

Solved
Scanner Appendix

CS Professional Programme Module-III (Old Syllabus)
(Solution of December - 2014)

Paper - 5: Strategic Management, Alliances and International Trade

Chapter - 1: Nature and Scope of Strategic Management

2014 - Dec [1] (a)

Strategic Management Process

Strategic management process can be described as a set of managerial decisions and actions which determine the long run direction and performance of the organization.

Various phases of strategic management process are as follows:

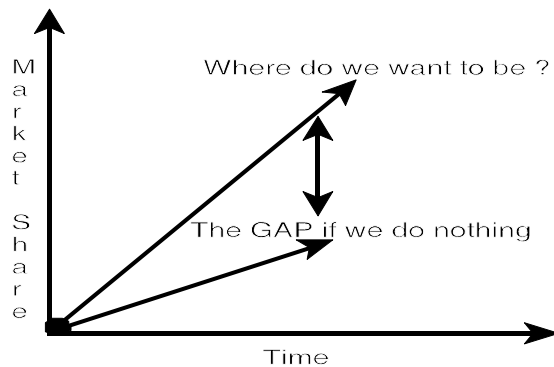
1. Setting organisational mission and objectives.
2. Environmental analysis.
3. Organisational assessment.
4. Identification of strategic alternative.
5. Choice of appropriate strategy.
6. Implementation of strategy.
7. Performance evaluation and control.

Chapter - 2: Environmental Scanning and Internal Appraisal & Analysis

2014 - Dec [1] (b)

GAP Analysis

Gap analysis is a tool that helps a company to compare its actual performance with its potential performance. It is a technique for determining the steps to be taken in money from a current state to a desired future date. At its core are two questions: "Where are we?" and "Where do we want to be?"

GAP analysis

Under Gap analysis attention is first focused on the gaps between the actual or anticipated values that certain valuables take on the values that are most desirable. Once the gaps are properly identified attention shifts to devising ways to close them. This is how the choice of an appropriate strategy is devised. Gap analysis has been advocated for strategic choice decision within the following four primary context: (1) Environmental analysis, (2) Functional - level policy analysis, (3) Business level strategy analysis and (4) Corporate level strategy analysis.

Each type of gap may be closed through its own set of strategic or tactical moves. They correspond to business-level goals and action plans or marketing strategy, depending upon the level of their organisation.

Chapter - 3: Planning and Formulation

2014 - Dec [1] (c)

General Objectives

Considering all these factors, management should set the general objectives. The general objectives are quite broad in nature and show the direction in which the organization will like to proceed. For example, the general objectives of the business organizations may be survival, growth, contribution to the need of the society, profit earning, etc. These objectives may not be mutually exclusive; rather these can be achieved simultaneously. It is the question of giving relative importance to these.

Specific Objectives

General objectives are too broad and sometimes intangible to be transformed into action. As such, within the framework of general objectives, managers determine the specific objectives, which their units will seek to attain. Most of these objectives tend to be of short range in character and have definite time limits within which the organization has to achieve them. The specific objectives may prescribe the manner in which the

general objectives may be achieved. These objectives may be in the form of diversification of the firm, liquidation of unprofitable divisions, reorganization of the company, etc.

Chapter - 4: Implementation and Control

2014 - Dec [3] (b)

The major ingredients of a successful change process in an organization are as follows:

- (i) Top-level commitment, clearly and visibly evident to all staff.
- (ii) A shared vision of how to organize and manage for competitiveness.
- (iii) Full involvement and commitment from the employees.
- (iv) A good performance measurement system.
- (v) Continuous training and education.
- (vi) Systematic and reinforcing communication.
- (vii) Recognizing and rewarding people for change.
- (viii) Institutionalizing revitalization through formal policies, systems and structures.
- (ix) Establishing consistency with other major change projects with clear explanations of how they will fit the overarching business strategy.
- (x) Monitoring and adjusting strategies in response to problems in the revitalization process.

Chapter - 5: Performance Evaluation

2014 - Dec [3] (a)

The key performance indicators in the manufacturing and production operations for an automotive firm producing cars are:

- (1) Satisfy customer demands
- (2) Share R & D costs
- (3) Fill knowledge gaps
- (4) Make scale economies
- (5) Make scope economies
- (6) Jump market barriers
- (7) Speed product introduction
- (8) Pre-empt competitive threats
- (9) Use excess capacity
- (10) Cut exit costs

Chapter - 7: Management Information Systems

2014 - Dec [2] (c)

Pre-requisites of an Effective MIS

- (a) Qualified Systems and Management Personnel
- (b) Database
- (c) Support of Top Management
- (d) Control and Maintenance of MIS
- (e) Evaluation of MIS

Chapter - 8: Internal Control Systems

2014 - Dec [3] (c)

The pre-requisites for an effective internal audit are as under:

- (i) Internal audit must draw managerial and operational aspects in addition to financial aspects.
- (ii) To be effective the internal auditor must have full support and confidence of top management. In fact, the adjustment of the Internal auditor and his senior team members should be done by and with full involvement of top management.
- (iii) Based on the decision of management and keeping in view the scope of work, internal auditor should have a well defined audit programme so that audit can be carried out systematically.
- (iv) The required time for various audit activities should be planned and the auditor should try to adhere to his schedule so that he can submit his report on time and the management can take corrective actions in time.
- (v) The internal auditor should have a professional approach with the persons/departments/functions audited.

Chapter - 9: Nature and Scope of Strategic Alliances

2014 - Dec [4] (a), (b), (c)

(a) Alliance strategy must be integrated into the overall corporate strategy and articulated in the strategic plan with a process for implementation. The entire process of developing and managing an alliance could be as follows:

- (a) Development of the strategic domestic or global plan
- (b) Development of the alliance plan
- (c) Alliance partner — search and selection
- (d) Development of the implementation plan
- (e) Execution of the implementation plan

Alliances are not part of every organization's strategic plan but are only one of the many options of a broad-based strategy. The kind of strategic planning that a company undertakes affects the nature of the alliances that a company enters into.

Medium-term strategy carries lower risk, owing to its short time horizon. Alliances used commonly as part of medium-term strategy include joint ventures, licensing or distribution relationships, etc. The time frame of short-term or operational strategy is one to three years, where managers primarily look at financial and asset management with a narrow product and market focus for immediate results.

Corporate and alliance strategy is indispensable for smaller companies. In fact, it may not be possible for a small or start-up organization in any industry to go beyond its development stage, without a strategy that at least reaches from the operational and short-term into the business and medium-term approach.

Developing a global strategic plan is critical for developing international opportunities, which can be leveraged only by using the alliance process and learning the skills of managing cross-cultural alliances. In the international arena, the need for local expertise, cultural interpreters and the legal ramifications of entering foreign markets virtually mandate the development of alliances.

Options analysis

Analyzing options involves decisions on strategy, philosophy, corporate personality and structure. The process could be as follows:

- (1) Consider whether the company should be looking for an alliance and if so, why?
- (2) List and prioritize the reasons.
- (3) Identify the options for alliance structures, considering cost, risk and the commitment to human resources.
- (4) Focus on specific structures, keeping in mind an understanding of the organization's corporate personality. For example, if the corporate personality requires complete control rather than collaborative team building acquisition may be the right alternative.
- (5) Relate the choices to the corporate strategy and strategic plan.

(b) The key obstacles to the success of cross-organizational relationships, are given below:

1. **Coping with Increased Complexity:** The newly emerging organizational system in the formation of strategic alliances is by definition significantly more complex. No individual or group has experience working with the combined entity.
2. **Aligning Differing Orientations:** Organizations orientations can vary in terms of focal length (short-term vs. long-term), philosophical emphasis (strategic vs. operational) and integration of goals.
3. **Short-Term vs. Long-Term:** The delicate balancing of addressing short-term needs while investing in the long term is never easy. However, through experience most businesses learn to walk that tightrope.

4. **Focus Strategy vs. Operations:** Individual organizations may sometimes function effectively despite having divergent operational and strategic goals. However, the success of an alliance may depend on the degree to which these very different orientations are integrated. Alliances frequently form because of the theoretical strategic advantage of envisioned joint capabilities. However, once the alliance is in place, those theoretical capabilities must quickly become real and successful. Otherwise, the alliance is likely to fall apart.
 5. **Cultural Integration:** Companies coming together with a clean slate i.e., without any negative preconceptions, but different cultures, may quickly find the variations in their behavioural norms are creating breeding ground for misunderstanding, poor follow-through and eventual distrust.
- (c) Managing an alliance is relatively new art. Finding the right mix of management ingredients for success can be quite daunting. Certain key success factors are:
- (i) **Mutual Trust:** Mutual trust at senior management level carry ventures through turbulent times.
 - (ii) **Ability to compromise:** When there are two strong companies, the ability to compromise is not easy to achieve. If you expect to receive some valuable technology, production or marketing know-how from a partner, you must be willing to give something.
 - (iii) **Favourable business condition:** Launching an alliance when favourable business conditions exist makes a venture life considerably easier for its partners.
 - (iv) **Alliance Autonomy:** The autonomy mandates a high degree of responsibility and good judgement by the ventures management.

Chapter - 10: Foreign Collaborations and Joint Ventures

2014 - Dec [5] (a), (b), (c), (d)

(a) Prohibition on foreign investment in India

- (i) Foreign investment in any form is prohibited in a company or a partnership firm or a proprietary concern or any entity, whether incorporated or not (such as, Trusts) which is engaged or proposes to engage in the following activities:
 - a. Business of chit fund, or
 - b. Nidhi company, or
 - c. Agricultural or plantation activities, or
 - d. Real estate business, or construction of farm houses, or
 - e. Trading in Transferable Development Rights (TDRs).

- (ii) It is clarified that “real estate business” means dealing in land and immovable property with a view to earning profit or earning income therefrom and does not include development of townships, construction of residential/commercial premises, roads or bridges, educational institutions, recreational facilities, city and regional level infrastructure, townships.

It is further clarified that partnership firms /proprietorship concerns having investments as per FEMA regulations are not allowed to engage in print media sector.

- (iii) In addition to the above, Foreign investment in the form of FDI is also prohibited in certain sectors such as (Annex-2):
- (a) Lottery Business including Government/ private lottery, online lotteries, etc.
 - (b) Gambling and Betting including casinos etc.
 - (c) Chit funds
 - (d) Nidhi company
 - (e) Trading in Transferable Development Rights (TDRs)
 - (f) Real Estate Business or Construction of Farm Houses
 - (g) Manufacturing of Cigars, cheroots, cigarillos and cigarettes of tobacco or of tobacco substitutes
 - (h) Activities/ sectors not open to private sector investment e.g. (i) Atomic energy and (ii) Railway operations (other than permitted activities mentioned in entry 18 of Annex B).

Note: Foreign technology collaboration in any form including licensing for franchise, trademark, brand name, management contract is also prohibited for Lottery Business and Gambling and Betting activities.

(b) Equity Joint Venture

The equity joint venture is an arrangement whereby a separate legal entity is created in accordance with the agreement of two or more parties. The parties undertake to provide money or other resources as their contribution to the assets or other capital of that legal entity. The entity is generally established as a limited liability company and is distinct from either of the parties which participate in its creation. The newly created company, thus, becomes the owner of the resources contributed by the parties to the joint venture arrangement. Each of the parties in turn becomes the owner of the company having equity in the company.

(c) Contractual Joint Venture

The contractual joint venture might be used where the establishment of a separate legal entity is not needed or the creation of such a separate legal entity is not feasible in view of one or the other reasons. The contractual joint venture agreement can be entered into in situations where the project involves a narrow

task or a limited activity or is for a limited term or where the laws of the host country do not permit the ownership of property by foreign citizens. For the purposes of contractual joint venture, the relationship between parties is set forth in the contract or agreement concluded between them.

(d) Overseas investment by Registered Trust

Registered Trusts engaged in manufacturing/educational/hospital sector are allowed to make investment in the same sector(s) in a JV/WOS outside India, with the prior approval of the Reserve Bank. Trusts satisfying the eligibility criteria, as indicated below, may submit the application/s in Form ODI-Part I, through their AD Category - I bank/s, to the Chief General Manager, Reserve Bank of India, Foreign Exchange Department, Overseas Investment Division, Central Office, Amar Building, 5th Floor, Fort, Mumbai 400 001, for consideration.

Eligibility Criteria:

Trust

- (i) The Trust should be registered under the Indian Trust Act, 1882;
- (ii) The Trust deed permits the proposed investment overseas;
- (iii) The proposed investment should be approved by the trustee/s;
- (iv) The AD Category – I bank is satisfied that the Trust is KYC (Know Your Customer) compliant and is engaged in a bonafide activity;
- (v) The Trust has been in existence at least for a period of three years;
- (vi) The Trust has not come under the adverse notice of any Regulatory/Enforcement agency like the Directorate of Enforcement, Central Bureau of Investigation (CBI), etc.

Chapter - 11: International Trade and Treaties

2014 - Dec [6] (a)

The theory of Comparative Advantage is propounded by the David Ricardo.

The principle of comparative advantage explains how trade is beneficial for all parties involved as long as they produce goods with different relative costs. The theory of comparative advantage suggests that a country should export goods in the country in which its relative cost advantage and not the absolute cost advantage is greater in comparison to other countries.

This theory says that country can take advantage in two ways. First, by proper utilization of assets through concentrating on what they can produce best. Second by trading those products which other countries produces best.

Chapter - 12: World Trade and Treaties

2014 - Dec [6] (b), (c)

(b) Principles of the trading system

The WTO agreements are lengthy and complex because they are legal texts covering a wide range of activities. They deal with — agriculture, textiles and clothing, banking, telecommunications, government purchases, industrial standards, food sanitation regulations, intellectual property and much more. But a number of simple, fundamental principles run throughout all of these documents. These principles are the foundation of the multilateral trading system.

(c) The objectives of trade policy review are given hereunder:

1. To increase the transparency and understanding of countries' trade policies and practices, through regular monitoring.
2. To improve the quality of public and intergovernmental debate on the issues.
3. To enable a multilateral assessment of the effects of policies on the world trading system.

2014 - Dec [7] (a), (c)

(a) Tariff barriers represent taxes on imports of commodities into a country/region and are among the oldest form of government intervention in the economic activity. A tariff is either a tax on imports or exports (an international trade tariffs). Some types of tariff in international trade are:

1. Ad valorem tax.
2. Bound tariff rate.
3. Environmental tariff.
4. Excise duty.
5. Import quota.
6. List of tariffs.
7. Tariff rate quota.
8. Telecommunications tariff.

Non-tariff barriers represent the great variety of mechanisms like technical barriers to entry, import licensing, domestic content regulations, voluntary export restrains etc. that countries use in order to restrict the imports. Non-tariff barriers to trade can be the following:

1. Import bans
2. General or product specific quotas
3. Rules of origin
4. Quality conditions imposed by the importing country on the exporting countries
5. Sanitary and phytosanitary conditions
6. Packaging conditions

7. Labelling conditions
8. Product standards
9. Complex regulatory environment etc.

Types of Non-Tariff Barriers:

Some of the popular Non-Tariff Barriers are given below:

1. Import licensing barriers
2. Import quota restrictions
3. Standard testing labelling and certification requirements
4. Export subsidies and domestic support
5. Government procurement
6. Service barriers
7. Lack of adequate protection to intellectual property rights.

- (c) 'Rules of Origin' are the criteria used to define where product was made. It is an essential part of trade rules because a number of policies discriminate between exporting countries, quotas, preferential tariffs, antidumping actions, countervailing duty and more.

Rules of origin are also used to compile trade statistics and for 'made in' labels that are attached to products. WTO members to ensure that their rules of origin are transparent, do not have restricting, distorting or disruptive effects on international trade, administered in a consistent, uniform, impartial and reasonable manner and based on a positive standard.

Chapter - 13: WTO-Ministerial Conferences

2014 - Dec [6] (d)

Geneva Ministerial Conference, 1998

Ministerial Declaration adopted on May 20, 1998

Ministers underlined the crucial importance of the multilateral rule-based trading system, reaffirmed the commitments and assessments made at Singapore and noted that the work under existing agreements and decisions has resulted in significant new steps forward since the last Ministerial Conference. In particular, the Ministers welcomed the successful conclusion of the negotiations on basic telecommunications and financial services; took note of the implementation of the Information Technology Agreement and renewed their commitment to achieve progressive liberalization of trade in goods and services.

Ministers rejected the use of any protectionist measures and agreed to work together in the WTO as in the IMF and the World Bank to improve the coherence of international economic policy-making with a view to maximizing the contribution that an open, rule-based trading system can make to fostering stable growth for economies at all levels of development.

Ministers recognized the importance of enhancing public understanding of the benefits of the multilateral trading system in order to build support for it and agreed to work towards this end. In this context, Ministers considered ways to improve the transparency of WTO operations and to continue to improve their efforts towards the objectives of sustained economic growth and sustainable development.

Chapter - 14: Anti-dumping Duties

2014 - Dec [7] (b)

Margin of Dumping:

The margin of dumping is the difference between the normal value and the export price of the goods under complaint. Margin of dumping = Normal price - Export price

It is generally expressed as a percentage of the export price.

Then,

$$\text{Margin of Dumping} = \frac{\text{Normal Price} - \text{Export Price}}{\text{Export Price}} \times 100$$

Important Note: Normal value and Export price must be compared at the same level of trade i.e., at the ex-factory level.

Chapter - 15: Subsidies and Countervailing Duties

2014 - Dec [8] (a), (b)

(a) 'Subsidy' under SCM Agreement

The concept of "financial contribution" was included in the SCM Agreement only after a protracted negotiation. Some Members argued that there could be no subsidy unless there was a charge on the public account. Other Members considered that forms of government intervention that did not involve an expense to the government nevertheless distorted competition and should thus be considered to be subsidies. The SCM Agreement basically adopted the former approach. The Agreement requires a financial contribution and contains a list of the types of measures that represent a financial contribution, e.g. grants, loans, equity infusions, loan guarantees, fiscal incentives, the provision of goods or services, the purchase of goods. Thus, the SCM Agreement applies not only to measures of national governments, but also to measures of sub-national governments and of such public bodies as state-owned companies.

A financial contribution by a government is not a subsidy unless it confers a "benefit". In many cases, as in the case of a cash grant, the existence of a benefit and its valuation will be clear. In some cases, however, the issue of benefit will be more complex. For example, when does a loan, an equity infusion or the purchase by a government of a good confer a benefit? The SCM Agreement does not provide complete guidance on these issues. In fact, the parties to Uruguay Round

negotiations could not agree whether the existence of a benefit should be assessed with reference to a commercial benchmark or with reference to the cost to the subsidizing government. Article 14 of the SCM Agreement states that in a countervailing duty context, the existence of a benefit can (but does not need to) be assessed by reference to a commercial benchmark and provides some guidance with respect to determining whether certain types of measures confer a benefit. In the context of multilateral disciplines, however, the issue of the meaning of “benefit” is not fully resolved.

Categories of Subsidies

1. Prohibited Subsidies

The scope of these prohibitions is relatively narrow. Developed countries had already accepted the prohibition on export subsidies under the Tokyo Round SCM Agreement and local content subsidies of the type prohibited by the SCM Agreement already were inconsistent with Article III of the GATT 1947. The most significant aspect about the new Agreement in this area is the extension of the obligations to developing country Members in accordance with specified transition rules, as well as the creation in Article 4 of the SCM Agreement of a rapid (three-month) dispute settlement mechanism for complaints regarding prohibited subsidies.

2. Actionable Subsidies

Most subsidies, such as production subsidies, fall in the “actionable” category. Actionable subsidies are not prohibited. However, they are subject to challenge, either through multilateral dispute settlement or through countervailing action, in the event that they cause adverse effects to the interests of another Member. There are three types of adverse effects:

- First, there is injury to a domestic industry caused by subsidized imports in the territory of the complaining Member. This is the sole basis for countervailing action.
- Second, there is serious prejudice. Serious prejudice usually arises as a result of adverse effects (e.g. export displacement) in the market of the subsidizing Member or in a third country market. Thus, unlike injury, it can serve as the basis for a complaint related to harm to a Member’s export interests.
- Finally, there is nullification or impairment of benefits accruing under the GATT 1994. Nullification or impairment arises most typically where the improved market access presumed to flow from a bound tariff reduction is undercut by subsidization.

3. Non-Actionable Subsidies

The SCM Agreement creates three narrowly defined categories of subsidies, which are non-actionable, i.e. which cannot be challenged multilaterally or is subject to countervailing action. These subsidies presumably are protected either because they are considered extremely unlikely to cause adverse effects or because they are considered to be of particular value and not to be discouraged. The three categories are:

1. Basic research and pre-competitive development subsidies
2. Assistance to disadvantaged regions
3. Assistance to adapt existing facilities to new environmental requirements

4. Agricultural Subsidies

The Agreement on Agriculture contains special rules regarding subsidies for agricultural products. The SCM Agreement does not prohibit export subsidies, which are consistent with the reduction commitments in the Agriculture Agreement, although they remain countervailable. Domestic supports consistent with the reduction commitments in the Agriculture Agreement are not actionable multilaterally, although they also may be subject to countervailing duties. Finally, domestic supports within the “green box” of the Agriculture Agreement are neither actionable multilaterally nor are they subject to countervailing measures.

(b) The financial contribution may involve:

- (1) direct transfer of funds in the form of grants, loans or equity infusion or potential direct transfer of funds or liabilities e.g. loan guarantees; or
- (2) forgiveness of government revenue that is otherwise due e.g. fiscal incentives such as tax credits; or
- (3) provision of goods and services, other than general infrastructure or purchase of goods.

Chapter - 16: Settlement of Disputes Under World Trade Organisation

2014 - Dec [8] (c)

The composition of the panel (Article 8 DSU) takes place once the panel has been established by the DSB. Potential candidates must meet certain requirements in terms of qualifications. Panels are composed of three panelists unless the parties to the dispute agree, within 10 days from the establishment of the panel, to a panel composed of five panelists (Article 8.5 DSU). The Secretariat proposes nominations for the panel to the parties to the dispute. The parties to the dispute must not oppose nominations except for compelling reasons (Article 8.6 DSU). An indicative list has been established, containing the names of governmental and non-governmental persons, from which panelists may be drawn (Article 8.4 DSU). Citizens of a party or a third party to a dispute

may not serve as panelists, without the agreement of the parties (Article 8.3 DSU). When a dispute is between a developing country Member and a developed country Member the panel shall, if the developing country Member so requests, include at least one panelist from a developing country Member (Article 8.10 DSU). Panels are to be composed of well-qualified governmental and/or non-governmental individuals, including persons who, pursuant to Article 8.1 DSU:

- have served on or presented a case to a panel; or
- have served as a representative of a Member or of a contracting party to GATT 1947 or as a representative to the Council or Committee to any covered agreement or its predecessor (Kennedy or Tokyo Round) agreement; or
- have served in the Secretariat; or
- have taught or published on international trade law or policy; or
- have served as a senior trade policy official of a WTO Member.

Chapter - 17: Objective Questions

2014 - Dec [2] (a), (b)

(a) (i) The Statement is true

Strategy formulation is largely an intellectual process whereas strategy implementation is more operational in character. Strategy formulation requires good conceptual, integrative and analytical skills but strategy implementation requires special skills in motivating and managing others.

(ii) The Statement is false

Organization development refers to long-term effort supported by top management to improve an organization's problem-solving and renewal process through effective management of organizational change.

(iii) The Statement is true

Strategies are constantly reinventing the future creating windows on the world of tomorrow vision and a sense of the future are an inherent part of strategic management.

(iv) The Statement is false

In cash cow segment of BCG matrix, market growth rate is low and relative market share is high.

(v) The Statement is true

Strategic planning refers to the process of developing and analyzing the organization's mission, overall goals, general strategies and allocating resources. A strategy is a course of action created to achieve a long-term goal.

- (b) (i) **Decision Support System (DSS):** A computer system that combines data, analytical tools user friendly software to support decision making at the management level is called decision support system.
Four core capabilities of DSS are:
(i) Representatives;
(ii) Operations;
(iii) Memory aids; and
(iv) Control aids.
- (ii) **Operational Planning:** Operational planning refers to the process of deciding the most effective use of the resources already allocated and to develop a control mechanism to assure effective implementation of the actions so that organizational objectives are achieved. Operational planning thus includes adjustments of production, marketing and financial capacity of the organization to the expected level of operations, increasing the efficiency of operating, budgeting future costs, developing control over costs and efficiency etc.
- (iii) **Impact analysis:** Impact analysis is a brain-storming technique which helps the users to think through the full impacts of a proposed change. This analysis identifies the existing requirements in the baseline and other pending requirement changes where conflict with the proposed change continuously happens.
- (iv) **Fishery Value Chain**
Value chain in fishery is different for the product segments and the market segments. The product can be related to the type of fishery gears and in turn the size of the operations. The coastal species are different from deep sea species. The volume of catch is different depending on the type of fishing gears. Accordingly, there could be three types of supply chain i.e., traditional boat owners, motorized boat owners and trawler owners. The traditional boat owners can have smaller catch. Compared to craft owners, they can catch few high value species. Since they catch low value product, it is destined to local markets. The catches of motorized craft owners are high value products with high demand in the regional market. The major catch of trawler owners are the fishes found in deep sea. The product falling in the low category of value catch is the one which is dried on board. The high value products are channelled to the regional and international markets.
- (v) **Socio-cultural Environment**
Social-cultural environment is another important aspect of environmental scanning in strategic management. It basically refers to the set of values, ideals, attitudes, belief, desires, expectations which distinguish one group from those of another. The organisation needs to be aware of how social and

cultural factors can directly influence the way they manage their operations particularly human resources and marketing. The executives in the organization need to be aware of sensitive values and ideas of people coming from different up-bringing and backgrounds. Changes in aspirations, habits, customs and values lead to generation of new opportunities and threats to the business organization.

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