant impact on the volume of oil and gas available to split, especially the joint authority's profit oil.

The contracting parties' focus and concern on the profit oil will be more on the petroleum revenue, substantial changes in oil price and the adequate flexibility employ to accommodate this change. The NSTPJDZ profit oil sharing achieved this objective through sliding scale. The sliding scale formula used in profit oil split is assumed to respond to the impact of low oil price on profitability of the operation. However, the sliding scale used in NSTPJDZ allows its JDA take to increase as the profitability of the project in the zone increases.

The analysis views the neutrality of petroleum income tax pay in MTJA regime, where contractor fear of adverse and unfavourable tax is thereby minimised. Before signing a contract on petroleum operation in the area, Oil Company will expect considerable reward over the contract. Thus, they have committed themselves to bear cost and oil split risks with joint authority, nevertheless tax incentives is one of such rewards that attracts their attention. Conversely, joint developments with high tax such as NSTPJDZ may narrowly view their tax regime and the impact it might have on future investment and the likelihood of decreasing joint authority revenue in the long-run.

Another important issue is the four additional variables noted in MTJDA; the research cess, export duty and taxation. Virtually the joint developments may find these variables as important, in order to hold up the fiscal regime. The MTJA Fund applied by MTJA to support the authority, necessary to grant equity capital for the programmes in the area, will provide petroleum developments and commercial application in the MTJDA.

In sum, findings of this study indicated that the NSTPJDZ present a favourable sliding scale in profit oil split as vary with the equal sharing method used in MTJDA. This make contractor and joint authority take increases and decreases depending on the situation and hence more optimal. However, the tax system in MTJDA is more helpful to contractor because of the tax holiday and incentive offers indicates the optimality in their system. The NSTPJDA imposes fixed tax rate and no tax incentives offers. The result noted four included variables in MTJDA's fiscal system; research cess and sovereignty fund. The analysis shows their significance in the oil and gas operation in joint development. Further, the finding, indicated that the tax system used in MTJDA is more neutral than NSTPJDZ tax regime, because of the tax incentives it offers to oil companies. The implication here is that risks in oil and gas operations in their petroleum area are thereby minimized. Hence high tax in NSTPJDZ may significantly discourage investor simply because the cost recovery will be more risky and slower. However the MTJDA also offers some certain variables that are helpful in nature. Finally, the analysis recognized the significance of the three variable used in NSTPJDZ; royalty, cost recovery and profit sharing. The other two variables; petroleum tax, are more significance in MTJDA. The study implies that, out of five variable tested, the significance of three variables adopted in NSPJDZ represent 60 percent, were the remaining two other variables that are significance in MTJDA signifies 40 percent. Therefore the findings of this research suggest that the NSTPJDZ fiscal regime is more optimal than MTJDA. Because it offers favourable condition for oil and gas operation, and also has less effect to profitability and net present value of the projects.

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ANALYSIS OF GREEN MARKETING AS ENVIRONMENT PROTECTION TOOL: A STUDY OF CONSUMER OF DEHRADUN

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ABSTRACT

Green marketing refers to the process of selling products or services based on their environmental benefits such as the contribution to reducing environmental pollution and prevention of degradation. Such products are manufactured, packaged and marketed in an environmental friendly manner and process. Green marketing has emerged as one of the most important marketing techniques in the present global business environment. Consumers now have worries about the future environment of the world and as a result of this mostly prefer environment friendly products. In recognition of these concerns of consumers, companies have started to make their marketing strategies more appealing by offering environment-friendly products and promotions. Combination of appropriate marketing tools along with products and packaging can have a multiplier and accelerating effect in the conservation efforts. Today most of the companies adapt green marketing as environment protection tool. Present paper aims to analyze green marketing as Environment Protection Tools: Questionnaire was designed and piloted on predetermined sample of consumers of Dehradun with the motives of analyzing consumer behavior and their green consciousness in their purchase pattern. Study reveals that Green marketing is a materialization of a new market. The customers are becoming more eco-responsible and customers are concerned about environmental issues in new market. Different suggestions have been drawn out for consideration and implementation by green product marketing companies. It has been established through the present research that green marketing can have a profound influence in Green marketing efforts.

KEYWORDS

Green Marketing, Consumer Behaviour, Environmental Protection Tool, Global Business Environment.

INTRODUCTION

The effects of climate change, along with pollution and the depletion of non-renewable natural resources, has given rise to environmental awareness (Douglas 2006: 458).In today's global business environment, businesses are facing increased competitive, regulatory and community pressures. Furthermore, there is also pressure for environmental sustainability, which requires strategies to be put in place to reduce the environmental impacts caused by the products and services offered. Consumers in recent years have become aware of the damage being inflicted on the environment by businesses in pursuit of the bottom line. Government regulatory bodies and consumer pressure groups have aggressively lobbied for businesses to adopt green practices (Bateman & Zeithaml 1983: 192). As a result, policies that focus on the protection of the environment are continually being developed worldwide (Brunoro 2008: 719). Businesses can assist in protecting the environment by becoming green businesses, in other words sustainable businesses (Porritt & Winner 1988)

The environmental issue has become a global hot spot because of Global environmental degradation, the international community, the efforts of governments, the green movement and the impact of public media. Promotion environmental protection is the theme of human society, and also is the voice of sustainable human development.

Worldwide evidence indicates people are concerned about the environment and are changing their behavior. As a result of this, green marketing has emerged which speaks for growing market for sustainable and socially responsible products and services. Thus the growing awareness among the consumers all over the world regarding protection of the environment in which they live, People do want to bequeath a clean earth to their offspring. Various studies by environmentalists indicate that people are concerned about the environment and are changing their behavior pattern so as to be less hostile towards it. Now we see that most of the consumers, both individual and industrial, are becoming more concerned about the environment friendly products.

GREEN MARKETING

"Green Marketing" refers to holistic marketing concept wherein the production, marketing consumption an disposal of products and services happen in a manner that is less detrimental to the environment with growing awareness about the implications of global warming, non- biodegradable solid waste, harmful impact of pollutants etc. Both marketers and consumers are becoming increasingly sensitive to the need for switch in to green products and services. While the shift to "green" may appear to be expensive in the short term, it will definitely prove to be indispensable and advantageous, cost-wise too, in the long run. The first wave of Green Marketing occurred in the 1980s. Two tangible milestones for wave 1 of green marketing came in the form of published books, both of which were called Green Marketing. They were by Ken Peattie (1992) in the United Kingdom and by Jacquelyn Ottoman.

NEED OF THE STUDY

There is growing interest among the consumers all over the world regarding protection of environment. As society becomes more concerned with the natural environment, businesses have begun to modify their behavior in an attempt to address society's new concern.The companies opt various kinds of marketing strategies to promote the products like green marketing,potray the products as green product etc. Among these Green marketing is increasingly becoming the mainstream of business marketing strategy.

Therefore,considering the need of the hour the study is undertaken to assess the awareness of Green Marketing as a environment protection tool among the consumers and how far Green Marketing has become successful in bringing changes in consumer buying behavior.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Tan Booi Chen and Lau Teck Chai(2010) in Attitude towards the environment and green products, reported that there is no significant relationship between consumers' attitude on the environmental protection and their attitude on green products. This means that consumers' attitudes on the green products are not facilitated by the positive attitudes of consumers towards environmental protection and here is a significant relationship between consumers' attitude on government's role and their attitude on green products.
2. John Moxen and Alistair McCulloch(1994),The Green Market and Environmental Policy: An Assessment of A Non-Interventionist Strategy, identified that the Government appears to be moving towards an environmental policy that depends less on intervention and more on market forces. However, in

practice, market pressures are not strong enough to deliver the desired range and depth of environmental improvements. Companies take note of the environment when they are required to do so by legislationThis means that less than one in six of the companies had introduced changes to products and processes that were prompted by non- legislative factors. In addition, the inadequate nature of the systems of environmental management operated by these firms greatly restricts their ability to reduce their impact on the environment. It concludes that the effectiveness of the Government's environmental strategy is compromised by its dependence on market forces.

3. Neagu and Vasile Goldiş(2011),Influencing The Environmental behavior through the Green Marketing, describe that the main actors in the ecological marketing communications, the companies and the NGOs, have different basis of their communication on environment issues.The environmental NGOs include the objective to shape the pro-environmental behaviour in their mission and they are acting in consequence, using creatively a large of tools and techniques: learning direct experiences and effective educational or information activities.The companies are interested in creating and strengthening their public image through ecological actions.An appropriated communication policy of the environmental oriented companies can contribute to the creation of a company's identity according to the ecological principles.
4. Magali Morel and Francis Kwakye(2012),Green Marketing: Consumers' attitude towards Eco-friendly products and purchase intention in the FMCG Sector, discovered that positive attitudes towards green products can lead to purchase intention but it is not always true. The paper demonstrated that the word of mouth and the advertising (the espoused attitude) play an important role in the purchase intention.It also tends to say that the young people (18-24 years) pay much attention to green claim.
5. Ms.V Bhatnagar & Ms.H Grewal, P. (2012).An environmental protection tool:green marketing and its effect on consumer buying behavior, suggest that green marketing is essential to save world from pollution.Green marketing should not be considered as just one more approach to marketing, but has to be pursued with much greater vigor, as it has an environmental and social dimension to it. With the threat of global warming looming large, it is extremely important that green marketing becomes the norm rather than an exception or just a fad. Recycling of paper, metals, plastics, etc., in a safe and environmentally harmless manner should become much more systematized and universal. It has to become the general norm to use energy-efficient lamps and other electrical goods. Marketers also have the responsibility to make the consumers understand the need for and benefits of green products as compared to non-green ones. In green marketing, consumers are willing to pay more to maintain a cleaner and greener environment.Green marketing assumes even more important and relevant in developing countries like India.
6. Rashad Yazdanifard, Igbazua Erdoo Mercy (2011),The Impact of green marketing on consumer satisfaction and environmental safety, present Green marketing as a tool for protecting the environment for the future generation.It says that green marketing has a positive impact on environmental safety. Because of the growing concern of environmental protection, there is an emergence of a new market which is the green market.They suggest that for companies to survive in this market, they need to go green in all aspect of their business. Consumers want to identify themselves with companies that are green compliant and are willing to pay a premium for a greener life style. As such, green marketing is not just an environmental protection tool but also, a marketing strategy.
7. Oyewole, P. (2001). Social Costs of Environmental Justice Associated with the Practice of Green Marketing: This paper presents a conceptual link among green marketing, environmental justice, and industrial ecology. It argues for greater awareness of environmental justice in the practice for green marketing. In contrast with the type of costs commonly discussed in the literature, the paper identified another type of costs, termed 'costs with positive results,' that may be associated with the presence of environmental justice in green marketing. A research agenda is finally suggested to determine consumers' awareness of environmental justice, and their willingness to bear the costs associated with it.
8. Merilänen, S., Moisander, J. & Personen, S. (2000),The Masculine Mindset of Environmental Management and Green Marketing, focused on Environmental management systems and green marketing programmes that have gained increasing popularity in western market economies.They are viewed as cost-efficient, effective and just means of tackling problems associated with the impact of economic activity on the environment. It is argued in this article, however, that these optimistic views are based on a number of ideas, images and metaphors that retain many androcentric and inadequate assumptions about self, society and nature that may be incompatible with long-term environmental protection goals.
9. Schlegelmilch, B.B., Bohlen, G. M., & Diamantopoulos, A. (1996). The Link Between Green Purchasing Decisions and Measures of Environmental Consciousness: explore the extent to which variables, specific to environmental consciousness, are better able to explain consumers' pro-environmental purchasing behaviour. Two conceptualizations of the purchasing domain are addressed, namely general green purchasing behaviour and specific purchasing habits relating to five green product categories. Two data sets are used in the analysis, namely marketing students and members of the United Kingdom general public. Results suggest that measures of environmental consciousness are closely linked to environmentally-responsible purchasing behaviour, although the strength of the relationships varies according to sample type, the conceptualization of the purchasing domain and the particular product category at issue.
10. Dosi, C. and Moretto, M. (2001). Is Eco-Labelling a Reliable Environmental Policy Measure? :The rationale of this paper is that the ecolabelling is to enable firms to reap the willingness-to-pay for the environmental attributes of goods by helping consumers to identify "green" products.By so doing, ecolabelling is expected to stimulate spontaneous environmental innovation and to reduce aggregated pollution.The analysis, however, outlines situations under which ecolabelling could induce perverse effects, namely increased investment in conventional technologies before the labels are awarded.
11. Kilbourne, W.E. & Beckman, S.C. (1998). Review and Critical Assessment of Research on Marketing and the Environment, provides a review and categorization of the environmentally related research published in the major English language marketing journals over the period from 1971 to 1997. It traces the development from the early research which focused predominantly on the characterization of the "green" consumer, conceptualization of environmental consciousness, environmentally related behaviours such as recycling, and attitudes towards environmental problems such as pollution. This was followed by a period in which energy conservation, legislation, and public policy issues were added to the agenda which remained predominantly managerialist in perspective..The paper concludes by arguing that the examination of the macro issues from an interdisciplinary perspective is necessary for further development of marketing thought in this area, and that a synthesis of the macro and micro perspectives is necessary for effective and enduring public policy regarding the marketing/environmental relationship.
12. Crane, A. (2000). Marketing and the Natural Environment: What Role for Morality, It argues that the issue of morality has not been developed in any comprehensive or cohesive way in this literature and subsequently seeks to provide an analysis of the different ways in which morality has, to date, been applied and used. Five different moral perspectives are identified - namely, fair play, managerialist, reformist, reconstructionist, and interpretist perspectives. These are categorized according to the main moral issues typically examined, the core discipline from which the perspective has been developed, the form of morality ordinarily referred to, and the prevalent subject of moral enquiry.The various approaches are examined and their contribution assessed.The relationship between the perspectives is addressed, and it is suggested that from a macromarketing point of view, the reconstructionist and the interpretist perspectives might be expected to be the most fruitful avenues for future investigation.
13. Karna, J., Hansen, E. & Juslin, H. (2003). Social Responsibility in Environmental Marketing Planning, interpreted that proactive marketers are the most genuine group in implementing environmental marketing voluntarily and seeking competitive advantage through environmental friendliness. Thus, the example of these progressive companies should be the direction towards sustainable development in business and society. The results also give evidence that green values, environmental marketing strategies, structures and functions are logically connected to each other as hypothesised according to the model of environmental marketing used to guide this study.
14. Menon, A., Menon, A., Chowdhury, J., & Jankovich, J. (1999). Evolving Paradigm for Environmental Sensitivity in Marketing Programs: A Synthesis of Theory and Practice, discussed the concept of environmentally-based marketing programs within the context of each element of the marketing mix. Additionally, it discusses issues that are of critical importance in the implementation of the concept, from the perspectives of firm performance and business environment. The managerial implications of adopting environmentally-based marketing programs and concerns relevant to future research in this area are also addressed.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

OBJECTIVES

The is research has been taken up with following objectives:-

a) To assess the consumer awareness towards green marketing and its application as Environment Protection Tools.
b) Studying consumer attitude towards green marketing as Environment Protection Tools.
c) To assess the role of Green marketing in bringing change in consumer buying behavior.

To assess the consumer awareness towards Environment Protection Tools the major determinants were taken like consumer preferences towards eco-friendly products, consumers attitude towards green marketing, consumer purchasing preferences.

METHODOLOGY

This is an Empirical research on Consumer attitude and awareness towards the environment protection tool

Sampling method- Present research is based on primary as well as secondary data. The secondary data was collected through various books, magazines, research journals and other relevant academic and non- academic sources.The primary data is collected through survey method with the help of questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed to know the attitudes of the consumer towards green marketing strategy, that is whether it is considered as an environmental protection tool or not.The questionnaire framed for the survey was the combination of open ended as well as close ended questions.The respondents were selected through Convenient Sampling Method.

Research site- The study has been conducted in the city of Dehradun.Population of Dehradun is considered as the "universe". The samples represents both the genders, different age groups, education level, marital status and monthly income. This survey is the partial results of the full-scale survey of the consumerss to collect data on Green Marketing as Environment protection tool. The sample size was 100.

Data Analysis Tools And Techniques- The data collected from the respondents are coded, tabulated and analyzed into logical statements using percentage analysis and chi-square.Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was carried out with SPSS software and found to be .681 which indicates that data is sufficient to go for factor analysis.

KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST		
KAISER-MEYER-OLKIN MEASURE OF SAMPLING ADEQUACY.		.681
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	449.808
	df	120
	Sig.	.000

Hypothesis- "The impact of Environmental Protection Tool on consumer behavior does not differs significantly across the different demographics"

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Collected data were analyzed by using statistical tools and the software used was SPSS 20 windows version for regression analysis, other statistical test and testing of the research hypotheses.

TABLE 1: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Age	Upto 20 Years	21	21.0	21.0	21.0
	20-30 Year	41	41.0	41.0	62.0
	30-40 Years	28	28.0	28.0	90.0
	40-50 Years	4	4.0	4.0	94.0
	50-60 years	4	4.0	4.0	98.0
	above 60 years	2	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	
Gender	Male	56	56.0	56.0	56.0
	Female	44	44.0	44.0	100.0
Education Level	Matric and below	1	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Under Graduate	20	20.0	20.0	21.0
	Graduate	19	19.0	19.0	40.0
	Post graduate	24	24.0	24.0	64.0
	Professional Qualification	30	30.0	30.0	94.0
	Others	6	6.0	6.0	100.0
Profession	Students	30	30.0	30.0	30.0
	Business	6	6.0	6.0	36.0
	Service	35	35.0	35.0	71.0
	Professional	21	21.0	21.0	92.0
	Housewives	5	5.0	5.0	97.0
	Others	3	3.0	3.0	100.0
Income level	Less than 15000PM	19	19.0	22.6	22.6
	Rs15000-Rs25000PM	29	29.0	34.5	57.1
	Rs25000-Rs35000PM	15	15.0	17.9	75.0
	Rs35000-Rs50000PM	8	8.0	9.5	84.5
	Above Rs50000PM	7	7.0	8.3	92.9
	Nil Income	6	6.0	7.1	100.0
	System	16	16.0		
	Total	100	100	100	

Demography is the scientific study of the characteristics of human populations. It is also sometimes called population studies. Demography is considered to be a branch within the field of sociology. It relies heavily on statistical data, collecting, interpreting, and presenting the information to determine trends. The analysis presented in the above table reveals that sample is dominated by the young category respondent ranging in the age group of 20-30 years as it contributes 41% in the sample. Majority of the respondents are male i.e.56%,It is included to determine that does the purchasing decision differ among gender.In the survey,majority of respondents are professionally qualified,which contributes 30%,which is asked to know that, does educational level make differences in purchasing preferences of the respondents.Sample is composed of highly educated person earning monthly income of Rs15000 to Rs.35000 and majority of the respondents belong to different service class.

TABLE 2: WHETHER AWARE WITH ENVIRONMENT PROTECTION TOOLS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	YEs	86	86.0	86.0	86.0
	NO	14	14.0	14.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Environmental protection is a practice of protecting the natural environment on individual, organizational or governmental levels, for the benefit of both the natural environment and humans. Environment protection has become the prime question these days.There are various environmental protection tools like different government policies and regulations,Environmment protection Act,waste management etc.Therefore,this question is raised to know that what percentage of respondents are aware with Environment Protection Tools.Table 2 depicts that majority(86%) of the respondents are aware whereas 14% are still unaware.

TABLE 3: AWARENESS OF CONCEPT OF GREEN MARKETING

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	YES	87	87.0	88.8	88.8
	NO	11	11.0	11.2	100.0
	Total	98	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.0		
Total		100	100.0		

Green marketing refers to the process of selling products or services based on their environmental benefits such as the contribution to reducing environmental pollution and prevention of degradation. Such products are manufactured, packaged and marketed in an environmental friendly manner and process. Green marketing has emerged as one of the most important marketing techniques in the present global business environment.The above question focuses on the Awareness of the respondents towards the concept of green marketing i.e. are respondents have knowledge regarding green marketing concept.The table 6 depicts that 87% of the respondents are aware of the concept whereas 11% are unaware.

TABLE 4: SOURCE OF AWARENESS

		Responses N	Responses Percent	Percent of Cases
\$s1[a]	News Paper	46	30.9%	47.9%
	Internet	56	37.6%	58.3%
	Advertisement	36	24.2%	37.5%
	Others	11	7.4%	11.5%
Total		149	100.0%	155.2%

a. Group

There are various sources like newspaper, Internet, advertisement, news channels, word of mouth, magazines etc. through which people can become aware regarding the concept of green marketing. The question is asked with the purpose of knowing the source of awareness regarding green marketing concept. It is depicted from table 4 that most of the respondents are aware of the concept through the source of Internet i.e. internet plays an important role in creating purchase.whereas 11% are aware through other sources like Hotel Industries, mobile companies, Clubs and NGOs etc.

TABLE 5: WHETHER PURCHASED ECO FRIENDLY PRODUCTS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	74	74.0	74.0	74.0
	NO	26	26.0	26.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Eco friendly products are those products those are originally grown, biodegradable,having with natural ingredients, do not harm or pollute the environment, have eco-friendly packaging i.e. reusable, refillable containers, not tested on animals, non-toxic chemical etcThere are number of eco-friendly products which are manufactured to protect the environment and substituting other products by creating ecological benefits.The products like CNG,LPG,herbal products, etc are examples of eco-friendly products.Therefore,the purpose of this question is to determine that whether the respondents have purchased the Eco-friendly product ever or not.The table 5 depicts that (74%)majority of the respondents have purchased the Eco-friendly products whereas 26% haven't purchased it yet.

TABLE 6: NATURE OF PURCHASE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Always	12	12.0	12.0	12.0
	Sometimes	45	45.0	45.0	57.0
	Occasionally	22	22.0	22.0	79.0
	Casually	10	10.0	10.0	89.0
	Never	11	11.0	11.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

This question is asked to know the frequency of purchasing the eco-friendly products of the respondents i.e. how frequently they purchase such products.The study reveals that near about half of the consumers(45%) purchase eco friendly products sometimes.About one fifth of consumers (22%) make purchases of such products occaaionally,12% of consumers always purchase these products,whereas 10% of consumers purchase casually.On the other hand,11% of the consumers have never purchased such products.

TABLE 7: FREQUENCIES(CONSIDERATION WHILE PURCHASING)

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
$S2[a]	Price	68	17.2%	70.1%
	Benefit to health	75	18.9%	77.3%
	Brand Popularity	74	18.7%	76.3%
	Environment Protection	89	22.5%	91.8%
	Feature of the product	90	22.7%	92.8%
Total		396	100.0%	408.2%

a. Group

Different people consider different aspects while purchasing anything according to their needs and purchasing power. Therefore, the reason to include this question is to know that what prime factor is mostly works as a stimulant while purchasing the green product. In table 7 it is clearly depicted that majority(22.7%) of the respondents consider the Feature of the product as the prime factor while purchasing green product nevertheless,they equally consider the Environment Protection factor as important factor too.

TABLE 8: FREQUENCIES(CONSIDERATION FOR GREEN MARKETING)

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
$S3[a]	It is tool of Environment Protection	48	31.4%	52.7%
	It is means of product promotion	17	11.1%	18.7%
	It is means of building awareness of products among consumers	12	7.8%	13.2%
	It is means of building company goodwill	10	6.5%	11.0%
	It is marketing tool	12	7.8%	13.2%
	It is means of building consumer preference towards green product	24	15.7%	26.4%
	It is means of enhancing consumer safety by promoting Eco-friendly Products	27	17.6%	29.7%
	Others	3	2.0%	3.3%
Total		153	100.0%	168.1%
a. Group				

"Green Marketing" refers to holistic marketing concept wherein the production, marketing consumption an disposal of products and services happen in a manner that is less detrimental to the environment with growing awareness about the implications of global warming, non- biodegradable solid waste, harmful impact of pollutants etc. This question is undertaken with the purpose knowing that what opinion does the consumers have towards "Green Marketing" as a whole. The information presented in the above table 8. Clearly indicates that nearly half of the respondents (31.4%) are of the opinion that it is tool of Environment Protection. On the similar pattern 17.6% consumers are of the opinion that it is means of enhancing consumer safety by promoting Eco-friendly Products. Similarly, 15.7% of consumers perceive it as a means of building consumer preference towards green product.7.8% of consumers consider it as a means of building awareness of products among consumers and marketing tool both.In comparison to this 6.5% consumers feels that it is a means of building company goodwill and very few i.e. 2% see green marketing as other perspective like promotion of healthy products, tool for creating awareness among people regarding eco friendly products,tool for creating healthier society etc.

FACTOR ANALYSIS

Factor analysis is a statistical method used to describe variability among observed, correlated variables in terms of a potentially lower number of unobserved variables called factors.Green Marketing and its different dimensions motivates consumers to become more eco-responsible and concerned about environmental issues in new market.Green Marketing has gained momentum in the context of global warming and climate change and this, in turn, has forced many companies to incorporate the principals of Green Marketing. Recently, Green Marketing has drawn the attention of government and this has forced them to introduce environment-friendly policies. For this respondents were asked to rate their views on the statements such as: Now days Organizations perceive green environmental marketing to be an opportunity that can be used to achieve its objective, Green marketing Organizations become more ethical and socially responsible, Through green marketing, Governmental bodies are forcing firms to become more responsible, Eco friendly competitor pressure makes the firms to change their environmental marketing Activity, Green marketing bring consciousness towards Cost factors associated with waste disposal or reductions in material usage forces firms to modify their behavior, Consumers these days have developed liking for environmental friendly products i.e. green products (green brands), Consumer concern for environmental protection is high these days, Consumers these days are ready to pay appropriate extra price for green products, Consumers feel that the companies enjoying a green image will have competitive advantages, Green marketing is Good For Environment protection, Green marketing is helpful in creating healthy environment, Green Marketing is helpful in promoting taste for Good Quality products, Green Marketing is used to maintain reasonable price and its accessibility in the market, I am willing to pay premium price for eco-friendly products, I recommend eco-friendly products to my friends/family. Respondents were asked to rate the various statement on a scale of Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree in order of their preference. The exploratory factor analysis was used in order to identify the various attitude of consumers towards green marketing. Principal Component analysis was employed for extracting factors and orthogonal rotation with Varimax was applied. As latent root criterion was used for extraction of factors, only the factors having latent roots or Eigen values greater than one were considered significant; all other factors with latent roots less than one were considered insignificant and disregarded. The extracted factors along with their Eigen values are shown in **table 9.** The factors have been given appropriate names on the basis of variables represented in each case. The names of the factors, the statements, the labels and factor loading have been summarized in **table 9.**

There are 5 factor each having Eigen value exceeding one. Eigen values for five factors are 4.053%, 2.018%, 1.449%,1.316% and 1.118% respectively. The index for the present solution accounts for 62.209% of the total variations for the factors of brand equity. It is a pretty good extraction because we are able to economise on the number of choice factors (from 16 to 5 underlying factors), we lost 37.791% of information content for choice of variables. The percentages of variance explained by factors one to five are 25.328 %, 12.614%, 9.056%, 8.222%, and 6.988% respectively. Large communalities indicate that a large number of variance has been accounted for by the factor solutions. Varimax rotated factor analysis results for factors are shown in **table 9** which indicates that after 5 factors are extracted and retained the communality is 0.562 for variable1, 0.648 for variable 2 and so on. It means that approximately 56.2 % of the variance of variable1 is being captured by 5 extracted factors together. The proportion of the variance in any one of the original variable which is being captured by the extracted factors is known as communality (Nargundkar, 2002).

TABLE 9: ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX[a]

	Component					Communalities
	1	2	3	4	5	
Green Marketing is used to maintain reasonable price and its accessibility in the market.	.694					.562
Green Marketing is helpful in promoting taste for Good Quality products	.677					.648
I am willing to pay premium price for eco-friendly products	.514					.447
Green marketing bring consciousness towards Cost factors associated with waste disposal, or reductions in material usage forces firms to modify their behavior.	.459					.492
Consumer concern for environmental protection is high these days.		.804				.719
Consumers these days have developed liking for environmental friendly products i.e. green products (green brands).		.689				.669
Consumers these days are ready to pay appropriate extra price for green products.		.580				.654
Green marketing is Good For Environment protection			.833			.740
Green marketing is helpful in creating healthy environment			.676			.646
Now days Organizations perceive green environmental marketing to be an opportunity that can be used to achieve its objective			.617			.695
Consumers feel that the companies enjoying a green image will have competitive advantages				.650		.614
Eco friendly competitor pressure makes the firms to change their environmental marketing Activity				.631		.418
Through green marketing, Governmental bodies are forcing firms to become more responsible				.533		.702
Green marketing Organizations become more ethical and socially responsible				.490		.575
I recommend eco-friendly products to my friends/family					.777	.702
I hear and pay attention to my friends/family opinion concerning eco- friendly products					.762	.671
Initial Eigenvalues	4.053	2.018	1.449	1.316	1.118	
% of Variance	25.328	12.614	9.056	8.222	6.988	
Cumulative %	25.328	37.942	46.999	55.221	62.209	
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.						
a. Rotation converged in 12 iterations.						

TABLE 10: FACTOR LOADING AND ASSOCIATED VARIABLE

Factor	Name of Dimension	Statement	Factor Loading
F1	Price factor	Green Marketing is used to maintain reasonable price and its accessibility in the market.	.694
		Green Marketing is helpful in promoting taste for Good Quality products	.677
		I am willing to pay premium price for eco-friendly products	.514
		Green marketing bring consciousness towards Cost factors associated with waste disposal, or reductions in material usage forces firms to modify their behavior.	.459
F2	Environmental conscious approach	Consumer concern for environmental protection is high these days.	.804
		Consumers these days have developed liking for environmental friendly products i.e. green products (green brands).	.689
		Consumers these days are ready to pay appropriate extra price for green products.	.580
F3	Marketing Approach	Green marketing is Good For Environment protection	.833
		Green marketing is helpful in creating healthy environment	.676
		Now days Organizations perceive green environmental marketing to be an opportunity that can be used to achieve its objective	.617
F4	Environmental responsiveness appraoch	Consumers feel that the companies enjoying a green image will have competitive advantages	.650
		Eco friendly competitor pressure makes the firms to change their environmental marketing Activity	.631
		Through green marketing, Governmental bodies are forcing firms to become more responsible	.533
		Green marketing Organizations become more ethical and socially responsible	.490
F5	Cognition and conviction factor	I recommend eco-friendly products to my friends/family	.777
		I hear and pay attention to my friends/family opinion concerning eco- friendly products	.762

Table 10 represents Solemnized Principal components & associated Variables which indicate that first factor **(F1)** is the **Price Factor** which is one of the important factors of Green Marketing. This factors accounts for 25.328% variance of the total variances. The second Factor **(F2)** is the **Environmental conscious approach** and accounts 12.614 % variance of total variance. Third factor **(F3)** is the **Marketing Approach** and that account 9.056 % variance of the total variances. Fourth factor **(F4)** is the **Environmental responsiveness approach** that accounts for 8.222%.Fifth factor **(F5)** is the **Cognition and conviction** and account for 6.988% of variance

TABLE 11: MEAN OF VARIOUS FACTORS OF GREEN MARKETING DIFFERENT DEMOGRAPHY: AGE

Age	Price factor	Environmental conscious approach	Marketing Approach	Environmental responsiveness approach	Cognition and conviction
Upto 20 Years	3.8553	3.7368	4.1404	3.9079	4.0789
20-30 Year	3.7083	3.5972	4.1806	3.5833	4.1458
30-40 Years	3.7500	3.5556	4.1111	3.7500	3.7500
40-50 Years	3.7500	4.6667	4.3333	3.8750	4.0000
50-60 years	3.5833	4.1111	4.2222	3.7500	4.1667
Above 60 years	4.0000	4.3333	4.0000	3.7500	4.5000
Total	3.7636	3.7212	4.1636	3.7364	4.0818

Mean of different variable constructed for various factors i.e. price factor, environmental conscious approach, marketing approach, environmental responsiveness approach, cognition and conviction identified of Green Marketing as environment protection tool across different demographic characteristics i.e. Age **was calculated with the help of SPSS software. The information presented in the table 11 indicates that the** mean of different factor: Marketing Approach scored highest mean(4.1636) however the factor like Environment conscious approach scored the least mean(3.7212) among all the variables.

TABLE 12: ONE WAY ANOVA WITH AGE

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Price factor	Between Groups	.388	5	.078	.251	.938
	Within Groups	15.164	49	.309		
	Total	15.552	54			
Environmental conscious approach	Between Groups	3.157	5	.631	.901	.488
	Within Groups	34.346	49	.701		
	Total	37.503	54			
Marketing Approach	Between Groups	.128	5	.026	.065	.997
	Within Groups	19.399	49	.396		
	Total	19.527	54			
Environmental responsiveness approach	Between Groups	1.161	5	.232	.684	.638
	Within Groups	16.641	49	.340		
	Total	17.802	54			
Cognition and conviction	Between Groups	.969	5	.194	.424	.830
	Within Groups	22.413	49	.457		
	Total	23.382	54			

Analysis of variance (**ANOVA**) is a collection of statistical models used to analyze the differences between group means and their associated procedures (such as "variation" among and between groups).The table 12 shows the output of the ANOVA analysis and whether we have a statistically significant difference between our group means. We can see from the table above that there is a no significant difference between various factors of green marketing in purchasing of eco friendly product by different age group as **Price Factor** (p = 0.938)(0.938>0.05), **Environmental conscious approach** (p = 0.488)(0.488>0.05), **Marketing Approach** (p= 0.997)(0.997>0.05), **Environmental responsiveness approach** (p= 0.638)(0.638>0.05), **Cognition and conviction** (p= 0.830)(0.830>0.05).There is no statistically significant difference because the significance level of all the factors are much above 0.05,whereas mean difference is significant at 0.05.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The study has found that Green marketing is a tool for protecting the environment for the future generation, it has a positive impact on environmental safety. The null hypothesis: **“**The impact of Environmental Protection Tool on consumer behavior does not differs significantly across the different demographics” has been proved true. The factors that are considered valuable are Price factor, Environmental conscious approach, Environmental conscious approach, Cognition and conviction and Marketing approach. Green marketing approach can be enhanced as a environment protection tool if these factors are taken into consideration.Green marketing provides opportunity for innovation and is helpful in making people more eco-responsible.Green marketing has proved effective in bringing change in the behavior of the consumer and inspire them for purchasing eco friendly products. It is clearly evident from the above findings and analysis that though eco-friendly attitudes have increased but large group of the consumers still lack ‘green’ knowledge because of low awareness. Therefore, the initiatives has to be taken to increase the awareness among the customer regarding green products and green marketing keeping the various factors into consideration so that people can become more eco-responsible for preserving earth.There should be follow up by the government towards CSR policies and mandate policy for green marketing to protect the environment. The price sensitivity shows that the green products are safe, secure and affordable and consumers are also ready to pay premium price if it is applicable. The environment consciousness proves that the green product is the tool for environment protection.

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A STUDY ON WORKING CAPITAL MANAGEMENT THROUGH RATIO ANALYSIS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO RAJASTHAN DRUGS & PHARMACEUTICALS LTD.

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ABSTRACT

Working capital is an important metric for all businesses, regardless of their size. Working Capital is a signal of a company's operating liquidity. Having enough Working Capital means that the company should be able to pay for all of its short-term expenses and liabilities. Large companies pay attention to Working Capital for the same reason as small ones do: Working Capital is a measure of liquidity, and thus is a measure of their future credit-worthiness. On the other hand, too much working capital means that some assets are not being invested for the long-term, so they are not being put to good use in helping the company grow as much as possible. Commercial paper (a market of large, short-term loans for big companies) will find it more expensive if they do not have enough Working Capital. If they are a public company, their stock price may fall if the market doesn't believe they have adequate Working Capital. So in this perspective present study is undertaken to study working capital management through ratio analysis at Rajasthan Drugs & Pharmaceuticals limited, Jaipur. From the present study it is found that company financial position was seeing to be sound because the company tries to increase its production and also net profit.

KEYWORDS

Working Capital Management, Ratio Analysis, RDPL.

INTRODUCTION

Working Capital is the life blood of every business concern. Business firm cannot make progress without adequate working capital. Inadequate working capital means shortage of inputs, whereas excess of it leads to extra cost. So the quantum of working capital in every business firm should be neither more nor less than what is actually required. The management has to see that funds invested as working capital in their organization earn return at least as much as they would have earned return if it invested anywhere else. At the time of increasing capital costs and scare funds, the area of working capital management assumes added importance as it deeply influences a firm's liquidity and profitability. A notable feature of utilization of funds is that they are of recurring nature. Therefore, efficient working capital management requires a proper balance between generation and utilization of these funds without which either shortage of funds will cause obstruction in the smoother functioning of the organization or excess funds will prevent the firm from conducting its business efficiently. So the main objective of working capital management is to arrange the needed funds on the right time from the right source and for the right period, so that a tradeoff between liquidity and profitability may be achieved. A firm may exist without making profits but cannot survive without liquidity. The function of working capital management organization is similar that of heart in a human body. Also it is an important function of financial management. The financial manager must determine the satisfactory level of working capital funds and also the optimum mix of current assets and current liabilities. He must ensure that the appropriate sources of funds are used to finance working capital and should also see that short term obligation of the business are met well in time.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Some of the important works that have been carried out in the area of working capital management are outlined below:
Shin and Soenen, (1998): highlighted that efficient Working Capital Management was very important for creating value for the shareholders. The way working capital was managed had a significant impact on both profitability and liquidity. The relationship between the length of Net Trading Cycle, corporate profitability and risk adjusted stock return was examined using correlation and regression analysis, by industry and capital intensity. They found a strong negative relationship between lengths of the firm's net-trading Cycle and its profitability. In addition, shorter net trade cycles were associated with higher risk adjusted stock returns. Rajeswara, Rao K. (1985), examined the working capital policies of Public Enterprises in India and found that working capital efficiency could not be achieved by majority of the selected companies. Shanmugam, R. and Poornima, S. (2001), showed that the effective management of working capital is still most crucial in organizations‟ success for 28 medium and large scale spinning mills in Coimbatore in the state of Tamil Nadu. Smith and Begemann (1997): emphasized that those who promoted working capital theory shared that profitability and liquidity comprised the salient goals of working capital management. The problem arose because the maximization of the firm's returns could seriously threaten its liquidity, and the pursuit of liquidity had a tendency to dilute returns.. Sarawat, B.P. and Agarwal, R.S. (2004), attempted to evaluate the working capital position of Nepal cement industry for a period of eight years from 1993-94 to 2000-01 by selecting two major players in the public sector. Dutta, Sukamal (1995), evaluated the working capital crisis and working capital management requirements of selected paper mills of West Bengal during the period 1983-84 to 1985-86. The study concluded that the overall financial conditions of 40% of the firms were assumed to be precarious. Garcia-Teruel, Pedro Juan and Martinez- Solana, Pedro (2007), provided empirical evidence on the effects of working capital management on the profitability of a sample of small and medium-sized Spanish firms during the period 1996 to 2002. Abel, Maxime (2008), examined the impact of working capital management on cash holdings of Small and medium-sized Manufacturing Enterprises (SMEs) in Sweden.
Although, lot of studies has been carried out in the area of working capital management, few studies have been carried out in the pharmaceutical industry. This article evaluated the association between traditional and alternative working capital measures and return on investment (ROI), specifically in industrial firms listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE). The problem under investigation was to establish whether the more recently developed alternative working capital concepts showed improved association with return on investment to that of traditional working capital ratios or not. Hence, the present study is an attempt to contribute to the existing literature.

NEED OF THE STUDY

Today financial soundness and profitability of business enterprises largely depend upon the working capital management by the firm. The importance of adequacy of working capital can hardly be over emphasized. Many other business failure takes place due to lack of working capital. Hence Working Capital is considered as the lifeblood and the controlling nerve centre of a business. Inadequate working capital is a business ailment. Therefore, a firm has to maintain adequate working capital. It is as important as blood circulation in our body to maintain life and flow of funds is very necessary to maintain business. Inadequate working capital affects the firm's solvency adversely and excessive working capital affects the firm's profitability adversely. Inadequate working capital implies shortage of regular funds to carry on the normal business operation, if there is excess of working capital, fund become idle it also affects the financial soundness of the firm. In this perspective there is need to manage the working capital effectively in any business. The question which strike the mind during reviewing various literatures that how Rajasthan Drugs & Pharmaceuticals Ltd managing its working capital being public sector undertaking. Hence study is undertaken to answer the above mentioned question.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To review the concept and importance of working capital and the concept of ratio, utility of ratio analysis, compiling of ratios.
2. To determine the amount of the working capital employed by Rajasthan Drugs & Pharmaceuticals Limited.
3. To analyze the working capital management financial performance of the Rajasthan Drugs & Pharmaceuticals Limited
4. To discuss summary of findings in form of conclusions and suggestions for effective functioning of Rajasthan Drugs & Pharmaceuticals Limited.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The present study is restricted to Rajasthan Drugs & Pharmaceuticals Limited at Jaipur, Rajasthan.

DATA COLLECTION

To achieve the aforesaid objectives data is gathered from secondary sources, like annual reports, journals, and related other research papers

DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected is analyzed through ratio analysis and important tables are used for data discussion as per needed. The ratios and various tables prepared are used for data analysis.

TABLE 1: TABLE SHOWING COMPONENTS OF CURRENT ASSETS OF RDPL (Rs. in lacs)

Years	**2007-2008**	**2008-2009**	**2009-2010**	**2010-2011**	**2011-2012**
Inventories	853.16	722.51	737.14	1133.41	894.42
Sundry Debtors	2638.96	3964.64	4034.98	4830.98	4891.26
Cash & Bank balance	124.00	210.45	90.55	108.83	148.06
Loans & Advances	316.61	344.37	505.13	632.88	59.93
Other current assets	----	----	----	17.43	17.01
Total Current Assets	3932.73	5241.97	5367.80	6723.53	6010.68

Sources: Annual reports

Interpretation

The above table depicts the current assets of the company from 2007-08 to 2011-12, during 2007-08 total currents assets was Rs. 3932.73 crores , in the year 2008-09 Rs. 5241.97 crores, in the year 2009-2010 Rs. 5367.80 crores, in the year 2010-2011 Rs 6723.53 crores, and in the year 2011-2012 Rs. 6010.68 crores, From the above table it can observe that there is a tremendous increase in the value of current assets from year 2007 -08 to 2010 -11, which indicates extensive growth of the organization. But during 2011- 2012 total current assets decline due to the amount of loans & advances was low and the debtors balance reduced; the company should focus on increasing these.

TABLE 2: TABLE SHOWING CURRENT RATIO OF RDPL (Rs. in lacs)

Particulars	**2007-2008**	**2008-2009**	**2009-2010**	**2010-2011**	**2011-2012**
Current Assets	3932.73	5241.97	5367.80	6723.53	6010.68
Current Liabilities	1674.34	2675.68	3389.10	4024.61	5668.35
Current Ratio	2.35	1.96	1.58	1.67	1.06

Sources: Annual reports

Interpretation

The standard current ratio is 2:1. The current ratio for five years from 2007- 2008 to 2011- 2012 are calculated and presented in the above table. From the above table it is analyzed that the current ratio position in the company is not good from the year 2008-2009 i.e., the company has not properly managed its working capital requirements; it does not shows the good financial position of the company. After that it is consistently decrease i.e. 1.96 to 1.58 in 2008-09 & 2009-10. It is increase slightly in 2010-11 but again decreased in 2011-12. From the above table it is clear that the company has relatively low current ratio which is the indication that the company assets are not highly liquid and it's hard for the company to meet its liabilities in time as when they are due.

TABLE 3: TABLE SHOWING LIQUID RATIO OF RDPL (Rs. In lacs)

Particulars	**2007-2008**	**2008-2009**	**2009-2010**	**2010-2011**	**2011-2012**
Liquid Assets	3076.42	4515.31	4626.30	5568.78	5094.94
Liquid Liabilities	1674.34	2675.68	3389.10	4024.61	5668.35
Liquid Ratio	1.84	1.69	1.37	1.38	0.90

Sources: Annual reports

Interpretation

The standard quick ratio is 1:1. From the above table it is clear that the quick ratio has consistently decreased from the year 2007-2008 to 2011-2012, i.e., 1.84 to 0.90, which shows company has maintained its stability over the year 2007-08 to 2010-11and a slip in the year 2011-12 due to the decrease in the liquid assets. From the above table it clear that the company has high liquid ratio compared to the current liabilities, which shows the company's business is said to be in a liquid condition till 2010-11. But it is slightly decreased in the year 2011-12, which shows company is not in liquid form & exposed to risk in that particular year.

TABLE 4: TABLE SHOWING WORKING CAPITAL TURNOVER RATIO OF RDPL (Rs. In lacs)

Particulars	**2007-2008**	**2008-2009**	**2009-2010**	**2010-2011**	**2011-2012**
Sales	8821.08	7801.86	8367.69	7870.02	7991.80
Net Working Capital	2258.39	2566.29	1978.70	2681.49	325.32
Working Capital Turnover ratio	3.91	3.04	4.23	2.93	24.56

Sources: Annual reports

Interpretation

The above depicts the working capital turnover ratio. From the above table it is analyzed that the working capital turnover ratio of the company is 3.91 in the year 2007-2008, and a slight decrease in the year 2008-2009. In the year 2009-2010 the company has concentrated and improved its working capital ratio to 4.23 and again there is a slight decrease in the year 2010-11. In 2011-12 year, there is an increase in the ratio. From the above table it can infer that there is an efficient management of working capital in the company.

TABLE 5: TABLE SHOWING CURRENT LIABILITIES TO NET WORTH RATIO (Rs. In lacs)

Particulars	**2007-2008**	**2008-2009**	**2009-2010**	**2010-2011**	**2011-2012**
Net Working Capital	2258.39	2566.29	1978.70	2681.49	325.32
Current Liabilities	1674.34	2675.68	3389.10	4024.61	5668.35
Current Liabilities to Networth Ratio	1.34	0.95	0.58	0.66	0.05

Interpretation

Desirable level for this Ratio is 1/3. The ratios calculated above are very high compared to the desirable ratio. The above table depicts the CL to Net worth ratio of the company is consistently decreasing from 1.34 to 0.58, i.e. for the year 2007-08 to 2009-10, then slight increase in 2010-11 and again decrease in 2011-12. It means it is easy to obtain long-term funds from any financial institutions.

TABLE 6: TABLE SHOWING DEBTORS TURNOVER RATIO (Rs. In lacs)

Particulars	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
Net credit annual sales	8821.08	7801.86	8367.69	7870.02	7991.80
Average Sundry debtors	2638.96	3301.80	3999.81	4432.98	4861.12
Debtors turnover Ratio	3.34	2.36	2.09	1.77	1.64

Sources: Annual reports

Interpretation

The above table depicts the company's debt turnover ratio, it is in decreasing trend from 2007- 2008 to 2011-2012 there is high decrease due to increase in debtors , i.e., the company's credit sales is increased as well as receivables, which can be further become a bad debts to the company.

TABLE 7: TABLE SHOWING AVERAGE COLLECTION PERIOD (Rs. In lacs)

Particulars	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
Average No of working days	365	365	365	365	365
Debtors turnover ratio	3.34	2.36	2.09	1.77	1.64
Average collection period	109.28	154.66	174.64	206.21	222.56

Note: Average Number of working days is assumed to be 365 days

Sources: Annual reports

Interpretation

From the above analysis, the average collection period of debtors has an increasing trend from 110 days in 2007-2008 and then increased to 155 days in 2008-2009 and further increased to 175 days in 2009-2010, and in 2010-2011& 2011-2012 it has further increased to 207 days & 223 days of the collection period of debtors. From the above table it can be inferred that the company is losing its creditability in the market as there is short fall in the working capital.

TABLE 8: TABLE SHOWING EVALUATION OF INVENTORY MANAGEMENT (Rs. In lacs)

Particulars	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
Inventories	853.16	722.51	737.14	1133.41	894.42
Net working capital	2258.39	2566.29	1978.70	2681.49	325.32
Inventor management Ratio	0.37	0.28	0.37	0.42	2.74

Sources: Annual reports

Interpretation

From the above analysis, the company inventory are up and down from the year 2007-2008 to 2011-2012 i.e. in 2007-08 it is 0.37, in 2008-09 it is further decreased to 0.28, then in 2009-2010 it has increased to 0.37 and in the year 2010 - 11 is 0.42, and then in 2012 it has increased to 2.74, Hence from 2008-2010 the company is trying to maintain stable inventory level & get succeed in 2009-2010, and in the year 2012 it increased to 2.74.

TABLE 9: TABLE SHOWING INVENTORIES TO CURRENT ASSETS RATIO (Rs. In lacs)

Particulars	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
Inventories	853.16	722.51	737.14	1133.41	894.42
Current assets	3932.73	5241.97	5367.80	6706.10	5993.67
Inventory to Current Assets Ratio	0.21	0.13	0.13	0.16	0.14

Sources: Annual reports

Interpretation

From the above analysis, the inventories to current asset are decreasing in the year 2007-2008 & 2008-2009 from 0.21 to 0.13. And for the next two years 2008-2009 & 2009-2010 it is maintained stable inventory to current assets i.e. 0.13, and then in the year 2010-11 it is increased to 0.16, again it is decreased to 0.14 in 2012. From the above table it can be inferred that inventory to current assets of the company was fluctuating, and also stable inventory level of 0.13%, which is led to the decrease in the working capital which again has reduced the current assets of the company.

TABLE 10: TABLE SHOWING INVENTORIES TO TURNOVER RATIO (Rs. In lacs)

Particulars	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
Sales	8821.08	7801.86	8367.69	7870.02	7991.80
Inventories	853.16	722.51	737.14	1133.41	894.42
Inventories on turnover ratio	10.33	10.79	11.35	6.94	8.93

Sources: Annual reports

Interpretation

From the above table it is analyzed that the inventory are increasing in the year 2007-2008, i.e., 853.16 and it decreases in the year 2008-2009, i.e., 722.51 and then the ratio is also increasing in the year 2008-2009, i.e., 10.79, then the ratio is increased to 11.35 in year 2009-2010, then it is decreased to 6.94 in the year 2011, and then in the year 2012 it has increased to 8.93 while comparing the previous year.

TABLE 11: TABLE SHOWING EVALUATION OF RECEIVABLES MANAGEMENT (Rs. In lacs)

Particulars	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
Receivable	2638.96	3964.64	4034.98	4830.98	4891.26
Net Working Capital	2258.39	2566.29	1978.70	2681.49	325.32
Receivable on net Working Capital	1.16	1.54	2.03	1.80	15.03

Sources: Annual reports

Interpretation

From the above analysis the receivable to Net Working Capital ratio of the company is 1.16 in the year 2007-2008, then in the year 2009 & 2010, it is further increase to 1.54 & 2.03, then in the year 2011 it has further decreased to 1.80, but later it is increased to 15.03 in the year 2011-2012. The above table indicates that the receivables on net working capital of the company are fluctuating.

TABLE 12: TABLE SHOWING ON CASH TURNOVER RATIO (Rs. In lacs)

Particulars	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
Sales	8821.08	7801.86	8367.69	7870.02	7991.80
Cash & bank balance	124.00	210.45	90.55	98.45	148.06
Cash turnover Ratio	71.13	37.07	92.40	79.93	53.97

Sources: Annual reports

Interpretation

From the above table it is found that the company's cash turnover ratio is decreased in the year 2008 & 2009 from 71.13 to 37.07, and then in the year 2009-2010, it is increased to 92.40, then in the year 2010-2011 it is decreased to 79.93, and during 2011-12 year cash ratio is again decreased to 53.97. The Cash Turnover ratio of the company from past four years, i.e., 2009- 2010 to 2011- 2012, was going down, as there is an increase in the amount of sales of the company and the receivables is also increased and the net working capital is decreased due to which the cash inflow of the company has reduced.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Some of the important findings of the study are as follows:

1. Quick ratio is also higher than the standard of 1:1 except 2011-12, which shows that the company has almost in good liquid position.
2. Current ratio trend shows that the ratio is consistently decreasing as against the standards of 2:1. Based on this data, the company assets are not highly liquid and it's hard for the company to meet its liabilities in time as when they are due.
3. Creditors Turnover ratio and average payment period shows that the company is prompt in its payments as and when due.
4. The increment in working capital turnover ratio indicates that low investment in working capital relation to sales is required for the company.
5. Increasing trend in total assets turnover ratio shows the off sales generated by the total assets. The trend shows that the assets of the company are efficiently utilized to generate sales.
6. The Cash Turnover ratios of the company go down in 2009 then it increases in 2010. In 2012, it goes down again as compared to previous year 2011. But the company has to take some important measures to stabilize its resources.

SUGGESTIONS

1. The company depends on one customer Government of Rajasthan & Ministry of Health & Affairs, Government of India; in future it is advisable to look for other customers.
2. The management should take effective measures to recover the outstanding of the company.
3. The cash balance of the company is required to be improved in order to have immediate liquidity position. But at the same time, precaution should be taken to see that too many funds are not locked up in cash balance, which ultimately may lead to improper utilization of funds.
4. The company depends largely in borrowing to finance its fixed assets. In future, the company should use its own earnings to reduce the burden of interest or dividend payments.
5. The effective and efficient cash inflow provides an opportunity to co-ordinate with cash outflow. Proper coordinated cash inflow and outflow management will maintain sound and better working capital management, the improvement in credit collection and selling will boost their sales and will record them in cash inflow management.

CONCLUSION

For over three decades, the Rajasthan Drugs & Pharmaceuticals limited has been a prime mover and catalyst behind key pharmaceutical sector reforms in the state - measures that have spiraled steady growth witnessed in both industrial and economic areas. RDPL is a profit making 'Mini Ratna' enterprise amongst the Pharmaceutical Public Sector Undertaking in the country. Right from the year of inception, in 1981, RDPL set its sights on "supply life saving and other essential drugs" meeting growing industry needs and saving the peoples life's. From the study it was also concluded that though the company's earnings was increasing every year, the company's funds are not properly utilized. Therefore RDPL should try to improve its financial positions in the coming years.

At last it can be conclude that company financial position was seeing to be sound because the company tries to increase its production and also net profit.

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