

GLOBAL JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT AND BUSINESS RESEARCH

discovering thoughts and inventing future

ISSN: 0975-5853

15 Portraits to Shape Your Business

The Volume 10

Issue 5 Version 1.0

highlights

Proximity To Money

Performance Management System

AHP Based Performance Measurement System

Ethiopian Manager Be Positive





Global Journal of Management and Business Research



Global Journal of Management and Business Research

Volume 10 Issue 5 (Ver. 1.0)

Global Academy of Research and Development

© Global Journal of
Management and Business
Research. 2010.

All rights reserved.

This is a special issue published in version 1.0
of "Global Journal of Management and
Business Research."

All articles are open access articles distributed
Global Journal of Management and Business
Research."

Reading License, which permits restricted use.
Entire contents are copyright by of "Global
Journal of Management and Business
Research." unless otherwise noted on specific
articles.

No part of this publication may be reproduced
or transmitted in any form or by any means,
electronic or mechanical, including photocopy,
recording, or any information storage and
retrieval system, without written permission.

The opinions and statements made in this book
are those of the authors concerned. Ultraculture
has not verified and neither confirms nor
denies any of the foregoing and no warranty or
fitness is implied.

Engage with the contents herein at your own
risk.

The use of this journal, and the terms and
conditions for our providing information, is
governed by our Disclaimer, Terms and
Conditions and Privacy Policy given on our
website <http://www.globaljournals.org/global-journals-research-portal/guideline/terms-and-conditions/menu-id-260/>.

By referring / using / reading / any type of
association / referencing this journal, this
signifies and you acknowledge that you have
read them and that you accept and will be
bound by the terms thereof.

All information, journals, this journal,
activities undertaken, materials, services and
our website, terms and conditions, privacy
policy, and this journal is subject to change
anytime without any prior notice.

License No.: 42125/022010/1186
Registration No.: 430374
Import-Export Code: 1109007027

Global Academy of Research and Development

Publisher's correspondence office

Global Journals, Headquarters Corporate Office,
United States

Offset Typesetting

Global Journals, City Center Office,
United States

Packaging & Continental Dispatching

Global Journals, India

Find a correspondence nodal officer near you

To find nodal officer of your country, please
email us at local@globaljournals.org

eContacts

Press Inquiries: press@globaljournals.org
Investor Inquiries: investors@globaljournals.org
Technical Support: technology@globaljournals.org
Media & Releases: media@globaljournals.org

Pricing (Including by Air Parcel Charges):

For Authors:

22 USD (B/W) & 50 USD (Color)

Yearly Subscription (Personal & Institutional):

200 USD (B/W) & 500 USD (Color)

Editorial Board Members

John A. Hamilton, "Drew" Jr.

Ph.D., Professor, Management
Computer Science and Software Engineering
Director, Information Assurance Laboratory
Auburn University

Dr. Henry Hexmoor

IEEE senior member since 2004
Ph.D. Computer Science, University at Buffalo
Department of Computer Science
Southern Illinois University at Carbondale

Dr. Osman Balci, Professor

Department of Computer Science
Virginia Tech, Virginia University
Ph.D. and M.S. Syracuse University, Syracuse,
New York
M.S. and B.S. Bogazici University, Istanbul,
Turkey

Yogita Bajpai

M.Sc. (Computer Science), FICCT
U.S.A.
Email: yogita@computerresearch.org

Dr. T. David A. Forbes

Associate Professor and Range Nutritionist
Ph.D. Edinburgh University - Animal Nutrition
M.S. Aberdeen University - Animal Nutrition
B.A. University of Dublin- Zoology.

Dr. Bart Lambrecht

Director of Research in Accounting and
Finance
Professor of Finance
Lancaster University Management School
BA (Antwerp); MPhil, MA, PhD (Cambridge)

Dr. Wenying Feng

Professor, Department of Computing &
Information Systems
Department of Mathematics
Trent University, Peterborough,
ON Canada K9J 7B8

Dr. Thomas Wischgoll

Computer Science and Engineering,
Wright State University, Dayton, Ohio
B.S., M.S., Ph.D.

(University of Kaiserslautern)

Dr. Abdurrahman Arslanyilmaz

Computer Science & Information
Systems Department
Youngstown State University
Ph.D., Texas A&M University
University of Missouri, Columbia
Gazi University, Turkey

Dr. Xiaohong He

Professor of International Business
University of Quinipiac
BS, Jilin Institute of Technology; MA,
MS, PhD.
(University of Texas-Dallas)

Burcin Becerik-Gerber

University of Southern California
Ph.D. in Civil Engineering
DDes from Harvard University
M.S. from University of California,
Berkeley & Istanbul University

Dr. Söhnke M. Bartram

Department of Accounting and Finance
Lancaster University Management
School
Ph.D. (WHU Koblenz)
MBA/BBA (University of Saarbrücken)

Dr. Carlos García Pont

Associate Professor of Marketing
IESE Business School, University of Navarra
Doctor of Philosophy (Management),
Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT)
Master in Business Administration, IESE,
University of Navarra
Degree in Industrial Engineering,
Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya

Dr. Fotini Labropulu

Mathematics - Luther College
University of Regina
Ph.D., M.Sc. in Mathematics
B.A. (Honors) in Mathematics
University of Windsor

Dr. Lynn Lim

Reader in Business and Marketing
Roehampton University, London
BCom, PGDip, MBA (Distinction), PhD, FHEA

Dr. Mihaly Mezei

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR
Department of Structural and Chemical
Biology
Mount Sinai School of Medical Center
Ph.D., Eötvös Loránd University
Postdoctoral Training, New York University

Dr. Miguel Angel Ariño

Professor of Decision Sciences
IESE Business School
Barcelona, Spain (Universidad de
Navarra)
CEIBS (China Europe International
Business School).
Beijing, Shanghai and Shenzhen
Ph.D. in Mathematics
University of Barcelona
BA in Mathematics (Licenciatura)
University of Barcelona
Philip G. Moscoso
Technology and Operations
Management
IESE Business School, University of
Navarra
Ph.D in Industrial Engineering and
Management, ETH Zurich
M.Sc. in Chemical Engineering, ETH
Zurich

Dr. Sanjay Dixit, M.D.

Director, EP Laboratories, Philadelphia
VA Medical Center
Cardiovascular Medicine - Cardiac
Arrhythmia
Univ of Penn School of Medicine

Dr. Han-Xiang Deng

MD., Ph.D Associate Professor and
Research Department
Division of Neuromuscular Medicine
Davee Department of Neurology and
Clinical Neurosciences
Northwestern University Feinberg
School of Medicine

Dr. Pina C. Sanelli

Associate Professor of Public Health
Weill Cornell Medical College
Associate Attending Radiologist
New York-Presbyterian Hospital
MRI, MRA, CT, and CTA
Neuroradiology and Diagnostic
Radiology
M.D., State University of New York at
Buffalo, School of Medicine and
Biomedical Sciences

Dr. Roberto Sanchez

Associate Professor
Department of Structural and Chemical
Biology Mount Sinai School of Medicine
Ph.D. The Rockefeller University

Dr. Wen-Yih Sun

Professor of Earth and Atmospheric
Sciences Purdue University Director
National Center for Typhoon and
Flooding Research, Taiwan University
Chair Professor Department of
Atmospheric Sciences, National Central
University, Chung-Li, Taiwan University
Chair Professor Institute of
Environmental Engineering, National
Chiao Tung University, Hsin-chu,
Taiwan. Ph.D., MS The University of
Chicago, Geophysical Sciences
BS National Taiwan University,
Atmospheric Sciences
Associate Professor of Radiology

Dr. Michael R. Rudnick

M.D., FACP
Associate Professor of Medicine
Chief, Renal Electrolyte and
Hypertension Division (PMC)
Penn Medicine, University of
Pennsylvania
Presbyterian Medical Center,
Philadelphia
Nephrology and Internal Medicine
Certified by the American Board of
Internal Medicine

Dr. Bassey Benjamin Esu

B.Sc. Marketing; MBA Marketing; Ph.D
Marketing
Lecturer, Department of Marketing,
University of Calabar
Tourism Consultant, Cross River State
Tourism Development Department
Co-ordinator , Sustainable Tourism
Initiative, Calabar, Nigeria

Dr. Aziz M. Barbar, Ph.D.

IEEE Senior Member
Chairperson, Department of Computer
Science
AUST - American University of Science &
Technology
Alfred Naccash Avenue – Ashrafieh

Chief Author

Dr. R.K. Dixit (HON.)

M.Sc., Ph.D., FICCT

Chief Author, India

Email: authorind@computerresearch.org

Dean & Editor-in-Chief (HON.)

Vivek Dubey(HON.)

MS (Industrial Engineering),

MS (Mechanical Engineering)

University of Wisconsin

FICCT

Editor-in-Chief, USA

editorusa@computerresearch.org

Sangita Dixit

M.Sc., FICCT

Dean and Publisher, India

deanind@computerresearch.org

Er. Suyog Dixit

BE (HONS. in Computer Science), FICCT

SAP Certified Consultant

Technical Dean, India

Website: www.suyogdixit.com

Email: suyog@suyogdixit.com,

dean@computerresearch.org

Contents of the Volume

- i. Copyright Notice
- ii. Editorial Board Members
- iii. Chief Author and Dean
- iv. Table of Contents
- v. From the Chief Editor's Desk
- vi. Research and Review Papers
 1. The Relationships Between Environment, Strategy, Organizational Structure, and Business Performance **2-8**
 2. AHP Based Performance Measurement System Of Supply Chain **9-16**
 3. Life-Based Design - An Approach To Design For Life **17-23**
 4. Integrated Management Systems: Quality, Environment And Health & Safety – Future Approach For Any Organization, Especially For Smes **24-26**
 5. Performance Management System **27-30**
 6. Counselling Attitude Of Managers And Its Contribution To HRD In State Owned And Private Enterprises In Papua New Guinea **31-37**
 7. Globalisation And Recent Trends In Banking **38-41**
 8. Hello! Ethiopian Manager Be Positive **42-47**
 9. Marketing Strategies Of Nigerian Political Parties: A Comparative Analysis **48-63**
 10. Determinants Of Job Involvement And Job Satisfaction Among Teaching Professionals **64-74**
 11. Proximity To Money - An Empirical Study On The Parameters To Select A Bank **75-81**
 12. E-Commerce For Micro And Small Companies In Brazil: An Exploratory Study Of The Hospitality Sector **82-88**
 13. Small And Mid-Sized Enterprises – In Difficulty In Romanian Economical Crisis Confronting **89-91**
 14. Assessing the Effects of Management Practices of Not-for-Profit Corporations in Southeast Wisconsin and Their Influences on Organizational Performance **92-98**
 15. Research Framework:Paradigms in Information Science Research **99-103**
- vii. Auxiliary Memberships
- viii. Process of Submission of Research Paper
- ix. Preferred Author Guidelines
- x. Index

From the Chief Author's Desk

We see a drastic momentum everywhere in all fields now a day. Which in turns, say a lot to everyone to excel with all possible way. The need of the hour is to pick the right key at the right time with all extras. Citing the computer versions, any automobile models, infrastructures, etc. It is not the result of any preplanning but the implementations of planning.

With these, we are constantly seeking to establish more formal links with researchers, scientists, engineers, specialists, technical experts, etc., associations, or other entities, particularly those who are active in the field of research, articles, research paper, etc. by inviting them to become affiliated with the Global Journals.

This Global Journal is like a banyan tree whose branches are many and each branch acts like a strong root itself.

Intentions are very clear to do best in all possible way with all care.

Dr. R. K. Dixit
Chief Author
chiefauthor@globaljournals.org

The Relationships Between Environment, Strategy, Organizational Structure, and Business Performance

M. Irhas Effendi, Muafi, Miftahol Arifin*

GJMBR Classification
FOR: 150503,150505,150312
GJEL: M31,Q56

Abstract-This study will develop a model of relationship between the environment, strategy, organizational structures and business performance of the manufacturing industries in Yogyakarta and Central Java. The population of this study are all manufacturing industries in Yogyakarta and Central Java. The samples in this study are designed using Cluster Random Sampling technique, guided by Standard Classification of Indonesian Business Field [Klasifikasi Baku Lapangan Usaha Indonesia] (KBLUI) in category D at digit 2. 250 samples are taken and based on the result of the questionnaire distribution, 143 respondents answered the items completely, so this meets the requirement for Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). Six variables are considered: external environment, internal environment, competitive strategy, strategic orientation, organizational structure and business performance. Validity and reliability tests indicate that all variables are valid and reliable.

Based on the data analysis, the findings are: (1) external environments have positive influences to competitive strategies, (2) internal environments have positive influences to competitive strategies, (3) organizational structures don't have positive influences to competitive strategies, (4) competitive strategies have positive influences to strategic orientation, (5) competitive strategies have positive influence to the business performance, (6) competitive strategies have positive influence to organizational structures, (7) strategic orientation have positive influence to the business performance, and (8) organizational structures have influence to the business performance.

Keywords-environment, competitive strategy, strategic orientation, organizational structure, and business performance.

I. INTRODUCTION

The government expects that the manufacturing industries could continuously improve their performance. Department of Industry in Indonesia has focused and will focus its support on the manufacturing industries until next year. The fact needing serious attention is that the performance of manufacturing industries has kept slowing down. In Indonesia, growing of manufacturing industry is very significant for manufacturing industry,

government and industry is very significant for manufacturing industry, government, and society in order to assist in achieving pro-growth, pro-job, and pro-poor.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The Relationship between Environment, Competitive Strategy, Strategic Orientation, Organizational Structure and Business Performance

Since competition is a game, particularly for a company in the turbulent environment, the competing company is trying to find ways to sustain its success in the long term, which is difficult to copy by its competitors. This means that the company wants to gain its competitive advantage. It is therefore required that it have competitive strategies leading to a position of profitability and supporting capacity facing the powers which determine industrial competition.

In the opinion of Schuler and Jackson (1987), there are three strategies in an organization which can be used to gain competitive advantages; innovation, quality enhancement, and cost reduction. These strategies can be pure for single units or in the functional areas, but these may overlap, where business units or functional areas have two or more competitive strategies simultaneously (Schuler and Jackson, 1987). Kumar, et al. (1997) say that as a matter of fact, the type of Potter's generic strategy is similar to that of Miles dan Snow. Defender (Miles and Snow) is similar to Low Cost (Porter) and Efficiency. Prospector (Miles and Snow) is similar to Differentiation/Innovation (Porter/Miller and Friesen's). Porter explains that Cost Leadership and Differentiation are mutually exclusive (Kumar, et al., 1997). If both are combined they will get stuck in the middle. Cost leadership and differentiation is combined with the focus strategy, hybrid will take place. This does not necessarily mean that that getting stuck in the middle may not happen. In one of the researches conducted by Kumar, et al. (1997) indicated that Porter's generic strategies are not mutually exclusive and each strategy can be connected to another variation of strategy.

Competitive strategic variations could create competitive advantages. What needs to bear in mind is that the condition of getting stuck in the middle is unpredictable. As in the reactor strategy explained by Miles and Snow, stuck in the middle has never been proposed as a way to success (Robbins, 1994). The reason is that both types of strategy have a clear-cut characteristics, in extreme points and consistently adapting themselves with the variable contingency in the company.

About-*Dept.of Management Economic, University Pembangunan Nasional Veteran Yogyakarta (UPNVY)

SWK 104 Ringroad Utara Condong Catur Yogyakarta Indonesia 55283
(Tel: +61811268639 Tel: +61811268639, +6181328058966, +61818265696

We would like to thanks to Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi (Dirjen Dikti) Indonesia which had give grant to this research with scheme Hibah Bersaing 2007

After considering the existing environmental aspect, the choice of appropriate strategy is closely related to the strategic orientation of the managers and the organizational structures, which will have impact on the business's performance (Covin and Slevin, 1989; Robertson and Chetty, 2000). The findings conclude that there is a causality between environment, organizational structure, and strategic orientation on the performance. If there is a synchronicity between environment and strategic orientation, organizational structure and strategic orientation, better performance can be made.

Related to competitive strategies, Steers (1984) empirically find that environment could influences strategies and performance/organizational effectiveness, and environment could influences organizational structures. This could happen because different environments require different organizational structures, and this will influences the business performance. Steers (1984) highlights that new strategies require new structures, so strategies will influences organizational structures. This findings are supported by Miner (1982) and Hammond (1994) by adding a debate whether structure follows strategy or strategy follows structure. In later development, there is a consensus that both could be implemented (Hammond, 1994). Therefore, there will be reciprocal influence between strategy and structure.

In general, environments can be categorized into external environments and internal environments. Boyd et al. (1993) explain how to measure environmental variables which can be viewed from two approaches: objective and perceptual. Based on the approach of E-S-P (environment-strategy-performance) paradigm model, environmental variables could play an important role affecting the business' strategies and performance. Even the research of Adu (1999) finds that there is a direct influence of environment on the business performance.

Steers (1980) explains that environment could influences the roles of the managers which will influence the effectiveness of the organization. The management will find it hard to understand the complexity of the environment. The capacity of information processing management will be overloaded and it will also implicate the decision made (Robbins, 1994). Researches dealing with the influence of environment on the management attitudes/roles/styles, particularly with managerial convictions and performance have been conducted by Coltman et al. (2003). Based on the model and measurement, it is found that organizational condition (feasible limitations, organizational condition) and external environment (market/technology and environmental pressure) could directly influences e-business performance, and it could also indirectly influences e-business performance mediated by the managerial convictions/attitudes/management styles. The general findings of several empirical researches also indicate that strategy influences performance (Bou and Beltran, 2005); Edelman et al. (2005); Carmeli (2004); Priyono (2003, 2004); Heijltjes (2003); Weinsten and Obloj (2002); Dyer and Reeves (1995), strategy influences strategic orientations (Offstein et al., 2005); Edelman, et al., (2005),

Alleyne, et al. (2005), Carmeli, (2004), Hoogervorst, et al. (2002), Schuler and Jackson (1987). Therefore we propose hypothesis. This literature has been used to develop the conceptual framework for this study as shown in Figure 1.

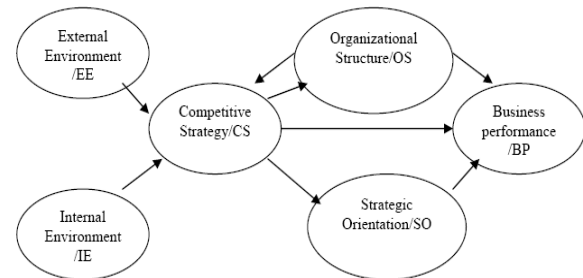


Figure 1. The relationships between Environment, Strategy, Organizational Structure, and Business Performance

A. Hypothesis

Based on the research model, this study hypothesis that:

- H1. There is positive influence of external environment (EE) to competitive strategies (CS).
- H2. There is positive influence of internal environment (IE) to competitive strategies (CS).
- H3. There is positive influence of organizational structures (OS) to competitive strategies (CS).
- H4. There is positive influence of competitive strategies (CS) to organizational structure (OS).
- H5. There is positive influence of competitive strategies (CS) to the business performance (BP).
- H6. There is positive influence of competitive strategies (CS) to organizational structures (OS).
- H7. There is positive influence of strategic orientation (SO) to the business performance (BP).
- H8. There is positive influence of organizational structures (OS) to the business performance (BP)

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

There are six variables which are used in this research; external environment, internal environment, competitive strategy, strategic orientation, organizational structure and business performance. Validity and reliability tests indicate that all variables are valid and reliable. The population of this study are all manufacturing industries in Yogyakarta and Central Java. The samples in this study are designed using Cluster Random Sampling technique, guided by Standard Classification of Indonesian Business Field [Klasifikasi Baku Lapangan Usaha Indonesia] (KBLUI) in category D at digit 2. 250 samples are taken and based on the result of the questionnaire distribution, 143 respondents answered the items completely, so this meets the requirement for Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

IV. EMPIRICAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Descriptive Analysis

The number of questionnaires distributed is 250, with the response rate 57.2%. The following is the description of the respondents. Table 1 shows the research data used, based on

The number of questionnaires distributed is 250, with the response rate 57.2%. The following is the description of the respondents. Table 1 shows the research data used, based on the sample target, realization for each area and industrial groups.

The description of research variables depicts that external and internal environments tend to be perceived as hostile,

conservative strategic orientation, efficient competitive strategies, and mechanical organizational structure. The descriptive approach indicate that the managers of the manufacturing companies in Yogyakarta and Central Java still have different perceptions about competitive strategies, strategic orientation, organizational structure, and environment to improve the business's performance.

Tabel 1.
Description of Research Respondents

Code	Indutry	CENTRAL JAVA		YOGYAKARTA		Realization
		Sample Target	Realization	Sample Target	Realization	
15	Makanan dan Minuman	30	15	16	20	35
16	Tembakau	18	16	2	1	17
17	Tekstil	10	8	6	2	10
18	Pakaian Jadi	5	2	5	5	7
19	Kulit dan Barang dari Kulit	3	2	17	14	16
20	Kayu dan Barang dari Kayu dan barang Anyaman	2	1	10	15	16
21	Kertas dan Barang dari Kertas	3	1	-		1
22	Penerbitan, Percetakan dan Reproduksi Media Rekaman	2	1	15	6	7
24	Kimia dan Barangbarang dari Bahan Kimia	2	1	2		1
25	Karet dan Barang dari Karet	6	3	2		3
26	Barang galian Bukan Logam	2		8		0
27	Logam Dasar	2		-		0
28	Barang-barang dari Logam kecuali Mesin dan Peralatannya	2	1	1		1
29	Mesin dan Perlengkapannya	3	3	1		3
31	Mesin Listrik lainnya dan Perlengkapannya	1		0		0
32	Radio, Televisi, dan peralatan Komunikasi perlengkapannya	1		-		0
33	Peralatan Kedokteran, alat-alat ukurperalatan optik, jam, dan lonceng	2		-		0
34	Kendaraan Bermotor	2		-		0
35	Alat Angkutan Selain Kendaraan Bermotor Roda Empat atau Lebih	3	3	0		3
36	Furnitur dan Pengolahan lainnya	50	20	15	3	23
37	Daur Ulang	1		0		0
		150	77	100	48	143

See Table 2 for the evaluation of the test result of that model.

Table 2.
Criteria Evaluation of Goodness of Fit Indices

Criteria	Result	Critical Value *)	Model Evaluation
Chi-Square	1905.080	Relatively Small	Not Good
Probability	0.000	$\geq 0,05$	Marginal
RMSEA	0.076	$\leq 0,08$	Good
CMIN/DF	1,719	$\leq 2,00$	Good
GFI	0,665	$\geq 0,90$	Marginal
CFI	0,579	$\geq 0,90$	Marginal
TLI	0,544	$\geq 0,95$	Marginal

Sumber : *) Hair (1992), Arbuckle (1997), Muller (1996)

From the evaluation of proposed models, of all criteria used, almost all are good, except probability. GFI, CFI and TLI have marginal criteria. Based on the available explanation referring to parsimony principle (Arbuckle and Worthke,

1999), if there is one or two criteria of goodness of fit which meet the expected value, the model on the whole is good, or the development of hypothesis model conceptually and theoretically is said to be supported by empirical data.

B. Hypothesis Test

To test the hypothesis of causal relationship between external environment, internal environment, strategy, strategic posture, organizational structure and business performance, the result of path coefficient could indicate this causal relationship between those variables. See Table 3 for that relationship.

Table 3.
Path Coefficient (Standardize dan Unstandardize Regression)

Inter variable relationship	Estimate (Unstandardize)	Estimate (standardize)	C.R	p	Note
CS ← EE	0,648	0,304	1,874	0,061**	Significant (H1 supported)
CS ← IE	1,225	0,591	2,257	0,024*	Significant (H2 supported)
CS ← OS	-1,185	-0,171	-,827	0,408	Non Significant (H3 rejected)
OS ← CS	0,269	0,590	2,404	0,016*	Significant (H4 supported)
BP ← CS	0,455	0,433	2,863	0,004*	Significant (H5 supported)
OS ← CS	0,583	0,628	3,037	0,002*	Significant (H6 supported)
BP ← SO	0,297	0,263	2,143	0,032*	Significant (H7 supported)
BP ← OS	0,956	0,415	2,201	0,028*	Significant (H8 supported)

* significant at alpha 5%; ** significant at alpha 6%

Based on the data analysis, the findings are: (1) external environments (EE) have positive influences to competitive strategies (CS) (H1 supported), (2) internal environments (IE) have positive influences to competitive strategies (CS) (H1 supported), (3) organizational structure (OS) don't have positive influences to competitive strategies (CS) (H3 rejected), (4) competitive strategies (CS) have positive influences to strategic orientation (SO) (H4 supported), (5) competitive strategies (CS) have positive influence to the business performance (BP) (H5 supported), (6) competitive strategies (CS) have positive influence to organizational structure (OS) (H6 supported), (7) strategic orientation (SO) have influence to the business performance (BP) (H7 supported), (8) organizational structures (OS) have positive influence to the business performance (BP) (H8 supported).

C. Discussion

In general, this research indicates findings that environment-strategy-performance (E-S-P) model can be accepted or well implemented in the manufacturing industries in Yogyakarta and Central Java. This supports the previous researches which have confirmed the truth of his paradigm (Lukas, et.al., 2001; Badri, et al., 2000; Li, 1991; Luo, 1999). The findings of this research indicate that in the framework of environment-strategy-performance (E-S-P) paradigm, this paradigm could be integrated by studying other variables apart from competitive strategies which play a role of

mediation: strategic orientations and organizational structures. This supports the previous researches and confirms the truth of that integration model (Steers, 1980; Robbins, 1994: 254; Covin and Slevin, 1989) and other researchers. The researchers conclude that the paradigm of environment-competitive strategy-business performance could be integrated by considering other variables: strategic orientation and organizational structure. Next, we are going to discuss the most interesting finding of this research; Competitive strategies influences the organizational structures but organizational structures do not influences the competitive strategies.

Competitive strategies influences organizational structures. This confirms the theory and research conducted by Chandler (1962 in Steers, 1984) which highlights that a new strategy will require a new structure, so strategies will influences organizational structure. Nonetheless, organizational structures do not influences competitive strategies. What Miner (1982) and Hammond (1994) indicate seems to take place in this case. A debate whether *structure follows strategy* or *strategy follow structure* has been resolved. In its development, a consensus has been made that both could be implemented (Hammond., 1994). Findings by Covin and Slevin, (1989; Robertson and Chetty, 2000) explains that the choice of appropriate strategy will be closely linked with the organizational structure, which will influences the company's performance. Environment, organizational structure, and strategic orientations have a causal relationship with business performance. There is also a relationship between environment and strategic orientation, organizational structure and strategic orientation which could improve performance.

In this case, organizational structure does not significantly influences the competitive strategies. The manufacturing companies used as samples in this research do not have full organic organizational structures yet. In general, they still have mechanical organizational structures, for example, communication channel, very structured important operational and financial information access, limited information access, uniformed managerial styles, decision making responsibility of a formal manager, proven principles despite changing circumstances, employees are required to follow formal procedures, formal control through information system and strict control and complying formal job descriptions. This condition should not happen considering the manufacturing company leaders in Yogyakarta and Central Java perceive that the external and internal environments faced by the company are hostile. This will influences the strategies implemented by the company. If so, there is a discrepancy in the implementation of competitive strategies and organizational structure which may influences the company's performance. If nothing is done, this will predictably slow down the business performance.

Therefore, in today's competitive era, the companies are recommended to emphasize on marketing activities as a development support of production process, superior quality product creation with premium price, brand image building and focusing on continuous service, aggressively searching

for new market opportunities. Manufacturing companies in Yogyakarta and Central Java need to highlight the loose cost control system by focusing on the above standard product creation, flexible operational activities with strong inter-functional coordination, and excellence in research and development and high quality new products.

This condition happens because the companies are expected to implement innovative competitive strategies. This may be caused by the pressure of hostile external and internal environments. The characteristics of the environment condition are vulnerable industrial setting, tight competition intensity, tough and tight business climate, lack of exploitable opportunities, full of risks, pressure and domination. The company needs to be careful about implementing that innovation strategy since costs need to be taken into consideration. Loose cost control focusing on above standard product creation, flexible operational activities with strong inter-functional coordination, and excellence in research and development and high quality new products will require relatively high costs. This should be compensated by continuous performance improvement.

It should also be noted that along with the growth and growing organization due to the improving company performance, centralization or authority and power in the echelons of top management will also grow. There is distance between relevant information resources and decision making. Also, the more decentralization in an organization often produces improvement in some areas and in effectiveness. Decentralization is related with the more management efficiency, open feedback communication, work satisfaction and more loyal employees. In some cases, organizational decentralization produces performance and innovation improvement and creativity in organization, so organizational performance will also improve, although this is not a guarantee.

The study of organizational structures cannot be separated from specialization and formalization. Specialization can be measured in various ways, for example, the number of divisions in an organization and the number of special sections under each division, the number of different positions and the number of different sub units in an organization, and the number of jobs and positions in an organization. Specialization will boost performance because specialization enables every employee to have expertise in a certain field so that they could maximally contribute to the goal. Despite its benefits, specialization has also its drawbacks on the part of the employees regarding the mental health, work attitude, and the tendency to stay in an organization. Formalization usually indicates the work scope and regulation of employees through formal procedures, rules and regulation. The bigger the influence of rules, regulation, and work obligations, the bigger the formalization is. This formalization very often puts the company at disadvantage because this will discourage creative behaviors, innovations and adaptations. One of the advantages, however, is that the company becomes more effective and efficient. This organizational structure will have a close link with the business performance. Therefore, the appropriate strategic implementation should be followed

by appropriate design and organizational structure, and vice versa, because both will influences the business performance.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION OF THIS STUDY

A. Conclusion

External and internal environments faced by manufacturing companies in Yogyakarta and Central Java are perceived hostile, efficient competitive strategies, conservative strategic orientation, and mechanical organizational structure. This perception will influences the main result of the research such as; (1) external environments have positive influences to competitive strategies, (2) internal environments have positive influences to competitive strategies, (3) organizational structure don't have positive influences to competitive strategies (CS), (4)

strategic orientation have positive influences to competitive strategies, (5) competitive strategies have positive influence to the business performance, (6) competitive strategies have positive influence to organizational structure, (7) strategic orientation have influence to the business performance, (8) organizational structures have positive influence to the business performance.

The recommendations proposed by this research are; (1) manufacturing companies in Yogyakarta and Central Java need to analyze and pay attention to the strategies concerning the aspects of marketing mix. Aspects of marketing mix include marketing activities conducted by the company which cover; products and services, price competition, distribution and promotion channels. Besides, manufacturing companies in Yogyakarta and Central Java need to pay attention to the level of product innovation, industrial growth and development, the toughness of marketing environment of the main competition, impacts of competition, various production methods and marketing tactics to different consumers. When business faces tight competition, the situation is complex and uncertain. To respond this challenge, continuous innovations, based on the organizational knowledge, are required. The companies which continuously innovate (*act creative destruction*) have the competitive advantage based on knowledge. Accurate and appropriate identification of company's resources also functions as core competency to produce business performance, (2) competitive strategies are directed toward a position of profitability and competitive capability facing the power determining the industrial competition. It should also be noted that the choice of appropriate strategies will be closely linked with the managers' strategic orientation, which will influences the business performance, (3) structure is a good way to place people as part of an organization in relatively stable relationship, which determines patterns of interaction, coordination and task-oriented behaviors. Some of the things which need to be taken into consideration and to be further studied in organizational structure of a company is the span of control, decentralization or relative centralization of the authority and power, level of formalization, degree of functional specialization, (4) it should also be noted that experience,

expertise and the personality of the CEO tend to correlate with one type of strategy or a combination of various strategies. Strategies need to be appropriately formulated and implemented because they will influence business performance in the short term and in the long term

B. Implication Of This Study

only evaluates aspects related to environment, organizational structure, strategic orientation, all of which influence the business performance. It is recommended that the implementation of competitive strategies is linked to contingency variables faced by the company such as environment, organizational structure, strategic orientation from its configuration and contingency. This is important considering if manufacturing companies could adjust to appropriate level, these manufacturing companies in Yogyakarta and Central Java could improve their business performance.

Apart from competitive strategies, other aspects need to be taken into consideration; strategic orientation, and organizational structures in bridging the influence of environment on business performance like organizational culture, human resource practices, management practices, managerial styles and so on. By doing so, a holistic model which integrates other variables to improve business performance in a comprehensive model can be achieved.

VI. REFERENCES

- 1) Adu KA. 1999. The Impact of economic reform on business performance: a study of foreign and domestic firms in Ghana, *International Business review*, 8, p. 463-486).
- 2) Alleyne P, Doherty L., and Greenidge D. 2005. Human resource management and performance in the Barbados Hotel Industry, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, p. 1-24.
- 3) Amstrong M. 2003. *Strategic Human Resources Management. A Guide To Action*, Terjemahan, Gramedia Jakarta.
- 4) Anthony WP, Perrewe PL., and Kacmar, KM. 1999. *Human Resources Management. A Strategic Approach*, Third Edition, Harcourt, Inc.
- 5) Arbuckle JL, Wothke W. 1999. *Amos 4.0 User's Guide*, USA: SmallWaters Corporation.
- 6) Badri MA, Davis D, and Davis D. 2000. Operation Strategy, Environmental uncertainty and performance: a path analytic model of industries in developing countries, *The International Journal of Management Science*, Omega 28, p. 155-173.
- 7) Baker III, Eugene H, and Fieldman D.C. 1991. Linking Organizational Socialization Tactics With Corporate Human Resources Management Strategies, *Human Resources Management Review*, Vol.1, Number 3, p. 193-202.
- 8) Beal RB. 2000. Competing Effectively; Environmental Scanning, Competitive Strategy, and Organizational Performance in Small Manufacturing Firms, *Journal of Small Business Management*, Jan, 38, I, p. 27-47.
- 9) Bjorkman I and Xiucheng F. 2002. HRM and the performance of Western firms in China, *International of HRM* 13: 7 November, 1042-1059.
- 10) Bou JC and Beltran I. 2005. TQM, High Commitment Human Resources Strategy and Firm Performance: An Empirical Study, *Total Quality Management*, Vol. 16, No. 1, January, p. 71-86
- 11) Carmeli A. 2004. Strategic human capital and the performance of public sector organization, *Scand. J. Mgmt*, 20, p. 375-392.
- 12) Choe Jm. 2002. The effect of environmental uncertainty and strategic application of IS on a firm's performance, *Information and Management* 1988, p. 1-12.
- 13) Colman T, Devinney T and Midgley D. 2003. The Value of Managerial Beliefs in Turbulent Environment: Managerial Orientation and E Business Advantage, working paper series, Agustus, p. 1-27.
- 14) Covin JG, and Slevin DP. 1989. Strategic Management of Small Firms in Hostile and Benign Environments, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 10, p. 75-87.
- 15) Cristmann P., Day D and Yip GS. 1999. The relative of country conditions, industry structure and business strategy multinational corporation subsidiary performance, *Journal of International Management*, 5, p. 241-265.
- 16) Delaney JT and Husehild MA. 1996. The Impact of Human Resources Management Practices on Perceptions of Organizational Performance, *Academic of Management Journal*, Vol. 39, No. 4, p. 949-969.
- 17) Dyer L and Reeves T. 1995. Human resources strategies and firm performance: what do we know and where do we need to go?, *The International Journal of Human Resources Management*, 6; 3, September, p. 656-670.
- 18) Edelman LF, Brush CG, Manolova, T. 2005. Co-alignment in the resource-performance relationship: strategy a mediator, *Journal of Business Venturing*, 20, p. 359-383.
- 19) Fingleton E. 1999. In Praise Hard Industries. Why manufacturing, not the Information Economy, Is the Key to Future Prosperity, Boston, New York.
- 20) Guest DE. 1997. Human resource management and performance: a review and research agenda, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 262-275.
- 21) Harel GH, Tzafrir SS. 1999. The Effect of Human Resource Management Practices On The Perception Of Organizational and Market Performance Of The Firm, *Human Resources Management*, Fall, Vol. 38, No. 3, pp. 185-200.
- 22) Heijltjes M and Witteloostuijn AV. 2003. Configurations of market environments, competitive strategies, manufacturing technologies, and human resources management policies industry

- and two country analysis of Fit, Scandinavian Journal of Management, 19, p. 31-62.
- 23) Hidayat I. 2004. Determinant Marketing Strategies and Performance; *Usahawan*, 11-20.
 - 24) Hidayat I. 2003. Pengaruh Faktor Lingkungan Makro, Lingkungan Industri dan Lingkungan Internal Terhadap Marketing Strategies dan Kinerja Perusahaan, Disertasi, Dipublikasikan, Universitas Brawijaya, Malang.
 - 25) Bacharova VR and Wagner R. 2001. Performance implication of Porter's strategies in Slovak hospitals, *Journal of Management in Medicine*, Vol. 15, No. 1, pp. 44-66.
 - 26) Hoogervorst JAP., Koopman PL and Flier HVD. 2002. Human resources Strategy for the new ICT driven business context, *Journal of Human Resources*, 13: 8, desember, p. 1245-1265.
 - 27) Jones G. 2004. *Organizational Theory, Design and Change*. Text and Cases, International Edition. Fourth Edition Texas A&M University
 - 28) Kumar K., Subramanian R and Yauger C. 1997. Pure versus Hybrid: Performance Implications of Porter's generic Strategies, *Health care Management*, Fall, pp. 47-60.
 - 29) Li H. 1991. How does new venture strategy matter in environment-performance relationship?, *Journal of High Technology Management Research*, 12, p. 183-204.
 - 30) Lukas BA., Tan JJ and Hult GM. 2001. Strategic fit in transitional economies: The case China's electronics industry, 27, 09-429.
 - 31) Luo Y. 1999. Environment Strategy Performance Relation in Small Business in China: A Case of Township and Village Enterprise in Southern China, *Journal of Small Business Management*, January, p. 37-52
 - 32) Muafi (2008a), Pengaruh Derajat Kesesuaian Orientasi Strategi, Lingkungan Eksternal, Struktur Saluran Ekspor, Budaya Organisasi Dan Kinerja Ekspor, *Jurnal Manajemen dan Kewirausahaan*, hal.153-162
 - 33) -----, (2008b). A Configuration and Contingency Approach To Understanding Export Performance, *Proceeding of Ninth International Business Research Conference*, 24-26 November, Melbourne, Australia.
 - 34) Offstein EH., Gnyawali DV and Cobb AT. 2005, A Strategic human resource perspective of firm competitive behavior, *Human Resources Management*, 15, p. 305-318.
 - 35) Priyono BS. 2004. Pengaruh Derajat Kesesuaian Hubungan Strategi, Struktur, Sistem Karir dan Budaya Organisasi Terhadap Kinerja, Disertasi, UGM.
 - 36) Priyono BS. 2003. Pengaruh Praktik SDM sebagai faktor Kontingensi Strategi terhadap Kinerja, 1)
 - Jurnal Bisnis dan Ekonomi*, Vol. 10, No. 2, September, p. 209-235.
 - 37) Robertson C and Chetty SF. 2000. A Contingency based approach to understanding export performance, *International Business Review*, 9, p. 211-235.
 - 38) Schonberger RJ. 1997. *WorldClass Manufacturing*. Dekade Mendatang. Seri Manajemen Operasi, Prenhallindo, Jakarta.
 - 39) Schull PL., Davis PS and Hartline MD. 1995. Strategic Adaptation to Extended Rivalry, *Journal of Business Review*, 33, p. 129-142.
 - 40) Schuler RS and Walker JM. 1991. Human Resources Strategy: Focusing on Issues and Action, *Organizational Dynamic*, p.5-19.
 - 41) Schuler RS and Jackson SE. 1987. Linking competitive strategy with Human Resources Management Practices, *Academic of Management Executive*, I (3)+ 207-219.
 - 42) Selto FH and Renner CJ. 1995. Assessing The Organizational Fit Of A Just In Time Manufacturing System; Testing Selection, Interaction and System Models Of Contingency Theory, *Accounting Organizations and Society*, Vol. 20, No. 7/8, pp. 665-684.
 - 43) Shane S and Kolvereid L. 1995. National Environment, Strategy, and New Venture Performance; A Three Country Study, *Journal of Small Business Management*, April, p. 37-50.
 - 44) Simerly RL and Li M. 2000. Environmental Dynamism, Capital Structure and Performance: A Theoretical Integration and Empirical Test, *Strategic Management Journal*, 21, p. 31-49
 - 45) Ward PT, Duray R., Leong GL and Sum, CC. 1995. Business Environment, operation strategy and performance: An empirical study of Singapore manufacturers: *Journal of Operation Management*, 13: p. 99-115
 - 46) Weinsten M and Obloj K. 2002. Strategic and environmental determinants of HRM innovations in post socialist Poland, *The International of HRM* 13:4 June, p. 642-659
 - 47) Wilemaker M and Flint D. 2005. Why Does HRM Needs To Be Strategic? A Consideration of Attempts to Link Human Resources & Strategy, *The Business Review*, Cambridge, Summer, 3, 2, p. 259-264.
 - 48) Wright PM and Snell SA. 1991. Toward An Integrative View Of Strategic Human Resource Management, *Human resources Management Review*, Vol. 1, No. 3, p. 203-205

AHP Based Performance Measurement System of Supply Chain

GJMBR Classification
FOR: 150309 150305 150503
GJEL: D81

Ms. Ramaa.A¹ Dr.T.M.Rangaswamy² Dr. K.N.Subramanya³

Abstract-With global competition and an increase emphasis on customer satisfaction, many companies have realized the importance of supply chain management for their survival and competitiveness. It is also well known fact that it is the performance of the supply chain that actually determines the winner, since measuring the performance facilitate a greater understanding of the supply chain, positively influence supply chain players behavior, and improve its overall performance. The biggest challenges the organizations are facing are to systematically order the metrics, integrate the quantitative and qualitative metrics and to link supply chain strategy with performance measurements. The paper analyses the application of AHP method to evaluate the performance of an automotive supply chain. It addresses the various factors to be considered for evaluation of the performance. In this paper the authors have considered 8 important factors for evaluation of performance of a supply chain.

Keywords-Performance measurement; supply chain; analytic hierarchical model(AHP); Multi-criteria decision making (MCDM)

I. INTRODUCTION

In today's scenario, performance measurement of the supply chain is one of the research focuses on supply chain management. Research shows that many enterprises haven't evaluated the overall performance of their supply chains. They are not aware of many of the evaluation indicators. Some enterprises have set some evaluation indicators, but they don't reflect the overall operation performance of the supply chain and bring little effect. It is a severe challenge for supply chain enterprises to set up a scientific and comprehensive performance measurement system of the supply chain. This is important as measuring supply chain performance can facilitate a greater understanding of the supply chain, positively influence supply chain players' behavior, and improve its overall performance [1]. In order to achieve supply chain goal of fulfilling customer orders faster and more efficiently than competitors, a supply chain requires continuous improvements [2]. It demands that effective performance measurements be established, and as such, performance measurement system is required. Many

researchers [2] [3] [4] [5] have proposed measurement systems with performance metrics established from different perspectives. Due to the fact that some measurements are in qualitative format, while others are in quantitative format, it remains a challenge to integrate both types of measurements into one cohesive performance measurement system [4]. Furthermore, there is also a lack of linkage between supply chain strategy and performance measurement. All these challenges will hinder management from making good decisions regarding supply chain, to align with its overall business strategies. There are many approaches to evaluating performance indices system, such as linear weighting methods [6], data envelopment analysis, analytic hierarchy process (AHP) [7], total cost approaches [8], and mathematical programming techniques [9]. AHP is a relatively popular tool for modeling strategic decisions.

In this paper, we are analyzing the various performance measurement systems to identify and highlight some important performance metrics. We proceed to propose an AHP (analytic hierarchy process) based methodology to link a company's performance measurement to its supply chain strategy. This is to help the company to understand which measurement metrics really matter to their business strategy and goals, and ensure measurement is aligned with their strategy.

II. THE ANALYTIC HIERARCHY PROCESS(AHP)

AHP is a commonly used tool for multi-criteria decision-making problems developed by Saaty [10]. One of the main advantages of this method is the relative ease with which it handles multiple criteria. In addition to this, AHP is easier to understand and it can effectively handle both qualitative and quantitative data. The use of AHP does not involve cumbersome mathematics. AHP involves the principles of decomposition, pairwise comparisons, and priority vector generation and synthesis.

The AHP provides a framework to cope up with multiple criteria situations involving tangible and intangible, qualitative and quantitative aspects. It consists of 3 steps:

- i. Decomposing the complex problem into a hierarchy of different levels of elements.
- ii. Using a measurement methodology to establish priorities among the elements.
- iii. Synthesizing the priorities of elements to establish the final decision

To have a better understanding the above process is discussed as follows. First, a complex problem is broken down into sub problems in hierarchical levels, which is a set of criteria or attributes relative to each sub problem. The top level is the goal, and consists of only one element – the

About¹- Ms. Ramaa.A is working as a lecturer in the department of Industrial Engineering and Management, R.V.College of Engineering, Bangalore, India.(Phone. No – 91 80 67178066, email – ramaanadig@gmail.com)

About²- Dr. T.M.Rangaswamy is working as Professor in the department of Industrial Engineering and Management, R.V.College of Engineering, Bangalore, India (rangaswamytm@rvce.edu.in)

About³-Dr. K.N.Subramanya is working as Director- Administration and Professor, Department of Industrial Engineering and Management, R.V.College of Engineering, Bangalore, India (sansa96@gmail.com).

broad, overall objective. Subsequent level may each have several elements. The elements are to be compared with one another against a criterion in the next level, but must be of the same magnitude.

With reference to this paper, the main goal is simply the performance measurement of a supply chain, i.e. to choose the best or optimum supply chain. At the subsequent levels, all the performance measures are listed. We have chosen eight important factors or measures. These are all the criteria necessary to achieve the goal.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

With globalization, invent of new technology and fast pace of change happening in the world, companies are forced to concentrate on their supply chain than their internal operations. Hence supply chain performance measurement plays a vital role in supply chain initiative and improvement. Benita M. Beamon identified three types of performance measures as necessary components in supply chain performance measurement system, e.g. Resources (R), Output (O), and Flexibility (F) [5]. She mentioned that the supply chain performance measurement system must measure each of these three types since each type is vital to the overall performance success of the supply chain, and the result of each measurement affects the others. Some examples from resource performance measures are Total cost, Distribution cost, manufacturing cost, Inventory cost and return on investment. Output measures include Sales, Profit, Fill rate, On-time deliveries, Customer response time, Manufacturing lead time and Customer complaints. Flexibility measurements measure in term of Volume changes, Delivery changes, Mix and New product introduction. The individual measures chosen from each type must coincide with an organization's strategic goals.

Warren H. Hausman claimed that a supply chain needs to perform on three key dimensions: Service, Assets and Speed [2]. He also emphasized that metrics must be tailored to the value proposition of the supply chain.

Felix T.S. Chan and H. J. Qi employed a process-based systematic perspective to build a model to measure the holistic performance of complex supply chains [13]. They applied fuzzy set theory in the performance measuring process.

Stefan Holmberg explained common measurement problems from a systems perspective [14]. He also presented a performance model to reflect the systemic structure of a supply chain and a potential integrator. Apart from measuring cost, speed and customer service level, many business leaders realize the importance of supply chain agility to compete in the continuously changing global business environment.

But all these performance measurement models or systems are not able to link the measurement to organizations' supply chain strategies. They do not point out which measurement metrics are more important than others for execution or for strategies. Therefore it is difficult for supply chain practitioners to focus on those elements that have significant impacts.

IV. PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT OF SUPPLY CHAIN

A. Supply chain strategy and Performance metrics

Different organizations have formed different supply chain management strategies to compete in the market. They have learnt that to be successful, they must be focused, as they cannot be best and outperform their rivals in all areas. Four different supply chain strategies have been adopted by different companies in different times to compete in a given market:

- Responsive Supply Chain
- Efficient Supply Chain
- Lean Supply Chain
- Agile Supply Chain

Efficient supply chain is to coordinate the flow of materials and services so as to minimize inventories and maximize the efficiency of the manufacturers and service providers in the chain.

Responsive supply chain is to react quickly to market demands by positioning inventories and capacities in order to hedge against uncertainties in demand.

Lean supply chain is to develop a value stream in order to eliminate waste. It is centralized on the idea of exploitation of the economics of scale to reduce costs.

Agile supply chain has been characterized to be market sensitive, virtually integrated, network based and process aligned [16]. The whole chain is demand driven, all parties in the chain are virtually connected and information is shared among them. The supply chain partners are collaborative in the business dealings and share common goals. In order to form an effective strategy, a company must understand its core competencies and market requirements. No matter what supply chain strategies are adopted, the performance metrics will help to translate and to enforce the strategy execution. In our research, we have identified eight commonly used supply chain performance measurement attributes and propose a framework for supply chain performance measurement (see Figure 1)

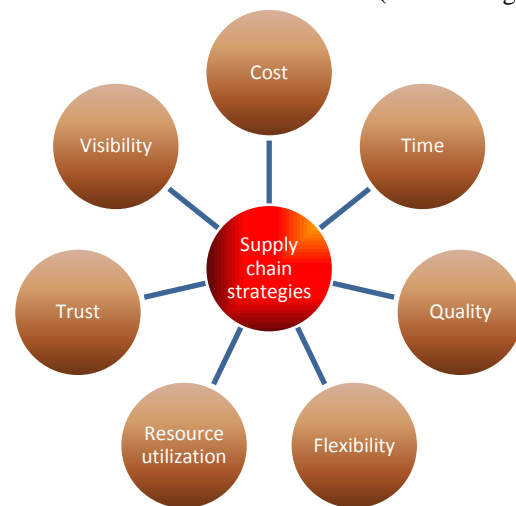


Figure 1. Framework for supply chain Performance Measurement.

Table.1 Supply chain Performance Attributes and Measurement Metrics.

Criteria	Sub criteria level 1	Sub criteria level 2	Performance measurements
Cost	Distribution	High cost Low cost Medium cost Very high cost Very low cost	Transportation and handling cost
	Manufacturing		Labour, rework and maintenance costs. Also they are purchased materials, equipment. Charges and supplier's margin
	Inventory		The work in process and finished goods inventories
	Warehouse		Associated with allocation from one tier to another
	Incentives		Incentives and Taxes
	Intangible		Quality costs, product adaptation or performance costs and coordination.
	Overhead		Total current landed costs
	Sensitivity to long term cost		Productivity and wage charges, exchange rate charges, product design and core competence.
Resource utilization	Labour, machine, capacity and energy.	<30%, 30 – 50%, 50-70%, 70-90%, 90-100%	Investigate the % of excess or lack of that particular resource within a period.
Time	Lead time	Too long, Long, medium, short, very short	The time required once the product began production until the time it is completely processed
	Customer response	High, low, medium	The amount of time between an order and its corresponding delivery
	Cycle time	Too long, long, short, reasonably short	The time required to begin one complete process
	Fill rate	High, Reasonably- high, low	The proportion of orders that can be filled immediately.
Flexibility	Labour	Very high, high, low, very low	The number of tasks a worker can perform
	Machine		The efficiency (time and cost) by using a more flexible machine to the traditional switching over machine.
	Material handling		The number of existing paths between processing centers and the variety of material which can be transported along these paths without incurring high transition penalties or large charges in performance outcome.
	Operation		The number of products which have alternative sequencing plans without incurring high costs or large changes in performance outcome.
	Modification		The number and variety of product modification which are accomplished without high transition penalties or large changes in performance outcome.
	Volume		The extent of change and degree of fluctuation in aggregate output level which the system can accommodate without incurring high costs or large changes in performance outcome.
	Mix		The time required to produce a new product mix OR The number and variety of products which can be produced without incurring high costs or large changes in performance outcome.
	Delivery		The percentage of slack time by which the delivery time can be reduced
Quality	Complain	Too many, many, reasonable, quite low	The number of customer complains registered for a particular time period
	Defects	Very less, less, reasonably less, more, too many	The number of defects produced from the entire process during a time period
	Wastes elimination	Few, medium, more	The use of various techniques such as 5S to eliminate wastes

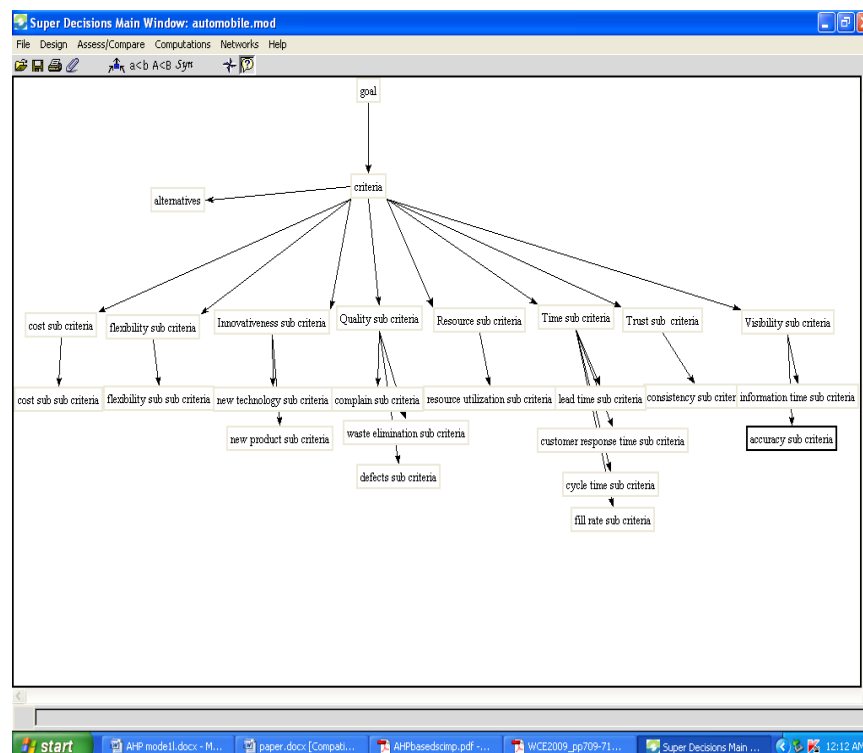
Visibility	Time	Acceptably- long, short, too long, reasonably- long, short,	Time required from when the designer changes his idea to when the product starts being processed in a new way.
	Accuracy	Low, unexpectedly low, satisfactorily high, very high	The % waste of wrong products made after the new design is launched
Trust	Consistency	Good, reasonably good, very good, inconsistent, no consistency	The % of late or wrong delivery to the next tier which led to an inconsistent supply. For late delivery, it is the % of time delayed whereas for wrong delivery, it is the % of returned goods.
Innovativeness	New launch of product	<20%, 20 – 40%, 40-60%, 60-80%, 80-100%	Compare the number of products launched by a particular company within a period.
	New use of technology	T<20%, T20 – 40%, T40-60%, T60-80%, T80-100%	The % decrease in time necessary for producing the same product.

In this framework, we have identified eight important attributes that characterize a supply chain. For different strategy, values of these attributes will be different. For example an efficient supply chain will be focusing on cost where as a lean supply chain will be placing more weightage on waste elimination. With many metrics to be measured it so happens that the company loses focus on which metrics to measure. They may not be able to identify the more important metrics which will help them to be more competitive. Even they know some are more important to their overall business strategy and survival, it is hard to know how much degree that the importance is. Which metrics to be measured should be aligned with supply chain strategy? In order to ensure a company's measurement system aligned with its strategy, it is critical for us to have an approach to help companies to understand their supply

chain strategy. Therefore, we propose Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) in determining the importance of supply chain attributes to a particular supply chain strategy. Table 1 shows the various supply chain performance attributes and metrics at different levels

B. AHP approach

The AHP provides a method to assign numerical values to subjective judgments on the relative importance of each element and then to synthesize the judgments to determine which elements have the highest priority. A high quality computer system/software-Super Decision was used to develop the model and also to conduct a sensitivity analysis of the final ranking list. Figure 2. Shows the screen shot of the AHP model



C. Determining weightage of Attributes with AHP

Calculation of rankings

Once the pairwise comparison is done, the next step is to calculate the priority. The priority of the attributes determines the strategy of the supply chain. Table 2. shows the various priorities of the above mentioned attributes with sub criteria level as calculated by AHP method. In this case this was verified by taking data from different organizations and the model was validated. The values can be changed as per the choice of the organization. Figure 3. shows the screenshot of the ranking of the alternatives for one of the companies.

Table 2. Pairwise comparison scale

Intensity	Definition	Explanation
1	Equal importance	Two factors contribute equally to the objective
3	Moderate importance of one over another	Experience and judgment favor one factor over another
5	Essential or strong importance	Experience and judgment strongly favor one factor over another
7	Very strong importance	An factor is strongly favored and its dominance demonstrated in practice
9	Extreme importance	The evidence of favoring one factor over another is of the highest possible order of affirmation
2, 4, 6, 8 Intermediate values when compromise is needed		

Table 3. Priorities of the attributes

Name	Normalized By Cluster	Limiting
Cost	0.15000	0.060000
Flexibility	0.10000	0.040000
Innovativeness	0.09000	0.036000
Quality	0.20000	0.080000
Resource utilization	0.08000	0.032000
Time	0.25000	0.100000
Trust	0.06000	0.024000
Visibility	0.07000	0.028000
distribution cost	0.12500	0.003750
incentives	0.10300	0.003090
intangible	0.07500	0.002250
inventory	0.08600	0.002580
long term cost	0.09100	0.002730
manufacturing cost	0.30600	0.009180
overhead cost	0.05200	0.001560
raw material cost	0.10100	0.003030
warehouse cost	0.06100	0.001830
high cost	0.15584	0.004675
low cost	0.25518	0.007655
medium cost	0.21531	0.006459
Very high cost	0.09484	0.002845
very low cost	0.27884	0.008365
delivery flexibility	0.18081	0.003616
labour flexibility	0.19381	0.003876
Machine flexibility	0.12886	0.002577
Material handling flexibility	0.01300	0.000260
Mix flexibility	0.07690	0.001538
Modification flexibility	0.01900	0.000380
Operation flexibility	0.19381	0.003876
Volume flexibility	0.19381	0.003876
high flexibility	0.45163	0.009033
low flexibility	0.17419	0.003484
very high flexibility	0.26774	0.005355
very low flexibility	0.10644	0.002129
New product	0.50000	0.009000
New Technology	0.50000	0.009000
<20%	0.10000	0.000900
20%-40%	0.15000	0.001350

40%-60%	0.25000	0.002250
60%-80%	0.30000	0.002700
80%-100%	0.20000	0.001800
<i>T<20%</i>	<i>0.10000</i>	<i>0.000900</i>
<i>T20-40%</i>	<i>0.15000</i>	<i>0.001350</i>
<i>T40 -60%</i>	<i>0.25000</i>	<i>0.002250</i>
<i>T60-80%</i>	<i>0.30000</i>	<i>0.002700</i>
<i>T80-100%</i>	<i>0.20000</i>	<i>0.001800</i>
complain	0.33333	0.013333
defects	0.33333	0.013333
wastes elimination	0.33333	0.013333
many complains	0.09000	0.001200
quite low	0.50004	0.006667
reasonable no of complains	0.39998	0.005333
too many complains	0.00998	0.000133
<i>less defects</i>	<i>0.30001</i>	<i>0.004000</i>
<i>more defects</i>	<i>0.06998</i>	<i>0.000933</i>
<i>reasonably less defects</i>	<i>0.15000</i>	<i>0.002000</i>
<i>too many defects</i>	<i>0.03000</i>	<i>0.000400</i>
<i>very less defects</i>	<i>0.45001</i>	<i>0.006000</i>
few actions	0.14999	0.002000
medium actions	0.35001	0.004667
more actions	0.50000	0.006667
capacity utilization	0.40000	0.006400
Energy utilization	0.10000	0.001600
Machine utilization	0.25000	0.004000
Man power utilization	0.25000	0.004000
<30%	0.03000	0.000480
30-50%	0.10750	0.001720
50-70%	0.24000	0.003840
70-90%	0.39750	0.006360
90-100%	0.22500	0.003600
customer response time	0.15412	0.007706
cycle time	0.26973	0.013486
fill rate	0.22936	0.011468
Lead time	0.34679	0.017339
high response time	0.10004	0.000771
low response time	0.59997	0.004624
medium response time	0.29999	0.002312
<i>long cycle time</i>	<i>0.25004</i>	<i>0.003372</i>
<i>reasonably short cycle time</i>	<i>0.30001</i>	<i>0.004046</i>
<i>short cycle time</i>	<i>0.39997</i>	<i>0.005394</i>
<i>too long cycle time</i>	<i>0.04998</i>	<i>0.000674</i>
high fill rate	0.50000	0.005734
low fill rate	0.14998	0.001720
reasonably high fill rate	0.30005	0.003441
reasonably low fill rate	0.04997	0.000573
<i>acceptably long</i>	<i>0.15000</i>	<i>0.002601</i>
<i>long</i>	<i>0.07001</i>	<i>0.001214</i>
<i>reasonably long</i>	<i>0.10000</i>	<i>0.001734</i>
<i>reasonably short</i>	<i>0.30000</i>	<i>0.005202</i>
<i>short</i>	<i>0.35000</i>	<i>0.006069</i>
<i>too long</i>	<i>0.02999</i>	<i>0.000520</i>
consistency	1.00000	0.012000
good consistency	0.30000	0.003600
Inconsistent	0.08000	0.000960
No consistent	0.02000	0.000240
reasonably good consistency	0.20000	0.002400
very good consistency	0.40000	0.004800
Accuracy	0.50000	0.007000
Information Time	0.50000	0.007000
low accuracy	0.10000	0.000700

Satisfactorily high accuracy	0.35000	0.002450
unexpectedly low accuracy	0.05000	0.000350
Very high accuracy	0.50000	0.003500
long time	0.07000	0.000490
medium time	0.25000	0.001750
short time	0.35000	0.002450
too long time	0.03000	0.000210
very short time	0.30000	0.002100

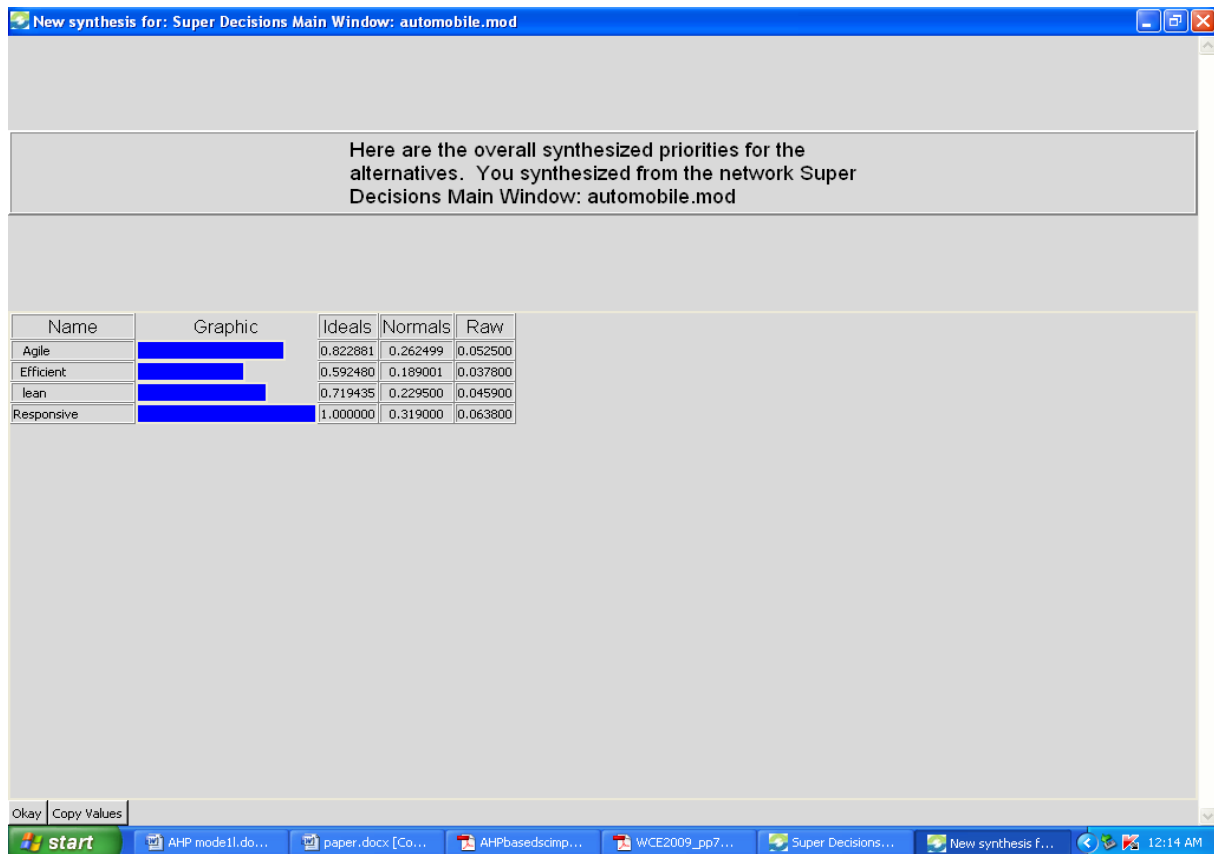


Figure 3. Priorities of the alternatives

V. CONCLUSION

The performance measurement of supply chain is a new research direction of supply chain management. In recent years, people have been studying the effectiveness of supply chain management. Enterprises put a lot of money into organizing and setting up the supply chain system, but how to evaluate the operation performance of the supply chain system is an urgent problem needing to be solved. Researchers of this sector still lack a unified approval. In this paper, we apply Analytic Hierarchy Model to analyze the priorities of the eight important factors which affect the whole supply chain performance. This provide basis for studying how to improve the operation performance of the supply chain and implementing performance measurement of the supply chain.

VI. REFERENCES

- 1) Chen, I.J. and Paulraj, A., "Understanding supply chain management: critical research and a theoretical framework", International Journal of Production Research, Vol. 42 No. 1, pp.131-163, 2004.
- 2) Hausman, Warren H., "Supply chain performance metrics", a chapter in "The practice of supply chain management", edited by Corey Billington, Terry H.,
- 3) Laura X. et al., "Performance Metrics Design Framework for Software Focused Products and Services Supply Chain", INDIN05, IEEE International Conference on Industrial Informatics, CD-ROM, 2005.
- 4) Shepherd, C. and Gunter, H., "Measuring supply chain performance: current research and future

- directions”, *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, Vol. 55 No.3/4, pp.242-258, 2006.
- 5) Beamon, B. M., “Measuring Supply Chain Performance”, *International Journal of Operations and Production Management*, Vol.19, No. 3, pp.275-292, 1999.
 - 6) Grando A, Sianesi A, “Supply management: a vendor rating assessment”, *CEMS Business Review*, Vol 1, No.1, pp. 199 -212, January 1996.
 - 7) Wang Ting, Yi Shuping, and Yang Yuanzhao, “Performance evaluation method for business process of machinery manufacturer based on DEA/AHP hybrid model”, *Chinese journal of mechanical engineering*, Vol 20, No. 3, pp. 91-97, March 2007.
 - 8) Monezka RM, and Trecha SJ, “Cost-based supplier performance evaluation”, *Journal of Purchasing and Materials Management*, Vol 24, No. 2, pp. 2-7, February 1998.
 - 9) Das C, and Tyagi R, “Wholesaler: a decision support system for wholesale procurement and distribution”, *International Journal of Physical Distribution and Logistics Management*, vol 24, No. 10, pp. 4- 12, October 1994.
 - 10) Saaty, T. L. *Analytic Hierarchy Process*, vol. 2 *Decision Making for Leaders*. Vol. II of the AHP Series Thomas L. Saaty, 315 pp., RWS Publ. (new ed.), 2001.
 - 11) Saaty, T. L. *Relative Measurement and Its Generalization in Decision Making. Why Pairwise Comparisons are Central in Mathematics for the Measurement of Intangible Factors. The Analytic Hierarchy/Network Process*. *Rev. R. Acad. Cien. Serie A. Mat.* VOL. 102 (2), 2008, pp. 251–318.
 - 12) Supply-chain Council (1996), ‘Supply-chain Operations Reference-model’, USA.
 - 13) Felix T.S. Chan and H. J. Qi, ‘An innovative performance measurement method for supply chain management’, *Supply Chain Management*, 8, ¾, ABI/INFORM Global, 2003, pp.209.
 - 14) Stefan H., ‘A systems perspective on supply chain measurements’, *International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management*, vol.30, Iss.10, 2000, pp.847.
 - 15) Yusuf, Y.Y., Ren, J., Burns, N. D., 2001 “A method or evaluating enterprise agility – an empirical study” *Proceedings of the 16th International Conference on Productions Research*, 29 July – 3 August 2001.
 - 16) Christopher, M, & Towill, D. R., “Supply chain migration from lean and functional to agile and customized”, *Supply Chain Management*, 5, 206-213

Life-Based Design - An Approach to Design for Life

Pertti Saariluoma¹ Jaana Leikas²

GJMBR Classification
FOR: 150307,150311
GJEL: D23,033

Abstract-The analysis of human life can as well from the beginning of human-technology interaction design as technological considerations. In this paper, we present a design paradigm called life-based design. Its basic concept and tool is the form of life (FoL). Forms of life are combinations of rule-following actions (RFA:s) with such attributes as biological, psychological and socio-cultural facts and values that people follow. The crucial innovative step in life-based design is the transformation of the rule-following actions into technology-supported actions (TSA:s). Life-based design thus presents a way to ground technology development on the investigation of life. Indeed, this is logical as technology is always for life and only for life.

Keywords-Life-based design, interaction design, forms of life

I. INTRODUCTION

The intellectual challenge human technology interaction design has to meet is becoming increasingly complex. The new forms of technologies and the increasing need to develop new ICT services make it necessary to develop new ways of approaching the HTI-design issues. When decades ago the main challenge of ICT development was to make programming easier, the challenge we are facing today is to find good ways for ordinary people to easily adapt to and use the increasing number of ICT-services. One essential problem for design is to find ways to cope with the problems of the earliest phase of the design process. We have today a good understanding of how to develop technologies as we now have a fairly good idea of user needs and know how to invent uses for emerging technologies [7, 9]. We also understand quite a lot about designing immediate ways of using technologies and analyzing user behaviour in the interaction process. We have even tools to solve emotional problems in the design [5, 8], something that is becoming increasingly important in HTI design. However, there is still work to be done with investigating how to incorporate new technologies to everyday life and how to derive design goals from the human research based on analysis of life.

All technologies are meant to improve the quality of human life. This means that they can be seen as tools which allow people to easier reach the goals they set for their life. These goals can be life sustaining, such as earning one's living or

protecting one's cattle under difficult conditions, or focus on keeping well-off older adults physically and mentally active and in this way save in social and health care costs. However, in addition to these types of goals people may also be focused on lighter goals such as entertaining themselves and leisure time in general. The primary issue here is that people have goals in their everyday life and technologies should enable the implementation of these goals. Thus the ultimate justification for technology is to improve human life. The fact that technologies are instruments and tools for improving life raises an immediate scientific problem within the human-technology interaction research. The problem is to understand how the knowledge of life can be used to derive goals for interaction design and requirements for developing ICT products and services. Today, a common approach to interaction design is to search for new kinds of uses for novel technologies. In a sense this kind of an approach can lead to good practice [9]. However, it is possible also to develop a complementary approach to interaction and technology design thinking.

One of the obvious characteristics of human-technology interaction design has been the disproportionate attention it has paid to immediate use rather than to the role of technology in people's everyday life. Much more work has been done to develop knowledge of how people can use technical devices than to understand why they actually use or wish to use them. However, people are not necessarily interested in placing their pin codes in cash dispensers and payment terminals. Instead, they are interested in getting their money and paying bills. They are not interested in controlling DVDs but in watching movies. Therefore, the latter kinds of *life actions* define the position of technology in human life. We can take these life actions as the first step in our design instead of only focusing on user interface design and immediate *use actions* in specific situations.

It is possible to start interaction design with the analysis of human life and derive both interaction requirements and technological requirements from this research. This can and should be carried out without any specific idea about the type of technologies to be used to realize the given goals. As will be argued later on, this radical approach to interaction design provides also suitable grounds for solving user interface challenges.

There is no obstacle to starting the design by concentrating on everyday life and only after that on technologies which could be used to solve the problems that are found. We are often used to think more or less traditionally, i.e. in terms of technology development, because usually it is technology that we see as the hard problem. Moreover, we do not have any clear conceptual approach to asking questions about

About¹-University of Jyväskylä P.O.Box 3540014 University of Jyväskylä, Finland+358 14 260 3095 E-Mail-ps@jyu.fi

About¹-VTT Technical Research Centre of Finland
P.O.Box 1300 33101 Tampere, Finland +358 20 722 3385
E-Mail-jaana.leikas@vtt.fi

designing for life or designing the life itself in the context of interaction design. This is why we present in this paper a metatheoretical and practical approach to basing interaction design on the analysis of human life. We think that such an approach can be useful and clarify the design of ICT products and services.

Human-technology interaction design which begins with the analysis of life can be called life-based design [6]. No longer does it examine interaction as an immediate capacity to use technology; it sets a broader task for the design. The goal of interaction design is to place technologies in the context of everyday life. This means designing new opportunities for people with the help of technical devices and services. Thus, life-based design signifies designing for life or even designing of life.

II. METASCIENCE OF LIFE-BASED DESIGN IN BRIEF

'Life' is a very versatile phenomenon. This is the basic difficulty when we work to conceptualize it metaphorically for the purposes of design research. Life is a huge mass of something, which must be captured in a clear concept if we wish to construct a sense making approach to interaction design. Indeed, the core problem of life-based design thinking is to find a system of basic concept, which can be used on a general level to investigate life-based technology design.

Of course, all technology design today is implicitly based on life, but the level of analysis of life can be very shallow and intuitive. For a designer it is hardly possible to consider technology development without considering life, consciously or unconsciously, as the user and life are always constructed inside technical solutions. There is no technology that would exist outside life. The important question is whether we analyse life only through our everyday knowledge, intuitively and without conceptually separating different elements of life, or whether we carry this analysis out scientifically with the help of a systematic methodology. Technology design begins ideally with a thorough analysis of life which gives information about human action goals, and the relevant needs and the ways people have learned to carry out their activities. In this way, it is possible to see clearly the position of the new technology in human life and life activities.

When designing the metascience of some industrial procedure, we should define the relevant concepts and practices. However, these concepts should be so general that they could effectively be applied in solving all types of design problems [2]. The conceptual system and respective practices should genuinely give new understanding to the design problems in hand. In the current case, we should find a conceptualization which makes sense in designing interaction processes in the context of machine as well as in the context of ICT design processes. Yet, the conceptualization should have power of expression so that the new approach would make it possible for the designers to improve their understanding of life.

The second important challenge is that the new conceptualization should serve as a ground for designing interaction design processes. This means that metalanguage

or theory languages of interaction design should truly guide the design processes: i.e., a framework which aids the designers in their work should be found. Much work has been done to develop the theory languages for such sciences as physics, but much less attention has so far been called to metascience of design. The obvious reason is that design has been seen as a practical activity and metatheories have easily been seen as tools for increasing self-understanding of theoretical and basic science [2, 13].

Nevertheless, drawing a sharp border between special sciences and science-based activities such as medicine, engineering or interaction design can never be well justified. Physics is a practical activity and its metatheory is intended to improve self-understanding of scientists. Similarly, one can investigate how to improve self-understanding of interaction designers. This means explicating the tacit and intuitive aspects of the practice in the form of a theory language.

III. BASIC CONCEPT – FORM OF LIFE

Life itself is a multifaceted, versatile and an endlessly varying phenomenon with countless of dimensions along which it can be examined. This is why life as such cannot be a core concept for technology design. We have to find a concept which could help us to differentiate and accurately define the main interaction-relevant dimensions of life. In order to gain understanding on where to go and which aspects to stress in the product design from the user's point of view, it is crucial to understand how the users perceive and live their everyday life, and what kinds of restrictions and incentives there are hidden in human daily actions.

Our life, to a great extent, is characterized by different kinds of regularities. We usually follow these regularities in similar situations. We have dinners with friends, we go for a walk or take the car and drive to work, for example. These different regularities can be referred to as rules that people follow in their actions. They can be officially fixed, as in the case of tacit social rules at the work place, or juridically determined, as traffic codes are, but most often they are just ways to act in life. [6.]

The rules and regularities in our life are not autonomous but relate to each other, thus combining together different systems and codes. Tennis players, for example, often belong to a club, participate in tournaments and talk about games with others. Spanish families have often social lunches together on Sundays whereas in Finland where many people ski and take a sauna during the weekend this is rare. Retired people may look for theatre trips, concerts and tours for "sunny seniors". On the other hand, some older people may not be too social and wish to stay at home playing patience, looking TV or just spending time by themselves.

The regularities in our life might not be easy to see as regularities, but hardly are they mechanical rules, either. Very often we follow certain rules, but make exceptions in them as well. We may leave our habits or may temporarily modify them. This is why it is good to speak about regularities and rules only in a relative sense. We are not

slaves of our habits: we are used to follow the habits when they create structure to our lives in a positive way.

It is interesting to see that human deeds are not totally unrelated, but often form clusters. This means that some regular actions are linked together, and thus our action gets organized forms. Most of us read the paper while drinking morning coffee. Many of us pay the bills by means of a computer. Many of us make holiday trips. All these activities entail numerous regular sub-actions. Tourists, for example, fly or drive to their destination, use travel agency services, make a reservation at a hotel or a camping site and generally search for means of changing their everyday routines. Indeed, it is worthwhile to examine human life in the form of organized rule following actions.

This kind of combination of rules and regularities that directs what people do may be called 'a form of life' (FoL) following Wittgenstein's analysis of language [15]. This notion has been used as a part of sociological discourse [1, 3], but should not be studied only from a sociological perspective. In addition to social elements, our life is determined and shaped by many biological and psychological factors. Only by understanding how the basic and interrelated factors are combined and how they make sense as a whole can we understand how and why people participate in different forms of life and what is the structure of the forms of life. These elements together influence the different possibilities we might have to shape our life and the possible choices we make as well as the contents we create to manage, e.g., our lifestyle. Form of life is thus any organized set of rules and regularities that people follow when they participate in this particular form of life.

A form of life is not always a voluntary choice for an individual. Often it just exists around us and we simply participate in it. We do not choose the form of life but we are "thrown" into it. For example, Swedish-speaking Finns are brought up to follow the rules of the form of life of their community. This particular form of life has influenced these people to make them more socially skilled compared to Finns and Swedes in general, and the studies show that they consequently also live longer [4].

In fact, the number of forms of life for human beings is unlimited. For example, golfers and older adults participate in different forms of life. However, some of them may also share the same form of life, the one of senior golfers. These same people may yet participate in other forms of life, for example that of democrats, bird-watchers, slow-food lovers, grandparents or parents of a disabled child, and again they might share these forms of life with other groups of people.

The rules of forms of life are not mechanical. For example, an art lover may neglect a recent exhibition of Rembrandt because she is travelling at that time or because she prefers contemporary art. In this case the form of life of a traveller becomes more important to her for that moment. Also, a traditional way of spending Christmas together with a family and relatives and the habits that are included in it are a part of a form of life. However, in some year a person may decide to escape all the hassle and spend the Christmas time e.g., on a sunny beach in the Southern Europe.

People can have very diverse forms of life. Wittgenstein [15] created this notion in order to establish the basics for his theory of language games. He noticed that people follow linguistic behaviours, which consist of a relevant subsection of language and the actions into which the language is woven. The language game of a sports enthusiast, for example, is different from that of a medical officer, although also the medical officer might be a sports enthusiast. The meaning of language depends thus on the action context.

Forms of life are seldom individual, as they are shared by numerous people. This is why it makes sense to examine them when developing technologies. When a group of people follow the same habits in an organized manner the knowledge of these actions is useful in the design.

Forms of life can be private or public. When a number of people behave following the same or similar rules in a social context and are thus unified by sharing these rules, we can say that they participate in the same form of life. This form of life has its mental representations with respective mental contents as well as external expressions in the action patterns that these particular people follow. Ice hockey players, for example, share their sporty way of life. They belong to the same age cohort, exercise every day, share the same aches in the body, travel to different cities together to play the game, share the publicity and after-game-sessions, and participate in a hockey player's form of life in many other ways, too.

On the whole, the form of life covers the system of different subcultures that individuals participate in, the meanings and objective conditions they share, the way of experiencing life, and the mode of doing things. In an everyday level, forms of life are realized by the intuitive and intentional actions and everyday activity that people perform based on their specific interests in life. The outcome of one's everyday activity consists of individual and shared experiences, which on a subjective and objective level describe the materialisation of one's form of life.

Sometimes, although forms of life are not communicative, people may follow the same patterns, being ignorant of each other while doing so. They perhaps know that other people share the same forms of life, but they do not have to be in any communicative relation with each other. E.g., being unemployed or being rich are examples of this. Sometimes forms of life are highly communicative as in the case of family life. Sometimes they are hybrid as in the case of belonging to a national culture. This means that the forms of life are not unified by communication but by the information contents of action patterns and respective mental representations. [10.]

IV. THE STRUCTURE AND USE OF A FORM OF LIFE

Because human life follows regular patterns of action, the main conceptual characteristic of a form of life consists of rule-following actions. The regularities of life can thus be called the rule-following actions (RFA), and any form of life is a system of RFA:s [6, 10]. Consequently, rule-following actions form the basis of analyzing interaction processes. To understand some concrete form of life we have to be able to explicate its structure. This means describing the rule

following actions and explaining how they are combined with each other. For example, when travelling by train we normally carry out a set of actions: we buy tickets, go to the station, search the seat in a coach, depending on the system of transport let the conductor check the ticket, and we may even use the buffet car for lunch before finally leaving the train. This means that a relatively simple system such as travelling by train entails a number of rule following actions.

When we analyse the process of travelling by train as a form of life, we can investigate why the rule-following actions make sense. We need a ticket because the train company needs money for providing its services. This is why the conductors are required to make sure that all passengers have paid for their trip. To have a ticket, we have to buy it. Clearly, the form of life has its structure and all the elements have their reasons to exist in that particular form of life.

Mere explication of the rule-following actions is not sufficient. In order to find the logic of regularities of the actions, we have to understand why the different actions make sense and why they have the particular form in this context. If we think, for example, about the Spanish Easter week processions, we may conclude that they consist of essentially nothing else but wandering around the city. Still the form of walking in the street has many differentiating characteristics. People are dressed up, they play music, and they carry big statues of the Christ and the Virgin Mary. All these differentiating details come understandable when we examine the religious nature of the event and the basic idea behind this cultural festivity. This means that we have to have explanatory knowledge of the rule-following actions instead of merely illustrating them. We have to understand what are the cultural, social and psychological facts and values that would explain the form of a certain action.

The developer should have a clear idea about what kinds of features constitute these actions in the light of facts and values so that it would be possible to have an extensive understanding about the goals of people. Thus, a starting point is in perceiving human needs. This is a different approach to user needs, and should not be separated from the inspection of people's everyday life in general. In general, human activity starts from becoming aware of one's needs and making plans for satisfying these needs. For this reason, it is important to study and understand people's needs. The needs of people are connected with emotions and together these two aspects define the personal value that people set for things and artefacts in their life. In this sense, feelings, emotions and motives open up a new angle of view into design. So first, in the light of form of life descriptions, we must ask what the new technology is needed for. After this, we have to examine how this technology can support the actions of people and the way people wish to achieve their goals.

From the analysis of rule-following actions and the related and relevant facts and values concerning the form of life we may extract the design-relevant attributes for the design problem at hand. For example, we may notice that train passengers often are forced to stand in long queues to get their tickets. This takes time and the passengers may

become irritated. From the design point of view this means that something should be changed to improve the procedure of purchasing a ticket, if it were possible. However, the change presupposes a step from action to technology used for the accomplishment of this action.

V. GENERATION OF DESIGN IDEAS: TECHNOLOGY-SUPPORTED ACTIONS

Forms of life are systems of integrated and organized actions, which we call here rule-following actions. It is clear that rule-following actions can be supported by technologies. We go often to our vacations by car, and therefore, the car is a technology that can be used to support travelling on vacation. Technology is connected to life by supporting human actions relevant in some form of life.

It is essential to make one additional distinction still. There can be many rule-following actions which do not need any technological support. However, it is very common that we can use some technology to improve our performance when carrying out a rule-following action. There are thus two kinds of rule-following actions, and the ones which can be supported by technology can be referred to as technology-supported actions [6, 10]. Technology supported actions, in short TSAs, are thus actions which are realized with the help of technology. These actions are important in deriving design ideas from the forms of life. They are defined with the help of design-relevant attributes, i.e., the meaningful rule-following actions and form of life attributes (facts about people's life and values they follow) in this particular context. Once we have investigated a form of life, found the rule-following actions and FoL attributes, and derived design-relevant attributes from them, we can begin to think how we could support some of these actions with a technology. It is these target actions that are called technology-supported actions.

Technology-supported actions should consist of elements relevant to the generation of design ideas. These elements are 1) the action and its goal, 2) the agent, 3) the context, and 4) possible technology [6]. This categorization is characteristic to all human actions.

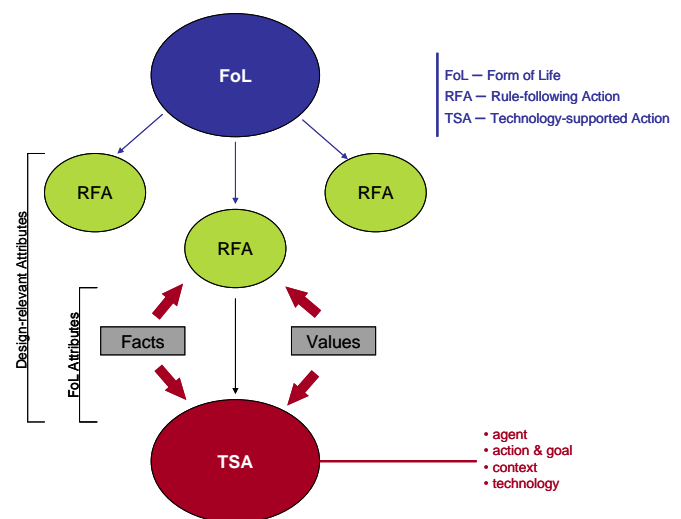


Figure 1: Generation of design ideas from a form of life.

These pieces of knowledge describe the problem and issues that need investigation in order to create a description of a technically supported action. For example, if we are interested in a service or a portal which could provide information for senior citizens' needs, we have to describe the senior citizens' needs for such a service. This means that we have to describe the actions that the users are supposed to carry out with the application. In addition, we need descriptions of older adults as users of technology (or human agents), and of their context of use. Finally, we need a description of the technology by which the service could possibly be realized, e.g., by mobile and fixed Internet. [6.]

The knowledge that we need in order to make the TSA descriptions can be obtained by analysing the attributes of the form of life. For example, the factual knowledge or the facts which were presented earlier would be helpful in describing the agents in TSAs. Also, value attributes have a central role in this discourse. They are necessary in analysing the goals of the agents and in deciding what would be the best way to reach these goals be, from the user's point of view. As already said, TSAs together with meaningful rule-following actions for this context constitute the design-relevant attributes.

If we think about the queuing in railway stations discussed above, we can get an idea how rule-following actions are changed into technology supported actions. Queuing is troublesome for travellers, and selling tickets is expensive for companies. Therefore, it is a good idea to develop technology which could solve these problems. There are today ticket vending machines to buy the ticket from. One can also buy the ticket in the Internet. In both cases, the traveller can avoid the queues and the companies can cut the costs.

In this way, technology transforms rule-following actions into technology-supported actions. This is a vital innovation step further in the design. There is no mechanical means to carry out this transformation. Nevertheless, analysing forms of life to extract rule-following actions and investigating their facts and values to find problem points gives a solid basis for the early phase interaction design.

Deriving user needs and descriptions by analysing forms of life and rule-following actions and transforming them into technology-supported actions in product and service concepts may be thought as the basic description of the interaction design process. The most important thing here is that the concepts considered make the innovation and creativity in interaction convergent [12]. This means that we can define accurate problems and concentrate on designing solutions for these precisely defined problems. This decreases the unwanted desire to reformulate the problems in order to find an easier solution for them. Convergent creativity is in many ways suitable for life-based design [6]. The contents of the problems are derived from the content of the technology-supported actions. This keeps the contents of a form of life actively inside the actual design thinking.

VI. PEOPLE NET – A CASE

A concrete example of life-based design might clarify the discussion above. People-Net is a human-technology

approach driven service net and learning tool for uneducated people in Africa, Southern America and Asia [11]. It is a service concept designed to ensure access for the target population to concrete how-to-knowledge information they need for improving their lives. The key idea is to exploit mobile internet technologies, focusing on human action-oriented and culturally-sensitive ISD initiatives. The practices of open access, open innovation and open source communities are especially fertile for developing ecologically valid, practical answers to concrete problems of poor and uneducated people in their environments. The concept of People-Net is intended to connect people with critical knowledge resources regarding their every-day activities. The core of this project is to define the technology for service development. People-Net is striving to commence the developmental work for design improvements and adoption. The aim is to elaborate suitable interfaces and effective interaction modes to make the use of technology sufficiently attractive and simple even for uneducated citizens.

When designing People-Net we can first extract some forms of life which are important for poor people. Marketing one's products, getting water, and taking care of animals are good examples of these. Additional examples could be foreign jobs, details of bank loans, and insurance policies, but also there is interest in national policies and cultural and world affairs [14]. People need information about what to do with the nutrition of the animals, how they could best take care of their cattle in case of illnesses, or where they can find cheap medicine. They can find ways of supporting their animals by rational, constructive work within their possibilities. All these actions are rule-following actions.

The main idea of People-Net is that poverty is often intimately connected with the lack of knowledge. The goal of People-Net is to support people to improve their life conditions by means of getting the necessary knowledge. Thus the People-Net tool is based on one's own activity in improving one's own life.

The next question is how we could bring the necessary information to the users. One answer is voluntary and open access work. We need sufficient technology to support ICT people who are interested in voluntary work. This technology would enable them to think what could be done on voluntary bases to improve the life of the poor people in conditions which very probably are almost unknown to these ICT professionals. These conditions could, hopefully, be modified by the effort and innovation of ICT and other professionals, such as veterinary experts.

The last problem in this outlined life-based ICT-design process is to find suitable technologies. It is possible to use many possible tools. There are really cheap technologies available, such as map services, mobile devices, and computers. It is indeed possible to connect experts and poor people to each other to solve problems of poverty together. The solving of the problems of the world's poor people can be realized by creating technology-supported actions. How this can be carried out in a concrete way is not evident at this stage. Nevertheless, following the ideas of life-based design it is important in the first place to design for life.

When a sufficient level of details and strictly constructed TSA:s are created, one can develop technical solutions to the given goals on the basis of the gathered data.

We can now briefly consider the process of designing People-Net, employing the concepts of life-based design for the task. Firstly, to accept that living in poverty is a form of life is the beginning of our work. Then we can investigate the rule-following actions and their properties. Of course, country people have many specific daily actions they have to take care of. For example, the actions of keeping cattle and growing crops have numerous subactions, which poor people can or cannot carry out in a well-founded manner, due to the knowledge or lack of it and the resources they have. Taking care of sick animals is one of the problems. Often people do not know what to do with sick animals in a modern sense as they lack the knowledge they would need in these situations. Thus there is a problem of carrying out the necessary rule-following actions. However, in some cases modern ICT-technology can help these people to find knowledge-based methods for solving their problems. Thus designing a concept plan for how to use technologies in these cases would transform the original rule-following actions into technology-supported actions in which ICT technology could be used to acquire the knowledge of best practices.

Life-based design can be used to search and solve numerous problem points in the lives of poor people. Of course, it can equally well be used to solve problems in the lives of rich people. The most important thing is that we have a clear and rich understanding of the form of life and the rule-following actions. Through the analysis of these we can identify focal problem points and find solutions for them.

VII. FINAL COMMENTS

It is important to see that life-based design is a holistic approach. This means that, fundamentally, all design issues are biologically, psychologically and socio-culturally motivated. The design may, for example, concern biological changes and health in aging, but it should at the same time focus on the cognitive capacity as well as the values and goals of people in order to tackle the design holistically. We need this holistic information when solving design issues for the benefit of people's lives. For example, it is not sufficient to think about the parameters of a screen or input devices only from the viewpoint of usability. When designing user interfaces and interaction as a whole we have to be aware of and sensitive to the biological, psychological and social restrictions and possibilities of the target group. This means considering, for example, such issues as self-efficacy and sense of coherence of people. Besides, when we look at the design challenges at a larger scale from the point of view of life-based design, we understand that user interfaces are only one piece of the whole design challenge in the interaction design. There are also many others to consider if we strive for improving the quality of life of people with the help of technology. These are issues that arise from the forms of life of people and the role of technology in improving these forms of life.

Many problems may be associated with cognitive psychology or the psychology of emotions. We can investigate log information to see why people stop using some interfaces or why they drop out from e-learning courses. The first type of problem may be cognitive and eventually be related to comprehension; the latter types of problems are emotional.

If we think of a service such as People-Net, we can see that in solving design problems we need social and anthropological information. For example, we need to know how poor people really live to find means to positively aid them in their everyday life with the help of knowledge and support for self-help rather than money. We have to know their beliefs and how rational they are. The main thing is that the lack of knowledge could be decreased and possibilities for supporting the exercise of agency and coping in life could be improved to enhance the quality of life of these people.

One may think that all design is life-based. As all technologies are used in the context of life, what is the new view that life-based design can offer compared to current ICT design practices? If we design a ship, it is intended to take people from one harbor to another and it thus contributes to human life. Implicitly, normal engineering design connects technology with life and is thus life-based.

Nevertheless, this point of view misses two important things. Firstly, though foundational work often explicates implicit practices, it is not senseless. The situation is the same as with linguistics. If we work to abstract the structures of a language and construct a grammar, we do not bring about something that has never before existed in that language. However, grammars are valuable as they make the structure of language explicit for us. Similarly, explicating important forms of design thinking improve our understanding of design processes.

Human beings have always had a position in human-technology interaction research, but the explication of human-centered design has made the analysis of human interaction with technologies more visible. Life-based design is another explicitly defined way of designing human-technology interaction. It provides concepts and procedures to carry out design in an organized manner.

The second reason for explicating the tacit intuitions in technology designers' thinking in the area of HTI is to make the practices visible. We can investigate explicated design procedures systematically, look what is their ideal form and ask how they could best be developed. Intuitive and visionary practices cannot be rationally discussed and developed. They are more credos than scientific practices.

We have to accept that interaction design is an extremely complex process. It is one of the largest endeavors mankind has taken for itself and we are just in the beginning of it. However, we need to accept that technology is for life, and therefore understanding life is important also as the first step of technology design.

VIII. REFERENCES

- 1) Bauman, Z. *Sosiologinen ajattelu* [Sociological thinking]. Translation Jyrki Vainonen. Vastapaino, Tampere, 1997. In Finnish.
- 2) Bunge, M. *Scientific research I-II*. Springer, Berlin, 1967.
- 3) Giddens, A. (1990). *Yhteiskuntateorian keskeisiä ongelmia* [Central problems of social theory]. Otava, Helsinki, 1990. In Finnish.
- 4) Hyypä, M. T. and Mäki, J. Social participation and health in a community rich in stock of social capital. *Health education research* 2003, 18, 770-779
- 5) Jordan, P. W., *Designing pleasurable products*. Taylor & Francis, London, 2000.
- 6) Leikas, J. *Life-Based Design - A holistic approach to designing human-technology interaction*. VTT Publications 726. Edita Prima Oy, Helsinki, 2009.
- 7) Nielsen, J. *Usability engineering*. Academic Press, London, 1993.
- 8) Norman, D. *Emotional design: why we love or hate everyday things*. Basic Books, New York, 2004.
- 9) Rosson, M.B. and Carroll, J.M. *Usability engineering: scenario-based development of human-computer interaction*. Morgan Kaufmann, San Mateo, CA, 2002.
- 10) Saariluoma, P. and Leikas, J. (submitted). Human-technology interaction and the forms of life. *Technology in Society*.
- 11) Saariluoma, P., Maksimainen, J. and Helfenstein, S. Introduction to the concept People-Net – a learning tool and service net for poor and undereducated people. *Asia-Pacific Collaborative Education Journal*, 2009, Vol.5, No.2, 63-80.
- 12) Saariluoma, P., Nevala, K. and Karvinen, M. Modes in design engineering. In Gero, J. (Ed.), *Cognition, computation and design*. Springer, Berlin, 2006.
- 13) Stegmüller, W. *The structure and dynamics of theories*. Springer, Berlin, 1976.
- 14) Wenger, E. *Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning and Identity*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, 1998.
- 15) Wittgenstein, L. *Philosophical Investigations*. Macmillan, New York, 1953.

Integrated Management Systems: Quality, Environment and Health & Safety – Future Approach for Any Organization, Especially For Sme_s

Carmen Hmelnițchi

GJMBR Classification
FOR:150313,150401,
GJEL: I11,I32,K32,Q56

Abstract-Dynamism of economical activities at international level, economical globalisation and the focusing on assuring a durable development imply major conception changes. For survival in so competitive environment, SMEs could approach an integrated management system: both quality management system (compliant with ISO 9001 requirements) and environment management system (compliant with ISO 14001 requirements), but the health and safety management system (compliant with OHSAS 18001 requirements), too. This solution could brings to them many future competition advantages.

Keywords-Environmental, Quality, Health & Safety Management

I. INTRODUCTION

Today, the customers are more and more pretentiously regarding products quality which they purchase, the employees are more pretentious, too, regarding their labor conditions and environment in which they work. Above these there is over putted the entire society need of a cleaner environment. Also, the Romanian enter in the European Community, the economical globalization, but the actual crisis, too are true challenges which the organizations are confronting with.

All these things contributed at the looking for of the best as possible solution for survival, especially for the small and mid-sized enterprises (SMEs).

II. INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS – A COMPROMISE WAY

The dynamism of economical activities at international level, economical globalisation and focusing on assuring a durable development imply major conception changes.

In a competitive business environment, the gaining of business successes is conditioned of high quality products offering (product is referred to a large sense definition gave by Kotler in 1995: “a product is any kind of thing offered on the market with the aim of interest capturing, acquiring, using or consuming and can satisfy a need or a desire; it include tangible physical objects, services, persons, locations, organizations or ideas”), for the customer’s

Attraction benefits bringing motive force. But, it has appeared, already, a new conception about quality. The quality is no more the conformity of the products with the specifications. The quality is conferred of user, customer, owner and is what they think about product and supplier

Quality – as an added value – don’t represents the conformity with the specifications only, but it has to correspond with the customers’ expectations, needs and pretensions too. So, for being competitive the suppliers have to satisfy not only customers’ requirements, but to bring a smile in the customers’ lives, a pleased satisfaction.

Here is why they have to find a compromise way, which the supplier has to adopt for resisting in the competitive environment, for trust assuring and satisfaction for all interested partners, included present and future generations.

This compromise way is the practising within the framework of the enterprise of a quality management system, having on the basis the international standards series ISO 9000 (first edition in 2000), which have been elaborated on international experiences in the field basis. So, the decision of the implementation of a quality management system become a strategically decision for any supplier of products or services.

But, within the framework of an organization, the implementation of a quality management system, don’t solve the problems which the management is confronting with, because the activities of an organization don’t proceed in an insulated environment; they have an impact more or less against the environment, neighbours, public opinion and generally against human community. More than, the organization has to proceed its actions within a legal framework; it has to respect all the norms, regulations, settlements and legal regularizations which are applicable in its activities field.

The legislative harmonization with European Union regarding the environment and the protecting of the environment has attracted the appearing of some legal regulations in this field which represent new constrains for the management of the organization.

In a managerial approach, the problems of the environment have to be integrated into the general management of the organization. The environment management systems have appeared as a need to face with the problems more and more complex and strictly regulated.

But for the organizations it exist other more problems regarding the safe and healthy of the labour. The constrains linked by the legislation observance, very rich in the field and the implications in no respecting it, the inherent perils existing at the place of work, the appearing risks of the work accidents which could affect the healthy or even the live of the employees, the work force migration looking for safer jobs both for the employees, but for the collaborators, are all the obstacles and the barriers which the organizations are confronting with. So, the problems referring to the safe and healthy of the labour have to be approached in a managerial manner, which can be integrated in the organization general management, too. The key for solving of these problems is the implementing within the framework of the organization of an occupational health and safety management system.

The appearance of international standards series ISO 9000, which has a larger vision on management systems, permits that the integration of other parts of the management, too, those which are orientated not only on quality, but on other objective, such as: environment, occupational health and safety. So, these parts can be integrated into a single management system, named integrated management system (quality + environment + health & safety), which has on the basis the joint elements.

The ISO 9000 and ISO 14000 families are among ISO's best known standards ever. ISO 9001:2008 and ISO 14001: 2004 are implemented by over a million organizations in 175 countries.

The ISO 9000 family addresses "Quality management".

This means what the organization does to fulfil:

- the customer's quality requirements, and
- applicable regulatory requirements, while aiming to
- enhance customer satisfaction, and

achieve continual improvement of its performance in pursuit of these objectives.

The ISO 14000 family addresses "Environmental management". This means what the organization does to:

- minimize harmful effects on the environment caused by its activities, and to
- achieve continual improvement of its environmental performance.

Many organizations are implementing an Occupational Health and Safety Management System (OHSMS) as part of their risk management strategy to address changing legislation and to protect their workforce. An OHSMS promotes a safe and healthy working environment.

OHSAS 18001:2007 specifies requirements for an occupational health and safety (OH&S) management system, to enable an organization to control its OH&S risks and improve its performance.

Analysing the three standards which settle down the requirements for the management systems, we easy see the compatibility of them which permits the designing an integrated management system which has on its basis the common requirements, having in the same time as objective: quality, environment and OH&S.

The compatibility of the three standards enables the implementing and finally the certification of the integrated management system from an authorised certification organism, which brings with it the confidence in the conformity of the system.

III. DOCUMENTATION - A NECESSARY "EVIL"

However, it isn't enough that the management systems be designed and implemented. They have to be documented, too. But, taking into account the common elements of the three standards, the documentation could be more simply and contain less documents, which is more easy to apply.

The integrated system could contain only a common Manual of the system which describes the system, refers to how the three objectives could be fulfilled and only the required of the standard mandatory documented procedures. It could be designed in a simply, but explicated mode, for instance through diagrams. The important thing is the entire personnel of the organization to know how to proceed and to act thus the satisfaction of the customers, employees and other interested parts (stakeholders) to be at a maximum level and all to be completely pleased.

Even if the documentation is an unpleasant thing, however it is a necessary "evil" because it brings a lot of benefits, such as:

- The documentation describes the implemented management system;
- It assures the necessary information for all implied structures and regulates the relationships between them;
- It stays at the basis of employees understanding and awareness of the importance of their role into the organization;
- It represents the support for communication of the top management commitment regarding quality, environment, health and safety policy, as a basis for improvement of the performances;
- It assures a clear and efficient framework of the proceeded activities;
- It is the basis for employees' training and retraining;
- It assures the processes management promoting and the operations consistence;
- It assures the clients' confidence and other stakeholders that the organization has the capability to fulfil their requirements;
- It demonstrates the conformity with the adopted standard requirements;
- It is the documented basis for the audits and continuously improvement of the management system;
- It is the basis for the external organism certification

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The certificated integrated management systems are yet a few, but in the future they will be a solution, especially for the small and medium sized enterprises, because they have some more advantages against the other management systems, such as

- Less expenses and bureaucracy;
- More flexibility in a world in which how doesn't firstly adapt, pays the success of the competition;
- Eliminating the artificial professional barriers which are generating of tensions and wasting

V. BIBLIOGRAPHIQUE REFERENCES

- 1) Kotler, P., Saunders, J., Armstrong, G., Wong, V., Principiile Marketingului, Editura Teora, București, 1999
- 2) ISO 9001/2008 - Quality management systems - Requirements
- 3) ISO 14001/2004 - Environmental management systems - Requirements with guidance for use (ed. 2).
- 4) OHSAS 18001:2007 Occupational health and safety management systems - Requirements
- 5) ISO 9004:2009 - Managing for the sustained success of an organization - A quality management approach (ed. 3)
- 6) ISO 9000: 2005 - Quality management systems. Fundamentals and vocabulary.
- 7) www.bsi-emea.com
- 8) www.iso.org

Performance Management System

Dr.Sangeeta Saxena

GJMBR Classification
FOR:150305,150311
GJEL: D23,L22

Abstract- Performance management as described here refers to a term coined by Dr. Aubrey C. Daniels in late 1970s to describe a technology for managing both results and behavior. A critical component of successful performance management implementation is that performers gain excellence in their own performance developing habit strength that can be applied across. Well designed performance process will do just that teach manages and supervisors, all leaders how to bring out the best in people including themselves through a set of clear steps that appear easy on the surface. A key aspect of performance management is performance measurement, and it is a forward looking process. It is a leading indicator of performance management because it drives a system or organization towards desired future goals and provides solves management.

Keywords-Performance Management (PM), Performance Measurement

I. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Performance Management plays an important role in the area of global economy and considered as an essential tool for survival of organizations in the competitive periphery.

The main purpose of performance management is to enhance quality, reduce cost and converge processes in new ways to achieve goals and respond to challenges in the global market. This paper discusses that if management is the process of achieving goals through specific means in specific time with a set of predetermined resources than to achieve this level of management measurement of performance is essential. The idea of the performance management with the performance measurement have been the backbone of private enterprise for decades. This study focuses on the extent of usage of performance management and its impact on the performance of the organizations

II. INTRODUCTION

Performance Management refers to a term coined in 1970s describe a technology. OBM is an international organization that follows the behavior analytic principles embedded in performance management. Performance management originated in the laboratory findings on learning first identified by James B Watson and then later expanding to focus exclusive on what is called an operant. This brand of psychology is called behavior analysis and has its own organization called International Association of Behavior Analysis (I-ABA). The field has practitioners and scientists who include element of both operant and classical or conditioning theory in their evolving approach. This PM approach is used most often in the workplace but applies

wherever people interact as schools, churches community meetings, sports team, health setting, govt agencies and even political settings. PM principles are needed wherever in the world people interact with their environment to produce desired effects. This management process can involve self management or the formal chains of management typically found in most of the organizations where people work in groups or teams. PM helps in achieving the best possible results in given period of time

III. WHAT IS PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT? WHY DO IT?

Managers of any sports team need to know score so that they can assess whether changes are needed for the team to win. Managers of public agencies and private organizations, no profit organizations need similar information's which helps in achieving the targeted goals to meet the need of the organizations. Performance Management has many meanings but it is defined as a regular measurement of results and efficiency of services or programs. Regular measurement of results or outcomes of progress towards specified outcomes is a vital component of any effort at managing for results. If the right things are not measured or measured inaccurately those using the data will be misused and bad decisions will likely to follow, as the old saying puts it

IV. "GARBAGE IN GARBAGE OUT".

A major use of performance management is to establish accountability, so citizens and elected officials can assess what programs have achieved with the funds provided. Another major use is to help programs develop and then justify budget proposals. It is as important to help managers through out the year to run their organizations according to the need of the public. Performance management in academic institutions played a vital and eminent role for their smooth running. Higher authorities need performance information which helps them to decide how to increase their ability to get the job done with what ever resources they have and to provide evidence to the decision makers that helps in making the policies and strategies for their overall development.

A critical component of the successful performance management is implementation so that the performers gain excellence in their own performance developing habit strength that can be applied across similar or different settings for effective problem solving and work habits. Whether it is learning highly technical skills in a nuclear facility or learning the foundation of good customer service. The principles that are central to performance management are derived from the science of behavior analysis. This term performance is often thought to refer to structures and

process of human resource management, well designed performance management process will just do that teach managers and supervisors and all leaders how to bring out the best in people including themselves through a set of clear steps that appear easy on service.

A key aspect of performance management is the performance measurement. Whatever the process being driven with performance management, clear and concise measures are required in order to properly define desired goals. Most performance measurement fails to achieve the desired goals because goal measurement is ambiguous, not specific enough and poorly communicated. In the case of business the typical approach is to create *“Smart Goals”*, are those which are specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and timely. It is a forward looking process taking frequent measures as work occurs and responding to small forward. Performance measurement is a leading indicator of performance measurement because it drives a system or organization towards desired future goals and provides helpful management.

V. WHICH ORGANIZATIONS ARE SUITABLE FOR PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Managing of results applies to all agencies that provides services to the public whether the agency has ample or highly limited resources is small or large is public or private or is in a developing or developed country so performance management is important for all types of organizations because it helps in achieving best possible results in a specific period of time and also with the help of team efforts which helps in increasing the efficiency of the organization

VI. WHICH SERVICES ARE SUITABLE FOR PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

The procedures and issues of performance measurement are applicable to most public and private services ranging from public safety programs, public works programs, human service programs etc., and outcomes of these support services occur primarily within an organization and regular tracking it's usually difficult. The regular tracking of performance measurement may not readily applicable to activities whose important outcomes do not occur for years

VII. ROLE OF PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT IN TODAY'S ERA

Management under this PM definition is about arranging the conditions of the workplace for individual, group, unit, division, regional, and corporate success. Management requires that systems, processes and structures are arranged carefully according to the laws of behavior to support the necessary direction, skills, resources, and motivation people need to do a job well, whether at the executive level or at the shop floor, in all types of industries and across all kinds of business drivers of success (e.g., merger/acquisitions, managing culture during rapid change, strategic initiatives turned into solid implementations, ensuring safe practices while meeting objectives, reducing waste, and so on). Performance Management is about individual managers truly understanding how to ensure the development of skills and provide sufficient training and coaching resources so

that each manager can be fairly measured by the success of his or her direct reports, not by business results only or on kindness factors.

How well an organization does in applying the scientific elements of PM is found in the success of its employees in serving customer needs, meeting their targets, producing desired impact and creating a culture of respect and commitment, with a focus on active learning, inclusion, and shaping—a culture where the predominate method of building habits of success involving knowing when and how to “carve mistakes in sand and success in stone” (Benjamin Franklin quote). PM companies that understand the technology create high and steady rates of discretionary effort by all—they model ‘best practices’ and take measures on their work from customers and employees, using the feedback openly to make improvements.

Performance management has a wide variety of applications such as employee performance, software performance, business or corporate performance and so on. [Bringing Out the Best in People], 2004, Performance Management Press.

In the context of Human Resources, performance management refers to the ongoing process of setting goals, self-assessment, manager assessment, peer-assessment (also called 360 assessments), coaching, development planning, and evaluation. Research has shown that this process, which is widely used in business (but often called performance appraisal), has two forms: competitive assessment (where employees are rigorously compared against each other, and coaching & development (where employees are evaluated against their own goals and capabilities).

PM is often confused with performance appraisal, the latter only forming the final part of the performance management cycle. Performance appraisal is a backwards looking process of performance, measuring what happened in the past

VIII. LIMITATIONS OF PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT

All those using performance measurement information, whether inside or outside government or in a private agency, should understand what it can and cannot do and keep their expectations realistic. Performance measurement has three primary limitations.

A. *Performance Data Do Not, by Themselves, Tell Why the Outcomes Occurred*

In other words, performance data do not reveal the extent to which the program caused the measured results. This point is an important one. The analogy to managers of sports teams helps here. The manager needs to know the running score. If the team is losing, whether an individual game or over the whole season, the manager and other team officials may need to change the game plan. But the score does not tell the officials why the score is the way it is. Nor does the running score tell what specifically needs to be changed to improve the score. For that information, the managers, coaches, and other team officials need to seek explanations before they act.

It is the same for service delivery. Managers and other officials need to track results and use that information to help guide them about what, if any, future actions to take.

Performance measurement is designed primarily to provide data on outcomes (the score). But to be most helpful (as discussed in chapters 9 and 10), performance measurement systems also need to have built into them opportunities to analyze the details of program performance and steps to seek explanations for the outcome data such systems produce.

This limitation raises a major issue in performance measurement that generates controversy: *accountability*. What should managers be held accountable for? In the past, the government of New Zealand had taken the view that responsibility for program outcomes rested solely with officials at the policymaking level, thus removing all accountability for outcomes from the operating departments. *Important outcomes are seldom, if ever, fully under the control of a particular agency (public or private). Nevertheless, the agency and its personnel do share responsibility for producing those outcomes.* As long as a program has any role in delivering a service intended to help produce particular outcomes, the managers of that program—and its personnel—have a responsibility to track the relevant outcomes and use that information to help improve results.

Agency personnel and other officials are often too ready to believe they lack responsibility over outcomes—in part out of fear that they will be blamed unfairly for poorer-than-desired outcomes. This fear is reasonable. However, recognizing shared responsibility helps agencies create innovative solutions that can improve service outcomes, even in the face of highly limited resources. And this understanding can lead to more use of performance partnerships among programs, agencies, levels of government, and between the private and public sectors.

B. Some Outcomes Cannot Be Measured Directly

The classic example is success in preventing undesirable events, such as prevention of crime or reduction of illicit drug use. In such cases, surrogates can usually be used, such as indicators that reflect trends over time in the number of incidents that were not prevented. This is not ideal, but this is the real world.

C. Performance Measurement Provides Just Part of the Information Managers and Elected Officials Need to Make Decisions

Performance measurement does not replace the need for expenditure data or political judgments, nor does it replace the need for common sense, good management, leadership, and creativity. A major purpose of performance measurement is to raise questions. It seldom, if ever, provides answers by itself about what should be done.

Exhibit 1-1 presents common objections from agencies and programs required to implement an outcome-based performance measurement process. Each objection is an element for concern. Subsequent chapters will address most of these concerns and hopefully will at least allay them.

D. Outcome-Focused Efficiency Measurement

In performance measurement, efficiency is usually defined as the ratio of the amount of input (usually monetary expenditures or amount of employee time) to the amount of product created by that input. Unit-cost ratios that relate expenditures to physical outputs have been common in public agencies for years. *The trouble with input-to-output ratios is they can be improved by reducing the quality of the output.* If outcomes are tracked, a considerably more accurate indicator of true efficiency becomes possible. For example, “cost per client served” is an output-based efficiency indicator. Efficiency appears to increase when a program spends less per client, even if the condition of the typical client deteriorates. “Cost per client whose condition improved after services” is an outcome-focused efficiency indicator. It gives a much more meaningful picture of a program’s real accomplishments.

Take the example of a program that holds regular sessions to help customers stop smoking. “Cost per session held” is considerably under the control of the program. “Cost per customer who quits smoking” is not, because whether someone quits probably also depends on a host of other factors besides the stop-smoking sessions. But is “cost per session held” a true measure of efficiency? Officials and citizens are considerably more likely concerned with efficiency in producing the desired outcome. Even if a causal link cannot be firmly drawn, the program still has some responsibility for affecting the desired outcome. An outcome-based indicator provides more insight into how much the program is helping accomplish that objective.

IX. CONCLUSION

From the above discussion it can be concluded that Performance management played an important role in today’s world. Performance measurement is regarded as a backbone of the organizations no matter whether the organization is large scale or small scale. ***“Performance management is a pivot around which all management clusters”.***

No business organization can survive in this competitive market without using the tool of performance management with performance measurement.

X. REFERENCES

- 1) Organizational Behavior Management Network, Dr. John Austin, Dr. Dale Brethower, Dr. Alyce Dickinson. www.obmnetwork.com. 2009.
- 2) Journal of Organizational Behavior Management, Routledge Taylor & Francis Group. Published quarterly. 2009.
- 3) Handbook of Organizational Performance, Thomas C. Mawhinney, William K. Redmon & Carl Merle Johnson. Routledge. 2001.
- 4) Bringing out the Best in People, Aubrey C. Daniels. McGraw-Hill; 2nd edition. 1999.
- 5) Improving Performance: How to Manage the White Space in the Organization Chart, Geary A.

- Rummler & Alan P. Brache. Jossey-Bass; 2nd edition. 1995.
- 6) Human Competence: Engineering Worthy Performance, Thomas F. Gilbert. Pfeiffer. 1996.
- 7) The Values-Based Safety Process: Improving Your Safety Culture with Behavior-Based Safety, Terry E. McSween. John Wiley & Sons. 1995.
- 8) Performance-based Instruction: Linking Training to Business Results, Dale Brethower & Karolyn Smalley. Pfeiffer; Har/Dis edition. 1998.
- 9) Handbook of Applied Behavior Analysis, John Austin & James E. Carr. Context Press. 2000.

Counselling Attitude of Managers and Its Contribution to HRD in State Owned and Private Enterprises in Papua New Guinea

Pulapa Subba Rao¹

Ponnusamy Manohar²

GJMBR Classification
FOR:150305,150311,
GJEL:M12,O15

Abstract-Development and positive oriented counselling of managers contribute to Human Resource Development (HRD) of employees. In addition, diagnostic and problem solving attitudes contribute to stress-free work environment in an organization. This paper analyses counselling attitudes of managers in a selection of state owned enterprises (SOEs) and private enterprises (PEs) in Papua New Guinea using solicited responses from selected managers of different categories at different levels. It also deals with the association between human resource development sub-systems and counselling attitudes of managers. [what is the one finding of this analysis?]It offers suggestions for improving positive and development oriented counselling attitudes in view of challenges of the global business environment. Statistical analytical tools like 'T' test, co-efficient of correlation and other descriptive statistics scores have been used to quantify qualitative variables of the counselling attitudes and HRD sub-systems.

Keywords-Counselling Attitude, Human resource Development, Acronyms Used: HRD= Human resource Development, PNG=Papua New Guinea, SOEs=State Owned Enterprises, PEs= Private Enterprises

I. INTRODUCTION

Human Resource Development (HRD) assumes significance in view of the vitality of learning organisations and the need for organisations to adopt new techniques for responding to pertinent global environmental challenges. HRD therefore is mainly concerned with the development of skills, knowledge and attitudes of people. From an organisational perspective HRD is a process in which employees of organisations are helped and motivated to acquire and develop technical, managerial and behavioural knowledge, skills and abilities, and mould the values, beliefs and attitudes that are requisite to performing present and future roles by realizing the highest human potential. The intention is to contribute positively to the organizational, group, and individual and social goals. Human Resource Development is embodied with sub-systems and processes. Major HRD sub-systems include performance appraisal, training and development, career planning, counselling, and employee empowerment (Subba Rao 2003:117-118).

Counselling is an important technique of HRD as it helps

The counselee to find and act upon a solution to their problems, anxieties, uncertainties and issues and enables that person to learn and acquire new knowledge from various sources including counsellors. Counsellors do not make judgments on who is right or wrong, they do not tell counselees what to do. The positive and right counselling attitude on the part of the counsellors would result in an efficient counselling process. Effective counselling attitude comprises four variables. They are: (i) development attitude, i.e., attitude towards development of subordinates, (ii) listening attitude, i.e., attitude towards listening, feelings and problems of subordinates, (iii) diagnostic attitude, i.e., attitude toward diagnosing the problem accurately and communicating with the subordinates and, (iv) empowerment attitude, i.e., attitude towards empowering the subordinates to solve the problem and manage themselves.

II. NEED FOR THE STUDY

Private enterprises (PEs) in the post-globalisation era invest in technology as well as in people development in order to respond to the global challenges. In fact PEs develop their people ahead of changes in order to act as a change agent and employ pro-active strategies. It is indeed true because, organisations can be continuous learners through the development of its people. State Owned Enterprises (SOEs) are also no exception to the competition under the market economic system. As such, they should also develop their human resources to compete with PEs. Effective counselling contributes to HRD both in PEs and SOEs. This observation underscores the significance of this study.

Review of the existing literature on the theme of the study indicates that there are a few studies in other countries (Rao TV, 1994, 1995, Murali Krishna P. 1995, Khandelwall, 1994, Gupta K. C., and Tej Singh Nagar, 2005). The studies in PNG are rare to find. However, there are a few studies on organizational environment and human resource management in PNG (Kavanamur, Okole, Manning and Levantis, 2004, Hess, 2001, Imbun, 2001, Imbun and Richard Morris, Mc Gavin 2001 Jones and Imbun 2001 and Michael, 2001). Therefore, the present study is expected to contribute towards plugging this gap.

The purpose of this study is to assess the dimensions of existing counselling attitudes of managers in PEs and SOEs and their impact on HRD in PNG and to suggest measures to enhance the appropriate counselling attitude for effective HRD.

About-^{1,2}School of Business Administration, University of Papua New Guinea, Papua New Guinea.

III. METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

Data used for this study were collected mostly from primary sources. A questionnaire was developed and administered together with interviews conducted.

This is basically an empirical study about the effective counselling attitude of managers in selected SOEs and PEs based on the perception of managers working in PEs like, ANZ Bank, City Pharmacy, Air Lines PNG and Arnotts Biscuits (PNG) Limited, and SOEs like Eda Ranu, Telecom PNG, Air Niugini and Post PNG. SOEs and PEs were selected to facilitate comparison between public and private sector organisations. The organisations were selected purely on judgement basis, as studies of this nature had not been conducted earlier in PNG. As such purposive sampling technique was applied.

The questionnaires elicited responses from 78 out of 100 managers from SOEs, and 54 out of 100 managers from PEs. As the size of the two sectors varies in regard to the number of employees, the quota sampling technique was used.

The 'T' test (t-value) and co-efficient of correlation (r - value) were employed in this study. The 'T' test was employed with a view to establishing whether the difference between two sample means is statistically significant or insignificant. The degree of relationship was measured with the help of co-efficient of correlation and other descriptive

statistical tools like mean, standard deviation and percentage.

IV. HIERARCHY BASED ANALYSIS

Table-1 reveals the mean score values along with standard deviation (SD) and 'T' values of counselling attitude of managers on overall as well as factor wise basis according to the hierarchy levels viz., lower level management, middle level management, higher level management and population as a whole, i.e., managers of all levels. The mean values along with 'T' values of counselling attitude of managers on overall basis for the three categories of managers and population as a whole in two sectors respectively are, $X_1 = 11.34$, $X_2 = 12.24$ ($T=0.65$); $X_1 = 11.90$, $X_2 = 12.30$ ($T=1.94$); $X_1 = 14.75$, $X_2 = 13.95$ ($T= 1.84$) and $X_1 = 11.65$, $X_2 = 12.41$ ($T=1.59$). This reveals that two sectors differ significantly regarding all attitudes of counselling of managers at middle and higher levels. But the two sectors do not differ significantly at lower level management with regard to all types of attitudes of counselling. Calculated 'T' values and mean-scores indicate that the counselling attitudes of managers at higher level and middle level in PEs are acceptable, but not so at all levels in SOEs and also at the lower level of management in PEs.

* X_1 = Mean score of SOEs

* X_2 = Mean score of PEs

Table 1: Comparison of SOEs and PEs regarding Counselling Attitude of Managers on overall as well as factor-wise basis according to Hierarchy
(Mean and StandardDeviation along with 't' values)

Variables	Lower level of management				
	X_1		X_2		't'
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Development Attitude	10.97	4.66	11.73	2.73	0.95
Listening Attitude	10.83	5.10	11.94	3.55	1.93
Diagnostic Attitude	10.67	4.65	11.45	3.69	0.47
Empowerment Attitude	12.90	4.95	13.82	4.20	1.48
Overall	11.34	4.80	12.24	3.60	0.65

Variables	Middle level of management				
	X_1		X_2		't'
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Development Attitude	11.51	4.41	12.75	3.66	1.68
Listening Attitude	11.91	3.35	11.00	4.50	1.96
Diagnostic Attitude	10.78	3.72	12.31	4.12	1.87
Empowerment Attitude	13.38	3.49	13.13	5.78	1.42
Overall	11.90	2.77	12.30	4.60	1.94

Variables	Higher level of management				
	X_1		X_2		't'
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Development Attitude	13.91	3.57	13.20	2.72	1.65
Listening Attitude	14.36	2.67	13.00	3.28	2.19
Diagnostic Attitude	13.64	3.53	13.20	2.72	1.41
Empowerment Attitude	17.09	2.44	15.40	3.44	1.43
Overall	14.75	3.11	13.95	3.40	1.84

Variables	Population as a whole				
	X_1		X_2		't'
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Development Attitude	11.25	4.59	12.17	3.12	2.63
Listening Attitude	11.31	4.63	11.76	3.91	1.00
Diagnostic Attitude	10.81	4.38	11.87	3.81	2.47
Empowerment Attitude	13.21	4.55	13.85	4.86	1.44
Overall	11.65	4.50	12.41	3.96	1.59

V. QUALIFICATION BASED ANALYSIS

Table-2 depicts the mean value along with SD and 'T' values of effective counselling attitude of managers on overall as well as factor wise basis according to the qualification of the managers working in SOEs and PEs. The qualification has been categorised as secondary education, higher studies, professional studies and population as a whole. The mean values and 'T' values of counselling attitude on the overall basis for the three categories of managers and population as a whole in SOEs and PEs respectively are, $X_1 = 11.01$, $X_2 = 12.86$ ($T=2.37$); $X_1 = 12.58$, $X_2 = 12.80$ ($T=1.98$); $X_1 = 11.60$, $X_2 = 11.65$ ($T= 0.07$) and $X_1 = 12.07$, $X_2 = 12.57$ ($T=1.22$). This reveals that the two sectors differ

significantly regarding all attitudes of counselling of managers with secondary education and higher studies. But the two sectors do not differ significantly with regard to managers with professional qualifications. Calculated 'T' values and mean-scores indicate that the counselling attitudes of managers with higher studies and professional studies in PEs and counselling attitudes of managers with professional qualifications in SOEs are acceptable. Counselling attitudes of managers with secondary and higher level studies in SOEs and managers with secondary educational qualifications in PEs are not acceptable.

* X_1 = Mean score of SOEs

* X_2 = Mean score of PEs

Table 2: Comparison of SOEs and PEs regarding Counselling Attitude of Managers on overall as well as Factor-wise basis according to Qualification
(Mean and Standard Deviation along with 't' values)

Variables	Secondary education				
	X_1		X_2		't'
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Development Attitude	10.27	3.96	12.5	1.71	4.84
Listening Attitude	10.66	4.17	11.92	3.06	1.85
Diagnostic Attitude	10.77	3.82	11.00	3.86	1.26
Empowerment Attitude	11.32	3.67	15.01	2.96	3.93
Overall	11.01	3.17	12.86	2.45	2.37

Variables	Higher studies				
	X_1		X_2		't'
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Development Attitude	12.34	3.97	11.79	3.07	1.79
Listening Attitude	12.08	4.24	13.03	3.47	1.98
Diagnostic Attitude	11.71	3.73	12.37	2.21	2.18
Empowerment Attitude	14.18	3.07	14.00	2.77	1.26
Overall	12.58	3.01	12.8	2.39	1.98

Variables	Professional studies				
	X_1		X_2		't'
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Development Attitude	11.79	3.83	13.01	3.61	2.0
Listening Attitude	12.27	3.87	10.78	4.44	1.94
Diagnostic Attitude	11.41	3.13	11.91	3.17	0.68
Empowerment Attitude	14.11	2.93	13.71	3.69	0.49
Overall	11.60	2.94	11.65	3.05	0.07

Variables	Population as a whole				
	X_1		X_2		't'
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
LOQ					
Development Attitude	11.57	4.05	12.47	3.31	2.5
Listening Attitude	11.73	4.18	11.83	4.02	0.22
Diagnostic Attitude	11.35	2.91	11.87	3.84	1.24
Empowerment Attitude	13.62	3.33	14.09	3.37	0.94
Overall	12.07	3.11	12.57	2.7	1.22

VI. EXPERIENCE BASED ANALYSIS

Table 3 exhibits the mean score values along with SD and 'T' values of effective counselling attitude of managers on overall as well as factor wise basis according to the length of experience of the managers working in SOEs and PEs viz; low experienced, mediocre experienced, high experienced managers and all managers (population as a whole). The mean values along with 'T' values of effective counselling attitude of managers on overall basis for the three groups of managers and population as a whole in two sectors (SOEs and PEs) respectively are, $X_1 = 11.50$, $X_2 = 11.09$ (T-2.53); $X_1 = 12.67$, $X_2 = 12.39$ (T-2.31); $X_1 = 11.50$, $X_2 = 12.50$ (T-1.59) and $X_1 = 11.26$, $X_2 = 11.48$ (T-0.49). This proves that two sectors do not differ significantly regarding

development and diagnostic attitudes of counselling of higher experienced managers. However, they differ significantly with regard to listening and empowerment attitudes of higher experienced managers. In fact, two sectors differ significantly with regard to all types of attitudes of managers with low and mediocre experiences.

Calculated 'T' values and mean indicate that development and diagnostic counselling attitudes of higher experienced managers in SOEs and PEs are acceptable. Listening and empowerment counselling attitudes of all managers in SOEs and all counselling attitudes of managers with low and mediocre experiences in PEs are not acceptable.

* X_1 = Mean score of SOEs

* X_2 = Mean score of PEs

Table 3: Comparison of SOEs and PEs regarding Counselling Attitude of Managers on overall as well as factor-wise basis according to level of Experience
(Mean and Standard Deviation along with 't' values)

Variables	Low experienced managers				
	X_1		X_2		't'
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Development Attitude	10.92	3.0	10.82	2.09	2.52
Listening Attitude	10.61	3.19	9.76	2.53	2.65
Diagnostic Attitude	10.78	2.63	10.06	2.78	2.38
Empowerment Attitude	12.68	3.22	10.71	3.83	1.98
Overall	11.50	3.02	11.09	2.88	2.53

Variables	Mediocre experienced managers				
	X_1		X_2		't'
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Development Attitude	11.92	3.06	11.92	2.69	1.98
Listening Attitude	11.50	2.84	11.92	2.69	2.76
Diagnostic attitude	110.95	2.64	11.85	3.52	2.10
Empowerment Attitude	12.34	3.23	12.85	3.47	2.44
Overall	12.67	2.95	12.39	3.18	2.31

Variables	High experienced managers				
	X_1		X_2		't'
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Development Attitude	12.23	3.82	12.52	3.27	0.35
Listening Attitude	12.21	2.68	12.18	3.88	2.36
Diagnostic Attitude	11.61	2.95	11.56	2.27	0.57
Empowerment Attitude	12.95	3.07	15.14	4.42	2.75
Overall	11.50	2.88	12.50	2.75	1.59

Variables	Population as a whole				
	X_1		X_2		't'
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
LOE					
Development Attitude	11.7	3.01	12.11	2.41	1.14
Listening Attitude	12.15	2.29	11.76	3.16	0.91
Diagnostic Attitude	11.48	2.69	11.87	2.71	0.95
Empowerment Attitude	13.71	3.26	12.16	4.45	0.78
Overall	11.26	2.99	11.48	3.05	0.49

VII. CORRELATION BETWEEN COUNSELLING ATTITUDES AND SUB-SYSTEMS OF HRD

An attempt was made to find out the correlation between counselling attitude of managers and practice of various sub-systems of HRD viz., performance appraisal, training and development, career planning, and employee empowerment. The correlation of coefficient (r - value) has been calculated to identify the degree of correlation between

counselling attitude of managers and sub systems of HRD. The 'T' test has been used to verify whether counselling attitude of managers and sub- systems of HRD are significantly correlated in the population or not. Table-4 presents correlation matrix of counselling attitude with sub-systems of HRD in SOEs.

Table 4: Correlation Matrix along with 'T' values (in brackets) for HRD Sub-Systems in SOEs

Variables	VI	V2	V3	V4	V5
V1 Performance appraisal	--	0.34** (0.76)	0.26 (0.78)	0.26* (0.87)	0.10 (0.33)
V2 Training and Development	--	--	0.01 (0.04)	0.28 (0.64)	(0.11) (0.01)
V3 Career Planning	--	--	--	0.27* (1.06)	0.32 (0.37)
V4 Employee Empowerment	--	--	--	--	0.14 (0.11)
V5 Counselling attitude	--	--	--	--	--

* Significant at 5% level

N=10

** Significant at 1% level

V- Variables

It is observed from Table-4 that the correlation among the HRD sub-systems is positive in SOEs, but insignificant as per 'T' values. Similarly, the correlations between counselling attitude and each of the HRD sub-system are also positive, but insignificant in SOEs. It indicates that the practice of one sub-system of HRD did not result in the improvement of another sub-system significantly. Further it

indicates that positive counselling attitude did not result in significant improvement of HRD practises in SOEs.

Table-5 depicts correlation matrix with 'T' values among HRD sub-systems and counselling attitudes in PEs.

Table 5: Correlation Matrix along with 'T' values (in brackets) for HRD dimensions in Pes.

Variables	VI	V2	V3	V4	V5
VI Performance Appraisal	--	0.64 (0.73)	0.69 (1.25)	0.66 (0.78)	0.72 (1.77)
V2 Training and Development	--	--	0.68 (1.25)	0.75** (5.31)	0.72 (1.80)
V3 Career Planning	--	--	--	0.66* (2.04)	0.73 (4.30)
V4 Employee Empowerment	--	--	--	--	0.73 (2.54)
V5 Counselling attitude	--	--	--	--	---

* Significant at 5% level

N=5

** Significant at 1 % level

VIII. V – VARIABLES

It is observed from Table-5 that the correlation among the HRD sub-systems is positive and moderate. Similarly, the correlations between counselling attitude and each of the HRD sub-systems are also positive and moderate in PEs. It indicates that the practice of each HRD sub-system led to the improvement in another HRD sub-system moderately. Similarly the positive counselling attitude led to positive HRD practices moderately in PEs

IX. CONCLUSION

On the basis of above analysis and results, it is inferred that the counselling attitude of managers working in SOEs and PEs differ significantly as categorized into hierarchy, qualification and experience basis. This is also true regarding various dimensions of counselling attitude viz. listening attitude and empowerment attitude. However, the two dimensions, of counselling attitude of higher experienced managers viz., development and diagnostic attitudes are found to be the same in SOEs and PEs. Obviously, the performance of PEs is better than that of SOEs in regard to other two counselling attitudes. Therefore, the managers of SOEs should improve their listening and empowerment attitudes, so that the HRD as a whole can be strengthened in the SOEs. The correlation analysis reveals that counselling attitude of managers is not significantly correlated with sub-systems of HRD in the case of SOEs, even though they are positively correlated. However, they are positively and moderately correlated in PEs.

The analysis indicates that the counselling attitudes of managers in SOEs, at all levels of management and that of lower level managers in PEs have not been in tune with the HRD requirements. This trend in turn would hamper the HRD process phenomenally at all levels of management in SOEs and at lower levels in PEs. It is found that the organisational climate and HRD climate were not conducive for HRD in SOEs (Subba Rao, P. and Manohar, P., 2005). Therefore, it is suggested that the SOEs should revamp the organisational and HRD climate and also train, educate and enable managers at all levels to use counselling technique of HRD extensively for the development of human resources. It is further found that organisational climate and HRD climate in PEs were conducive for HRD. Therefore, it is suggested that the PEs should educate and train the lower level managers with regard to counselling techniques.

It is further observed that the higher-experienced managers acquired necessary skills and aptitude with regard to development and diagnostic attitudes. This trend might be due to their experience-based learning and acquisition of skills. It is suggested that the higher-level managers in SOEs should be enabled to acquire necessary skills with regard to listening and empowerment attitudes through education and training. Mediocre experience and low experience managers in SOEs fail to contribute to the process of HRD, as they do not possess necessary attitudes of counselling. Therefore, it is suggested that managers at mediocre experience and low

experience in SOEs should be extensively trained in all manners of counselling.

It is felt that counselling attitudes of managers in SOEs have not been contributing significantly to performance enhancement, training and development and employee empowerment, as the degree of correlation is insignificant. In other words, counselling attitudes and practices of managers in SOEs have not been enabling the HRD process phenomenally. Therefore, it is suggested that the management of SOEs should train the managers in counselling attitudes in addition to restructuring their organizations to create positive and enabling organisational and HRD climates for developing their employees.

However, the counselling attitudes of managers in PEs have been contributing moderately to various sub-systems of HRD viz., performance management, training and development, career planning and employee empowerment as the degree of correlation is moderate even though the organisational climate and HRD climate in PEs were conducive for HRD. Therefore, it is suggested that PEs should educate and train their managers in counselling techniques and in developing positive attitude towards counselling in the development process of employees.

X. REFERENCES

- 1) Gupta K. G. and Tej Singh Nagar (2005), a comparative study of Indian Foreign Bank Managers with regard to their Counselling Attitudes, GITAM Journal of Management, Vol. 3, No. 1.
- 2) Hess, M., (2001) "Management and culture under Development", Labour and Management in Development 2(3): 2-22 <http://ncdsnet.anu.edu.au> (Accessed 24/06/05)
- 3) Imbun B.Y. and Richard Morres (2001), "Labour and Mining in Remote Areas" in Imbun, B.Y., and McGavin P. A., (eds.) Mining in Papua New Guinea, University of Papua New Guinea Press, Port Moresby, 81-95.
- 4) Imbun, B. Y., (2001), "Human Resource Management in PNG Mining: Evidences from Porgera", in Imbun, B. Y. and McGavin, P. A., (eds) Mining in Papua New Guinea, University of Papua New Guinea Press, Port Moresby, 96-112.
- 5) Kavanamur, D., Okole, H with Manning, M. and Levantis, T., (2004), "Understanding reforms in Papua New Guinea: an analytical evaluation", A Global Development Network and AusAID study, Monograph.
- 6) Khandelwall P. N. (1994), "Human Resource Development in Banks", Oxford&IBH Publishing Co.Pvt. Limited, New Delhi.
- 7) McGavin P. A., Jones L. T., and Imbun B.Y. (2001), "In Country fly-in/fly-out and national HR Development: Evidence from PNG", in Imbun, B. Y. and McGavin P. A., (eds.) Mining in Papua New Guinea, University of Papua New Guinea Press, Port Moresby, 113-131.

- 8) Michael, H. , (2001) “What about Workers? Mining and Labour in PNG”, in Imbun, B. Y. and McGavin P. A., (eds.) Mining in Papua New Guinea, University of Papua New Guinea Press, Port Moresby, 63-80.
- 9) Murali Krishna, P. (1995), “HRD in Bharat Heavy Electrical Limited”, Unpublished Ph.D., Thesis, Sri Krishnadevaraya University, Ananapur.
- 10) Subbarao P., Manohar, P. (2005) Organizational Climate and Human Resources Development Climate in State Owned and Private Enterprises in Papua New Guinea, presented at 2nd International Conference of Australian Business and Behavioural Science Association, held at Cairns, Australia during 5-8, August 2005.
- 11) Rao, T.V., (1994), “Human Resource Development”, Oxford&IBH Publishing Co.Pvt. Limited, New Delhi.
- 12) Rao, T.V., (1995), “The HRD Missionary”, Oxford&IBH Publishing Co.Pvt. Limited, New Delhi, 8-9.
- 13) Subbarao, P. (2003), “Essentials of Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations”, Himalaya Publishing House, Mumbai, 117-118

Globalisation and Recent Trends in Banking

M.Muthu Gopalakrishnan

GJMBR Classification
FOR:150203,150204
GJEL:G21,G22,G24

I. INTRODUCTION

The banking sector is in a transitional mode towards a vibrant global market and sophisticated information technology. Due to this changing scenario, banks are paying more attention to expanding their activities from just lending and borrowing to other ends like, insurance merchant banking, leasing, electronic banking etc. Even though these changes were expected after the nationalization of banks in 1969, it was noticed that it had only slow and steady progress necessitating a total revamping of the banking sector. Various reform measures were taken to strengthen the foundation of the system by improving asset quality, enhancing capital and improving profitability along with structural changes in the system. During this transition, banks have seen fierce competition, risk, and revolutionary changes forcing them to take immediate steps to retain market share, redress the grievances of customers as fast as possible by maintaining good ambience, rendering courteous services to customers with the help of latest technological innovations and products.

Globalization and liberalization have forced the banks to think in terms of technology benefits and quality service to customers as future is full of challenges and survival will be a difficult task. The entry of IT infrastructure in the corporate world of banks has brought with it many innovations, in particular the Internet. Though these changes had started with Narasimham Committee's (1992) suggestions for computerization and were followed by Saraf Committee's (1994) recommendations for electronic fund transfers (EFT), Electronic Clearing Services (ECS) and automatic data capture, the banks were actually required to use the BANKET and RBINET and Internet to accommodate itself to the innumerable transactions that had resulted as a result of globalization and liberalization.

The Indian banking industry is not lagging behind, it has started providing services electronically over the internet. These services rendered over electronic media include :

- Phone banking
- ATM – Automatic Teller Machines
- Credit Cards
- Electronic Fund Transfer –EFT
- Shared Payment Network System – SPNS
- Electronic Clearing Service - ECS
- Point of Sale – POS
- D-Mat Accounts

- Electronic Data Interchange
- E- Cheques
- Corporate Banking Terminal

II. INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

The term “ information technology” describes the phenomenon created by the convergence of technologies associated with computing, communication and office systems. In the past, most accounting procedures in banks were paper oriented. With the advent of new techniques like computers, electronic equipments and communication network, the modern accounting system have undergone a sea- change both in their preparation and presentation. The traditional system of preparing the account at quarterly, half yearly and annual lost their relevance since the information are constantly up-dated and made available at anytime and anywhere. The information technology enabled the banking organizations to redesign and restructure their functioning.

These services provided by using electronic technology and media are called information technology or electronic banking or e-banking. E-banking has given an opportunity for banks to find solutions to management problems like saving time money and energy or customers by reducing/minimizing paper works, waiting in queues, lack of communication and lack of efficiency. E-banking has provided ease and flexibility in banking operations. The recommendations of Narashimham Committee (1998), for the free and liberal entry of foreign banks in India have further improved the scope for e-banking. As many foreign banks and private sector banks like CITI Bank and ICICI, HDFC banks brought with them IT based products like ATM, credit cards, debit cards, on-line banking etc. This forced the public sector banks and other banks to think on the same lines as these services would help banks to retain their customers, target on banking products and services more effectively to customers.

Customers are also benefited as they are given more free time to indulge in e-commerce business. Therefore, after 1980 throughout the world with majority of banking transactions are done through nets or by using information technology. So the information technology solves many problems of the banking industry and very useful to the customers too.

III. APPLICATION OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY PHONE BANKING

Bank on phone, provides easy access for customers to have large businesses through telephones. Data are exchanged over the phone regarding any queries, to issue instructions on balance transfer, statement of account, cheque- book, stop payments, new schemes, interest rates etc. at any convenient time and place. Tele banking has gone a long

way in providing maximum customer satisfaction within the limited infrastructure.

IV. AUTOMATIC TELLER MACHINES: (ATM)

Banks in the cities to provide cash dispensation to their customers around the clock install ATMs. Now, the banks provide this facility in a more sophisticated way that a customer of one bank and branch can withdraw from any other banks, at any other branch, nationwide. In developed countries, this service is provided to their blue chip client globally. This is possible only through worldwide networking and communication system.

V. CREDIT CARDS

These plastic cards enable customers to spend whenever he/she wants within the prescribed limits and pay later. Debit card is a prepaid card with stored value, whereas credit card is post paid with fixed limits. It is seen that spending is higher through debit cards than with credit cards currently CITY Bank and time bank have started with Debit cards and now other banks are also following these to launch their own cards.

VI. ELECTRONIC FUNDS TRANSFER: (EFT)

Electronic funds transfer is a system of processing and communication of payment through electronic methods. EFT assumes greater significance in the banking system as the RBI also encourages the commercial banks to adopt this technique. Inter and intra bank transfers of funds are now made through this EFT mechanism. Transactions of high value i.e., at least more than one lakh is now made through this cost effective and quick system of settlement. Normally, payments are made through cash, cheques, drafts and credit cards. The latest in this process are the debit card system, charge, digital cash, and electronic purse and so on.

VII. SPNS- (SHARED PAYMENT NETWORK SYSTEM)

SPNS installed by the IBA in the city of Mumbai, enables electronic banking service like cash transactions, extended hours of banking, utility payments, cheques, point of sale facilities by the SPNS can go to any ATM linked to SPNS.

VIII. ELECTRONIC CLEARING SERVICES [ECS]

Electronic clearing of funds from one centre to another for handling bulk transactions like salary, interest, dividend, commission etc., has dispensed the cheques. A part of electronic clearing service is computerized clearing of cheques at metropolitan centers and linking with international communication system of SWIFT. These services have contributed in a great way towards improving the customers services globally. ECS was introduced in India in 1996. It has made it possible for customers to get the funds next day itself.

IX. POINT OF SALE [POS] TERMINAL

Payment card at a retail location for electronic transfer of fund is called POS. The client enters his personal identification number [PIN] and confirms the amount due.

Customer's account is automatically debited with the amount of purchases and it credits the retailers account POS installed at petrol stations and large retail houses are linked to banks network.

X. D-MAT ACCOUNTS

Transacting shares business through electronic media is called D-Mat. Investor opens an account called Demat Accounts with DPS. They get shares in electronic form.. Then they send the actual shares to the investor. Investor pays for the opening, maintenance and collection of shares. This has reduced the paper work, bad deliveries; loss of shares and less transaction cost. However delays in demating, higher cost charged by the investors has not given a good start for the growth and scope of Demat in India. Depository participant sometimes make illegal money at the cost of investors. SEBI should find ways to overcome this to give a good scope for Demat in India.

XI. ELECTRONIC DATA INTERCHANGE-EDI

EDI refers to the electronic exchange of structure information using telecommunication like payment orders, debits credits, statement of account etc. As part of EDI, satellite communication network is also entering the banks. EDI will very soon do away with branch banking and the customers will be identified as ban customer and not branch customer

XII. E-CHEQUES

Digital cheque used by the payer to the payee through internet is called e-cheques. Electronic versions of cheques are issued, received and processed. Most of the banks use e-cheques. A secure means of operation is provided for collecting, payments, and transferring cash flows through this method. The payer issues a digital cheque to the payee and the entire transactions are done through internet

XIII. COMPUTERIZED ACCOUNTING

Development in computer has brought about a change in the accounting practices in banks. A wide range of software packages were developed recently, which attributed to the widespread use of computers to increase the information needs. Microcomputer are used to keep records and for processing. Microcomputer is small unit capable of doing calculations, storing data and programmers. This computer ranges from small personal computer (PCs) to a blue chip "desk top" business computer. The microcomputers are used for word processing, spreadsheet application etc. if the computer is not properly used, and it will result in unfair accounting and loss of information. However, computer provides better information and increases efficiency of the banks.

Data base with different technology such as lost terminal, file server and client server system established all over the world. For creation, manipulation and share information, tools such as Microsoft windows were developed and applied. This Microsoft windows provide graphical user interface, window based word processing along with window based spreadsheet and E-mail package. Information

technology now uses geographic information system (GIS) and global positioning system (GPS).

GIS means type in a map to any other type of data. GIS is capable of converting data into pictures and graphs. GPS means the system, which enabled the precise navigation and targeting of many of the weapons used during the gulf war.

XIV. E-MAIL

The system of sending messages from one computer to another is known as "E-mail. E-mail originally was introduced in the year 1983 in U.S.A. to send the messages through E-mail, a mini personal computer, one telephone line, a modem and software support is required. Modern is of various types like kotex, robotex, multi-moderna etc. the change for sending a message with 250 characters (bits) through E-mail is Rs2. for express it is Rs.4. for foreign countries it is Rs.15 per page. If it is sent through telex or fax it costs Rs5 extra for transmission even within our country. There are different commands like read mail, prepare mail, mail list, status, message forward etc. each of these commands do different functions for example, read mail enables us to read the message sent by other to our computer. From the above we can understand that E-mail is the most economical and confidential mode of transmission of information globally.

XV. RBI NET (RBI NET)

This scheme facilitates the transfer of funds by a customer former any bank, any branch, any center to his client at some other center, so other bank and/or branch. Settlements between banks and with the RBI are now a day done through this system. Inter and intra bank clearing are also done through this electronic communication system.

XVI. INTERNET

Internet is a system interconnected with network worldwide. The increasing popularity of the Internet is the worldwide web (WWW), which connects millions of servers. In India there are 500 Internet hosts and more than 750 web sites that provide this Internet service. The Internet has 25 million computer buffs and their population explodes at a rate of 10% per month. Internet has found a nest off 150 countries. Arpanet developed by the USA in 1969 was the base for this magical development of Internet. Only those who master the computer commands can work successfully on the Internet. The Internet has many features. E-mail is one of the simplest facilities available on the Internet. Through this Internet, a subscriber can set up a newsletter, or a discussion through which the participants exchange their views. In the modern age, it is possible to transmit texts; pictures and voices information from anywhere, in any form in the world is accessible to the subscriber at the press of a button and at a very minimum cost. Computer on the Internet communicate with each other in a number of ways. These methods are called services. The most popular services are

- 1) Worldwide web
- 2) E-mail
- 3) FTP (file transfer protocol)

- 4) Use net news
- 5) ERNET
- 6) Browser
- 7) Graphic Viewers
- 8) New Reader
- 9) Uniform Resource Locator (URL)
- 10) Hypertext Transfer Protocol (http)
- 11) Gopher News
- 12) Wide Area Information Service (WAIS)
- 13) Application of information Technology in the Banking System

The following are the specific Areas where information technology can be used in the banking system.

- Preparation and posting in ledger (LAN)
- Portfolio management (genetic algorithm)
- Funds management and transfer (on-line banking)
- Credit appraisal
- Foreign exchange transaction
- Opening of letter of credit
- Issue of letter of guarantee
- Decision making at senior manager level
- Employees training and education
- Preparation and submission of financial statements
- Identification of fraudulent credit card transactions (neutral network system)

XVII. BENEFITS

The information technology can be administered in the banking system. The application of information technology will help in increasing the operating efficiency of the banking system. Its application will result in saving in cost. The quality of the information can be improved. The branches can provide improved customer services. This will enable the domestic banks to face and challenge the competition from their foreign rivals. There will be a reduction in the staff strength to a considerable extent due to the adoption of information technology. The working condition of the bank branches can be improved.

XVIII. BENEFITS OF E-BANKING SERVICES

- ✓ It reduces cost of both in services and administration
- ✓ Overcoming the geographical barriers
- ✓ Cost minimized for customers
- ✓ It helps to maintain customer loyalty
- ✓ Web site enable banks to develop advertisement
- ✓ Information technology enable banks to deliver products and services
- ✓ Multimedia capabilities offer homogenous branding
- ✓ Online banking encourages promotion of various schemes of the bank
- ✓ Individualized and customized services with the help of integrated customer data
- ✓ Minimizing fraud and misappropriation by inter-branch reconciliation

- ✓ Convenience to customers – like card free banking, cash free banking provides a domain of access to banking services.

XIX. REASONS FOR POOR ACHIEVEMENT

- Poor initial introduction of the information technology concepts in the banks
- Improper implementation of techniques of information technology
- Improper selection of hardware and software result in heavy cost and inefficiency
- Inadequate suppliers support after the purchase of the IT system
- Fear and reluctance among the staff regarding reduction of staff followed by retrenchment due to the introduction of information technology
- Brain drain is yet another cause for the poor implementation of the information technology
- Lack of co-ordination between the management and staff is another reason for the poor achievement.

XX. CONCLUSION

The current trends are quite comforting for customer- but it does pose threats and problems to banks. As we find information technology invading the banking sector, only banks, which used the right technology, could come out with success. Banks are required to 'restructure', re-invent and reengineer themselves go meet the necessary performance improvement and get the competitive edge due to the introduction of information technology (e- banking) being an important out put of ;information technology has ushered in an era which is transforming the entire functioning of banks. The tilt in the banks from traditional to modern e-banking services has been welcomed due its advantages, but banks in India are taking time to get rooted. Banks are slow but are going to offer in further more e-banking services to keep in pace with the evolving pattern of customers demand. The flexibility of e-banking offers unprecedented opportunities for the bank to reach out to its customers. With the rapid expansion of the Internet facilities, e-banking is all set to play a very important role in the 21st century. Banks have to deal with the sophisticated clientele with the help of latest technology like e-banking. Lack of coordination and cyber crimes encroaching E banking if

taken in the right way by banks and customers would take the economy to its best and make it a boon to customers. Introduction and/or development of information technology will not only affect the banking system of our country but the entire banking system of the world. It is high time to advise and train the banking personnel on the acquisition, installation and use of the information technology. Though there was a cry against the introduction of information technology, it is better to adopt it to face the stiff competition from the ever-dynamic foreign counterpart. As the banks become more sophisticated, the benefits of information technology will grow into leaps and bounds. Further research may be conducted on the feasibility of the introduction of home banking, mobile ATM, office banking, phone banking edger payment system and so on.

XXI. REFERENCES

- G.S. Mongia, R.K. Sinha, Nationalisation of Banks Retrospect and Prospects
- R.V. Kulkarni, B.L. Desai, Knowledge based system on Banking Sector
- I.V. Trivedi, Indian Banking in the new millennium
- M.P. Jaiswal, Anjali Kaushik, e-CRM-Business System frontiers
- DR. C.S. Rayudu –E-Commerce, E-Business
- E-Commerce-S.Pankaj
- Developing Accounting: Point Publishers, Jaipur 2005, P489-493
- Journal of accounting and finance: Vol.vii No. 1 spring2004 p14-24
- Journal of accounting and finance: vol. ix No .1 spring 2004 p76 –89
- Banking finance: Vol vii No.7, July 2005 p3-4
- Indian overseas bank quarterly news review: vol vii no.1, jan-march 2004 p10-12
- Punjab National Bank Monthly Review: July, 2003, p346-353
- The Week: 17 Sep.2003, p28&29
- The Banker: Sep.2004, p20
- Information Communication World: Oct. 2005, p11-14
- SBI Monthly Review: Oct 2003, p521-527

Hello! Ethiopian Manager Be Positive

Dr. Rajasekhara Mouly Potluri¹

Mangnale V. S.² Mr. Hailu Abiebie³

GJMBR Classification

FOR:150311,150305,150312,150311

GJEL:D21,M12,

Abstract-The major purpose of this research paper was to explore the behavioral and managerial competencies of the Ethiopian Managers in view of their employees.

Methodology/Approach: This research paper reviewed the relevant literature on behavioral aspects of the human beings. Then, through structured questionnaire and active personal interviews with 500 employees of Ethiopian corporate sector, the researchers tried to look at the various behavioral patterns exhibit by the managers' community. Along with the above, this study was also attempted to know the managerial competencies displayed at work by the Ethiopian managers in view of their employees. Collected data was analyzed by using SPSS and Microsoft Excel Software packages.

Findings: As per the opinions of Ethiopian employees, 33.50 per cent of their managers' were viewing submissive behavioral and 46.17 per cent managers' were exhibiting aggressive behavioral pattern while managing their organization. Most significantly, 20.33 per cent of Ethiopian managers' only were containing positive attitude in handling the things in their companies. Related to measure their managers' managerial competencies, Ethiopian employees expressed that only 26.93 per cent were competent.

Practical Implications: This research paper serves as a basis for Ethiopian managers to understand the opinions of their employees about their behavioral and managerial competencies which is an imperative source to indoctrinate them in developing positive behavior and also to improve their managerial skills.

Keywords-Submissive Behavior, Aggressive Behavior, Positive Behavior Managerial Competencies

I. INTRODUCTION

In the present day's highly volatile environment, where survival and success are challenging, organizations in general and managers in particular need to adopt a right blend of strategic planning and implementation to achieve organizational efficiency only by implementing right behavioral pattern. To achieve this, particularly managers need specific positive or assertive behavioral approach which is unique one when compared to the remaining two

behavioral approaches viz. submissive, aggressive. With the help of this kind of positive behavioral approach only managers community can get sufficient managerial skills to take various decisions related to day-to-day business activity and most important one managing men under his control to get maximum productivity from them.

Conventionally, human beings are identified to act in three forms: Submissive, aggressive, and assertive or positive. As the name suggests, submissive behavior limits one's actions to convinced thin limits. Such people often do job that they do not wish to do but are silently offended of the same. Against this, aggressive people correspond with others in an 'uncivil-tone' and march on others' rights. It is barely the positive people who converse up or set up for themselves or others without diminishing someone else's rights. Thus it is believed that positive behavior supports extremely in launching a climate that advances effective associations, though it may not always assure success in life.

II. TYPES OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR SUBMISSIVE BEHAVIOR

People low in self-assurance considers that they are incompetent, their needs are not valuable and they deserve no thought or concern. They have a penchant to put down decision to fortune or to others. They hope to get all that they want but expect others to guess their needs and even arrange for them. Generally, they show the way to miserable life since-'all peripheral dependence is sorrow'. They show an idiosyncratic body language of: shy posture; head bent to one side; avoid eye contact; coughing tensely; looking down, etc. Being of 'self-depreciating' nature, they work in order to avoid unpleasant situations, conflicts, and short-term confrontation; take no accountability for their actions; remain exposed to exploitation by others; remain lonely and suffer in silence and, in the process, they often don't get what they would like (Das, 1998).

Submissive natures of managers are very frequently creating some kind of inconvenience to their peers, subordinates and customers. This creates relentless state of fatigue, annoyance, culpability, irritation, drawing limited respect from them as they are of no use to them either in directing them or in improving their performance. Such kind of managers can be pressed over by everyone including the customers, peers and subordinates and therefore, provide little administrative and moral support to their subordinates, who stick to organizational requirements. In a positive side, this class of managers most of the times has an excellent capability in all the angels particularly conceptual, planning, organizational and coordinating skills and mostly these are hardworking people. Only these lack the confidence towards their abilities. Because of some one or two minute

About-¹ Department of Telecom Management Graduate School of Telecommunications & Information Technology Ethiopian Telecommunications Corporation P.O.Box:27160/1000 ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA. Ph: 251 11 416 9900 (O); 251 11 416 8408 (R) Fax: 251 11 466 7679 e-mail: prmourly@yahoo.co.in

About-² Sinhgad Institute of Business Administration & Research Kondhwa (BK)Pune- 411 048, India. Phone: 91- 20 26933633 (Office) 91 9881476717 (Mobile) Fax No: 91-20 26933633 e-mail: vs_mangnale@yahoo.co.in

About-³ Graduate School of Telecommunications & Information Technology Ethiopian Telecommunications Corporation P.O.Box:27160/1000 ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA. Ph: 251 911 202514 (Mobile) (e-mail: abiebiehailu@gmail.com)

negatives in them, they are showing this submissive behavioral pattern. If any body provides support definitely they can instill confidence in them by covering their deficiency with the shore up of their hard work. These categories of managers are mostly sensitive people who don't want to give any pains to others. This sort of idea establishes in their minds also one of the main reason for this submissive behavioral pattern.

Most of the time, these managers are exhibiting excessive degree of politeness because of this also most of the people are treating them as submissive ones. But every body should be clearly better to recognize the difference between politeness and incompetence in these managers. This kind of managers always takes decisions in consultation and participation with their close circles whether they may be in peers, subordinates. Because of the closeness with them, these managers discuss everything with them. Most of the times, these close circle people propaganda them as incompetent ones and expose them as most competent ones. Most of the present day's professionally managed corporations are recruiting this kind of conceptually strong human resources and providing excellent soft skills training to get the best from them.

III. AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR

In daily language we use the word "aggressive" to describe a person who may be successful in business, in sales, in sports and a variety of activities. Spoken this way, the word "aggressive" generally signifies a positive personality trait. However, in the field of psychology, the word "aggression" is largely confined to hostile behavior that has harmful consequences. The adjective form "aggressive" generally signifies a positive activity, but the noun form of that word, "aggression," is generally used to indicate something that has a negative outcome, like destructiveness, violence and crime (**Franken, n.d.**) "Aggression is a form of social behavior within everyone's repertoire. Accordingly, attention needs to be focused on the features that serve to keep its manifestations within acceptable bounds."(**Rutter, 1985**)

Aggressive behavior directed towards the goal of harming another living being who wishes to avoid such treatment (**Baron, 1996**). This is a variety of behavior in which one utters views/feelings in a way that penalizes, intimidates or puts the other person down. The aim of this behavior is simply by hook or crook to achieve their target even if it is done by being cynical and harsh towards others. They feel sanctimonious, controlling and superior. These kind of managers often close to people who are working and pointing their work whether that may be right or wrong and using a loud tone to highlight/point the work. They do not respect others' rights. They have only one statement that is: "Do what I say or leave the organization!" Essentially, most of mankind's problems arise from a general lack of knowledge about the control of aggression.

Aggressive managers are acknowledged to gain a sense of dominance out of aggression. It allows them to get the anger off their chest. By being aggressive, they feel that they are implementing control over the branch and believe

that they get what they want, at others' expenses. They fail to realize that in the process of being aggressive, their future transactions with others become more difficult and they will meet with hostile responses.

Relaxing and unwinding become a distant dream for such aggressive managers even after they overcome their anxiety in a particular situation. Aggressive managers make their colleagues feel embarrassed/devalued/hurt; make them unfriendly/angry; offended, troubled/panic the aggressor; and mutely work for revenge. The net result is poor organizational productivity. This kind of managers centralizes power in him and takes all decisions without consulting the peers or subordinates. These dominate and drive his group through coercion and command. These classes of managers loves power and never delegates authority. These kind of aggressive attitude managers give orders and expect the subordinates to follow them willingly and unquestioningly and uses carrot and stick approach to direct the employees. Some times just to cover their inefficiency; these managers use their voice to control the activity to cover up their egoistic nature. In this modern day's this aggressive behavioral attitude from the managers won't accept by any class of employees because of their education as well well-organized nature.

IV. ASSERTIVE OR POSITIVE BEHAVIOR

Albert and Emmons (1971), define assertive behavior as an open and flexible behavior, genuinely concerned with the rights of others, and at the same time able to establish very well one's own rights. Most important positive traits are: courage, goodness, honesty, truthfulness etc. These traits are virtues because they further altruistic ends (Roback, 2000).

Being assertive includes:

- valuing yourself and believing that you have the right to express your opinions
- and get your needs met
- being willing to share yourself with others, rather than holding everything inside
- respecting the rights and needs of others
- being able to choose how to respond to people or situations
- feeling okay about yourself, your needs, and actions (Andrews et.al. 1994)

A positive manager can tell people what he wants, and deal with them confidently without threatening them. A positive manager exhibits the ability to cope with other's manipulation and criticism without responding to counter-criticism with hurt feelings, guilt or shame. He will make requests and state points of view in a confident, straight forward manner without getting loud, annoyed or angry even with the union leaders. He cooperates with others in solving problems at an adult level so that both the parties can share the thinking process and get most of what they want. Being positive does not mean that a manager cannot freely and effectively refute, support or enhance others' views. It simply enables him to say 'yes' or 'no' or 'may be'. Thus, assertiveness means voicing one's opinion, observation or concern without diminishing others' rights. That is how a positive manager always remains in control of

himself while drawing the full attention of all those with whom he interacts. This ability of a positive manager to communicate with others so as to draw them in and enlist subjected to severe pressures from different macro as well micro environmental elements. In this juncture, they need greater degree of concentration, patience, and mental balance to be a positive attitude manager. To face constant business challenges and pressures effectively, a manager who desires to deliver best to his organization always opts for assertiveness training. In Assertiveness Training the person learns the importance of believing in fairness and good relations. The success of Assertiveness Training lies in several additional factors, but the most important is to believe in maintaining a relationship. That means suppressing volatile hostility, and replacing it with behavior and words which claim what you want (Alberti and Emmons, 1994).

V. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The main objective of the research was to recognize the behavioral and managerial competencies of the Ethiopian Managers in view of their employees.

Due to the wide geographical coverage and large population of the study, the scope of the research was limited only to 500 Ethiopian employees randomly selected from both public and private sector also covered both manufacturing and service sectors companies. The researchers prepared a questionnaire with two parts. First part contained the questions under the six heads like speech, look, manner, behavior, treatment of rights and image to measure the behavioral tendencies, and the second part also contained questions related to another six parameters like planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, and controlling to measure the managerial competencies of Ethiopian managers.

The sample frame for this study selected was only those employees who are working in and around the country's capital Addis Ababa. The sample size was 500 employees which were randomly selected both from the public and private sectors also covered from manufacturing and service industries. Mostly these were selected based on the issues like proximity, willingness and the appointments available from the employees for the collection of information. The major limitations for this research study were the number of employees chosen only from Addis Ababa Administrative Council, other parts of the Ethiopia employees were not

their support helps the manager achieve his objectives effectively. It is highly difficult to be a positive manager all the times because modern day's professional managers are considered and the study was also limited only to collect the opinions of employees on their managers' capacities. This research never tried to collect the opinions of either managers or top management of the organizations.

Evaluating and collecting data was an uphill task as the researcher tried to collect the data from different classes of Ethiopian employees who are working and living in different areas of Addis Ababa, the Ethiopia Capital. The researchers administered a two part questionnaire, first part consisted six questions related to know the behavioral tendencies and the second part also consisted another 6 questions related to measure the managerial functional competencies of Ethiopian managers. The entire questionnaire was made available for respondents in both English and local language (Amharic) to give a greater clarity and clear understanding. The questions enabled research participants to express their opinion on their managers' behavioral patterns and functional abilities. Along with the questionnaire, the researchers also collected casually the reasons for their opinions. The method of data collection was convenience type. Questionnaires were given physically to only willing employees and collected within the shortest time possible. Collected data was analyzed based on the consistency with research questions and objectives and the understanding and judgments of the researchers. The collected data were summarized, coded and manipulated by using Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel. The collected and analyzed data were presented in tabular forms and the informally collected reasons from employees' mentioned in findings and discussion part.

VI. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The researchers forwarded questions related to speech, look, manner, behavior, treatment of rights, and image to know the views of Ethiopian employees' towards their managers behavioral patterns. And in the second part of the questionnaire, the researchers raised the questions related to managerial functions of a manager viz. planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, and controlling to know the managerial competencies of Ethiopian managers.

Table: 1 Outlook of Ethiopian Employees on Managers Behavior

Parameters	Submissive		Aggressive		Positive		Total
	Figures	%	Figure	%	Figures	%	
1. Speech	125	25	225	45	150	30	500
2. Look	165	33	200	40	135	27	500
3. Manner	165	33	225	45	110	22	500
4. Behavior	175	35	265	53	60	12	500
5. Treatment of rights	200	40	270	54	30	6	500
6. Image	175	35	200	40	125	25	500
Average Percentage		33.50		46.17		20.33	100%

Submissive Behavioral Pattern: As per the opinion of 500 Ethiopian employees, only 33.50 percent of their managers were showing submissive behavioral pattern while managing in the organization. These respondents furnished some clues related to their managers' submissive behavior like they were speaking unclearly at the time of delegation of information and sometimes they were not clear about what they were telling and while giving information or talking with people they were looking somewhere. Related to manner, these submissive managers' were frequently saying apologizes and most of the times their behavior was in escaping mood from the responsibilities. And related to treatment of employee rights, Ethiopian employees expressed total satisfaction towards their managers and even some times they were surrender their own rights also based on the request of their peers or subordinates. Finally, their image was like a doormat, means everybody touches it just to remove their dust. In the organizational context, it means these submissive managers always helpful and supportive for every employee in their organization but when intricate situation came, every one tried to throw a stone on him. In the researchers casual interviews, some employees expressed reasons for this kind was only lack of confidence in their technical, managerial, conceptual capacities, lack of communication skills, inferiority complex, shyness, mostly defaming them by the core group people etc. Here these core group people treated manager's consultation as a sign of incompetence to deal with problems and led to slander them in front of others. Finally, because of the basic nature of the Ethiopians i.e. friendly and helpful, they expressed sympathy towards this kind of managers and ready to extend their cooperation at any extend. Apart from this, most of the employees believed these were hard working, customer centric, cooperative and result oriented people. Their main objective is to provide maximum benefit to customers or employees even by taking some pain for them.

Rather than to get the things with others sympathy, these managers' should practice clearly what they want to speak with his peers and subordinates and even with his superiors. And always look at the eyes of the opposite person to convey his feelings in a relaxed mood. Most significantly, these managers' should concentrate on improving all the basic skills required to deliver the best for their positions. They have to be too specific in their communication and better to avoid complaining, always better to give directions to their employees with great confidence. If these managers practices all this, they would be major asset to the organization because of their hard working, result focus, team work abilities. Finally, the problem is in their minds not in their capacities.

Aggressive Behavioral Pattern: The study respondents uttered approximate 46 per cent of their managers' were demonstrating aggressive behavioral pattern in completing the work from the employees. These respondents provided different hints related to managers' aggressive behavior like they were speaking loudly at the time of passing the information and some times they were scolding without any specific reason and while giving instructions or talking with people they were looking stares. Related to manner, these

aggressive managers' were constantly tried to find faults in everybody's work and always in a mood to fight with others. And related to treatment of employee rights, Ethiopian employees expressed total displeasure and frustration towards these managers and sometimes they reported matter to their unions also. Finally, their image was like a steam roller, means every time flush out the steam with lot of heat and in organizations also these managers always in an angry mood and ready to burst on employees without any specific reason.

Majority of the respondents said that some peculiar reasons like just to cover their inabilities, these managers' were shouting on others without proper reason, and to demonstrate their power and authority, superior nature, etc. These kinds of managers' adores power and never delegates authority but blaming others for the failure in completion of job. Aggressive managers always in a mood to dictate terms and conditions for every employee in the organization but most of the times this leads to conflict with employees. These managers were suffering with ego problems and to satisfy their ego, these were behaving like this. Finally, Ethiopian employees were in frustration, low morale and some times this led to conflict among subordinates also. If any manager exhibits this behavior pattern, it is not possible to get the full potential from the employees. Most of the times, employees are monotonous and some times this also increases employee turnover.

Apart from this, some of the employees believed that aggression is required to quickly complete the work and also more useful when managing less competent subordinates.

Positive Behavioral Pattern: As per the estimation of total sample of Ethiopian employees, meager 20.33 per cent of their managers' were exhibiting positive behavioral pattern while getting the things done in the organization. Ethiopian employees identified some evidence related to their managers' positive behavior like these were very normal, cool and straight to the point while giving oral or written instructions to their employees and very straight forward and polite towards workers. Related to behavior, these were always engaged themselves on various job elements and these were very concerned about employees' rights, if requires, with the expense of their own rights, these are ready to safeguard the employees. And these managers image was like a pillar, which means these were ready to offer extraordinary support to all classes of employees to stand in their situation.

In the researchers' relaxed interviews, most of the employees stated innumerable number of reasons on their most favorable managers was like confident, clear, and straight to the point and more cooperative to all classes of employees in achieving their responsibility. Apart from this, they were more helpful and two-way in solving problems at work. Most of the employees were clearly identified the decentralization of authority and allows the subordinates to share his power and always these were in a mood to take decisions in consultation with peers, superiors, and subordinates. All the times these were encouraging freedom of thinking, and expression among all levels of employees. Ethiopian employees strongly believing on

these managers' working style as well their capabilities like team work, result focus, personal effectiveness, business understanding, customer orientation etc.

Finally, based on the deficiencies in the behavioral patterns of both submissive and aggressive, and also good features or traits in the positive approach, every Ethiopian manager

should personally evaluate their existing behavioral patterns with the help of psychologists and tries to develop positive behavior with careful identification of his rights in the organization and must at the same time accept the responsibility for shielding or honoring all classes of employees rights.

Table: 2
Viewpoint of Ethiopian Employees on Managers' Competency

Managerial Functional Parameter	Competent		Incompetent		Total
	Fig.	%	Fig.	%	
1. Planning	90	18.00	410	82.00	500
2. Organizing	215	43.00	285	57.00	500
3. Staffing	70	14.00	430	86.00	500
4. Directing	83	16.60	417	83.40	500
5. Coordinating	180	36.00	320	64.00	500
6. Controlling	170	34.00	330	66.00	500
Over all result in percentage		26.93		73.07	

Competent Managers: In view of the total 500 Ethiopian workforce, only 26.93 per cent of their managers' were competent in their planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, and controlling capacities. In our qualitative research, Ethiopian employees has given impressive information like sound planning with careful analysis of all the influential elements and treated this one as a uninterrupted process with superb integration of all the remaining functional actions under his control. Related to organizing, employees expressed two issues connected to confident designing and introduction of organizational structure and rational delegation of responsibility and authority. And in the opinion of their employees, these competent managers were showing expertise in placing the right man in the right job. Ethiopian employees were totally pleased with the continuous directions with greater clarity and in advance time from these managers'. Apart from this, Ethiopian employees clearly observed another important ability in this kind of managers' i.e. coordination and control. These managers as per the opinion of their employees were showing positive attitude in coordinating both intra-departmental and inter-departmental actions with his careful planning and communicating the matters in time, frequent follow-up, and related to controlling, these managers established well, and rationally defined standards for every activity, introduction most sophisticated and rationale methods for measuring performance of every class of employee, and comparing these two results and identify the possible deviations with greater fairness, and finally correct the system with his conceptual, technical, administrative, functional capabilities. Employees never expressed any displeasure on these managers' functional abilities.

Incompetent Managers: In the opinion of Ethiopian employees, 73.07 percent of their managers' were incompetent in delivering their functional abilities in the organization. Most of the respondents whispered innumerable number of reasons on managers' incompetence. As per the belief of employees, these managers totally failed in giving in advance information about the things done from the employees. Most of the times, they are failing in estimating the various premises which will severely effect the planning process. And even they don't have proper integrating and analyzing skills related to planning. Related to organizing abilities, they were designing and introducing poor organizational structure and following irrational process to delegate responsibility as well authority and associated with staffing, these managers were very pitiable understanding about their employees' skills, knowledge, abilities, dexterities, experience, and educational, cultural, social background which result in failure of the placing the right employee in the right job. In association with managerial functions like coordination and controlling, these managers' were very unfortunate understanding and too casual in this area. Because of these managers' casual and egoistic nature, and failure in communicating the information to the required work spots, the entire department's activities were severely hampered. And at the time controlling the elements, these managers' were following simply irrational methodology for setting standards, measuring actual performance of employees, comparison, identification of deviation and even at the time of introduction of corrective measures also. Based on the strong beliefs of the Ethiopian workforce, managers' of this kind should be better to change and participate in training programs for refreshing their managerial functional abilities to get the maximum productivity from every resources

under their control in general and from human resources in particular.

Managerial Implication: The current study presents insights to both Ethiopian managers and also to academicians in the country to understand the key opinions of the country's workforce on their managers' behavioral and managerial functional capacities. Based on these opinions managers' should be better to once again review their existing behavioral style and better to develop or practice positive nature which is imperative to get the utmost productivity particularly from the human resources. No one is perfect in this world. Even positive managers also have some deficiencies, based on the pressure situations these will come out. And if possible, participate in assertiveness training to build up and practice these kinds of skills. Ethiopian corporate sector also should introduce special training facilities in this behavioral aspect. In association with managerial functional abilities, Ethiopian managers' should frequently refresh their functional abilities by closely monitoring various micro as well macro business environmental elements. They have to be once again checking the basics and improve these functional abilities with latest developments and also should be rational in their every aspect while implementing every plan, policy, program, and strategy. Based on the majority of the employees' views, Ethiopian managers' should be better to introduce sound planning process with cautious analysis of all the premises to integrate the entire activities of both intra-department and inter-department. In organizing the doings, based on his organization's requirements and things to be completed, they should be choose most suitable structures in the available ones and while delegating the responsibilities and authority also should be always rational and consider every employee background. In connection with the functions like staffing, directing, coordinating, and controlling, they have to be considered latest developments in world corporate sector and call for changes as per the local requirements. This means think globally and act locally.

VII. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the researchers evidently identified the match between the views of Ethiopian employees on their managers' behavioral and managerial functional competencies i.e. majority of the Ethiopian managers' were demonstrating either submissive or aggressive behavioral patterns which were not suitable to the present business

environment and also not competent in their managerial functional abilities. Particularly, based on the negative opinion of Ethiopian workforce, managers' community in Ethiopia should give attention to practice positive attitudinal displays and also increase their managerial functional abilities which would be beneficial to their personal career as well to the organizations. So to be positive, one needs to constantly think of being positive. Only such positive behavior and managerial functional ability can ensure efficiency in actions of every manager in the world. Such behavior from the managers makes every employee nurture positive approach and in the end, makes the organization effective in its quest of corporate goals. At the personal level too, an individual enjoys better relations with others by high caliber of his positive approach and to that extent his 'quality of life' stands enhanced.

VIII. REFERENCES

- 1) Alberti, R. and Emmons, M. (1971), *Your Perfect Right*, 7th edition, Impact Publishers, Inc., San Luis Obispo, CA.
- 2) Alberti, R. and Emmons, M. (1994), *The Assertiveness Inventory*, Impact Publishers, Inc., San Luis Obispo, CA.
- 3) Andrews G, Crino R, Hunt C, Lampe L, Page A. (1994), *Social Phobia, The Treatment of Anxiety Disorders*, New York: Cambridge University Press.
- 4) Baron, A.R. (1996), *Psychology*, Prentice-Hall of India, New Delhi
- 5) Das, J.P. (1998), *The Working Mind: An Introduction of Psychology*, Sage Publications, New Delhi.
- 6) Franken, D. (n.d.), *Replacing passiveness and aggressiveness with assertiveness*, viewed 13 February, 2008.
- 7) <http://www.lifeskillstraining.org/assertiveness.htm>
- 8) Michael Rutter 7th Congress of the European Society of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry Lausanne, Switzerland. *Acta Paedopsychiatrica*, March (Supplement) 6:11-25, 1985.
- 9) Roback, A.A. (2000), *Psychology of Personality Development*, Lakshay Publications, New Delhi.

Marketing Strategies of Nigerian Political Parties: A Comparative Analysis

Rowland E. Worlu

GJMBR Classification

FOR:150503

GJEL:N47,O55,M31

Abstract-Political parties operating within a country may compete by using different competitive methods due to dissimilar political marketing orientations of party leaders and other internal distinctive competences. This implies that marketing strategies differ among political parties in Nigeria because each party employs different mixes of marketing variables to compete in our democratic politics. Accordingly, this paper examines the contents of marketing strategies employed by Nigerian political parties. In pursuit of this objective, four dominant political parties were selected out of the thirty political parties that participated in the 2003 General Elections in Nigeria, and their electorates. Quota and stratified sampling techniques were mostly used in their selection. Our questionnaire was administered on 800 respondents; out of which 626 were returned. After editing, 598 were found usable. These were analyzed with tables, frequencies, percentages, and ANOVA. The findings indicate that marketing strategies of Nigerian political parties contain product, price, place, promotion, people, process and physical evidence elements. Nigerian parties were found to be essentially product and sales-oriented in their approach. The tested hypothesis showed that there are significant differences in the contents of the marketing strategies employed by Nigerian parties. Based on these findings, it is recommended that parties should sharpen their strategies to be more issue-based and people-oriented.

Keywords-Marketing Strategies, Politics, Political Parties, Electorate, Democracy, Election.

I. INTRODUCTION

Prior to Nigerian independence in 1960, the colonial administration had organized a couple of general elections without any deliberate and systematic marketing programme undertaken in any of them (Nzeribe, 1992). Yet, political parties and candidates canvassed for votes, located offices in different towns and villages, etc. This explains why Henneberg (1996) noted that researchers in political marketing will continue to discover that political parties do not always consciously make marketing decisions although one might classify certain activities or processes as marketing management.

After independence, however, a new dimension was observed as political marketing communications started gaining ground. In 1963 elections, for instance, advertising gained prominence as notable politicians like Chief Obafemi Awolowo of the Action Group, used it to send messages to the public. Sales promotion also had its own slot when chief

Awolowo used helicopters to write campaign messages in the sky (i.e. sky writing) to propagate his campaign messages.

During the series of election conducted in 1979 to usher in the second Republic, deliberate efforts were made by virtually all parties to persuade voters by using marketing promotional techniques like advertising, sales promotion, personal selling, publicity, and even direct Marketing.

The trend continued in 1983 with the hiring of advertising agencies by some of the political parties to promote their candidates. The National Party of Nigeria (NPN), for example, hired Saatchi and Saatchi from Britain.

However, the best of times for political marketers in Nigeria came between 1991 and 1994 when Social Democratic Party (SDP) and National Republican Convention (NRC) which contested in the series of elections within the period continued the tradition of using professional advertising agencies. The SDP had a foreign team comprising British and America experts that worked with their Nigerian counterparts (e.g. Sunrise Marketing Communications).

The NRC also followed suit as it syndicated creative campaign efforts through Nigerian and foreign experts (O'Cass, 2001).

The result was that the SDP candidate (MKO Abiola) had a clear victory with 58.6% of all the votes cast, and having at least one third of the votes cast in 29 out of then 30 states in Nigeria (Ibodje and Dode, 2007).

According to Nnadozie (2007), the 1993 presidential election gained popularity among Nigerians and therefore generally accepted by the people. It was also acclaimed by both national and international observers as the most genuine, freest and fairest in the history of elections in Nigeria.

Scholars believe that Abiola's victory was largely made possible by the massive deployment of marketing strategies, though he never became the President for reasons best known to the then military junta (Achumba and Dixon-Ogbechi, 2004; Osuagwu, 2008).

Due to what public opinion perceived to be an injustice to the winner of June 12, 1993 elections, political marketing began to lose its salt as interest in politics began to wane in Abacha days (i.e. between 1994 and 1998, even with the existence of parties like United Nigeria Congress Party (UNCP), Democratic Party of Nigeria (DPN) Congress for National consensus (CNC), National Centre Party of Nigeria (NCPN), and Grass root Democratic Movement (GDM).

But between June 1998 and May 1999, political marketing activities resumed with the restoration of democracy in Nigeria by Abubakar. This culminated in the swearing-in of Obasanjo in May, 29 1999 as a civilian president.

About-¹Department of Business Studies
School of Business College of Development Studies
Covenant University, P.M.B. 1023, Ota Ogun State, Nigeria.
Email- worlurek@yahoo.com
Tel: +2348037048971

The 1999 general elections did not particularly win the accolade of Nigerian and International publics because of the incidences of rigging, and other electoral vices. But there seemed to be a general consensus, even if unwritten, among Nigerians to tolerate the result so that the military will vacate the political arena (Nnadozie, 2007)

If marketing strategies could work in 1993 general elections, then there is a part it must play in our on-going political experience. That part is in the marketing concept which believes that our electoral process must be conducted in such a way that its outcomes are satisfactory to all and sundry. This is the crux and theme of this thesis. In pursuit of this theme, an analysis of the marketing strategies employed by the dominant political parties in 2003 general elections was considered worthwhile. The idea was to determine the extent to which marketing thoughts have pervaded the heart and soul of political parties in Nigeria. This helps to classify the characteristics of the Nigerian political market with a view to creating appropriate models for political marketing practice in Nigeria.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Element of Marketing in Electoral Politics.

Essentially, politics is about power; but the struggle for power results in conflict and competition. Therefore, under girding political practice is the struggle for power which creates disagreement and conflict. Nevertheless, the effects of politics which are conflict and disagreement are never permanent, and must be managed for the improvement of society to be achieved.

From another dimension, politics is about policy. Extending this view, Bruce Miller in Nzimiro (1992) states that 'policy is a matter of either the desire for change or the desire to protect something against change. This also leads to conflict.

According to Nzimiro (1992), politics in modern society is expressed through political parties which are created to achieve the goals of society. This is why political parties are organized around specific ideas often called 'ideologies'. Originally, they were formed from local communities and the spread of their influence evolve from the establishment of the electoral system.

The history of human civilization shows clearly that class conflict is an inherent characteristic of human societies. Whereas in the past, this conflict derived from disproportionate ownership of land capital, today it is basically expressed in the control of state apparatus and media.

What is more? Each class saw marketing as a weapon to be employed in the ideological war of politics. The result is that political parties have now become the platforms for rearing leaders who are keenly interested in the contest for power through the electoral system.

Politics now becomes the struggle to control the power base, as the state establishes its machinery for controlling the populace. The control of the populace is not always obvious for human nature abhors absolute dependence. Thus, political control is often disguised when the winning group controls political power, its constituent members, and

operatives become the ultimate beneficiaries. Today, the electoral process has become the expression of the democratic form of struggle within a given class system.

A participant in this power struggle who is aptly called 'a politician' and whose aim is to be in government has to market himself and his party's manifesto. He must be able to convince his electorate that his party's programme is more relevant to their needs than his competitors'. In addition, he must convince them that he can ably represent them and ensure that his party's programme is implemented. According to Ohiwerei (2002), the political party can be likened to a company, the party ideology to a company's mission statement; the party manifesto to a company's marketing strategy/plans, and the party candidate to a brand. The logical conclusion following from this thought process is that a political party, if it is to be effective and successful, should operate like a business or a company. Given this analogy, there is no gainsaying the relevance of marketing in politics.

The success of any company depends on the success of its brands or services. Similarly, the success of a political party in an election depends on the success of its candidates. It is imperative therefore for the politician to have a close look at what makes a brand successful.

In brand marketing, the key to success is a thorough understanding of the market, the consumer and the competition, by the help of the market research. The knowledge thus acquired helps in having a clear vision of the role the brand will play in the market. That role must meet a particular need better than competing brands. In other words, the adoption of a marketing approach in politics promises to bring about rationality in our political processes.

III. THE CONCEPT OF ELECTION AND ELECTORAL PROCESS

In the current edition of the international Encyclopedia of social science Vol. 5, election is defined as 'one procedure of aggregating preferences of a particular kind.' The two features of this definition are procedure and preferences. By procedure, the concept is used to describe a special way of doing something. Preference connotes choice between alternatives.

In the light of the above definition, Ibodje S.W. and Dode, R. (2007) described election as a procedure that allows members of an organization or community to choose representatives who will hold positions of authority within it. For Gwinn and Norton (1992), election is the formal process of selecting a person for public office or accepting or registering a political proposition by voting. They state further that an election is one of the means by which a society may organize itself and make specified formal decisions, adding that where voting is free, it acts simultaneously as a system for making certain decisions regarding the power relations in a society, and as a method for seeking political obedience with a minimum of sacrifice of the individual's freedom. The essence of a democratic election is freedom of choice.

For Eya (2003), election is seen as the selection of a person or persons for office as by ballot and making choice as

between alternatives. Eya defines Electoral process as the method adopted in the selection of persons for political offices. He further sees electoral frauds or malpractices as improper, illegal, deceitful or immoral behaviours and conducts which vitiate free and fair electoral processes. This definition will be adopted in this paper.

A fair electoral process, according to him, must have some basic structures, which include; statutory provisions establishing the electoral bodies, Delineation of wards/constituencies, Registration of political parties, Registration of voters, Recruitment and training of ad-hoc staff, Procurement of electoral material, logistic, screening of candidates, provision of polling agents, monitoring agents, actual voting, accreditation of voters, counting votes and providing avenues for settlement of disputed results.

Onyeka (2002) elucidates what characterizes a proper electoral process. For him, the basic objective of election is to select the official decision makers who are supposed to represent citizens-interest. He posits that an electoral process reinforces the concept of self-rule, celebrates it and legitimizes governmental power. Elections, according to Onyeka, extend and enhance the amount of popular participation in the political system adding electoral history started with restrictive voting based on property ownership and tax payment. The basic constituents of the electoral process according to Onyeka, include; political parties, political opinions, pressure groups and mass media. They all converge in the electoral process to determine who the leaders would be and ensure that the elected officials will represent their constituencies effectively.

Similarly, the 1987 Political Bureau Report gave a lucid clarification and interpretation of elections and electoral processes. It states that four basic conditions are necessary for the holding and conduct of free and fair elections. These include;

- a. An honest competent, non-partisan administration to run elections
- b. Enabling rules and regulations – Electoral laws;
- c. A developed system of political parties
- d. An independent judiciary to interpret electoral laws.

The Report underscores the importance of free and fair elections as a prerequisite and precursor for Peace, Stability and Progress in the polity. From the gamut of literature reviewed on the concepts of “democracy” and “election”, Nigeria’s democratic and electoral processes have always accommodated, provided and projected the basic principles, tenets and features of democracy and elections, yet the incidence of electoral frauds and malpractices have continued to emerge through the electioneering years.

For our purpose, election is defined as a form of procedure recognized by rules of an organization whereby all or some of the members of the organization choose a small number of persons or one person to hold office of authority. Election is said to be free and fair where it is conducted in accordance with the rules and regulations to the satisfaction of all stakeholders. Furthermore, general election is the process in which all political parties contest for elective

posts. . Ibodje S.W. and Dode, R. (2007) have itemized the functions of election as follows:

- Provides a means of selecting office holders.
- Provides for popular control, ensuring that those who govern are, within the constraints of the choices offered to the voters.
- Guarantees that citizen’s support will be given to the government.
- Ensures that government is responsible since the representatives are answerable to the electorate.
- Provides a basis for peaceful change of government.
- Provides a channel of communication between governors and governed.

However, the electoral process suffers diminutive conceptualization in political discourse, such that it is taken to be equivalent to election or electoral system. But the concept, to wit, reaches beyond the method of choosing public office holders; or the method of translation of votes into seats or decision as to who has won an election. Perhaps, the most beneficial way to comprehend the electoral process is to explore a descriptive conceptualization, which exposes the distinctive features of the process. This is necessary in order to make the idea of electoral process clear and inclusive.

According to Nwabueze (1993), the electoral process embraces within its ambit all the institutional procedures, arrangement and actions involved in elections. Specifying, he said; It includes the suffrage, the registration of voters, delimitations of constituencies, the right to contest elections, electoral competition between rival political parties, body charged with the conduct and supervision of election, the method of selection of candidates within the political parties, nomination of candidates, method of voting, the actual conduct of elections, the determination of results, trials and determination of election disputes, electoral malpractices and their consequences.

Furthermore, the electoral process includes election observation and verification activities carried out by local and international bodies or both. It also includes the establishment of institutions and structures that will mobilize the populace towards involvement in the electoral process, and provides the rules and regulations that govern the process. Indeed, the electoral process is an all-encompassing process, which involves many issues and operations. The issues and operations are elastic depending on the type of political system and the level of maturity of the democratic process.

The electoral process can be divided into two parts, the Constitutional and non-constitutional. The constitutional aspect has issues that are prescribed in the constitution such as the body responsible for the electoral process and the independence of such a body. The non-constitutional aspect such as, voters’ register, procedure at election, electoral offences etc., are issues that are more appropriately covered by Acts of National Assembly – i.e., the Electoral Law. The dynamics of the electoral process require such matters as registration of voters, method of voting – whether by secret

or open ballot or by Option A4, period and time table of elections etc. to be non-constitutional in order to make allowance for easy and expeditious change in the system when necessary (Nwabueze, 1993). Therefore, the electoral process is a defining and regulating process in the democratic contest.

It is imperative to add here that the electoral system is an institutionalized procedure for the choosing of office holders by some or all of the recognized methods of an organization (op. cit). There are two types of electoral system: the plurality system and the proportional system.

Under the plurality system of first past the post, the person with the simple majority of votes wins. Under the proportional system, votes are allocated proportionally to candidates according to percentage scores of political parties.

IV. POLITICAL PARTIES

According to Ibodje S.W. and Dode, R. (2007) a political party is an organized group with a clearly defined policy whose main aim is to win or retain political power. A party tries to win political power if it is the opposition, but if the party is in power, it tries to retain such powers. Ideally, political parties are manifestations of differences in the social structure. A political party is therefore expected to represent a major interest group in any society.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK(efficiency Theory, Marketing mix management theory, Game theory.)

V. EFFICIENCY THEORY

Efficiency theory has been instrumental in establishing what constitutes performance in an organization (Drucker, 1978). Johnie (1988) points out that performance achieved by managers is actually made up of two important dimensions, namely: effectiveness and efficiency.

Effectiveness is the ability to choose appropriate goals and achieve them. To put it perspective, Drucker points out that effectiveness is essentially doing (i.e. accomplishing) the right things.

Efficiency, on the other hand, according to Drucker, is the ability to make the best use of available resources in the process of achieving organizational goals. Drucker calls this "doing the right thing".

In essence, political parties as an organization needs to exhibit both effectiveness (doing things right) in order to achieve a high level of performance.

Hunt (1994) indicates that productivity is the goal of a political party, and he calls productivity a performance measure which includes effectiveness and efficiency. Robbins (2001) maintains that productivity implies a concern for both effectiveness and efficiency. He further argues that effectiveness means achievement of goals, while efficiency is the ratio of effective output to the required to achieve it.

A political party, for example, is effective when it wins at the polls but it is efficient if it does so at a low cost. In other words, a political party is effective when it attains its votes or vote-share goals, but its productivity also depends on achieving those goals efficiently. Popular measures of

political party efficiency include vote-share, size of membership, party growth rate, winning spread, minimal intra party conflict, minimal defections out of the party, (Barack, 1995).

VI. MARKETING MIX MANAGEMENT THEORY

There are essentially two competing paradigms in marketing that situate political marketing practice. These are Marketing Mix Management (MMM) paradigm and Relationship Marketing (RM) paradigm. The MMM paradigm is considered by many experts to be the theory of marketing that has dominated marketing thought, research and practices since it was introduced around 1960 (McCarthy, 1960). The theory rests on the notion of four Ps i.e. product, place, price and promotion; and largely obscured earlier models such as the organic functionalist (Alderson, 1950), systems-oriented (Fisk, 1967) and parameter theory approaches (Rasmussen, 1955). Some definition of marketing are based on the MMM thinking (e.g. American Marketing Association, 2002; Stanton, 2003; Baker, 1999 etc.). These definitions typically see marketing as the appropriation of techniques to get goods across to a market. Marketing is thus, by this approach, managing a set of activities in order to persuade the customer to buy a product. This function is often made the exclusive preserve of certain professionals who are located in a separate department of the firm. Marketing in this paradigm is a profession.

As Johanson (2005) noted, MMM theory is often labeled transaction marketing because its main focus is on facilitating singular purchases, not the maintenance of existing customers' relationships. The marketer tries to win customers over and over again, irrespective of whether they have made purchases before or not. Most importantly this concept is found on manufactured goods type of logic. MMM paradigm, though originally developed in response to the (then) growing market of fast-moving-consumer goods in the 1950s North America, now informs most of the contemporary political marketing literature. The elements of the MMM paradigm constitutes the cornerstone of the marketing theory (Jobbes, 2001). The so-called '4ps', i.e. the marketing instruments of product, price, place, and promotion, as well as the 'marketing concept constitutes the cornerstones of marketing theory (Jobbes, 2001; Kotler, 2003). But Milton, Booms and Bitner, (1982) have extended the 4ps to 7ps and argue that the additional 3ps of people, process and physical evidence apply mostly to the marketing of services, and since political marketing is situated in service marketing, it becomes imperative to discuss the 7ps as the instruments of political marketing.

In other words, 4ps were introduced by McCarthy (1960) in its current form, i.e. for tangible products and transactional exchanges while the 7ups relate to intangible products. Henneberg (2003) advised that the development of methodological foundation of political marketing theory should be based on these instruments and at the same time integrate and adopt new conceptual development as in marketing theory to the existing body of knowledge in political marketing. Henneberg (2002) classified these

instruments as 'generic' functions, which serve as requirements for successful political marketing management. They affect exchange relationships of political actors (e.g. political party, electorate, etc) in the complex network of political relationships.

Many of the seminal contributions of the fifteen years are devoted to a discussion of the 4ps of political marketing (Farrell and Lahortmann, 1987; Reid, 1988; Niffenegger, 1989; Wortmann, 1989; Harrop, 1990; O'Shanghnessy, 1990; Newman, 1994; Scammell, 1995; Egan, 1999; Scammell, 1999; Lees-Marshment, 2001; O'Cass, 2001; Henneberg, 2002; Wring, 2002a; Lloyd, 2003.)

Besides being relevant to operational aspects of the use of marketing instruments, such discussions also touch upon the essence of what political marketing is. For example, discussions of the notion of 'product' in a political exchange clearly relate to more fundamental questions about the 'political market' and the underlying interactions and value exchanges.

VII. GAME THEORY

Another theoretical underpinning of this work is the game theory. This means that political marketing borrows some of the techniques of the game theory.

Historically, the game theory was propounded in the 1920s by Emil Borel, and was further developed by John Von Neumann to explain the behavior of the economic man or the rational actor. John Von Neumann was also credited with further development of infinitesimal calculus which deals with change and its effect under certain conditions.

The game theory, as Jack Piano and Robert Riggs (1973) see it, deals "with rational decision strategies in situation of conflict and competition, when each participant or player seeks to maximize gains and minimize losses". The emphasis of the theory was the application of mathematical models to political studies, and it has its origin in those parlour games, like chess, chicken poker or bridge characterized by "element of conflict, decision making and cooperation". These are games between two or more players, where the decision of each player "are contingent upon the decision of others" (Ajayi, 2006).

The central point here is the nature of inter-dependence of whatever decisions are made by the different players participating in the game. This is because it is not possible for any one player to make a choice without giving considerations to the choices made by the other players. Thus the task before each player is to ensure that decisions are based on expectations of what actions the other players would take at any given time. The import of this is that the game entails elements of consistency and rationality among actors because such actors have partial control over the strategic factors affecting their environment. According to Ajayi (2006), the use of games theory in political studies is based on the following assumptions:

1. That the game is usually well defined.
2. That the game has an explicit set of rules.
3. That the information available to the players is specified at every point.

4. That the scoring system is complete (Verma, 1975). Central to the theory are two vital components, namely; the players and the strategies or tactics. The players, also known as the decision makers, could be individuals or institutions are assumed to be rational with well defined objectives and are endowed with resources to checkmate competing forces. To guide the deployment of these resources are rules.

The game theory further argues that "each player has a scale of utilities according to which he prefers some outcomes, so long as he plays the game at all". The player also has a range of options among different moves he can make, and there are particular expectations of such moves. Even though their knowledge of outcome of their actions are uncertain, the theory further argues that if players must play well, they must know what they know and what they do not know, and they must know what they can and what they cannot do. (Duetsch, 1978). But the assumption of the theory that a player can strategize in a manner that takes care of all possible contingences has little application to real life situations.

The outcome of whatever strategy is adopted gives rise to the different forms of game theory we know. Examples include:

- a. The zero – sum game.
- b. The non zero – sum game.
- c. The zero – sum n – persons game.
- d. The non zero – sum n – person games.

In the zero – sum game we have only two players and the gains of one always equal to the loss of the other. In (b) and (c), two or more persons are involved, and the players may share the division of the award, and the gain of one need not be equal to the loss of the other. In (d) where there are three or more players, it is possible for two or more players to cooperate against the others by pooling resources and making collective decisions during the play. This is the idea behind the coalition and realignment in politics or 'ganging up' on the front runner in order to stop his chances of winning (Verma, 1975).

No matter its inadequacies, game theory has found relevance in analyzing major issues of national and international politics. It is used, for instance, as analytical tool of strategic studies to explain the phenomenon of wars, diplomacy and bargaining. It has also been found useful in explaining the dynamics of national politics, especially issues of electoral politics, voters behavior, political alliance and elite conspiracy.

VIII. DEVELOPMENT OF MEASURES.

Out of 400 copies of the questionnaire administered to the four dominant parties to confirm whether marketing strategies applied to their activities and if they were capable of improving significantly the level of electorate support, a total of 311 copies were returned, of which 298 were complete and usable resulting in a net response rate of 74.5%. This is an appreciably high response rate, considering that the average top executive survey response rates are in the range of 15% and 20% (Deng and Dart, 1994 Felton 1959), and that collecting data for such a country - wide study with a large population is difficult due to the

numerous obstacles encountered (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Mavondo, 2005; Miles and Snow, 1978)

In the second phase of the research, data were collected from the residents of the states where the parties being studied controlled, out of the 400 copies of questionnaire administered, 315 were returned. After editing, only 300 were found usable and suitable for our purpose. This also amounted to 75% response rate. For both phases of the research, data analyses were performed in two stages: (a) Manual computation and tabulation of data; and

(b) Analysis of variance (ANOVA) performed by computer using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS)

software. Demographic characteristics of the total sample in phase one of the study are presented in table 4.1. In all the parties more than half of the participants were male with the share of male respondents being highest (60.4%). The party subsamples are similar with respect to the age of the average level of education, marital status, position in the party. Our main motivation for limiting the survey to certain states within a geopolitical zone was only the concentration of the membership of the parties being studied in these areas.

TABLE 4.1 Sample Characteristics of Parties (Members)

	PDP	ANPP	AD	APGA	TOTAL
Number of target respondents*	200	120	40	40	400
Share of actual respondents	150	80	35	33	298
Share of response rate (%)	75	66.7	87.5	82.5	74.5
Share of male (in %)	60.4	54.0	50.5	50.7	53.9
Share of female (in %)	39.6	46.0	49.5	49.3	46.1
Average age in years (standard deviation in bracket)	(17.68)	(16.09)	(14.12)	(12.56)	(15.44)
Respondents who completed university education (in %)	26.4	14.5	36.5	17.3	24.4
Share of respondents who are married (in %)	62.7	55.0	43.5	37.6	48.6
Share of respondents who hold office in the party and having secondary education and above.	80.5	65.5	75.5	72.5	73.5

Source: Field Survey of Dominant Parties: 2003 Elections, 2007.

Note: * Distribution according to proportion of Dominance.

TABLE 4.2 Sample Characteristics of Electorate

	PDP	ANPP	AD	APGA	TOTAL
Target respondents	200	120	40	40	400
Actual respondents	155	85	31	29	300
Response Rate (%)	75.5	70.8	71.5	72.5	75
Share of female (in %)	39.6	46.0	49.5	49.3	46.1
Share of male (in %)	60.4	54.0	55.5	50.7	53.9
Average age in years (standard deviation in bracket)	40.73 (17.68)	38.20 (16.09)	38.29 (14.12)	39.08 (12.56)	38.95 (15.44)
Share of respondents who have secondary education and above (in %)	66.4	64.5	76.5	77.3	71.3
Share of respondents who are employed or self employed (in %)	67.6	53.5	55.0	62.7	60.0
Share of respondents who are married	53.4	57.0	53.6	57.4	55.1

Source: Field survey, 2007

Table 4.15 Mean Scores of Marketing Strategies of the Dominant Parties

.S/N	RESPONSES	FP	LP	CP	NP	TOTAL
1	Product related strategies	5.1	6.3	5.3	3.5	20.2
2	Promotion related strategies	4.8	6.3	5.0	4.1	20.2
3	Distribution related strategies	4.9	6.1	5.8	4.8	21.6
4	Price related strategies	4.8	6.1	5.1	4.3	20.3
5	People related strategies	4.4	6.0	4.5	4.3	19.2
6	Process related strategies	5.0	5.9	5.3	3.8	20
7	Physical evidence strategies	4.3	5.7	4.1	3.5	17.6
8	Party oriented strategies	4.7	5.6	4.9	4.7	19.6
9	Sales oriented strategies	5.0	5.6	5.5	5.2	21.3

10	Market oriented strategies	4.3	5.7	4.3	4.2	18.5
	TOTAL	47.3	59.3	49.8	42.4	

All factors measured on 7-points scale.

KEY: LP= Leader Party – PDP; CP=Challenger Party – ANPP;

FP=Follower Party – AD; NP= Nicher Party – APGA.

IX. INTERPRETATION OF RESULT

On a general note, the parties employed more of distribution related strategies ($x=21.6$) and sales oriented strategies ($x=21.3$). Next to these two are price related strategies (20.3), product related strategies ($x=20.2$) and promotion related strategies ($x=20.3$). These are followed by process oriented strategies ($x=20.0$), party oriented strategies ($x=19.6$), people oriented strategies ($x=19.2$), market oriented strategies ($x=18.5$), physical evidence ($x=17.6$).

Conversely, the Leader party has the best mix of all the ten strategies, and this is evidenced by an overall mean score of 59.3. This is followed by the Challenger party ($x=49.8$), Follower party ($x=47.3$), and Nicher party ($x=42.4$).

As table 4.15 shows all the marketing strategies employed by the Nigerian dominant political parties have been identified as falling under two major categories i.e. marketing mix strategies and political marketing orientation strategies. The marketing mix strategies include product, promotion, place (distribution), price, people, process, and physical evidence.

The political marketing orientation strategies include product-oriented strategies, sales-oriented strategies, and market-oriented strategies. The parties' mean scores on each of the strategies have been shown on table 4.15 and can be interpreted as follows

On Product Related Strategies

$Lx=6.3 > Cx=5.3 > Fx=5.1 > Nx=3.5$. This means that Leader party employs more product oriented strategies than other parties.

On Promotion Oriented Strategies

$Lx=6.3 > Cx=5.0 > Fx=4.8 > Nx=4.1$. The Leader party applies promotion-oriented strategies more than other parties.

On Distribution Related Strategies

$Lx=6.1 > Cx=5.8 > Fx=4.9 > Nx=4.8$. The Leader party employs more of the distribution oriented strategies than other parties.

On Price Related Strategies

$Lx=6.1 > Cx=5.1 > Fx=4.8 > Nx=4.3$. The Leader party uses price related strategies more than other parties.

On People Related Strategies

$Lx=6.0 > Cx=4.5 > Fx=4.8 > Nx=4.3$. The Leader party adopts people-oriented strategies more than other parties.

On Process Related Strategies

$Lx=5.9 > Cx=5.3 > Fx=5.0 > Nx=3.8$. The Leader party is ahead of other parties in the application of process related strategies.

on physical evidence strategies

$x=5.7 > Fx=4.3 > Cx=4.1 > Nx=3.5$. The Leader party is leading other parties in the application of physical evidence strategies. It is followed by Follower party, Challenger party and lastly Nicher party.

On Party Oriented Strategies

$Lx=5.6 > Cx=4.9 > Fx=4.7 = Nx=4.7$. This means that the Leader party is leading other parties in the enforcement of party position upon the electorate.

On Sales Oriented Strategies

$Lx = 5.6 > Cx = 5.5 > Nx = 5.2 > Fx = 5.0$. The Leader party employs more sales-oriented strategies than other parties. However, it is closely followed by Challenger party in this respect.

On Market-Oriented Strategies

$Lx = 5.7 > Cx = 4.3 = Fx = 4.3 > Nx = 4.2$. This shows that the Leader party is ahead of other parties in the application of market-oriented strategies.

Mean Score

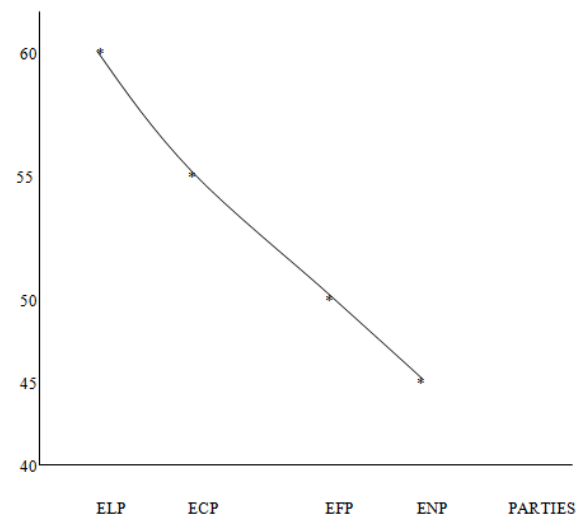


Figure 10: Perking order of the parties' marketing strategies.
TABLE 4.18: Descriptive & ANOVA Statistical Analysis of the Marketing Strategies of the Parties.

	F	L	C	N	F-Value Cal.	F- Tab.	Decision	Relative Size
Variable 1 Product Strategies	5.13 (1.23)	6.29 (0.76)	5.25 (0.46)	3.5 (1.22)	9.08	0.000	Reject Ho	L>C>F>N
Variable 2 Promotion Strategies	4.75 (0.89)	6.29 (0.76)	5.0 (1.85)	4.12 (0.41)	3.97	0.010	Reject Ho	L>C>F>N
Variable 3 Place Strategies	4.86 (1.13)	6.14 (0.69)	5.75 (0.71)	4.67 (1.03)	4.16	0.016	Reject Ho	L>C>F>N
Variable 4 Price Strategies	4.75 (1.1.7)	6.14 (0.38)	5.13 (1.35)	4.33 (1.22)	3.31	0.037	Reject Ho	L>C>F>N
Variable 5 People Strategies	4.38 (1.30)	6.0 (0.58)	4.50 (0.20)	4.33 (1.03)	3.87	0.021	Reject Ho	L>C>F>N
Variable 6 Process Strategies	5.00 (1.51)	5.86 (0.38)	5.25 (0.89)	3.83 (0.75)	4.56	0.011	Reject Ho	L>C>F>N
Variable 7 Physical Evidence	4.25 (1.39)	5.71 (0.95)	4.13 (1.13)	3.50 (1.38)	3.96	0.019	Reject Ho	L>C>F>N
Variable 8 Party Oriented	4.38 (1.77)	5.57 (1.81)	4.88 (0.99)	4.67 (1.63)	0.526	0.762	Accept Ho	L>C>F>N
Variable 9 Sales Oriented	5.00 (1.07)	5.57 (0.98)	5.50 (1.20)	5.17 (0.98)	0.484	0.696	Accept Ho	L>C>F>N
Variable 10 Market-Oriented	4.25 (1.04)	5.71 (0.95)	4.25 (1.04)	4.17 (0.41)	4.61	0.001	Reject Ho	L>C>F>N

The figure in parenthesis represents the standard deviation and level of significance: $\alpha=0.05$.

Decision Rule: Reject Ho if F-Calculated > F-tabulated. Otherwise accept

X. GENERAL DISCUSSION OF RESULT

Based on the above view point, several typologies have been developed to classify and describe parties' political marketing behaviours into a few types. A political marketing orientation is commonly defined as how a party uses strategy to adopt and/or change aspects of its environment for a more favourable alignment. In literature, it is variously referred to as political marketing pattern, ideological thrust, predisposition, or choice.

Arguably one of the most well received approaches to conceptualizing and operationalizing marketing strategy implementation is the typology of Kotler (2002). It is recognized in the literature as the competitive marketing structure and it comprises the market leader, market challenger, market follower, and market nicher.

In line with this arrangement, it stands to reason that PDP (the ruling party) is the market leader; ANPP is the challenger, while AD and APGA could stand as market follower and market nicher respectively. The parties are asymmetrical in that the ruling party held a majority at the time immediately after the general elections under reference. It attempted to retain or increase its support by presenting the image of a favourable political manager, proposing policies, advertising and defending its existing programmes and so on. The opposition (i.e. challenger and the Follower) attempted to reduce the ruling party's support by doing such things as criticizing the activities of the ruling party and arguing that they have a better set of policies than those currently in place. This asymmetry is shown in the data presented in the analysis that follows.

However, the competition among political parties can be broken into two, somewhat different, periods. These periods will be thought of as one for this study rather than as periods in a two period strategy.

The first period is the time between elections and the activities of the parties involved the marketing strategies directed at programme development and building the image as well as reputation of the party. Marketing strategy is defined in a broad sense to include things like appearances at public functions and talk shows, advertising, consultation with groups, development of position papers, selling policies to various constituencies, attending launches, listening to constituents, digesting and criticizing the ruling party actions. We might also consider the timing of new policy initiatives and legislation as reflecting a development of marketing strategy. The resources used are mostly time, effort, the goodwill of volunteers and party members as well as party funds. Marketing strategy is also costly in non-monetary terms in the sense that there are always opportunities lost in terms of time and resources that party activists or politicians could spend on other activities, working in their constituency, or simply as leisure or in seeking other forms of private income. It may also use resources that could either be used elsewhere or saved for the election campaign itself. These include the time and goodwill of volunteers and staff.

The second is the period during an election campaign in which the remaining marketing strategies are complemented. At this point, effort (e.g. logistics, rallies etc.) and most advertising funds are spent. This is a winner takes all strategy, rather than a strategy of positioning. Although this campaign period has its own dynamics, it is

probably best thought of as a complete commitment of all marketing strategies over a short time interval.

In other words, the parties follow a number of strategies in a marketing competition depending on such things as information available and ability to appropriately redeploy strategies. This means that appropriate functional strategies contribute to the effectiveness of political marketing. In particular, it has been established that the match between politics and marketing strategy contributes immensely to the understanding of political marketing. The reason is not far fetched. The primary purpose of marketing is to create long term and mutually beneficial exchange relationship between an organization and its publics (i.e. individuals and organizations with which it interact). The manner in which parties undertake marketing, however, has continued to evolve. Increasingly, political marketers are involved in charting the direction of the party and contributing to strategic decisions that enable the party to create and sustain competitive advantage. Political marketers are therefore no longer mere implementers of decisions in the area of campaign but also active initiators and makers of party manifestos and programmes.

Political marketing strategy is a plan for selecting, analyzing a target market (constituency) and then developing and maintaining a marketing mix (product, price, promotion, place, people, process, physical evidence) that will satisfy the market.

A target market (constituency) is a group of voters at whom the party directs its marketing strategies. Marketing mix is a combination of seven elements that a party uses to attract voter responses. Thus, the marketing mix elements form the components of marketing strategy because once a party selects a target market (voter group) it must develop a set of marketing mix that satisfies or matches the needs of its target markets. This sets the stage for political marketing.

The underlying premise of this research is that political marketing is essentially an iterative process with the semblance of strategic marketing. This is because as a party's external environment changes, market opportunities and threats emerge and disappear, and may re-emerge in a modified form at a later stage. In essence, the formulation of a marketing strategy is concerned with matching the capabilities of a political party with the demands of its external environment (i.e. political market place)

XI. CONCLUSION

Theoretical Findings

The Role Of Marketing Strategies

Generally, political organizations use marketing strategies in such activities as image building, issue-tracking, the targeting of voters, timing of elections and aiding in policy formulations (Kavanagh, 1995, Smith and Hirst, 2001). In other words, marketing strategies are required in electoral competition among rival political parties. Marketing strategies are also needed as short term tactical device (information-gathering in the run-up to elections) and a long-term or permanent managerial activity to ensure sustained governance (Nimmo, 1999; Smith & Hirst, 2001).

It stands to reason that political parties wishing to gain long-term competitive advantage must strive to design marketing strategies that will achieve the satisfaction of relevant target audience (voters, party members, party funders, etc.)

Marketing strategies occur in three phases of the electoral process. These are pre-election period which embraces marketing planning and campaign activities. It also involves strategy formulation and gradual implementation. The second is the phase of election. In this phase, legal requirements may not permit overt activities. Yet marketing activities (such as personal selling, telemarketing, logistical issues) continue. In the third phase, the post-election analysis begins. Winners begin to deliver on their electoral promises.

The political parties generally employ the following aspects of marketing strategies :

Product Strategies: A political party's product may include its candidates, leadership or executives, elected or appointed members in government positions, staff, party constitution, party conferences and policies, among others (Lees-Marshment, 2001a).

Marketing concepts, principles, frameworks and strategies in the area of product (design, launch etc.) have been substantially adapted in order to be of relevance in electoral politics.

Promotion Strategies: political products are promoted via all channels consumed by the target audience. These channels have been enumerated by Savwate (1990) as advertising (e.g. print advertisement, audio-visual advertisements, etc); publicity (e.g. write ups, reporting in print and audio-visual media), public relations, lobbying etc); personal selling (door-to-door visits, group meetings, public rallies, telephone calls etc); sales promotion (e.g. exhibitions, leaflets and stickers, etc).

Distribution Strategies: The distribution strategy is concerned with the conditions regarding the availability of exchange offer (political product) to the exchange partner. There are two aspects involved: campaign delivery and offering delivery.

The campaign delivery aspect provides the primary exchange partner (the electorate) an access to all relevant information about political product. The offering delivery aspect refers to the fulfilment of political promises (Harrop, 1990; Palmer, 2002).

Pricing Strategies: In political marketing, 'price' tends to be redefined as an element of 'costs' or 'sacrifices' (Henneberg, 2003). Inhibitions (e.g. caused by opportunity cost considerations) can prevent voter decision process as well as electoral act itself. Therefore, political marketers try to reduce the necessary (monetary and non-monetary) efforts for voters to process political information, form opinion, evaluate alternatives, and participate in politics in the wider sense.

The People Strategies: The 'people' dimension of political marketing instruments can be viewed from two perspectives:

Parallel – campaign team

Internal – cohesion team

The parallel – campaign team refers to organisations such as single issue groups (like NLC, NBA, Afenifere, NPSA, etc)

that perceive an overlap of their agenda with that of the party.

The internal – cohesion team is concerned with the relationship with party members and party activities as well as all the ‘touch point’ agents of the party (e.g. front-benchers, spokes people, etc.)

The Process Strategies: The political marketers can choose among different processes to deliver their ‘product’ to the electorate: such process could be democratic or undemocratic, friendly or unfriendly, encouraging or threatening, etc. For instance, a party may require, as a pre-condition for its ticket that a candidate should show evidence of his community’s support.

Physical Evidence Strategies: In this case, the political marketer develops a picture of its intended voter value proposition for instance PDP uses umbrella as its logo. Besides, the reputation of the political entity (political party or candidate) serves as a physical evidence that service will be delivered as promised. Political parties in advanced democracies (like U.S.A, Germany, United Kingdom, etc) are market-oriented in their politicking while nascent democracies product and sales-oriented. Nigeria falls under this category.

MODEL3: The Political Marketing Process

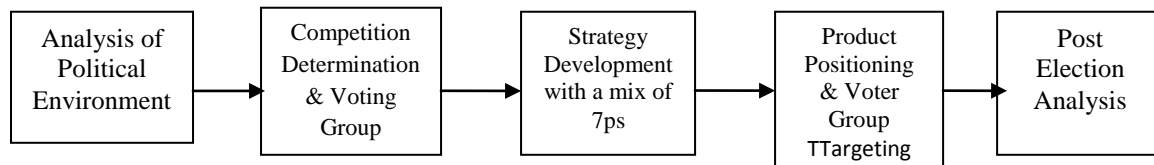


Figure 18.0: The Political Marketing Process

Source: Designed by the Researcher (2009)

There are five stages in the political marketing process:

STAGE 1: Analysis of political Environment: This is concerned with the analysis of the political environment. This would include information gathering about the political tradition (e.g. zoning arrangement) and constituency identification.

Also in this stage, constituencies that are most likely to change their allegiance are identified since such constituencies are particularly important to all the various parties, and resources can be targeted more effectively at these constituencies, thereby saving political parties both money and time (Baines, 1996).

Other issues in this stage include:

Historical Data: These are reviewed to show the party’s vote- share and major source of competition at the previous election (i.e. if it is an existing party).

Census Statistic: This shows the demographic structure of the constituency. It reveals changes in the constituency’s demographic and partisan profile. With this revelation appropriate targeting of relevant voting groups can take place.

Constituency Ranking: Knowing where each constituency stands in the electoral federation helps to determine the

swing needed to gain a seat. If the persuadable voters are less than the required swing in that constituency then the constituency should not attract the attention and resources of the party in question.

Constituency Research: This is vital for a full understanding of the current position of the major parties within a constituency since historical voting data does not give any idea of recent changes in the partisan nature of the constituency.

Canvass Records: Canvassing should be undertaken in order to determine the supporters of the particular parties (or even floating voters, so that the constituency organisations can tailor specific strategies to the relevant sections of the electorate.

The combination of constituency research, census statistics, canvass records and historical data allows the political strategists to determine the principal competition and the relevant voting groups to be targeted.

STAGE 2: Competition Determination and Voting Group Identification

This stage involves determining the main competition and segmenting the various voter groups as well as incorporating all the recent data from canvassing and constituency research.

STAGE 3: Strategy Development

This concerns a decision on how the seven variables of marketing will be combined to gain effect. These variables are commonly referred to as 7p’s or components of marketing strategy. They are products, promotion, price, place, people, process, and physical evidence. They have been briefly explained as part of theoretical underpinning of this paper.

STAGE 4: Product Positioning and Voter Group Targeting

Product positioning gives voters reasons to favour a particular party or candidate. This reason derives from the policies, issues and the reasoned argument of the political marketer.

Voter group targeting can be conducted through door-to-door canvassing, telephone, direct mail and local meetings, etc.

STAGE 5: Post-Election Analysis

The essence of good marketing in politics is to learn from previous successes and failures, and to build these into future planning and strategy. This stage attempts to determine what lessons can be learned from previous stages.

XII. POLICY IMPLICATION

On the Marketing Strategies of the Parties

Marketing strategy is concerned with setting direction and matching internal resources and skills with a changing political environment in a way that enhances the performance of the parties over time. This fit-view of strategy was espoused by Peter Drucker and other organizational theorists in the 1980s. Other contemporary researchers have seen strategy as a process by which organizational resources and competences are leveraged to yield new opportunities and provide competitive advantage. Thus the association of marketing strategy with politics remains a significant shift in marketing management since the 1990s.

A panoramic view of the literature shows that politics will lose its salt and glamour without the inputs which only marketing can provide, especially in a democratic environment. Thus marketing concerns and viewpoints have become pivotal in the management of political affairs.

In today's world, the realities of democracy are making the shift toward political marketing mandatory for all political parties and nation-states. The move is no longer a choice because in the battle for vote-share, marketing strategy is the most effective weapon parties can employ to leverage vote shares.

It has been observed that marketing strategies in a party promote innovativeness which contributes to the creation of positional advantage which in turn leads to superior electoral performance. The implication is that marketing strategy reflects a systematic effort by a political party to acquire information about its vote market and to integrate such information into political marketing process.

In the light of the foregoing theoretical background and the results of this research, it is strongly recommended that Nigerian political parties have to be totally market-oriented. A market-oriented party seeks to understand electorate's expressed and latent needs and goes ahead to develop superior solutions to meet those needs in its programmes. In other words, the goal of market-oriented party is to provide superior value for electorate. The result is that voter satisfaction leads to party re-election.

Research has also shown that when a party is market-oriented and hence able to meet voters' needs more accurately and effectively than competitors; and in a manner which competitors find difficult to emulate, it will be able to achieve competitive advantage. Market-orientation thus represents both an additional strategic dimension and an important basis for building a sustainable competitive advantage.

When a party is market-oriented, it is able to look beyond current voters' needs to develop future programmes that will tap latent needs which serve to strengthen a party's position in the vote market over time. Market-orientation is also crucial in guiding a party's process of selecting its flag bearers who are ultimately used to create voter value, quick and extensive market penetration with decreased campaign and electioneering costs. There is always a strong positive relationship between market orientation and party's overall

performance, and Nigerian parties can benefit from it. Hence, political campaigns in elections should focus on issues of social, economic and political relevance to replace the usual dramatization of ideological bankruptcy across the political landscape by the political parties.

XIII. REFERENCES

- 1) Achumba, I. C.; Dixon-Ogbechi, B. N. (2004) "Political Marketing –Marketing Unusual" in Marketing Journal, Vol. 1 No 1 October.
- 2) Ajayi, F.(2003), "Foreign Observers and Nigeria's Elections", Daily Champion, May 19.
- 3) Ajayi, M.O. (2006) Reflections on Democratic Succession in Nigeria, Covenant University, Journal of Business & Social Sciences, Vol. 1, N01 December 2006
- 4) Ajayi, M.O. (2007) The Soccer Pitch and the Political Arena in Nigeria; Covenant University Public Lecture Series.
- 5) Akpan, (2003), "Truth as Casualty in 2003 Election" Daily Champion, July 8.
- 6) Alderson, W. (1950) 'Survival and Adjustment in Organized Behaviour Systems,' in R. Cox and W. Alderson, Theory in Marketing., Irwin, Homewood, IL: 65-88.
- 7) Amakiri, A.A. (2006) Propaganda in International Politics, Spectrum Books Ltd, Ibadan.
- 8) Appiah-Adu, K. (1997). Market Orientation and Performance: Do the findings established in large firms hold in the Small Business Sectors? Journal of Euro Marketing. Vol. 6
- 9) Bloom, M. (1973), Public Relations and Presidential Campaigns, New York: Thomas Y.Crowell Company.
- 10) Blumenthal, S. (1980), The Permanent Campaign, Boston, and M.A: Beacon Press.
- 11) Bradshaw, J. (1995), "Who Will Vote for You and Why: Designing Strategy and Theme". In: Thurber, J. A. & Nelson, C. (1999), Campaigns and Elections: American Style. (Ed.) Boulder, USA: West view Press, Co.
- 12) Bulter, David and Ranney, Austin (eds) (1992), Electioneering – A Comparative Study of Continuity and Change, Oxford Clarendon.

- 13) Bulter, D. and Kavanagh, D. (1997), *The British General Election of 1997*, Basingstoke: Macmillian.
- 14) Christopher, M., Payne, A., & Ballantyne, D. (1991) "Relationship Marketing", Butterworth-Heinemann London, pp.8-9.
- 15) Coram, A (2003) "The Rise and Fall of Support for Political Parties: a dynamic analysis: Electoral studies. 22, 603-16
- 16) Coviello, N.E., Brodie, R.J., Munro, J. (1997) "Understanding contemporary marketing: development of a classification scheme", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 9, No. 4. Pp.23.
- 18) Cronbach, L.(1951) Coefficient Alpha and Internal Structure of Test. *Psychometrika* 16:297-334
- 19) Day, George S. (1984) "Marketing's contribution to the strategy dialogue." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*. 10 (May): 323-329.
- 20) Day, George S. and Robin Wensley. (1988) Assessing advantage: A framework for diagnosing competitive superiority." *Journal of Marketing*. 52 (April): 1-20.
- 21) Dean, D. & Croft, R. (2001) "Friends and Relations: Long-term Approaches to Political Campaigning", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 35, no. 2. Pp. 1197-1216.
- 22) Dermody & Scullion (2001) "Delusions of Grandeur Marketing Contribution to Meaningful Western Political Consumption". *European Journal of Marketing*. Vol. 35, No. 9-10.
- 23) Diamantopoulos, A. and Hart, S. (1991), "Marketing Orientation and Company Performance: Evidence from UK Manufacturing Industry", *AMA Educators Conference*, Orlando Florida.
- 24) Dinken, R. J. (1989), *Campaigning in America – A History of Election Practices*, Connecticut: Greenwood Press.
- 25) Dixon-Ogbechi, Bolajoko N. (2003), *Fundamentals of Business Policy and Strategy*, Lagos: Philglad Nig. Ltd., p119
- 26) Downs, A (1957), *An Economic Theory of Democracy*, New York: Harper Collins.
- 27) Egan, J. (1999), "Political Marketing: Lessons from the Mainstream", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 15. No. 16, pp.495-504..
- 28) Gamble, A. (1990), "Theories of British Politics", *Political Studies*, Vol. 38, pp. 8-19.
- 29) Gershman, C. (2000), "Building Cooperation among Democracies", *Issues of Democracy* May.
- 30) Glick, e. (1967), *The New Methodology*,
- 31) Washington DC: American Institute for Political Communication.
- 32) Guobadia, Abel,(2003), "2003 Elections: The Flaws we Noticed" *Vanguard*, August 13.
- 33) Gronross, C. (1994) "From Marketing Mix to Relationship Marketing." *Management Decision* Vol. 32: 4-20.
- 34) Gronroos, C. (2000) *Service Management and Marketing*. Chichester, Wiley.
- 35) Gummesson E. (1987) "The New Marketing-Developing Long-term Interactive Relationships." *Long Range Planning* Vol. 20. No. 4: 10-20.
- 36) Gummesson, E. (1991) *Marketing Revisited: The Crucial Role of the Part-time Marketers'*, *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 25, No 2, pp.60-67
- 37) Gummesson, E. (1996) "Making Relationship Marketing Operational", *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, Vol. 5. No.5. pp.5-6.
- 38) Gummesson, E. (1997) "The New Marketing-Developing Long-term interactive Relationship Long-Range Planning Vol. 20 No. 4, 10-20.
- 39) Gwinn, R and P. Norton(1992): *The New Encyclopedia Britannica*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- 40) Hall, Richard (1989) "The management of intellectual assets: A new corporate perspective." *Journal of General Management*. 15 (autumn): 53-68.
- 41) Hall, Richard (1993) "A framework linking intangible resources and capabilities to sustainable competitive advantage." *Strategic Management Journal*. 14 (November): 607-618.
- 42) Halperin, M.H. (2000), "Building Cooperation Among Democracies:", *Issues of Democracy*, May.
- 43) Harrop, M. (1990), "Political Marketing", *Parliamentary Affairs*, Vol. 43, No.3,pp.20-33.

- 44) Henneberg (2002) 'Generic Functions of Political Marketing Management, University of Bath, School of Management, working Paper Series.
- 45) Henneberg, S. (1996), "Second Conference on Political Marketing", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 12, pp.23-31.
- 46) Hisrich, R.D., Micheal P.P. and Shepherd, D.A. (2005). *Entrepreneurship, International*. Ed., Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- 47) Holsti, O.R. (1996), *Content Analysis for the Social Sciences and Humanities*. Mento Park, CA: Addison-Wesley.
- 48) Hooley, G.J., Greenley, G.E., Cadogan, J.W. and Fahy, J. (2005), "The Performance Impact of Marketing Resources", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 58, No. 1 pp.18-27.
- 49) Hornby, A. S. (1974), *Oxford's Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, London: Oxford University Press, p656.
- 50) Huff, L. and Kelley, L. (2005), "Is Collectivism a Liability? The Impact of Culture on © Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- 51) Hunt, Shelby D. and Robert M. Morgan (1995) "The comparative advantage theory of competition." *Journal of Marketing*, 59 (April): 1-15.
- 52) Hunt, Shelby D. and Robert M. Morgan (1996) "The resource-advantage theory of competition: Dynamics, path dependencies, and evolutionary dimensions." *Journa of Marketing*, 60 (October): 107-114.
- 53) Ibodje S.W. and Dode, K(2007) *Political Parties, Voting Pattern and National Integration in Elections and The Future of Democracy in Nigeria*. Edited by Attahiru Jega and Okechukwu Ibeanu, NPSA.
- 54) Iloh Emeka Charles and Mike Alumona I. (2009) *Electoral Process and Gender Discrimination in Nigeria: A case study of 2003 & 2007 General Elections*.
- 55) *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa* Vol. 10, No 4, Clarion University of Pennsylvania, Clarion Pennsylvania.
- 56) Irvin, Robert A. and Edward G. Michaels (1989) "Core skills: Doing the right things right." *The McKinsey Quarterly*. (Summer): 4-19.
- 57) Itami, H. (2001) *Mobilising Invisible Assets*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- 58) Iyiegbuniwe, P. C. (2005). "The Impact of Managerial Perception of Environmental Characteristics on
- 59) *Marketing Strategies, and Performance of Quoted Firms in Nigeria*". A Ph.D dissertation, University of Lagos. Jack P. & Robert R (1973)
- 60) Jackson, Jr. T. E. (2004), "Brand Marketing in today' Clustered Marketplace", www.findarticles.com/cf_dis/m2519/4_24/100543191/p1/article.jhtml
- 61) Jacobsen, Robert (1988) 'Distinguishing among the competing theories of the market share effect.' *Journal of Marketing*, 52 (October): 68-80.
- 62) Jacobsen, Robert and David A. Aaker (1985) 'Is market share all it's cracked up to be?' a. *Journal of Marketing*, 48 (Fall): 11-22.
- 63) Jaworski, B. J., & Kohli, A. K. (1993). *Market Orientation: Antecedents and Consequences*. *Journal of Marketing*, 57 (July), 53-70.
- 64) Jeter, H. (2003), "Reflection on the 2003 Elections in Nigeria", *The Guardian* Tuesday April 15, p.75.
- 65) Johansen, H. (forthcoming) 'Political Marketing: More than Persuasive Techniques – An Organizational Perspective'.
- 66) Johansseon, J. K. (2000), *Global Marketing Foreign Entry, local Marketing & Global Management*, Boston: McGraw-Hill Companies Inc., pp.383-84.
- 67) Johnson, D. W. (2001). *No Place for amateurs*. New York: Routledge.
- 68) Kavanagh, D. (1995), *Election Campaigning: the New Marketing of Politics*, Oxford: Blackwell.
- 69) Kavanagh, D. (2003), "Party Democracy and Political Marketing: No Place for amateurs?"
- 70) Kerlinger, F. (1964). *Foundations of Behavioural Research*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- 71) Kotler, P. (1995), *Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, Implementation, And Control*, 8 ed., New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India Private Limited, p.464

- 72) Kotler, P. FOR (1972) "A Generic Concept of Marketing." *Journal of Marketing* 36: 46-54 (April)
- 73) Kotler, P. (1979) "Strategies for Introducing Marketing into Nonprofit Organisations." *Journal of Marketing* 43 (January): 37-44.
- 74) Kotler, P. (1991) *Strategies Marketing for Non-profit Organisations*. Prentice-Hall. 4th Ed.
- 75) Kotler, Philip (1994) *Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, Implementation, and Control*. Engelwood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- 76) Kotler, P. (1995), *Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, Implementation, And Control*, 8 ed., New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India Private Limited, p.464
- 77) Kotler, P., Armstrong G., Sunders J., Wong, N. (1999), *Principles of Marketing*, Prentice Hall London.
- 78) Kukah, M.H. (1999), *Democracy and Civil Society in Nigeria*, Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited.
- 79) Lado, Augustine A., Nancy G. Boyd and Peter Wright (1992) "A competency-based model of sustainable competitive advantage: Toward a conceptual integration." *Journal of Management*. 18 (March): 77-91.
- 80) Lebach, D.W. and Biehal, G. (1991), *Empirical Research in Strategic Market Planning: Current Progress & Future Directions*, Chicago IL: American Marketing Association.
- 81) Lees-Marshment, J. (1996) "The Marriage of Politics and Marketing", *Political studies*, Vol. 49. Pp. 692-713.
- 82) Lees-Marshment, J. (1999) "Marketing the British Conservatives 1997-2001" *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 17, pp. 929-941.
- 83) Lees-Marshment, J. (2001), *Political Marketing and British Political Parties*, Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- 84) Lock, A. and Harris, P. (1996), "Political Marketing: Viva La Difference", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 30 No. 10/11, pp. 21-31.
- 85) Mahoney, Joseph T. and J. Rajendran Pandian (1992) "The resource-based view within the conversation of strategic management." *Strategic Management Journal*. 13 (June): 363-380.
- 86) Maarek, P. (1992), *Political Marketing and Communication*, London: John Libby
- 87) Maarek, P. (1995), *Political Marketing and Communication*, London: John Libby
- 88) Madunagu, E. (2003), "Elections as Civil War", *The Guardian*, Thursday April 17, p.63.
- 89) Mauser, G. (1983), *Political Marketing: An Approach to Campaign Strategy*, New York: Praeger.
- 90) Mavondo, F.T. (2000), "Marketing as a Form of Adaptation: Empirical Evidence from a Developing Economy", *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, Vol. 18 No. 5, pp. 256-272
- 91) Mauser, G. A. (1983), *Political Marketing: An Approach to Campaign Strategy*, New York: Praeger.
- 92) McCarthy, J. (1960) "Basic Marketing: A Managerial Approach" Irwin-Dorsey Ltd, Ontario.
- 93) McDonald, M. H. B. (1989), "ten Barriers to Marketing Planning", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 5 No. 1, pp.1-18.
- 94) McGinniss, J. (1969), *The Selling of the President 1968*, Naples FL: Trident Press.
- 95) McKenna, R. (1991), "Marketing is Everything", *Harvard Business Review*, pp. 65-79.
- 96) Meldrum, M. (1996), "Critical Issues in Implementing Marketing", *Journal of Marketing Practice: Applied Marketing Science*, Vol. 2 No. 3, pp.29-43.
- 97) Miles, R.E. and Snow, C.C. (1978), *Organisational Strategy, Structure and Process*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- 98) Mintzberg, H. (1987) "Five Ps of Strategy", *California Management Review*.
- 99) Mitchell, P. & Dave, R. (1999) "Media Polls, Candidates, and Campaigns," in B.I. Newman (Ed.), *Handbook of Political Marketing*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, pp.177-195.
- 100) Morgan, R. E., & Katsikeas, C. S., Appiah-Adu, K. (1998). *Market Orientation and Organizational Learning Capabilities*. *Journal of Marketing Management*. Vol. 14, Pp. 353-381.
- 101)

- 102) Munn, P. and Drever, E. (1990). Using Questionnaires in Small-Scale Research: A Teacher's Guide. Loanhead: Macdonald Lindsay Pinder.
- 103) Musa, B(2003), 'I'm a Witness to Rigging' Daily Champion, May18.
- 104) Newman, B. I. (1994). The Marketing of the President: Political Marketing as Campaign Strategy. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- 105) Newman, B; J. Sheth (1985), 'A Model of Primary Voter Behaviour in Newman, B. and J. Sheth, Political Marketing, eds., Chicago: American Marketing Association.
- 106) Niffenegger, P.B. (1989) "Strategies for Success from the Political Marketers", Journal of Consumer Marketing, Vol. 6. No. 1, pp.45-51.
- 107) Nimmo D. (1999) "The Permanent Campaign Marketing as a Governing Tool in Newman, 13.1 (Ed), Handbook of Political Marketing. Thousand Oaks CA: Sage. Pp 73-86.
- 108) Nnadozie, U.(2007),History of Elections in Nigeria. in Elections and The Future of Democracy in Nigeria. Edited by Attahiru Jega and Okechukwu Ibeanu, NPSA.
- 109) Nwabueze, B.(1993), Election Rigging and Democracy in Nigeria", Daily Champion, May 20
- 110) Nzeribe (1992) Marketing dimensions of Politics in Marketing Politics: Advertising Strategies and Tactics, APCON Lagos.
- 111) Nzeribe, (1998) Marketing Dimensions of Politics in Marketing Politics: Advertising Strategies & Tactics APCON Lagos.
- 112) Nzimiro (1992) Marketing and Politics, APCON Publications, Vol.4
- 113) O'Cass, A. (1996), "Political Marketing and the Marketing Concept", European Journal of Marketing, Vol. 30 No. 10/11, pp. 37-53.
- 114) O'Cass (2001) "Political Marketing: An Investigation of the Political Marketing Concept and Political Marketing Orientation in Australian Politics", European Journal of Marketing. Vol.35, No. 9/10. pp. 1003-1025.
- 115) Okwechime, I. (2007), "The West and the Politics of Monitoring The 2003 Election". Elections and the Future of Democracy in Nigerian Political Science Association.
- 116) O'Shaughnessy, N. (1990), The Phenomenon of Political Marketing, Basingstoke: Macmillan.
- 117) O'Shaughnessy, N. (2001), "The Marketing of Political Marketing", European Journal of Marketing, Vol. 35 No. 9/10, pp.1047-1057.
- 118) Parkhe, A. (1993), "Messy Research Methodological Predispositions and Theory Development in International Joint Ventures", Academy of Management Review, Vol. 18, No. 2, pp. 227-268.
- 119) Reid, D.M. (1988), "Marketing the Political Products", European Journal of Marketing, Vol. 22, No. 9, pp.34-47.
- 120) Savigny, H. (2004), "Political Marketing: A Rational Choice", Journal of Political Marketing, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp.21-38.
- 121) Scammel, M. (1997), "The Wisdom of the War Room: US Campaigning and Americanization", Joan Shorenstein Center Policy Research Paper R-17, Cambridge MA: Harvard University.
- 122) Shama, A. (1973), "Applications of Marketing Concepts to Candidate Marketing", Proceedings of the Fourth Conference of the Association for Consumer Research,pp.793-801.
- 123) Shama, A. (1976), "Marketing the Political Candidate", Journal of Academy of Marketing Science, Vol. 4 No. 4, pp.23-41.
- 124) Siguaw, J.A., Brown, G. and Widing, R.E. (1994), "The Influence of the Market Orientation of the Firm on Sales", Journal of Marketing Research, 31 (1), pp. 106-116.
- 125) Smith, G. and Hirst, A. (2001), "Strategic Political
- 126) Segmentation: A New Approach for a New Era of Political Marketing", European Journal of Marketing, Vol. 35 No. 9/10,pp.1058-1073.
- 127) Smith, G. and Saunders, J. (1990), "The Application of Marketing to British Politics",

Journal of Marketing Management, Vol. 5
No. 3, pp.295-306.

International Journal of Research in
Marketing, Vol. 11, pp. 185-218.

- 128) Spogard, R. and James, M. (2000),
“Governance and Democracy: The People’s View”,
A Global Opinion Poll (www.gallup-international.com).
- 129) SpSS, Inc (2003), SPSS 15.0 for Windows
(Statistical Analysis Computer Software)Chicago.
- 130) Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. (1998), Basics
of Qualitative Research: Techniques and
Procedures for Developing Grounded
Theory, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- 131) Thomas, W. (2004), “Delivering Service
in Nigeria: A Roadmap”, The Guardian,
Wednesday March 24, pp.9-10.
- 132) Veloutsou, C. Saren, M. and Tzokas, N.
(2002), “Relationship Marketing: What if?
European Journal of Marketing, Vol.36, No.4,
pp.433-449.
- 133) Viola II & Dmitrovic T (2001) An
Empirical Analysis of Consumer Purchasing
Behaviour in former Yugoslavia Markets,
Economic and Business Review Vol. No.3-4, 191-
207.
- 134) Webster, C. (1992), “What Kind of
Marketing Culture Exists in Your Service Firm?
An Audit”, The Journal of Services Marketing,
Vol. 30 No. 10/11, pp.92-103.
- 135) Wring, D. (1996), “Political Marketing
and Party Development in Britain: A Secret
History”, European Journal of Marketing, Vol. 30,
No. 10/11, pp.92-103.
- 136) Wring, D. (1999), “The Marketing
Colonization of Political Campaigning” in Newman,
B.I. (Ed.) The Handbook of Political
Marketing, Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- 137) Zinkhan, G.M. and Pireira, A. (1994), “An
Overview of Marketing Strategy and Planning”,

Determinants Of Job Involvement And Job Satisfaction Among Teaching Professionals

Ishwara. P. M. Com, Ph.D

GJMBR Classification

FOR:150305,150311

GJEL:M12,O15,D23

Abstract-The present investigation was carried out to measure and assess perceived level of job involvement and job satisfaction among the university teachers working at Post Graduate Departments in the Karnataka State. The sample consists of 304 teachers (120 Assistant Professors, 94 Associate Professors and 90 Professors) whose average age ranged from 36 to 49 years. To measure and assess job involvement of the teachers, Lodahall and Kejner inventory was administered. Analysis of the data indicated that around 60 per cent of the university teachers perceived and reported to have moderately involved in the job (Mean 75.06 and S.D 6.05). There is no significant difference between in the levels of job involvement among the university teachers i.e. irrespective of cadres all teachers perceived more or less same level of job involvement (The difference is statistically insignificant). As far as the overall job satisfaction (Brayfield and Roth Model) of the university teachers are concerned, 2/3 of the respondents perceived and reported to have moderate and above moderate levels of overall job satisfaction. Measurement of specific job satisfaction explains the feeling of a respondent for a particular aspect associated with his job and its environment. The teachers in the university perceived and reported less satisfied aspects of the job like mentoring, library facility, clerical assistance, team work (Mean values less than 3.00). On the other hand, the factors of higher fulfillment are work itself, pay, recognition for good work, achievement, research work, status, creativity, responsibility, professional growth, working condition and job security. There is a positive association between overall job satisfaction and specific job satisfaction as well as job satisfaction and job involvement of the university teachers. Job involvement and job satisfaction of the university teachers determined by three sets of variables namely organizational, demographic and career related.

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching is a noble and an extraordinary complex activity involving a range of skills, perceptions, attitudes, involvement, knowledge and sensitivity. Thus, teachers must be more than mere technical or subject experts. A teacher's growth is reflected in his or her attitude, involvement, philosophy, values, belief and interests. The Education commission reposed a great deal of confidence in teachers when it said that "of different factors which influence the quality of education and its contribution to national development the quality, competence, involvement and character of teachers are undoubtedly the most significant". In addition to their traditional scholarly

functions of teaching, evaluation and research, they now have the additional functions of extension and development also. Teachers play a key role in the generation, transfer and application of new knowledge. The intellectual dynamism, resourcefulness, and economic prosperity of any nation are reflected in the quality of its university teachers and higher education. Competent, committed, involved, satisfied and dedicated teachers are the greatest assets for any educational institution. Satisfied employees would seem more likely to talk positively about the organization, help others, and go beyond the normal expectations in their job. Moreover, satisfied employee might be more prone to go beyond the call of duty because they want to reciprocate their positive experiences. After all, a happy employee should be a productive employee.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs. Job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable (Porter 1962). Job satisfaction of employees is determined by three sets of variables: Job characteristics, Organizational characteristics, and Individual characteristics. Job characteristics refer to variable that describe the characteristics of job. Organizational characteristics refer to variables that describe characteristics of the organization in which the jobs are performed. Individual characteristics refer to variables that describe characteristics of the employees who perform the jobs (Cherniss 1987). Job satisfaction can be considered as a global feeling about the job (general job satisfaction) or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job. In general, therefore, job satisfaction refers to an individual's positive emotional reactions to a particular job. It is an affective reaction to a job that results from the person's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired or anticipated or deserved.

B. Job-Involvement

Job-involvement is very central to work motivation and is an important measure of organization effectiveness. The phenomenon of job-involvement emerged from a factor analytic study of job satisfaction. The concept is defined as "The degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work or the importance of work in his total self-image" (Lodahl 1965). Prof. Kanungo, (1979) gave the motivational approach to work involvement, defining the term as "a generalized cognitive state of psychological

About-¹Associate Professor, Department Of Studies And Research In Commerce, Mangalore University, Mangalagangothri, Konaje, Mangalore-574199, Karnataka State.
(E-Mail: Ishwara_P@YahooMail.Com)

identification with work insofar as work is perceived to have the potentiality to satisfy one's salient needs and expectations". Thus the involvement in work, according to the author, depends on the saliency of individual's needs and on the perceptions that he has about the need satisfying potentialities of work. According to Bass (1965) the conditions that strengthen job involvement are opportunity to make decisions, the feeling that one is making important contribution to company success, self-determination, recognition and

freedom to set one's own work place. The various definitions of job involvement have a common meaning, in that; they describe the job-involved person, as one for whom work is a very important part of life. He is one who is affected very much personally by his job.

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of existing literature in this field of study is presented in three broad categories, namely Job satisfaction, Job involvement, and Job related stress

A. Job Satisfaction

While there has been several Job satisfaction studies, very few of them are about the university teachers or academics in general. Due to this a few studies, which are not directly related to the university education, have also been reviewed. The Studies identified included those conducted by Gruneberg and Startup (1978) discussed about the relationship of university teachers overall job satisfaction with turnover decision, along with research and promotional opportunities. The study reveals that teaching, research and promotional prospects positively correlated with the overall job satisfaction, but negatively correlated with turnover decision. Titus Oshagbemi (1999) set out to compare the results of single versus a multiple-item measures employed to investigate the overall and specific job satisfaction of university teachers. The result reveals that slightly more than 50.0 Per cent of the respondents were satisfied with their jobs most of the time or all the time. The job satisfaction derived from particular aspect i.e. teaching, research and their colleague's behavior is very high. They were moderately satisfied with some aspects i.e. head of unit's behavior, physical conditions and working facilities in their universities. They were clearly dissatisfied with administrative and managerial functions, their present pay, and their promotions. Malinowska and Tabaka (1987) establish a general scale of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction for four professional groups (teachers, doctors, lawyers, engineers). They found that the general level of job satisfaction among the four professionals is similar, except for teachers, for whom it is slightly lower. Pollard (1996) found that the single-item indicator offered a less comprehensive explanation of job satisfaction than four or seven item indicators. Herzberg (1966) expounded the dual-factor theory of job satisfaction which states that there are two groups of factors which determine job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction. Two-factor theory suggests that only job-content related factors (e.g. achievement, responsibility, the work itself) lead to satisfaction. On the other hand, job

context – related factors (e.g. pay, security, and working conditions) lead to job dissatisfaction but not to job satisfaction. Titus Oshagbemi (1997) findings do not support Herzberg's theory, his findings support the situational occurrences theory, which argues that any given factor e.g. the work itself, or salary, can result in either job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This means that overall job satisfaction could be improved if employers concentrate their efforts at both situational occurrences and situational characteristics rather than by either factor alone. In effect, both hygienic and motivator's can contribute to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.

U.S. Merit System Protection Board, (1990) studies have also shown that the deterioration of pay and lack of promotional opportunities are associated with job dissatisfaction of public employees and their tendency to leave the civil services. Kuhlen (1963) reports a correlation of 0.62 between rating of satisfaction and attitude towards career choice and expected permanency of career. Spector (1985) found a mean correlation of only 0.17 between levels of pay and job satisfaction in three samples representing a heterogeneous collection of jobs.

Brush, Moch, and Pooyan (1987) conducted a Meta-analysis of 19 studies that had a mean correlation of 0.22 between age and job satisfaction. These studies showed that in general job satisfaction increases with age. Zeitz (1990) found a curvilinear relation in which job satisfaction declines early in life, levels off in middle age, and rebounds after approximately 45 years of age. Not all studies, however, have been able to find evidence for a curvilinear relation. Porwal (1980) study reveals that age is not associated with job satisfaction of teachers.

Jex and Beehr (1991) workload has been found to positive correlate with job dissatisfaction as well as other job strains. However, correlation with job satisfaction has been inconsistent across studies.

Oshagbemi (1997) reported that overall job satisfaction was positively and significantly related to rank, but not gender or age. Professors were most satisfied with their overall jobs followed by Readers, Senior Lecturers and Lecturers. A Study of job

satisfaction of 504 female Principals and 331 Vice-Principals in Texas public schools by Mary (1987) found principals significantly more satisfied than vice principals and job tenure and job level did not show any significant effects on job satisfaction.

Studies conducted by Dixit (1986) reveals that sex has significant effect on job satisfaction. Results reveal that female teachers had higher level of job satisfaction as compared to male teachers. But study conducted by Padmanabhaiah (1986) explored no sex difference in job satisfaction. Several explanations have been advanced to explain the equivalent job satisfaction of women to men despite nonequivalent job conditions and pay. It has been suggested that women may differ in expectations. Women expect less from work and so they are satisfied with less.

There are many behaviors and employee outcomes that have been hypothesized to be the result of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Conventional wisdom says that job

satisfaction should be related to job performance. After all, a happy employee should be a productive employee. Studies have established that the correlation between the two variables is rather modest. Iaffaldan and Muchinsky (1985) in their two meta-analysis found that job performance and job satisfaction correlate with one another, at least to a moderate extent. Jacobs and Solomon (1977) hypothesized that the correlation between job satisfaction and job performance would be higher in jobs where good performance was rewarded than in jobs where it was not. Under such conditions, employees who perform well get rewards, and rewards should lead to job satisfaction. Herzberg et. al. (1957) study revealed weak relationship between job satisfaction and performance of employees. Podsakoff et. al. (2000) Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is behavior by an employee intended to help co-workers or the organization. Satisfied employees would seem more likely to talk positively about the organization, help others, and go beyond the normal expectations in their job. Moreover, satisfied employee might be more prone to go beyond the call of duty because they want to reciprocate their positive experiences. Consistent with this thinking, early discussion of OCB assumed that it was closely linked with satisfaction. The interplay of work and non-work is an important ingredient in understanding people's reactions to jobs. We tend to study work mainly in the workplace, but employees are influenced by events and situations outside of their place of work. Weaver (1978) study reveals that a person who is satisfied on the job is likely to be satisfied with life in general. The findings of research studies conducted by Judge and Watanabe (1993) consistently show that job satisfaction and life satisfaction are moderately and positively correlated.

A. *Job Involvement*

Katz and Khan (1966) Job involvement is a necessary condition if an individual is to accept fully the organization demands placed upon by his membership in organization. The degree of job involvement is related to the level of aspiration and also to the degree of internalization of organizational goals. Jones et al. (1975) "Job involvement was found to be positively correlated with age and length of time that a person has been on a job" where as Manheim (1975) found no relationship between them. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) have presented the profile of a job involved person as one who is a believer in the Protestant ethic, is older, has internal locus of control, has strong growth needs, has a stimulating job, participates in decisions affecting him or her, has a history of success and is less likely to leave the organization. Vroom (1962) Job involvement relates positively with job performance for the non-technical employees. Thoits (1992) highly job involved employees derive substantial self-esteem from successful job performance. Russell and Cooper (1995) therefore, job performance may have a stronger impact on job related outcomes for highly job-involved workers compared with workers with a low level of job involvement who do not

consider the job a central aspect of their self-concept. Anantharaman and Deivasenapathy (1980) found manager and supervisors to be having more job involvement than workers. In Babu and Reddy's (1990) study, no positive association was found between high job involvement and positive attitude towards management. Similarly, personal and demographic characteristics such as age, education, marital status, and number of dependents, salary and tenure have not affected the job involvement. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) suggest that job involvement should be examined from both the perspective of the individual as well as work environment. They found that individual characteristics such as age, education, sex, tenure, locus of control and values were linked it to job involvement. They also described job involvement was related to situational variables in the work environment such as head's behavior, decision making process, interpersonal relations and job characteristics as well as with work outcomes such as job satisfaction, job performance, turnover and absenteeism. Further, they suggested that individual difference and job characteristic variables were about equally important in determining job involvement.

IV. STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM

Research on job satisfaction and job involvement has become a major area of international interest. Employee's attitude can have bottom-line consequences for organizations as well as important effect on the individuals who hold these attitudes. In the University set up the teaching and non-teaching staff are two broad categories of human resources. It is widely acknowledged that job involvement and job satisfaction of the teaching community will largely determine the quality of teaching and research performance on the one hand and the commitment to the teaching profession on the other. An extensive review of literature clearly indicated that there have been numerous job satisfactions, job involvement studies, very few of them related to the university teachers or academics in general. The current study contributes to the body of research by addressing previously unstudied elements of the population: University teachers. However, no authoritative and comprehensive study has so far been done focusing on the job satisfaction and job involvement among university teachers. Therefore, this field of investigation remained as under researched till date. In view of this, it would be both an interesting and relevant proposition to make a genuine attempt to study what these university teachers feel about their organization, job and job environment, their level job involvement and also identification of major determinants of job satisfaction and job involvement. Hence, this study entitled "Determinants of Job Involvement and Job Satisfaction among Teaching Professionals" is undertaken to abridge existing research gap.

V. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The major purpose of the study is to measure and assess the job satisfaction and job involvement of university teachers

in the Karnataka state and provide certain suggestions for higher education, learning and teaching profession.

The specific objectives of the study are:

- 2) To measure and assess the levels of overall and specific job satisfaction and job involvement of the respondents.
- 3) To identify and analyze the major determinants of job satisfaction and job involvement.
- 4) To offer pragmatic suggestions and recommendations for re-aligning the job satisfaction and job involvement

VI. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Based on an extensive review of earlier studies in this field the following research hypotheses have been formulated for further investigation in this study.

H1: Overall job satisfaction of the university teachers tends to be significantly associated with their perceived levels of specific job satisfaction.

H2: There exists positive correlation between job satisfaction and job involvement among university teachers.

H3: Organizational, Demographic, and Career factors tend to determine the perceived levels of job satisfaction and job involvement

VII. RESEARCH-METHODOLOGY

The present study is focused on the teachers working in various postgraduate departments of the conventional universities in the Karnataka state. The Population consists of permanent teachers working in the various universes i.e. Assistant professors, Associate professors and Professors appointed by the universities. The population consists of permanent teachers such as 603 Assistant Professors, 463 Associate Professors and 441 Professors working in six conventional universities as on March

2009. The proportionate stratified random sampling technique used to choose 20 per cent of the population as the sample respondents. It accounts for a sample size of 120 Assistant professors, 94 Associate professors and 90 Professors. In order to measure job involvement Lodhal and Kejnar model was adopted. In the job involvement inventory authors initially developed a 40 item scale and the subsequently analysis reduced it to a 20 item scale. For the purpose of scoring the items, which are in twenty in total, were cast into a Likert format with five categories of responses, viz. Strongly agree - 5, Agree - 4, Neither agree nor disagree - 3, Disagree - 2 and Strongly disagree - 1. Out of the twenty items seven items were negatively phrased and, thus, reverse scored. The maximum and minimum

- 1) To study the organizational, demographic, and career-related characteristics of the teachers in the universities under study.

scores are 100 and 20 respectively. High score indicates high Job involvement. Similarly, to measure and assess the perceived levels of overall or general job satisfaction of the university teachers, eighteen items of overall job satisfaction scale has been used. It was developed by Bray field and Rothe. The respondents were asked to indicate their perceived degree of agreement or disagreement in respect of the eighteen statements. The responses from every respondent summed up. Accordingly, the possible range of scores was between 8 and 90. Higher score indicate the high level of overall job satisfaction and lower scores indicate low level of overall job satisfaction as perceived by the respondents. To analysis of data some important techniques are used such as descriptive statistical tools i.e. percentage, mean and standard deviation and deterministic technique i.e. chi-square and correlation analysis.

VIII. SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

This study confined only to the teachers of Post - Graduate level of conventional, universities in the Karnataka State. All under graduate teachers were excluded from the scope of this study with a view to making an in-depth study of postgraduate university teachers. The research theme was exclusively focused on basic two job-related attitudes such as job satisfaction, job involvement but other parts of the attitudes (Organizational commitment) did not considered. The job attitude of university teachers or any other employees in any organization may differ or change from time to time or period to period

IX. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Measurement And Assessment Of Job Involvement

To facilitate a meaningful analysis, the range of score was split into three groups, such as low level (up to 70), moderate level (71 to 80) and high level (80 and above). Table-1 shows that, of 304 respondents 59.2 per cent perceived and reported to have moderately involved in the job, whereas the respondents having low and high levels of job involvement accounted for 23.0 per cent 17.8 per cent respectively. Of 120 Assistant professors 60.0 per cent, out of 94 Associate Professors 57.4 per cent, and of 90 Professor Respondents 59.2 per cent reported moderate level of job involvement respectively. In brief, nearly 60.0 per cent of the university teachers perceived to have moderately involved in the job. (Mean 75.06 and S.D = 6.05)

Table – 1
Perceived Levels of Job Involvement of the Respondents

Levels of Job Involvement	Designation of the respondents			Total
	Assistant Professors	Associate Professors	Professors	
LOW	34 (28.3)	24 (25.5)	12 (13.3)	70 (23.0)
MODERATE	72 (60.0)	54 (57.4)	54 (60.0)	180 (59.2)
HIGH	14 (11.7)	16 (17.1)	24 (26.7)	54 (17.8)
Total	120 (100.0)	94 (100.0)	180 (100.0)	304 (100.0)
Mean	74.15	74.94	76.40	75.06
S.D.	6.25	5.65	6.08	6.05

Source: Data Compiled from Field Survey

X. AVERAGE JOB INVOLVEMENT OF THE RESPONDENTS

Table-2 shows that the mean job involvement scores and their Standard deviation. Professor respondents reported slightly higher degree of job involvement than the Associate Professors and Assistant professors, but statistically insignificant. In other words, there is no significant difference between in the degree of job involvement among the university teachers.

This result does not falls in line with the findings of

Sarveswara Rao (1976) Anantharamanand and Deivasenapathy (1980). This may be due to, in the university set up irrespective of their cadre, all permanent teaching fraternities have involved in the decision making process in their respective departments. Every individual teacher have freedom to set their own pace of work and feel that they are making important contribution to the success of organization.

Table – 2
Mean Job Involvement and 't' Values

SL. No	Designation	Number	Mean	SD	't' Value
1	Assistant Professors	120	74.15	6.25	Row1& Row2 0.5021
2	Associate Professors	54	74.93	5.65	Row2& Row3 0.2344
3	Professors	90	76.40	6.08	Row1&Row3 0.676

Source: Field Survey

A. Measurement and Assessment of Overall Job Satisfaction

In the job satisfaction inventory there were in total eighteen items. Therefore, the possible range of scores was between 8 and 90. Higher score indicate the high level of overall job satisfaction and lower scores indicate low level of overall job satisfaction as perceived by the respondents. For a meaningful analysis, the possible range of scores was split

into three categories as given below reflecting the levels of perceived overall job satisfaction

Low	:	below 70
Moderate	:	70-75
High	:	above 75

Table - 3
Overall (General) Job Satisfaction of the Respondents

Range of Scores and Levels of Degree	Designation of the respondents			Total
	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor	Professor	
Below 70 (Low)	52 (51.0)	34 (33.3)	16 (15.7)	102 (33.6)
65 – 75 (Moderate)	34 (32.7)	30 (28.9)	40 (38.4)	104 (34.2)
Above 75 (High)	34 (32.7)	30 (30.6)	34 (34.7)	98 (32.2)

Total	120 (100.0)	94 (100.0)	90 (100.0)	304 (100.0)
Mean Value	71.56	72.03	74.15	72.37
S. D.	6.40	11.03	10.16	6.41

Source: Data Compiled from Field Survey

From the above table, it is clear that, of total respondents 33.6 per cent have perceived low level of overall job satisfaction, while the moderate and high level of overall job satisfaction is reported by the respondents account for 34.2 per cent and 32.2 per cent respectively. Of 90 professor respondents only 17.8 per cent of them perceived low level of overall job satisfaction. 52 (51%) Assistant Professors out S.S. = Strongly Satisfied, S = Satisfied, M.S.= Moderately Satisfied, D.S. = Dissatisfied, S.D.S. = Strongly Dissatisfied.

B . Measurement And Assessment Of Specific Job Satisfaction

Measurement of Specific job Satisfaction (fulfillment of various aspects of job and its environment) explains the feeling of a respondent for a particular aspect associated with his job and its environment. The table – 4 shows that, the specific aspects of job like, supervision, mentoring, library facility, clerical assistance, team work have mean values less than 3.00. On the other hand, the factors of higher fulfillment are work itself, pay, recognition for good work, achievement, research work, status, creativity, responsibility, professional growth, working condition and job security

Table-4: Measurement of Specific Job Satisfaction

Sl. No	Facets of Job and Job Environment	Levels of Satisfaction					Mean Value	S.D
		S.S.	S	M.S	D.S	S.D.S		
1	University policy and Administration	7 (4.6)	56 (36.8)	50 (32.9)	30 (19.7)	9 (6.0)	3.145	0.986
2.	Supervision	6 (3.9)	45 (29.6)	39 (25.7)	46 (30.3)	16 (10.5)	2.862	1.082
3.	Inter-personal relations	17 (11.2)	70 (40.6)	29 (19.0)	29 (19.0)	7 (4.6)	3.401	0.633
4.	Pay	23 (15.0)	93 (61.2)	27 (17.8)	9 (6.0)	-	3.855	0.741
5.	Working conditions	14 (9.2)	57 (37.5)	40 (26.3)	31 (20.4)	10 (6.6)	3.224	1.081
6.	Job security	17 (11.9)	64 (42.1)	37 (24.0)	31 (20.0)	3 (2.0)	3.401	0.998
7.	Mentoring	4 (2.6)	31 (20.4)	67 (44.1)	38 (25.0)	12 (7.9)	2.849	0.926
8.	Library facility	8 (5.2)	34 (22.4)	60 (39.5)	41 (30.0)	9 (5.9)	2.941	0.971
9.	Clerical assistance	4 (2.6)	30 (19.7)	52 (34.2)	46 (30.3)	20 (13.2)	2.684	1.019
10.	Team work	8 (5.3)	36 (23.7)	45 (29.6)	46 (30.3)	17 (11.1)	2.816	1.082
11.	Achievement	23 (15)	71 (46.7)	47 (30.1)	9 (5.9)	2 (1.3)	3.684	0.849
12.	Recognition	16 (10.5)	76 (50.0)	42 (27.6)	12 (7.9)	6 (4)	3.553	0.926
13.	Advancement	16 (10.4)	44 (29.0)	62 (41.0)	25 (16.3)	5 (3.3)	3.27	0.973
14.	Work itself	31 (20.4)	89 (58.6)	28 (18.4)	4 (2.6)	-	3.967	0.704
15.	Professional growth	14 (9.2)	78 (51.3)	48 (31.5)	12 (8)	-	3.612	0.781

16.	Responsibility	15 (9.9)	83 (54.6)	37 (24.3)	17 (11.2)	-	3.632	0.811
17.	Creativity	17 (11.2)	72 (47.4)	40 (26.3)	13 (8.6)	10 (6.5)	3.48	1.023
18.	Involvement	13 (8.5)	79 (52.0)	38 (25.0)	20 (13.2)	2 (1.3)	3.533	0.876
	Research work	26 (17.0)	60 (39.5)	44 (29.0)	17 (11.2)	5 (3.3)	3.559	1.008
20.	Status	14 (9.2)	90 (59.2)	27 (17.8)	19 (12.5)	2 (1.3)	3.625	0.867

Source: Data compiled from Field Survey S.S. = Strongly Satisfied, S = Satisfied, M.S.= Moderately Satisfied, D.S. = Dissatisfied, S.D.S. = Strongly Dissatisfied.

Out of the twenty specific aspects of the job, the most dissatisfied part of the job is 'clerical assistance' for which the value given by the respondents is least i.e. 2.684. The fulfillment level of all factors of job and its environment lies between the mean values of 2.684 and 3.967.

XI. CORRELATION BETWEEN OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION AND SPECIFIC JOB SATISFACTION

The correlation of specific job satisfaction pertaining to each of the twenty job facets with the overall job satisfaction of the university teachers is shown in table-5. Correlation ranged from 0.01392 for 'mentoring' to 0.34302 for 'research work'

Table-5: Correlation between Overall Job Satisfaction and Specific Job Satisfaction

Sl. No.	Specific Job Satisfaction	Overall correlation coefficient	J.S co-value	Level of Significance
1.	University policy and administration	0.1449	1.78844	5%
2.	Supervision	0.05959	0.07309	
3.	Inter personal relations	0.12010	1.48170	
4.	Pay	0.18989	2.36876	1%
5.	Working conditions	0.18989	2.36876	1%
6.	Job security	0.09782	1.20386	
7.	Mentoring	0.01392	0.17045	
8.	Library facility	0.04966	0.06089	
9.	Clerical assistance	0.13046	1.61159	
10.	Team work	0.01784	0.02185	
11.	Achievement	0.32820	4.25537	1%
12.	Recognition	0.15844	1.96533	5%
13.	Advancement	0.27590	3.51556	1%
14.	Work itself	0.23313	2.93615	1%
15.	Professional growth	0.23911	3.01604	1%
16.	Responsibility	0.21864	2.22828	1%
17.	Creativity	0.15973	1.98172	1%
18.	Involvement	0.15472	1.91808	1%
19.	Research work	0.34302	4.47241	1%
20.	Status	0.12983	1.60366	

Source: Data compiled from field survey

The university teachers reported in respect of certain aspects of job and job environment such as 'Supervision' 'Mentoring' and 'Teamwork' are not contributed much to

their perceived levels of overall job satisfaction. The factors like 'Interpersonal Relations' 'Job Security' 'Library Facility' 'Clerical Assistance' and 'Status' slightly

contributed to their perceived levels of overall job satisfaction (The association of overall job satisfaction and specific job satisfaction are not statistically significant at 1% or 5% level of significance). The perceived satisfaction of university teachers in respect of certain job facets like 'Pay & other benefits' 'Working conditions' 'Achievement' 'Recognition for good work' 'Promotion or advancement opportunity' 'Work itself' 'Professional growth' 'Creativity' 'Involvement' and 'Research work' are significantly associated with perceived levels of overall job Satisfaction. Based on the findings, the first hypothesis (H1) is accepted -

"Overall or general job satisfaction of the university teachers significantly associated with perceived levels specific job satisfaction".

XII. INTER-CORRELATION BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB INVOLVEMENT

Table-6 shows the mean value, standard deviation value, and inter-correlation between job satisfaction and job involvement.

Table-6: Correlation between Job satisfaction and Job Involvement

S l. No.	Job Related Attitudes	Mean	S.D	Correlation		Calculated 't' value	Level of Significance
				OJS	JI		
1	Overall - Job Satisfaction	72.4	6.41	-	-	8.065	1%
2	Job Involvement	75.1	6.05	0.55			

Source: Data compiled from Field Survey

There exists a positive relationship between the university teachers perception of overall job satisfaction and job involvement($r=0.55$). The calculated 't' value is higher than the table value (at 1% level of significance 2.326).

In the light of the above findings, the second hypothesis (H2) has been accepted -

"There exists a positive relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement"

XIII. JOB INVOLVEMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION: KEY DETERMINANTS

Job satisfaction and Job involvement of the employees are determined by three sets of variables (Cherniss 1987). They are Organizational characteristics, Demographic characteristics and Career characteristics. Organizational characteristics refer to variables that describe the characteristics of organization in which jobs are performed. Demographic characteristics refer to variables that describe characteristics of the employee who perform the jobs. Career characteristics refer to the variables which provide opportunities for progress in one's job.

Table-7 clearly indicates that majority of the university teachers reported high levels of overall job satisfaction and job involvement belonged to five stars NAAC accredited universities; those universities aged more than 30 years. A significant number of university teachers perceiving high degree of job satisfaction were employed in those universities having more than 300 teaching faculty members. Whereas, most of them experiencing high levels of job involvement were found in those universities employing less than 300 teaching faculty members.

Similarly, most of the respondents reporting high degree of job satisfaction were identified in those universities enrolling more than 3000 students. While, majority of them experiencing high degree of job involvement were found in those university enrolled less than 3000 students.

As far as the socio-economic characteristics of the university teachers are concerned, the majority of the University teachers reporting high degree of job satisfaction and job involvement were above the age of 42 years, were enjoying married life, had an monthly income of more than Rs. 25,000, belongs to nuclear families, having a smaller family of fewer than 4 members and distance from dwelling place to work place is less than 10 K.M. Most of them experiencing high level of overall job satisfaction were male employees. While a greater proportion of the university teachers reporting higher level of job involvement were female. Similarly, a sizable proportion of them reporting high degree of job satisfaction and job involvement belonged to single-earner household.

With regard to the career-related factors, a greater proportion of the university teachers perceiving high degree of job satisfaction and job involvement had a job experience of more than 15 years, having Ph.D. degree qualification, professor respondents and having work load less than 12 hours per week.

Based on the result and discussions presented in the foregoing pages, the third hypothesis (H-3) is accepted- "Organizational, individual and career related factors influences to the perceived levels of job satisfaction and job involvement of university teachers".

Table-7: Key Determinants of Job Satisfaction and Involvement

Factors Associated	Overall Job satisfaction (High)	Chi-Square (χ^2) value	Job Involvement (High)	Chi-square (χ^2) value
Organizational Factors. NAAC Status of the University.	5 Stars (91.0%)	43.79	5 Stars (85.2%)	29.62
No. of Teaching Faculties. (In numbers)	> 300 (71.4 %)	23.29	< 300 (74.0 %)	12.05
Age of the Universities. (In years)	> 30 (81.6%)	32.30	> 30 (70.4%)	26.39
No. of Students Enrolment. (In numbers)	> 3000 (61.0%)	8.55	< 3000 (77.85%)	11.81
Individual Factors. Age of the Respondents. (In years)	> 42 (67.3%)	12.41	> 42 (85.0%)	19.61
Sex. (Male and Female)	Male (94.0%)	41.34	Female (74.0%)	51.54
Marital status.	Married (95.9%)	9.92	Married (92.6%)	10.34
Monthly emoluments. (In Rs.)	>25,000 (69.3%)	45.04	>25,000 (74.4%)	20.07
Family Structure.	Nuclear (98.0%)	18.24	Nuclear (93.3%)	8.77
Household Earner Status.	Single (87.8%)	36.09	Single (74.0%)	18.55
Family size. (In No.)	< 4 (57.1%)	30.93	< 4 (81.5%)	18.55
Distance between home and Working Place. (in KM)	< 10 (79.6%)	21.34	< 10 (70.4%)	8.25
Career Factors. Designation.	Professor (38.5%)	7.91	Professor (44.4%)	6.01
Job Experience. (in years)	<15 (68.6%)	10.21	>15 (74.1%)	14.53
Work Load.(In hours)	< 12 (73.5%)	14.68	< 12 (77.8%)	17.93
Status of Doctoral Work.	Doctorate (96.0%)	26.87	Doctorate (96.3%)	66.98

Source: Data compiled from field survey

XIV. SUGGESTIONS

Based on the findings of this study certain general and specific suggestions are presented below to realign job involvement and job satisfaction of the university teachers.

1. **Universities should conduct survey of their employee's job satisfaction and involvement periodically:** It provides useful data and information as to how employees feel about their job, facets of job, and

2. job environment. Appropriately and timely act upon the findings of survey helps the universities and employees to utilize their unique talents and competencies both effectively and efficiently. It helps the university authorities to know their employees' level of overall job satisfaction, job involvement. The universities will have to examine, understand and address various job-related issues faced by the employees.

3. **The universities need to address certain specific aspects of job like professional growth, recognition of good work etc., to raise overall job satisfaction:** In order to raise the level of overall job satisfaction of the university teachers universities need to address certain aspects of job such as, provide all types of support and facilities to individual teachers for professional growth, recognize teachers outstanding and excellent work, delegate more authority in turn it increases their responsibility, and promotion or advancement should be given to the teachers when its due.
4. **The universities should adopt teacher-friendly policy and administration:** To keep the university teachers minimum level of job dissatisfaction, universities should arrange mentoring facilities to the young teachers provide modern research oriented library facilities, support and encourage teamwork, and clerical staffs should be trained in such a way that they are supportive to the teaching faculties in the department.
5. **Universities should maintain optimum level of student-teacher ratio:** There is an association between job involvement and student enrolment in the universities. So, it is advisable to the university authorities either to recruit regular or guest faculties in the department or to right size the student enrolment in each section to increase the level of job involvement of the university teachers.
6. **Universities should provide accommodation for their employees nearer to the work place:** Universities are advisable to see that their employees are residing nearer to the universities as job satisfaction and involvement of teachers and distance from their dwelling house to work place are related.

XV. REFERENCES

- 1) Anantharaman R.N. and Deivasenapathy.P, (1980), "Job Involvement among Managers, Supervisors and Workers," Indian Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 17(2), pp. 77-79.
- 2) Babu, P.P., and Reddy, K.S., (1990), "Job Involvement and its Relation to Attitude towards Management," Indian Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 27(1), pp. 77-79.
- 3) Balu, G.T., and Boal, K.B., (1987), "Using Job Involvement and Organizational Commitment Interactivity to Predict Turnover," Journal of Management, Vol. 15, pp. 115-127.
- 4) Cherniss, S. and J.Kane., (1987), "Public Sector Professionals: Job Characteristics Satisfaction and Aspirations for Intrinsic Fulfillment Through Work," Human Relations, Vol. 40, pp. 125-136.
- 5) Dixit, M., (1986), "A Comparative Study of Job Satisfaction among Primary School Teachers and Secondary School Teachers," Fourth Survey of Research in Education, NCERT, Vol. II, New Delhi, pp. 932.
- 6) Edwards, J. R., Caplan, R. D., & Harrison, R.V. (1998) "Person-Environment fit theory: Conceptual foundations, empirical evidence, and direction for future research", Theories of Organizational stress, pp.28-67, New York: Oxford University Press.
- 7) Gruneberg, M. M. and Startup .R. (1978), "The Job Satisfaction of University teachers," Vocational Aspects of Education, Vol.30, No.76, pp.75-79.
- 8) Judge, T.A., and Watanable, S., (1993), "Another Look at the Job Satisfaction-Life Satisfaction Relationship," Journal of Applied Psychological, Vol. 78, pp. 938-948.
- 9) Kanungo, R.N., (1978), "The Concepts of Alienation and Involvement," Revisited Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 86(1), pp. 119-138.
- 10) Kuhlen, R. G., (1963), "Needs, Perceived Need Satisfaction Opportunities and Satisfaction with Occupation," Journal of Applied Psychology. Vol. 47, pp. 56-64.
- 11) Lodahl, T.M. and Kejner, M., (1965) "The Definition and Measurement of Job Involvement," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 49(1), pp. 24-33.
- 12) Malinowaska Tabaka., (1987), "Complex Measures of Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction among Professionals," Social Indicators Research, Vol. 19, pp. 451-73.
- 13) Mary, F.B., (1987), "A Study of Job Satisfaction of Female Principals and Vice Principals in Texas Public Schools," Dissertation Abstract International, Vol. 47(8), pp. 2881.
- 14) Padmanabhaiah, S., (1986), "Job Satisfaction And Teaching Efficiency of Secondary School Teachers," Fourth Survey Of Research In Education, NCERT, Vol. II, New Delhi, pp. 1034-35.
- 15) Pollord .G. (1996), "A Comparison of Measures of Job satisfaction used in Studies of Social Communication," Gazette, Vol.57, pp. 111-119.
- 16) Porter, L.W., (1992), "Job Attitudes in Management: Perceived Deficiencies in Need Fulfillment as a Function of Job Level," Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol.46, pp. 375-384.
- 17) R.T. Keller., (1997), "Job Involvement and Organizational Commitment as Longitudinal Predictors of Job Performance: A Case Study of Scientists and Engineers," Journal of Applied Psychology, pp. 539-45.
- 18) Rabinowitz, S. and Hall, D.T., (1977), "Organizational Research on Job Involvement," Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 84, pp. 265-288.
- 19) Spector, P.E., (1985), "Measurement of Human Service Staff Satisfaction: Development of Job Satisfaction Survey," American Journal of Psychology, Vol. 13, pp. 693-713.
- 20) Thoits, P.A., (1992), "Identity Structures and Psychological well Being: Gender and Marital Status Comparison," Social Psychology Quarterly, Vol. 55, pp. 236-256.
- 21) Thorsen, E.J. (1996), "Stress in academic: What bothers professors?" Higher Education, 31,471-

489. Robbins, S.P., (1996), *Organizational Behavior*, 7th ed., Prentice- Hall of India Private Limited, New Delhi, pp. 180.
- 22) Titus Oshegbemi, (1997), "Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction in Higher Education," *Educational and Training*, Vol. 39, pp. 354-360.
- 23) Titus Oshegbemi., (1997), "Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction in Higher Education," *Educational and Training*, Vol. 39, pp. 354-360.
- 24) Titus Oshegbemi., (1999), "Attitude Surveys, Studies, Statistical Analysis, Job Satisfaction," *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 14, pp 338-343.
- 25) U. S. Merit System Protection Board, (1990), "Why is Employees Leaving the Federal Government?" *Public Personnel Management*, Vol.21, pp. 473-491.
- 26) Vroom, V.H., "Ego Involvement, Job Satisfaction and Job performance," *Personnel Psychology*, Vol.15, pp. 159-177.
- 27) Weaver, C.N., (1978), "Job Satisfactions as A Component of Happiness among Males and Females," *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 31, pp. 831-840.

Proximity to Money - An Empirical Study on the Parameters to Select a Bank

Ms. Sangeeta Mohanty¹ Ms. Chitra Sikaria²

GJMBR Classification
FOR:150299,150203
GJEL:G21

Abstract-Globalizations with the advances in information technology have radically changed the concept of service industries, gradually it became more customer oriented. The new entrants of the private banks became the threat of the existing private and public sector bank. Different banks tried to grab the customers in their own way. Satisfied and the loyal customers are the creators of the future customer only.

The banking industry has gone through a sea change with the entrance of the private banks. The customers today are over flooded with various facilities A dream has come true with the advent and extensive use of technology. No more standing in queues for banking transactions- with the internet banking, mobile banking, ATM etc., life has become easy. But despite of the 21st century outlook of the banks the, their selection parameter by the consumer still remains the same: **PROXIMITY TO THE BANK**. This paper is an attempt to study the consumers' perception in choosing a bank in the city Balasore, Orissa. Participants were chosen randomly at timed intervals in specific areas of bank location. Of 220 customers approached, 200 agreed to participate in the survey.

Keywords-Banks, Customers, Location, Convenience

I. INTRODUCTION

In the wake of the liberalization policies the traditional and the conservative face of Indian banking has undergone a virtual metamorphosis. The Indian banking industry is undergoing a paradigm shift in scope, context, structure, function and governance. The information and the communication technology revolution are radically changing the operational environment of the banks.

Currently, India has 88 scheduled commercial banks - 28 public sector banks, 29 private banks, and 31 foreign banks. They have a combined network of over 53,000 branches and 17,000 ATMs. According to a report by ICRA Limited (2007), a rating agency, the public sector banks hold over 75 percent of total assets of the banking industry, with the private and foreign banks holding 18.2% and 6.5%. The growth of banking in the coming years is expected to be more qualitative. Banking in India is generally fairly mature in terms of supply and product range, but India still remains a challenge for the private sector and foreign banks. With the increase in employment opportunities, it has made possible to open up the doors for the retail sectors. Besides this, influence of

electronic media, increased number of working women, their ability to influence family, their purchasing power is some of the contributing factors for the emerging demand for good banking services. Though the growth of the private bank in India is increasing at an increasing rate, yet it is an infant stage of grabbing the targeted customers.

The Indian banking sector is at an electrifying point of its advancement. It has impressive prospects to support its growth such as:

To penetrate a new businesses and markets

- To develop innovative ways of working
- To enhance competence
- To provide elevated and privileged customer service

The Indian customers offer a great opportunity for the Indian Banking industry. They, in fact are the key drivers for the growth of the sector backed by changing consumer demographic profiles.

The customer with the self believe that he is the king wants a variety of services and products that are competitive along with a kingly treatment. That is he wants he should be welcomed on a red carpet. If he does not avail such facility then he does not mind switching over to another bank.

To make a choice is not a problem for the 21st century customer as he is flooded with choices to choose from a pool of wide variety of banks. To choose a bank is a thoughtful and intelligent procedure and requires a lot of understanding of the wants and requirements of the customers on their part. Choosing a bank does not involve any cost but maintaining it does involve a cost. The customer has to be smart enough to opt for a bank taking into consideration the after effect. The decision is important because gone are the days when banks were just a place to keep the checking account.

Bank selection – The process

The process though intelligent yet it is a complicated one. The various steps generally followed to select a bank are:

1. The selection of a bank first begins with the identification of a bank at the most convenient location proximate to ones office, home, workplace. While selecting the banking hours are mapped with the convenient hours.
2. Once over with the identification then an analysis of the type and the size of the bank required are undertaken by the prospect. He may choose from either a large national bank offering more financial services; large number of branches across the nation, ATM facilities etc or a small regional bank offering limited yet personalized services.

About-¹ Assistant Professor (MBA) Academy of Business Administration Industrial Estate (SI/25) Angaragadia Balasore Orissa (756001)
(e-mail; sangeeta_mohanty@rediffmail.com)

About-² Faculty Member (MBA) Academy of Business Administration Industrial Estate (SI/25) Angaragadia Balasore Orissa (756001)
(e-mail; c.sikaria@gmail.com)

3. After finalizing the type of the bank required, the prospect makes an attempt to visit the local branch or the bank to experience the services personally by observing the customers within the bank and the availing the service from the bank personnel.
4. The prospect also gathers information about the particular bank from various family members, friends, and colleagues.
5. The prospect then assorts the information. Then he decides on the types of services that he requires at present and may require in future.
6. Once all the requirements are identified the prospect takes the final decision and generally settles down with a bank closest to its place of convenience.

II. LOCATION – AN IMPORTANT PARAMETER

One of the factors that play a very important role in the selection of a bank is its convenient location of the bank and easy accessibility. The convenient location acts as a very important role in the overall satisfaction of the customer while availing the banking services. With life becoming busier with stretched working hours and family pressures people generally prefer a bank that is conveniently located so that no extra time and effort is required in an attempt to visit the bank and get the work done. The most important reason for selecting a bank at a convenient location saves a lot of time. If a bank is located at a distant or in an inconvenient location then the customer has to wait for the work to pile up so that he can visit the bank personally.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY & DATA COLLECTION

In order to measure the perception of the customers about the underlying factors influencing them to choose a bank, a questionnaire on different items related to the attributes was constructed on 5-point likert type scale in all fourteen attributes. The statements were measurable on a likert scale of 1-5; where 5 indicated strongly disagree and 1 indicated strongly agree. The maximum focus was given on location of the bank, availability of ATM card, service time etc. A random sampling technique was used in selecting the sampling units. Data have been collected from 100 respondents of both private and public sector bank by using schedule method in Balasore town, Orissa. The questionnaire was administered to each of the respondents over one month period. The sample includes male and female, married and unmarried customers from different qualification, occupation, and age group. The data have been collected in the month of March 2009.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

For the purpose of data analysis, the method of factor analysis (Multivariate Analysis) was employed. Factor Analysis is a general name denoting a class of procedures used for data reduction and summarizing and analyzing the facts thereof. The purpose of the study was to identify the underlying dimensions or factors that explain the correlations among the set of variables that define the perception of the customers towards the “Bank Selection” as explained below.

The relationship between the variables is exhibited in (table-1) in the form of correlation matrix.

The results of the factor analysis using Principal component method are given in the (table-3). Thus, factor analysis was considered to be an ideal technique for the co-relation matrix. The Principal Component Method was considered to be appropriate as the primary purpose is to determine the minimum number of factors that would account for the maximum variance in the data collected for the purpose of the study.

Eigen Value greater than 1, (Table-2) results in four factors being extracted from the data collected. Only factors with eigen values greater than 1 were retained and other factors were not included in the analysis.

By comparing the varimax rotated factor matrix with unrotated factor matrix entitled as component matrix, rotation has provided simplicity and has enhanced interpretability. From the rotated factor matrix in the (table-5), six factors have been extracted and listed in (Table-6)

The variables from X1-X14 indicate the attributes of selecting a Bank

- X1 = Location
- X2 = Reputation of a bank
- X3 = Quick/prompt service of the bank Pay
- X4 = No. of branches
- X5 = Personal attention
- X6 = Higher rate of Interest
- X7 = Convenient working hour
- X8 = Already an account holder of the bank
- X9 = Recommended by a friend
- X10= Good complaint handling of the bank
- X11 = ATM availability
- X12 = Easy way to get loan
- X13 = Low/reasonable service-charges
- X14 = Advertisement

The data have been analyzed by using SPSS version-11.0

Table-1

	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9	X10	X11	X12	X13	X14	
X1	1.000	.230	-.009	-.067	-.118	-.282	-.260	-.346	-.099	.152	.265	-.086	.177	.120	
X2	.230	1.000	.024	-.272	-.117	-.016	-.205	.053	-.036	-.191	-.098	-.105	-.185	.186	
X3	-.009	.024	1.000	.198	-.305	.438	.101	.023	.208	-.016	-.244	.003	-.168	.080	
X4	-.067	-.272	.198	1.000	-.089	.406	.111	-.159	-.374	-.043	.036	.365	.329	-.498	
X5	-.118	-.117	-.305	-.089	1.000	-.453	-.090	-.061	.223	.306	-.280	-.409	-.419	-.153	
X6	-.282	-.016	.438	.406	-.453	1.000	.557	.041	-.090	-.387	-.076	.371	.179	-.291	
X7	-.260	-.205	.101	.111	-.090	.557	1.000	-.023	.009	-.078	-.122	-.056	.127	-.022	
X8	-.346	.053	.023	-.159	-.061	.041	-.023	1.000	.090	-.092	-.018	-.036	-.293	-.090	
X9	-.099	-.036	.208	-.374	.223	-.090	.009	.090	1.000	-.191	-.536	-.015	-.365	.199	
X10	.152	-.191	-.016	-.043	.306	-.387	-.078	-.092	-.191	1.000	.346	-.170	.073	.126	
X11	.265	-.098	-.244	.036	-.280	-.076	-.122	-.018	-.536	.346	1.000	.067	.425	.013	
X12	-.086	-.105	.003	.365	-.409	.371	-.056	-.036	-.015	-.170	.067	1.000	.186	-.259	
X13	.177	-.185	-.168	.329	-.419	.179	.127	-.293	-.365	.073	.425	.186	1.000	-.145	
X14	.120	.186	.080	-.498	-.153	-.291	-.022	-.090	.199	.126	.013	-.259	-.145	1.000	

The first output from the analysis is the correlation coefficient. A correlation matrix is simply a rectangular array of numbers which gives the correlation coefficients between a single variable and every other variable in the

investigation. The correlation coefficient between a variable and itself is always 1; hence the principal diagonal of the correlation matrix presented above contains 1s

Table-2

The next item from the output is a table of communalities (Table-2) which shows how much of the variance in the variables has been accounted for by the extracted factors.

Communalities	Initial	Extraction	
X1	1.000	.699	
X2	1.000	.548	
X3	1.000	.946	
X4	1.000	.796	
X5	1.000	.874	
X6	1.000	.855	
X7	1.000	.822	
X8	1.000	.846	
X9	1.000	.616	
X10	1.000	.799	
X11	1.000	.806	
X12	1.000	.522	
X13	1.000	.718	
X14	1.000	.727	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table-3

Total Variance Explained

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

The table (Table-3) shows all the factors extractable from the analysis along with their Eigen values, the percent of

variance attributable to each factor, and the cumulative variance of the factor and the previous factors

Total Variance Explained

Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings			
Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	
2.892	20.661	20.661	2.892	20.661	20.661	2.240	16.001	16.001	
2.426	17.326	37.987	2.426	17.326	37.987	2.033	14.522	30.523	
1.702	12.160	50.147	1.702	12.160	50.147	1.754	12.527	43.050	
1.300	9.285	59.432	1.300	9.285	59.432	1.691	12.080	55.131	
1.233	8.807	68.239	1.233	8.807	68.239	1.430	10.211	65.342	
1.022	7.299	75.538	1.022	7.299	75.538	1.427	10.196	75.538	
.974	6.954	82.492							
.616	4.401	86.893							
.565	4.035	90.928							
.441	3.151	94.079							
.367	2.622	96.701							
.263	1.880	98.581							
.128	.914	99.495							
7.071E-02	.505	100.000							

It is noticed from above table that only six factors have been extracted. The first factor accounts for 27.186% of the variance, the second 20.661% and so on.

Table-4
Component Matrix

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
X1	-.137	.542	.429	9.662E-02	-.438	3.991E-02	
X2	-.243	-.5.207E-02	.608	-.329	-.8.179E-02	-.4.651E-02	
X3	.222	-.439	.326	.393	-.182	.641	
X4	.713	5.919E-02	-.339	-.1.521E-02	-.345	.224	
X5	-.583	-.4.086E-02	-.695	4.788E-02	-.213	-.4.710E-02	
X6	.775	-.457	.143	.129	9.226E-02	-.4.815E-03	
X7	.376	-.336	-.132	.562	.349	-.336	
X8	-.9.531E-02	-.344	-.6.221E-02	-.464	.618	.341	
X9	-.417	-.600	6.063E-02	.134	-.228	-.9.013E-02	
X10	-.245	.526	-.302	.377	.124	.463	
X11	.229	.755	9.646E-02	-.5.867E-02	.390	.135	
X12	.579	-.6.046E-02	7.637E-02	-.364	-.211	2.333E-02	
X13	.572	.528	6.802E-02	.152	3.213E-02	-.287	
X14	-.465	4.560E-02	.538	.398	.243	-.4.972E-02	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a 6 components extracted.

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

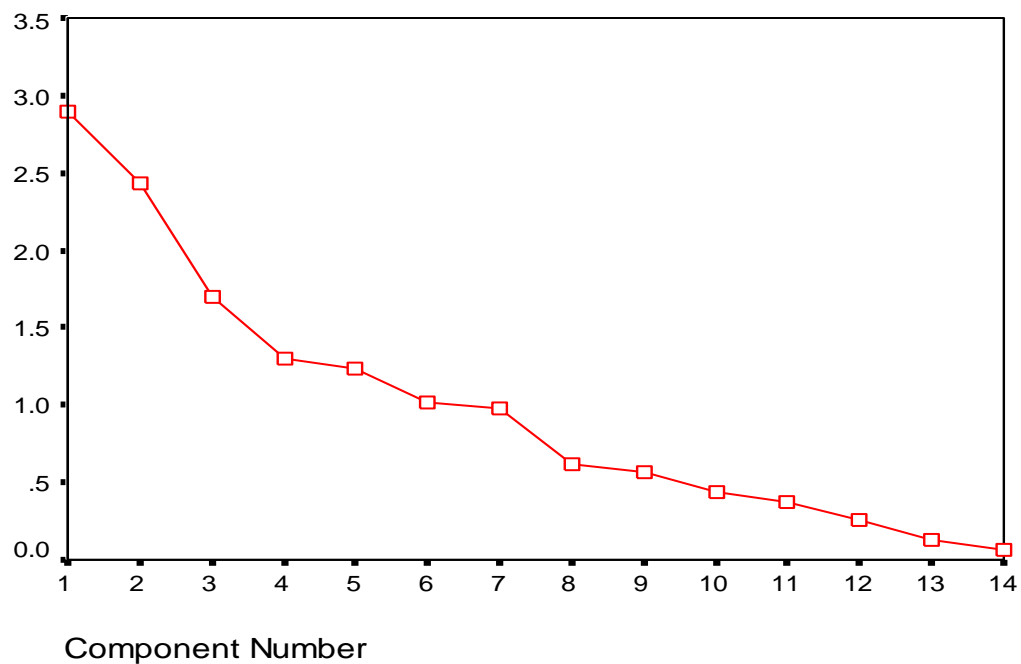
Table-5

The idea of rotation is to reduce the number factors on which the variables under investigation have high loadings. Rotation does not actually change anything but makes the interpretation of the analysis easier.

Rotated Component Matrix

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
X1	.226	-.182	1.228E-02	-.482	.610	.106
X2	-6.922E-02	-.334	.478	-.449	-6.622E-03	4.587E-02
X3	-.207	3.444E-02	8.115E-03	6.122E-02	-5.221E-03	.948
X4	.172	.814	-4.511E-02	.143	.165	.234
X5	-.507	6.577E-02	-.648	-9.310E-02	-1.437E-02	-.429
X6	5.586E-02	.352	.469	.559	-8.452E-02	.433
X7	-1.680E-02	-6.924E-02	4.995E-02	.899	2.157E-02	7.745E-02
X8	2.107E-02	-5.694E-02	6.940E-02	-6.876E-02	-.912	4.060E-02
X9	-.742	-.233	5.752E-02	2.787E-02	-5.633E-03	8.409E-02
X10	.325	-.124	-.803	-.116	5.616E-02	.131
X11	.876	-6.199E-02	-.130	-.111	-1.014E-02	-6.912E-02
X12	.147	.545	.436	-5.307E-02	3.122E-03	.107
X13	.637	.190	.145	.264	.416	-.108
X14	6.489E-03	-.826	3.742E-03	-1.039E-02	.123	.173

Scree Plot



To supplement our analysis, Scree Plot, a graph of the eigenvalues against all the factors was constructed for determining the number of factors to be retained

Table-6

Factor	Factor interpretation	Variables included in the factors
F1	Ad-on Benefits	low/reasonable service-charges ATM availability Not recommended by a friend
F2	Loan facility	Easy way to get loan Not the advertisement
F3	Average customer Care	Not personal attention Not good complaint handling of the bank
F4	Extensive Facility	Higher rate of Interest Convenient working hour
F5	Location	Location Not an account holder of the bank
F6	Quick Service	Quick/prompt service of the bank

V. FINDINGS

The findings are listed below

- 1) Present paper explores six important factors of choosing a bank such as Ad-on Benefits (F1), loan facility (F2), Average customer care (F3), Extensive facility (F4), Location (F5) and Quick services (F6).
- 2) The factor loading for the attributes “reputation of a bank” and “easy way to get loan” are comparatively low to the tune of 54.8% and 52.2% of the total variance. However the remaining 12 services have high factor loadings above 0.6.
- 3) Factor 1 has three significant loadings while Factor 2 has two factor loadings, Factor 3, Factor 4 and Factor 5 have two factor loadings each and factor 6 has one factor loading only.
- 4) The First factor, Ad-on Benefits is accounted for 20.661% of the variance, and it emphasizes on low/reasonable service-charges and ATM availability.
- 5) The second one is the loan facility includes the importance of getting loan easily, accounted for 17.326% of variance.
- 6) The third factor Average customer care is accounted for 12.160% of variance and it does not give much emphasis on personal attention and good complaint handling of the bank.

- 7) The fourth extracted factor is Extensive Facility is accounted for 9.285% of variance.
- 8) The fifth factor Location is accounted for 8.807% of the variance.
- 9) The sixth factor pays attention on quick services of the bank and it is accounted for 7.299% of the variance.

VI. CONCLUSION

Today's banking industry is facing aggressive competition while operating in both domestic and global market. This diverse and uncertain environment has forced the industry to restructure them in order to enhance their chances of growth and survival. In the present environment, bankers operate in a buyers market. Now, the targeted customers are the decision makers of the existence of the bank

The present paper reveals that the customers are giving more emphasis on location, quick services, facility for getting loan easily and ad-on facilities. In general the people are always with time crunch, and so they prefer to choose a bank having the convenient working hour and also they want the prompt services from the bank. It is very interesting to note that the customers have rated poor the attributes “personal attention and “good complaint handling of the bank”. The purpose behind such ranking is that the customers have a number of options to switch over to another bank. In the present era the private banks are coming up rapidly and the existing banks are facing deadly

competition among them, it is a big question in connection with their existence, a bank with planned extensive services can survive in long run. Therefore this study can serve as an ideal guideline and precedent for further research broadly.

VII. REFERENCES

- 1) http://www.ehow.com/how_2053882_select-bank.html
- 2) <http://www.isquare.com/banking.cfm>
- 3) <http://money.outlookindia.com/article.aspx?88628>
- 4) Indian Banking Sector: Challenges and Opportunities by K.V. Kamath, S.S. Kohli, P.S. Shenoy, Ranjana Kumar, R.M. Nayak, P.T. Kuppuswamy, Vikalpa, Volume 28, No: 3, July – September 2003, Page 83.
- 5) <http://bizniaga.blogspot.com/2008/07/determinant-of-banks-services-selection.html>
- 6) Nalini Prava Tripathy, “ Emerging Scenario of Indian banking Industry”, Mahamaya Publication, 2005 edition
- 7) ICRA Limited (2007)

E-Commerce for Micro and Small Companies in Brazil: An Exploratory Study of the Hospitality Sector

Nadia Kassouf Pizzinatto¹ Misael Victor Nicoluci²

Antonio Carlos Giuliani³ Osvaldo Elias Farah⁴

GJMBR Classification
FOR:150402,150401,150499

Abstract-This paper is based on an exploratory research that investigated the adoption of e-commerce or e-marketing in the hospitality industry in Brazil. The study selected 18 cases of micro and small hotels in Campinas and São Lourenço. In Campinas, there are 40 hotels, which were selected 11 (27.5% of the universe); in São Lourenço, there are 18 hotels and were selected 8, a sample representing 44.5% of the universe. The result of the survey presented in this paper will cover the profile of organizations that adopted e-commerce or electronic marketing in the hospitality industry, the factors involved in the process, the barriers to the adoption of e-commerce as well as their justifications for not adopting it etc.

Keywords-electronic marketing, micro and small companies, sector of hotelier services.

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last decade, the Internet had a deep influence in the life of the society as a whole, revolutionizing its way of if communicating, getting information, goods and services, to lead the businesses and even to interact with the government. One of most popular term to describe the activities of the electronic marketing, or either, with transactions via Internet, is the electronic commerce (e-commerce), that it comes being definite as the sharing of business-oriented information, the maintenance of commercial relations and the conduction of business-oriented transactions by means of nets of telecommunications. In the words of Czinkota et al. (2001: 467): the term electronic commerce includes all the commercial activities between final manufacturers, intermediate and consumers using the Internet to assist in the exchange of products.

The problematic of the inquiry is not limited to the fact to

create or not a web site, and nor in as to promote it, but if small and micro corporations, have difficulty in passing of the real marketing for the which had virtual marketing, due to its characteristics (low intensity of capital, greater difficulty of access to the working capital financing, high birth rates and mortality, fort presence of proprietors as hand of busy workmanship in the businesses, use of not qualified or half-qualified man power, low investment in technological innovation (IBGE, 2001). However, without its inclusion in the age of the management with electronic profile, they lose in competitive differential and its probabilities of success diminish. The situation is particularly preoccupying in the area of services, especially in the sector of the hospitality, where the agility in the contact with the customer is a critical factor of success and the market, in geographic terms, does not have borders: the potential customer can be in unimaginable places. So, electronic environment is very important for this sector.

The purpose of the paper is investigate the application of the electronic marketing in the micro and small rendering companies of services of hospitality, in the attendance to the customers, identifying the involved the barriers and others factors in the process to its adoption by organizations of the sector of services, specifically small and micro hotels from Brazil.

II. BACKGROUND

The Internet and the Electronic Marketing: the e-commerce concepts

In the current days, the Internet is to be the technology that will modify the way as the businesses are lead, being simple its functioning and extremely stimulant how much to its utility. Appraised for Limeira (2003: 55) as "an environment mediated for computer, where if they carry through: communications, relationships and transactions between companies and its customers, or either, innumerable activities of marketing that have the potential to modify and to intensify the relations between the companies and its customers, increasing the degree of satisfaction of the participants and the results of the business", the Internet brought the electronic commerce for all the companies: small, average or great. According Patrick (2003:83), "the e-commerce should be helped by the very rapid and continuous evolution of the Internet".

A time that is necessary to be connected to a server, exactly the lesser companies can use it for internal communications, as well as for relations business-to-business. The private nets of a company also can be connected with the Internet.

About-¹Administrator and Economist. Master and Doutor in Administration by EAESP/FGV (SP)-São Paulo-Brasil.

Affiliation: Uninove – Centro Universitário 9 de Julho (e-mail:nkp@merconet.com.br) Rua Samuel Neves, 2030- 13.416-404- Piracicaba –S.Paulo-Brazil

About-²Administrator and Master in Administration- by UNIMEP

Affiliation: Metrocamp- Faculdades Integradas Metropolitanas de Campinas. (e-mail:misaeln@yahoo.com.br) Av. Júlio de Mesquita, 840 - Cambuí, Cep 13025909 - Campinas - S. Paulo - Brasil.

About-³Administrator, Doctor and Master in Education-by UNIMEP

Affiliation: Unimep – Universidade Metodista de Piracicaba (e-mail:cgiuliani@unimep.br) Rua Ipiranga, 337 – Centro – 13400-480 – Piracicaba- São Paulo- Brazil

About-⁴ Administrator, Master in Administration by EAESP/FGV (SP) and Doutorin Administration by FEA/USP-São Paulo-Brasil.

Affiliation: Uninove- Centro Universitário 9 de Julho (e-mail:ofarah@gmail.com) Alameda das Jabuticabeiras, 75 Parque Faber. 13561-260-São Carlos-S.P.Brazil

These nets generally are had access by means of varied systems and passwords.

The electronic commerce or e-commerce consists of the accomplishment business-oriented by means of the Internet, including products selling and physical works to be delivered off-line physically, and of products that can be written by the computer and delivered on-line, through the computer networks or other electronic way, in the segments of consuming, enterprise and governmental market. Limeira (2003:40) it defines the applications and the respective segments of market of the electronic commerce: "the definition of electronic commerce includes the accomplishment business by means of the Internet, including selling not only of products and physical works, delivers off-line, that is, for traditional ways, but also of products as softwares, that they can be written by computer and you deliver on-line, by means of the Internet, in the segments of market e-business-to-business (B2B) and to e-business-to-consumer (B2C)".

Moreover, the electronic commerce involves other types of exchanges of products, services and information between consumers, (consumers), governments, (government), organizations, (identified as business), forming known relations as to consumer-to-consumer (C2C), consumer-to-e-business (C2B), government-to-business (G2B), to government-to-consumer (G2B), consumer-to-government (C2G) and government-to-government, business you business (B2B)".

A. The consumers on - line

Who are the consumers on-line and what they buy? Why they had chosen to buy products and services in the new virtual market instead of buying them in the traditional market? Of that it forms a purchase modality can complement to another one? The answers to these questions are important for the companies and offer tracks for the

future growth of the e-commerce and for the interactive marketing, since to know the customer it is the base for a program of successful marketing in the real world and also in the Internet. In the words of Bertkowits et al. (2003: 213) "many labels are given for the consumers on-line: virtual ciber-purchasers, purchasers, and e-purchasers, suggesting that they constitute a homogeneous segment of the population. But they are not so homogeneous thus, still that, as groups, differ demographically from the population in general ". The planning and the implementation of the strategies and programs of marketing must be preceded by the study of the behavior of the consumer, who can be understood as the process of exchange between the participant agents, the purchaser and salesman. Although Piumelli (2002: 36) states that:" first, the importance of building and of maintaining a policy of strong and lasting relationship with customers is typically seen as a function of the sales department", it is important to remember that the market for hospitality is dispersed and that relationship with the clients can be maintained by e-commerce.

Turban;King (2004) Add that other stimulus, marketing, promotional, pricing, product and quality, can help sustain the relationships with customers.

B. Micro And Small Corporations

Camargo (2001: 3) affirms that "the Micro and Small Enterprises predominant characteristic is the fact that the dynamic organizational be given by interpersonal relations, while in large organizations is marked by the dynamic formal relations. In MSE, depending on the type of work performed, there is great specialization and division of labor, because every employee performs a number of functions in various production cycle."

The number of employees is the criteria more used to define the port of the companies, as demonstrated in Table 1, below

Table 1 - Classification of the MSE, according to number of Employees

Port	Employees
Micro company	In the commerce and services, up to 09 used in the industry, up to 19 used
Small business company	In the commerce and services, of used 10 the 49 In the industry, 20 up to 99 employees
Company of average port	In the commerce and services, 50 to 99 employeesIn the industry, if used 100 to 499 employees
Company of great transport	In the commerce and services, more than 99 used In the industry, more than 499 used

Sebrae, Brazil- 2.000 (classification used for the seek area) Economic Research

The micro and small rendering companies of services have, as main characteristic, it is common that all make of everything a little in the organization.

All the decisions emanate from the direction; it's him who is it gives the final judgment; the person of the Director is

worshiped as the absolute Mr., all thus respects it. In the small company, certain trend to the centralization exists between that they have greater abilities and capacity for leadership.(CAMARGO, 2001)

C. The micro and small companies of the hotelier sector in the general classification

For Castelli (2001:59), an hotelier company can be understood as being an organization that, by means of the payment of daily, offers lodging to an indiscriminate clientele. Although

micro and small companies of the hotelier sector receive a classification differentiated from the other rendering companies of services, defined for the Brazilian Institute of Tourism, Embratur,(2003) and other international agencies, to assure to the customers the compatibility between the offered quality and prices practiced for the ways of tourism lodging, in this study, the classification means of hosting, followed criteria of the Sebrae (Table 3)

Table 3 - Characterization of the micro and small companies of the hotelier sector

Port of the company	Number of employees	Annual rude invoicing
Micro company	to maximum 9 empregados	To maximum R\$ 244 mil reais
Small business company	From 10 to 49 employees	From R\$ 244 mil reais to R\$ 1,2 milhão de reais

Source: Sebrae – 1.999 (classification used for the seek area of the Sebrae) Economic Research - Sebrae-SP

III. METHODOLOGY

It was an exploratory study with field research of multiple cases, selected for not probabilistic sampling of the universe of hotels in the city of Campinas-SP and of São Lourenço-MG, classified as micro and small rendering companies of services. In Campinas, there are 40 hotels, which were selected 11, a sample that represents 27.5% of the universe. In São Lourenço, there are 18 hotels and were selected 8, a sample representing 44.5% of the universe. They had been chosen, for the difference among the companies in relation to the types of services disposable: the hotels of Campinas receive congressmen and executives who pass for the city or region for the participation of events, accomplishment business-oriented, participation of meetings and those from São Lourenço receive hikers and tourist in drawn out vacations or holidays to rest and to usufruct of the tourist structure of the city, mainly the Park from Mineral Waters of São Lourenço. The study was based, too, in surveys of secondary sources - bibliographical surveys, dissertations, research in the Web was also carried through sites. In accordance with of Yin (2001: 93), in the study of cases, the field procedures must be adequately projected, having the data to be collected of people or existing institutions, and not inside of the limits of a laboratory. "Thus, in a case study, the researcher must learn to integrate events of the

real world to the necessities of the plan traced for the collection of data, not being possible the researcher to control the environment of the collection of data." The study of multiple cases produces tests more convincing in comparison to the projects of only case. The field research used the method of personal interviews with the managers and proprietors of the hotelier net. Initially, only one questionnaire was elaborated, however when carrying through the test of its application, was verified that the micro interviewed companies did not have computer and, as the questionnaire interrupted its continuity due not the ownership of the equipment, was constructed a specific questionnaire for these companies, so that the reasons of not the adoption of the electronic marketing could be identified. Finally, two questionnaires, one for micro companies and another one for small companies had been applied for personal interviews; its passed by a test, following guidance of Marconi; Lakatos (2003:169): "after the collection of the data, carried through in accordance with the indicated procedures previously, they are elaborated and classified of systematic form." The data had been tabulated, with analysis based on percentage and, according Malhotra, (2001: 106), the results of the exploratory research must be considered as given for posterior descriptive study.

A. *The universe and the cases of companies of the hotelier sector of Campinas and São Lourenço*

Tables 4 and 5 presents the universe of hotels in both cities studied, by size, following Sebrae's criterion, in Table 1

Table 4 - Hotel net of Campinas

Kind of the hotels	Criterion of classification	Number of hotels	Percentage in relation to the total
Micro company	Maximum 9 employees	14	28
Small business company	From 10 to 49 employees	18	36
Company of average port	From 50 to 99 employees	11	22
Company of great port	More than 100 employees	6	14
Total		49	100

Source: ONDEHOSPEDAR - www.ondehospedar.com.br. Access in 28 jan.2005,22 h.

Table 5 - Hotel net of São Lourenço - MG

Port of the hotels	Criterion of classification	Number of hotels	Percentage in relation to the total
Micro company	Até 9 empregados	2	14
Small business company	10 to 49 employees	4	28
Company of average port	From 50 to 99 employees	2	14
Company of great port	More than 100 employees	6	44
Total		14	100

Source: GUIDE National RSOCIAL (GRSN) - www.guiarsocial.com.br. Access in 28 jan. 2005, 22 h.

Among establishments investigated, nine of the cases were classified as micro companies, and others nine, small companies, following the criterion of classification of Table 3

IV. RESULTS

This item presents the results of the research. Analysis was performed vertical (when base 100% was in the column of the Tables) and horizontal, when used lines of Tables (SAMARA, 2002: 105). On this text, the results are presented only of analytical form, for a question of space for the article. Bigger detailing can be found in Nicoluci (2005).

A. *Profile of the companies by computer possession*

Possession of computer occurs in 73% of cases, concentrated in small businesses, and 27% in the segment of micro enterprises. The main reasons of the ownership of computer for the micro companies are not: the unfamiliarity

of computer science, (66% of the answers of the proprietors of the micro companies), and not to find the use of a

computer necessary (16%). Of the respondents who had alleged not the ownership of the computer due to its raised cost, half did not have any notion of its cost or softwares. It

can also be evidenced, for the answers opened in the carried through interviews, that a great majority of the employees of these establishments had only the primary course.

B. *Profile of the companies on use the Web site*

The use of the Web site is inexistent in the micro companies of the hotelier sector, in the studied cases. Already in the small companies, the data show that 88% adopt it. How much to the reasons that lead to the use of the electronic marketing, the considered item of bigger importance was of the improvements in the contact with the customers, followed of the imitation of the competition and finally, for believing that it propitiates increase in selling. As if it sees,

they are placed, in last place, the purchases for the Web site. The small companies consider as main reason of use of the Web site, the item "the competition uses." The data above allow to deduce that to imitate the competition it is the one of the main reasons of the application of the electronic e-marketing also lack of a knowledge more deepened on the electronic marketing for the managers and proprietors of the small companies. How much to the purposes of use of the Web site, the item considered as of bigger importance was of the spreading of mark, followed of direct selling/reserves, of the contact with new customers and contacts with current customers e, finally, the congratulators for the anniversaries of its customers and promotions. The analysis above allows deducing that the entrepreneurs consider direct selling/reserves as resulted of a good spreading of the mark of the hotel, reason for which if it finds in according to place. The contacts of the company with its current customers are made way email or telephone and not through the Web site. The companies, in the studied cases, practically do not make promotion and, as cited, almost they do not send congratulators for the anniversaries of its customers, and, when they make it, they are used of the email.

C. Purposes of use of the Internet

How much to the purposes of use of the Internet, the considered item of bigger importance was to check email of the company, followed for making contacts with new customers and current customers, and, finally, to consult the Web site. In the sequence, they appear items: to search general competitors, information and payments, research in the Internet, to check particular email and to sail in the Internet. The result of the analysis above allows to infer the great importance of the use of the Internet in the act of receiving of e-mails and to make contact with new customers.

D. Strategies for adoption of the e-commerce

Procedural analysis the main strategy for the development of the Web sites was the act of contract of external services, disclosing that the delegation to another firm, in this area, is a great chance business-oriented. Also the interviewed ones had disclosed that, in the process of implantation, of the Web site no adequacy due to use of available computer in the organization was not necessary.

E. Cost of development and implantation of the Web site

The cost of development and implantation varied of R\$ 500,00 and US\$ 2,000.00, values that if relate to the amount of pages and photos of the site, as well as exploitation of existing photographic material already. Moreover, 43% of the searched companies did not pay tax of maintenance of the site.

F. Main difficulties of implantation and operation of the Web site and forms of overcoming the unfamiliarity and overcoming ways

On the part of 57% of the proprietors and managers of the small companies of the hotelier net, of the benefits that could happen of the implantation of the Web site was one of the barriers to the attainment of a more practical system, of bigger utility, of which if it could get resulted greater, or together to which if it could more obtain differentiated information. They had not found difficulties in the implantation process and operation 42%, followed of 42%, that they had had difficulties in grouping and selecting the main information of the company that would have to be divulged in the Web site.

G. Passed time of adoption of Web site

3/4 of the small companies had adopted the Web site has only 2 years, very short period for deeper analysis of the happened benefits of its adoption. 5,8 selling/reserves done saw Web site the small companies carries through in average of 5 10% of its selling web site.

H. Reasons of the micro companies who possess computer and do not adopt the electronic marketing (page in the Internet) and results

How much to the reasons of not the adoption of the electronic marketing for the micro companies, the analysis allows to deduce that the lack of knowledge of the amplitude of the benefits of the use of a computer is responsible, in 67% of the cases, for not the adoption of the electronic marketing, data that 34% assume this openly and excessively make of indirect form, alleging that they had acquired the computer recently. The sprayed answers how much to the main disadvantages and weak points for not the adoption of the electronic marketing for the micro companies, they had not allowed to an analysis consensual, but to only raise hypotheses for a future descriptive study that selects in bigger scale the occurrence of each option: promotional damage, damage in the conquest of customers, damage in the costs. Although 3 between 6 respondents to indicate unfamiliarity of the advantages that could happen of the adoption of the electronic marketing, approximately 100% of that they do not use it denote concern in finding new customers and the spreading of the hotel. Moreover, the micro

companies who possess computer does not consider not the adoption of the electronic marketing as disadvantage or weak point.

Trends of adoption of the electronic marketing (page in the Internet) for the micro companies .Perhaps for not perceive the advantages, only 1/3 of that they did not have computer, intended to adopt the electronic marketing, alleging the reasons of not adoption: high cost and lack of qualified staff. Main advantages of adoption of the electronic marketing in the micro companies who do not possess computer Corroborating the deduction, 1/3 of the proprietors of the micro companies who do not possess computer considered that it does not make difference, therefore 17% only visualize the technology to facilitate the work and to register in cadastre customers, who are answers of use of computer and not of adoption of a Web site. The result

above raises the hypothesis of the lack of knowledge of the benefits and not perception of the damages for not the adoption of a web site.

Weak disadvantages and points for not the adoption of the electronic marketing in the micro companies who possess computer.

It is perceived that, in relation to the main advantages of adoption of the electronic marketing in the micro companies who possess computer in the previous analysis, 1/3 alleged do not identify advantages, being able itself to infer from there that a great reason not to invest in the electronic marketing is the unfamiliarity of the benefits and not the perception of the damages of its not adoption.

V. FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

To the ending of this research, mainly perceive that the micro companies does not adopt the electronic marketing, for also being unaware of its benefits, the low level of hand of - used workmanship and for the difficulty of the necessary resources to the purchase of the computer and the implantation of the Web site, being that only 27% of the micro companies possess computer. Also they demonstrate very little perception on the advantages, disadvantages, damages and weak points of not the adoption of e-commerce. The results of the research had shown that the use of the Web site occurs in 88% of the small companies and are not adopted by the micro companies. Of any form, the passed average time of the adoption of the Web sites for some of them, of only two years, more makes it difficult any deepened analysis of the benefits of its implementation. He is meaningless to speak in adoption of the electronic marketing, in a sector where if it arrives at the preoccupying situation, in the current days, of if managing a hotel without the support of a computer, exactly being micro company. The micro entrepreneurs of the investigated hotelier net attributes its incapacity to advance for a computerizing management to the low level of formation of its employees and to the unfamiliarity of computer science. It can be said, then, that these are the main barriers to the adoption of e-commerce by the micro hoteliers professional corporations together to which the research were developed. Also it was evident that this behavior of the entrepreneur averse to assume the electronic marketing is proceeding mainly from the unfamiliarity of the happened benefits of the use of e-commerce. Any analysis of the strategies of e-commerce in a sector is also engaged where the small companies only use computers to facilitate its internal works and to make connection with the Internet, and only possess a Web site with the purpose to show physically the hotel and to relate the given services, supplying to the email and the telephone contact. For the results of the research, one perceived that strategies for adoption of the electronic marketing are only restricted to the act of contract of third creating and operate the web site. One perceived, also, that practically 50% of the searched companies do not pay tax of maintenance of the site, or either, or either, its sites are not brought up to date, losing the visual impact and the capacity to attract the visitors." The trends of adoption of the electronic marketing in the micro companies who possess computer of the sector

in study are of 2/3 of the total, and only 1/3 of that they do not possess, what it raises the hypothesis of that the micro and small companies in study of the hotelier sector still do not perceive and understand the characteristics specific of the electronic environment. The main lines of direction for the application of the electronic marketing imply the agreement with clarity of the virtual environment, for example, as the businesses in the Internet and the basic characteristics of the electronic marketing, the adequacy of the marketing

strategies, the profile and the behavior of the consumers of services are processed on-line. After the accomplishment of the field research and the tabulation of the results, can be confirmed, being based on the exploratory study carried through in the work, that potentially the Internet can benefit the strategy of marketing of a company, facilitating the growth of the value of its mark in the market, to transform a potential customer into an effective customer, to improve the services to the customer allowing that it serves itself of such technological resources when and where to want e, finally, the Internet make possible a communication in two ways that it enables the companies interacting with its customers. The contributions of the study for the sector show as the practical one of the electronic marketing is occurring, as the companies see the benefits happened of the practical one of e-commerce. The problem is that the micro companies really does not visualize, does not use, does not understand the importance of if bringing up to date to be able to remain itself competitive, selling its services in a new virtual environment with together exponential growth to its customers, for which the attainment of the information and of images of easy form, specified as to user friendly, much contributes, providing the tangible elements necessary to materialize selling of a service. The profile of the entrepreneur who only knows the computer science and e-commerce of empirical form, only for words of third, perhaps either the main barrier to the use of this technology. It takes as example of this, in one of the interviews with one of the proprietors of a pretty hotel that still not have equipment computerized, that answered, how much to the intention to assume the electronic marketing: "only my son who studies outside and comes back in the July vacations, will be able to answer on the use of the electronic marketing". This and other entrepreneurs who have as main concern the survival of its organization in an extremely competitive environment, and are apparently not worried about the adoption of the electronic marketing, would have to acquire knowledge themselves that its survival will only happen with the use in its companies, of the new technologies. This is one of the descriptive studies that if can suggest that it is developed in the hotelier sector, as a more representative universe of research: the profile of adoption of the electronic marketing as well

as the barriers to its implementation, can be investigated in the total of professional corporations of the sector of hotelier, being able itself, until, to extend the universe for the category of Lodging and Feeding to include the enterprises foreseen in the National Classification of Economical-CNAE Activities. In the suggested descriptive

studies, the validity statistics is essential to be able itself to make any affirmation on the subject, with bigger security. Another suggestion of to be carried through study must enclose the companies of the sector of rendering of services that carries through the update of its site systematically and in which if it can verify the real advantages, represented, for example, for the number of new customers happened of the practical one of e-commerce. The carried through work can be the principle of another one with validity statistics, extended for analysis of the sites of the companies, with the main purpose to produce an elaborated manual of form and with a well simple language, or as a course of extension or perfection for the micro and small entrepreneurs, so that they can understand and visualize the importance of the management of its companies with computerized equipment and the rendering of services, using themselves of electronic canals through a web site, for a bigger easiness to give to information and access of the customer to the services given for the company. By not taking up e-commerce, the micro and small entrepreneurs of the hospitality industry forget that, as suggested Turban; King (2004) are leaving to use a stimulus marketing which can be, for example, a shipment of Promotion Strategy the direct mail to customers, offering discounts.

The results of this study may suggest the development of new research, as descriptive study, attempting to identify, for example, among the micro and small entrepreneurs of the hospitality industry that took the e-commerce, which benefits were found. The study may also be extended to the entire hospitality of the two cities, increasing the sample and also by a descriptive form, the results extend to the entire universe, for more accurate conclusions, statistically verifiable. It also suggests repeating the study in other cities, developing comparative studies of results. May be suggested, too, the expansion of the universe including all types of organizations included in the category of Lodging and Food of the National

Classification of Economic Activities-CNAE. In descriptive studies suggested, the statistical validity is essential to be able to make any statement on the matter, with greater security.

VI. BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES

- 1) BERKOWITZ, Eric N. et al. Marketing. 6º edição, Volume 1, Rio de Janeiro: LTC Editora, 2003.
- 2) CAMARGO, Silvia Helena Carvalho Ramos Valladão. Estratégias Empresariais nas Micro, Pequenas e Médias Indústrias de Produtos Alimentícios na Região de Ribeirão Preto. 1994. Dissertação (Mestrado em Administração) Centro Universitário Moura Lacerda, Ribeirão Preto – SP.
- 3) CASTELLUCIO, Michael. Book The Internet revolution –dot.gone?. Periodical Strategic Finance. Framingham, Montvale, United States-US, Tomo 83 , nº 9, pg. 59, mar/2002.

- 4) CZINKOTA, Michael R. et al. Marketing best practices. Porto alegre: Bookman, 2001.
- 5) E-COMMERCE.org.br - www.ecommerce.org.br, access in: 2005.01.02, 20h
- 6) Embratur – Instituto Brasileiro de Turismo. Hotelier Classification.. Brasília: 2003.
- 7) GUIA RSOCIAL Nacional (GRSN). www.guiarsocial.com.br. Access in 2005.01. 28, 22 h.
- 8) IBGE – As Micros e Pequenas Empresas Comerciais e de Serviços no Brasil. Rio de Janeiro: 2001
- 9) LIMEIRA, Tania M. Vidigal. E. Marketing . São Paulo: Editora Atlas, 2003.
- 10) MARCONI, Marina de Andrade, LAKATOS, Eva Maria. Fundamentos de Metodologia Científica. 5º Edição, São Paulo: Editora Atlas, 2003.
- 11) MALHOTRA, K. Naresh. Pesquisa de marketing, uma orientação aplicada. Porto Alegre: Bookman, 2001.
- 12) NICOLUCI, Misael Victor. E-Marketing in Micro and Little Service Corporations: an hotelier sector exploratory Study. 2005. Master Administration Dissertation, Unimep – University Methodist of Piracicaba-SP, Brazil.
- 13) ONDEHOSPEDAR- Guias de Hotéis e Pousadas do Brasil. www.ondehospedar.com.br. Access in 2005.01.28., 22 h.
- 14) PATRICK, John. The Ultimate Internet. Periodical Network World. Framingham, United States- US, Tomo 20 , nº 45, pg. 83, nov/2003.
- 15) PIUMELLI, Frederick A. Using the Internet to forge solid customer relationships Periodical Business Credit. New York , United States-US, Tomo 104 , nº 6, pg. 36, jun/2002.
- 16) YIN, Robert K. Estudo de Caso – Planejamento e Métodos . Porto Alegre: Bookman, 2001.
- 17) TURBAN, Efrain, DAVID King. Comércio Eletrônico, Estratégia e Gestão. São Paulo: Prentice Hall, 2004

Small and Mid-Sized Enterprises – In Difficulty in Romanian Economical Crisis Confronting

Carmen Hmelnițchi

GJMBR Classification
GJEL:G01,O52,H53,E24,O52

Abstract-The worldwide economical crisis is growing day by day and Romania begin to feel more and more its effects. The article presents a few data about Romanian economical crisis and its reflection in recorded figures. This crisis has a strong impact versus small and mid-sized enterprises, which are more vulnerable than large enterprises. They have small resources and in this period of financial crisis they can obtain money in harder conditions for their development. Many of them are in bankrupt situation and have to dissolve their enterprise. In this situation many employees remain without jobs.

But a hopefully ray of light is viewing from Romanian Government, which launched on 2009.05.06 in the frame of “TIMM 2009” the calling for projects for the obtaining a financial support for small and mid-sized enterprises.

I. INTRODUCTION

Day by day the worldwide economical crisis is enhancing and Romania begin more and more to feel this depression, which worldwide great economist don't succeed to find an antidote. Here are some figures communicated by the end of the first semester by the National Statistical Institute, which put clearly in the light the worldwide crisis effects on the Romanian economy

Indicator	Percentage value figure recorded in the first eight months of 2009 against the same period of 2008
Gross Domestic Product	-18%
Exports (expressed values in lei)	-6,7%
Exports (expressed values in Euro)	-19,4%
Imports (expressed values in lei)	-26,6%
Imports (expressed values in Euro)	-36,6%
turnover volume of enterprises having as main activity retail (except trade of motor vehicles and motorcycles)	-10,5%
turnover for wholesale (in nominal terms)	-16%
turnover volume of enterprises having as main activity wholesale and retail, maintenance and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	-38,8%
Turnover volume of the services mainly rendered to the enterprises (in nominal terms)	-10,1%
turnover volume of market services rendered to the population	-15,7%
industrial production indices – unadjusted series	90,9%
Construction works - total	86,7%
indices of total investments in national economy	-59,2%
turnover value indices in industry per total (domestic and non-domestic market)	83,0%

The average total increasing of the prices in the last 12 months (May 2008 – April 2009) against the previously period of time calculated on the basis of the consumption prices indices and harmonised consumption prices is 7,4 %. This thing, correlated with the pressure of the syndicates for obtaining of the wages increases, is completing the installed crises overview from the Romanian economy.]

The immediately effects of the economical crisis are felt much more of small and mid-sized enterprises (SMEs),

which are in difficulty against the large enterprises, due to their limited resources.

On the economical crisis background, the potential financial resources for the SMEs are in decreasing. On one side, a part of SMEs which have contracted credits for their development or other needs are in face with the pay impossibility, in the same time with the burdening of the paying possibility of the suppliers, especially when the payments are made in a foreign currency.

The banks honour no more easily the credit requires for SMEs. It is a recoil effect, because the creditors, which in normal conditions would agree the according of more payment terms for their business partners from which they

previously have cashed large amounts of money, but the banks itself, are in the crisis conditions. They have to put a higher pressure on their debtors for chasing the due money, too. So, the reaction is a chaining one. In so conditions, the SMEs don't find the necessary resources to pay their deadline debts and they become vulnerable, or even don't survive.

On the other side, because the worldwide burses are falling and the Values Bourse of Bucharest has felt this thing, too, the SMEs can't stake on this as a possible financial source, so, another cover variant for their financial needs is blocked. From the specialists point of view the economical crisis is the moment in which the business are sorting. The more seriously business, which are focusing on their clients and quality, remain, but the less seriously ones disappear. A good planning business wouldn't have to confront with big difficulties in this period of time.

However, the economical crisis will push into bankruptcy over 20000 companies in this year, with more than 40% comparative with last year – show us a public study made by COFACE, on the beginning of May 2009. In the first trimester of this year, the number of enterprises being in insolvency rised with 58% comparative with the same period of time of 2008, reaching the 5173 number.

“The of worsening of Romanian economical crisis, lack of promoted of Government authorities real measurements for economical raising the bit and decreasing of financial resources will go to a severe burdening of the companies payment behaviour. We estimate that till at the end of the year, at most 20000 companies will enter in insolvacing status” – declared Cristian Ionescu -general manager of COFACE Company.

At the end of 2008 was recorded 14483 firms being in diverse status of insolvency procedure, the most affected fields being the en-detail trade (3.553), wholesale and retail (2932), constructions (1666), transportation (811), wood and wooden products manufacturing (793) and hotels and restaurants (782).

In the first trimester, from total number of insolvent companies, 2084 was in general insolvency procedure, 888 in simplify insolvency procedure, 2183 in bankruptcy procedure and 18 in juridical reorganization procedure, also show “The bankruptcies study” made by COFACE Romania , based on supplied data of Trade Register about insolvency situation of the companies in 2008 year and in the first trimester 2009.

The number of Romanian companies to file for bankruptcy this year will go up 50 per cent, to circa 15600, which is similar to the level recorded in 2006, forecasts Cristian Ionescu

General Director of the credit risk management company Coface Romania. “If in 2005, the number of bankruptcies rose 50 per cent, and last year, 50 per cent, for this year, I estimate a 50 per cent rise too,” Ionescu said. A number of 10431 companies filed for bankruptcy last year, with the field of commerce proving the riskiest of them all, as 37 per cent such companies went bust, according to a Coface study last march. The Coface director pointed out that, in order to avoid bankruptcy, companies need to insure not just the

tangible assets, but the claims as well. “Companies insure tangible assets such as property, equipment, but overlook the claims, which make up an average 40 per cent of all the assets. Failure to cash on the claims has a strong negative impact on company liquidity and earnings,” Ionescu explained. Credit insurance eliminates non-payment risks and increases business safety, the Coface director also said.

The most bankruptcies was recorded in Bucharest , where 972 companies went to insolvency, which represent over 18% of total Romanian insolvencies. On the next place are: Constantza County (416) and Bihor County (333). Coface considers that the most safety fields, with under 1% of total insolvencies remain energetically industry, mining industry, telecommunications and financial intermediating.

“Number fields with a low rate of insolvency is expecting to decrease more in 2009, the first of them being those sectors in which the economical-financial situation was profound affected in the last months of 2008, but the true effects will be indeed feel during this year (metallurgical industry, machinery and equipments industry, IT)” is shown in the study. Only in April 2009 (till 27th of April) in Romania they was 1780, three times more than what was recorded in the same period of last year, conform to National Trade Register Office (NTRO) information .

Regarding activities fields, NTRO statistic shows that the most firms which had been erased acted in trade field (532) and real estate one (466).

In the same time, over 3400 companies has suspended their activities against 993 from the last year same period of time and other 556 have been voluntarily dissolved against 258 in 2008. The main suspending or dissolving reason remains the lack of financial resources. The first affected will be the SMEs, which don't have the necessary financial force of the large corporations and maybe indirectly through this worldwide economical crisis “it is aiming, in fact, the total supremacy of the large corporations at a worldwide level ”.

The economical crisis strikes through the increasing of the unemployment, too. Day by day the formal statistics show new data, which represent the increasing of the unemployees or those who are threatened to be fired. Metallurgy, textiles, automotive spareparts, automotive and chemistry are the most threaten vital points.

The employees number from Romania increased with over 100000 in the first months of the year, from 403000 in December 2008 to 513000 at the end of March 2009, conform Workforce Occupation National Agency statistics .

By the end of the first trimester the recorded at the national level unemployment rate was 5.6%, bigger with 1.5 % against March 2008 and bigger with 0.3% than February 2009.

In the last month of the last year the ratio between the paid un-employees and the unpaid un-employees was 1.0 – 1.8, but in March 2009 it was 1.0 – 1.2, which means more than 86000 persons put a big pressure over the unemployment assuring budget.

The increasing with ¼ of unemployed number brings Romania with at less five position more in the hierarchy made by EUROSTAT, under Bulgaria and Luxemburg.

Coface forecasts 15,600 bankruptcies this year published in issue 3949 page 9 at 2007-06-07-
<http://www.docstoc.com/docs/4910119/1-Coface-forecasts-15600-bankruptcies-this-year>

http://www.docstoc.com/docs/4910119/1-Coface-forecasts-15600-bankruptcies-this-year

www.ziare.ro/articole

www.curierulnational.ro – „Criza economică va aduce un val uriaș de falimente în România”-Ina Moldoveanu, Director marketing Urban și Asociații

www.anofm.ro

For this year, the Financial Ministry shows that the activities will be enhance restrained in much more fields, the number of the unemployment will grow and the inflation will be at less 5%.

The estimations from April – December 2009 indicate an average trimester growing of the unemployment number with 100000, similar to the first period of the year. Thus, the Romanian un-employees will be raised with 800000 in December 2009. The European Commission anticipates an unemployment rate for Romania of 8% for this year, conform economical spring forecasting.

However, in this heavy situation there are some feeble rays of light for the SMEs. Small and Mid-sized Enterprises, Trade and Business Environment Ministry (SMETBEM) has lunched on May 2009 the calls for projects for according financial support for 2009, of 196 million Euro total amount- released Maria Parcalabescu – State Secretary .

“We have lunched the appeal for 2009 for accessing the structural funds in amount of 196 millions euro and by the end of the month we hope to close the appeal for 2008 in

total amount of 105 millions euro” – said Maria Pârcălăbescu - the state secretary from SMETBEM. The appeal for accessing the structural funds offer financial support for investment projects up to 1,075,000 lei.

But the accessing of a structural funds isn't an easy procedure and the SMEs not always dispose of skill necessary personnel. The crisis is continuing to affect the business environment and the SMEs makes more and more efforts to resist in such business environment. They have to be creative and proactive for finding the best business opportunities and the best methods for fruiting them.

II. REFERENCES

- 1) <http://www.insse.ro> - Monthly statistical bulletin-08/2009
- 2) <http://www.bloombiz.ro/business/coface-20-000-de-firme-in-pragul-falimentuluiin-2009>
- 3) <http://www.docstoc.com/docs/4910119/1-Coface-forecasts-15600-bankruptcies-this-year-issue-3949-page-9-at-2007-06-07>
- 4) <http://www.docstoc.com/docs/4910119/1-Coface-forecasts-15600-bankruptcies-this-year>
- 5) www.ziare.ro/articole
- 6) www.curierulnational.ro – Ina Moldoveanu, Director marketing Urban și Asociații „Criza economică va aduce un val uriaș de falimente în România”
- 7) www.anofm.ro

Assessing the Effects of Management Practices of Not-for-Profit Corporations in Southeast Wisconsin and Their Influences on Organizational Performance

Dr. Gary F. Keller

GJMBR Classification
FOR:150312,150305
GJEL:L31.O16.P27

Abstract-The not-for-profit sector's role in the American economy is substantial. In 2009 there were more than 1,569,572 tax-exempt organizations accounting for 8.11% of all wages and salaries paid in the United States. Public charities reported nearly \$2.6 trillion in total assets in 2007 and individuals gave \$229.28 billion in 2008 to not-for-profits (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2010). Considering the magnitude and financial impact that not-for-profit organizations (NPO) have on local communities and the national economy, it is vital to assess how these organizations are managed and what if any effect management practices have on their performance. However, a central problem that economists have faced when endeavoring to account for *the effect of management* is calculating how management practices affect an entity's performance. The purpose of this quantitative research investigation was to study the impact of 18 management practices defined as "operations (three practices), monitoring (five practices), targets (five practices), and incentives (five practices)" (Bloom & Van Reenen, 2007, 1393 - 1397) on the performance of NPOs in the metropolitan area of southeast, Wisconsin. The basis of this research project was derived from a study (Keller, 2009) conducted of for-profit firms located in the same geographical area in late 2008. An examination of the survey data of NPOs demonstrated that management practices had a strongly significant effect on the organizational performance of not-for-profit organizations at the 2.85E-07 level of significance.

Keywords-Management Practices, Economic Performance, Economic Measurement of Management, Not-For-Profit Performance Measurements, Management Theory

I. INTRODUCTION

The need to demonstrate the effectiveness of any business or organization worthy of attracting resources and transforming them into valued products/services is that entity's primary mission. A variety of methods have evolved over time to measure a for-profit enterprise's performance. Economists have typically studied how well a firm manages the factors of production under its control while accountants and financial analysts scrutinize a variety of analytical tests to determine current and future performance. Many NPOs have adopted many of the commercial sector's economic and accounting/financial techniques to gauge their performance. However, an issue that plagues the analysis of

for-profit and cannot calculate the effect of management on agency performance. Similarly, accountants and financial analysts can compute the outcome of fiscal transactions; however, not-for-profit businesses is the effect that management has on enterprise performance. While economists can account for nearly all of the factors of production, the discipline the professions cannot accurately attribute the effect that managerial decisions have on generating the financial numbers.

The type of data collected for this study was quantitative (interval and ratio scale) derived by a survey instrument that was closely patterned after one used and extensively validated by Bloom and Van Reenen (2006, 2007). The authors sought to develop an instrument that reliably calculated the connection between management practices and economic performance (Bloom & Van Reenen, 2007). They developed an 18 question survey that investigated the quality of management practices using a Likert-type 1 to 5 rating scale.

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine whether an NPO's management practices, defined by Bloom and Van Reenen (2007) as operations, monitoring, targets and incentives, were related to their economic performance defined as increases/decreases in the number of employees. This economic performance criteria was selected as a proxy for financial gain and a strategic success factor for the following reasons: a) an NPO's primary goal is to financially break even, therefore year over year financial gain may not be a significant indicator of positive financial success, indeed a profit may be anathema to the organization; b) contributions toward an ongoing capital campaign or special project could distort an organization's financial position; c) a deficit due to special circumstances could also distort an organization's financial position; d) the gain/loss of employees provides a quantifiable insight into the entity's relative effectiveness and if the organization's products/services were in demand, constant or declining.

To accomplish the goal of studying the impact of management practices on the performance of NPOs in the metropolitan areas of southeast, Wisconsin a critical review of the relevant peer-reviewed and scholarly literature was conducted. A survey composed of 15 general organizational identifier questions and 18 management practices was sent to the chief executive officers of 100 qualified NPOs in the metropolitan areas of southeast Wisconsin. The population

was limited to organizations listed on the unemployment compensation data base of the State of Wisconsin and excluded governmental, religious, health care and education (school systems and colleges/universities) organizations. The survey instrument was based on Bloom and Van Reenan's instrument which assessed the effect that management practices had on large firms' economic performance and modified by the author in the 2009 survey.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The challenge to manage and measure the effectiveness of any organization is complex and frequently a highly subjective task. The for-profit sector created commonly accepted accounting and financial standards that indicate the economic performance of a firm. However, evaluating the utility of NPOs has been a historical challenge, given the sector's purpose of producing social well-being for public stakeholders compared to the for-profit's objective of producing wealth for private shareholders. As the number of NPOs increased to deal with a myriad of social issues, so did the *competition* for support and the need to demonstrate how NPOs utilized contributed resources. It was not long before the NPO sector adopted the commercial sector's accounting and financial gold standards to gauge institutional output.

In addition to utilizing commonly accepted financial standards, NPOs also attempted to appliqué many for-profit managerial theorems onto their institutions. But which management practice was the equivalent of a commonly accepted accounting practice? Furnham (2005) catalogued 24 different management practices ranging from Empowerment to Theory Z that were introduced in the last half century. Additionally, during the last 40 years many of the best known management theorists translated their principles for use in the charitable sector. Examples include McConkey (1973) *Management by Objectives* (MBO); Deming, *Out of the Crisis* (1986) TQM and many of its derivatives such as ISO, Six Sigma and etc.; Drucker (1990) *Managing the Non Profit Organization*; Buckmaster (1999) *Benchmarking*; Kaplan (2001) the *Balanced Scorecard*; Sanger (2008) and Field (2009) *Data Drive Performance Measurement* and Lewis (2003) a hybrid of all of the evolving management theories.

Unfortunately many commercial management theories have not always produced the best solutions for NPOs (Rojas, 2000). Speckbacher (2003) noted that one reason commercial concepts did not always succeed in the NPO sector was because the assumptions underlying the economic and organizational models were alien to the missions of many NPOs. For example, outsourcing certain functions (ex. a call center, food preparation, and security services) may save a for-profit firm a considerable sum of money but could be an operational and public relations disaster for a community based shelter for homeless or abused persons. Herman and Renz (2004) offered that "finding the right fit among (management) practices is more important than doing things the "right way" (p. 694). Herman and Renz (2008) also conducted an extensive literature review of nonprofit organizational effectiveness

and highlighted nine conclusions, including one which stated that it was unlikely there were universally applicable best practices for all NPO boards and management.

A further issue has clouded the topic of evaluating the impact that management practices have on firm or organizational performance is the lack of a precise definition of performance. Ritchie and Kolodinsky (2003) asserted that agreement about NPOs financial performance measurement and overall performance evaluation was elusive. Folan, Browne and Jagdev (2007) argued that there is no precise definition of the meaning of performance in the context of management science and as a result financial measurements continue to be the default indicators of managerial quality. Young (2007) claimed that while profitability is an unambiguous criterion for commercial ventures, no comparable standard exists for NPOs. While NPOs are required to break even, a surplus may or may not be a sign of achievement due to the nature of the organization's mission and legal (501 (c) (3) tax exempt status.

While economists, accountants and financial analysts have been able to count the tangible factors of production, the *effect of management* on organizational performance remains elusive and therefore frequently discounted in both the for-profit and NPO sectors. Hubbard (2006) noted that decisions to use technology and other economic assets are management functions and therefore corporate economic performance is a directly related to the quality of its management rather than a mere outcome of the aggregate of corporate activities. Hubbard cited the work of Alfred Chandler Jr. and David Landes who argued that professional management was the key factor for the United States' rise to economic prominence compared to its European rivals. "Through the microeconomic perspective, management is, at heart, a choice made by each firm" (p. 30).

A seminal study by Bloom and Van Reenen (2006) found that the approach taken by managers had the foremost influence on enterprise performance. Firms with superior management were associated with higher productivity, return on equity and market capitalization. Bloom and Van Reenen (2007) found that there was no single management practice that provided the key to improved firm performance. Rather, it was the average score of 18 management practices grouped into "four areas: *operations* (three practices), *monitoring* (five practices), *targets* (five practices), and *incentives* (five practices)" (p. 1361) when compared to a firm's economic success that provided the most accurate indicator of success. Bloom and Van Reenen's innovative survey tool and robust methodology demonstrated a statistically valid correlation between management practices and firm performance.

The outcome of the literature review revealed several important topics. The first is both the for-profit and not-for-profit sectors have endeavored over the decades to design systems that accurately depict the performance of an enterprise. The most accepted methods to achieve that goal have been accounting, financial or economic metrics. The second theme is the not-for-profit sector has borrowed many of the measurement techniques from the commercial sector that may or may not be appropriate to gauge organizational

effectiveness, given the charitable and “not-for-profit” mission of NPOs. The third matter is the dilemma that both the for-profit and not-for profit sectors face when accounting for the effect that management practices have on agency performance. In short the literature was replete in demarcating management theory and financial measurements. However, few if any scholars have been able to demonstrate a connection between the two elements. Of all of the classic factors of production, management was among the most difficult to quantify. Management was said to matter but evaluated similar to the way electrical engineers explain the impact of electricity on various systems, i.e. the outcome is known; however, the exact composition of electric current remains a mystery.

III. DEFINITION OF MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

An assortment of management theories developed in America during its industrial take off period. Management practitioners and academics ranging from Frederick W. Taylor, *The Principles of Scientific Management* (1911) to Peter Drucker, *The Effective Executive* (1967) to W. Edwards Deming, *Out of the Crisis* (1986) to Robert S. Kaplan and David P. Norton, *The Balanced Scorecard* (1996) have attempted to formulate concise methods that would insure predictable corporate success. Furnham (2005) catalogued 24 different management approaches ranging from Empowerment to Theory Z. However, while many authors continue to offer recommendations to derive success, the search for the managerial equivalent of absolute zero goes on and on. Folan, Browne and Jagdev (2007) argued that there is no precise definition of the meaning of performance in the context of management science. Consequently financial measurements are generally regarded as the only reliable indicators of managerial quality. However, Hubbard (2006) noted that decisions to use technology and other economic assets are management functions and therefore corporate economic performance is a directly related to the quality of its management rather than a mere outcome of the aggregate of corporate activities.

The notion that a single set of management practices and performance indicators may have led theorists and practitioners to seek solutions using alchemy rather than using an integrated systematic approach. Bloom and Van Reenen (2006 and 2007) conducted several studies that sought to correlate if management practices affected corporate performance. Both

studies by Bloom and Van Reenen (2007) affirmed that certain management practices had an effect on firm growth and found that “better management practices are significantly associated with higher productivity, profitability, Tobin’s Q, sales growth rates, and firm-survival rates” (p. 1352). Bloom and Van Reenen also found that there was no single management practice that provided the key to improved firm performance. Rather, it was the average score of 18 management practices grouped into “four areas: operations (three practices), monitoring (five practices), targets (five practices), and incentives (five practices)” (p. 1361) when compared to a firm’s economic success that provided the most accurate indicator of success.

IV. DEFINITION OF A NOT FOR PROFIT ORGANIZATION

The definition of a not-for-profit organization according to the Internal Revenue Service is “An organization may qualify for exemption from federal income tax if it is organized and operated exclusively for one or more of the following purposes. Religious. Charitable. Scientific. Testing for public safety. Literary. Educational. Fostering national or international amateur sports competition (but only if none of its activities involve providing athletic facilities or equipment. The prevention of cruelty to children or animals...To qualify, the organization must be a corporation, community chest, fund, or foundation. A trust is a fund or foundation and will qualify” (IRS, 2010). There are 4 other qualifying organizational types; social welfare organizations; labor unions, farm bureaus and others; business leagues; and social and recreational clubs.

To distinguish the many types of 501 (c) (3) organizations a classification system was developed, the National Taxonomy of Exempt Entities (NTEE). The system is similar to classification system (National Industrial Code, NIC) the IRS uses to differentiate the many types of businesses in the for profit sector. The NTEE is a system used by the IRS and the

National Center for Charitable Statistics to classify nonprofit organizations. The NTEE classification system divides nonprofit organizations into 26 major groups under 10 wide-ranging categories. The classification system is useful because it:

- facilitates the collection, tabulation, presentation, and analysis of data by the types of organizations and their activities
- promotes uniformity and comparability in the presentation of statistical and other data collected by various public and private agencies
- provides better quality information as the basis for public policy debate and decision-making for the nonprofit sector and for society at large (NCCS, 2010). Among the most important definitions of a NPO is its ultimate purpose for existence and exemption from paying taxes as well as providing contributors to a not-for-profit entity with a tax deduction. According to the Dictionary of Accounting Terms a not-for-profit organization is a:

Group, institution, or corporation formed for the purpose of providing goods and services under a policy where no individual (e.g., stockholder, trustee) will share in any profits or losses of the organization. Profit is *not* the primary goal of nonprofit entities. Profit may develop, however, under a different name (e.g., surplus, increase in fund balance). Assets are typically provided by sources that do not expect repayment or economic return. Usually, there are restrictions on resources obtained. Examples of nonprofit organizations are governments, charities, universities, religious institutions, and some hospitals. Most nonprofit organizations have been granted exemption from federal taxes by the Internal Revenue Service. Many of these

organizations refer to themselves according to the IRS Code section under which they receive exempt status (i.e., 502(c)(3) organization). This identification lets donors know that their contributions to this organization may be deductible for income tax purposes (Siegel & Shim, 2010)

V. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this quantitative research investigation was to study the impact of 18 management practices defined as “operations (three practices), monitoring (five practices), targets (five practices), and incentives (five practices)” (Bloom & Van Reenen, 2007, 1393 - 1397) on the performance of NPOs in the metropolitan area of southeast Wisconsin. Norse (1968) recommended the use of employment data as a proxy for firm economic performance. This economic performance criteria was selected as a proxy for financial gain and a strategic success factor in this study for the following reasons: a) an NPO’s primary goal is to financially break even, therefore year over year financial gain may not be a significant indicator of positive financial success, indeed a profit may be anathema to the organization; b) contributions toward an ongoing capital campaign or special project could distort an organization’s financial position; c) a deficit due to special circumstances could also distort an organization’s financial position; d) the gain/loss of employees provides an insight into the relative effectiveness and if the organization’s products/services were in demand, constant or decline.

In this research project, employment data was requested of respondents to the survey instrument. The type of data collected was quantitative (interval and ratio scale) derived by a survey instrument the author used in a study (Keller, 2009) conducted of the for-profit sector in the metropolitan area of southeast Wisconsin. This survey instrument was closely patterned after one used and extensively validated by Bloom and Van Reenen (2006, 2007). The author received Bloom’s permission to utilize his methodology in a direct mail survey format. The survey was tailored to provide respondents with descriptive choices linked to an interval scale rather than simply asking the respondent to rate a given management trait on a 1-5 Likert scale. An example is provided below.

A. USE OF MODERN WORKFLOW SYSTEMS

Using a scale of 1 to 5, circle the response that best describes your organization.

- 1) Few modern workflow systems techniques (e.g., ISO standards, Just In Time Inventory, lean manufacturing, automation, total quality management, Six Sigma, automation, flexible manpower, support systems, attitudes and behavior) have been introduced or have been introduced in an as needed manner.
- 2) The organization infrequently tries some modern production or workflow systems techniques.

- 3) Some aspects of modern workflow systems techniques have been introduced, through informal/isolated change programs.
- 4) The organization uses many modern workflow systems.
- 5) All major aspects of modern workflow systems have been introduced in a formal way.

Below are the null and alternative hypotheses that directed this analysis.

H1o. There is no difference in the organizational performance based on management practices of NPOs located in the metropolitan area of southeast Wisconsin.

H1a. There is a difference in organizational performance based on management practices of NPOs located in the metropolitan area of southeast Wisconsin.

On February 9, 2010 a survey instrument was sent to the Executive Directors of 100 qualified NPOs in the metropolitan area of southeast Wisconsin. The qualified NPOs (100) included those derived from the Unemployment Compensation data bases for Racine and Kenosha counties. The survey instrument was used to sample 100% of the eligible population of 100 organizations excluding governmental units, schools, health care agencies and colleges/universities. The data was analyzed using a Student T-Test to determine whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis. A Student T-Test was selected to analyze the data due to the small sample size (Zikmund, 2003). A .05 level of significance was used to determine significance.

VI. FINDINGS/DISCUSSION

A survey composed of 15 general organizational identifier questions and 18 management practices was sent to the chief executive officers of 100 qualified NPOs in the metropolitan areas of southeast Wisconsin. The population was limited to organizations listed on the unemployment compensation data base of the State of Wisconsin and excluded governmental, religious, health care and education (school systems and colleges/universities) organizations. The response rate to the mailing of the survey was 20 surveys or a response rate of 20%. In aggregate, 70% of the organizations who responded to the survey reported no change (35%) or increases of between 1% to 10% or greater (35%) in the number of employees. The data indicated that the survey was completed by a high number of senior level organizational leaders. Of those responding to the survey, 59% identified themselves as the Executive Director, President or Treasurer of the organization. The data also indicated that 7 (35%) of respondents to the survey were social/human services agencies, 3 (15%) were economic development organizations and 3 (15%) were educational organizations.

The researcher used a Student T-Test to determine whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis in this study.

H1o. There is no difference in the organizational performance based on management practices of NPOs located in the metropolitan area of southeast Wisconsin.

H1a. There is a difference in organizational performance based on management practices of NPOs located in the metropolitan area of southeast Wisconsin.

The Student T-Test was used to assess whether employment growth is an indicator for organizational performance. The Student T-Test results for the Null Hypothesis was significant beyond the .001 level (.000000285). This extremely small P value was strongly sufficient to reject the Null Hypothesis and accept the Alternative Hypothesis.

As described in the Methodology section, Norse (1968) recommended the use of employment data as a proxy for economic performance. Growth in the number of employees was used as a proxy for organizational performance because many NPO organizations have a variety of revenue (earned and contributed) streams that could distort the fiscal status of the organization. For example a social service agency could receive a large contribution for a restricted endowment. While the gift would enhance the fiscal status of the entity, it may not have an immediate or persistent impact on the organization's day to day operational performance.

The results from the survey provided important insights into the operational realities of NPOs. During the period 2005 – 2008:

Most NPOs are small businesses; 68%, employed between 1-50 employees; 21% employed between 51-200.

82% of respondents claimed that earned revenue decreased between 1% -10% and 11% reported no change in earned revenue. However, during the same time period, 42% reported no change in contributed revenue and 32% reported increases between 1-10% and 10% reported increases greater than 10%.

Question 15 of the survey asked respondents to rank from 1 (lowest) to a 5 (highest) the factors that are vital to their organization's success (financial resources, employees, management practices, materials, technology). When the results were averaged, respondents ordered the following factors as vital to their firms' success. Note: Low 1 to 5 high.

1. Capital
2. Technology
3. Management Practices
4. Employees
5. Materials

At first glance, the respondents' ranking of the success factors was somewhat surprising considering the missions of NPOs. One explanation for the curious ordering of materials being the most important success factor may reflect the diversity of organizations in the survey sample (from an adult literacy group to a municipal zoo) and a growing trend in NPO agencies, social entrepreneurship. Many NPOs are attempting to generate earned revenue via creation of products/services that provide a new revenue stream to diversity away from dependence on contributions, funding from United Way type funding agencies, and fees for services which oftentimes do not fully recover the service provider's costs.

The ranking of management practices by respondents as the third most vital success factor is curious given the strongly significant correlation of management practices and organizational performance. One explanation for this ranking may be an increasing managerial skill level and

sophistication in NPO corporate leadership. This phenomenon may be a result of the inclusion of talented for-profit leaders serving on the boards of directors of NPOs and the growing trend of NPO executives securing management degrees and ongoing training.

VII. IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS

A review of the data showed that management practices were correlated to organizational performance of NPO organizations located in southeastern Wisconsin. Despite the strongly significant statistical correlation between management practices and organizational performance, NPO respondents did not rank management practices as the number one success factor for their agency. As mentioned previously, this disparity may represent a growing trend in the evolution of the management ability of NPOs. This study was conducted while the American economy entered the recession of 2008-2010. A bifurcated assessment of the revenue condition of NPOs was revealed. On the one hand, earned revenue (revenue derived from operations) decreased in 82% of the organizations and 11% reported no change. Only one organization reported an increase in earned revenue. The experience of NPOs during the economic recession mirrors that of their for-profit counterparts who also experienced significant earnings from ongoing operations. On the other hand, contributed revenue (donations) increased in 42% of the organizations and 42% reported no change in contributed income. It is reasonable to conclude that donors continued to support the missions of charitable organizations even during difficult economic times and therefore contributed income served to sustain these agencies throughout hard economic times.

VIII. IMPLICATIONS FOR NPOs

It was the author's goal to ascertain if the management practices of NPOs located in southeast Wisconsin had an affect on their performance. The data strongly supported the conclusion in the affirmative. Over the past several decades academic and professional institutions, the donor community, individual and corporate contributors, foundations, NPO boards of directors, practitioners and community stakeholders have advocated for improved management of NPO agencies. The results of this study clearly indicate that agencies whose leadership have learned and utilize contemporary management practices produces positive results. The seeming linear relationship between management practices and organizational performance should not be taken for granted. Frequently the lure of the deployment of technology, secure sources of funding or a mentality of "too well known and revered in the community to fail" lulls boards of directors and senior management into a dangerous, phlegmatic mindset. As competition for donor support becomes increasingly strong (now driven by social media networks, rivalry from legitimate and illegal Internet sources and well published natural disasters such as the Haiti earthquake) even better management practices and performance must be pursued by NPOs to survive and flourish.

IX. IMPLICATIONS FOR ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS

Academic institutions need to continuously adjust their curricula to consider the evolving needs of NPOs. Many academic and professional organizations view teaching management solely for those who work in the for-profit sector. There may be opportunities to develop state of the art majors/minors for prospective and practicing NPO managers. Continuous improvement of ongoing management offerings (in-person and on-line) for NPO employees is also vital. What may be an appropriate practice in the for-profit sector may simply not be applicable or desirable in the NPO sector. Frequently the jargon and superficial understanding of for-profit practices (ex. enterprise performance evaluated strictly by analytical means) is appliquéd onto an NPO and either distorts or becomes toxic to the agency's mission.

X. IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGERS

NPO managers must continue the progress that contemporary management practices have made to the success of many organizations. However, as noted above, the application of management practices germane to NPOs is an evolutionary process. As NPOs work in more complex situations and in partnership with many types of entities, funding sources and stakeholders, new managerial techniques and theories need to be developed, documented, tested and taught. For example, the Haiti earthquake quickly stimulated record amounts of contributions from sources around the world driven in large part due to communications and the ability of millions of cell phone users to become donors in nanoseconds. How the Red Cross, international financial institutions and suppliers of relief goods and services were connected to deliver results should be an excellent case study in contributor-logistics-communication-management of a crisis. What lessons can be learned by all NPOs from the Haiti disaster?

XI. IMPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF DIRECTORS

As the management competence of NPO managers continues to improve, it is vital for their Boards of Directors to upgrade their management skills as well. Frequently a struggle for the direction develops at an NPO. Sometimes, well intentioned individuals serve on Boards to actualize their zeal for a particular cause; however, ardor may conflict with the business of conducting the NPO thus leading to conflict with its professionally educated managers. In other cases, the business professional joins a board to provide service to a community based agency and may solely focus on analytical results thus leading the organization away from its institutional soul and those who it was established to serve. All too frequently the composition of contemporary NPO boards is reflective of who can secure financial support and regrettably board meetings are focused not on how the entity is performing its stated mission but rather if the annual financial goal is being achieved. Simply hiring a professional management team and relying on them for direction and guidance is not enough. Boards need to have a balanced composition reflecting the agency's stakeholders,

friend and fund raisers and knowledge subject matter experts. Ultimately, the Board of Directors must realize it has fiduciary responsibility of the agency and in conjunction and cooperation with the entity's professional management forge the way forward.

XII. REFERENCES

- 1) Bloom, N. and Van Reenen, J. (2006). Measuring and explaining management practices across firms and countries. Retrieved February 1, 2008 from <http://cep.lse.ac.uk/textonly/people/bloom/papers/BloomVanReenen2.pdf>.
- 2) Bloom, N. and Van Reenen, J. (2007, November). Measuring and explaining management practices across firms and countries. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 122(4), 1351-1408.
- 3) Buckmaster, N. (1999). Benchmarking as a learning tool in voluntary non-profit organizations. An exploratory study. *Public Management* (1461667X), 1(4), 603-616.
- 4) Deming, W.E. (1986). *Out of the crisis: quality, productivity, and competitive position*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- 5) Drucker, P. (1990). *Managing the non-profit organization; practices and principles*. New York, NY: HarperCollins.
- 6) Field, C. (2009). Performance management. *Financial Management* (14719185), 40-41.
- 7) Folan, P., Browne, J., & Jagdev, H. (2007, September). Performance: Its meaning and content for today's business research. *Computers in Industry*, 58(7), 605-620.
- 8) Furnham, A. (2005). *The psychology of behaviour at work*. London: Psychology Press.
- 9) Herman, R., & Renz, D. (2008). Advancing nonprofit organizational effectiveness research and theory: Nine theses. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 18(4), 399-415.
- 10) Herman, R., & Renz, D. (2004). Doing things right: Effectiveness in local nonprofit organizations, a panel study. *Public Administration Review*, 64(6), 694-704.
- 11) Hubbard, G. (2006). The productivity riddle. *Strategy and Business*, (45), 28-33.
- 12) IRS. (2010). Publication 557, 3., Section 501(c)(3) Organizations. Retrieved from <http://www.irs.gov/publications/p557/ch03.html#d0e3190>
- 13) Kaplan, R. (2001). Strategic performance measurement and management in nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 11(3), 354.
- 14) Keller, G. (2009). Do management practices affect the economic performance of
- 15) firms located in southeast Wisconsin, USA? *International Review of Business Research Papers*, 5 (6) 79-8.

- 16) Lewis, D. (2003). Theorizing the organization and management of non-governmental development organizations. *Public Management Review*, 5(3), 325-344.
- 17) McConkey, D. (1973). Applying management by objectives to non-profit organizations. *SAM Advanced Management Journal* (00360805), 38(1), 10.
- 18) National Center for Charitable Statistics. (2010). Quick facts about nonprofits. Retrieved May 1, 2010, from <http://nccs.urban.org/statistics/quickfacts.cfm>
- 19) National Center for Charitable Statistics. (2010). National taxonomy of exempt entities. Retrieved May 2, 2010 from <http://nccs.urban.org/classification/NTEE.cfm>
- 20) Norse, H. (1968). *Regional economics: A study in the economic structure, stability and growth of regions*. New York: Mc-Graw-Hill.
- 21) Ritchie, W., & Kolodinsky, R. (2003). Nonprofit organization financial performance measurement: An evaluation of new and existing financial performance measures. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 13(4), 367.
- 22) Rojas, R. (2000). A review of models for measuring organizational effectiveness among for-profit and nonprofit managers. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 11(1), 97.
- 23) Sanger, M. (2008). From Measurement to management: Breaking through the barriers to state and local performance. *Public Administration Review*, 68(6), S70-S85.
- 24) Siegel, J. & Shim, J. (2010) *Dictionary of accounting terms*, 4th ed. Retrieved on May 2, 2010 from <http://www.answers.com/library/Finance+and+Investment+Dictionary-cid-8375561>
- 25) Speckbacher, G. (2003). The economics of performance management in nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 13(3), 267.
- 26) Young, D. (2007). *Financing nonprofits, putting theory into practice*. Lanham, MD: Alta Mira Press.

Research Framework: Paradigms in Information Science Research

Karthikeyan.P¹ Manjula. K. A.²

GJMBR Classification
FOR: 080611,080609,150311

Abstract-Information systems research is conducted in a multi-disciplinary and multi-cultural context. Many disciplines contribute to studying the development, implementation, and usage of information systems and information technology within organizations. This confluence of different academic disciplines and different research communities, tend to develop those distinct research methods, paradigms and research approaches from their discipline in IS research. This has resulted in the discussion of research paradigms and has influenced discourse in the IS discipline. This paper briefly discusses some of the prominent paradigms in Information Systems research.

Keywords-Critical Realism, Information Systems, Interpretivism, Positivism, Research Paradigms.

I. INTRODUCTION

Information systems (IS) research is multidisciplinary and multinational. Apart from IS, many other disciplines including business administration, computer science, sociology and psychology, contribute to studying the development, implementation and use of IS and information technology within organizations (Fitzgerald & Howcroft 1998). Different academic disciplines and research communities tend to adopt distinct research methodologies and approaches. Against this background, distinct and often inexplicit epistemological assumptions, working on the same research topic or studying the same IS phenomenon does not necessarily ensure mutual understanding (Weber, 2004). The potential lack of understanding in this context is a result of differing philosophical assumptions. In particular, the understanding of such concepts as validity, reliability or quality of research depends substantially on these epistemological assumptions. This is evident, for instance, in the controversy over positivist and interpretivist research within the IS field (Chen & Hirschheim 2004). A discussion on these philosophical assumptions is complicated due to the extent of diversity in opinion on this subject. This paper attempts to briefly discuss some of the dominant paradigms seen in IS research.

This paper is structured with next section briefly looking at the diversity of approaches found in IS research with respect to various philosophical assumptions. This is followed by a small discussion on various research paradigms like positivism, interpretivism, critical research, critical realism and design science research.

II. RESEARCH PARADIGMS

Information systems research is conducted in a multi-disciplinary and multi-cultural context. Many other disciplines in addition to information systems – business administration, information science, sociology, psychology etc. – contribute to studying the development, implementation, and usage of information systems and information technology within organizations (Wade & Hulland, 2004). Thus, this confluence of different academic disciplines and different research communities tend to develop those distinct research methods, paradigms and research approaches from their discipline in IS research. IS research can be seen as a rich tapestry of diverse research methods, research paradigms, and research approaches (Chen & Hirschheim 2004). A major problem of this diversity is that working on the same subject does not necessarily mean that mutual understanding prevails. Especially against the background of often implicit assumptions, for instance, regarding philosophy of science, perspectives on ‘research rigor’, ‘research validity’ and also ‘research quality’ may vary considerably (Niehaves, 2007). This has resulted in the discussion of research paradigms and has influenced discourse in the IS discipline (Chen & Hirschheim, 2004; Iivari 1991). This paper briefly discusses the dominant research paradigms seen in IS research. A paradigm provides a conceptual framework for seeing and making sense of the social world. A Paradigm may be viewed as a set of basic beliefs; it represents a worldview that defines for its holder, the nature of the “world”, the individual’s place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts ... (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Guba and Lincoln (1994) state that the basic beliefs that define a particular research paradigm may be summarised by the responses given to three fundamental questions:

1. The *ontological* question i.e. what is the form and nature of reality
2. The *epistemological* question i.e. what is the basic belief about knowledge (i.e. what can be known)
3. The *methodological* question i.e. how can the researcher go about finding out whatever he/ she believes can be known.

Paradigms are, in many cases, subconscious and not explicated by the individual conducting research. Paradigms are questioned mainly in those situations where research approaches based on distinct paradigms are confronted, that is, when they stem from different academic disciplines or research communities. At this point, differences in the

About-¹ Department of Management Science, MES College of Engineering, Kuttipuram, Kerala, India. (e-mail- pkarthi_pk@rediffmail.com)

About-² Department of Information Technology, Kannur University, Kerala, India.

implicit paradigmatic assumptions become evident and paradigmatic assumptions are analyzed. Furthermore, paradigms are often questioned when they fail to provide sufficient explanatory power with respect to new phenomena of interest (Niehaves, 2007).

In the IS discipline, we can observe a wide-ranging discussion of research paradigms (Weber 1987). The discussion of IS research paradigms is multi-faceted, so any discussion of IS research should incorporate diversity. In the following sections we shall consider some of the dominant ones.

III. POSITIVISM AND INTERPRETIVISM

It is found that the IS literature provides us with an extensive discussion on epistemological paradigms, especially positivism and interpretivism (Burrell and Morgan 1979; Chen & Hirschheim 2004; Fitzgerald & Howcroft 1998; Mingers 2001; Becker & Niehaves 2007; Walsham 1995; Monod 2003; Weber 2004). Here, a paradigm is understood as a distinct worldview based on certain epistemological and ontological assumptions. Table 1 shows how the various researchers have differentiated the paradigms in IS research.

Author	Criteria	IS Research Paradigms
Burrell & Morgan (1979)	a. Ontology, b. Epistemology, and c. Methodology	Functionalism, interpretivism, radical humanism, and structuralism
Iivari (1991)	a. Ontology, b. Epistemology, and c. Methodology	Functionalism, interpretivism, radical humanism, and radical structuralism
Fitzgerald & Howcroft (1998)	a. Ontology, b. Epistemology, and c. Truth	Positivism, interpretivism
Monod (2003)	a. Epistemology I: Object of knowledge b. Epistemology II: Origin of knowledge	Multiple IS research paradigms and philosophical trends, e.g. functionalism, constructivism, critical realism
Weber (2004)	Multiple criteria; amongst others, ontology, epistemology, research object, method, theory of truth etc.	Positivism, interpretivism

Table 1: Epistemological Assumptions of IS Research Paradigms (Becker & Niehaves 2007).

A. Positivism

Also known as Functionalism, is based on the philosophy of 'logical positivism', which maintains that methods of natural science are the only legitimate methods available for use in social sciences (Mukherjee, 2008). Positivists generally assume that reality is objectively given and can be described by measurable properties, which are independent of the observer (researcher) and his or her instruments. Positivist studies generally attempt to test theory, in an attempt to increase the predictive understanding of phenomena. In line with this Orlikowski & Baroudi (1991) classified IS research as positivist if there was evidence of formal propositions, quantifiable measures of variables, hypothesis testing, and the drawing of inferences about a phenomenon from the sample to a stated population. Studies undertaken in this framework look at the importance of presence or absence of specific factors for enhancing the success of information systems. Studies have been undertaken by Rockart (1979), who proposed the idea of 'critical success factors' or CSFs and Shank et al., (1990) who used it with the MIS planning in his own organization FIAC. Flower (1996) introduced the notion of the 'critical failure factors' or the CFFs. The functional approach has been criticised for attempting to establish a causal relationship between social events using natural science propositions.

B. Interpretivism

Interpretivism emphasizes the influence of the subject on the process of achieving knowledge. Interpretive research methods address the problem of dichotomy between the social and technical worlds by considering the knowledge of reality as a socially constructed one by the associated human actors. Interpretive researchers start out with the assumption that access to reality (given or socially constructed) is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness and shared meanings. The philosophical base of interpretive research is hermeneutics and phenomenology. Interpretive studies generally attempt to understand phenomena through the meanings that people assign to them and interpretive methods of research in IS are aimed at producing an understanding of the context of the information system, and the process whereby the information system influences and is influenced by the context (Walsham, 1995). Examples include Vaughan's (1996) account of the Challenger launch decision at NASA and studies like those of Harvey and Myers (1995). Using the interpretive framework, Charles Perrow (1999) refuted the functionalist notion of failures in structured systems as the outcome of a set of discrete and independent flaws in their design. He perceived failures as the result of the inherent interactive complexity and tight coupling of complex elements in the system.

There has been studies on the approaches that are used in IS research. Chen & Hirschheim (2004) have conducted an empirical study analyzing eight major IS publications between 1991 and 2001. They examined 1893 articles published in American and European journals and found that, on a methodological level, while quantitative methods dominate the USA research culture (71%), 49% of the articles published in European journals apply qualitative methods. On the paradigmatic level, the vast majority of US publications (89%) are characterized by a positivist paradigm. They report that although European journals also published mainly research based on positivist principles (66%), they tend to be much more receptive to interpretivist research (34%) than American journals.

IV. CRITICAL RESEARCH

Critical research is often seen as the 'third paradigm', an alternative to interpretivism and positivism. The concept of criticality opens up another dimension to the paradigm discussion in the IS discipline. Critical researchers assume that social reality is historically constituted and that it is produced and reproduced by people. Although people can consciously act to change their social and economic circumstances, critical researchers recognize that their ability to do so is constrained by various forms of social, cultural and political domination. The critical IS researchers perceive power and politics as inescapable features of every organization (Mukherjee, 2008). The main task of critical research is seen as being one of social critique, whereby the restrictive and alienating conditions of the status quo are brought to light. Critical research focuses on the oppositions, conflicts and contradictions in contemporary society, and seeks to be emancipatory i.e. it should help to eliminate the causes of alienation and domination. The fundamental issue of critical research is that it aims to change the status quo because it finds social realities unjust; the purpose of critical research is to promote emancipation (McGrath 2005). Niehaves & Stahl (2006), summarize, the critical paradigm can be characterized by the critical intention to change reality and the wish to emancipate alienated individuals.

Critical researchers mainly analyse the implementation phase - where user resistance is most frequent, and investigate the causes of such resistance. Work in this direction was done by Kling (1980). Warne and Hart (1996) studied the impact of organizational politics on the failure of an information system project by using the concept of information wards. It is built on the fundamental assumption of organisations being pluralistic in nature

V. CRITICAL REALISM

Critical realism, is another philosophical perspective (Bhaskar, 1978), that offers a radical alternative to the established paradigms of positivism and interpretivism (Mingers, 2002). Critical realists are of the opinion that there is a reality, which is intransitive and, of which, only a subset can be perceived. This reality exists whether or not it can be observed or whether or not there were even observers and

there may be infinity of events that do actually occur but are never empirically observed.

For critical realists then, reality is intransitive and exists independent of humans and is also stratified. Three ontological domains or strata are distinguished: the empirical, the actual and the real (Bhaskar, 1978). The empirical domain consists of what we experience directly or indirectly. Separated from this, is the actual domain where events happen, whether we experience them or not. This means that what happens in the world may not be the same as what is observed, as the positivists believe. The actual domain is separated from the real domain where there are also "structures" and "mechanisms" which can produce events in the world. Danermark et al. (2002) are of the opinion that the importance of critical realism is that, in the sense of its philosophy, critical realism involves a change in philosophical emphasis from epistemology to ontology, and within ontology, a changed focus from events to structure and mechanism. To switch from events to mechanism means switching the attention from events themselves to what produces the events.

According to Mingers (2002), critical realism is becoming influential in a range of disciplines including geography, economics, organization theory and sociology. But, with few exceptions, critical realism is almost invisible in the IS field (Carlsson, 2005). The potential of critical realism in information systems research has been recognized by Dobson (2001) and Mingers (2004), they argue for the use of critical realism in IS research and discuss how this can overcome problems associated with positivism and constructivism. Mingers (2002), is of the opinion that critical realism is important for IS because (1) critical realism enables us to take a basically realist stance while accepting the major critiques of naïve realism; (2) it addresses both natural and social science and thus encompasses both hard and soft (and critical) approaches; and (3) it does potentially fit well with the reality of IS as an applied discipline.

VI. BEHAVIOURAL SCIENCE RESEARCH AND DESIGN SCIENCE RESEARCH

The term paradigm is not only used to distinguish particular epistemological positions. Two distinct paradigms: behavioural science research and design science research have been introduced by Hevner et al. (2004) and March and Smith (1995). The former is understood as a "problem understanding paradigm", the latter as a "problem solving paradigm". The term paradigm here addresses distinct phases of a problem-oriented process, understanding and solving it. While behavioural science research is primarily focussed on development and justification of theories on human-computer-interaction, design science research seeks to create IT artefacts intended to solve organizational problems. Behavioural science research and design science research are seen as two complementary parts of the IS research cycle (Hevner et al. 2004; March & Smith 1995). Acquiring knowledge about information systems employed in an organizational context requires the application of both research paradigms. Table 2 compares these two paradigms.

	Behavioural Science Research (BSR)	Design Science Research (DSR)
origin	natural science	engineering, sciences of the artificial
paradigm	problem understanding paradigm	problem solving paradigm
objective	to develop and justify theories which explain or predict organizational human phenomena surrounding the analysis, design, implementation, management, and use of information systems	to create innovations that define ideas, practices, technical capabilities, and product through the analysis, design, implementation, management, and use of information systems
object	Human-Computer-Interaction	IT artefact design

Table 2. Behavioural vs. Design Science Research (Hevner et al. 2004; March & Smith 1995).

VII. CONCLUSION

Information systems research is conducted in a multi-disciplinary and multi-cultural context. Many other disciplines including business administration, computer science, sociology and psychology, contribute to studying the development, implementation and use of IS and information technology within organizations. These different academic disciplines and different research communities tend to develop those distinct research methods, paradigms and research approaches from their discipline in IS research. This paper has briefly discussed the dominant approaches seen in IS research. A detailed discussion on this subject will be difficult as the opinions are very diverse, but this has been a small attempt in this direction.

VIII. REFERENCES

- 1) Bhaskar, R. (1978). *A Realist Theory of Science*: Harvester Press.
- 2) Becker, J., & Niehaves, B. (2007). Epistemological Perspectives on IS Research – A Framework for Analysing and Systematising Epistemological Assumptions. *Information Systems Journal*, 17:2, pp 197-214.
- 3) Burrell, G. & Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological Paradigms and Organizational Analysis*, London.
- 4) Carlsson, S. (2005). Developing Information Systems Design Knowledge: A Critical Realist Perspective. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methodology*. Vol 3 (2), pp 93- 102,
- 5) Chen, W., & Hirschheim, R. (2004). A paradigmatic and methodological examination of information systems research from 1991 to 2001. *Information Systems Journal*, 14 (3), pp 197-235.
- 6) Danermark, B., Ekstrom, M., Jakobsen, L., & Karlsson, J. C. (2002). *Explaining Society: Critical realism in the social science*: London, Routledge.
- 7) Dobson, P. (2001). The Philosophy of Critical Realism. An Opportunity for Information Systems Research. *Information Systems Frontiers*, 3:2, pp. 199-210.
- 8) Fitzgerald, B., & Howcroft, D. (1998). Competing Dichotomies in IS Research and Possible Strategies for Resolution. 19th International Conference on Information Systems ICIS 1998, Helsinki, Finland, pp. 155-164.
- 9) Flowers, S. (1996). Software Failures—Management Failures: Amazing Stories and Cautionary Tales, J. Wiley and Sons, Chichester, UK.
- 10) Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y.S. (1994) Competing paradigms in qualitative research. Ch 6 In: Denzin and Lincoln. *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Sage Publishers. USA
- 11) Harvey, L. J., & Myers, M. D (1995). Scholarship and Practice: The Contribution of Ethnographic Research Methods to Bridging the Gap, *Information Technology and People*, 8(3),13-27.
- 12) Hevner, A.R., March, T.S., Park, J., & Sudha, R. (2004). Design Science in Information Systems Research. *MIS Quarterly*, 28:1, pp 75-105.
- 13) Iivari, J. (1991). A paradigmatic analysis of contemporary schools of IS development. *European Journal of Information Systems* (1:4), pp 249-272.
- 14) Kling, R. (1980) Social Analyses of Computing, Theoretical Perspectives in Recent Empirical Research, *Computer Survey* 12 (1), 61- 110.
- 15) March, T.S., & Smith, G. (1995). Design and Natural Science Research on Information Technology," *Decision Support Systems* (15:4), pp 251-266.
- 16) McGrath, K. (2005). Doing critical research in information systems: a case of theory and

- practice not informing each other. *Information Systems Journal*. 15:2, pp 85-101.
- 17) Mingers, J. (2001). Combining IS research methods: towards a pluralist methodology. *Information Systems Research*, 12:3, pp 240-259.
 - 18) Mingers, J. (2002). Real-izing Information Systems: Critical Realism as an Underpinning Philosophy for Information Systems. Proceedings of 23rd International Conference on Information Systems (ICIS 2002).
 - 19) Mingers, J. (2004). Re-establishing the Real: Critical Realism and Information Systems, In J. Mingers and L. Willcocks (eds.): *Social Theory and Philosophy for Information Systems Research*, Wiley, Chichester, 372-406.
 - 20) Monod, E. (2003). A Copernican Revolution in IS: Using Kant's Critique of Pure Reason for Describing Epistemological Trends in IS. 9th Americas Conference on Information Systems (AMCIS 2003), Tampa/FL, pp. 2719-2724.
 - 21) Mukherjee, I. (2008). Understanding Information System Failures from the Complexity Perspective. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(4), pp 308-319.
 - 22) Niehaves, B., (2007). On Epistemological Diversity in Design Science – New Vistas for a Design Oriented IS Research? 27th International Conference on Information systems, Montreal.
 - 23) Niehaves, B. and Stahl, B. C. (2006). Criticality, Epistemology, and Behaviour vs. Design - Information Systems Research Across Different Sets of Paradigms, in *Proceedings of the 14th European Conference on Information Systems (ECIS 2006)*, Gothberg, Sweden.
 - 24) Orlikowski, W.J. & Baroudi, J.J. (1991). Studying Information Technology in Organizations: Research Approaches and Assumptions. *Information Systems Research*, (2), pp. 1-28.
 - 25) Perrow, C. (1999) *Normal Accidents: Living with High-Risk Technology*, Princeton University Press,
 - 26) Rockart, J. F. (1979). Chief Executives Define Their Own Data Needs, *Harvard Bus Rev* 57 (2), 81-93.
 - 27) Shank, M. E., Boynton, A. C., & Zmud, R. W. (1990). Critical Success Factor Analysis as a Methodology for MIS Planning. *Management information systems: readings and cases: a managerial perspective*, pp 397-407.
 - 28) Vaughan, D. (1996) *The Challenger Launch Decision: Risky Technology, Culture and Deviance at NASA*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
 - 29) Wade, M., & Hulland, J. (2004). Review: The Resource-Based View and Information System Research: Review, Extension, and Suggestions for Future Research. *MIS Quarterly*, 28 (1), pp 107-142.
 - 30) Walsham, G. (1995) The Emergence of Interpretivism in IS Research, *Inform Syst Res* 6(4), December, 376-394.
 - 31) Warne, L., and Hart, D. (1996) The Impact of Organizational Politics on Information Systems Project Failure- A Case Study, Proceedings of the 29th Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences (HICSS), Jan 03-06, 1996 Hawaii, USA; Vol 4: Organizational Systems and Technology, 191-201. Publisher – IEEE Computer Society, Washington DC, USA.
 - 32) Weber, R. (2004). The Rhetoric of Positivism Versus Interpretivism. *MIS Quarterly*, 28:1, pp iii-xii.

Global Journals Guidelines Handbook 2010

www.GlobalJournals.org

FELLOW OF INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF MANAGEMENT AND BUSINESS RESEARCH (FICMBR)

- 'FICMBR' title will be awarded to the person/institution after approval of Editor-in-Chief and Editorial Board. The title 'FICMBR' can be added to name in the following manner e.g. **Dr. Andrew Knoll, Ph.D., FICMBR**
- FICMBR can submit two papers every year for publication without any charges. The paper will be sent to two peer reviewers. The paper will be published after the acceptance of peer reviewers and Editorial Board.
- Free unlimited Web-space will be allotted to 'FICMBR' along with subDomain to contribute and partake in our activities.
- A professional email address will be allotted free with unlimited email space.
- FICMBR will be authorized to receive e-Journals-GJMBR for the Lifetime.
- FICMBR will be exempted from the registration fees of Seminar/Symposium/Conference/Workshop conducted internationally of GJMBR (FREE of Charge).
- FICMBR will be Honorable Guest of any gathering held.

ASSOCIATE OF INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF MANAGEMENT AND BUSINESS RESEARCH (AICMBR)

- AICMBR title will be awarded to the person/institution after approval of Editor-in-Chief and Editorial Board. The title 'AICMBR' can be added to name in the following manner: eg. **Dr. Thomas Knoll, Ph.D., AICMBR**
- AICMBR can submit one paper every year for publication without any charges. The paper will be sent to two peer reviewers. The paper will be published after the acceptance of peer reviewers and Editorial Board.
- Free 2GB Web-space will be allotted to 'FICMBR' along with subDomain to contribute and participate in our activities.
- A professional email address will be allotted with free 1GB email space.
- AICMBR will be authorized to receive e-Journal GJMBR for lifetime.



Auxiliary Memberships

ANNUAL MEMBER

- Annual Member will be authorized to receive e-Journal GJMBR for one year (subscription for one year).
- The member will be allotted free 1 GB Web-space along with subDomain to contribute and participate in our activities.
- A professional email address will be allotted free 500 MB email space.

PAPER PUBLICATION

- The members can publish paper once. The paper will be sent to two-peer reviewer. The paper will be published after the acceptance of peer reviewers and Editorial Board.



Process of submission of Research Paper

The Area or field of specialization may or may not be of any category as mentioned in 'Scope of Journal' menu of the GlobalJournals.org website. There are 37 Research Journal categorized with Six parental Journals GJCST, GJMR, GJRE, GJMBR, GJSFR, GJHSS. For Authors should prefer the mentioned categories. There are three widely used systems UDC, DDC and LCC. The details are available as 'Knowledge Abstract' at Home page. The major advantage of this coding is that, the research work will be exposed to and shared with all over the world as we are being abstracted and indexed worldwide.

The paper should be in proper format. The format can be downloaded from first page of 'Author Guideline' Menu. The Author is expected to follow the general rules as mentioned in this menu. The paper should be written in MS-Word Format (*.DOC,*.DOCX).

The Author can submit the paper either online or offline. The authors should prefer online submission.

Online Submission: There are three ways to submit your paper:

(A) (I) first, register yourself using top right corner of Home page then Login. If you are already registered, then login using your username and password.

(II) Choose corresponding Journal.

(III) Click 'Submit Manuscript'. Fill required information and Upload the paper.

(B) If you are using Internet Explorer, then Direct Submission through Homepage is also available.

(C) If these two are not convenient, and then email the paper directly to dean@globaljournals.org.

Offline Submission: Author can send the typed form of paper by Post. However, online submission should be preferred



Preferred Author Guidelines

MANUSCRIPT STYLE INSTRUCTION (Must be strictly followed)

Page Size: 8.27" X 11"

- Left Margin: 0.65
- Right Margin: 0.65
- Top Margin: 0.75
- Bottom Margin: 0.75
- Font type of all text should be Times New Roman.
- Paper Title should be of Font Size 24 with one Column section.
- Author Name in Font Size of 11 with one column as of Title.
- Abstract Font size of 9 Bold, "Abstract" word in Italic Bold.
- Main Text: Font size 10 with justified two columns section
- Two Column with Equal Column with of 3.38 and Gaping of .2
- First Character must be two lines Drop capped.
- Paragraph before Spacing of 1 pt and After of 0 pt.
- Line Spacing of 1 pt
- Large Images must be in One Column
- Numbering of First Main Headings (Heading 1) must be in Roman Letters, Capital Letter, and Font Size of 10.
- Numbering of Second Main Headings (Heading 2) must be in Alphabets, Italic, and Font Size of 10.

You can use your own standard format also.

Author Guidelines:

1. General,
2. Ethical Guidelines,
3. Submission of Manuscripts,
4. Manuscript's Category,
5. Structure and Format of Manuscript,
6. After Acceptance.

1. GENERAL

Before submitting your research paper, one is advised to go through the details as mentioned in following heads. It will be beneficial, while peer reviewer justify your paper for publication.

Scope

The Global Journals welcome the submission of original paper, review paper, survey article relevant to the all the streams of Philosophy and knowledge. The Global Journals is parental platform for Global Journal of Computer Science and Technology, Researches in Engineering, Medical Research, Science Frontier Research, Human Social Science, Management, and Business organization. The choice of specific field can be done otherwise as following in Abstracting and Indexing Page on this Website. As the all Global Journals are being



abstracted and indexed (in process) by most of the reputed organizations. Topics of only narrow interest will not be accepted unless they have wider potential or consequences.

2. ETHICAL GUIDELINES

Authors should follow the ethical guidelines as mentioned below for publication of research paper and research activities.

Papers are accepted on strict understanding that the material in whole or in part has not been, nor is being, considered for publication elsewhere. If the paper once accepted by Global Journals and Editorial Board, will become the copyright of the Global Journals.

Authorship: The authors and coauthors should have active contribution to conception design, analysis and interpretation of findings. They should critically review the contents and drafting of the paper. All should approve the final version of the paper before submission

The Global Journals follows the definition of authorship set up by the Global Academy of Research and Development. According to the Global Academy of R&D authorship, criteria must be based on:

- 1) Substantial contributions to conception and acquisition of data, analysis and interpretation of the findings.
- 2) Drafting the paper and revising it critically regarding important academic content.
- 3) Final approval of the version of the paper to be published.

All authors should have been credited according to their appropriate contribution in research activity and preparing paper. Contributors who do not match the criteria as authors may be mentioned under Acknowledgement.

Acknowledgements: Contributors to the research other than authors credited should be mentioned under acknowledgement. The specifications of the source of funding for the research if appropriate can be included. Suppliers of resources may be mentioned along with address.

Appeal of Decision: The Editorial Board's decision on publication of the paper is final and cannot be appealed elsewhere.

Permissions: It is the author's responsibility to have prior permission if all or parts of earlier published illustrations are used in this paper.

Please mention proper reference and appropriate acknowledgements wherever expected.

If all or parts of previously published illustrations are used, permission must be taken from the copyright holder concerned. It is the author's responsibility to take these in writing.

Approval for reproduction/modification of any information (including figures and tables) published elsewhere must be obtained by the authors/copyright holders before submission of the manuscript. Contributors (Authors) are responsible for any copyright fee involved.

3. SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPTS

Manuscripts should be uploaded via this online submission page. The online submission is most efficient method for submission of papers, as it enables rapid distribution of manuscripts and consequently speeds up the review procedure. It also enables authors to know the status of their own manuscripts by emailing us. Complete instructions for submitting a paper is available below.

Manuscript submission is a systematic procedure and little preparation is required beyond having all parts of your manuscript in a given format and a computer with an Internet connection and a Web browser. Full help and instructions are provided on-screen. As an author, you will be prompted for login and manuscript details as Field of Paper and then to upload your manuscript file(s) according to the instructions.



To avoid postal delays, all transaction is preferred by e-mail. A finished manuscript submission is confirmed by e-mail immediately and your paper enters the editorial process with no postal delays. When a conclusion is made about the publication of your paper by our Editorial Board, revisions can be submitted online with the same procedure, with an occasion to view and respond to all comments.

Complete support for both authors and co-author is provided.

4. MANUSCRIPT'S CATEGORY

Based on potential and nature, the manuscript can be categorized under the following heads:

Original research paper: Such papers are reports of high-level significant original research work.

Review papers: These are concise, significant but helpful and decisive topics for young researchers.

Research articles: These are handled with small investigation and applications

Research letters: The letters are small and concise comments on previously published matters.

5. STRUCTURE AND FORMAT OF MANUSCRIPT

The recommended size of original research paper is less than seven thousand words, review papers fewer than seven thousands words also. Preparation of research paper or how to write research paper, are major hurdle, while writing manuscript. The research articles and research letters should be fewer than three thousand words, the structure original research paper; sometime review paper should be as follows:

Papers: These are reports of significant research (typically less than 7000 words equivalent, including tables, figures, references), and comprise:

- (a) Title should be relevant and commensurate with the theme of the paper.
- (b) A brief Summary, "Abstract" (less than 150 words) containing the major results and conclusions.
- (c) Up to ten keywords, that precisely identifies the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.
- (d) An Introduction, giving necessary background excluding subheadings; objectives must be clearly declared.
- (e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition; sources of information must be given and numerical methods must be specified by reference, unless non-standard.
- (f) Results should be presented concisely, by well-designed tables and/or figures; the same data may not be used in both; suitable statistical data should be given. All data must be obtained with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage. As reproduced design has been recognized to be important to experiments for a considerable time, the Editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned un-refereed;
- (g) Discussion should cover the implications and consequences, not just recapitulating the results; conclusions should be summarizing.
- (h) Brief Acknowledgements.
- (i) References in the proper form.

Authors should very cautiously consider the preparation of papers to ensure that they communicate efficiently. Papers are much more likely to be accepted, if they are cautiously designed and laid out, contain few or no errors, are summarizing, and be conventional to the approach and instructions. They will in addition, be published with much less delays than those that require much technical and editorial correction.

The Editorial Board reserves the right to make literary corrections and to make suggestions to improve briefness.



It is vital, that authors take care in submitting a manuscript that is written in simple language and adheres to published guidelines.

Format

Language: The language of publication is UK English. Authors, for whom English is a second language, must have their manuscript efficiently edited by an English-speaking person before submission to make sure that, the English is of high excellence. It is preferable, that manuscripts should be professionally edited.

Standard Usage, Abbreviations, and Units: Spelling and hyphenation should be conventional to The Concise Oxford English Dictionary. Statistics and measurements should at all times be given in figures, e.g. 16 min, except for when the number begins a sentence. When the number does not refer to a unit of measurement it should be spelt in full unless, it is 160 or greater.

Abbreviations supposed to be used carefully. The abbreviated name or expression is supposed to be cited in full at first usage, followed by the conventional abbreviation in parentheses.

Metric SI units are supposed to generally be used excluding where they conflict with current practice or are confusing. For illustration, 1.4 l rather than $1.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3$, or 4 mm somewhat than $4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$. Chemical formula and solutions must identify the form used, e.g. anhydrous or hydrated, and the concentration must be in clearly defined units. Common species names should be followed by underlines at the first mention. For following use the generic name should be constricted to a single letter, if it is clear.

Structure

All manuscripts submitted to Global Journals, ought to include:

Title: The title page must carry an instructive title that reflects the content, a running title (less than 45 characters together with spaces), names of the authors and co-authors, and the place(s) wherever the work was carried out. The full postal address in addition with the e-mail address of related author must be given. Up to eleven keywords or very brief phrases have to be given to help data retrieval, mining and indexing.

Abstract, used in Original Papers and Reviews:

Optimizing Abstract for Search Engines

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or similar. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. This in turn will make it more likely to be viewed and/or cited in a further work. Global Journals have compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

Key Words

A major linchpin in research work for the writing research paper is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and Internet resources.

One must be persistent and creative in using keywords. An effective keyword search requires a strategy and planning a list of possible keywords and phrases to try.

Search engines for most searches, use Boolean searching, which is somewhat different from Internet searches. The Boolean search uses "operators," words (and, or, not, and near) that enable you to expand or narrow your affords. Tips for research paper while preparing research paper are very helpful guideline of research paper.

Choice of key words is first tool of tips to write research paper. Research paper writing is an art. A few tips for deciding as strategically as possible about keyword search:



- One should start brainstorming lists of possible keywords before even begin searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, "What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in research paper?" Then consider synonyms for the important words.
- It may take the discovery of only one relevant paper to let steer in the right keyword direction because in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.
- One should avoid outdated words.

Keywords are the key that opens a door to research work sources. Keyword searching is an art in which researcher's skills are bound to improve with experience and time.

Numerical Methods: Numerical methods used should be clear and, where appropriate, supported by references.

Acknowledgements: Please make these as concise as possible.

References

References follow the Harvard scheme of referencing. References in the text should cite the authors' names followed by the time of their publication, unless there are three or more authors when simply the first author's name is quoted followed by et al. unpublished work has to only be cited where necessary, and only in the text. Copies of references in press in other journals have to be supplied with submitted typescripts. It is necessary that all citations and references be carefully checked before submission, as mistakes or omissions will cause delays.

References to information on the World Wide Web can be given, but only if the information is available without charge to readers on an official site. Wikipedia and Similar websites are not allowed where anyone can change the information. Authors will be asked to make available electronic copies of the cited information for inclusion on the Global Journals homepage at the judgment of the Editorial Board.

The Editorial Board and Global Journals recommend that, citation of online-published papers and other material should be done via a DOI (digital object identifier). If an author cites anything, which does not have a DOI, they run the risk of the cited material not being noticeable.

The Editorial Board and Global Journals recommend the use of a tool such as Reference Manager for reference management and formatting.

Tables, Figures and Figure Legends

Tables: Tables should be few in number, cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g. Table 4, a self-explanatory caption and be on a separate sheet. Vertical lines should not be used.

Figures: Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always take in a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g. Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in electronic form by e-mailing them.

Preparation of Electronic Figures for Publication

Even though low quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (or e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Do not use pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings) in relation to the imitation size. Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement Form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

For scanned images, the scanning resolution (at final image size) ought to be as follows to ensure good reproduction: line art: >650 dpi; halftones (including gel photographs) : >350 dpi; figures containing both halftone and line images: >650 dpi.

Color Charges: It is the rule of the Global Journals for authors to pay the full cost for the reproduction of their color artwork. Hence,



please note that, if there is color artwork in your manuscript when it is accepted for publication, we would require you to complete and return a color work agreement form before your paper can be published.

Figure Legends: Self-explanatory legends of all figures should be incorporated separately under the heading 'Legends to Figures'. In the full-text online edition of the journal, figure legends may possibly be truncated in abbreviated links to the full screen version. Therefore, the first 100 characters of any legend should notify the reader, about the key aspects of the figure.

6. AFTER ACCEPTANCE

Upon approval of a paper for publication, the manuscript will be forwarded to the dean, who is responsible for the publication of the Global Journals.

6.1 Proof Corrections

The corresponding author will receive an e-mail alert containing a link to a website or will be attached. A working e-mail address must therefore be provided for the related author.

Acrobat Reader will be required in order to read this file. This software can be downloaded

(Free of charge) from the following website:

www.adobe.com/products/acrobat/readstep2.html. This will facilitate the file to be opened, read on screen, and printed out in order for any corrections to be added. Further instructions will be sent with the proof.

Proofs must be returned to the dean at dean@globaljournals.org within three days of receipt.

As changes to proofs are costly, we inquire that you only correct typesetting errors. All illustrations are retained by the publisher. Please note that the authors are responsible for all statements made in their work, including changes made by the copy editor.

6.2 Early View of Global Journals (Publication Prior to Print)

The Global Journals are enclosed by our publishing's Early View service. Early View articles are complete full-text articles sent in advance of their publication. Early View articles are absolute and final. They have been completely reviewed, revised and edited for publication, and the authors' final corrections have been incorporated. Because they are in final form, no changes can be made after sending them. The nature of Early View articles means that they do not yet have volume, issue or page numbers, so Early View articles cannot be cited in the conventional way.

6.3 Author Services

Online production tracking is available for your article through Author Services. Author Services enables authors to track their article - once it has been accepted - through the production process to publication online and in print. Authors can check the status of their articles online and choose to receive automated e-mails at key stages of production. The authors will receive an e-mail with a unique link that enables them to register and have their article automatically added to the system. Please ensure that a complete e-mail address is provided when submitting the manuscript.

6.4 Author Material Archive Policy

Please note that if not specifically requested, publisher will dispose off hardcopy & electronic information submitted, after the two months of publication. If you require the return of any information submitted, please inform the Editorial Board or dean as soon as possible.

6.5 Offprint and Extra Copies

A PDF offprint of the online-published article will be provided free of charge to the related author, and may be distributed according to the Publisher's terms and conditions. Additional paper offprint may be ordered by emailing us at: editor@globaljournals.org



Index

A

activities · 6, 10, 11, 12, 28, 29, 31, 34, 35, 38, 48, 53, 56, 57, 58, 60, 61, 62, 65, 66, 67, 92, 100, 101, 103, 104, 110, 111, 114
administration · 50, 58, 60, 80, 83
Administration · 2, 12, 19, 41, 52, 79, 85, 92, 98, 107, 108
Administrative · 16, 17, 54
advancement · 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 81, 83, 85
Aggressive · 52, 53, 54, 55
analyzing · 19, 27, 29, 56, 62, 66, 86
approaches · 3, 19, 52, 61, 65, 104
appropriate · 3, 5, 6, 7, 41, 59, 61, 66, 67, 86, 104, 107, 114, 117
attention · 115

B

banking organizations · 48
Banks, Customers · 85
Because · 29, 52, 53, 56, 118
behind · 30, 48, 62, 90
business performance · 2, 3, 5, 6, 7

C

capturing · 34
changes · 10, 20, 21, 22, 32, 34, 37, 41, 48, 57, 66, 67, 118
characters · 116, 118
choose · 11, 20, 29, 53, 57, 59, 60, 61, 67, 77, 85, 86, 90, 118
classification system · 104
collect the data · 54
communicating · 41, 56, 92
company · 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 15, 16, 19, 20, 22, 30, 59, 75, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 100
competition · 2, 6, 19, 34, 36, 41, 48, 50, 51, 59, 60, 62, 65, 66, 67, 70, 90, 95, 103, 104, 107
competitive · 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 22, 34, 37, 38, 39, 51, 58, 65, 66, 68, 69, 71, 85, 92, 97, 107
competitive stra · 2
comprehend · 60
conceptualization · 28, 60
conceptualize · 28

confident · 53, 55, 56
contributed · 34, 49, 80, 103, 106
convictions · 3
coordinating · 52, 54, 56, 57
cornerstones · 61
Correlation · 9, 13, 14, 45, 80, 81
Counselling Attitude · 2, 41, 42, 43, 44

D

Data used for this study · 42
debtors · 100
Decision · 2, 114
Deivasenapathy · 76, 78, 83
Democracy, Election. · 58
demographic · 12, 67, 74, 76, 77, 85
departmental · 10, 56
described · 37, 59, 76, 106
descriptions · 5, 30, 31
designed · 115, 117
designing · 10, 27, 28, 31, 32, 33, 35, 56
destructiveness · 53
different · 116
dimensions · 10, 11, 20, 28, 41, 45, 46, 61, 70, 72, 86
Dissatisfied · 79, 80

E

earthquake · 107
economic · 7, 9, 12, 41, 62, 68, 74, 81, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 108
edition · 34, 39, 40, 57, 59, 91, 118
Electorate · 58, 63
electronic · 117, 118
electronic marketing · 92, 94, 95, 96, 97
employment · 9, 12, 85, 105, 106
environment · 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 16, 20, 34, 35, 37, 41, 52, 57, 62, 65, 66, 67, 68, 74, 76, 79, 80, 82, 85, 90, 92, 94, 97, 101
Environmental · 2, 7, 8, 34, 35, 36, 70
environments · 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 31
exclusive · 2, 37, 61
explicating · 28, 32
exploitation · 20, 52, 96
External · 6

F

faculties · 83
flexible · 6, 21, 53, 105
following actions · 27, 29, 30, 31, 32
forecasting · 10, 101
For-Profit Performance · 102

G

gathered · 31
goodness · 5, 53
government · 2, 38, 39, 59, 60, 66, 92, 93
grievances · 48

H

However · 112
Human beings · 32
Human resource Development · 41

I

implementation · 5, 6, 7, 10, 27, 34, 37, 51, 52, 65, 66, 93, 97
implications · 115
important · 114, 115, 117
improve · 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 19, 25, 27, 28, 30, 31, 32, 35, 38, 39, 46, 52, 57, 97, 107, 115, 117
improving · 6, 27, 31, 32, 41, 48, 49, 52, 55, 62
influences · 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 81
international · 34, 35, 37, 49, 58, 59, 60, 62, 73, 76, 94, 104, 107
investigate why · 30
involvement · 10, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 60, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 81, 82, 83

K

knowledge · 6, 12, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 41, 53, 56, 59, 61, 62, 74, 96, 97, 107, 113

L

Life-Based Design · 2, 27, 33

M

making approach · 28

Management · 3, 5, 7, 2, 7, 8, 13, 16, 17, 19, 26, 34, 35, 37, 38, 39, 46, 47, 48, 52, 61, 69, 70, 71, 72, 83, 84, 102, 103, 104, 106, 107, 108, 113
Managerial Competencies · 52
managers are exhibiting · 53
manufacturers · 8, 20, 92
manufacturing · 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 20, 23, 54, 100, 105
Marketing · 2, 8, 12, 31, 58, 59, 61, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 92, 98
MEASUREMENTS · 19, 20, 21, 26, 100, 103, 104, 116
mentioned · 112, 113, 114
micro environmental elements · 54

N

Nevertheless · 28, 31, 32, 39, 59

O

Operations · 2
organisational · 41, 46
organizations · 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 19, 20, 23, 34, 35, 37, 38, 39, 46, 52, 54, 55, 57, 66, 76, 92, 93, 98, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 114

P

particular · 10, 12, 15, 21, 22, 29, 30, 39, 48, 53, 57, 59, 62, 66, 67, 74, 75, 79, 86, 96, 107
performance · 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 25, 26, 30, 35, 37, 38, 39, 41, 45, 46, 51, 52, 56, 61, 68, 76, 84, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108
Performance measurement · 19, 38, 39
persistent · 116
personnel · 9, 15, 35, 39, 51, 86, 101
political · 9, 37, 39, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68
possible · 1, 10, 12, 15, 16, 23, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 34, 37, 38, 39, 48, 49, 50, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 62, 77, 78, 85, 94, 97, 100, 115, 116, 117, 118
potentiality · 75
primary · 10, 15, 27, 38, 42, 66, 86, 95, 102, 104, 105
Process · 2, 112
promotional · 16, 58, 75, 93, 96
providing · 30, 48, 49, 53, 60, 97, 104

Q

quality of human life · 27
quantitative · 19, 102, 105
questionnaire · 2, 3, 9, 12, 13, 42, 52, 54, 58, 62, 63, 86, 94

R

regularizations · 34
relationship · 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 42, 54, 66,
67, 68, 75, 76, 81, 86, 93, 106
relatively · 6, 19, 30
requirements · 20, 27, 34, 35, 46, 52, 57, 62, 66, 85, 86
results · 115

S

Sampling · 2, 3
satisfies · 9, 66
SCIENTIFIC · 19, 27, 32, 38
Search · 116
services · 27, 28, 30, 34, 50, 51, 59, 75, 85, 86, 92, 94
significantly · 5, 9, 11, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 52, 55, 62, 75, 77, 81,
104
Similarly · 11, 28, 32, 45, 46, 59, 60, 76, 77, 81, 102
specified · 115
standard · 113, 115
steady progress · 48
strategies · 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 12, 19, 20, 37, 41, 58, 59, 62, 63,
64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 93, 97
Submissive · 52, 54, 55
subsequent · 20
Systems · 7

T

tangible · 19, 34, 61, 97, 100, 103

technological · 9, 27, 30, 48, 92, 97
technologies · 8, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 48, 97
telecommunications · 92, 100
terms · 10, 27, 48, 55, 65, 85, 92, 99, 108, 118
The assumption · 11
The problematic · 92
The situation · 32, 92

U

understanding · 8, 11, 19, 27, 28, 29, 30, 32, 35, 38, 39, 54, 56,
59, 66, 67, 76, 85, 107, 114
universities · 75, 77, 81, 82, 83, 103, 105

V

Validity and reliability · 2, 3

W

which · 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 15, 16, 19, 20, 21, 22, 25, 27,
28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 41, 49, 50, 51, 52,
53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 65, 66, 68, 74, 75, 77,
80, 81, 87, 89, 92, 94, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 103, 105, 106, 116,
117
Wittgenstein · 29, 33
workmanship · 92, 97
worldwide · 49, 50, 99, 100, 112



save our planet



Global Journal of Management and Business Research

Visit us on the Web at www.GlobalJournals.org | www.ComputerResearch.org
or email us at helpdesk@globaljournals.org



ISSN 9755853

© 2010 by Global Journals