BVIMSR's

JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT RESEARCH

ISSN: 0976 - 4739

Impact factor- SJIF (2014)= 3.438 I2OR-PIF(2017)=4.847

VOLUME -11 NUMBER - 1 April, 2019

In This Issue:

Bharati Vidyapeeth's Institute of Management Studies & Research
Sector 8, CBD-Belapur, Navi Mumbai-400614
022-27572433/ 27562582, email: editor_bjmr@bvimsr.com
www.bvimsr.com

BVIMSR's
JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT RESEARCH

The views expressed in the journal by the authors are of their own and not of the editors nor of the publisher.
It is the sole responsibility of the authors that the article submitted by them is their original work and that the article has not been published anywhere else.
The legal jurisdiction for any dispute arising from this publication will be Navi Mumbai.

FROM THE EDITOR'S DESK

This issue of BJMR includes nine papers covering various subjects.

The first paper is titled "Factors Influencing Consumer Buying Behavior towards Durable (White) Products" focuses on the objective of finding out various factors like purchase initiator, search information, the source of information, importance of attributes etc. that affect consumer buying behaviour towards consumer durable (white) products. Questionnaires were filled to analyse consumed buying behaviour towards sustainable (white) products. The researchers used some statistical tools like descriptive analysis and t-test. The results of the study were that female respondent initiated most of the purchase of refrigerators, washing machines and microwave oven and for air conditioners and LCD/LED, purchases were initiated by the male respondents.

The second paper is titled "A Study on Competency Mapping among Teaching Faculty of Professional Colleges in East Godavari District, A.P." aims to extract impact of demographic factors on the selected competency levels (knowledge, skills, attitudes) among the faculty members working in professional colleges (both UG & PG) located in East Godavari District, Andhra Pradesh. A well-structured questionnaire was used to collect primary data and the secondary data has been procured from previous topic-related research studies published through both online and offline modes. 350 faculty members working in professional engineering and post graduations colleges are selected as sample respondents from East Godavari district.

The third paper titled "External Debt and Private Investment in Nigeria", this paper sets out to investigate the association between external debt and private investment in Nigeria, based on the debt overhang and financing gap theories. Using Granger causality, Johansen cointegration and Error correction mechanism, the short-run and long-run association on an annual data covering the period 1981-2016 was examined. The findings emanating from the estimated models show clearly that private investment is inversely related to debt overhang both in the short-run and long-run; marginal rise in current year debt service leads to more than proportionate decrease in current ratio of debt overhang; and interest rate, exchange rate and inflation rate are positively linked to debt overhang ratio.

The fourth paper titled "Union and Management Perception towards Industrial Relations Climate: A Survey Study" study attempts to study that Organisations from various sectors and regions exhibit diverse Industrial Relations (IR) Climate trends. The present study is based on the survey of union and management perception from five organisations operating in manufacturing sector in Mumbai and Pune industrial sites. Aim of the study is to understand IR relationship through aspects such as cooperation and participation levels, respect and hostility towards each other, support for organising workers, spirit of fairness in dealings at workplace and lesser indifference at workplace.

The fifth paper titled "Consumers' Expectations towards Ready-To-Cook Food – An Empirical study of Delhi/ NCR" tries to determine consumers' expectations towards Ready-to-cook food. Two factors are extracted- Health and convenience to explain the expectations of consumers' towards Ready-to-cook food. These findings can assist marketers of RTC food in designing effective marketing strategies.

The sixth paper titled "Comparative Analysis of NPAs by Rural Financial Institutions to Agricultural Sector" tries to understand the Agriculture sector is a very important and plays integral role for the economic development of our nation. Most of the India's rural populations nearly about 58 percent depends on agriculture sector as it is the basic primary source of livelihood, and also contributes to employment generation, 8.39 per cent of Gross Value Added (GVA), 13 per cent of India's exports and six per cent of total industrial investment. Inspite of having so much significant importance, it is continuously witnessed with several problems, which arise from many factors like inadequate technologies, lack of awareness of various agriculture practices, impact of changing policies of government, socio-economic condition, credit constraints of farmers, lack of optimum utilization of water and other resources in India. This paper insights on identifying the amount of NPAs by selected Rural Financial Institutions and the factors which are encountering to the high number of NPAs in the agricultural sector, and then offer suggestions to reduce them.

The seventh paper titled "Impact of Flexible Working Arrangements on Employee Satisfaction in It Sector", this paper makes an attempt to understand and analyze the impact of Flexible Working Arrangement on Employee Satisfaction. Employee Satisfaction is affected by dimensions such as psychological well-being, social relationship and physical health. Data was collected from 100 respondents working in IT sector who are employed in Delhi NCR using convenience sampling distribution method. To understand the relationship between Flexible Working Arrangement and Employee Satisfaction descriptive study was conducted on employees of IT sector. The results of the study showed positive relationship between Flexible Work Arrangement and Employee Satisfaction.

The eight paper titled "Students' Specific and Entrepreneurship Propensity of Undergraduates in Nigerian Private Universities", this study investigated the relationship between students' specific and entrepreneurship propensity of Nigerian undergraduates in private universities. The hypotheses for the study were students' specific does not have significant relationship with students' attitude in embarking on entrepreneurial activities; students' specific does not significantly related to students' self-efficacy in embarking on entrepreneurial activities; and students' specific is not significantly related with students' technical ability in embarking on entrepreneurial activities. The findings displayed that students' specific has a significant relationship with entrepreneurship propensity of Nigeria undergraduates in private universities.

The ninth paper titled "Hospitality Education and Skill Development in Hospitality sector to facilitate employment opportunities: A New Perspective" studies the Globally, Hospitality Education is more than 100 years old and in India and it has completed more than 65 years of existence. The research focuses on exploring the development of hospitality education in India, skill development initiatives introduced by the Government of India, key challenges faced by the hospitality education sector, employment opportunities and future prospects.

CONTENTS

Factors Influencing Consumer Buying Behavior towards Durable (White) Products

Dr. Jyoti Rana
(Associate Professor, DAV Centenary College, NH-3, Faridabad) H.No- 1249, Sector-19, Faridabad
Contact No- 01292415044 (O), +919999310592(P) Email: jyotid_123@yahoo.co.in

***Dr. Priti Jha (Corresponding Author)**
(Assistant Professor, DAV Centenary College, NH-3, Faridabad)
H.No-DC-586, Dabua Colony , 27 Ft. Road, Faridabad
Contact No-01292415044(O), +918800322430(P) Email: admin@fmrt.in

ABSTRACT : *Consumer durables industries are one of the booming sectors in India. In today's scenario, consumer durables have recognized an essential device for day-to-day use for the middle class in India. There are so many factors which flourish consumer durable industry in India like easy access to consumer finance, increase in consumer awareness, increase in income levels, the standard of living, the introduction of advanced technology and models etc. The study focuses on the objective of finding out various factors like purchase initiator, search information, the source of information, importance of attributes etc. that affect consumer buying behaviour towards consumer durable (white) products. Questionnaires were filled to analyse consumed buying behaviour towards sustainable (white) products. The researchers used some statistical tools like descriptive analysis and t-test. The results of the study were that female respondent initiated most of the purchase of refrigerators, washing machines and microwave oven and for air conditioners and LCD\LED, purchases were initiated by the male respondents. Majority of the purchase decisions made by the respondents have influenced their family members, and the next influencing sources were themselves and spouse. The respondents have collected the information about the selected white goods from family and friends first and after that from the TV ad and e-media. Some respondents don't believe in credit facility but cash purchase. They don't find showroom location important for all five products.*

Keywords: Consumer Durable Products, Consumer Buying Behaviour, Purchase Initiator, White Products, Attributes

1 INTRODUCTION

Consumer durables industries are one of the booming sectors in India. In today's scenario, consumer durables have recognized an important device for day-to-day use for the middle class in India. There are so many factors which flourish consumer durable industry in India like easy access to consumer finance, increase in consumer awareness, increase in income levels, the standard of living, the introduction of advanced technology and models etc. (Ojha, 2013). There is a continuous growth has been seen in India for the consumer durable industry over the long period of time-powered by favourable consumer demographics as well as overall growth has been observed in services and industrial sectors, infrastructure development etc. The demand for consumer durables has risen outstandingly in India. This may be due to a decrease in the prices of consumer goods of different companies have been observed due to the increase in competition and those are available at an affordable price (Laddha, 2015).

This is also supported by Consumer Electronics and Appliances Manufacturers Association (CEAMA, 2010) that 12-13 per cent growth had been registered for consumer durables and electronics sector in 2010. The Indian consumer durables industry has witnessed a significant change over the last few years. India is the second proliferating economy having enormous consumer category. The Consumer durables industry has emerged as an important industry in India. According to a report by CAGR, consumer durables industry was anticipated to get larger of almost 19 % during 2010-2013 to US$ 9.5 billion (Patel, 2013).

It is important to know about the few terms before going into the further discussion:-

1.1 Consumer Durable

Consumer durables have become apparent as one of the flourishing industries in India. Indian urban consumers are the energetic, young and earner in the family that's why it automatically increases the demand of consumer durables (Buvaneshwari and Babu, 2014). There is also an impact of social media on consumers for durable products. Social media also plays an important role while purchasing consumer durable products. Indian youth are very much influenced by social media for durable products because they are attracted towards those products which are advertised through social media (Jha and Saini, 2014). There are also so many factors which flourish consumer durable industry in India like easy access to consumer finance, increase in consumer awareness, increase in income levels, the standard of living, the introduction of advanced technology and models etc. (Kumar, 2010).

According to the India Brand Equity Foundation (IBEF, 2012), Consumer durables products are divided into two segments: Consumer Appliances & Consumer Electronics. Consumer appliances can be further divided into two types that is white products and brown products.

1.2 White Products

White Products were those products which were generally painted or coated white, and many of them are still in white. In olden days, the white colour represented as grace, cleanliness, perfection and warmth. The producers of white durable products wanted their products to depict all the above qualities that are mostly used in the living -room and the kitchen. The white products are considered as machines which perform works like cooking, cooling, cleaning, and food preservation.

According to the report given by ICRA 2005-06, consumer durables include refrigerators, washing machines, air-conditioners, LCDs & LED TV, Microwave oven, water heaters, freezers, speakers and audio equipment etc. The consumer durable white products industry is stiffly affected by different energy-saving rules and regulations. It does not change the appliances but also manufacturing facilities (Dasar et al. 2013).

1.3 Consumer Buying Behavior

Consumer buying behaviour is the study of buying behaviour of when, why, how, and where consumers do or do not purchase products. It also aims to understand the process of decision-making of buyer both individually and collectively. (Subramanian, 2015).

It also describes the logical reasoning about purchasing decision and consumption designs; it elucidates the stages by which purchasers can make decisions. The study encompasses within its range, the interplay between cognition, affect and behavior which goes on within a buyer during the buying process: selecting, using and selling of goods and services (Sahney, 2009).

2. Review of Literature

Sarvana (2010) , had studied the consumer buying behaviour with special reference to durable products. The result of this study was that education, high income and family influence the consumer buying behaviour the most while purchasing consumer durable goods. This was also supported by Thaman and Ahuja (2010) and concluded that the buying behaviour of consumer in the buying of television, food processor and refrigerator, family and high salaried group affect the most. Freda (1995), has also concluded that the decision of family members jointly influence the buying behaviour of consumers for durable products. Raju and Saravanan (2001), opined that in the case of consumer durables, most of the families take purchase decision jointly and also observed that with the help of advertisements and publicity through mass media, the company can reach to the buyer closely followed by getting information from relatives and friends. Gupta and Chundawat (2002) analysed the roles performed by the social influence and family members on the purchase of a refrigerator and resulted that home-makers were playing a crucial part in demand initiation and after that husband took the final decision in the purchase of a refrigerator. This argument was also supported by Gupta and Verma (2000) and concluded that the influence of the husband's choice is significantly higher than the wives. Children also influence by a greater degree when it comes to choosing and selecting a brand of CTV. Prasad and Kumari (1987), have concluded that advertisement leaves a very positive impact on the consumer buying behaviour for consumer durables market. In this research, the importance of refrigerator among consumer durables is studied. In a study conducted by Das and Mohanty (2008), and had been observed that the most affected factors for consumer buying behaviour for durable goods are-word of mouth, technical features, durability and ground reality.

Kishore and Nabi (2000), pointed out that consumers give importance to brand while purchasing any durable product like television etc. Consumers always prefer reputed brand while they are buying televisions because as per their opinion television is a branded product. This has also been supported by Rajeswari and Pirakatheeswari (2014), in their study, they have concluded that among the 10 features that influence the respondents while they purchase the consumer durable goods, the factor “Price” ranked first, “Quality” got the second, “Brand Image” got the third rank and “Model/Design” got the fourth rank. Mohanram and Mahavi (2007), were observed that youngsters were affected by advanced and updated information of the product and gathered information from various dealers on different aspects of price,quality, technology, brand etc. and influenced by the pressure of associates and sales talk of the supplier. In the context of promotion mix, different sales initiatives like stores display, store visits, and other sales promotion efforts captivate the youngsters very much. Estelami & Maeyer (2004), found that when the researchers did extensive research on price, then there was no impact of the product category for durable products when it comes to consumer’s knowledge of products found. Das et al. (2008) have made a study on consumer buying behaviour in the durables market with reference to colour television. There is daily exercise by the households as to which goods and services they must purchase and the factors which are most important that they keep in mind about the products are price, quality, and also the influence of advertisement that they watch on television and word of mouth about the products from their friends and relatives.

3. Objective

The objective of this study is to find out various factors like purchase initiator, search information, the source of information, the importance of attributes etc. that affect consumer buying behaviour towards consumer durable (white) products.

4. Research Methodology

The research methodology for this study is as follows:-

The universe for this study was Delhi – NCR covering all the users of selected durable (white) products. 150 questionnaires were filled to analyse consumed buying behaviour towards sustainable (white) products. The consumers of Delhi-NCR region (Delhi, Faridabad, Gurgaon, Ghaziabad and Noida) were considered. The consumers of the selected durable (white) products were included in the sample. They had been chosen on the basis of judgment and convenience of the researcher. Predesigned questions were framed for collecting primary data to study the consumer buying behaviour towards durable (white) products. The researcher used the descriptive analysis-test and t-test.

5. Analysis

The analyses of the study are as follows:-

5.1 Selected White Products- Purchase Initiators

In Indian society, a transformation from traditionalism to modernism is taking place. Women working outside the homes are being encouraged. Today, it is the female who influences the family purchase decision. The following table describes the purchase initiator of selected durable (white) products.

Table 1: Selected White Products: Purchase Initiators

Product	Initiator of purchase						Total
		Own Decision	Family Members	Friends/ Relatives/ Neighbours	Sales People	Peer Group	
Refrigerator	Frequency	29	116	4	1	---	**212**
	Percentage	19.3	77.3	2.7	0.7	---	**80.7**
Washing	Frequency	28	113	5	3	1	**122**
	Percentage	18.7	75.3	3.3	2.0	0.7	**81.3**
Air conditioner	Frequency	33	97	16	1	2	**116**
	Percent age	22.0	64.7	10.7	0.7	1.3	**77.4**
LCD/ LED TV	Frequency	34	99	16	---	---	**115**
	Percentage	22.7	66.0	10.7	---	---	**76.7**
Microwave Oven	Frequency	34	101	14	---	---	**115**
	Percentage	22.7	67.3	9.3	---	---	**76.7**

(Source-Primary Data)

From the above table, it is understood that for all selected (white) products, most of the respondents were influenced by their family members. The next purchase initiator source is the own decision. Compared with other influencing sources, the influence of the peer group is low.

5.2 Searching of Information by the Respondents

One person can search for information about the selected durable (white) products through various sources. The following table describes the respondents who seek information for selected durable (white) products.

Table 2: Search Information by the Respondents

Search Information	Frequency	Percentage
Myself	70	34.5
Spouse	25	12.4
Family Members	85	41.8
Friends	8	3.9
Relatives	15	7.4
Total	**203**	**100**

The above data states that all the selected (white) products, family members are the most reliable source from all the mentioned sources.

5.3 Sources of Information for the Purchase of Selected White Goods

Vyas (2010), pointed out that sources of information such as authorized dealers' shop, technical expert advice, and role of television as media and influence of friends, relatives and neighbours found significant in the purchase of durables by respondents. The following table shows the sources of information for the purchase of selected white goods.

Table 3 : Selected White Goods: Source of Information

Sources of Information	Frequency	Percentage
e-Media	51	20.2
Reference Groups	4	1.6
Work Groups	14	5.5
TV Ad	80	32.0
Newspaper	24	9.5
Word of Mouth	7	2.6
Print Media	3	1.1
Family and Friends	70	27.5
Total	**253**	**100**

The above table shows that for the purchase of durable products, family and friends play the most important role as a source of information. The next important source of information is e-media.

5.4 Importance - Attributes while purchasing the selected white products

A product has various essential attributes. The importance of some attributes while buying the selected white goods is given in the following table.

Table 4: Importance of Attributes while purchasing the selected white products

Attributes	**Not at all Important**		**Slightly Important**		**Neither Important nor Unimportant**		**Important**		**Very Important**		**Total**	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Brand Name	1	0.7	3	2.0	2	1.3	72	48.0	72	48.0	**150**	**100**
Model	5	3.3	8	5.3	15	10.0	77	51.3	45	30.0	**150**	**100**
Advance Features	3	2.0	4	2.7	14	9.3	70	46.7	59	39.3	**150**	**100**
Durability	--	--	8	5.3	9	6.0	70	46.7	63	42.0	**150**	**100**
Comfortable Size	4	2.7	9	6.0	17	11.3	67	44.7	53	35.3	**150**	**100**
Features	--	--	10	6.7	7	4.7	92	61.3	41	27.3	**150**	**100**
Colour	2	1.3	22	14.7	22	14.7	59	39.3	45	30.0	**150**	**100**
Price	2	1.3	4	2.7	5	3.3	43	28.7	96	64.0	150	100
Energy Saving	--	--	9	6.0	13	8.7	41	27.3	87	58.0	150	100
Show room location	17	11.3	21	14.0	47	31.3	44	29.3	21	14.0	150	100
Offers & Schemes	6	4.0	17	11.3	36	24.0	42	28.0	49	32.7	150	100
Guarantee	--	--	4	2.7	17	11.3	51	34.0	78	52.0	150	100

Credit Facility	9	6.0	16	10.7	33	22.0	48	32.0	44	29.3	150	100
Maintenance	4	2.7	17	11.3	11	7.3	67	44.7	51	34.0	150	100
After Sales Service	1	0.7	7	4.7	17	11.3	37	24.7	88	58.7	150	100

From the above, we can conclude that location is not important. The results show that for some respondents, in the case of all five products. Consumers do not give any importance to the credit facility. They believe in cash purchases. For other respondents, features, model, brand name, advance features & durability, size of products & maintenance facility are an essential attribute for them. Price, guarantee, energy saving, and after-sale service are essential attribute while purchasing durable products for some respondents.

Hypothesis

H0: Attributes don't play any significant role while making purchasing decisions for consumer durable (white) products by different types of families and genders.

H1: Attributes play significant role while making purchasing decisions for consumer durable (white) products by different types of families and genders.

Further t-test has also been applied by family type and by gender type. It is used to determine whether there is a significant difference between the means of two groups. It also measures the size of the difference relative to the variation in our sample data.

Table 5: t-test (Importance of Attributes while purchasing the selected white products)

Attributes	**t-test value (By family type)**	**t-test value (By Gender)**
Brand	.927	.984
Model	.918	.423
Advanced Features	.467	.495
Durability	.485	.891
Comfortable Size	.083	.139
Features	.061	.098
Colour	.840	.165
Price	.061	.218
Energy Saving	.132	.429
Show room location	.059	.084
Offer & Schemes	.899	.415
Guarantees	.916	.930
Credit Facility	.644	.651
Maintenance	.528	.229
After Sale Service	.229	.049

The null hypothesis is rejected. Families consider some attributes like brand, model, price, size, colour, guarantees, offers & schemes. They play the most significant role while purchasing consumer durable (white) products. These attributes like brand, durability, features & guarantees play the most significant part for buying of these products for different genders.

6. Discussion

Female respondents initiated most of the respondents for the purchase of refrigerators, washing machines and microwave oven and air conditioners and LCD\LED, purchases were initiated by the male respondents. Majority of the purchase decisions made by their family members and the next influencing source was themselves and spouse.

The most reliable source is family & friends while collecting the source of information for purchasing consumer durable (white) products. The results also show that Consumers don't give preference to location and believe in cash purchases. They also do not provide any importance to the credit facility. The essential attributes in purchasing durable products were price, guarantee, energy saving, and after-sale service.

7. Managerial Implications

The present study helps marketers to convince family and friends for selling their products as family and friends are the most reliable source for information to consumers. Consumers are believed to pay on a cash basis as they don't want to spend any extra money for interest. So, marketers should apply suitable cash discount for boosting sales up. Price, model, size, colour, guarantees, offers and schemes are important factors, which are considered while selling durable products. Hence, companies have to focus on these factors to increase their sales.

The Academicians can also get valuable information for further study regarding any other durable products and other areas.

8. Limitations

The present study has some limitations. As less number of existing research papers, the researcher has used other linked theories to complete the consumer durable products literature. It is difficult to find people likely to participate in the interviewing process because of a rigid schedule in the day to day life. The study does not include other durable products like speaker and audio equipment, DVDs, mobile phone etc. which limits its scope and restrict the study to be comparative. The findings of the study will be limited to Indian consumers of Delhi (NCR) only. The discussion and conclusion may vary with the involvement of other consumer durable products and consumers from a different area.

References:-

- Buvaneswari, R.and Babu, P.(2014). A Study on Users' Behaviour towards Durable Goods in Srirangam. International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Sciences, Vol. 2, 34-39.
- CEAMA (Consumer Electronics and Appliances Manufacturers Association) (2010), Global Consumer Electronics Market Forecast to 2013. Retrieved From: www.ceama.org.
- Consumer Durable IBEF (India Brand Equity Foundation), 2012. Retrieved From: www.ibef.org.
- Dasar, P., Paramanand, S., and Weinberg, P. (2013). Consumer Behaviour on Consumer Durables with reference to Bijapur district .Global Journal of Commerce & Management Perspective, Vol. 2, 36-46.
- Das, B. and Mohanty, S. (2008). Categorizing Consumers' Buying Behaviour: A Factor Analysis in Consumer Durable Market, International Journal of Business and Management, Vol. 3, 56-63.
- D.V., R. and Saravana, S. (2001). A Study on Consumer Behaviour in the Marketing of a Household Appliance in Chennai city of Tamil Nadu state, Indian Journal of Market. Vol. 31, 33-34.

- Freda, R. (2005). Preference of Location and Factor Associated with Purchase of Semi-Durable Product with special reference to Mat in West Bengal. International Journal of Engineering, Business and Enterprise Applications (IJEBEA), Vol.5, 187-191.
- Gupta, S. and Chundawat, P. (2002). Family and Social Influences in Buying Decision Making – A Study of Refrigerator, Management Review, Vol.14, 31-41.
- Jeya Kumar, S. (2010). Consumer Durables Rural India Calling, Market Survey-Facts for You, Vol. 1, 13-17.
- Jha, P. and Saini, P. (2014). Impact of Social Networking Sites (SNS) on the Youth of India, DAVCC's Advance Management Research: An International Journal (DAVCC's AMRIJ) , Vol. 2, 91-99.
- Laddha, S. (2015). Rural Consumer Buying Behaviour and Brand Awareness of Durable Products. Journal NBR E, Vol. 1, 48-55
- Thaman, M. and Ahuja, P. (2010). Consumer Behaviour in the Purchase Process of Television, Refrigerator and Food Processor with special reference to Income level, International Journal of Research in Commerce and Management, Vol. 11, 126–135.
- Ojha, S. (2013). India Now, Sectoral Update/White Goods 2013, Market Information. Vol. 2, 36-38.
- Patel, K. and Ritesh, K. (2013). A Study on Consumer Preference towards Purchase of Electronic Consumer Durables from Retail Malls. Elk Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Retail Management, Vol. 4, 54-59.
- S. Mohanram, & C, Mahavi. (2007). Product Related Characteristics, Promotion and Marketing Mix are Key Tools in determining Purchase Behaviour and Purchase Decision by Teen Agers – An Empirical Study. Indian Journal of Marketing, Vol. 38, 36-44.
- S. Sarvana (2010), A Study on Consumer Behaviour of Women with special reference to Durable Goods in Coimbatore City, Tamil Nadu, Vol. 40, 32-39.
- Srivastava, S. and Tandon, A. (2014). A Study of Impact of Promotional Measures on Consumer Buying Behaviour towards Durable Goods---with reference to Lucknow City. Vol.3, 43-50.
- Vyas, H. (2010). Consumer Purchase of Consumer Durables: A Factorial Study, International Journal of Management & Strategy, Vol. 1, 1-12.

❑❑❑

A STUDY ON COMPETENCY MAPPING AMONG TEACHING FACULTY OF PROFESSIONAL COLLEGES IN EAST GODAVARI DISTRICT, A.P.

Mrs. P.S. Padmavathi,
Research Scholar, School of Management Studies, JNTU Kakinada,
E-mail id: sudhasudhir624@gmail.com, Mobile: 9989842888

Dr. T.V. Ramana,
Associate Professor, ANURPG Centre, Kakinada, Andhra Pradesh.
E-mail: drtvramana@yahoo.co.in

Dr. B. Kuberudu,
Professor, AU College of Commerce and Management

ABSTRACT : *A competency is an outline of phrases like "philosophy, emotions, talking" that influence an individual to achieve success in his/her job. Many research studies have been conducted to identify the various competencies that are facilitating the process of mapping the identified competencies to the demands of an individual's job or role at their workplace. The need of competency mapping is a planning procedure in identifying essential knowledge, skills, attitudes of in an individual employee and allotting suitable work/job to attain his/her goals keeping in line with organizational goals as well in order to improve the work efficiency and reaching productivity in higher levels. Academicians working in the professional institutes possess exclusive challenges as they are projected to play multiple roles in their teaching methodology. The present study aims to extract impact of demographic factors on the selected competency levels (knowledge, skills, attitudes) among the faculty members working in professional colleges (both UG & PG) located in East Godavari District, Andhra Pradesh. A well-structured questionnaire was used to collect primary data and the secondary data has been procured from previous topic-related research studies published through both online and offline modes. 350 faculty members working in professional engineering and post graduations colleges are selected as sample respondents from East Godavari district.*

Keywords: Competency, high productivity, academicians, knowledge, skills, attitudes.

1 Introduction

The need for developing skills among the employees of an organization has become essential with the liberalization and globalization of economic activities. As a result, the demand for worldwide adequate standards is substantiation in the education sector. India is one of the many countries with a broader educational system. Each and every employee in his/her profession is required of tracing out their responsibilities and the level of commitment that should be inculcated in their job to reach his/her professional goals which also brings the organizational goals in the same line. Every employee should search few sources of their own like knowledge, skills, and attitudes for triumph in their profession especially the teaching fraternity as they are having multiple responsibilities to satisfy their clients (viz. management personnel, superiors, students, parents).

The concept "competency mapping" helps the educational institutions by providing a picture of individual's entire behavioral scale that fabricates excellent performance and in addition, it also provides an important and useful tool to guide institutes' teaching personnel development (Chandan Maheshkar, 2015). The competencies play a key role in activating educational institutes to raise a competitive lead by supporting the hr functions to focus its efforts on enhancing employees' skills. The competencies are observed as a collection of competencies from personal life to professional life (Rifkin et. al., 1999). The core competencies embedded from an employee level has been connected with the institutional competitiveness, and its concepts, factors, and contexts affect the employee selection and development, institutional development and competency management function.

Every teaching faculty in an educational institute should constitute and also able to merge the personal resources like knowledge, skills, and attitudes to show off a competitive environment in the workplace (Lustri et. al., 2007).

1.1. Competency:

Mansfield (2004) has presented a broader view of competency with words – "competent people were those who followed rules and procedures without question – competency meant compliance" that stressed over the need for personnel to take more responsibility and adaptability. He also acknowledged three different usages of competency:

1. Use to describe what people need to be able to do with employment;
2. Use to describe what currently happens;
3. Use to describe what people are like.

1.2. Core Competencies for Academicians:

A Competency mix of "knowledge, skills and attitudes" are the required ingredients for a teacher/academician in any stage to make the educational institute efficiently for providing a guaranteed positive experience for the students, parents and institute management personnel too. For this, the following are some of the major competencies that an academician need to inherit to get better outcomes in their professional life as well as students' career.

1. Motivating and encouraging students with positive interaction
2. To generate a knowledge milieu
3. Designing a perfect lesson plan
4. Ability to adapt and implement various teaching strategies
5. Ability to evaluate
6. Exploring student requirements and expectations
7. Sound Communication
8. Collaborative
9. Professional facade
10. Demonstrating a commitment to the profession

1.3. Competency Mapping:

The way of classifying key competencies among individuals and mapping those competencies to a suitable role/job in an institute/organization is called competency mapping. The major objective of the competency mapping is to understand the competencies required to fulfill the job role requirements and institutional performance. As there are multiple responsibilities for academicians (teaching fraternity) in the educational institutions it is the responsibility of the management to identify the KSAs of an individual employee and map them with the suitable profile/job.

Every job/profession needs concerned subject knowledge as well as other various behavioral skills which clearly contribute to the profession. Teaching in professional colleges like engineering, pharmacy and MBA/MCA colleges is not just following a cluster of practices. Fundamentally, teaching is the course of delivering knowledge, skills, values, and attitude. In the present time, academics usually have struggled with the overlapping and sometimes competing for demands of the real world, teaching students in a way that develop a range of competencies, managing courses, generating funds and providing pastoral care to students.

2. Review of Literature:

Suma Devi and Anupama (2016) conducted a study to explore the effects of demographic variables on the competency of skills and abilities among b-school educators. The study reveals that the personal factors like age, qualification and work experience affect the competency of ability and skill of the educators where most of the educators are with more than 5 years of experience in teaching at business schools. The researchers suggested that every faculty should do a self-assessment and introspection of their performance where the self-assessment should cover the creativity in implementing activities that help the faculty to foresee the real-time situations and work on managerial skills.

Chandan Maheshkar (2015) in his research opined that the monotonous practices implementing at campus level teaching is not only sufficient but it also needs an advanced stage of academic skills, behavioral control, and teaching attitude apart from the subject knowledge. Making this as major purpose, the researcher identified a situation to construct a scale to measure competencies teachers working in the universities which will assist the colleges by providing a similar copy for the employee's total behavioral compass. The findings based on the review study, the researcher opined that the concept of preparing a competency measurement scale for university teaching fraternity will help to know the impact of competency mapping over the performance of institutes and for the same, need to understand the competency mapping is crucial by itself. Finally, the researcher concluded that the university teaching competency measurement scale will make an institution able to identify individuals' strengths and weaknesses in order to help stakeholders of the university teaching profession to understand better and to draw development plans for the same.

Chellameena and David (2014) in the study "competency mapping of women teachers in colleges in Madurai city" opined that the role of the teachers in colleges is exceptionally essential in the context of education as the teacher plays a significant role and acts as an instrument for a change in the education system. The results of the study narrate that the teacher makes exertions to attain the maximum level of student learning and development. It was observed that the experienced teachers are with high confidence levels in managing their time to develop the students when compared to less experienced staff members. The researchers suggest that the less experienced teachers have to improve subject knowledge and practically oriented teaching methodology.

Krishnaveni. J (2013) designed a research to review the employees' competency those who are working in Meenakshi Mission Hospital and Research Centre, Madurai and tried to evaluate an assortment of facets regarding employees' competencies like maintaining good relationship with each other, communication, flexibility, and leadership and proficiency on the whole task which are given. Based on the findings of the study, the researcher concluded that the competencies such as the ability to maintain the relationship with others, communication, job proficiency, leadership and adaptability of the employees of MHRC, Madurai are satisfactory. It was opined as competency mapping is an essential task for all the organization and employee development, it is essential for the organizations to enhance the system of utilizing these talents to gain competitive advantage.

2.1. Research Gap:

Extensive research studies have been conducted on the concept of competencies and competency mapping in various industries. But, few studies were conducted in the educational sector, and that too very few studies covered the competencies like knowledge, skills, and attitudes of teachers working in professional institutions like engineering, pharmacy and MBA/MCA colleges. Thus taking this as a major point the researcher-initiated the present study to examine the concept of competency mapping with the above-mentioned competencies from the academicians working in professional colleges.

2.3. Statement of the Problem:

To fulfill the gap identified from the past research studies, the following statement is considered as a major problem or the reason to organize the present study.

"A study on competency mapping among teaching faculty of professional colleges in East Godavari District, A.P"

2.4. Objectives of the Study:

1. To analyze the demographic profile of the teaching faculty working in the selected professional colleges.
2. To examine the competency levels of knowledge, skills and attitude competencies among the academicians with respect to their age, qualification, designation, and experience.

2.5. Hypotheses of the Study:

H01: There is no significant difference between the levels of competency ‘knowledge' w.r.t. respondents’ age, qualification, designation, and experience.

H02: There is no significant difference between the levels of competency ‘skills' w.r.t. respondents’ age, qualification, designation, and experience.

H03: There is no significant difference between the levels of competency ‘attitudes' w.r.t. respondents’ age, qualification, designation, and experience.

3. Research Methodology:

3.1. Selection Procedure of Sample: The selection of a sample from the population has done with the help of a simple random sampling technique. By considering convenient and quota sampling techniques the sample size is fixed at n=350 respondents from selected professional colleges in East Godavari district, Andhra Pradesh.

3.2. The methodology of Collecting Primary and Secondary Data: The primary data has been collected by using a structured questionnaire and direct interview methods, where the secondary data is procured from all available print and online sources on the related research area.

3.3. Statistical Tools: Simple percentage analysis and Analysis of Variance are used to examine the difference between the respondents based on their demographic profiles (viz. gender, age groups, qualification, designation, teaching experience, and research experience.

4. Data Analysis and Interpretation:

The analysis part in the present study has been classified into 2 parts namely, part-1 exhibits the socio-demographical statistics of the respondents, part-2 represents the entire data analysis using selected statistical tool i.e. ANOVA One-Way Classification to test the differences among the academicians with respect to their demographic variables (age, qualification, designation & experience) towards the levels of competencies “knowledge, skills and attitudes”.

4.1. Part-1: Demographic Profile of Academicians from selected professional colleges

Table-1: Demographic profile of Academicians

Demographic Variable	Classification	Respondents	Percentage
Gender	Male	150	42.86
	Female	200	57.14
	Total	**350**	**100.00**
Age Group	25-30 years	10	2.86
	31-40 years	240	68.57
	41-50 years	70	20.00
	51-60 years	10	2.86
	Above 60 years	20	5.71
	Total	**350**	**100.00**

	Post Graduation	210	60.00
	NET/SLET/SET	20	5.71
Qualification	M. Phil 148	60	17.14
	Ph.D.	60	17.14
	Total	**350**	**100.00**
	Assistant Professor	240	68.57
Designation	Associate Professor	80	22.86
	Professor	30	8.57
	Total	**350**	**100.00**
	0-5 years	10	2.86
	6-10 years	140	40.00
Teaching Experience	11-15 years	150	42.86
	above 15 years	50	14.29
	Total	**350**	**100.00**

Source: Questionnaire

The statistics mentioned in the table-1, represent that 57.14 percent of the respondents are male, 68.57 percent are in between the age group 31 – 40 years, 60.00 percent of them are with PG qualification where some of them are pursuing their doctoral courses in various universities, 68.57 percent are working as assistant professors, majority of the respondents (42.86 percent) are having 11 – 15 years of teaching experience continuing with the respondents of 6 – 10 years experience in the second place.

4.2. Part-II: Test for Significant difference among the academicians to know levels of competencies (knowledge, skills, & attitudes) w.r.t. their age groups, qualification, designation, and teaching experience. The present part is analyzed in three phases with respect to the selected competencies 'knowledge', 'skills' and 'attitudes'.

The primary data for this analysis has been collected with a questionnaire consists of the statements related to each competency (KSAs) individually with 5-point Likert scale to give ratings to the states according to respondents' opinion. The ratings considered for the Likert scale:

4.2.1. II-A: Test for significant differences among the respondents for the competency 'knowledge' w.r.t. their age, qualification, designation and experience using ANOVA One-Way

Table – 2: ANOVA One Way for the competency 'knowledge'

Demographic Variable	Particulars	No.	F-Value	Sig.	H_0
Age Group	25-30 years	10	0.785	0.352	Accepted
	31-40 years	240			
	41-50 years	70			
	51-60 years	10			
	Above 60 years	20			
Qualification	Post Graduation	210	2.121	0.113	Accepted
	NET/SLET/SET	20			
	M. Phil	60			
	Ph.D.	60			
Designation	Assistant Professor	240	3.232	0.432	Accepted
	Associate Professor	80			
	Professor	30			
Teaching Experience	0-5 years	10	2.541	0.369	Accepted
	6-10 years	140			
	11-15 years	150			
	above 15 years	50			

Source: Questionnaire

Interpretation: Since the p-significant values of all the demographic variables considered are found to be > 0.05 (α=5% level of significance), then the null hypotheses will be accepted for the above selected demographic variables of the academicians. It means that whatever the demographic variable that we consider, the academicians all together supporting that the competency 'knowledge' is mandatory for every academician to teach different subjects of his/her specialized area(s).

4.2.2. II-C: Test for significant differences among the respondents for the competency 'skills' w.r.t. their age, qualification, designation and experience using ANOVA One-Way

Table – 2: ANOVA One Way for the competency 'skills'

Demographic Variable	Particulars	No.	F-Value	Sig.	H_0
Age Group	25-30 years	10	2.582	0.678	Accepted
	31-40 years	240			
	41-50 years	70			
	51-60 years	10			
	Above 60 years	20			
Qualification	Post Graduation	210	1.717	0.549	Accepted
	NET/SLET/SET	20			
	M. Phil	60			
	Ph.D.	60			
Designation	Assistant Professor	240	1.314	0.815	Accepted
	Associate Professor	80			
	Professor	30			
Teaching Experience	0-5 years	10	3.022	0.044	Rejected
	6-10 years	140			
	11-15 years	150			
	above 15 years	50			

Source: Questionnaire

Interpretation: Since, the p-significant values of all the demographic variables age group, qualification and designation are found to be > 0.05 (α=5% level of significance), then the null hypotheses will be accepted for the above selected demographic variables of the academicians. It means that whatever the demographic variable that we consider, the academicians all together supporting that the competency 'skills' is mandatory for every academician to teach different subjects of his/her specialized area(s). But, the academicians with different experience levels have differences in their opinions on the competency 'skills'. It means that academicians with very less experience may not have that much scope on the range of skills that they have to procure to enhance their career in the teaching profession, whereas many of the academicians in the line of 6 – 10 years and 11 – 15 years experience know the pros and cons in the teaching profession and they also know the importance of managing their skills to enhance their career. Thus this is the major difference observed among the academicians with respect to their varied experience levels.

4.2.3. II-C: Test for significant differences among the respondents for the competency 'attitudes' w.r.t. their age, qualification, designation, and experience using ANOVA One-Way

Table – 2: ANOVA One Way for the competency 'attitudes'

Demographic Variable	Particulars	No.	F-Value	Sig.	H_0
Age Group	25-30 years	10	0.964	0.442	Accepted
	31-40 years	240			
	41-50 years	70			
	51-60 years	10			
	Above 60 years	20			
Qualification	Post Graduation	210	2.108	0.119	Accepted
	NET/SLET/SET	20			
	M. Phil	60			
	Ph.D.	60			
Designation	Assistant Professor	240	0.366	0.778	Accepted
	Associate Professor	80			
	Professor	30			
Teaching Experience	0-5 years	10	1.859	0.157	Accepted
	6-10 years	140			
	11-15 years	150			
	above 15 years	50			

Source: Questionnaire

Interpretation: Since the p-significant values of all the demographic variables considered are found to be > 0.05 at 5% L.O.S, and then the null hypotheses will be accepted for the above selected demographic variables of the academicians. It means that whatever the demographic variable that we consider, the academicians all together supporting that the competency 'attitude' is mandatory for every academician to deal with varied kinds and behaviors of students, parents, colleagues, superiors etc.

4.3. Findings of the Study:

The results of the above analysis reveal that the academicians with different demographic profiles opine similarly that there is a huge requirement for every academician to obtain or to manage their competencies like "Knowledge, Skills & Attitudes" which helps them to create a new path for developing themselves to jump step by step to reach their career goals. From part II-A, it was found that all the academicians w.r.t. selected demographic variables responded similarly and supported that the competency 'knowledge' is a must for obtaining grip among the subjects that they dealing with and also to get awareness in the teaching field to avoid future hurdles. From part

II-B, it was found that the academicians with different experience levels have differences in their opinions on the competency ‘skills’. It means that academicians with very less experience may not have that much scope on the range of skills that they have to procure to enhance their career in the teaching profession, whereas many of the academicians in the line of 6 – 10 years and 11 – 15 years experience know the pros and cons in the teaching profession and they also know the importance of managing their skills to enhance their career. Thus this is the major difference observed among the academicians with respect to their varied experience levels. From the part II-C, it was found that the academicians all together supporting that the competency ‘attitude' is mandatory for every academician to deal with varied kinds and behaviors of students, parents, colleagues, superiors etc.

5.1. Conclusion:

The study with the above analysis and findings concludes that all the academicians from the selected sample are having similar perceptions on the importance of the above competencies knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Every academician should have a piece of sound knowledge in their profession like expertise in subjects dealing with and the knowledge on the working environment, ways of enhancing career etc. The demographic variables like employees’ age, qualification, designation, and experience does not affect the competencies knowledge, skills and attitudes as they are mostly required for every individual to work in any working atmosphere.

5.3. Recommendations of the Study:

Though every academician knows the importance of the competencies knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to perform well in his/her job, but they have to continuously perform a self-assessment on their competencies (above mentioned) to check for improvement or decline in their performance.

Also, the professional institutions should provide a motivating platform for their academicians to do self-assessment of their competencies which makes them think creatively to give better outcomes in their profession.

REFERENCES:

1. Dr. Suma Devi and Anupama Thomas (2016), “Competency mapping of skill and ability among b-school educators – An empirical study”, “International Journal of Commerce and Management Research”, ISSN: 2455-1627, Impact Factor – RJIF: 5.22, Vol. 2, Issue. 7, July 2016, pp: 18-20.
2. Chandan Maheshkar (2015), “Need for Competency Mapping Scale to Map the Competencies of University Teaching Personnel”, “Journal of Management Research and Analysis”, 2015: 2(4), pp: 273-276.
3. A.S. Chellameena and Dr. S. David Amritha Rajan (2014), “A Study on Competency mapping of women teachers in colleges in Madurai city”, “Shanlax International Journal of Management”, ISSN: 2321-4643, Vol. 2, No. 2, October 2014, pp: 19-25.
4. Anguo Xu and Long Ye (2014), “Impacts of Teachers Competency on Job Performance in Research Universities with Industry Characteristics: Taking Academic Atmosphere as Moderator”, “Journal of Industrial Engineering and Management”, ISSN (p): 2013-8423, ISSN (o): 2013-0953, 2014 – 7(5), pp: 1283-1292.
5. Krishnaveni. J (2013), “A Study on Mapping of Employees’ Competency”, “Indian Journal of Economics and Development”, ISSN: 2320-9836, Vol. 1, Issue.3, March 2013, pp: 71-75.

❑❑❑

External Debt and Private Investment in Nigeria

OlayideOlayinkaOlaoye
Department of Economics, Ajayi Crowther University, Oyo, Nigeria
olaoyeolayide@gmail.com

ABSTRACT : *This paper sets out to investigate the association between external debt and private investment in Nigeria, based on the debt overhang and financing gap theories. Using Granger causality, Johansen cointegration and Error correction mechanism, the short-run and long-run association on an annual data covering the period 1981-2016 was examined. The findings emanating from the estimated models show clearly that private investment is inversely related to debt overhang both in the short-run and long-run; marginal rise in current year debt service leads to more than proportionate decrease in current ratio of debt overhang; and interest rate, exchange rate and inflation rate are positively linked to debt overhang ratio. Therefore, it was recommended that rather than accumulating more debt, the Nigerian government should concentrate on investing potential resources. Furthermore, the monetary authority should work at ensuring favourable exchange rate and maintaining low interest rate.*

Keywords: debt overhang, private investment, Nigeria, potential resources, monetary authority

1 Introduction

The recent global recession, which has adversely affected many economies of the world poses a great challenge to the attainment of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). As such,research interests has been rekindled in searching for alternative means of enhancing sustainable growth in the economy. In literature, many factor have been identified as drivers of economic growth, of which domestic investment is key.Akyuz and Gore (2001) noted that although SSA countries (Nigeria inclusive) have experienced increase in investment leading to economic growth in the past, a continuous circle of investment and savings has been very difficult to maintain.Savingsand investment has been fluctuating and the recent trends suggest that the Nigerian economy is far from attaining the desired level of sustainable development.Also, the growth and development of an economy hinges on capital formation (Abdullahi, Abubakar& Hassan, 2016). External debt serves as a dominant source ofcapital,which is meant to boost domestic savings and equally enhance investment through capital formation in many countries of the world.Increase in capital stock leads to improved economic performance (Sachs, 2002). Since no country is self-sufficient, economic growth may be difficult to attain without external borrowing (Bakare, 2011, Hunt, 2007). Even these funds should be invested in productive ventures as well as human and physical infrastructure in order to achieve rapid and sustained growth (UNCTAD, 1999, World Bank, 2000). However, the level of capital accumulation in Nigeria is too low, hence, the low level of domestic savings. Even if appropriate macroeconomic policies are put in place to encourage domestic savings, it is very difficult to ensure that such savings are invested in productive activities which will spur overall growth in the economy.

In empirical literature, there has been conflicting results on the link between external debt and investment. Occhino and Pescatori (2015) studied the association between external debt and investment in the United States using impulse-response technique and concluded that a negative relationship exists between the variables. Rana and Abid (2009) in another study on Pakistan established a positive linkage between external debt and investment. The studies of Suma (2007) and Umakrishnan and Nicolaou (2011) on ECOWAS and South Africa respectively support the evidence of noassociation between external debt and investment. Studies based on Nigeria, using OLS method, found a negative relationship between the variables (Akomolafe, Bosede, Emmanuel & Mark, 2015, Asogwa & Chetachukwu, 2013, Oke&Sulaiman, 2012, Paiko, 2012), while the study of Apere (2014) employed the Instrumental variable and bootstrapping technique and found both negative and positive relationship (u-shaped). It is therefore crucial to determine the nature and the direction of association between external debt and investment (particularly private investment) in Nigeria.

Furthermore, despite claim fromNigerian government that external debts are incurred for developmental purposes, there is lack of justifiable evidences. Instead, the socio-economic condition of Nigerians have not improved. The Nigerian state is characterized with bad roads, poor rail system, inadequate health care and epileptic power supply to mention a few. It is difficult for private investment to thrive under such conditions, hence, the exit of foreign investors.

Objectives

The aim of this study isto establish thecausal link between external debt and investment so as to proffer policy solutions to the problem of accumulated foreign debt which seem to have failed in achieving its aim and is equally unending.

Research Questions

In this study, proceeds the pertinent questions to be answered are:

i. Is there any directional association between external debt and private sector investment in Nigeria?

ii. Of what effect is external debt on private investment in Nigeria or vice-versa?

Hypotheses

The hypothesis of the study are stated in the null form as follows:

i. External debt does not granger-cause private sector investment in Nigeria.

ii. Private investment is not influenced by external debt in Nigeria.

The study covers a period of thirty-seven years from 1981-2016 and focuses on the Nigerian economy. The start period is about twenty years after the first external debt was incurred for the purpose of development of the rail system and about fifteen years after the discovery of oil in Nigeria.The period was carefully selected to reveal any influence of external loan on investment in the private sector in Nigeria from the start to the end period. Hence, the study is reported in five sections. After this introduction, the study proceeds with reviewing existing literature in the second section. The third section presents the theoretical framework as well as the study methodology, while the fourth section discusses the result of the study. The fifth section concludes with policy recommendations.

2. Literature Review

External debt has been explained to be the sum of money paidat any given time,to a country butthe legally binding obligation to pay interest, with or without principal, by residents is yet to be resolved (World Bank, 2000). Oyejide, Bankole, Alaba and Adewuyi(2005) defined external debt as the resource or money expended in an organisation;though not donated by members and does notbelong to them in any other way. According to Obadan (1991), external borrowing requirement of a country is a function of the ratio of its total expenditure to total domestic output. Kemal (2001) pointed out that fiscal deficit and balance of payments (BOP) are the dominant factors responsible for foreign indebtedness. According to Soludo (2003), the two major reasons why countries borrow are macroeconomic reasons (higherlevels of consumptionandinvestment) or to meet deficit budgetary items. Another author posited that accumulationof debt is due to interest rates,changes in exchange rate and budget deficits (Bilquees, 2003). Bader and Magableh (2009) investigated the factors responsible for public debt in Jordan and concluded that the outstanding balance of external debt depends on the financial position of government,the real exchange rate and the size of foreign aid. Batool and Zulfigar (2012) studied the factors influencing external debt in Pakistan and discoveredsignificant and positive influence of private investmentand consumption on external debt, whereas remittances and public investment were negatively but significantlylinked with external debt. In yet another study, exchange rate, gross domestic product (GDP)and debt service were identified as significant factors explaining external debt in Nigeria (Imimole, Imoughele&Okhuese,2014), while terms of trade, budget deficit and foreign direct investment have insignificant association with external debt.

Krugman (1988) defined the negative association between external debt and investment, which leads to reduction in capital formation as 'debt overhang'. By this, Krugman refers to the inadequacy of the current value of potential resources in clearing the outstanding debt. Debt overhang is a term used to show the negative effectof a high debt burden on both public and private investment. Debt overhangis expressed as the ratio of debt stock toGDP. As a result of debt overhang, the indebted country is faced with huge debt service burden. Debt service burden consumes much of the revenue of the debtor country such that it becomes so difficult to tow the path of attaining economic growth (Levy-Livermore & Chowdhury, 1998). According to Levy-Livermore and Chowdhury (1998), even the adoption of SAP by the governments of these indebted countries cannot improve the general economic performance. Excessive interest charges on external debt by creditor countries and the resulting adverse term of trade with regard to the debtor country lead to crowding-out effect on both public and private investment. Decline in investment occurs due to fall in the resources of the indebted country (Classens, Detragiache, Kanbur& Wickham, 1996; Patenio & Augustina, 2007). Crowding-out of private investment occurs when as a result of too high interest rate, only government and its agencies can borrow (Abdullahi, Abubakar& Hassan, 2016). Inability to generate enough capital for investment leads to a decline in economic growth. Clements, Gupta and Inchauste (2003) posited that the negative impact of external debt on economic growth results fromthe stock and flow of debt repayment, which crowds out public investment. As debt service obligations increase, external debts are cleared with majority of the earnings of the domestic economy. New foreign investments are discouraged (Clements, Bhattacharya & Nguyen, 2005). Capital formation in the local economy is directly affected and reduced (Dijkstra & Hermes, 2001). The resultant effect is that thecapacity for development in the domestic economyis reduced and there is greater dependence on external debts (Metwally&Tamaschke, 1994).

Existing studies show mixed results on the link between external debt and investment. Previous studies provided evidence of inverseassociation between external debt and investment (Akomolafe, Bosede, Emmanuel & Mark, 2015, Asogwa&Chetachukwu, 2013, Oke&Sulaiman, 2012,Paiko, 2012).However, the case study of Pakistan presented a contrary view of positive linkbetween external debt and investment (Rana &Abid, 2009). In Akomolafe, Bosede, Emmanuel and Mark (2015), who studied the Nigerian economy, the result was negative association between the variables. Furthermore,Apere (2014) provides empirical evidenceof u-shaped link between external debt and investment, while Suma (2007) and Umakrishnan and Nicolaou (2011) support the evidence of no relationship between the two variables.

3. Theoretical Framework and Methodology

The study is based on the dual-gap theory. Dual-gap emphasizes the relevance of foreign capital in the process of economic development. With increase in savings over time, economic growth is automatically stimulated by improvement in capital and investment facilitated by external loans (Abdullahi, et al. 2016). Due to low domestic savings, developing countries are beset with weak growth rates and low investment in the public and private sectors of their economy (Hunt, 2007). Ajab and Audu (2006) observed that insufficient inflow of foreign exchange from external sources to augmentdomestic savings,gives rise tocontinuouslack of capital in developing countries. Were (2001) observed that low savings in developing economies can be attributed to the inadequacy of income. Therefore, it is needful to augment domestic capital with foreign loans in order to stimulate investment and growth in the economy. Such external loans should be efficiently utilized so as to attain the desired level of growth and development.

At equilibrium,

$$I - S = M - X \quad \text{...} 2.1$$

Where I represents investment, S stands for saving, M represents import, and X stands for export. Equation 2.1 shows that surplus of domestic investment expenditure over domestic savings is equivalent to the excess of imports over exports. This implies that the gap in domestic resource equals the gap in foreign investment. This means that the economy consumes more resources than it produces. Furthermore, the equation can be expressed as:

$$I + X = S + M \quad \text{.......} 2.2$$

Figure 2.2 shows that total investment plus export is equivalent to domestic savings plus import. In order to stimulate investment without disrupting equilibrium condition, it is either saving or import is increased. The best option is to increase saving so as to avoid unhealthy competition between domestic products and foreign ones. Otherwise, the increase in income resulting from increase in investment will amount to increase in import of foreign consumer goods (assuming there is no restriction to trade).

For the purpose of this study, external debt is proxied with debt overhang (DOH) because the situation in Nigeria fits into the overhang condition, where debt is continually accumulated but debt service potential is so low. Debt overhang is a measure of the ratio of external debt to GDP. Furthermore, literature reveals that the determinant factors for DOH are balance of payment (BOP), fiscal deficit (DF), interest rate (ITR), private investment (PIV), debt service (DS), Gross Domestic Product (GDP), exchange rate (EXR) andinflation (INF). Data for the study is sourced from World economic outlook (WEO) of International Monetary Fund (IMF, 2017). It is expected a priori that BOP and GDP show positiveassociationwith PIV since increase in these variables, according to theory, will precipitate rise in investment. On the other hand, PIV, ITR, DS, INF and EXR are expected to be inversely related to DOH. Thus, the study examines the dynamic characteristics of explanatory variables in relation to external debt overhang.

In achieving the first objective, the causal relationship between PIV and DOHwas shown using Granger causality test. Causality test helps to ascertain the directional link between the variables. Table 3.1 presents the causality test result.

Table 3.1: Result of Test for Causal Link

Null Hypothesis	Observation	F-Statistic	Probability
DOH does not Granger-cause PIV	33	0.6699	0.5198
PIVdoes not Granger-cause DOH		2.9115	0.0710
GDP does not Granger-cause PIV	33	4.2300	0.0248
PIV does not Granger-cause GDP		0.7826	0.4670
ITR does not Granger-cause PIV	33	9.6521	0.0006
PIV does not Granger-cause ITR		0.9114	0.4135

Source: Underlying data from WEO, 2017

Table 3.1 shows the evidence of a unidirectional relationship between PIVand DOH, which flows from PIV to DOH. This result implies that private investment granger-causes debt overhang at the 10% critical value, and not the other way round. In the same vein, GDP and ITR show unidirectional association with PIV. The result shows that output and interest rate granger-causes private investment at the 5% and 1% critical values respectively. Furthermore, it has been established in literature that most macroeconomic variables are non-stationary at levels. Therefore this study proceeds to examine the level at which the variables become stationary using Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) unit root test. The result of the test for unit root is presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Result of Test for Unit Root

	Augmented Dickey Fuller	Level	1st Difference	Order of Integration
PIV	1.95	0.15	3.84	I(1)
BOP	1.95	1.04	2.71	I(1)
DOH	1.95	0.98	3.64	I(1)
DS	1.95	0.18	4.97	I(1)
GDP	1.95	3.05	7.69	I(1)
ITR	1.95	0.50	9.08	I(1)
EXR	1.95	0.81	4.49	I(1)
INF	1.95	0.54	5.97	I(1)

Source: Underlying data from WEO, 2017

The result in Table 3.2 shows that at level, all variables were non-stationary but at first difference [I(1)]. The study then proceeds to examine the long-run characteristics of the variables using Johansen Cointegration technique.

Table 3.3: Result of Test forCointegration

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Trace Statistic	0.05 Critical Value	Prob.**
None *	0.9384	239.9150	159.5297	0.0000
At most 1 *	0.8241	147.9393	125.6154	0.0011
At most 2	0.6879	90.5938	95.7537	0.1075
At most 3	0.4372	52.1662	69.8189	0.5420
At most 4	0.3889	33.1964	47.8561	0.5460
At most 5	0.2702	16.9446	29.7971	0.6441
At most 6	0.1789	6.5490	15.4947	0.6306
At most 7	0.0013	0.0415	3.8415	0.8385

Trace test indicates 2 cointegratingeqn(s) at the 0.05 level

* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Max-Eigen Statistic	0.05 Critical Value	Prob.**
None *	0.9384	91.9757	52.3626	0.0000
At most 1 *	0.8241	57.3455	46.2314	0.0023
At most 2	0.6879	38.4276	40.0776	0.0758
At most 3	0.4372	18.9698	33.8769	0.8238
At most 4	0.3889	16.2519	27.584	0.6443
At most 5	0.2702	10.3956	21.1316	0.7069
At most 6	0.1789	6.5075	14.2646	0.5490
At most 7	0.0013	0.04154	3.8415	0.8385

Max-eigenvalue test indicates 2 cointegratingeqn(s) at the 0.05 level

Source: Underlying data from WEO, 2017

The result of the test for cointegrationshows that there are two cointegrating equations as shown by Tracestatistics and Maximum Eigenvalueat 0.05 critical level. Engle and Granger (1987) argued that the existence of at least one cointegrating equation signifies that the variables possess long-run information. Therefore, it can be inferred that there exists long-run association among the variables. The second objective can be achieved by testing for the long-run association among the variables using error correction mechanism (ECM), as suggested in Engle and Granger (1987). The parsimonious result of ECM is shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Parsimonious ECM result

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-4402.683	2102.878	-2.0936**	0.0492
DOH(-1)	7.0391	2.2396	3.1429***	0.0051
DOH(-2)	-0.3178	0.1821	-1.7452*	0.0963
PIV	-34.9679	18.0160	-1.9409*	0.0665
PIV(-2)	-34.7894	12.6364	-2.7531***	0.0123
BOP(-1)	-39.3022	12.3283	-3.1879***	0.0046
DS	-19.2394	5.3689	-3.5834***	0.0019
EXR(-1)	273.5784	103.9642	2.6314***	0.0160
GDP(-1)	-34.1251	111.0953	-0.3071	0.7619
GDP(-2)	187.3941	82.3493	2.2755**	0.0340
ITR(-1)	2.0632	0.6242	3.3054***	0.0035
INF(-1)	5.6914	2.1344	2.6665***	0.0148
ECM(-1)	-5.7813	2.1489	-2.6903***	0.0141

R-squared 0.9108 Adjusted R-squared 0.9442

Prob(F-statistic) 0.000000 Durbin-Watson stat 2.4555

Note: *,**, and *** indicate 10%, 5% and 1% level of significance respectively

Source: Underlying data from WEO, 2017

Table 3.4shows the influence of the independent variables on debt overhang. The result shows that the model is well-fitted withindependent variables explaining approximately 94% of the variations in DOH. Durbin-Watson value is also okay; signifying no evidence of serial correlation among the variables. The statistical information criteria (AIC, SC and HQ) are also low; justifying the selection of variables. The low standard error value isalso justified. The ecm(-1) value for the regression is also negative and statistically significant at 1%. Table 5 reveals that all the independentvariables significantly explain the variations in debt overhang except current EXR and last year private investment and interest rate.

4. Discussion of Findings

Thirty-five observations were made on the variables between 1981 and 2015.The first research objective is to show the causal relationship between PIV and DOH. Granger-causality test result provides evidence of directional link flowing from PIV to DOH and not the other way round. The implication of this result is that in the short-run, improvement in PIV gives rise to further external borrowings, however, such funds should be directed to capital projects like infrastructure development, which will further enhance investment. The result also shows that GDP and ITR granger-cause PIV. This implies that changes in GDP and ITR influence the level of PIV in Nigeria.

From the cointegration result, it could be observed that the Eigen values were lower than the Trace statistics for the two cointegrating equations, at 0.05 critical value. This signifies that there is long-run convergence of variables.Also, the cointegration test result disagrees with the authors who claim that there exists no link between debt overhang and investment (Umakrishnan & Nicolaou, 2011, Suma, 2007).

In the long-run, the ECM result provides evidence to the fact that lagged values of DOH significantly affect the current value. For example, a unit increase in the current year debt stock lead to about 7 units increase in the debt-to-GDP ratio. Also, PIV of two years ago and current year PIV significantly affect current year DOH at 1% and 10% levels of significance (lsf) respectively. The result shows that a unit increase in private investment leads toapproximately 35 units reduction in debt-to-GDP ratio. By implication, increase in private sector investment reduces the debt overhang problem facing the Nigerian economy. This result is in tandem with the position of Akomolafe, Bosede, Emmanuel and Mark(2015), Asogwa and Chetachukwu (2013), Occhino and Pescatori (2015), Oke and Sulaiman (2012), and Paiko (2012).

Furthermore, last year BOP is significant in explaining variations in the current debt-to-GDP ratio at 1% lsf. One unit improvement in last yearBOP in favour of the Nigerian economy will give rise to reduction of about 39 units in thecurrent year debt overhang ratio. In addition, the result reveals that debt service explains variations in debt-to-GDP ratio at 1% lsf. The coefficient of debt service shows that one unit increase in the current value of debt repayment brings about a reduction of approximately 19 units in the current year debt overhang ratio. This result disagrees with the submission that capital formation is reduced as debt service increases (Dijkstra & Hermes, 2001, Clements, Gupta &Inchauste, 2005).

Exchange rate significantly explains variations in the debt overhang ratio at the 5% lsf. The result shows a direct link between last year exchange rate and current year debt overhang ratio. A unit increase in last year rate of exchange will lead to approximately 274 units increase in the current debt overhang ratio. This result points to the fact that exchange rate poses significant influence on debt-to-GDP ratio. Moreover, GDP of two years ago significantly explains variations in the current year debt overhang ratio at 5% lsf. A unit increase in lagged GDP brings about approximately 187 units increase in current year debt overhang ratio. This result is typical of the current situation in the Nigerian economy. As the economy grows, the debt overhang ratio increases at an alarming rate. This implies that the growth experience in the economy does not reduce the debt liability of Nigeria. Last year interest rate and last year inflation rate influences current year debt-to GDP ratio at 1% lsf. The result shows that a unit increase in the previous year values of interest rate and inflation give rise to approximately 2 units and 6 units of variations in debt overhang ratio respectively.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, inference can be drawn that private investment is inversely related to debt overhang both in the short and long-run. The implication is that increase in private investment will result in decrease in the debt overhang ratio. Therefore, this study infers that boosting private sector investment is a way out of the debt overhang problem facing the Nigerian economy. Also, marginal rise in currentyear debt service leads to more than proportionate decrease in current debt overhang ratio. This implies that conscious effort in debt servicing will improve debt sustainability over time.In addition, inflation rate, interest rate and exchange rate are positively linked to debt overhang ratio. This suggests that as these rates increase, the stock of external debt increases. Therefore, monetary authorities should focus on stabilizing these variables focusing onresolving the debt overhangproblem.

Hence, the following policy recommendations have emerged. Nigerian government should focus on investing potential resources rather than accumulating more debt. In addition, conscious effort should be made in reducing the debt overhang ratio by the monetary authority as they work at stabilizing the economy by keeping inflation at the barest minimum (one-digit); ensuring a favourable exchange rate; and maintaining low interest rate.

References

Book

Levy-Livermore, A. and K. Chowdhury. (1998). Handbook on Globalization of the World Economy. Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, Cheltenham, UK.

Rostow, W.W. (1960). ‘The Stages of Economic Growth’. Cambridge University Press, Third Edition (reprinted in 1991).

UNCTAD (1999). African Development in a Comparative Perspective. James Curry and Africa World Press, Geneva, Oxford and Trenton NJ.

World Bank (2000). Can Africa Claim the 21st Century? Oxford University Press, New York.

Book Chapter

Elbadawi, A. I., J. B. Ndulu and N. Ndung'u. (1997). Debt overhang and economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa.In: Iqbal, Z., Kanbur, R., editors. External Finance for Low-income Countries. Washington, DC: International Monetary Fund.

Obadan, M.I. (1991).Foreign Borrowing and Development Some Theoretical Prospective. In Osagie-ed. Proceedings on Debt, Finances/Economic stability and public policy.

Sachs, J. (1989). The Debt Overhang of Developing Countries’, in Calvo, Guillermo A. and others (eds.), Debt Stabilization and Development: Essay in Memory of Carlos Diaz Alejandro, Basil Blackwell, Oxford.

Soludo, C.C. (2003). Debt Poverty and Inequality’inOkonjo-Iweala, Soludo and Mulitar (Eds), the Debt Trap in Nigeria.Africa World Press NJ.

Journal Article

Abdullahi, M.A., N. Abu Bakar and S.B. Hassan. (2016). Debt Overhang versus crowding out effects: Understanding the impact of external debts on capital formation in theory. International Journal of Economics and Financial Issues, 6(1).

Akomolafe, K.J., O. Bosede, O. Emmanuel and A. Mark. (2015). Public Debt and Private Investment in Nigeria. American Journal of Economics, 5(5).

Akyuz, Y. and C. Gore. (2001). African Economic Development in a Comparative Perspective. Cambridge Journal of Economics, 25(3).

Apere, T. (2014). The Impact of public debt on private investment in Nigeria: Evidence from a non-linear model. International Journal of Research in Social Sciences. 4(2) June.

Asogwa, F.O. and O.I. Chetachukwu. (2013). The crowding out effect of budget deficits on private investment in Nigeria. European Journal of Business and Management, 5(20).

Bader, M. and I.K. Magableh. (2009). An Enquiry into the Main Determinants of Public Debt in Jordan: An Econometric Study. Dirasat Administrative Sciences, 36(1).

Bakare, A.S. (2011). A theoretical analysis of capital formation and growth in Nigeria. Far East Journal of Psychology and Business, 3(1).

Batool, S.A and S. Zulfiqar. (2012). What Determines External Debt? Empirical Evidence from Pakistan. The Business and Management Review, 3(1).

Bilquees, F. (2003). An Analysis of Budget Deficits, Debt Accumulation, and Debt Instability. The Pakistan Development Review, 42(3).

Clements, B.; R. Bhattacharya; T. Nguyen. (2005). Can Debt Relief Boost Growth in Poor Countries?Economic Issues 34, International Monetary Fund, Washington, DC.

Domar, E. (1946). Capital expansion, rate of growth, and employment. Econometrica, 14

Easterly, W. (1999). The ghost of financing gap: Testing the growth model used in the international financial institutions. Journal of Development Economics, 60(2).

Engle, R. and C. Granger. (1987). Cointegration and Error Correction: Representation, Estimation and Testing. Econometrica, 35.

Hunt, S.D. (2007). Economic growth: Should policy focus on investment or dynamic competition?European Business Review, 19(4).

Imimole, B., L.E. Imoughele and M.A. Okhuese. (2014). Determinants and Sustainability of External Debt in a Deregulated Economy: A Cointegration Analysis from Nigeria (1986-2010). American International Journal of Contemporary Research, 4(6), June.

Kemal, A.R. (2001). Debt Accumulation and Its Implications for Growth and Poverty. The Pakistan Development Review, 40(4).

Krugman, P. (1988). Financing vs. forgiving a debt overhang: Some analytical notes. Journal of Development Economics, 29.

McKinnon, R.I. (1973).Money and Capital in Economic Development.Washington: The Brookings Institution.

McKinnon, R. (1964). Foreign exchange constraints in economic development and efficient aid allocation. The Economic Journal, 74(294).

Metwally, M. and R. Tamaschke. (1994). The interaction among foreign debt, capital flows and growth; case studies. Journal of Policy Modeling, 16(6).

Occhino, F. and A. Pescatori. (2015). Debt overhang in a business cycle model. European Economic Review, 73.

Oke, M. and L.A. Sulaiman(2012). External Debt, Economic Growth and Investment in Nigeria. European Journal of Business and Management, 4(11).

Paiko, I.I. (2012). Deficit Financing and its Implication on Private Sector Investment: The Nigerian Experience'. Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review, 1(10) May.

Sachs, J. (2002). 'Resolving the Debt Crisis of Low Income Countries', Brookings paper on Economic Activity, 1, Harvard.

Umakrishnan, K. and M. Nicolaou.(2011). Nature and association of public and private investment: Public policy implications for South Africa. Journal of Economics and International Finance, 3(2), February.

Working Papers

Claessens, S.; E. Detragiache; R. Kanbur and P. Wickham. (1996). Analytical Aspects of the Debt Problems of Heavily Indebted Poor Countries. Policy Research Working Paper No. 1618, World Bank, Washington, DC.

Greene, J.; D. Villanueva. (1991). Private investment in developing. IMF Staff Papers, 38.

Patenio, J.A.S. and T. Agustina. (2007). Economic growth and external debt servicing of the Philippines: 1981-2005.10th National Convention on Statistics (NCS), October 1-2.

Rana E.A and R.G. Abid. (2009). Crowding Out Effect of Public Borrowing: A Case of Pakistan. MPRA Paper No. 16292 presented in 8th National Research Conference on Management and Computer Sciences, 29th January, 2009 at Szabist Islamabad, Pakistan. Available at http://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/16292/.

Suma, D. (2007). The External Debt Crisis and its Impact on Economic Growth and Investment in Sub-Saharan Africa. A Regional Econometric Approach of ECOWAS Countries, May, 2007.

Webpage Article

Clements, B.; S. Gupta; G. Inchauste. (2003). Fiscal policy for economic development: An overview. Available from: http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/nft/2004/hcd/ch01.pdf.

Dijkstra, G.; N. Hermes. (2001). The uncertainty of debt service payments and economic growth of highly indebted poor countries: Is there a case for debt relief? Available from: http://www.mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/11427/1.

Reports

Chowdhury, A.R. (2001). Foreign Debt and Growth in Developing Countries: A Sensitivity and Causality Analysis Using Panel Data. Department of Economics, Marquette University of Milwaukee, USA.

Oyejide, T.A., A.S. Bankole, O. Alaba, and A. Adewuyi. (2005). Strengthening investment instruments for ACP countries: The demand and supply sides of the investment equation within the ECOWAS region in relation to ACP-EU arrangements. A report submitted to the Commonwealth Secretariat. May.

Appendix:Result of Overparameterized ECM

Dependent Variable: LNPIV

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Probability
LNPIV(-1)	1.285526	0.409880	3.136345***	0.0120
LNPIV(-2)	-0.368998	0.222081	-1.661545	0.1310
LNBOP	0.059728	0.053848	1.109200	0.2961
LNBOP(-1)	-0.118060	0.121846	-0.968934	0.3579
LNBOP(-2)	0.007185	0.107752	0.066677	0.9483
LNDOH	-0.005774	0.002984	-1.934741*	0.0850
LNDOH(-1)	0.009379	0.003696	2.537601**	0.0318
LNDOH(-2)	-0.004103	0.002289	-1.792625	0.1066
LNDS	-0.048179	0.118176	-0.407688	0.6930
LNDS(-1)	0.170323	0.104513	1.629681	0.1376
LNDS(-2)	0.051528	0.085752	0.600896	0.5627
LNEXR	-0.054699	0.162864	-0.335856	0.7447
LNEXR(-1)	-0.089757	0.318837	-0.281512	0.7847
LNEXR(-2)	-0.010680	0.176950	-0.060355	0.9532
LNGDP	1.212744	1.266194	0.957787	0.3632
LNGDP(-1)	-1.511162	1.804530	-0.837427	0.4240
LNGDP(-2)	0.227160	1.224272	0.185547	0.8569
LNINF	-0.037015	0.056562	-0.654403	0.5292
LNINF(-1)	-0.098706	0.062933	-1.568449	0.1512
LNINF(-2)	0.043718	0.073697	0.593207	0.5676
LNITR	-0.000651	0.004001	-0.162807	0.8743
LNITR(-1)	0.013805	0.003194	4.322094***	0.0019
LNITR(-2)	0.008398	0.004603	1.824277	0.1014
ECM(-1)	-0.183736	0.459482	-0.399875	0.6986

R-squared 0.986297

Adjusted R-squared 0.951280

Durbin-Watson statistic 2.910905

Note: *, **, and *** indicate 10%, 5% and 1% level of significance respectively

Source: Underlying data from WEO, 2017

UNION AND MANAGEMENT PERCEPTION TOWARDS INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS CLIMATE: A SURVEY STUDY

Binit Lakra (Ph.D. Scholar/2014-2017), Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Mumbai.
Email: binitlakra85@gmail.com

Professor D.K. Srivastava
Professor at Centre for Human Resources Management and Labour Relations, Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Mumbai. Email Id: dks@tiss.edu

ABSTRACT : *Organisations from various sectors and regions exhibit diverse Industrial Relations (IR) Climate trends. The present study is based on the survey of union and management perception from five organisations operating in manufacturing sector in Mumbai and Pune industrial sites. Aim of the study is to understand IR relationship through aspects such as cooperation and participation levels, respect and hostility towards each other, support for organising workers, spirit of fairness in dealings at workplace and lesser indifference at workplace. Seven standard dimensions are used from literatures with total of 30 items. Survey data has been collected from 91 participants who include 66 management and 25 union personnel. Reliability of the instrument is justified through Cronbach's alpha coefficient. We find case-wise difference in the Mean and SD scores between union and management scores. However, there is no such significant difference in all the items except for items such as (Hostility/Aggression-item 22, $p<0.05$) and (Mutual support for union membership-item 30, $p<0.05$). Furthermore, there are areas to be improved such as Union-Management Cooperation, Joint Participation, Mutual Regard, Apathy and others. This paper brings insight through IR Climate concept which is less explored in Indian industrial setting. Few limitations such as IR Climate scores not collected from workers and state officials including other sectors such as Services or IT can be an interesting endeavor for future research.*

Keywords: Industrial Relations (IR) Climate, Mumbai-Pune industrial sites, Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation (LPG), Union and Management perceptions.

Introduction

Industrial Relations (IR) climate is ever changing phenomenon with changes of perceptions and attitudes among various stakeholders defining any IR climate. Management and Trade unions strategies have also evolved and rapidly changed post Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation (LPG). According to Mamkottaam (2016), such changing trends continue to transform union-management tactics and approach affecting IR climate at the workplace. Workplace changes in recent times have been subjected to change due to changing demographic patterns at the workplace too. Protest patterns have also changed. In the absence of any protests such as strike or other, we assume and conclude that organisations have been performing well. However, few authors have argued that strikes are not only the yardstick for understanding good IR climate at any organisation or workplace (Ramaswamy, 1988 & Shyam Sundar, 2015). This leads us towards major question such as 'Does existence or non-existence of strikes or protests reflect healthy IR climate'? The answer is 'No', because, dissent by the workers does not always culminate into aggressive forms of protests. As rightly argued by Cole (1963):

'Industrial peace is not proportionate to the absence of strikes in any given time interval…The first is that it may be purely accidental…Moreover, the fact that there has been no strike in an industry or enterprise does not necessarily mean that there has been industrial peace.'(p.4-5)

Hence, the premise under which this study is based is that IR issues might be hidden and existing in covert form. In such a context, it is necessary to explore the prevailing IR climate and take early steps to respond to challenging IR issues. This study, particularly, tries to analyse the IR climate dimensions from Mumbai and Pune region choosing few cases from the manufacturing sector.

LITERATURE REVIEW

IR Climate concept can be traced to the late 1970s to late 1990s where it developed as a dimension to study Union-Management relationship at the workplace. It was understood as a concept of Organisational climate as an existing different behaviour patterns and approach between the parties (Argyris, 1958; McKenna & Reade, 2009), and as an intervening variable (Dastmalchian, 1986; Payne & Mansfield, 1973; Payne & Pugh, 1976). According to Litwin and Stringer (1968) and Nicholson (1979), IR climate is affected by changing context, sectors, regions and countries. Over a period of time, IR climate construct has been studied in various organisations across countries like North America and few Asia-Pacific countries. This paper, particularly, focuses on IR climate construct through various defined IR dimensions (Dastmalchian et al., 1987).

IR Climate Studies

Climate concept itself is not new with climate constructs literature available such as Organisational Climate (OC), Judiciary Climate (JC), Safety Climate (SC), Human Resource Development Climate (HRDC) and few other such constructs. Nicholson (1979) studied IR climate in a Steel plant. It discussed how the predicament arises from certain specific concern further addressing the quality of interpersonal dealings between union and management (people related climate) and satisfaction of the parties with each climate. The findings suggested that overall climate did not depend on the quality of interpersonal relations, and IR climate was more issue related than people related. Dastmalchian et al. (1982) through one study at manufacturing plant concluded that IR climate was positively related to company effectiveness in terms of adaptability and readiness to change. These relationships were moderated by other factors such as the scale of operation and the economic conditions of the firm. Katz et al. (1985) studied and positively related IR climate (5–item measure) reflecting union-management cooperation and IR conflict, labour efficiency and product quality. Wagar (1997) addressed the question 'Is Labour Management Climate important?' The study concluded that labour management climate is important. Dependent and independent variables used was the perception of performance, and the main independent variable was six IR climate terms drawn from Dastmalchian et al. (1991). Furthermore, the study concluded that more favourable union management climates were associated with more favourable perceptions of organisational performance. IR climate was also studied in one of the bank branches in Australia where it was concluded that better cooperation at the workplace is good for better service quality and creates a productive environment at the workplace (Deery & Iverson, 2005). Commitment at the workplace and worker's loyal behaviour is also affected in a positive way in a positive IR climate. Bacon et al. (2005) did a study in the UK steel industry. The study was based on the four items of Dastmalchian et al. (1991) and it concluded that IR climate had significant relationships to co-operative and conflict behaviours during negotiations by managers and unions. Positive IR climate was shown to be associated with collaborations between union and management when introducing changes in team working, shift and work patterns. We also find some of the IR Climate studies in South-Asian context as well. Wan et al. (1997) conducted a study in 73 manufacturing firms in Singapore and in-depth in eight organisations. They concluded that positive IR climate reflected the changes and improvement in the manufacturing sector. This coincided with improved union membership and the perceived increase in the role and influence of unions in workplace industrial relations. They also found differences in the climate perceptions among union officials, management and employees and concluded that there is a need to strengthen the communication among the three parties. Wu and Lee (2001) examined the relationships between IR climate and participation of management in various firms from China, Japan and US operating in Taiwan. Using data from 303 individual employees from 12 firms, they found that IR climate dimensions of harmony and openness has a significant relationship with the effective use of participatory management. Lee (2004) studied the association between dual commitment and IR Climate by collecting data from 331 respondents in one automobile plant in Korea. The study concluded co-operative IR climate had a positive relationship with company commitment and a negative association with union commitment. Some of the climate context has been studied in the Indian context such as manufacturing industry i.e. leather industry

(Mudgal & Bose, 2014). However, IR climate concept is less researched in the Indian context.

METHODOLOGY

Research Setting

Why Mumbai and Pune?

Mumbai and Pune region have been preferential investment belts across other states in India. Its proximity to the ports and also policy level support from the respective state (Maharashtra government) makes it preferential investment destination. Today, various Multinational corporations (MNCs), small, large and medium enterprises function across public and private sectors including Services and IT industries. Furthermore, both Pune and Mumbai region have adopted Labour Law reforms and other policy changes to suit investments. Such changes have aggravated the IR problems in many manufacturing organisations operating in various industrial belts of Mumbai and Pune region.

The nature of conflict has also changed from inter-union rivalries, elements of the same union supporting rival unions. Common emerging trends are workers forming themselves into single trade unions, challenging internal leadership and approaching external leadership, individuals coming together to form new independent unions (Ramaswamy, 1988: p.18). Pune have also seen a similar type of rising trade unionism. It has seen more of an enterprise-based unionism than the Mumbai region. The regions of Pimpri and Chinchwad village have been developed as an industrial hub which is around 1200 hectares of industrial complex North West of Pune (www.midcindia.org). Pune have become Maharashtra's second largest industrial area. According to Dastane (1992: p.1), Mumbai-Pune accounted for around 70 percent of industry during the 1980's, which more or less, have remained the same. The leading sector in Pune industrial belts is the automobile and automobile components in Pune followed by other engineering works (Nair and Kasabe, 2006). Looking at the patterns of such change of increased investments, the continued growth of informal labour within production zones and state playing a huge role in promoting such industrial growth, manufacturing organisations in and around Pune and Mumbai region is apt for my study. The manufacturing sector is apt and mostly mired with problems including both public and the private sector. Moreover, IR climate study in this region is negligible.

Sample

Survey data was collected from overall five organisations; four from Mumbai region and one from Pune region. The primary data was collected from October 2016 to June 2017. Maximum of two weeks was spent in the organisation with a minimum of ten days spent. The participants were purposively chosen from the HR/IR departments particularly dealing with union-management issues. Other senior participants were also part of the study from other departments having years of experience in the organisation. Such participants were suggested by few HR/IR managers who considered their views crucial in understanding IR climate of the organisation. Furthermore, (Table 1) shows the divide of sample collected from the individual organisations with a brief organisation profile. The organisations chosen for the study are based on the criteria of unionisation and the year of establishment.

Inclusion criteria

- All the organisations chosen for the study are having unionised employees of more than 100.
- Organisations having at least one trade union.
- Organisations around 50 to 80 years old. In this study, all the organisations are above 50 years old, but, below 70 years old.

Objectives

1. To analyse the overall IR climate scores Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) of each organisation through union and management perceptions.

Research Questions:

a. What are the views of the union and management in different organisations related to the chosen seven IR dimensions?

b. Is there any similarity or difference seen in the selected cases for the study?

2. To analyse the difference of perception through the test of significance between union and management personnel.

Research Questions

c. What is the combined difference of views across all five organisations between union and management personnel?

Measures

All the dimensions were measured in a scale of (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Cannot decide, 4=Agree and 5=Strongly Agree). (Table 2) shows the Mean and SD scores for each item evaluated case-wise and (Table 3) overall management and unions' Mean and SD scores. This helps to relate individual case and overall union and management performance. Furthermore, test of significance between management and union (Table 4) shows whether the difference of opinions is significant or non-significant. Reliability test shows that the data is consistent. The Cronbach's Alpha values (Table 2) lies between lowest (0.66) to highest (0.78), and (Table 3) management (0.82) to union (0.75) which shows good reliability of the 30 items with values above (0.50).

Practical implications and limitations

IR climate studies have been taken in many countries and across continents. On the contrary, IR climate concept is less researched in the Indian subcontinent. Earlier studies reflected the IR issues post protests, strikes and violence affected the organisation. This survey style of study can be an early recognition to existing IR problems. Perception of few other stakeholders such as customers or state officials would have brought more clarity to the study. However, limited organisation permission and limited time minimised our survey data number. Further studies can engage data collection from a few other sectors and other regions as well.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

1. **Union management cooperation (UMC):**

There are six items which tries to assess the cooperation levels between union and management. The items here revolve around equal and better efforts to cooperation levels among union and management to make organisation sustainable and healthy. This helps the parties to sort out their issues in an atmosphere of goodwill and trust. The parties are equally responsible for building cooperative environment at the workplace. Findings suggest that there is better cooperation between the union and the management related to (CASE 1). (CASE 2) shows neutral character and does not show very good cooperation levels. (CASE 3) has far better cooperation levels among all the organisations. (CASE 4) again shows neutral character and fair degree of cooperation. (CASE 5) shows neutral character of cooperation with SD towards the higher side.

2. **Mutual Regard (MR):**

There are three items which tries to assess the respect of the parties towards each other. (CASE 1, CASE 3 and CASE 4) have much better mutual regard which again confirms towards better scores. (CASE 2 and CASE 5) shows neutral scores.

3. **Apathy (Ap):**

There are four items which tries to assess how much parties are holding a sense of indifference toward each other. It can happen in the form of decreased communication and a emergence of lack of interest in organisation values and negotiations processes. (CASE 1 and CASE 2) have similar type of scores and do not fair better as compared to (CASE 3), but, again it has high SD. (CASE 4) comes close to disagree. However, the higher SD of (CASE 1, CASE 3 and CASE 5, SD>1) raises questions that all is not good in this dimensions. There is no clear response of the participants.

4. **Joint Participation (JP):**

There are three items which tries to assess that the joint participation is considered good while in achieving definite results. There are deviations in joint participation as only (CASE 3) comes out with clear agreement level while (CASE 1) almost reaches agreement level. (CASE 2, 4 and 5) shows neutral character of agreement. It is also seen that (SD>2) for (CASE 4) reflecting deviation in the views of the union and management.

5. **Trust/Fairness (T/F):**

There are five items which tries to assess how fair are the parties in collective agreement, conditions of employment and keeping their promises with fair negotiation process. (CASE 1, CASE 3 and CASE 4) shows far better trust and fairness levels as compared to other organisations such as (CASE 2 and CASE 5). The scores are more inclined towards the neutral side. The (SD<1) for all the cases which shows there is uniformity in the scores of both the union and the management.

6. **Hostility/Aggression (H/A):**

There are five items which tries to assess the dislike of parties towards each other, existing threats and sanctions, parties quibbling to minor issues and parties resorting to aggressive ways. For this dimension, items are framed in such a way that lesser the score better the organisations. (CASE 1 and CASE 3) shows disagreement with the items which reflects positive nature of IR. However, (SD >1) for both the cases, reflects deviation in the response of the union and the management. (CASE 2 and CASE 4) results are better and shows good scores with less deviation. (CASE 5) is more inclined towards neutral score. Participants do confirm towards apathy in this organisation.

7. **Mutual support for union membership (MSUM):**

There are four items which tries to assess how far the management treats unionised and non-unionised members differently, concerns about increasing/decreasing union membership and union and management confronting each other on unionisation matters. (CASE 1, CASE 2 and CASE 3) show better scores but the (SD >1) for all the cases. There are deviation in the response of the union and the management which confirm that there are issues related to membership opinions. Items were separately added to the questionnaire and three of it is framed in such a way as lesser the score much better is the organisation. (CASE D and CASE E) are again towards the neutral side but again (SD>1) in both the cases.

UNION AND MANAGEMENT PERCEPTIONS

Furthermore, (Table 3) shows the overall scores of the dimensions of union and management. As in the (Table 2) we interpreted the individual scores of the organisations. This table gives us a glimpse of the difference between the union and the management scores. There are 66 management officials, particularly, HR personnel, and other management officials having a fair amount of knowledge and good working experience in the company. On the contrary, there are trade union officials who are inconsistent to some degree in some of the items. However, further (Table 4) shows us the significance level of the difference statistically. We see that Apathy and Mutual support for union membership have a difference of opinions with higher (SD>1), which shows there are issues concerning these two items. Furthermore, (Table 4) shows that mean scores between the union and management is not significantly different in almost all items ranging from Union management cooperation to Mutual support for union membership. Only in the case of two items of (H/A-22, $p<0.05$) and (MSUM-30, $p<0.05$), we find that the mean scores are significantly different. This shows that there is a significant difference between union and management on the issues of dislike and confrontation. It is also seen that significance of difference ($t=3.07$) is towards higher side for the (MSUM-30) item while it is negative ($t=-2.25$) for the (H/A-22) item.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overall, (CASE 1) is good as compared to all other cases. (CASE 1) scores well in most of the IR dimensions. Apathy and Mutual Support for Union Membership are unhealthy which needs improvement. This case has one independent union which have helped to maintain good terms with lesser involvement of outside unionism. Furthermore, necessary training facilities with greater participation of union will result in lesser confrontation. (CASE 2) scores well in Hostility/Aggression, but, in most of the other items, it shows neutral scores. It scores poorly in scores such as Apathy and Mutual regard. Even though there is no such hostility/aggression there are issues which have clearly been reflected in neutral scores. Following a multiparty union model, this public sector organisation needs to rework and regroup to address the existing issues. Some issues have been such as recruitment of contract workers trying to create their own independent unions demanding permanency of jobs. Another issue is the aging workforce (Gen X) replaced by the (Gen Y) workforce. It has created a void between the existing and new workforce engaged in the organisations. (CASE 3) scores well in almost all IR climate items, but, shows neutral character in Mutual Support for Union Membership. Most of the companies have moved their manufacturing activities to the other states, the area where this company operates. This company has maintained good union-management relations. Unions share very cordial relations with the management and get involved in almost all the union management dealings in a constructive way. The manufacturing unit is also smaller with less manpower which is an added advantage for the unit. (CASE 4) scores well in items such as Mutual Regard, Apathy, Trust/Fairness, Hostility/Aggression but neutral related to items such as Union Management Cooperation, Joint Participation and Mutual Support for Union Membership. This organisation is also one of the existing manufacturing units in the region where most of the other organisations have shifted its operation elsewhere. This has also maintained huge professional management with unions existing in two of its units. Both the units are within the same vicinity but have different membership base with different political affiliation. Union of one unit seems to be much satisfied with the management negotiations as compared to other units. The idea of lesser union base and higher productivity has kept a few items behind better performance. (CASE 5) needs more exploration from both union and management perspective. In most of the items, it has neutral score with larger SD. The workers involving union and the management have a long history working in one of the oldest manufacturing organisations inside Mumbai. This plant also operates one unit outside Mumbai region. Multiple unions exist with local political parties and their unions surviving for long with decent membership base. Some other national political party unions also have their union membership. It is hard to reach any negotiations and at times settlements are stuck for quite long from six months to almost a year. This further creates tensions in the long run between the union and the management. This unit is however productive and maintains decent production levels by which it has survived well with decent profit levels. There is further scope for improvement, particularly, related to the items such as Trust/Fairness, Hostility/Aggression and Mutual Support for Union Membership. Furthermore, areas related to participation, mutual regard also needs to be improved. Apathy, hostility/aggression has gone down in the recent past. Union and management have shown quite similar views in the concerned organisations which is a healthy sign for IR climate. In the longer run, both unions and management must learn to accommodate their views and develop a listening culture for better cooperation and lesser confrontation. Such changes will further strengthen industrial relations. The thought processes behind union and management dealings make a huge difference vis-a-vis actions, which should not be otherwise than the thought processes. There are other important stakeholders such as state which has to play a facilitative role proactively. This study also confirms some of the literature review findings and suggests there are both similarity and differences of views between the union and the management perceptions. Management and union must be inclusive in the decision making process and considerate to workers perceptions. Hence, there must be collective efforts of all parties towards creating sustainable and healthy IR climate.

ANNEXURE
Table 1
Organisational Profile and Sample Size

Sl. No.	Organisation	Manufacturing Activities	Overall Questionnaire collected (distributed) including management and union personnel (N).
1.	*CASE 1.*	This is an Indian multinational company serving sectors such as automotive, power sector, construction and mining etc. operating for more than 50 years located in Pune region.	26(29) Union=7 and Management=19
2.	*CASE 2.*	This is a public sector company primarily catering to the defense sector operating for more than 50 years located in Mumbai region.	16 (18) Union=6 and Management =10
3.	*CASE 3.*	This is a private sector company operating in agriculture business and speciality and performance chemicals operating for more than 50 years located in Mumbai region.	13 (15) Union=3 and Management=10
4.	*CASE 4.*	This is a private multinational company opera ting in pharmaceuticals, consumer care and medical devices operating for around 70 years in India located in Mumbai region.	11(12) Union=4 and Management=7
5.	*CASE 5.*	This is a public sector company manufacturing chemical and fertilisers having an existence of more than 50 years and located in Mumbai region.	25 (27) Union=5 and Management=20
	Total		1

Source: Primary data collected from the field survey.

Table 2
Results (CASE 1, CASE 2, CASE 3, CASE 4 and CASE 5)

Sl.No.	Units/Cases (30 items) / Variables	Case 1 (Overall)N=26 (Cronb's Coeff.=0.78)		Case 2 (Overall)N=16 (Cronb's Coeff.=0.73)		Case 3 (Overall)N=13 (Cronb's Coeff.=0.71)	
		Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
1.	UMC-(6 items)	4.00	0.82	3.04	0.79	4.21	0.69
2.	MR-(3 items)	4.01	0.78	3.64	0.76	4.07	0.79
3.	AP-(4 items)	2.42	1.16	2.48	0.98	1.96	1.23
4.	JP-(3 items)	3.99	0.60	3.73	0.75	4.15	0.56
5.	T/F-(5 items)	4.00	0.66	3.76	0.83	4.30	0.50
6.	H/A-(5 items)	2.02	1.13	2.15	0.94	1.81	1.02
7.	MSUM-(4-items)	2.90	1.22	2.53	1.13	2.75	1.35

Table 2. Contd… / Sl. No.	Units/Cases 30 items / Variables	Case 4 (Overall)N=11 (Cronb's Coeff.=0.66)		Case 5 (Overall)N=25 (Cronb's Coeff.=0.74)	
		Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
1.	UMC-(6 items)	3.92	0.97	3.08	1.01
2.	MR-(3 items)	4.24	0.65	3.32	1.00
3.	AP-(4 items)	2.13	0.84	2.90	1.23
4.	JP-(3 items)	3.82	2.77	3.21	0.95
5.	T/F-(5 items)	4.12	0.90	3.40	0.94
6.	H/A-(5 items)	1.47	0.60	2.52	0.94
7.	MSUM-(4-items)	2.84	1.25	2.92	1.01

Source: Researcher's analysis from primary data.
(Scale: 1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Cannot decide 4=Agree 5=Strongly agree).

Table 3
Union and Management IR mean scores

Overall	Perceptions of	Management Officials		Union officials	
(Cases 1 to 5)	(30-items)	(N= 66), (Cronb's Coeff.=0.82)		(N=25), Cronb's Coeff.=0.75)	
Sl. No.	Variables	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
1.	UMC-(6 items)	3.74	0.98	3.66	1.04
2.	MR-(3 items)	3.73	0.94	3.94	0.72
3.	AP-(4 items)	2.38	1.13	2.69	1.25
4.	JP-(3 items)	3.75	0.94	3.68	0.81
5.	T/F-(5 items)	3.87	0.82	3.80	0.98
6.	H/A-(5 items)	2.11	0.99	2.01	1.08
7.	MSUM-(4-items)	2.84	1.16	2.73	1.18

Source: Researcher's analysis from primary data.

Table 4:
t-test results for equality of means between union and management
(N=66 for management, N=25 for union)

Variables (UMC)-6 items	*t-value*	*p-value*	Tr./Fr.-5 items	*t-value*	*p-value*
UMC1	-0.59	0.55	Tr./Fr. 17	-0.77	0.43
UMC2	1.25	0.21	Tr./Fr. 18	1.44	0.15
UMC3	0.30	0.76	Tr./Fr. 19	0.41	0.67
UMC4	0.23	0.81	Tr./Fr. 20	1.19	0.23
UMC5	1.07	0.28	Tr./Fr. 21	-1.41	0.16
UMC6	-0.28	0.77			
MR-3 items	*t-value*	*p-value*	H/A-5 items	*t-value*	*p-value*
MR 7	-1.41	0.16	H/A 22	-2.25	**0.02***
MR 8	-0.75	0.45	H/A 23	1.31	0.19
MR 9	-1.25	0.21	H/A 24	1.54	0.12
Ap.-4 items	*t-value*	*p-value*	H/A 25	1.94	0.05
Ap. 10	-1.62	0.10	H/A 26	-0.68	0.49
Ap. 11	-1.30	0.19			
Ap. 12	-0.89	0.37	*MSUM-4 items*	*t-value*	*p-value*
Ap. 13	-0.70	0.48	MSUM27	-0.97	0.33
JP-3 items	*t-value*	*p-value*	MSUM28	-0.78	0.43
JP 14	0.42	0.67	MSUM29	0.60	0.55
JP 15	0.86	0.39	MSUM30	3.07	**0.003***
JP 16	-0.36	0.71			

Source: Researcher's analysis from primary data, ($p<0.05$)*

REFERENCES

1. Argyris, C. (1958). Some problems in conceptualising organizational climate: a case study of a bank. Administrative Science Quarterly, 2(4), pp.501-520.
2. All India Organization for Employers (AIOE) (n.d.). Industrial Unrest: Past trends and lessons for future. New Delhi. Available at: http://ficci.in/spdocument/20188/industrial-unrest.pdf [Accessed on 4th June 2017].
3. Bacon, N., Blyton, P. and Dastmalchian, A. (2005). The significance of working time arrangements accompanying the introduction of team working: evidence from the employees. British Journal of Industrial Relations, 43(4), pp.681-701.
4. Bhattacherjee, D. (1987). Union-type Effects on Bargaining Outcomes in Indian Manufacturing. British Journal of Industrial Relations, 27(2), pp. 247–266.
5. Cole, David L. (1963). Incompatibility in Collective Bargaining. In: The Quest for Industrial Peace. London: McGraw Hill Company, pp.4-5.
6. Dastane, S. (1992). Glimpses of Maharashtra. Pune: Dastane Ramchandra and Co., pp.1.
7. Dastmalchian, A. (2008). Industrial Relations Climate. In Blyton, P.,Bacon, N., Fiorita, J and Heery, E. (ed.). The Sage Handbook of Industrial Relations. London: Sage Publications, pp.548-571. Available at: http://Industrial_Relations_Climate_in_Blyton_P._Bacon_Nick_Fiorito_J._and_Heery_E._(eds.)_Sage_Handbook_of_Industrial_Relations_London_Sage_Ch_29_548-571/links/02e7e5305bdaae9430000000.pdf. [Accessed 16th June 2016].
8. Dastmalchian, A., Blyton, P. and Abdolahyan, Mohamed R. (1982). Industrial Relations Climate and Company Effectiveness. Personnel Review, 11(1), pp.35-39.
9. Dastmalchian, A. (1986). Environmental characteristics and organizational climate: An exploratory study. Journal of Management Studies, 23(6), pp.609-633.
10. Dastmalchian, A., Blyton, P. and Adamson, R. (1987). Developing the concept of industrial relations climate. Journal of Industrial Relations, 29(2), pp.207-216.
11. (1989). Industrial Relations Climate: Testing a Construct. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 62(1), pp.21-32.
12. (1991). The Climate of Workplace Relations. London: Routledge.
13. Deery, S and Iverson, R. (2005). Labour management cooperation: Antecedents and impact on organizational performance. Industrial and Labour Relations Review, 58(4), pp.588-609.
14. Katz, H., Kochan, T., and Weber, M. (1985). Assessing the effects of Industrial Relations and Quality of Working Life Efforts on Organizational Effectiveness. Academy of Management Journal, 28(3), pp.509-526.
15. Lee, J. (2004). Company and union commitment: Evidence from an adversarial industrial relations climate at Korean auto plant. Human Resource Management, 15(8), pp.1463-1480.
16. Litwin, G., and Stringer, R. (1968). Motivation and Organizational Climate. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
17. Mamkottam, K. (2016). Changing Labour Market and Industrial Relations, Changing Times: Make in India and Ensuing Labour Reforms. In: 7th National Industrial relations conference, Jamshedpur, XLRI.
18. Mckenna, M. and Reade, C. (2009). Seeding the clouds for industrial relations climate change in emerging economies. Thunderbird International Business Review, 51(2), pp.125-142.
19. Mudgal, R.K. and Bose, I. (2014). Employee Relations climate in leather industry in Kolkata. Indian Journal of Industrial Relations, 49(1), pp.13-21.
20. Maharashtra Industrial Development Corporation official website, [online] Available at: www.midcindia.org. [Accessed on 11/01/2019].

21. Nicholson, N. (1979). Industrial Relations Climate: A Case Study Approach. Personnel Review, 8(3), pp.20-25.

22. Nair, G. and Kasabe, N. (2006). Investment in Pune. A Detroit rises in Pune. The Financial Express, [Online, 12/08/2006] [Accessed on 12/02/2016].

23. Payne, R.L. and Pugh, D. (1976). Organizational Structure and Climate. In M. Dunnette (eds.), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Chicago, IL: Rand McNally, pp.1125-1173.

24. Payne, R. and Mansfield, R. (1973). Relationships of perceptions of organizational climate to organizational structure, context and hierarchical position. Administrative Science Quarterly, 18(4), pp.515-526.

25. Pendse, S. (April 18, 1981). The Datta Samant Phenomenon-I. Economic and Political Weekly, 16(16), pp.695-697.

26. (April 25, 1981). The Datta Samant Phenomenon-II. Economic and Political Weekly, 16(17), pp. 745-749.

27. Ramaswamy, E.A., (1988), Bombay. In: Workers Consciousness and Trade Union Response, Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp.18.

28. Shyam Sundar, K.R. (2015). Industrial Conflict in India in the Post Reform Period: Who said all is Quiet on the Industrial front? Economic and Political Weekly, 1(3), pp.43-53.

29. Shrouti, A and Nandkumar. (1995). New Economic Policy Changing Management Strategies-Impact on Workers and Unions. New Delhi: Friedrich Ebert Stiftung and Mumbai: Maniben Kara Institute.

30. Wan, D., Huat, O. and Yuee, L. (1997). Industrial relations climate in the manufacturing sector in Singapore. Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 14(2), pp.123-141.

31. Wu, W. and Lee, Y. (2001). Participatory management and industrial relations climate: A study of Chinese, Japanese and US firms in Taiwan. Human Resource Management, 12(5), pp.827-844.

32. Wagar, T. (1997). Is labour management climate important? Some Canadian Evidence. Journal of Labour Research, XVIII(1), pp.163-174.

❑❑❑

CONSUMERS' EXPECTATIONS TOWARDS READY-TO-COOK FOOD – AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF DELHI/ NCR

Dr. NeetuMunjal
(Assistant Professor, GNIOT, Greater Noida)
E-mail- neetumunjal13@gmail.com

ABSTRACT : *Several socio-demographic and economic changes have taken place in Indiain the last few decades. As a result of these changes, the food choice of today's consumer has also undergone through a dramatic change. Convenience is a major factor affecting food choice of today's consumers.Ready-to- cook foods-a hypermodern form of convenience is grabbing attention of today's time starved food consumer and isproving a boon for busy individuals. The study aims to find out consumers' expectations towards ready-to-cook food.Two factors are extracted- Health and convenience to explain the expectations of consumers' towards ready-to-cook food.These findingscan assist marketers of RTC food in designing effective marketing related strategies.*

Keywords: : Ready-to-cook, Convenience, Food lifestyle

1 Introduction

In today's fast paced life,the food choice of consumers has changed drastically.Several shifts have taken place in the dietry pattern of Indian consumersuch as transition from traditional minor millets to rice, from cereals to meat, to high value vegetables and finally to the processed food (Rajitha,2012).Increasing incomes, growing middle class, emergence of nuclear family structure, growing number of young working professionals, increased female participation in workforceare some of the factors responsible for this changed food choice. Today's time constrained modern Indian consumerprefers easy, short and quick way of cooking rather than spending too much time in cooking (Vijayabaskar&Sundaram, 2012).Therefore,he/she looks for thealternatives to ease cooking. Food industry responded to consumers' growing need for convenience and provideda solution in a hypermodern form of Ready-to-cook food products. Today, Indian housewife is playing double role of a smart homemaker anda working woman simultaneously. Among all this, Ready-to-cook food is acting like a helping hand to this busy metro woman.In India, Ready-to-cook food market is on rise and expected to reach US$284.4 million by 2020 ("India Ready-to-cook food Market Forecasts & Opportunities 2019").Ready-to-cook food referstocombined food ingredients that require additional cooking (e.g-baking, frying, microwaving)to form a ready-to-eat food or beverage product (Bunke, Ekanayake& Smith, 2000).Range of ready- to- cook food products consists of dessert mixes(halwa mix,gulabjamun mix, kulfikesarbadam, cake mix etc.), snack mixes (dhokla,upma, idli,dosa etc.)and curry mixes(dal makhani,shahipaneer,chana masala,palakpaneer etc.).Companies likeMTR,ITC, HUL, Gits,Kohinoor Foods are some of the major players whereas Big Bazaar, Easy day are the leading retailers of ready to cook food products in India.

2. Literature Review

Bae, Chae & Ryu (2010) explained ready to eat food lifestyle of Korean consumers and found that health,taste, convenience & traditionare the significant factors. Additionally, conveniencewas the most important underlying motive for consuming ready to eat food. Sarathy & Shilpa (2011) identified that convenience, taste& lifestyle as the three main factors for the positive inclination of consumers towards ready to eat food. Olsen (2012) observed that the consumption of ready meals was dependent on the tradeoffs between convenience on one hand& sensory & health aspects on the other.Buckley, Cowan and McCarthy(2007) identified 20 convenience lifestyle factors and on the basis of these factors, two segments i.ekitchen evaders and convenience seeking grazers were identified as convenience seekers.Furst, Connors, Bisogni, Sobal& Falk (1996) proposed a model for consumer food choice and found sensory perceptions, monetary factor, convenience, health, maintenance ofrelationshipsas well as quality as the important factors affecting consumer food choice.Ahlgren, Gustafsson& Hall (2006) foundsensory and convenience aspects were two underlying motives while investigating the buyer demand for ready meals in Sweden. Marquis (2005) observedconvenience as the major food motivation followed by price, pleasure, health &consciousness regarding weight. Costa, Schoolmeester, Dekker &Jongen (2007) analysed motives behind choice of meal solutions and found that demand for ready meals depends upon tradeoffs between perceived sensory and health benefits along with convenience feature. Verlegh&Candel (1999) investigated the influence of social situations on the consumption of TVdinners and found that primary reference group impact was more than the impact of secondary reference group as the intention to consume TV dinners declined from eating alone via eating with family and finally to eating with friends.

Objectives of the study

- To determine consumers' expectations towards ready-to-cook food.
- To study the buying & consumption pattern of ready-to-cook food consumers.

3. Research Methodology

The present study was descriptive and exploratory in the sense that the consumers'expectations were assessed on the respondents of NCR using a structured questionnaire.

Survey Instrument

The questionnaire was designed based on earlier FRL studies(Grunert, Brunso&Bisp 1993, Buckley, Cowan & McCarthy, 2007) and amended as per Indian context as existing scales provide better insight while designing a scale (Churchill, 1979).The structured questionnaire is confined to expectation aspects of ready-to-cook food lifestyle only which is one of the important dimensions of FRL scale. Finally, the questionnaire included 13 statements on Likert scale and 6 questions related to buying & consumption pattern of RTC food users.

Sampling and Data Collection

Questionnaire was circulated to 860 respondents who have purchased RTC food products belonging to Delhi and NCR region using convenience sampling method. Respondents were contacted at the point of purchases, households, offices as per their convenience and asked to fill the questionnaire. Responses were screenedand checked for missing values.

4. Results & Discussion

The analysis was done using SPSS 20.First, descriptive statistics was applied to examine the respondents' demographic characteristics depicted in table-1.Further,results of descriptive statistics showed thatmajority of the respondents buy RTC food from shops close to where they reside (Table 2) and prefer to buy RTC food in large quantities either family pack or medium pack(Table 4) andmajority of the respondents (74.9%) acquire RTC related information from TV/radio. Most of the respondents (55.1 %) visit to another shop in search of their preferred brand thus indicating that people are brand conscious as quality matters a lot for them.

Data suitability for factor analysis was ensured by applying KMO &Bartlett;s test of sphericity (Table-5).The collected data was subject to factor analysis- a multi-variate statistical technique to identify the significant factors within a set of variables. The study extracted two factors and further reliability analysis was performed using Cronbach's alpha to test the reliability and internal consistency of the factors extracted (Table-10).

Table 1. Demographic profile of the respondents

Demographics	Categories	N	(%)
Gender	Male	236	27.4
	Female	624	72.5
Age	< 25	170	19.7
	25-35	347	40.3
	35-45	267	31.0
	> 45	76	8.8
Marital status	Unmarried	240	27.9
	Married	620	72.0
Education	Graduate	364	42.3
	PG	450	52.3
	Others	46	5.3
Occupation	Service	474	55.1
	Business	46	5.3
	Home mgr.	340	39.5
Monthly Family income (in Indian Rupees)	Up to 25000	190	22.1
	25001-50000	158	18.4
	> 50000	512	59.5
Family type	Nuclear	470	54.7
	Joint	390	45.3
Family size	Up to 4	392	45.6
	5-7	360	41.9
	8-10	80	9.3
	> 10	28	3.3

Source: Primary Data

Demographically, sample selected for the current study included majority of females (72.8%).Regarding age, most of the respondents (71.1%) fall under the age of 45 years. Out of this, 40.9 percent respondents fall under the age category of 25-35 years which further reflects that India is enjoying rich demographic dividend. As far as marital status of the selected sample is concerned, most of the respondents are married (72.6 %). Regarding educational level more than fifty percent of the respondents are highly qualified (PG level). As far as occupational status is concerned, most of the subjects (55.8%) are engaged in service and are having handsome monthly family income (above INR 50000). But as far as type of family size is concerned, most of the families (45.1%) are living in small households.

Table 2: Place of Buying

Options	Frequency	Percent
1.Shops close to where I live/Kirana stores	484	56.3
2.Convenience stores like Reliance fresh/Easy day	278	32.3
3.Supermarket/hypermarket like Big Bazaar	96	11.2
4.E-retailing	2	.2
Total	860	100

Source: Primary Data

It isevident from theTable 2 that most of the respondents (56.3 %) buy RTC food from shops close to where they reside which is in line with the fact that unorganized food retail still dominates constituting 97 percent of the food retail market (Puri&Taneja, 2018). Further it can also inferred from the table that organized sector is also entering in this segment as it can be seen that 32.3 percent respondents tend to buy RTC food from convenience stores followed by supermarket/ hypermarket (11.2%).Therefore, it can be inferred that the most preferred venue for RTC food shopping is the traditional grocery stores followed by convenience stores and supermarket/ hypermarket.However, a negligible percent of respondents (.2 %) uses e- retailing as a medium to shop for RTC food. Therefore, it can be inferred that online food shopping is still in its conception stage. The reasons for less inclination of consumers towards online food buying may be the everlasting concern for freshness as there is lack of infrastructure including cold chains (food wastages accounts nearly 20 %) as well as poor distribution network.

Table 3: Alternative purchase plan

Options	Frequency	Percent
1.Go to other shop	474	55.1
2.Postpone the purchase	130	15.1
3.Will buy another brand	202	23.5
4.Place order to get the required brand	54	6.3
Total	860	100

Source: Primary Data

MTR, ITC, Gits, Nestle & McCain are some of the well-known RTC food brands and people associate quality with these brands and it is apparent from Table 3 as majority of the respondents (55.1 %) visit to another shop in search of their preferred brand thus indicating that people are brand conscious as quality matters a lot for them, but still there are consumers who buy another brand (23.5 %) and may be categorized as innovators to a certain extent as theylove to experiment with brands either self-motivated or as per retailer's recommendations. Only a few respondents postpone their purchase decision (15.1 %) or place order for the required brand (6.3 %).This further reflects that people require immediate gratification to satisfy need for RTC food.

Table 4: Quantity of RTC food

Options	Frequency	Percent
Single serve pack	192	22.3
Medium pack	325	37.8
Family pack	343	39.9
Total	860	100

Source: Primary Data

Table 4 highlights that respondents buy family pack (39.9 %) the most and closely followed by the medium sized packs (37.8 %). The table further discloses that 22.3 percent respondents were found interested in a single serving pack. From this description, it can be gauged that consumers who consume RTC food prefer bulky packs which further reflects their consumption habit towards RTC food

Table 5:Source of information

Options	Frequency	Percent
Retail Shop Display	306	35.6
Newspaper/magazines	326	37.9
Radio/TV	644	74.9
Friends/Relatives	460	53.5

Source: Primary Data

*Frequencies are more than 100% because of multiple answers

Table 5 depicts that majority of the respondents (74.9%) acquire RTC related information from TV/radio. Newspaper /Magazines are an important source to inform about new variants and helps in creating brand awareness and influencing its image but the promptness in RTC food buying is propelled by dyadic exchanges in the form of opinions and experience sharing from friends and relatives as well as retail shop displays.

Table: 6Consumption frequency

Options	Frequency	Percent
1.Everyday	12	1.4
2.3-4 times a week	98	11.4
3.1-2 times a week	456	53.0
4.Only on special occasions	294	34.2
Total	860	100

Table 6 highlights that most of the consumers (53 %) consume RTC food 1- 2 times in a week followed by a substantial percent (34.2 %) who prefer to consume only on special occasions whereas only 11.4 percent consumers have it 3-4 times in a week and a negligible number of consumers (1.4 %) consume RTC food on daily basis. Therefore, it can be inferred that though the consumption of RTC food is increasing but people do not prefer to have it on regular basis as people still have a penchant for fresh/ homemade food. However, growing health consciousness and the negative connotation between RTC food consumption and health in the minds of consumers probably forcing consumers to consume less.

Table 7.Timing ofconsumption

Options	Frequency	Percent
Breakfast	262	30.5
Lunch	178	20.7
Dinner	144	16.7
Between regular meals	594	69.0

* Frequencies are more than 100% because of multiple answers

Table 7 portrays that most of the people are using RTC food between regular meals reflecting that snacking behavior is on rise. Additionally, it can be inferred that broadly Indians are still those traditional meal eating families & only than they consider that they had food to their satisfaction level. However, a substantial percent of consumers prefer to consume RTC food during breakfast (30.5%) followed by lunch (20%). Probably, people exhibit this type of behavior as they face time scarcity due to employment, therefore finding no sufficient time to prepare food from scratch for breakfast as well as for packing in lunchboxes which supports the findings of Gofton (1995) that family with dual income often consume convenience foods because parents are quite busy and have no sufficient time to prepare meal from scratch.

KMO value obtained for expectation & desired consequences dimension is (0 .905) which is quite high whereas significant value of Bartlett's test of sphericity (approx. chi-square =6654.686, degree of freedom (df) = 78, $p < 0.05$) further justified that factor analysis is an appropriate technique (Table 8).

Table 8. KMO & Bartlett's test (Expectations & Desired consequences)

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.905
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	6654.686
	Df	78
	Sig.	.000

Regarding expectations& desired consequences dimension, two components with eigenvalue greater than 1 are extracted applying principal component analysis with varimax rotation accounting for 61.85 percent of variance. The very first component explained most of the variance (48.48 percent) whereas the second component accounted for 13.37 percent respectively. Table 9 summarizes the two extracted components and the methodology adopted for extraction.

Table 9. Total variance explained (Expectations & desired consequences)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.303	48.485	48.485	6.303	48.485	48.485	5.371	41.312	41.312
2	1.738	13.371	61.856	1.738	13.371	61.856	2.671	20.543	61.856
3	.989	7.609	69.465						
4	.689	5.298	74.763						
5	.615	4.732	79.495						
6	.545	4.191	83.686						
7	.449	3.453	87.138						
8	.389	2.995	90.134						
9	.339	2.607	92.740						
10	.278	2.139	94.879						
11	.270	2.074	96.953						
12	.244	1.877	98.830						
13	.152	1.170	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Factor interpretation

Two factors (healthy & convenient) are extracted to explain the expectations and desired consequences dimension of ready-to-cook food lifestyle of consumers. The details of both factors are as follows:

- Healthy factor reflects the consumers' expectations that ready to cook food should be nutritious and healthy thus further justifying his/her growing concern for health and fitness related aspects.
- Convenient factor pertains to the significance attached to the time and effort saving dimension along with taste as expected by consumer.

Table 10: Factor Loadings (Expectations & desired consequences)

Factor's Name & Cronbach's alpha	**Variables**	**Factor Loadings**
(Exp1) Healthy (.903)	RTC food should possess novelty	.519
	RTC food should be nutritious	.847
	RTC food should be healthy	.880
	RTC food should be hygienic	.814
	RTC food should possess low calories	.769
	RTC food should have minimum preservative content	.805
	RTC food should be safe	.817
	RTC food should give a sense of accomplishment	.654
	RTC food should be consistent with eating habits	.560
(Exp2) Convenient (.755)	RTC food should be easy to cook	.874
	RTC food should be quick to prepare	.878
	RTC food should be tasty	.655
	RTC food should require less cleaning up after having a meal	.470

Figures in parenthesis stand for value of Cronbach's alpha

The customers' expectations are measured with respect to RTC food and it is inferred that respondents desire that RTC food should be healthy (factor loading 0.880), nutritious (factor loading 0.847, safe (factor loading 0.817), hygienic (factor loading 0.814) and possess low calories (factor loading 0.769) with minimum preservative content (factor loading 0.805).Today, the customers are slightly apprehensive of RTC foods due to the above concerns and if these aspects are taken care by the companies, the appeal and consumption will definitely get a boost. RTC food should possess novelty (factor loading 0.819) not only in terms of the product varieties but also variance in flavors, shapes and adapted from diverse cultural traditions.

Convenient factor signifies the consumers' expectations concerning ease offered by ready to cook food as it embodies statements (RTC food should be easy to cook, RTC food should be quick to prepare, RTC food should be tasty, RTC food should require less cleaning up after having a meal).The customers expect that RTC food should require less cleaning up after having a meal which adds to its ease of use and should be all the more less messy in the future. The time factor which is of prime concern in RTC should be taken care of with 0.655 factor loading. Stimulating the taste buds with ease of use (factor loading 0.874) should be the focus areas in new introductions of RTC.

Conclusion

The current study aimed to find out the consumers' expectations towards ready-to-cook food and buying and consumption pattern of RTC consumers extracted two factors concerning consumers' expectations towards ready-to-cook food lifestyle of consumers. Health and convenience are the top most expectations that consumer holds regarding RTC food. Consumers prefer to buy RTC food from shops close to where they reside,visit to another shop in search of their preferred brand,buy in large or medium packs,and acquire RTC related information from TV/radio. Most of the consumers consume RTC food 1- 2 times in a week followed by a substantial percent (34.2 %) who prefer to consume only on special occasions.On the basis of the above results; RTC food marketers should consider allthese factors while designing marketing strategies in order to capture the target market. However, the study is limited to Delhi-NCR region only so the findings cannot be generalized.

References

1. Ahlgren, M., Gustafsson, I.-B., & Hall, G. (2006). Buyers demand for ready meals-influenced by gender &who will eat them. Journal of Foodservice, 17, 205-211.
2. Bae, H-J., Chae, M-J., &Ryu, K. (2010). Consumer behavior towards ready-to-eat foods based on food related lifestyles in Korea. Nutrition Research and Practice, 4, 332-338.
3. Buckley, M., Cowan, C., & McCarthy, M.(2007)The convenience food market in Great Britain: Convenience food lifestyle(CFL) segments. Appetite, 49, 600-617.
4. Bunke, R.P., Ekanayake, A., Smith, T.K. (2000). Shelf Stable Complete Pre- mixes That Are Combinable to Form Ready-To-Cook Mixes And Food Beverage Products. United States Patent No.-6013294.
5. Caraher,M.,Dixon,P.,Lang,T.& Hill-C.R. (1999). The state of cooking in England: the relationship of cooking skills to food choice. British Food Journal, 101(8), 590-609.
6. Churchill, G. A. (1979). A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs. Journal of Marketing Research, 16(1), 64-73.
7. Costa, A I A, Schoolmeester, D., Dekker M., &Jongen, WMF (2007). To cook or not to cook: A means –end study of motives for choice of meal solutions. Food Quality and Preference, 18, 77-88.
8. Furst, T., Connors, M., Bisogni, C.A., Sobal, J. & Falk, L.W. (1996). Food choice: a conceptual model of the process. Appetite, 26, 247-266.
9. Global Food Industry Survey 2013-1[citedMay,2013].Retrieved from:http://www.prnewswire.com/news-releases/global-food-industry-survey-2013-

2014---market-trends-buyer-spend-and-procurement-strategies-in-the-global-food-industry-208509231.html on July 16,2013.

10. Gofton,L.(1995).Dollar rich and time poor? Some problems in interpreting changing food habits.British Food Journal,97(10),11-16.

11. Grunert, K. G., Brunsø, K. &Bisp, S. (1993). Food-related life style: Development of a cross-culturally valid instrument for market surveillance. MAPP working paper No. 12. The Aarhus School of Business.

12. India Ready-to-cook Food Market Forecasts & Opportunities 2019 [January, 2015].Retrieved from http://www.fnbnews.com/Top-News/new-generation-of-readytoeat-meals-38627on 29 July, 2017.

13. Jabs,J.,& Devine,C.M.(2006).Time scarcity and food choices: An overview.Appetite,47,196-204.

14. Kemmer, D. (1999). Food preparation and the division of domestic labor among newly married & cohabiting couples.British Food Journal, 101(8), 570-579.

15. Marquis, M. (2005).Exploring convenience orientation as a food motivation.International Journal of Consumer Studies, 29(1), 55-63.

16. Olsen, V.N., Mat, N., As, Norway. (2012). The convenience consumer's dilemma. British Food Journal, 11, 1613-1625.

17. Rajitha, N. (2012). Diet changes in India over the past 40 years: Implications for the food system. MSC Environmental Governance 2012.

18. Sarathy, T. &Gopal, S. (2011). Managing the Diffusion of innovation in Ready to Eat Food Products in India.IPEDR, 25.

19. Verlegh, P.W.J., Candel, M.J.J.M. (1999).The consumption of convenience foods: reference groups and eating situations. Food Quality and Preference, 10, 457-464.

20. Vijayabhaskar, M.,&Sundaram, N.(2012).A Market Study on Key Determinants of Ready to Eat/Cook Products with Respect to Tier I Cities in Southern India. International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research, 2 (6), 168-180.

❑❑❑

Comparative Analysis of NPAs by Rural Financial Institutions to Agricultural Sector

V. Padmavati [1] Dr. Manisha Waghmode [2]
1 &2. Assistant Professor, Bharati Vidyapeeth's IMSR, Navi Mumbai,
Email- rsrinipadma@yahoo.co.in, w_manisha09@rediffmail.com

ABSTRACT : *Agriculture sector is a very important and plays integral role for the economic development of our nation. Most of the India's rural populations nearly about 58 percent depends on agriculture sector as it is the basic primary source of livelihood, and also contributes to employment generation,8.39 per cent of Gross Value Added (GVA), 13 per cent of India's exports and six per cent of total industrial investment.Inspite of having so much significant importance, it is continuously witnessed with several problems, which arise from many factors like inadequate technologies, lack of awareness of various agriculture practices, impact ofchanging policies of government, socio-economic condition, credit constraints of farmers, lack of optimum utilization of water and other resources in India. Government and various organised financial sector specially banks are perpetually putting efforts for the development of this sector, but still than this sector is shooting up with certain inherent challenges and risks such as high number of non-performing assets ("NPAs"). In order to mitigate risks andresolve these problems it is important that certain practices has to be executed like extension of agriculture activities, adoption of fair price mechanisms. This paper insights on identifying the amount of NPAs by selected Rural Financial Institutions and the factors which are encountering to the high number of NPAs in the agricultural sector, and thenoffer suggestions to reduce them.*

Keywords: : : Agriculture, Credit, Non-Performing Assets, direct and indirect finance, State Cooperative Banks, State Cooperative Agriculture and Rural Development Banks, District Central Co-operative Banks, Primary Cooperative Agriculture and Rural Development Banks

INTRODUCTION:

Agriculture sector plays an integral role as it is a basic source of livelihood of majority rural population in Indian Economy.In agricultural sector many upgraded modernization techniques are adopted, complete transformation from traditional to modern farming techniques can be witnessed in output but still output crop production is based on adequate availability of inputs like certified seeds, balanced proportional mix of fertilizers, and agricultural finance. Agricultural finance like rural credit reachability to farmers even though its not a direct tool of production, it plays a key role in increasing the agricultural productivity in developing countries

OBJECTIVES:

1. To identify the Extent of NPA values realized by selected Rural Financial Institutions to Agricultural Sector.
2. To examine regionwise NPAs using statistical technique covariance by selected Rural Financial Institutions to Agricultural Sector.
3. To explore the problems and factors encountered for realization of NPAs related to agriculture sector.
4. To suggest elucidation to overcome the problems encountered by the agriculture sector.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE:

Arpita Baijal (2013) highlighted on the rising NPA is a systemic problem increasing to a greater level in agricultural sector, focused on problems and hindrances faced by agricultural sector.

R. Thejeswini a et.al (2014), focused on the innovative approaches for agricultural credit outreach to improvise agriculture productivity. Highlighted the importance of institutional credit of scheduled commercial bank and RRBs, and also the spectrum of agricultural credit markets.

Sakshi & Sonia Khajuria (2015), acknowledged the significant role of agriculture and its allied activities in

Indian Economy to analyse the trend and patterns related to agricultural productivity causes of low productivity, to put light on various schemes started by government and for providing suggestions for policy implications

Himani (2014), Examined the importance of Agriculture sector and its essential role for the economic growth in any economy. The study confirms that agriculture sector has achieved tremendous expansion over the years in Indian economy. Besides, their valuable contributions in GDP, gainful employment and exports are also rising considerably. To adequately maintain and merely accelerate the growth & valuable contributions of this sector & to develop properly it as a true engine of economic growth, there is logic & economic rationale of complementary investments in physical infrastructure as well as in human capital.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research design of the study is examining NPAs by various selected Rural Financial Institutions to Agricultural Sector viz; State Cooperative Agriculture and Rural Development Banks, State Cooperative Banks, District Central Co-operative Banks, Primary Cooperative Agriculture and Rural Development Banks. Population of the study is Rural Financial Institutions of India. The present study is based on secondary data and is collected from various governments of India reports, RBI reports, Ministry of agriculture reports, NABARD report articles and economic survey of India. The study is exclusively focused on selected four major Rural Financial Institutions on the basis of report provided by NABARD, 2018. The study attempts to accomplish its objectives by making analysis of NPAs by Rural Financial Institutions to Agricultural Sectorover 2 years of data (2015-2017).

NPAs in Agriculture Finance Rural Financial Institutions to Agricultural Sector

Non Performing Asset NPA is defined as a loan or advance for which the principal or interest payment remained overdue for a period of 90 days.

Norms:

As a part of prudential standards framework for banks, norms for income recognition, standard classification of assets and provisioning of NPA?s were carefully introduced by RBI in year 1992-93.

Depending upon the duration of yields resulted by an agriculturist, the below NPA norms would be applicable to agricultural term loans availed of by farmer. In the specific case of long duration crops, the current prescription of 'not exceeding two half-years' is inadequate.

A loan granted for short time crops will be typically treated as NPA, if the instalment of the principal or interest thereon remains overdue for two crop seasons.

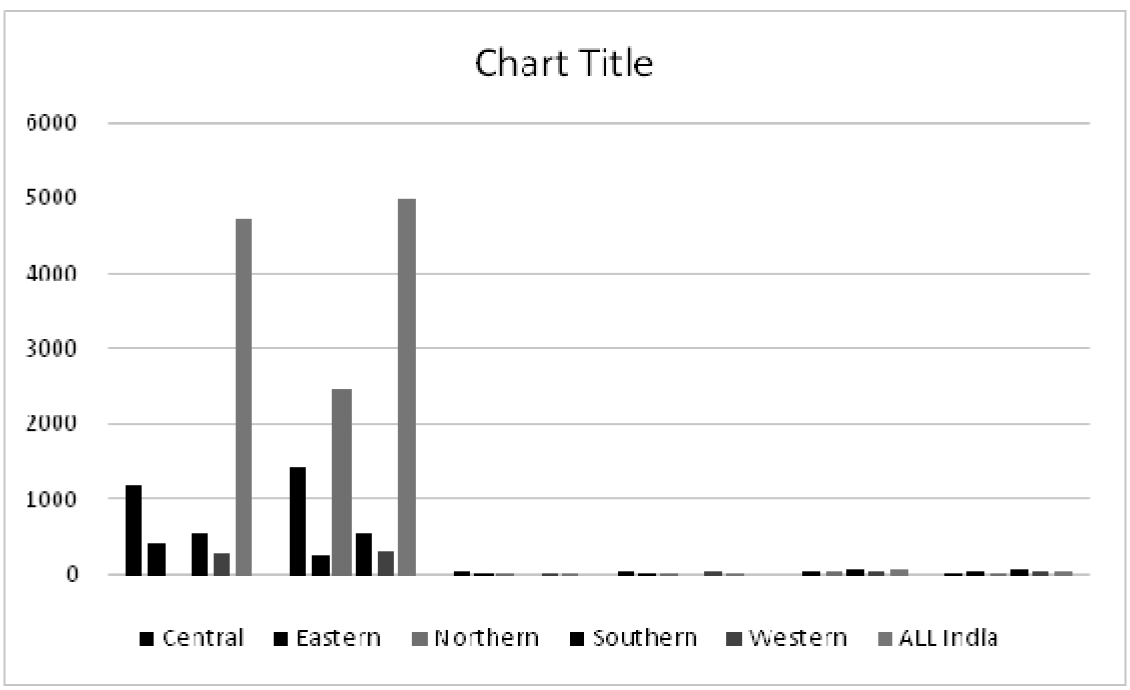
An outstanding loan typically granted for long duration crops will be treated as NPA, if the instalment of the principal or interest thereon remains overdue for one crop season.

Level of the NPA’s of agriculture in Rural Financial Institutions

Table 1. NPAs& Recovery of State Cooperative Agriculture and Rural Development Banks by Region(Amount in Crore)

Region	Total NPAs as on 31st March		NPA as % of loans outstanding as on 31st March		Recovery (%) (as on 30th June)	
	2016	2017	2016	2017	2016	2017
Central	1181	1429	28	46	-	14
Eastern	427	255	36	24	38	40
Northern	2.273	2462	36	37	45	31
Southern	560	552	7	6	83	84
Western	269	305	17	54	43	34
ALL India	4725	5013	22	24	64	51

(Source: NABARD Report, 2018)

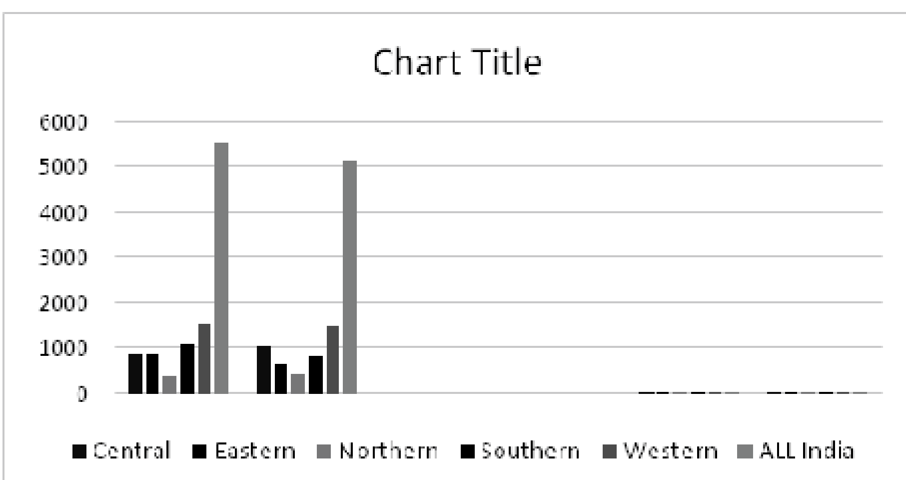


As per the observation of SCARDBs Region- wise NPA as on 31st March 2016 and 2017 and its recovery position Southern region recorded the lowest NPA at 6 percent as on 31 march 2017 and Recovery rate was highest when compared to all other regions specified above. The NPA of Eastern region landed in second position and rest of the regions NPA position has surged up. At all-India level, NPA increased from 22 percent as on 31 March 2016 to 24 percent as on 31 March 2017.

Table2. NPAs& Recovery of State Cooperative Banks by Region(Amount in Crore)

Region	Total NPAs as on 31st March		NPA as % of loans outstanding as on 31st March		Recovery(%) (as on 30th June)	
	2016	2017	2016	2017	2016	2017
Central	894	1044	4	4.8	95.46	94
Eastern	897	669	5.6	3.9	98.80	97.48
Northern	452	470	1.8	1.8	87.71	87.20
Southern	1137	876	3.6	2.6	94.26	94.42
Western	1591	1546	7.5	6.4	55.11	50.88
ALL India	5564	5180	4.5	4.1	91.70	93.50

(Source: NABARD Report, 2018)

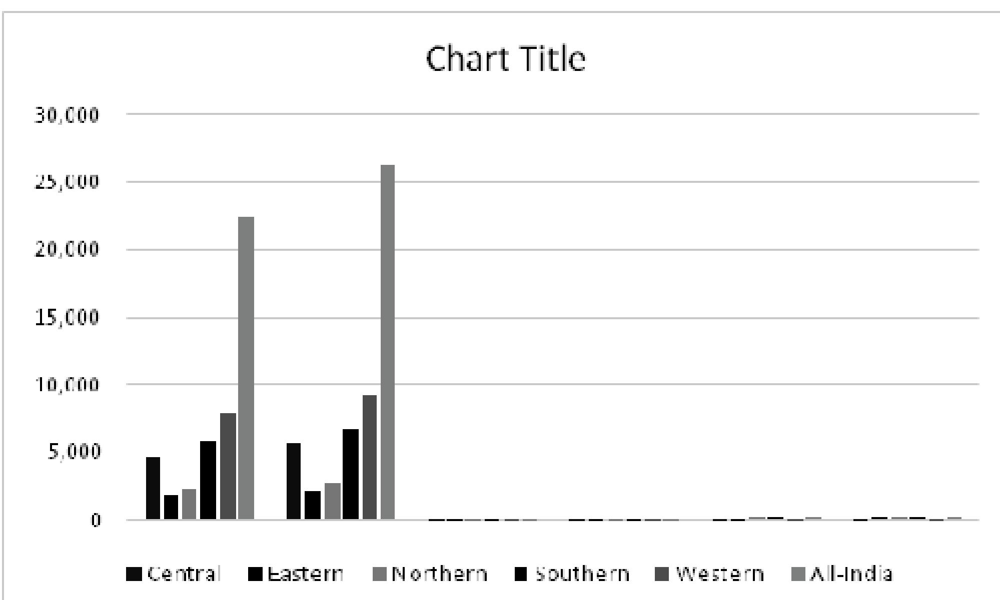


As per the observation of SCBs Region- wise NPA as on 31st March 2016 and 2017 and its recovery position Northern region recorded the lowest NPA at 1.8 percent as on 31 march 2017 and Recovery rate was highest in Eastern region when compared to all other regions specified above. At all-India level, NPA decreased from 3.6 percent as on 31 March 2016 to 2.6 percent as on 31 March 2017

Table 3. NPAs& Recovery of District Central Co-operative Banks by Region(Amount in Crore)

Region	**Total NPAs as on 31st March**		**NPA % of Loans Outstanding as on 31 March**		**Recovery% as on 30th june**	
	2016	**2017**	**2016**	**2017**	**2016**	**2017**
Central	4,620	5,640	13	15.5	70.69	73.10
Eastern	1,931	2,065	10.5	10.4	71.54	76.58
Northern	2,195	2,760	5.7	7.0	83.71	80.94
Southern	5,813	6,706	6.8	7.3	88.53	88.48
Western	7,815	9,244	13.4	14.3	74.36	71.21
All-India	**22,374**	**26,415**	**9.4**	**10.5**	**79.57**	**78.93**

(Source: NABARD Report, 2018)

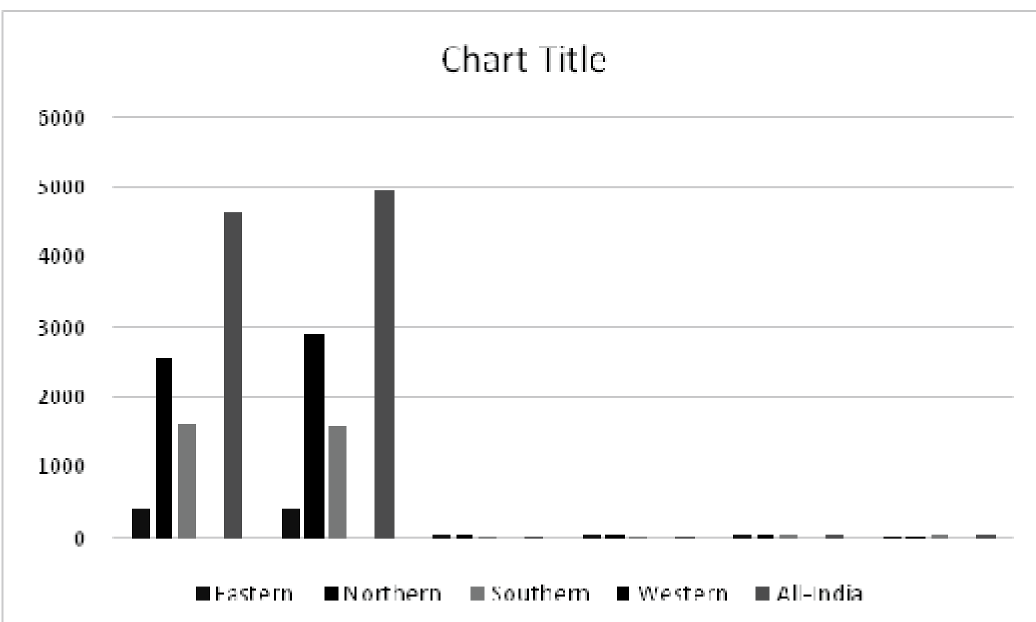


As per the observation of DCCBs Region- wise NPA as on 31st March 2016 and 2017 and its recovery position Northern region recorded the lowest NPA at 7.0 percent as on 31 march 2017 and Recovery rate was highest in Southern region when compared to all other regions specified above. At all-India level, NPA increased from 9.4 percent as on 31 March 2016 to 10.5 percent as on 31 March 2017

Table 4.NPAs& Recovery of Primary Cooperative Agricultureand Rural Development Banksby Region(Amount in Crore)

Region	Total NPAs As on 31 March		NPA as% of Loans Outstanding as on 31 March		Recovery(%) As on 30June	
	2016	2017	2016	2017	2016	2017
Central		–	–	–	–	–
Eastern	438	428	43	41	38	37
Northern	2,572	2,931	45	50	41	22
Southern	1,642	1,615	23	27	59	74
Western	–	–	–	–	–	–
All-India	**4,652**	**4,974**	**37**	**33**	**44**	**44**

(Source: NABARD Report, 2018)



As per the observation of DCCBs Region- wise NPA as on 31st March 2016 and 2017 and its recovery position, Southern region recorded the lowest NPA at 27.0 percent as on 31 march 2017 and Recovery rate was highest in Southern region when compared to all other regions specified above. At all-India level, NPA increased from 37 percent as on 31 March 2016 to 33 percent as on 31 March 2017.

Analysis through Co-Variance:

Table5. Statistical analysis of NPA of 2016

	2016			
	SCARDB	SCB	DCCB	PCARDB
SD	1773.934	1902.24	7637.03702	1779.812
Mean	1194.046	1755.833	7458	2326
CV	148.565	108.3383	102.400604	76.51814

Table6. Statistical analysis of NPA of 2017

	2017			
	SCARDB	SCB	DCCB	PCARDB
SD	1842.627	1777.109	9018.841	1947.834
Mean	1669.33	1630.83	8805	2487
CV	110.3812	108.9696	102.4286	78.32062

From the last two years data it is observed that NPA of PCARDB having less variation.

Table7. Statistical analysis of % of NPA Recovery of 2016

	2016			
	SCARDB	SCB	DCCB	PCARDB
SD	18.68957	16.14252	7.13218807	9.327379
Mean	54.6	87.17	78.06	45.5
CV	34.22998	18.51844	9.13680255	20.49973

Table7. Statistical analysis of % of NPA Recovery of 2017

2017				
	SCARDB	SCB	DCCB	PCARDB
SD	23.73745	17.64894	6.184062	21.85368
Mean	42.33	86.24	78.2	44.25
CV	56.07714	20.46492	7.908008	49.38685

From the last two years data it is observed that NPA recovery of DCCB banks having less co-variation and hence it is more consistent in recovering loans as compared with other banks.

Factors Contributing to High NPA Ratios in financing to Agriculture sector

1. Banks profitability and liquidity is effecting and faces the problems relating to non-recovery resulting in higher NPAs due to ineffectiveness and negligence of recovery tribunals, which works for recovery of loans and advances.
2. Some farmers has the loan repaying capacity but intentionally do will defaults of agricultural loans
3. Farmers productivity is completely dependent on monsoon, following traditional methods for cultivation consistently, inadequacy of irrigation facilities leads to high risks and low productivity and in turn high NPAs.
4. Zamindari system is considered one of the predominant factor for rising NPAs in agricultural sector.
5. Improper usage of storage methods which results in high wastage of fruits, vegetables, grain output,seeds is also considered as one of the factor which impacts the profitability of farmers thus impacts the repaying capacity.
6. Lack of awareness of scientific agricultural practices by farmers.
7. Government has made mandatory for banks to lend agricultural credit target of 18% of adjusted net bank credit, sectors fulfilling credit targets announced in the annual budget, aggressively marketing Kisan Credit Cards.Besides, farmers were given too many incentives like interest subvention for obtaining crop loans, providing subsidized loan schemes. This has led to inadequate inspection of documents and higher credit distribution and in turn higher volume of NPAs.

SUGGESTIONS:

1. Agri councelling centres should be set up for providing professional agri services like providing advisory services to farmers, disseminating the information relating to market trends, updating and educating the farmers with new trends of agricultural practices, providing a toll free number so that farmers can seek advices related farming techniques, methods etc. which will lead to increase in agricultural productivity.
2. Farmers Agricultural mechanism should be strongly built looking a way forward to reduce the intervention of middlemen, utmost care should be taken by government related to availing fair prices to farmers. Ruralgod owns, roads with proper transportation system.
3. Government should ensure to streamline women in agriculture sector by at least allocating 30% budget for women beneficiaries, focus on women centric self-help group(SHG) by providing assistance in availing micro-credit.
4. Will full intentional default borrowers have to be identified and proper measures has to be taken for collecting money.

5. Stringent rules should be laid down by government for monitoring frauds.
6. Bank officials should do Physical inspection of mortgages, thorough checking of documents and proper due diligence should be maintained for sanctioning of loans.
7. Banking sector should extend their lending hands for providing adequate and timely loans to farmers on easy terms, to invest on farming related machinery and other activities.

Specific suggestions related to reducing NPA in agriculture sector:

1. NPAs in agriculture, data on NPAs(absolute amount, its percentage in out standing agricultural credit its share in total NPAs for individual bank must be identified with in a district and analysed each year.
2. Factors contributing for realising NPAs should be discussed at the District Level Coordination Committee meeting and seek cooperation of the village panchayats, block and district authorities to reduce NPAs.
3. Data on NPAs must be incorporated district-wise and bank-wise in the Annual State Focus document prepared by NABARD for discussion in the SLBC meeting.
4. Banks should follow farmer-friendly centric approach which means lending procedures should be approachable, reachable to farmers at a low and reasonable cost.

CONCLUSION:

Agriculture plays a significant role in Indian economy as majority of the Indian population are engaged in agricultural activities. Agricultural credit acts as a catalytic agent to lubricate the process of agricultural development. Loopholes in existing agricultural credit system should be eliminated by identifying the factors encountered in realizing higher NPAs by sophisticating agricultural credit system by providing farmer-friendly lending procedure, training on financial literacy and credit counselling of farmers for optimizing farmers productivity. To boost up the economy as lending to agriculture sector is the key segment for the development of the country.

As per the study we concludethat NPA recovery of DCCB banks having less co-variation and hence it is more consistent in recovering loans as compared with other banks.

REFERENCES:

- Agriculture situation in India retrieved from (http://agriculture.gov.in/Admin_MOAFW/Data/January2018.pdf) accessed on 7/02/2019.
- IBEF report retrieved from https://www.ibef.org/industry/agriculture-india.aspx accessed on 7/02/2019.
- NPA levels of agriculture in India. (2013). Retrieved March 31, 2014, from http//:bankreport.rbi.org.in
- Arpita(2013), “High Ratio of Agriculture NPAS In Priority Sector Lending By Public And Private Banks In India – Reasons, Suggestions And Discussions” High International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR) ISSN (Online): 2319-7064
- Thejeswini, R et al. (2014). “Agricultural Credit in India – Innovations in Design and Delivery of Products and Services.” Agricultural Economics Research Review 27: 75–83.
- Economic Survey 2017-18, Government of India Ministry of Finance Department of Economic Affairs Economic Division January, Volume II
- Sakshi & Sonia Khajuria (2015), "Agricultural Productivity in India: Trends, Challenges and Suggestions." International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR) ISSN (Online): 2319-7064 Index Copernicus Value (2015): 78.96 | Impact Factor (2015): 6.391
- Himani (2014), "An Analysis of Agriculture Sector in Indian Economy "

  IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science (IOSR-JHSS) Volume 19, Issue 1, Ver. X (Feb. 2014), PP 47-54 e-ISSN: 2279-0837, p-ISSN: 2279-0845. www.iosrjournals.org

IMPACT OF FLEXIBLE WORKING ARRANGEMENTS ON EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION IN IT SECTOR

SEEMA WADHAWAN,
ASSISTANT PROFESSOR
GITARATTAN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS SCHOOL
ROHINI, MADHUBAN CHOWK, NEW DELHI
Email-Id: seema.nangia78@gmail.com

ABSTRACT : *Organizations have witnessed a noteworthy change in their companies. Innovation, technological advancement, economic interdependence of nations has made the management to act and workers to adapt the change quickly. Survival and sustainability of organizations in a global economy poses a necessity to rigor new policies and work system and one of them is Flexible Working Arrangements. This paper makes an attempt to understand and analyze the impact of Flexible Working Arrangement on Employee Satisfaction. Employee Satisfaction is affected by dimensions such as psychological well-being, social relationship and physical health. Data was collected from 100 respondents working in IT sector who are employed in Delhi NCR using convenience sampling distribution method. To understand the relationship between Flexible Working Arrangement and Employee Satisfaction descriptive study was conducted on employees of IT sector. The results of the study showed positive relationship between Flexible Work Arrangement and Employee Satisfaction.*

Keywords: : : Employee Satisfaction, Flexible Work Arrangement and Information Technology

INTRODUCTION

With the advent of technology, flexibility in working hours is in demand and many organizations are observing it in order to benefit the company and employees. By following the flexibility in working, organizations are making an attempt to build the culture of trust at workplace. P. Thomson (2010) alludes that strategy of flexible working enables work life balance for both male and females. Flexible Work Arrangement is commonly known as Flexible work scheduling, which refers to altering the time and hours of working in a week. It is the benefit provided to the employees to enable them to manage time clock and work place in the standard work day Hill et.al (2001). It is classified into Flexi Time, Part time, Telecommuting and Compressed Work Schedule. These options can be used individually or be combined and incorporated by the organizations on the basis of their requirements. Organizations make an attempt to reduce the risk of unemployment by such arrangements. However, there exist no standardized rule being followed by the organization and it varies from company to company.

Employee Satisfaction is a behavior which reflects the extent to which employees are happy or contented with the work they do in an organization and the environment which enable them to perform the work as per the required standard. Employee satisfaction encompasses the primary concern and needs of the employees. By encouraging good health, supporting good healthy eating and providing physical activity at work employers are making an attempt to provide a good work life balance and increasing the satisfaction of employees. Previous researches have also shown that flexible working enables to have better mental health and stress reduction M. Shapiro et al. (2009). For the current research study, Employee satisfaction is mapped under three dimensions of well being i.e. Psychological, Social and Physical. In order to have more creative, loyal and productive employees it is important to provide a good standard of well being at work and Flexible Work Arrangement is one of the techniques followed by organizations leading to increased work commitment (C. Kelliher and D. Anderson, 2010).

Psychological satisfaction refers to the happiness of the employees, by enabling employees to balance the working and the social life effects positively. Happiness of the employees is important for the well being of the employees. It is concerned with hedonic and eudemonic elements. Hedonic is concerned with positive and negative thoughts of employees and eudemonic concept is concerned with fulfillment and realization of human potential.

Social Relationship refers to quality of social relationship with others and functioning within the society. In an organization social relationship refers to the interaction that exists between employees and environment. This element enables to enhance the productivity and efficiency of the employee. However, research conducted by Olsen (1987) stated that a high amount of flexibility in work arrangements will be negatively related to social relationship. The interaction among the employees will be low when employees work from home or different work timing.

Physical well being has been considered as a vital factor in the working of the employee. For employees to be in good physical condition, health plays an important part within the well-being of the employee. First, the energy level of an employee is part of the physical well-being of an employee, but also the amount of stress employees perceive has an effect on the health of employees. Work can also be a source of stress which has a negative effect on the health of the employee. The current study made an attempt to examine how Flexible Work Arrangement as an independent variable influences the satisfaction of employee in IT domain and what relationship exists between them.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Shagvaliyev&Yazdanifard (2014) investigated the association among working hours flexibility and work life balance. The author identified the benefit of flexible working for both employer and employee. By employing flexibility in working, organizations are making and attempt to build the culture of trust. It enables the employees to keep a watch on his/her time duration of working as well as location of their work.The policy of flexibility in working hours and location is the part of its part of work-life policy, which has been introduced by the organizations to endeavor satisfaction of employees. This is primarily done with the motive to attract, recruit, and retain highly qualified employees to their organizations and focus to build the well-being of the employees.

Ahmad A., Hashim H. (2013) the authors made and attempt to examine the associationamong flexible working hours and employee motivation. Spending more hours at work, affects the safety, security and education of the children and family responsibilities. These challenges faced by the employees can be reduced with the implementation of flexible working. Employees would get an option to create a good balance in work and family responsibilities. The survey questionnaire was used for data collection from 41 respondents to the staff. Correlation and regression was used as a technique to examine the relationship and study showed that effective application of Flexible working schedule results in the motivation of staff of the department.

Deshwal P. (2016) the author investigates the impact of flexible working arrangements on the companies. Flexible working is different from the regular working pattern of employees. Organizations are focusing to become flexible in the work timing to enable the employees to meet up their daily family challenges. This support by the employer is helping to create a trustworthy and better retained employee. The author has made an attempt to examine the positive impact of workplace flexibility on organization and employees. The data was collected through questionnaire and interview from 300 employees of MNC’s in Delhi. Flexible working enables the employee to create balance in profession working and personal life. It also facilitates to reduce stress of employees and build longer tenure at organization. Employees who are given the facility of flexible working arrangement prefer to stay longer with the organization.

Abid S.(2016) depicted in their study that the organizations which are offering the feature of flexible timing have an advantage over the other organizations with reference to better performance & productivity, lower absenteeism, retention of valuable employees, increasing employees morale and motivation and building loyalty among employees. Implementation of Flexible working focuses to developa better general atmosphere among human relations and build positive environment which improves the culture at work. The flexible time offer greater advantage to the employees to deliver and work to meet the deadline and avail some rest in the form of break to go home or to take lunch or take children from school etc. The daily flexi timing options permits the employees to cope up with the contingency situations and also meet up with their daily task at office securing their job and keeping them happy.

Jain and Swami (2014) investigated the benefits of flexible working arrangement and employee retention in IT sector. The study depicted that organizations which are practicing flexible working arrangement are able to retain and have employees stay for longer period. The data was collected from both primary and secondary methods by questionnaire and interview method. 100 Respondents of the study were from Aon Hewitt w. showed that flexible work arrangement is preferred by all levels gender, and is a benefit which is most sought. The author alludes that flexible working time increases the retention of employees in the organizations. FWA enables the employees to have long tenure with the company, be more promising and committed, reduce stress and maintain work life balance.

Subramaniam, G., &Selvaratnam, D. P. (2010) the author investigates the function of state in policy formation for working and non working employees in Malaysia in public organizations. The influence of state is of vital importance not only to provide work/non work provision like maternity and paternity leaves, however it is also to implement and support the benefits of work practices of flexi time and crèche. This study showed these arrangements are essential for those workers who have young children. FWA is essential requirement of single working parent.

Rogier, A., Padgett, M. Y. (2004) the study made an attempt to investigate if there is a difference in the career development of women who opt for flexible working schedule that that do not opt for it. The respondents of the study were the women employees of account department who were seeking promotion from manager. The result of the study showed those women employees who are on flexible work schedule lack dedication towards job and have low advancement motivation. Thought the variation in their capabilities with other employees may not be observed.

Glass, J L. & Finley. A (2002) the study made an attempt to investigate the influence of family responsive work policy on the commitment of the employees. The study focuses on the understanding the market based model which accommodates the family responsibilities and information. Gave the framework for future where better commitment can be attained with focus on family responsive work policy.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

i) To identify the relationship between Flexible Working Arrangements and Employees Satisfaction in IT sector.

ii) To analyze the impact of Flexible Working Arrangements on Employees Satisfaction in IT sector

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study is limited to the few companies of IT sector in Delhi NCR and this does not necessary show the findings of the whole industry. The sample of the study includes the employees of various departments of the organization such as Operations, Business Development, HR, Marketing, Finance and administration. The rationale of the study was to analyze the relationship of Flexible Working Arrangement and Employee Satisfaction of IT Sector.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A descriptive research design was used for the study, where primary and secondary sources for data collection were used. Questionnaire was adapted from the previous research of similar nature. Sampling techniques applied in this study was convenience sampling. The study was conducted with the sample size of 100. Primary data was collected by Questionnaire. More than 120 questionnaires were distributed and 100 of them were complete in all respect which was considered for the study.

HYPOTHESES

H1:The relationship between flexible working arrangement and employee satisfaction is significant.

H2:The impact of flexible working arrangement on employee satisfaction is significant.

H3: Significant relationship between flexible working arrangementand happiness.

H4:Significant relationship between flexible working arrangement and social relationship.

H5:Significant relationship between flexible working arrangementand physical health.

DATAANALYSIS & INTERPRETATION

Analysis of the data was carried out by using both MS Excel and SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) to examine Flexible Working Arrangement impact on employees satisfaction in IT sector.

Table No. 4.1: Gender

Gender	In Figures	Percentage (%)
Male	34	34%
Female	66	66%

Interpretation: The table above depicts that 66% were female and 34 %were male respondents, which reflects that females want more flexibility in the working and look for such opportunities from the company.

Table no. 4.2: Age

Age	In figures	In Percentage%
Below 20	3	3%
21-30	49	49%
31-40	25	25%
41 or above	23	23%

Interpretation: The table above depicts that 3% of the respondents were from below the age of 20, 49% of the respondents belong to 21-30 age group, 25% of the respondents were from 31-40 age group. 23% of the respondents were from 41 or above age group. This reflects that the respondents who are from the age group 21-30 look forward for more flexibility in the working arrangement. These are the respondents who belong to the millennial generation which is more demanding.

Table No. 4.3: Marital Status

Marital Status	In Figures	In Percentage%
Married	40	40%
Unmarried	60	60%

Interpretation: The table above depicts that 60% of the respondents were unmarried respondents and 40% were married respondents, reflecting majority of data has been collected from unmarried respondents.

Questionnaire's Reliability

Cronbach alpha technique was applied to check the Questionnaire reliability. The techniques was applied on all 30 statements. There are two variables on which it is being checked i.e, Flexible working Arrangement and Employees Satisfaction where in employees satisfaction covers Psychological (happiness), Physical (health) and Social (relationship).

Table no.4.4: Reliability

Variables	Cronbach Alpha	No. of items
Flexible Working Arrangement	0.711	9
Employees Satisfaction	0.761	21

Interpretation: Table 4.4 above examines the reliability of each variable separately. It shows the value of 0.711 for Flexible Working Arrangement and 0.761 for Employee Satisfaction.

Correlation between Flexible Working Arrangement and Employees Satisfaction

Table No. 4.5: Correlation Coefficient - Flexible Working Arrangement and Employee Satisfaction

Variable		FWA	ES
FWA	Pearson correlation	1	0.625
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	100	100

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

Interpretation: The table above depicts that r value is 0.625 at p value of 0.000 thus reflecting Flexible Working Arrangement and Employee Satisfaction in IT sector have a positive correlation. So, hypothesis Ha1 is accepted.

Correlation between Flexible Working Arrangement and Psychological well being (happiness)

Table No. 4.6: Correlation between FWA and Psychological happiness

Variable		FWA	PSY
FWA	Pearson correlation	1	**0.664****
	Sig. (2 - tailed)		0.000
	N	100	100

Interpretation: The table above depicts that r value is 0.664 at p value of 0.000 thus reflecting that Flexible Working Arrangement and Psychological well being (Happiness) in IT sector is positively correlated. So, hypothesis Ha2 is accepted. Happiness component is considered as an important indicator in terms of employee satisfaction and organizations which provide the feature of Flexible Working Arrangement are providing happiness to its employees.

Correlation between Flexible Working Arrangement and Social Relationship

Table No. 4.7: Correlation between FWA and Social Relationship

Variable		FWA	SR
FWA	**Pearson correlation**	1	.236*
	Sig. (2 - tailed)		.018
	N	100	100

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

Interpretation: The table above depicts that r value is 0.236 at p value of 0.018, reflecting thatFlexible Working Arrangement and Social Relationship within employees in IT sector is weakly correlated. So, hypothesis Ha3 is accepted. Social Relationship component is not an important indicator in terms of employee satisfaction and organizations which provide the feature of Flexible Working Arrangement cannot cater to building social relationship within employees.

Correlation between Flexible working Arrangement and Physical Health

Table No. 4.8: Correlation between FWA and Physical Health

Variable		FWA	PH
FWA	**Pearson correlation**	1	.436*
	Sig. (2 - tailed)		.000
	N	100	100

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

Interpretation: The table above depicts that r value is 0.436 at p value of 0.000 thus reflecting a moderate correlation between Flexible Working Arrangement and Physical Health to its employees in IT sector. So, hypothesis Ha4 is accepted. Physical Health component is moderately important indicator in terms of employee satisfaction and organizations which provide the feature of Flexible Working Arrangement can cater to building physical Health of employees.

Impact of Flexible Working Arrangement and Employee Satisfaction

Regression analysis was conducted to examine how Flexible Working Arrangement impacts the Satisfaction of employee. For the study Flexible Working Arrangement is independent variable and Employee Satisfaction is dependent variable.

Table no.4.9: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.625[a]	.390	.384	7.24092

a.Predictors: (Constant), FWA

Table no.4.10: ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	3285.211	1	3285.211	62.658	.000[b]
	5138.229	98	52.431		
	8423.440	99			

a. Dependent variable: ES

Regression analysis was conducted to examine how Flexible Working Arrangement impacts the Satisfaction of employee. Table 4.9 shows r square is 0.390,reflecting that independent variable (Flexible Working Arrangement) can predict 39% of variation in dependent variable (Employee Satisfaction). As per Table 4.10 ANOVA shows F value of 62.658 and p value (0.000), which is less than 0.05 thus H1 is accepted and that there exist strategically significant relationship among Flexible Working Arrangement on Employee Satisfaction.

Employee Satisfaction = = 42.107 + 1.008 (Flexible Working Arrangement).

IMPLICATION

The present study examined that there exist positively strong correlation among Flexible Working Arrangement and Employee Satisfaction of employees in IT sector. Furthermore, study is also in conformity with previous researches; reflecting that female's employee satisfaction from Flexible Working Arrangement can be increased. It has been found that there are many respondents who are in favor of Flexible Working Arrangement leading to creating positive employee satisfaction. For the employees of IT Sector companies the component Psychological (Happiness) is the most important variable for employee satisfaction and social relationship within employees is least important.

CONCLUSION

The study examined that there was a significant impact of Flexible Working Arrangement on Employee Satisfaction of employees in IT sector. Thus, the organizations should give enough considerations to various options of Flexible Working Arrangement as this impact the employee work life balance and enable to build loyalty towards the organization. Psychological happiness is an important component of employee Satisfaction that can be related to increased productivity gained by Flexible Working Arrangement and length of service with the organization. Therefore, to cater to the employees of today it has become imperative for the organizations to provide different benefits where Flexible Working Arrangement is one of them. Also that implementation of FWA has enabled the workers to fulfill their obligation of work life balance, physical health.

References

Ahmad, A. R., Idris, M. T. M., &Hashim M. H. (2013). A Study of Flexible Working Hours and Motivation. Asian Social Science, Vol. 9, No. 3, pp. 208-215

C. Kelliher and D. Anderson, "Doing More with Less? Flexible Working Practices and Intensification of Work," Human Relations, Vol. 63, No. 1, 2010, pp. 83-106.

Deshwal P. (2015) Impact of Flexible Work Arrangement in MNC's of Delhi. International Journal of Applied Research 1(13) 810 – 814

Glass, J. & Finley, A. (2002) Coverage and effectiveness of family-responsive workplace policies [Special issue: Changing views of work and family roles]. Human Resource Management Review, 12, 313-337.

Jain B. and Swami Y. (2014). Flexible Work

Arrangement and Employee Retention in IT Sector. International Journal of Research in Computer Sciences and Management Studies, 2(12) 109-116

Rogier. A. S & Margaret, Y.P. (2004) Impact of utilizing a flexible work schedule on the perceived career advancement potential of women. Wiley online library, 15(1), 89- 106

Subramaniam, G., &Selvaratnam, D. P. (2010). Family Friendly Policies in Malaysia: Where Are We? Journal of International Business Research, 9(1), 43-55.

P. Thomson, "The Business Benefits of Flexible Working," Strategic HR Review, Vol. 7, No. 2, 2008, pp. 17-22.

Shagvaliyeva., S. &Yazdanifard. R. (2014) Impact of Flexible Working Hours on Work Life Balance. American Journal of Industrial and Business Management4, 20-23

❑❑❑

STUDENTS' SPECIFIC AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP PROPENSITY OF UNDERGRADUATES IN NIGERIAN PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES

****Okunbanjo Olajide Idowu**
B.Sc, M.Sc, Mphil/Ph.D Student (Corresponding Author)
Okunbanjoolajide@yahoo.com
Department of Business Administration, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State, Nigeria
Tijani Omofolasaye Omobolanle
B.Sc, M.Sc, Ph.D Student
Department of Business Administration and Marketing, Babcock University, Ilisan, Ogun State, Nigeria
Tijanisaye@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT : *In spite ofthe introduction of entrepreneurship in Nigerian university syllabus, students still prefer to be employed by corporate organizations than to be self- employed irrespective of their personal features.This study investigated the relationship between students' specific and entrepreneurship propensity of Nigerian undergraduates in private universities. The hypotheses for the study were students' specific does not have significant relationship with students' attitude in embarking on entrepreneurial activities;students' specific does not significantly related to students' self-efficacy in embarking on entrepreneurial activities; and students' specific is not significantly related with students' technical ability in embarking on entrepreneurial activities. A survey research design was employed through distribution of 250questionnaires to undergraduate students in five selected private universities in Nigeria which were chosen randomly. The students returned 216 questionnaires. And the results of the data were analysed through Pearson correlation. The findings displayed that students' specific has a significant relationship with entrepreneurship propensity of Nigeria undergraduates in private universities. And thus, this study recommended thatstudents especially female students need to be enlightened on entrepreneurship as another form of career choice; university entrepreneurship education needs to be reviewed or readjusted in a way that technical abilities of the students toward starting a business will be enhanced; and students should be made to practise little elements of entrepreneurship within and outside the school environment so as to boast their self-belief on starting and running a successful business venture when they graduate .*

Keywords: : Entrepreneurship, Students' Specific, Self-Efficacy, Technical Ability, Attitude

INTRODUCTION

Economic challenges in developing countries have pushed the governments and the governed towards paying attention to entrepreneurship and its development. The governments have seen the necessity of entrepreneurial knowledge to be acquired by Nigerian students in tertiary institutions especially in the university and thus, introduction of entrepreneurship as a subject, discipline and area of specialisation in Nigerian universities. The role ofuniversities as tertiary institutions in the characteristicsof the students towards enhancing their entrepreneurial propensity is very crucial.Holienka, Holienková andGál (2015) posited that universityundergraduates are the focus of interest as regards tofeatures of entrepreneurship. Thus, entrepreneurship education aids in achieving this.It has been reported by international community that entrepreneurship education will enhance the students' capability on how to discover business opportunities and make use of the opportunities in a way that wealth will be created.

Entrepreneurship through its education acquire in the university is afar just creation of business but to increase the undergraduate skill to get ahead and react to changes in the society.Entrepreneurial education fundamentally brings the youthscloser to having the idea of business venture or an enterprise (Postigo, Lacobucci, & Tamborini, 2006).Thus,well designed entrepreneurship curriculum is needed.Kume and Shahini, (2013) asserted that the syllabus for entrepreneurship should be intended and structured to draw the attention of the universities undergraduates in becoming successful entrepreneurs after passing out from the universities. The syllabus should accommodate students' characteristics or specific.Holienka et al(2015) believed that the route to self-employment, job opportunity creation and economic self-sufficiency is the utilisation of entrepreneurial features by the students in owning and starting a business venture

Carland et al cited in Fafaliou (2012); Gartner,Shaver, Carter, and Reynolds (2004)expressed those likely factors that affect character towards the practice of entrepreneurship are the demographic features of a person. The demographic features include the individual age, gender, life and professional experiences, culture, educational level etc.Sajilan, Hadi & Tehseen (2015) opined that the individual characteristics shape the behaviours of people towards entrepreneurship. It is opaque if this is applicable to Nigerian undergraduates because most of the Nigerian undergraduates prefer to seek for white collar jobs after graduating.Scholars such as Sarmin & Ashrafuzzaman (2017), Sajilan et al (2015), Tyagi, (2014) etc have investigated on individual specific factors on entrepreneurship but most of these studies were not done in Nigeria. On this note,students' specific and entrepreneurship propensity of undergraduates in selected private universitiesin Nigeria needed to be investigated which is the objective of the study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

Entrepreneurial propensityis a person's feeling to engage in entrepreneurial activities for compensation in the nearest future(Moa-Liberty, Arogundade &Odunuga, 2016).Entrepreneurial propensity is an individual willingness to embark on entrepreneurial activity for the purpose of self-employment. Entrepreneurship propensity opined thatentrepreneurial propensity is the primarypointer of entrepreneurial behavior. Delmar and Davidson(2000) saw entrepreneurial propensityas the willingness to start own business and to become self-reliant.

Entrepreneurship Propensity

Attitude

The rate at which a person shows his dislikeness and/or likeness on an object or event could be termed as attitude(Pulka, Rikwentishe & Ibrahim, 2014).According to Ajzen (1987),attitude is seen as the tendency in reacting to a circumstance that could be favourably and/or not favourably. Attitude is the reaction of an individual in a particularmanner when encountering certain impetuses (Pulka et al 2014).Attitude is the reaction of an individual to a phenomenon which can be positive or negative. The reaction may be physical, behavioural or vocal. According to Ogundele (2012), attitude comprises three components which are affective, cognitive, and behavioural components. Affective Attitude deals with feelings and emotions of an individual. Cognitive attitude comprises individual belief, thought and knowledge about an object. Behavioural attitude deals with the way and manner in which an individual reacts to an object

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacyis the individual beliefs in his capability and skill to start an assignment and be successful in it (Bandura, 1997).Self-efficacy reflects a personal-assessment of an individual if they posses the needed skill to execute a particular assignment (Wilson, Kickul & Marlino, 2009). In the view of Peng, Kong and Turvey (2015); Tyszka, Kennedy, Adolphs, and Paul (2011), entrepreneurial self-efficacy greatlyupsets mindset of a personin becomingan entrepreneur. According to Peng, et al (2015); Ehrlich, De Noble, Jung, and Pearson (2000), entrepreneurial self-efficacy can be seen in five distinctive dimensions; which are (1) Resource acquisition: This is the accessibility to the rudiment requirements to embark on a business venture. It includes human resources and non-human resources (2) Opportunity recognition: This is identification of business-related demand in a society, (3) Interpersonal relations: This concerns the relationship that exists between the entrepreneurs and other individuals in the society or environment. (4) Risk management: This is act of mitigating risk that the entrepreneur may encounter (5) Innovation management: this is the process of making or bringing something new to the market by the entrepreneurs. It involves act of bring new dimension and new techniques of processes.

Technical Ability

Technical ability of an entrepreneur strongly determines the product or service that he or she offers in the market place Oakey(2003).Agada (2014) saw technical abilities are the skills required to accomplishment of a specific task. According to Arul, (2012); Osinem (2008), technical ability means understanding the know-how of a certain activity that entailsprocedures, practices, actions, and approaches.

Technical skills require doing thingsproficiently in line with the predetermined manners (Ogbuanya & Fakorede, 2009). Agada (2014) expressed that without technical skills, the objective of a business venture may be difficult to accomplish by an entrepreneur. Therefore, technical ability is one of the entrepreneurial skills and entrepreneur must possess it to succeed. Technical and vocational education could aid in possessing technical skills in becoming entrepreneurs. Through these media, individual would be taught how to use their specific to create and recreate a product or service to solving a societal business challenges. And also, students would be exposed to practical teaching to acquire practical knowledge and posses practical skill of their interest. And studies like Aboudi and Ommani (2015); Ogundele, Akingbade and Akinlabi (2012); Adebayo and Atunwa (2013); Farkas and Nagy (2008) concluded that technical skill is important and enhanced by education especially the informal education.

This study defines entrepreneurship propensity as thelikelihood of identifying a business opportunity, owned and managed a business venture in the nearest future. There are two types of entrepreneurship propensity according to Quan (2012). They are impulsive and deliberate entrepreneurship propensity. Impulsive entrepreneurship propensity is affected by demography factors or specific factors. Deliberate entrepreneurial intention is submissive to external influence slike past experience and network building. But this study focuses on the impulsive entrepreneurship propensity which tends to related to demographic or specific factors hence students' specific. According to Tyagi (2014), students specific are factors that can motivate decision of students' to be an entrepreneur. Students' specific in this study includes gender, sex, education, age and field of study.

Students Specific

Gender is a peculiarity that has been traditionally accustomedin the societalstructure which tantamount to thinking and behaving as male and female(Nwankwo, Kanu, Marire & Balogun, 2012). Many studies such asSiyanbola, Afolabi, Jesuleye, Egbetokun, Dada, Aderemi, Sanni and Razak (2012); Verheul, Thurik, Grilo and Zwan (2012);Czuchry and Yasin (2008);Wang and Wong (2004); Mazzarol and Thein (1999); Matthewes and Moser (1995) on gender as part of individual specific found that gender is a determinant to entrepreneurship propensity. Men arekeener to owning an enterprise than the women. Verheul, et al (2012), Lee and Lim, (2005)were of the opinionthatthe responsibilities of raising the children in the family negatively affectfemales' intention to start a business venture.

Age is a significant factor in life stages. And it has also been seen a just a number as an insignificant factor to what an individual may do. According to Moa-Liberty, et al (2016);Reynolds (1997), an individual age is a basic specific to knowing theentrepreneurship propensity. Most of the studies around the globe such as Karadeniz and Özçam, (2009);Raposo, DoPaço and Ferreira (2008)Bosma and Harding (2007);Levesque and Minniti (2006)argued that the desire to be become an entrepreneurs start from age 25. And it was revealed byBates (2002) that entrepreneurship propensity increases with age, at peak level as people approach 40 and then leveling out

Other students specific considered in this study include the field of study of the student. This comprises the courses the students are studying in the private universities. This includes both management related courses and non-management related courses. Family background of the study is also seen important in decision to be an entrepreneur. The beliefs and background of the family as well as the religion the family and student practices are influencers. These entail that a student that is exposed by the family to business activities might have the intention to be self-employed after graduating from the university

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

H1: Students' specific does not have significant relationship withstudents'attitude in embarking on entrepreneurial activities

H2: Students' specific is not significantly related to students' self-efficacy in embarking on entrepreneurial activities

H3: There is no significant relationship between students' specific and students' technical ability in embarking on entrepreneurial activities

RESEARCH METHODS

The study made used of survey research design and it is limited to private universities in Nigeria. Private universities were selected because the rapid increase in the number and their impact in contributing to human capital development in Nigeria. Theprivate universities- Babcock University, Bell University of Technology Covenant University, Crawford University and Crescent University were conveniently and randomly selected.And students who are in their final year and are studying business-related courses were sampled. The students were sampled because they have 3 to 4 entrepreneurship relatedcourses. 250 questionnaires were proportionately distributed among the undergraduates in the five private-owned universities. The study adapted and adopted the measurement ofthe independent variables- students' attitude, students' self-efficacy and students' technical ability from the studies ofHenderson and Palm (2011); Vázque et al (2011); and Noble (2000)respectively.While the dependent variable- students' specific were measured from the studies of Ooi et al (2011), and Ni, Ping, Ying, Sern & Lih, (2012). A 6-point scale were employed to rank the students' responses and the Pearson Correlation was employed to data analysis technique

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATIONS

Table 1: Respondents' Demographic Details

	Responses	Frequency	Percent(%)
Sex	Male	84	57.9
	Female	91	42.1
	Total	216	100
Age	16-20 years	75	34.7
	21-25 years	122	56.5
	26-30years	17	7.9
	31 years and above	2	0.9
	Total	216	100
Field of Study	Accounting	43	23.1
	Business Admin	140	75.3
	Marketing	3	1.6
	Info Resource Mgt.	11	5.1
	Industrial Relations	3	1.4
	Banking and Finance	41	19.0
	Management Technology	2	0.9
	Total	216	100

Demographic details of the students showed that 125(57.9%) of the respondents were male while 91(42.1%) were female.The students' ages showed that 16-20 years were 75(34.7%), 21-25 years were 122(56.5%); 26-30 years were 17(7.9%) and 31 years above were 2(0.9%). The responses of the students showed that 80(37.7%) were studying accounting; 65(30.1%) were studying business administration; 14(6.5%) werestudying marketing; 11(5.1%) were in information resource management; 3(1.4%) were studying industrial relations; 41(19%) were studying banking and finance and just 2(0.9%) of the students were studyingmanagement technology.

Hypotheses Testing

Table 4.2:Results of the Hypotheses

Hypotheses		Correlation	Sig value	N
H_1	Students' specific and Students' Attitude	.318	.000	216
H_2	Students' Specific and Students' Self Efficacy	.453	.000	216
H_3	Students' Specific and Students' Technical Ability	.256	.000	216

Source: Researchers' Computation, 2017

Interpretation of Results

Table 4.2 displayed the results of the three formulated hypotheses. The table displayed the Pearson Correlation and the significant value as well as the number of observation. The results showedastudents' specific is significantly related and a weak positive association to students' attitude in embarking on entrepreneurial activities. This is evident in the results of the hypothesis 1 withcorrelation value of .318 which signified that 31.8% relationship existed between students specific and Students Attitude. Thesignificant valueof 0.00of the hypothesis 1 is less than the 0.05(5%) of the significant level. Thus, the hypothesis that students' specific does not have significant relationship with students attitude in embarking on entrepreneurial activities is rejected. In the same vein, the results of the hypothesis 2 in the table revealed students' specific is significant related to self-efficacy of the students in embarking on entrepreneurial activities.

The correlation value .453 showed that a positive relationship between students' specific and students' self-efficacy in embarking on entrepreneurial activities.The significant value of 0.000 showed that there is significant relationship because it is less than 0.05 (5%). Therefore, the hypothesis that students' specific is not significantly related to students' self-efficacy in embarking on entrepreneurial activities is rejected. Finally, the results on hypothesis 3 revealed thatthere is significant relationship between students specific and students' technical ability to start a business. The correlation and significant values of .256 and 0.000 respectively indicated a non-negativebut weak connection and significant association between students' specific and students' technical ability in embarking on entrepreneurial activities. Hence, the hypothesis that students' specific is not significantly related to students technical ability in embarking on entrepreneurial activities is rejected

Discussion of Results

It has been established students' specific and students' entrepreneurship are significantly associated propensity to start a business.Students' specific as it has been seen by Sajilan et al, (2015) as demographic factors are contributing factors todetermining entrepreneurship propensity. The disposition of students on becoming entrepreneurs in the nearest future in Nigerian private university is determined by gender, education, age and the field of study of the students. Male students display challenges character to become successful in any endeavour they found themselves unlike the female students. They try to show the society that they are men, they must be leading and they posses that self-confidents in in embarking on entrepreneurial activities successfully. Students that do not posses entrepreneurship education knowledge will lack some skills to be a successful entrepreneurship and the skills are important to running of a business venture. The field of study tells how students will be grounded in entrepreneurship knowledge.Students show interest in becoming entrepreneurs because of his age. The older the students are, the more likely to show interest in becoming a self employed graduate. This is connected to what is being practice in Nigeria by corporate organisation as far as employment age is concerned.Students in business/management sciences display undergo courses related to entrepreneurship at different levels which have influence their attitude, self-efficacy and technical ability.

The findingswerein conformity withSarmin and Ashrafuzzaman (2017) on individual characteristics that lead to intention to be entrepreneurs; Moa-Liberty et al (2016) on how demographic and self-eficacy influences members of NationalYouth Corp Service to be entrepreneur after the service year; Mazlina and Maitilee (2015) on the relationship among individual features, family values, entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship inclination; Sajilan et al (2015) that found no negative connection between personal characteristics on the performance of enterprise; Yeboah, Kumi, and Jacob (2013) who found that demographic variables influences inclination of the polytechnic students

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Students'specific and entrepreneurship propensity of undergraduates in Nigerian private universities has been investigated. The finding showed that students' specific is significant related to attitude of student toward starting a business when they graduate;students'self-efficacy on starting an enterprise; as well as technical ability of the students in starting a business. Therefore this study concluded students specific and entrepreneurship propensity of the universities students were significantly related. Thus, it is recommended thatstudents especially female students need to be enlightened on entrepreneurship as another form of career choice; university entrepreneurship education needs to be reviewed or readjusted in a way that technical abilities of the students toward starting a business will be enhanced and students should be made to practise little elements of entrepreneurship within and outside the campus so as to boast their self believe on starting and running a business venture when they graduate

REFERENCES

Aboudi, M.,& Ommani, A. (2014). Analysis the barriers of entrepreneurial tendency among agricultural engineering graduates in the city of Ahvaz. Indian Journal of Fundamental and Applied Life Sciences, 5(3), 1176-1181.

Adebayo, O., & Atunwa, H. (2013). Entrepreneurship skill and background of those that have tendency to set-up their own businesses. IJAFS 4(1&2), 411 – 420.

Agada, J (2014). Knowledge Economy: Innovation, Creativity and Enterprise Development. Key Note Address Delivered At NCS ENUGU

Ajzen, I. (1987). Attitudes, traits and actions: Dispositional prediction of behaviour in personality and social psychology. Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 20(5), 1-63.

Akponi, E.M. (2009).entrepreneurship education (EE) for all students in higher education institutions (thesis) in Nigeria: a means to sustainable development. Journal of sustainable development in Africa, 11(1), 21-34

Aminu, A.A. (2009). Entrepreneurship theory and practice, Compaq publishers, Maiduguri, Nigeria.

Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy. The exercise of control. New York: Freeman.

Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. Psychological Review, 84(1), 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. Psychological Review 84(1), 191-215.

Bates T, (2002). Restricted access to markets characterizes women-owned businesses.Journal of Business Venturing 17(1) 313–324

Bink (2005). Entrepreneurship education and integrative learning. Retrieved February 23, 2017,fromhttp://www.ncge.org.uk/downloads/policy/Entrepreneurship_Education_and_Integrative Learning.

Bosma, N., and Harding, R (2007), Global Entrepreneurship: GEM 2006Summary Results, Babson College and London Business School, London, U.K., and Babson Park, MA.

Czuchry, Andrew J. and Yasin, Mahmoud M. (2008) International Entrepreneurship: The Influence of Culture in Teaching and Learning Styles. Annual Journal of Entrepreneurship Education 1(1), 1-12.

Delmar, F., & Davidson, P. (2000). Where do they come from? Prevalence and characteristics of nascententrepreneurs. Entrepreneurship and Regional Development, 12(1), 1-23

Ehrlich, S.B., De Noble, A.F., Jung, D.I., & Pearson, D. (2000). The impact of entrepreneurship training programs on an individual's entrepreneurial self-efficacy. In Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research, Babson-Kauffman Research Conference Proceedings.

Fafaliou, I (2012). Students' propensity to entrepreneurship: an exploratory study from Greece. International Journal of Innovation and Regional Development, 4(3/4), 293-313

Farkas, A., & Nagy (2008). Student assessment of desirable technical skills: A correspondence analysis approach. Actapolytechnicahungarica, 5(2), 43 – 57.

Gartner, W. B., Shaver, K. G., Carter, N. M. and Reynolds, P. D.(2004). Handbook of Entrepreneurial Dynamics. The Process of Business Creation. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.

Henderson & Palm (2011). A study of education as a factor in enterprising business education and enterprising tendencies. A Spring Semester Degree Project Submitted to the School of Business and Economics, UMEA.

Holienka, M., Holienková,J., & Gál, P. (2015). Entrepreneurial characteristics of students in Di? erent fields of study: A view from entrepreneurship education perspective. Acta Universitatis Agriculturae et Silviculturae Mendelianae Brunensis, 63(6), 1879–1889.

Karadeniz, E., & Ozcam, A. (2009).Entrepreneurship in Turkey and developing countries: A comparison ofactivities, characteristics, motivation and environment for entrepreneurship. MIBES Transactions 3(1), 30-45.

Kume, A., & Shahini, B. (2013). Entrepreneurial characteristics amongst University students in Albania. European Scientific Journal, 9(16), 206 -225.

Lee, S., & Lim, S. (2005). Impact of entrepreneurship education: A comparative study of the U.S. and Korea. International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 1(1), 27-43.

Levesque, M.,& Minniti, M. (2006). The effect of aging on entrepreneurial behavior. Journal of Business Venturing, 21(2), 177–194.

Markman, G. D. Balkin, D.B.,& Baron, R .A(2002). Inventors and new venture formation :the effect of General Self-efficacy and Regretful thinking. Entrepreneurship theory and practice,27(2),149-165

Matthews, C. & Moser, S. (1995). Family background and gender: Implications for interest in small firm ownership. Entrepreneurship and Regional Development , 7(1), 365–377.

Mazlina M & Maitilee S (2015). Personal attributes, family influences, entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship inclination among university students. Kajian Malaysia, 33(1), 155–172

Mazzarol, T. V., & Thein, V. (1999). Factors influencing small business start-ups. International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior and Research, 5(2), 48-63.

Moa-Liberty, A.W., Tunde, A.O.,& Tinuola, O.L. (2016). The influence of self-efficacy and socio-demographic factors on the entrepreneurial intentions of selected youth corp members in Lagos, Nigeria. Bulletin of Geography Socio-Economic Series, 34, 63–71.

Ni, L.W., Ping, L.B., Ying, L.M., Sern, N. H., & Lih, W.J. (2012). Entrepreneurial intention: A study among students of higher learning institution. A Project Submitted to the Department of Business Administration University of Abdul Rahman.

Nwankwo, B.E., Kanu, G.I., Marire, M.I., Balogun, S.K & Uhiara, A.C (2012). Gender-role orientation and self efficacy as correlates of entrepreneurial intention. European Journal of Business and Social Sciences,1(6), 9-26

Oakey, R.P. (2003). Technical entrepreneurship in high technology small ?rms: Some observations on the implications for management. Technovation, 23(1), 679–688.

Ogbuanya, T.C. and Fakorede, S.O.A. (2009). Technical Skill Improvement Needs of Metal work Technology Teachers for Entrepreneurship in Response to MDG for Duality Assurance. Nigeria Vocational Association Journal 13 (1), 34-43

Ogundele, O. J. K., Akingbade, W. A., & Akinlabi, H.A. (2012). Entrepreneurship training and education as strategic tools for poverty alleviation in Nigeria. American International Journal of Contemporary Research, 2(1)148-156.

Ogundele, O.J.K. (2012). Introduction to entrepreneurship development, corporate governance, and small business management. Lagos: Molofin Nominees.

Ooi, Y, K., Selvarajah, C., & Meyer, D. (2011). Inclination towards entrepreneurship among University students: An empirical study of Malaysian University students. International Journal of Business and Social Science, 2(4), 206-220.

Peng, X., Liu, Y. & Lin, Y (2015). The impact of environment uncertainty and effectual flexibility on entrepreneurial resource combination: the moderating effect of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Frontier Business. Research, 9(4): 559–575

Postigo, S. and F. Tamborini (2002). Entrepreneurship education in Argentina: The case of San Andres University. International Entrepreneurship Education and Training Conference, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

Postigo, S., Iacobucci, D., & Tamborini, M. F. (2006). Undergraduate students as a source of potential entrepreneurs: a comparative study between Italy and Argentina. In: Fayolle A, Klandt H (eds) International entrepreneurship education, issues and newness (pp 218–240). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited

Pulka, B.,Rikwentishe, R., & Ibrahim, B. (2014). An evaluation of students' attitude towards entrepreneurship education in some selected Universities in North East Nigeria. Global Journal of Management and Business Research, 14(8), 1-19.

Quan, x. (2012). Prior experience, social network and levels of entrepreneurial intentions. Management Research Review, 35(1), 945-957.

Raposo, M., Do Paço, A., & Ferreira, J. (2008). Entrepreneur's profile: a taxonomy of attributes and motivations of university students. Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development, 15(2), 405-418

Reynolds, P. D. (1997). Who starts new firms?–Preliminary explorations of firms-in- gestation. Small Business Economics, 9(5), 449-462.

Sajilan, S., Hadi, N., & Tehseen, S. (2015). Impact of entrepreneur's demographic characteristics and personal characteristics on firm's performance under the mediating role of entrepreneur orientation. Review Integrative Business Economics Research, 4(2) 36-53.

Sarmin, S & Ashrafuzzaman, M (2017). Impact of personality traits and demographic factors on transformation of entrepreneurial intention: An exploratory study among the university students of Dhaka city. European Journal of Business and Management 9(5), 61-72

Siyanbola, W., Afolabi, O.O., and Jesuleye, O.A., Egbetokun, A.A., Dada, A.A., Aderemi, H.O., Sanni, M & Razak, M (2009). Determinants of entrepreneurial propensity of Nigerian undergraduates: an empirical assessment. Available Online at https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/35797/ MPRA Paper No. 35797

Turker, D., Selcuk, S. S. (2009). Which factors affect entrepreneurial intention of university students? Journal of European Industrial Training, 33(2),142-159.

Tyagi, V. (2014). Demographic Factors and Personality Traits as Determinants of EntrepreneurialIntention Among Undergraduate Students of Agra City. A Ph.D synopsis submitted to Dayalbagh Educatinal Institute(Deemed University)

Tyszka, T., Cieślik, J., Domurat, A., & Macko, A. (2011). Motivation, self-efficacy,and risk attitudes among entrepreneurs during transition to a market economy. The Journal of Socio-Economics, 40(2), 124–131.

V?zquez, J.L., Lanero, A. P., Gutiérrez, M., & Garc?a, P. (2011). Fostering entrepreneurship at the University: A Spanish empirical study. Transylvanian Review of Administrative Sciences, 5(32), 252-276.

Venkatraman, S. (1997). The distinctive domain of entrepreneurship research, in Katz, J.A. (ed.), Advances in entrepreneurship, firm emergence, and growth. Greenwich, Connecticut: JAI Press, 119-138

Verheul, I., Thurik, R., Grilo, I., & van der Zwan, P. (2012). Explaining preferences and actual involvement in self-employment: Gender and the entrepreneurial personality. Journal of Economic Psychology, 33(1), 325–341.

Verheul, I., Uhlaner, L.,& Thurik, R. (2005). Business accomplishments, gender and entrepreneurial self-image. Journal of Business Venturing, 20(4), 483-518.

Wang, C.K.,& Wong P.K. (2004). Entrepreneurial interest of University students in Singapore. Technovation, 24(2), 163–172.

Webb, T. Q., & Wathers, D. (1982). Small Business Research, the Development of Entrepreneurs. Gower: Aldershot.

Wilson, F., Kickul, J. Y., & Marlino D. (2009). Gender, Entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and Entrepreneur career education. Implications for Entrepreneurship education. Entrepreneurship theory and practice, 31(3), 387-401.

Yeboah, A.S., Kumi, E &Jacob, B. A (2013). An assessment of entrepreneurship intention among Sunyani Polytechnic marketing students. International Review of Management and Marketing, 3(1)37-49

Hospitality Education and Skill Development in Hospitality sector to facilitate employment opportunities: A New Perspective

Bhuvan.G.M
PhD Research Scholar, School of Management, Amity University , Mumbai

Dr. Janaki Naik,
Dean , Student Welfare, Amity University, Mumbai.

ABSTRACT : *Globally, Hospitality Education is more than 100 years old and in India and it has completed more than 65 years of existence. The Hospitality Education is growing and is well regulated by various statutory bodies like to All India Council for Technical Education(AICTE) , University Grants Commission (UGC) , National Council of Hotel Management & Catering Technology (NCHMCT) , State Board of Technical Education and Training (SBTET) and Skill Development Councils (SDC) like the National SkillDevelopment Council (NSDC) and Tourism and Hospitality Skill Council (THSC). The Government of India has introduced skill development in order to skill and developIndia's talent towards employability. Various Skill development courses has been offered with attractive incentives to the young population those aspiring to pursue a career in hospitality and services sector.The research focuses on exploring the development of hospitality education in India, skill development initiatives introduced by the Government of India, key challenges faced by the hospitality education sector, employment opportunities and future prospects.*

Keywords: : : Hospitality Education, Skill Development, Skill India, National Skills Development Council, Hunar Se RozgarTak, Hospitality Employment

1.1Research Design:

1.1 a) Purpose: The intent of this research is to study the growth& development of hospitality education in India and the skill development initiatives taken bythe public and private sectors in India and through its partnerships to facilitate employment opportunities in the hospitality and service sector.

1.1b)Design/Methodology/ Approach: Data was collected on basis of secondary published sources. The secondary sources includes journal articles, business reports, websites, newspaper articles and otherpublished data. More than 50 international and national journal research papers, websites, newspaper reports , business reports related to hospitality education and industry were reviewed in depth , data was analyzed , interpreted and conclusion was drawn .

1.1c)Limitations: The study is restricted to hospitality sector in India and does not cover any other sectors. Also, as the data is secondary in nature, statistical analysis was not carried out by the researchers.

1.2. Hospitality Education in India

Education has gained its importance as it prepares an individual for life. Acquiring the right knowledge and skills enhances one's employment and career opportunities. One of the main reasons for unemployment and poverty is the lack of education and right skill sets. Effective learning outcomes can be achieved by well guided practice in the real world . (Lin, P. M. C., Kim, Y., Qiu, H., & Ren, L. (2017).John Dewey (1916) states education as , a social process – 'a process of living and not a preparation for future living'. (Aliya, 2015).

Higher education in India is the education offered after higher secondary school education (After Class 12th) offered by Central Universities, State Universities, Deemed Universities ,Private Universities and Institutions of National Importance .All these institutions are empowered to award undergraduate, post graduate and research degrees and vast majority of students avail the education.

They are regulated by various regulatory bodies like the University Grants Commission(UGC), All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE), National Council for Hotel Management and Catering Technology (NCHMCT), Bar Council of India (BCI), Medical Council of India (MCI), Dental Council of India(DCI) and many others. (National Policy of Education 2016)

From the above definitions and concepts, Hospitality Education can be defined as

"Hospitality Education is a systematic process for the individual to gain knowledge and skills for the hospitality industry with a right perspective to serve and meet the expectations of visitors and guests socially and commercially."

Hospitality Management Education is gaining itspopularity and many students are opting for hospitality courses in India and worldwide. Currently, many universities and institutes in India are offering degree programmes in Hospitality and Hotel Management.

The growth of tourism Industry promotes the growth of education related to hospitality, hotel management , travel and tourism. The first hospitality school was setup in Lausanne in the year 1893 to meet the requirements of tourism in the European destination. (Oktadiana, H., & Chon, K. (2017). Location of the institute, high visibility of the programme and job placement are the key factors that contribute to the success of hospitality education programmes. (Myung, E., & Li, L. (2015)

In India, the first Hotel Management Institute was setup in Mumbai and is popularly known as Dadar Catering College in the year 1954, known as IHM, Mumbai.National Council for Hotel Management & Catering Technology (NCHMCT) a regulatory body ,established by Government of India in 1982 as autonomous body to coordinate the functioning of various hospitality management affiliated institutes.

The education and training is imparted through 21 Central Government Sponsored Institutes, 22 State Government sponsored institutes , 01 Public Sector undertaking owned institute along with 13 private institutes and 9 food craft institutes across India. The council offers 11 professional programmes leading to Certificate, Diploma, Post Graduate Diploma, Bachelor's and Master's degrees. The degree programmes are offered in collaboration with Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi (NCHMCT, Govt of India, 2018). Also, some of the universities offering hotel management courses include University of Mumbai, Madurai Kamaraj University, Guru Gobind Singh Indraprasta University, University of Pune, Amity University, Christ University, SRM University, Manipal University and many more. Also, Hotel Management institutes are in collaboration with foreign universities offering hotel management courses in India. The IHM Aurangabad offers Four year BA(Honours) in Hotel Management from University of Huddersfield,UK. The IIHM and IAM Hotel Management colleges in India offer Hotel Management Courses in collaboration with University of West London,UK.

In order to promote Indian Cuisine as a niche tourism product and support the Hotel Industry with quality trained culinary manpower, the Ministry of Tourism established Indian Culinary Institute at Tirupathi in 2016 and Noida in 2018. The institute is affiliated to Indira Gandhi National Tribal University, Amarkantak. The institute offers 3 year BBA programme in Culinary Arts . The institute's objective is to support, preserve, promote, and conduct culinary research and develop quality manpower to the hospitality industry. (www.ici.nic.in, 2018)

Till the year 1986, Hotel Management Course was offered as 3 year Diploma in India. Mangalore University was the first university in India to offer 3 year Degree programme in Hotel Management and first affiliated college to offer this 3 year BHM full time programme was Welcom Group Graduate School of Hotel Management, Manipal in Karnataka. The BHM programme in Hotel Management was brought under the purview of AICTE as it was considered as technical and management education. ((www.manipal.edu, 2018)

The All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) was setup in November 1945 as National Level apex body to conduct survey on the facilities for education and to promote development in coordinated and systematic manner. Subsequently in the year 1987, AICTE Act was passed in the parliament to regulate the technical education in accordance to the norms and standards. AICTE regulates the 4 year Bachelors Degree in Hotel Management and Catering Technology & 3 year Diploma in Hotel Management and Catering Technology in India through periodic inspections and assesses the quality of education through prescribed norms and standards. It also publishes the 'Model Curriculum' for enhancement of quality in education. (AICTE, 2018)

Besides NCHMCT and AICTE regulations, Hotel Management Courses are offered by Statutory Universities, Deemed Universities and Private Universities and are regulated by University Grants Commission (UGC) New Delhi.

India has more than 180 Hotel Management Institutes, operated by Government and Private Sector offering Certificate, Diploma and Degree programmes in India. (Alok, 2018).A total of 18,000 plus hospitality students graduate every year in India. (Dhanoa, 2014).

1.3 Hotel Management Courses offered by Hotel Groups:

Name of Hotel Group	Courses offered	Approval Body	Source
The Oberoi Centre for Learning & Development,New Delhi	The Management Training Programme a. Guest Services b. Kitchen c. Housekeeping d. Sales Bachelor of Tourism Studies	Autonomous Indira Gandhi National Open University	https://www.oberoigroup.com 2019
The Taj Group of Hotels	BA in Hotel Management and Culinary Arts	University of Huddersfield UK	www.ihmaurangabad.ac.in, 2019
ITC Group and Manipal University Karnataka	BA in Culinary Arts Bachelors in Hotel Management	Manipal University	www.manipal.edu 2019
ITC Group Hospitality Management Institute Gurugram	General Management, Kitchen Management, Housekeeping Management, Sales Management, Engineering Services, Revenue Management, Financial Management and Human Resources Management	Autonomous	(www.itchotels.in, 2018)
Apeejay Institute of Hospitality, Navi Mumbai (The Park Hotels Initiative)	BSc in Hospitality Studies The Park Hotels Management Training Programmes, Executive Training Programme Operations Training Programme	University of Mumbai Autonomous	www.aih.edu.in
Lalit Suri Hospitality School Faridabad	B.Sc in Hospitality and Hotel Administration & Diploma in Food Production Diploma in Bakery and Confectionary Bachelor in Hotel Management	Indira Gandhi National Open University & NCHMCT MaharshiDayanand University, Rohtak	(www.tlshs.com, 2018)

1.4 Skill development in the service sector :

Education and Training for Hospitality was developed over more than 100 years through investments shared by Public and Private Partnerships to meet the requirements of stakeholders.(Tom Baum (2002) . Appropriate training provides important contribution to success and growth of the organization. (Brown, 2014). Employee Skill Sets is a key operational tool as service determines the success of the hospitality industry. Good Service level sets an organization distinct from the competition and this would encourage repeat business and enhances profitability. (Hai Yan & Baum, 2006)

Skill development is a strategy to achieve sustainable and inclusive growth to provide employment opportunities to India's young population.(Singh, 2018). The needs of the Hospitality Industry is met by the skill development of the workforce.(Vinnie Jauhari,2006)

Skill development and training is an important facet to retain talent in the service sector. The attrition in the hospitality industry is due to the gap that exists between expectations and reality. The attrition in the hospitality industry in India is more than 30 %. (Hospitality Biz ,2017) Other factors include lack of motivation and low salary and incentives offered to a fresher. It was found that skill based training is more effective than pedagogical training. Good and well structured skill development programmes offers transformational service and the outcomes are productive and valuable employees. Skill development programmes are found to have positive impact on the control of employee turnover and can be applied as a strategy for talent retention. R C, G., & Sharma, D. (2017). Hotel Management is considered as glamorous course and requires manpower with skills and smartness to deal with the Guests in the industry. There is a demand for skilled, professional and retainable talent and hospitality institutes have a major role to play in grooming the young talent to the requirements of the industry in the world of social media. (Wadhwa, 2017)

1.5 Skill India: An Initiative from the Government of India

Skill India is a Government of India initiative to empower the youth of the country with employable skill sets and make them more productive in the work environment. This initiative is chaired by the Prime Minister of India. With 65% of Indian Population is in the working age group, this initiative will contribute towards job creation and economic development of the nation. This mission was launched on 15th July 2015. The Prime Minister's flagship programme Pradan Mantri Kushal Vikas Yojana (PMKVY) has witnessed 50 lakh people getting skilled successfully till date . (www.msde.gov.in, 2018).

1.6 National Skill Development Council:

The National Skills Development Council (NSDC) is a non profit public limited company set up by the Ministry of Finance under the public private partnership model. The Government of India through Ministry of Finance holds 49% of the share capital and 51% by the private sector. NSDC provides funding to the enterprises, companies and organizations for skill development and training. It also offers support to the private sector with 21 sectors under its purview. NSDC has 413 training partners and has trained 94.4 lakh youth through 6831 trainingcenters in 657 districts with 38 sector skill councils and placed 45.3 lakhs youth for employment through their training partners. (nsdcindia.org, 2018).

1.7 Tourism and Hospitality Skill Council :

Tourism and Hospitality Skills Council (THSC) is a nonprofit organization promoted by Confederation of Indian Industries (CII) with representatives from Government, Industry, Training Institutes across India. The role of THSC is to create a ecosystem for skill development for the industry. The THSC caters to various subsections of the industry that includes Hotels, Food Service Establishments, Facility Management, Cruise Lines and Tour Operators. (thsc.in, 2018).

1.8 Hunar Se RozgarTak:

The Ministry of Tourism, Government of India introduced Hunar Se RozgarTak, a special initiative to create employable skills for youth in the Hospitality and Tourism Sector. The objective of this initiative is to reduce the gap that affects this sector and disburse the economic benefits from Hospitality and Tourism to the needy. This programme was initially introduced in the Ministry of Tourism sponsored Institutes of Hotel Management and Food Craft Institutes of the Central Governments and State Governments. In 2018, a new set of guidelines was introduced to empanel private bodies and organizations as training providers for various hospitality trades. The courses offered are

Multi cuisine cook course: 500 hours training at the institute and 200 hours at the industry .Eligibility is 8th standard pass and stipend offered is Rs 2000 per month.

Competencies for Multi Cuisine Cook Course *

Knowledge	Basic understanding of Hospitality Industry, Types of Hotels, Kitchens, Kitchen Organization, Personal Hygiene, Work Hygiene, Cleaning Science and Equipment Operations. Knowledge of Indian and International Cuisines. Inventory Management. Quality Controls. IPR and Copyright.
Skills	Cleaning, Washing, Cutting, Peeling, Chopping , Soaking, Mixing, Boiling, Blanching, Rinsing, Kneading, Basic First Aid , Knife identification and usage skills. Ingredients identification skills. Efficient use of resources. Cooking Indian & International Cuisines related to Hot & Cold Beverages, Eggs , Meat s and Seafood dishes , Snacks, Soups, Salads, Sa ndwiches, Chutneys, Sauces, Rice, Indian & International Breads, Basic Gravies, Vegetarian dishes. Customer interaction skills,Complaint Handling Skills , Maintaining Kitchen Hygiene ,Safety in Kitchens . Handling Fire Extinguishers and Basic First Aid.
Abilities	Physically & Mentally Strong, Should be able to work under pressure, Team Player, Able to read and un derstand recipes, Ability to follow Standard Operating Procedures,Communicate in English ,Regional L anguages and Manage Time Effectively.
Attributes/Qualities	Positive Attitude, Attention to detail, Hard working, Integrity, Willing to learn, Good Communication Skills and Willingness to Accept Criticism**.**
Training Outcomes	Organize and manage food resources in the kitchen , Cook variety of food items,Communicate with guests and colleagues, Maintain customer - centric service orientation, Demonstrate etiquette and good hospitable behavior, Follow gender and age sensitive service practices, Maintain IPR of organization and cu stomers. Health, safety and hygiene practices. Guest relations.

(*Competencies Compilation based on prescribed Model Curriculum prescribed by Tourism &

Hospitality Sector, Sub Sector: Restaurant, Ref : THC/Q 3006/ NSQF Level 4)

Food & Beverage Service Steward Course: 300 hours training at the institute and 200 hours at the industry. Eligibility is 10th standard pass and stipend offered is Rs 1500 per month. Competencies for Food& Beverage Service Steward Course *:

Knowledge	Basic understanding of Hospitality Industry, Types of Hotels, Types of Food & Beverage Service establishments, Service Quality, Personal Hygiene, Work Hygiene, Cleaning Science and Equipment Operations, Knowledge of Indian and International Cuisines, Knowled ge of Beverages, Inventory Management, Quality Controls, IPR and Copyright.
Skills	Organizing resources for service, Meeting and Greeting Customers, Order Taking ,Service of Food & Beverages, Service styles, Cleaning of service area, Cleaning of tables and side boards, Presenting bill, Receiving payments, Handling Guest Complaints , Handling Guest Feedback, Interaction with Superiors, Subordinates, Peers, Service Etiquette, Handling Special Guest Requests, Safety including Fire Safety and Basic First Aid.
Abilities	Physically & Mentally Strong, Should be able to work under pressure , Team Player, Able to read and understand menus, procedures ,communicate in English, regional languages ,Manage Time Effectively and Ability to follow Standard Operating Procedures.
Attributes/Qualities	Positive Attitude, Attention to detail, Hard working, Honest, Willing to learn, Good Communication Skills and Willingness to Accept Criticism.
Training Out Comes	Meet and G reet customers, Order Taking, Food & Beverage service Skills, Customer relations , Cleaning and Hygiene, Good Etiquette and behavior with Guests, Settlement of bills, acceptance of payment and safety practices.

(*Competencies compilation based prescribed Model Curriculum, Tourism & Hospitality Sector, Subsector: Hotels, Ref ID THC/Q0301 Version 1.0 NSQF Level 4)

Room Attendant Course: 300 hourstraining at the institute and 200 hours in the industry. Eligibility is 5th standard pass and stipend offered is Rs 1500 per month.

Competencies for Room Attendant Course *:

Knowledge	Basic understanding of Hospitality Industry, Types of Hotels, Types of Rooms and Public Spaces , Service Quality, Personal Hygiene, Work Hygiene, Cleaning Science and Equi pment Operations, Knowledge of chemicals, Knowledge of operating equipments , Inventory Management, Quality Controls, IPR and Copyright.
Skills	Identification of Housekeeping Resources, Materials, Equipment s, Cleaning Floors, Cleaning Washrooms, Cleaning Bathrooms, Replenishment of Supplies and Amenities, Cleaning Furniture, Cleaning Fixtures, Cleaning Upholstery, Cleaning Glass Surfaces, Changing Linen, Bed Making, Deep Cleaning, Maintaining Upkeep as per S tandard Operating Procedures, Communication with Guests, Interaction with Superiors, Subordinates ,Peers, Etiquette, Customer Satisfaction, Handling special requests from Guests, Record Keeping, Reporting, Dealing with Women employees in workplace, Maintaining Hygiene, Quality and dealing with work related hazards.
Abilities	Physically & Mentally Strong, Should be able to work under pressure, Team Player, A ble to read and understand standard operating procedures, communicate in English, Regional languages and Manage Time Effectively .
Attributes/Qualities	Attention to detail, Positive Attitude, Hard working, Honest, Integrity, Willing to learn, Good Communication Skills and Willingness to Accept Criticism**.**
Training Out Comes	Prepare for housekeeping operations , Effective Waste disposal , To offer Janitorial service , Effective communication with internal and external customers , Cleaning furniture, fittings and vertical surfaces , Demonstrate good etiquette and conduct ,Bed making independently , Maintain Health, hygiene and safety

(*Competencies compilation based prescribed Model Curriculum, Tourism & Hospitality Sector, Subsector: Hotels, Ref ID THC/Q0202 Version 1.0 NSQF Level 4)

Front office Associate Course: 340 hours training at the institute and 200 hours in the industry . Eligibility is 12th standard pass and stipend offered is Rs 1500 per month. (

The age limit for all these courses is 18 years (Minimum) and Maximum – No Bar . The students will be offered free uniform, tool kit and meals. Aadhaar linked bank account is mandatory requirement and 80% attendance is a must. (ihmbti.com, 2018)

Competencies for Front office Associate Course *:

Knowledge	Basic understanding of Hospitality Industry, Types of Hotels, Types of Rooms and Public Spaces, Service Quality, Personal Hygiene, Work Hygiene, Front office Equipments Operations, Knowledge of computers and software, Knowledge of standard operating procedures, IPR and Copyright.
Skills	Meet and Greet Guests, Checking room reservation status, Registration of Guests, Allocation of Rooms, Customer Interaction and Satisfaction, Messages Delivery, Material Delivery, Bills Settlement, Accepting various modes of payment, Interaction and Superiors and Colleagues, Maintaining Service Quality , Demonstrating good Etiquette and Behavior, Dealing with Women in Work Place, Maintaining workplace cleanliness and Hygiene, Following Safety Standards and Pro cedures, Basic communication skills of Foreign Language and Regional Language.
Abilities	Physically & Mentally Strong, Should be able to work under pressure, Team Player, Able to read and understand standard operating procedures, communicate in English, Regional languages and Manage Time Effectively .
Attributes/Qualities	Attention to detail, Positive Attitude, Hard working, Honest, Integrity, Willing to learn, Good Communication Skills and Willingness to Accept Criticism**.**
Training Out Comes	Guest relations, Creating good arrival and departure experiences, Interaction with Guests , Check in with statutory compliances, Registration, Room allocation, Product Knowledge , English Speaking Skills and other language skills.

(*Competencies compilation based prescribed Model Curriculum, Tourism & Hospitality Sector, Subsector: Hotels, Ref ID THC/Q0102 Version 1.0 NSQF Level 4)

Competencies for Craft Baker Course: 176 hours training at the institute and 64 hoursat the industry .Eligibility is 8th standard pass and stipend offered is Rs 2000 per month

Competencies for Craft Baker Course

Knowledge	Basic understanding of Hospitality Industry, Knowledge of Food Processing Industry, Food Microbiology, Types of Hotels, Kitchens, Kitchen Organization, Personal Hygiene, Work Hygiene, Cleaning Science and Equipment Operations. Knowledge of I ndian and International Bakery products. Inventory Management. Quality Controls. IPR and Copyright.
Skills	Bakery Organization, Cleaning& Maintenance of Equipments, Usage of Bakery Equipments, Preparation of Bakery Products, Production of Bakery Products, Storage and Basic Communication Skills.
Abilities	Physically & Mentally Strong, Should be able to work under pressure, Team Player, Able to read and und erstand recipes, Ability to follow Standard Operating Procedures, Communicate in English ,Regional Languages and Manage Time Effectively.
Attributes/Qualities	Positive Attitude, Attention to detail, Hard working, Integrity, Willing to learn, Good Communication Skills and Willingness to Accept Criticism.
Training Outcomes	Preparation of bakery products, quality, hygiene, safety practices, equipment operations and storage of products in safe zone.

(*Competencies Compilation based on prescribed Model Curriculum prescribed by Tourism &

Hospitality Sector, Sub Sector: Bread and Bakery, Ref : THC/Q 5002/ NSQF Level 4)

1.9 Challenges& Issues in Hospitality Education:

One of the most important challenges faced in the Hospitality Education is the curriculum. The curriculum requires periodic revision and modification to meet the requirements of the hospitality industry. However, this does not happen in India as it takes place in other parts of the world. The curriculum followed by premium institutes in India are outdated and has not been revised for decades. This includes the National Council of Hotel Management & Catering Technology , a nodal agency for hospitality education under the Ministry of Tourism that controls more than 60 institutes that are attached to it. (Krishna, 2018). Many Hospitality Institutes failed to offer quality education resulting in dropouts of students and retaining the talent within the country as students switch careers, join courses abroad and serve outside the country. The need of the hour is to redesign the courses , curriculum and introduce latest teaching methodology through the help of experts in the field. Also, some of the challenges faced by the Hospitality Education include differences in the faculty structures, domination of non hospitality staff, and dependence on international links for curriculum and internships. (Sharma, 2016).

Lack of standardization of curriculum, up gradation of curriculum as in many universities and institutes the curriculum is outdated, no significant difference between undergraduate and post graduate hospitality curriculum, discrepancy in pay scales and qualification norms across institutions and universities , lack of international linkages, lack of research focus and multiple nomenclature of hospitality degrees at undergraduate and postgraduate levels.(Dahiya, 2013)

1.10 Employment opportunitiesand Growth Potential:

Hotel Industry being a labor intensive service industry constantly require the right professional manpower. The manpower planning is done based on the number of rooms and other facilities offered. Being a 24/7, 365 days industry, the manpower work in shifts. Apart from Hotels, trained hospitality professionals are also required in other Hospitality and Service Sector like the standalone restaurants, catering services, cruises, airlines, travel companies, malls, multiplex, entertainment & theme parks, facility management services, Hospitality training institutes and many more.

75% of Hotel Management Graduates of AICTE approved Hotel Management Programme secure job placement before they graduate. This is higher than other courses related to Management, Applied Arts and Crafts, Computer Science, Engineering, Architecture and Pharmacy.(Times of India, 2018)

DileepPuri, former head of Starwood Hotels and Resorts India and promoter of Indian School of Hospitality is of the opinion that Indian Hospitality Industry is experiencing exponential growth ,creating job opportunities and witnessing a supply and demand gap. Also, there is a mismatch of skill sets as required by the Hospitality and Tourism Industry. (Manu, 2018).

In the last 5 years, Indian Economy is growing well with an average growth of 6 % .There is an increase in the per capita income and decrease in the poverty levels. The future of jobs will be created by the interplay of three key forces. They are Globalization, Demographic Changes and adaption of Industry 4.0 Exponential Technologies like Robotics, Artificial Intelligence, Internet of Things, Social Media Analytics, Big Data and 3D printing. Jobs in retail and infrastructure sector continue to grow. Exponential Technologies will disrupt the market and rapid adaption of these technologies has great potential to transform jobs from highly organized sectors like food, catering, tourism to organized ones. AirBnB, Zomato,Swiggy are classic examples.

In terms of Demographics, Millennials constitute about 30% of Indian population and continue to drive the demand. The initiative of Central Government like ‘Stand Up India’ ,‘Start Up India’ will reshape Indian Economy in job creation and employment. Self Employment and Micro Entrepreneurship has enhanced jobs through availing MUDRA loans.

There will be a change in the work force mix by 2022. About 9% of the workforce would be deployed in the new jobs that don’t exist today. 37% of the workforce would be deployed in those jobs that require new skill sets and 54% of the work force will still be under unchanged job category. (FICCI, 2017).

1.11 Discussion:

Globally, Tourism Industry is a booming and Hospitality Industry is a essential arm of the Travel and Tourism Sector. 10.4% is the contribution of Travel and Tourism GDP as a percentage of Global GDP and expected to raise by 4% in 2018 with 313 million jobs or 9.9% of total employment in the world and expected to raise by 2.4% in 2018. As a largest economic drivers, the travel and tourism industry creates employment, drives exports and generates prosperity across the world. The year 2017 can be considered as a strongest year of GDP growth worldwide in a decade with highest consumer spending. (WTTC, 2018). In India, the Travel and Tourism industry has contributed Rs 2.21 trillion or 2.3 percent of India’s GDP in 2013.This is expected to rise to 4.44 trillion by 2024.The Hospitality Industry in India is growing at the rate of 14.12% every year and contributing towards the foreign exchange earnings. The industry is capable for creating jobs in both urban and rural areas of the country. The industry as a large concentration of English speaking individuals and will be a catalyst for growth and prosperity of the industry. (Vinay, 2017).

Hospitality Education and Skill Development will be a catalyst for employment creation in India. Though Globally Hospitality Education is more than 100 year old, in India, it has completed more than 65 years of existence. Universities and Institutes offering Hospitality Education have surged over the years.More than 18,000 hospitality students graduate every year in India.

The skill development initiatives by Government of India through Ministry of Tourism, National Skills Development Corporation, Tourism & Hospitality Skills Council has contributed immensely towards fostering growth of skill development education and creating employment opportunities in the Hospitality and Services sector.

In India , according to NCEUS report 2009, between the two NSSO rounds 1999-00 and 2004-05, the informal/unorganized workers have increased from 91.5% to 92.3%. Over the years, the proportion of urban workers is increasing. (Vikram, 2018). This signifies that more than 90% of workforce is in India works in unorganized sector and skill development will help to transform workforce from unorganized sector to organized sector and also will help to create and develop entrepreneurs.

The skill sets required for hospitality industry is very basic and can be taught easily. Hospitality Industry being highly labor intensive requires higher manpower at the lower level of hierarchy. Skills such as wiping, washing, cleaning, cutting, boiling, serving, kneading , baking, greeting can be easily learnt. Each of these skills can open employment and entrepreneurship opportunities. For Example. A vendor selling cut fruits uses simple peeling & cutting techniques and this specific skills offer can offer employment or entrepreneurial opportunity , support his/her livelihood.

Another example can be boiling. If one learns the technique of boiling, he or she can set up a small tea / coffee shop or a cart. Also, can sell other items like boiled eggs, boiled corn, boiled peanuts etc .In all these businesses, maintaining cleanliness and hygiene is an important factor.

The Government of India is offering several courses to the Indian youth in the areas of Cooking, Baking, Housekeeping, Food & Beverage Service and Front office. The eligibility criteria has been revised from 27th December 2016 .A candidate who has completed 18 years of age and passed class 5/Class 8/ Class 10/ Class 12 can apply for these courses. Each course has different criteria related to the minimum qualifications. This is targeted towards school or college dropouts .The intent is to secure employment through systematic skill development byenhancing his/her earning potential by providing free skill development training in reputed institutions , offering food, uniforms and stipend , certification and job opportunity as the fees in institutes offering hospitality courses in India is high and is unaffordable by the population with lower economic background. These initiatives will bring in more skilled resources from unorganized sector to organized sector. In the organized sector the new entrant will be accessible to payment of wages as stipulated by the Government from time to time along with certain statutory benefits like to Provident Fund, Leave with Wages, Bonus, Insurance, Health Care, Gratuity , Maternity Benefits and many more. Each organization also offers certain non statutory benefits to their employees in order to attract and retain talent. Skill development can foster higher education as well . Aspirants can enroll for certificate courses, diploma courses and degree & post graduate courses through distance learning or through online mode. This will enhance their competencies , career growth and development prospects in India and abroad.

Today Massive Online and Open Courses (MOOC) is gaining popularity. In January 2019, UGC has invited proposals from higher educational institutions in India to offer online courses from the academic year 2019-2020.(The Times of India, 2019)

1.12 Conclusion:

It is evident that the Indian Hospitality and Tourism Industry is on a growth mode and will continue to contribute towards the National Economy. The Industry has a great potential to create jobs in urban and rural sector. The industry is contributing towards nation's GDP and there is surge in foreign tourists arrivals.

Hospitality Education has grown leaps and bounds over the last 65 years in India. In order to cater to the demand, there are more than 180 institutes both at the Government and Private Sectors offering certificate, diploma and degree courses in hotel management or in specialized areas like the Food Production, Food & Beverage Service and Housekeeping. (Kumar A. , 2018).Hospitality Industry offers job opportunities to thousands of students. Also, the hospitality graduates have secured higher job placements in comparison to Engineering and Architecture Graduates. This is a positive sign.

However, the hospitality education is facing certain challenges relating to outdated curriculum, non uniformity of curriculum across institutions in India, lack of soft skills content in the curriculum, poor infrastructure due to mushrooming of private institutes, quality of faculty with respect to qualifications, experience, skills and knowledge. (Kumar M. , 2014). This can be resolved by establishing a Central University for Hospitality Education and all institutes offering hospitality courses will be affiliated to this university. The university can prescribe curriculum , fee structure, infrastructure guidelines, faculty teaching and qualification norms and other standards to maintain quality in education.

Today, there is a demand for manpower in the hospitality and services sector.Professional Hospitality Education& Skill Development will play a vital role to meet the manpower requirements of the industry . It is evident from the research that Hospitality Education and Skill Development is growing in India. Various initiatives have been taken by Government of India and Private Bodies along with Public – Private Partnership Model to enhance capabilities and competencies for hospitality aspirants.Traditionally, acquisition of skills and knowledge was a paid approach and only the affordable could acquire it. Today, Skill Development courses are offered free of cost with incentives provided to the candidates. The perspective has changed. These initiatives it will help the real needy to secure employment in the hospitality and services sector .Trained hospitality manpower are required not only in India but across the world . This will provide job opportunities in India and across the world, help to resolve unemployment crisis and will provide better quality of life to the aspirants.

India is ranked as 6th largest economy in the world and expected to reach 5 trillion US dollar economy by 2025 with a target to achieve 1 trillion USD from agriculture and allied activities , 1 trillion USD from manufacturing and 3 trillion USD from Services. (Ministry of Commerce &Industries , Government of India, October 2018). This indicates that the future prospects of hospitality education and skill development is very bright. The services sector is growing rapidly and will continue to grow and will offer good employment and career opportunities.

Bibliography

AICTE. (2018, November 1). AICTE. Retrieved from AICTE-India.org: https://www.aicte-india.org/about-us/history

Aliya, S. (2015). John Dewey and his Philosphy of Education. Journal of Education and Education Development , 191-201.

Alok, K. (2018). Hospitality Education in India: Issues and Challenges. Journal of Hotel and Business Management, 7 (1), 169.

Big Indonesian Dictionary . (1991). Retrieved from https://big-indonesian-dictionary-kbbi.soft112.com/

Brown, D. (2014). Skills Development Training Among Women Hospitality Industry Entrepreneurs in South Sudan. SCIENTIFIC REVIEW .

Dhanoa, R. (2014). Status of Tourism and Hospitality Education in India. International Journal of Multidisciplinary and Academic Research, 3 (1), 90.

FHRAI. (2017). Indian Hotel Industry Survey. FHRAI.

FICCI, E. (2017). The Future of Jobs in India by 2022. EY,FICCI,NASSCOM.

Hai Yan, K., & Baum, T. (2006). Skills and work in the hospitality sector. International Journal of Contemproary Hospitality Management, 18 (6).

HospitalityBiz. (2018, August). OYO signs MOU with SBI and Bank of Baroda to nurture micro entreprenurs. Hospitality Biz , p. 16.

ihmbti.com. (2018, December 5). Institute of Hotel Management , Bathinda. Retrieved December 5, 2018, from www.ihmbti.com: www.ihmbti.com

India, T. T. (2018, June 6). Looking for a career with more job opportunities? Ditch engineering. The Times of India .

India, T. T. (2019, January 6). Top educational institutions to offer courses online. The Times of India .

Krishna, k. (2018, August). Hotel Education, Stuck in a time wrap. (S. Santwan, Ed.) Hospitality Biz, 11 (8), p. 38.

Kumar, A. (2018). Hospitality Education in India: Issues and Challenges. Journal of Hotel and Business Management, 7 (1).

Kumar, M. (2014). Hospitality Education in India-present status, challenges. African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Vol. 3 (2) - (2014) .

Kumar, S., & Sajjad, A. Meaning, Aims and Process of Education. https://sol.du.ac.in/SOLsite/Courses/UG/StudyMaterial/16/Part1/ED/English/SM-1.pdf.

Manu, K. (2018, September 19). Exponential growth in hospitality industry bringing an influx of job openings in India, says Dilip Puri of Indian School of Hospitality. Business Today .

NCHMCT, Govt of India. (2018, November 1). Retrieved from NCHMCT: nchm.nic.in

nsdcindia.org. (2018, December 4). National Skills Development Council. Retrieved December 4, 2018, from www.nsdcindia.org: https://www.nsdcindia.org/our-team

R C, G., & Sharma, D. (2017). The Impact of Skills Development Training Programme on Employee Retention in Hotels. A study of 5 star hotels in Delhi-NCR. Indian Journal of Research, 6 (1).

Radheshyam, J. (2018, August 12). Boys Dominate Enrollment Chart in Hotel Management & Catering . The Times of India .

Sharma, S. &. (2016). India as a Hub for Education and Career Development in the Hotel Industry. Intercontinental Journal of Human Research Review, 4 (10).

Singh, J. (2018). Tourism- Skill Development for Better India. International Journal of Engineering Development and Research, 6 (1).

Skills and work in Hospitality Sector. (n.d.).

thsc.in. (2018, December 4). Tourism and Hospitality Skills Council. Retrieved December 4, 2018, from www.thsc.in: https://www.thsc.in/

Vikram, J. (2018). Development Perspectives of Labourers in Unorganized Sector of Urban. Helix: The Scientific Explorer, 8.

Vinay, S. V. (2017). Major Shift in the Indian Hospitality Industry: An Assessment Study. IOSR Journal of Business Management, 9 (2), 59-62.

Wadhwa, R. (2017, March 22). Yourstory. Retrieved November 1, 2018, from Yourstory.com: https://yourstory.com/mystory/80cbeec379-future-and-scope-of-hotel-management-in-india

WTTC. (2018). Travel and Tourism Economic Impact 2018 World. World Travel and Tourism Council.

www.aih.edu.in. (2018, November 14). theparkhotels. Retrieved from www.aih.edu.in: www.aih.edu.in

www.ici.nic.in. (2018, November 15). Indian Culinary Institute. Retrieved from www.ici.nic.in: http://www.ici.nic.in/

www.ihmaurangabad.ac.in. (2018, November 14). ihm aurangabad. Retrieved November 14, 2018, from www.ihmaurangabad.ac.in: https://www.ihmaurangabad.ac.in/organisation/

www.itchotels.in. (2018, November 14). itc hotels. Retrieved from www.itchotels.in: https://www.itchotels.in/hmi/programmes/welcomlead.html

www.manipal.edu. (2018, November 1). Manipal University. Retrieved November 1, 2018, from manipal.edu: https://manipal.edu/wgsha/about-wgsha/message-from-the-hoi.html

www.msde.gov.in. (2018, December 4). Ministry of Skill Development & Entreprenurship. Retrieved December 4, 2018, from www.msde.gov.in: https://www.msde.gov.in/background.html

www.presidencycollege.edu.in. (2018, November 14). Presidency College. Retrieved 2018, from www.presidencycollege.edu.in.

www.tlshs.com. (2018, November 14). The Lalit Suri Hospitality School. Retrieved 2018, from www.tlshs.com.

Vinnie Jauhari, (2006) "Competencies for a career in the hospitality industry: an Indian perspective", International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,Vol. 18 Issue: 2, pp.123-134, https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110610646673

Y.A. D. R. Kumara. (2018). Career development of women in the hotel industry: An Overview. Journal of Applied and Natural Science, 10(1). https://doi.org/10.31018/jans.v10i1.1626

❑❑❑

BVIMSR'S Journal of Management Research
SUBSCRIPTION FORM

Name of Institute/ Individual: ______________________________

Full Postal Address: ______________________________

____

Full Postal Address of Library: ______________________________

(In case of Institutional Members) ______________________________

Contact Person’s Name: ______________________________

Designation: ______________________________

Telephone Numbers with STD Code: ______________________________

E-mail Address for correspondence: ______________________________

Subscription for One Year (Two Issues)

Rs. 300/- (for Single Issue)

Individual: Rs. 500/- (for Yearly subscription)

Institution: Rs. 600/ - (for Yearly subscription)

Payment Details: DD/ Cheque no. :______________________Date: ____________________

For Rs.____________________Drawn on Bank:____________________________________

Designation and Signature of Authority/ Applicant:

Place: Date:

Please send the filled-in form to:

The Editor, BJMR, Bharati Vidyapeeth’s Institute of Management Studies and Research

Sector- 8, CBD Belapur , Navi Mumbai- 400614 (Maharashtra)

Notes: 1. DD/ Cheque should be drawn in favour of “Director, BVIMSR, Navi Mumbai”.

2. Outside Mumbai/ Navi Mumbai subscribers should pay by Bank DD only.

GUIDELINES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

1. **For submission :**

- **Covering Letter :** Title of the paper, Author's Name, Designation, Organization, Official Address, Personal Address, Contact Number (Official & Personal) and e-mail address.
- **Abstract:** Should contain in brief – Objective, Research Questions/ Hypothesis, Methodology, Findings and 5-6 keywords. Word Limit: 250-500 words
- **Full Paper**
  - o Copies: Softcopy by e-mail
  - o Format: A-4 Size, MS-Word
  - o Word Limit : Not to exceed 5000 words
  - o Font : Times New Roman
  - o Font Size : Heading-14, Text-12
  - o Margin : 1.5-inch on all four sides
  - o Line Spacing : 1.5

2. **Format of the paper :**
   - **Title:** Title should not be more than 6-8 words.
   - **Sections:** Introduction, Review of Literature, Definitions of specialized terms Objectives, Research, Questions / Hypothesis, Methodology, Findings / Results, Conclusions/Recommendations and Limitations.
   - **Annexure:** Tables, Charts, Graphs, Quotations, Equations, Articles, should be numbered, cited and referenced properly.
   - **Abbreviations:** Any Abbreviations used should be written in full at first followed by the abbreviations in the parenthesis.
   - **Referencing:** The Harvard System should be used in referencing.
   - **Foot Notes:** Should be numbered consecutively in the text and should be typed on the same page they are denoted.

3. **Declaration:** Author must declare originality of work. The article should not have been published or submitted for publication elsewhere.
4. The Journal neither charges any processing fee nor pays any honorarium to the authors.
5. Author will receive one complementary copy of the journal.
6. Editorial Board's decision will be final.
7. The copyright of all accepted papers will vest with BJMR.

Address For Correspondence: e-mail ID: editor_bjmr@bvimsr.com
The Editor, BJMR
Bharati Vidyapeeth's
Institute Of Management Studies & Research
Sector-8, CBD Belapur, Navi Mumbai-400614
Ph. 022-27572433/27562582
Website: www.bvimsr.com

ISSN: 0976 – 4739

Journal Listed in

EBSCO

Proquest

Google Scholar

Indian Citation Index

Academia

Bharati Vidyapeeth's
Institute of Management Studies & Research
Sector-8, CBD Belapur, Navi Mumbai-400614
022-27572433/27562582, email:editor_bjmr@bvimsr.com
Website: www.bvimsr.com

Printed at: Bharati Printing Press, Erandwane, Pune