

Basics of Project Management

1.1 Introduction

- A farmer taking up crop cultivation
- A construction company constructing a bridge
- Indian Railways changing the meter gauge railway track to broad gauge
- An FMCG company introducing its products into a new virgin market
- A company hiring fresh graduates
- A student pursuing MBA

What is common to all these? All these are projects.

A project is not merely establishing an industry or constructing a building. It is just something new, something unique, planned and executed for good.

1.2 Definition of Project

PMBOK (Project Management Body of Knowledge) defines project as **a temporary endeavour undertaken to create a unique product or service**. **Temporary** means that every project has a definite end, and **Unique** means that the product or service is different from all similar products or services.

Turner defines projects as an endeavor in which human (or machine), materials, financial and knowledge resources are organized in a novel way, to undertake a unique scope of work of given specification, within constraints of cost and time, so as to deliver quantitative, qualitative, and consumer oriented product and service.

Bridgefield group defines project as a related set of activities and milestones with a preset goal and time frame that is designed as a specific event and not an ongoing process.

Project can also be defined as a single use plan to achieve a certain objective of introducing something unique or a change and ensure that progress is maintained in line with the objective, generally in terms of time, cost, and various technical and quality performance parameters.

Following are the important aspects of a project:

- Starting date
- Specific goals and conditions

- Defined responsibilities
- Budget
- Planning
- Fixed end date
- Parties involved

Project Management

Project management is a methodical approach to planning and guiding project processes from start to finish. It is the method of planning the plan. It starts from project definitions and ends with goal achievement.

PMBOK defines project management as the application of knowledge, skill, tool and techniques to project activities in order to meet stakeholder's needs and expectations from a project.

Bridge group defines it as the methods and disciplines used to define goals, plan and monitor tasks and resources, identify and resolve issues, and control costs and budgets for a specific project.

1.3 Project Characteristics

The various characteristics of the project are

- **Fixed set of objectives:** The project starts when the objective(s) is finalized. The project comes to an end as soon as the objectives are attained.
- **Tenure:** Project is never a continuous activity, it has to come to an end. Its life span is fixed.
- **Team work:** It needs a team to accomplish various activities.
- **Unique:** All projects are unique in themselves, no two projects are exactly similar.
- **Life cycle:** Like all living organisms, project starts slowly (definition phase), then starts building up in size (planning phase), then reaches peak (implementation phase) before finally getting terminated.
- **Made to order:** The customer always decides the objective and informs the constraints like time and cost.
- **Single entity:** Generally, projects are the responsibilities of a single person/entity but certainly there are many participants in a project, who are helping the single entity in the accomplishment of project objectives.

- **Multi-skilled staff:** The staff needed for a project, including the project manager needs to have a wide range of skills including technical skills, human skills, financial skills, negotiation skills, etc.
- **Subcontracting:** Subcontracting is practically unavoidable in project management. As specialized knowledge or workforce is needed for a very small duration in a project, it is difficult and costly to employ or retain. Therefore, they are just hired for small duration or specific job from outside agency.
- **Risk and uncertainty:** Projects are risky as the activities involved in projects are non-retrievable. Thus, risk is unavoidable. However, risk can be reduced considerably using various forecasting techniques and project management and control tools.

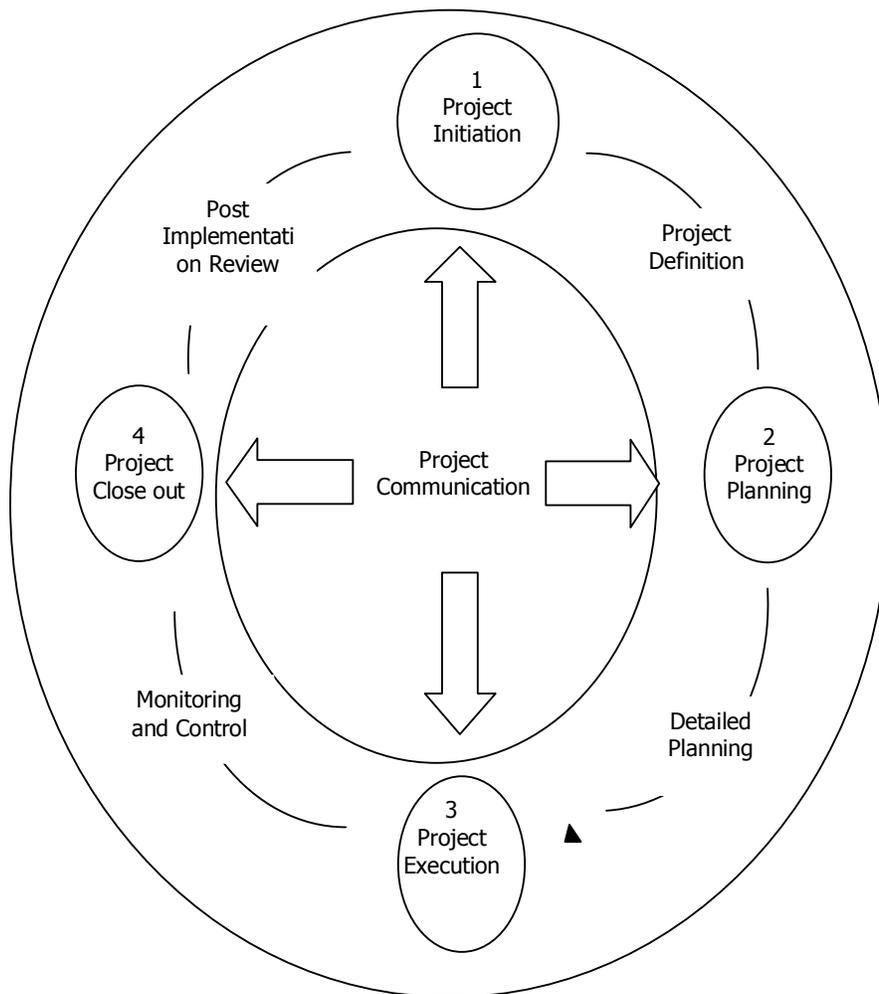


Figure 1.1: A schematic diagram of project life cycle

1.4 Objectives of Project management

There are four major objectives of project management

- **Scope:** Scope means what are the expectations from you as a project manager and your team. A civil contractor always has well-defined scope, like all civil works including excavation, foundation, concreting, brickwork, plastering of all walls as per the attached drawings.
- **Performance:** A project is always expected to have a well defined performance level. If a project is unable to adhere to the desired performance of a customer, it is certainly an unsuccessful project.
- **Time:** A successful project is the one which is completed within the time limits perceived during the planning. As the cost is dependent on time, time management becomes a crucial activity of project management.
- **Cost:** It is dependent on all the above objectives. Mathematically it can be written as: $Cost = f(P, T, S)$.

Therefore, cost is a function of performance, time and scope. If any of the above increases, it is surely going to increase the cost of the project.

Another approach in defining the objectives is the SMART approach.

- **Specific:** Project should target a specific goal
- **Measurable:** It should be quantifiable
- **Attainable:** It should be attainable with resources available
- **Realistic:** It should be realistic in nature
- **Time Limit:** There should be fixed time limits

1.5 Importance of Project Management

What has led to increased usage of the concept of project management in recent times?

- **Rapidly changing technologies:** Technologies are changing very fast, so all manufacturing as well as service organizations have to cope up with technological changes, which provide a big scope for project management.
- **High entropy of the system:** Changes are very fast. So, energy levels are high. To adapt to the fast changing world, no organization can stick to old things or systems. Any modification or modernization leads to the need of project.

- **Squeezed life cycle of products:** Product life cycle is squeezed to a great extent with innovations taking place at a very rapid rate. Projects are needed for the upgradation of products.
- **Globalization impact:** All producers and service providers in the present world are exposed globally. They need to modify their system of operations to match the global practices, thus creating opportunity for projects.
- **Large organizations:** They face problems of management of huge workforce and work division, so they divide their work in projects and create a team to accomplish the objectives in the form of projects. This has also helped the organization to develop a method for performance appraisal.
- **Customer focus:** Increased customer focus has been a market trend in recent times. A few years back, cost reduction was a major formula of success for an enterprise. Thus, there was more emphasis on standardization. In recent years, customer focus has redirected market towards customization. Though it is not purely customization, it is more of a combination of standardization and customization. All this has led to the application of project management.

Project Life Cycle and its Classification

2.1. Project life cycle and its phases

Project life cycle divides the sequence of operations of project in to different phases. Regardless of scope or complexity, any project goes through a series of stages during its life. Project activities must be grouped into phases to facilitate project manager and his team to plan and organize various inputs effectively. It also helps in identifying deviations and thus helps in decision making with regard to continuation or termination of the project.

Generally, there are four stages of project life cycle which are

2.1.1. Idea Generation (Concept Phase)

Anyone who is planning to invest starts searching everywhere for new ideas. One can start a new project by defining its objectives, scope, purpose and deliverables to be produced. He will also hire his project team, set up the project office and review the project, to gain approval to begin the next phase. The basic processes of this initiation phase are

- **Project document:** This is a statement describing the characteristics of the project undertaken.
- **Project feasibility document:** This contains constraints and alternative solutions. The four steps in the project feasibility study are:
 - Problem description
 - Approach to be used
 - Alternate generations for solving the problem
 - Preliminary recommendations
- **Project concept document:** It will answer the following questions
 - What is to be done?
 - How will it be done?
 - Why is it to be done?
- **Project charter:** Project charter formally communicates the initiation of the project. It consists of project scope, project authority and KSF (Key Success Factors).

During this phase, project team is responsible for the following activities:

- Conducting interviews with customers and stakeholders
- Conducting research for generating more necessary information.
- Preparing project feasibility document, project concept statement and project charter.

2.1.2. Project Planning Phase

Project planning phase follows the project initiation phase. Countless hours during the succeeding phases can be saved with proper planning.

The purpose of the project planning phase is to:

- Determine project requirements
- Decide project cost and schedules
- Search for sources of all resources

The basic processes of the project planning phase are:

- **Defining the scope:** Define the scope of the project and its limitations.
- **Preparing the work breakdown structure:** Divide the whole project into smaller activities
- **Role assignment:** Assign jobs to individuals or group of individuals as predefined activities or tasks.
- **Project scheduling:** Determine optimum schedule of the project and show it on a Gantt Chart.
- **Fund allocation:** Allocation of funds for individual activities

Other subsidiary processes in the planning stage are:

- **Risk management planning:** It includes identification of possible causes and effect of the risks and trying to reduce the impact of risk.
- **Procurement planning:** Decisions regarding all products, services or resources needed to accomplish the project.

In the planning stage, various steps are taken which includes:

- **Final techno-economic feasibility of the project:** This is the last chance for changing the decision, as after this stage, it proves too closely to shut down the project or change the project.
- **Basic engineering and process design:** The process is selected and basic engineering is done. The documents with respect to equipment specification are prepared.

- **Division of work/responsibilities:** Different activities are allocated to individuals or groups.
- **Identify potential vendors and subcontractors:** No project is complete without the help of outside expert agencies called subcontractors. The potential suppliers of various equipment, civil construction agencies and similar agencies are identified and negotiated.
- **Detailed engineering design:** based on the designs of equipment supplier, detailed engineering is performed. The final layout is prepared and the work schedule prepared.
- **Final estimation of the cost of the project:** The above steps leads to finalizing quite accurate cost of the project. This is essential as the next step would involve arrangement of funds.
- **Decision of capital structure and means of finance:** The final decision with respect to financing the project is needed during the planning phase. It is a crucial decision generally taken by core strategic group with the advice of finance managers.
- **Final schedule of implementation (next phase):** The next phase will be implementation. A proper schedule of implementation is essential to avoid confusions. The schedule of implementation tells all the members of the team when a particular activity should start and end. It will provide the milestones of every activity. The techniques used are PERT, CPM, Gantt chart, crashing resource allocation and resource leveling.

2.1.3. Implementation or Execution Phase

Project execution is characterized by the actual work on the tasks planned and project control involves the comparison of the actual performance with the planned performance and taking appropriate corrective action to get the desired output.

During this phase, project team is responsible for the following activities:

- The team members perform the tasks allocated in the earlier phase under the supervision of the project manager and report to him.
- Project manager is responsible for performance measurement, which includes finding variances with respect to cost, schedule and scope.
- Project manager is responsible for providing project status report to all key stakeholders. He should specifically inform the deviation from the plan to the stakeholders. He should also determine the root cause for the deviations and

suggest the alternate actions to encounter the deviation caused or expected. This helps stakeholders to decide the corrective action to be taken.

- All project key stakeholders are responsible for the review of the variances.
- All project key stakeholders are responsible for taking necessary action of the variances thus determined so as to complete the project within time and cost.

The basic process of the project execution can be:

- Execution of the project plan
- Handle the changes
- Project control

The subsidiary processes during project execution can be:

- Quality control
- Performance monitoring
- Project administration
- Risk monitoring and control
- Scope and control
- Schedule and cost control
- Management of outside agencies (subcontractors)

The key activities during this phase of execution include:

- **Award contracts to contractors, vendors, subcontractors:** Final selection of suppliers of various supplies of services (generally termed contractors) and physical equipment (generally termed vendors).
- **Procure equipment and services:** After continuously monitoring the suppliers, the project team has to procure the goods and services.
- **Erection of equipment:** The procured equipment needs to be placed on the designed place after preparing the required foundation.
- **Control and monitor project cost, schedule and scope:** As majority of efforts, time and cost are incurred during this phase, it is critical to monitor the project schedule and cost during this phase. This is generally done using various tools like Gantt chart and Earned Value Analysis.
- **Motivation of project team:** As this phase consumes maximum energy of the team members, motivating them during this phase is critical to the success of the project.

2.1.4. Termination Phase (Clean-up Phase)

The last step performed to say good bye to a project is the termination phase. The termination of a project is inevitable, but how it is terminated and when may have a profound and long lasting impact on the organization and its employees.

In the end, all projects, both successful and unsuccessful, will have to be terminated. During the termination phase, the project's resources are redistributed, financial records are closed, and project personnel are reassigned. The organization's sensitivity to the concerns of the project team can have a lasting impact on their commitment and productivity. Lastly, a final report, which discusses the project's successes and shortcomings, is prepared for senior management. This report can significantly influence how the organization manages projects in the future.

According to Meredith and Mantel (1995), there are three ways to terminate a project: extinction, inclusion, or integration. Termination by **extinction** means the project is completed. For example, the new project has been developed and given to the client, the building has been completed and accepted by the purchaser, or the software has been installed and is running.

By contrast, termination by **inclusion** is a very different process. The complete project team and its equipment are transferred to a new division. As one might expect, this type of change places significant additional stress on the day-to-day operations of the organization. Project managers and team members must be sensitive to these stresses until the organization is able to settle into a new and more stable routine.

The most common, but also the most complex, method of termination is by **integration**. The project's resources, personnel, and functions are absorbed as a part of the original organization. The major problem associated with this termination process is the ability of the organization to blend technological differences between the project and the organization. Past experience appears to play a key role in successfully integrating terminated projects.

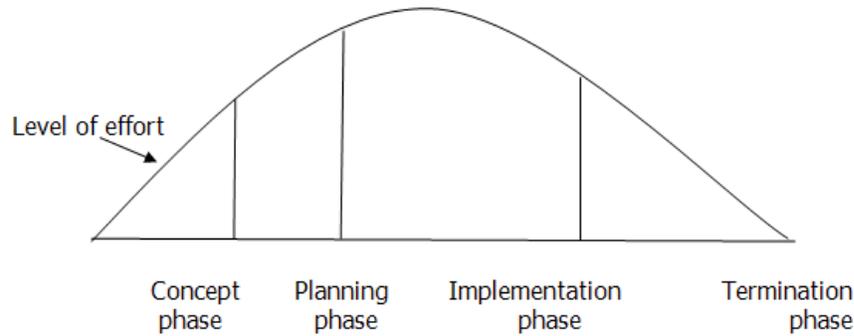


Figure 2.1 Level of effort in different phases of project

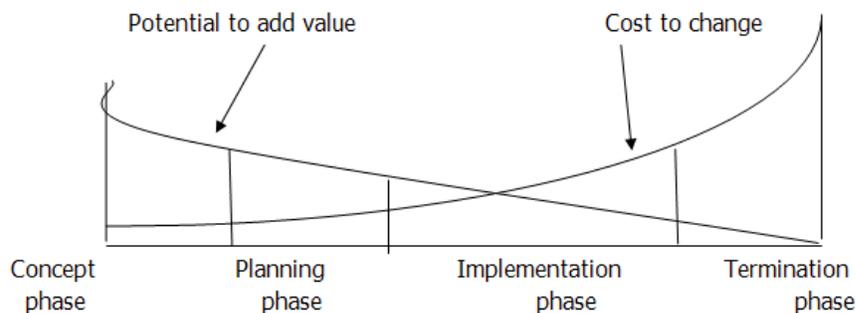


Figure 2.2: Cost of change and potential to add value during project life cyc

2.2 Project Audit

Ideally, a project audit should be conducted by an independent examiner, who can remain objective in the assessment of information.

Key activities during this phase are:

- **Ensure completion and acceptance:** The project manager should ensure that all project related activities are completed and the project is acceptable to all the stakeholders, including owners, customers and the new team for operations.
- **Prepare a final report:** A final report regarding the deviations from scope, cost and schedule should be submitted along with the operations manual and risk perceived during operations.
- **Ensure payments:** The project manager should ensure that all the payments to vendors, contractors and subcontractors have been done.
- **Assign personnel:** Some team members of the project should be assigned duties in operations management team, which will help the new team in

managing operations smoothly, as it is not a totally new team for the management then.

2.3 Classification of Projects Based On Different Criteria

Projects can be classified based on duration, quantum of investment and the risk involved

2.3.1. Classification based on duration: It can be long term, medium term and short term. Long-term projects have a life of more than 10 years, whereas mid-term projects have a life of 5 to 10 years. Short-term projects last only for less than 5 years.

2.3.2 Classification based on investments: It is based on how much initial investment is needed to start the project. In India, investment outlay of above Rs.20 crore is considered high investment, whereas an investment outlay between Rs.5 crore to Rs.20 crore is considered medium sized industry. And investment below Rs.5 crore is considered low investment industry. Industry with initial outlay below Rs.50 lac is considered cottage industry.

2.3.3 Classification based on ownership: A project can be owned by government, public sector, corporate, cooperative, partnership firm or proprietorship firm.

2.3.4 Classification based on risk: This is the most commonly used basis of project classification. Projects are basically classified as Greenfield project, brown field project, divestment project and modernization or replacement project. The classifications and sub-classifications on the basis of risk are depicted in

Figure 2.3.

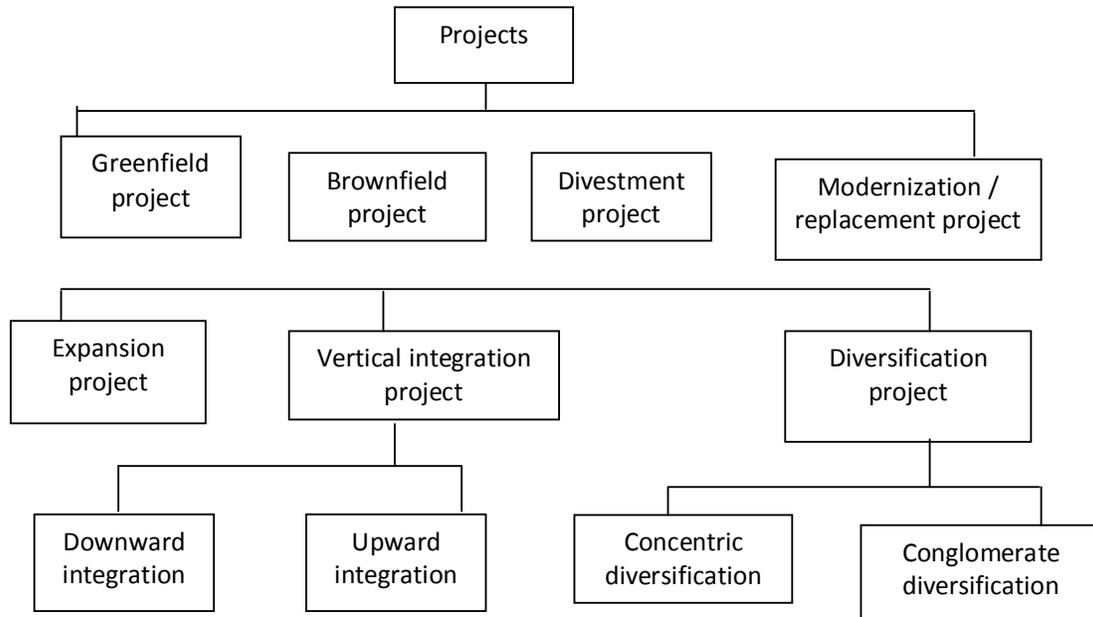


Figure 2.3 Project classification based on risk

2.3.4.1. Greenfield project

Greenfield project is a totally new venture by a fresh entrepreneur. It is also known as grass-root projects. Such projects are fresh and are exposed to very high risk due to lack of expertise of entrepreneur and infrastructure.

2.3.4.2 Brownfield projects

In brown field projects, an existing promoter company or existing project goes for addition of product/capacity. It is of three types.

➤ Expansion project

In expansion project, there is increase in the capacity of existing plant without any other change. There is no change or very nominal change in the product, e.g. a biscuit industry increasing its capacity from 20MT/month to 35MT/month. It can either be achieved through market intensification or market development.

➤ Vertical integration project

The degree to which a firm owns its upstream suppliers and downstream customers is called vertical integration. It is of two types.

- **Forward integration project:** Downstream expansion is called forward integration. The product of existing industry becomes raw material for the proposed project, i.e., a mango pulp making industry moves to soft drink manufacturing.
- **Backward integration project:** Upstream expansion is called backward integration. The raw material needed for the existing industry is proposed to be manufactured by a new project, i.e., a Mango pulp making industry establishing its own orchard for raw material or soft drink company establishing Mango Pulp making unit.

➤ **Diversification project**

Financial synergy may be obtained by combining two firms: one with better financial resources but poor technical capabilities and another firm with strong technical capabilities but poor financial resources. Firms also try to obtain certainty in businesses by combining two or more businesses with seasonal or cyclic demand factors such as cotton industries (October to April) and wheat flour mill (April to September).

This combination can certainly lead to strategic fit in operations and enhance the overall efficiency of the merged firms. This can also lead to better and cheaper purchasing through higher bargaining power. Diversification leads to reduced risk in operations.

This can also lead to management synergy as management expertise and experience is applied in different situations. Management synergy can be achieved when management experience and expertise is applied to different situations. There are two ways of diversifications

- Concentric diversification project: firms adds related products
- Conglomerate diversification: firm diversifies into areas that are unrelated to its current line of business.

2.3.4.3 Divestment project

- **Obsolescence of product/service:** If a current product or service becomes obsolete or nonprofit able, a firm may decide to divest from the product or service. A product tending to reach premature life cycle phase of decline needs to be divested.
- **Increased level of competition:** After taking advantage of monopoly or near monopoly situations, if the competition increases to such an extent that

the firm feels difficult to sustain, the product or service may be decided to be divested.

- **Strategic failure:** Strategic failure is another big cause for the divestment strategy. Many companies go for diversifications and sometimes feel that the chosen strategy was not correct. In that case, it may decide to divest before it is too late.
- **Increase concentration on fewer product lines:** Many times, firms go for very high levels of diversifications and find it difficult to handle so much varied lines. They may wish to concentrate on fewer lines to perform better. They may prefer to be master of few rather than jack of all. Tata decided to divest from various product lines like Tata Oil, Tata Tea, etc., in the 1990s to concentrate on fewer core areas like steel and automobiles.
- **Better opportunity of investment:** Sometimes, profitable business or product lines are discontinued to take the opportunity of better and more lucrative business opportunity. This is another major driver of divestment strategy.

2.3.4.4. Modernization/Replacement Project

In recent times, technology upgradation has been very rapid. Only those organizations can survive which cope up with the ongoing technological changes. Firms need to upgrade their technology. Such projects upgradation of technology may need capital investments and are called modernization projects.

While manufacturing a food product, a company is applying steam drying method, and recently a new technology of vacuum drying has been introduced. The new process improves the quality of the product, leading to better customer satisfaction, which is of utmost importance in the food industry. The company has to change over to the new technology of drying. This will attract additional capital investment and is an example of partial modernization.

Replacement projects may also be classified into two categories: replacement of the equipment which is no longer able to work and which deteriorates with time and attracts higher maintenance costs. In both the above situations, the equipment would be required to be replaced and will cause additional capital investment.

big percentage of the projects which cross the hurdle of prima facie study reaches its destination of implementation. The entrepreneur is afraid during this particular processes, especially when he is a fresh entrepreneur.

- *Performance of existing industries:* It is generally observed that we are looking at the performance of existing industries in the proposed sector. If pesticides industries are not doing well, the idea of setting up a project of pesticides company is dropped.
 - *Price trend:* Increased price levels also reveals increased demand levels and thus it creates scope for a new project.
 - *Price difference between international and domestic prices:* Commodity with lower international price as compared to domestic price has always a danger of imports whereas commodity with higher international prices is lucrative as it provides opportunity to export.
 - *Government policies:* Any sector which is promoted by government is always boosted. Current government support to infrastructure has led to the movement of various industrial groups in the field of infrastructure.
 - *Location aspects:* The entrepreneur also searches the benefit of location with respect to raw material availability, market proximity, government benefits and other infrastructure availability like road, power, and water.
 - *Financial position:* The entrepreneur also analyses the approximate cost of the project during this phase and confirms the availability of funds to proceed to next step.
- **Project preparation:** The projects which have crossed the hurdle of prima facie study are studied in depth and a Detailed Project Report (DPR) is prepared. The various in-depth analyses done in this stage include.
- *Technical feasibility:* This includes the selection of an appropriate technology, source for the selected technology (developed or transferred), capacity planning, location selection, raw material identification etc.
 - *Market feasibility:* During this study, demand supply gap is determined. The prime competitors and their strengths and weaknesses are analyzed, marketing channels are determined and planned, and the target market and competitive strengths are analyzed.
 - *Financial feasibility:* The cost of project and sources of finance are planned. The financial appraisal is done for the project. This is analyzed using various ratios and capital budgeting techniques like Break Even Analysis, Return on Assets, Profit Margins, Net Present Value (NPV), Pay Back Period (PBP), Internal Rate of Return (IRR), etc.

- *Social cost benefit analysis*: During this particular analysis, we try to determine the cost to the nation due to the proposed project and compare with the benefits.
- **Project implementation**: During this phase, teams are selected, activities are identified and are allotted to group members, and schedules of activities are formed and monitored. This is done with the help of various tools like Gantt chart, Network Diagrams and monitoring tools.
- **Project review**: The review report is a very important document that describes the problems faced and the changes made in the original project plan.

3.2. Detailed Project Report (DPR)

The contents of a detailed Project Report as per the norms of financial institutions are mentioned below in brief.

- General information: Name, form of organization, sector, nature of products, promoters and their contribution.
- Background and experience of promoters
- Marketing and selling arrangements: Application of proposed products or service, growth rate, existing players and competitors
- Details of the proposed project which include:
 - Proposed products and their capacity
 - Process of manufacture, and its source (contract with the supplier for the support)
 - Details about major equipment needed for the above process
 - Management team with their qualification and experience
 - Details of land and building
 - Details of water and power
 - Effluents (if any) and its treatment and disposal system as per plan
 - Raw material availability
 - Manpower requirement
 - Technical arrangements
 - Production process
 - Environmental aspects
 - Schedule of implementation
 - Cost of project
 - Means of finance

- Profitability and cash flow statement (for ten year generally)
- Appraisal based on profitability estimates
- Economic considerations
- Appendices which include estimate of working results, calculation of working capital requirement and margin money, coverage ratios and sensitivity analysis.

3.3. Project Selection Criteria

The decision maker should first identify the criteria for the selection of a project. A project which is good for one firm or entrepreneur may not be suitable for another. A detailed list of various possible criteria is provided here.

Marketing factors

- Size of potential market and focused customer segment
- Probability of extensions or expansion of market
- Export opportunity/import threat
- Customer acceptance
- Impact on current products
- Expected market share and current status of rival companies
- Time to achieve proposed market share
- Current stage of product life cycle.

➤ **Production factors**

- Time to complete the project
- Availability of resources
- Flexibility of operations
- Connections with existing production lines
- Energy requirements and its sources
- Expected quality of the product or services
- Availability of technology and technology life cycle

➤ **Financial factors**

- Cost of project and means of sources
- Impact on current financial position of the firm
- Profitability in terms of profit margins and returns on investments
- Payback period
- Time period to reach the break even point
- Working capital needs

➤ **Personnel factors**

- Requirement of manpower and skills required
- Impact on existing employees
- Change in working environment
- Technical skill requirement
- **Legal factors**
 - Government policies
 - Patents and its protection
 - Any other major legal complexity
- **Strategic factors**
 - Impact on the image of the company
 - Acceptance by existing shareholders
 - In line with long-term mission of the firm
 - Ease to exit in the case of failure

Technical Feasibility

4.1. Factors Considered in Technical Analysis

There are so many factors needed to be considered in technical feasibility (Figure 4.1) of a project.

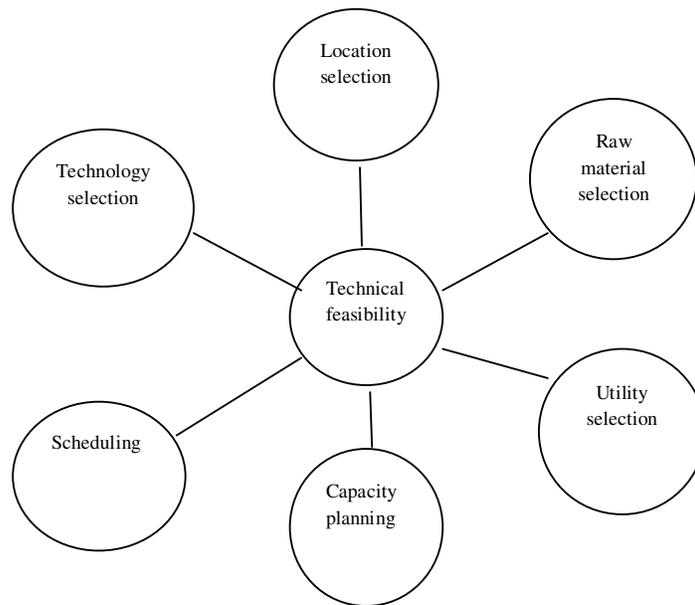


Figure 4.1 Aspects of technical feasibility

Some of the major factors discussed in this chapter are:

- Location selection
- Technology selection and sourcing
- Capacity planning
- Layout planning
- Raw material planning
- Utility (water, power, waste, etc) planning
- Government incentive considerations
- Scheduling implementation

4.1.1. Factors affecting selection of locations

Being in the right location is a key ingredient in a business's success. If a company selects a wrong location, it may have inadequate access to customers, workers, transportation, materials, and so on. Consequently, location often plays a significant role in a company's overall success. A location strategy is a plan for obtaining the optimal location for a company by identifying the needs and objectives of the company, and searching for locations with offerings that are compatible with these needs and objectives. Generally, this means the firm will attempt to maximize opportunity while minimizing costs and risks. Tata had to shift their manufacturing facility from Singoor (West Bengal) to Sanand (Gujarat) as a result of wrong decision which proved costly in terms of cost and schedule. A company's location strategy should conform with, and be part of, its overall corporate strategy.

Several factors are key for most companies which are as follows:

- **Size, suitability and cost of the land** : an important consideration in choosing of the project is the land which should be good enough for the present and future requirement.
- **Suppliers**: Companies must consider the kind of suppliers they will need near their locations. Raw material availability in close vicinity is especially useful for projects where raw material is required in bulk quantity, like sugar industry (sugarcane). Projects which need perishable raw material have to be placed nearby to the raw material availability region, like a canned juice industry.
- **Market proximity**: Manufacturers also benefit from being close to their customers, because proximity to customers reduces shipment time and increases company responsiveness to customers. Projects in which finished products are perishable with short shelf life have to be placed in close vicinity of the customers like in the case of a bread industry.
- **Infrastructure**: Companies must consider what their infrastructure requirements will be, including what modes of transportation they will need and what kinds of telecommunications services and equipment they will need. Infrastructure availability also includes power and water availability. Industries requiring large volumes of water should always be located in places where water is abundantly available. Projects have been planned in the states where there is less shortages of power like Maharashtra and Gujarat instead of power deficit states like Karnataka.

- **Labour availability:** Companies must establish their labour criteria and determine what kind of labour pool they will need, including the desired education and skilled levels. Many projects need huge numbers of labour rather than higher skills. Such type of industries are set up in densely populated areas whereas industries which need labour in small numbers but highly qualified and skilled, may move to areas with high education levels. Industries have also been testing the mentality and social culture of the area.
- **Political and social environment:** Before a site is selected for a project, understanding the political status and social culture is necessary. Location with political instability may create problems in future.
- **Government support:** Companies may also face government barriers and heavy restrictions and regulation if they intend to expand into other countries. Therefore, companies must examine governmental-as well as cultural-obstacles especially in other countries while developing location strategies. Government incentives offered at central as well as state level may play a significant role in a company's selection of a site.
- **Environmental regulation:** Companies should consider the various environmental regulations that might affect their operations in different locations. Environmental regulation also may have an impact on the relationship between a company and the community around a prospective location.

4.1.2. Government Incentives, SEZ, EOU, etc.

Considering the need to enhance foreign investment and promote exports from the country, the Government of India has introduced various types of special incentives and benefits to EPS (Export Processing Units), EOU (Export Oriented Units) and SEZs (Special Economic Zones) units with special condition, which are as follows:

- **EPS/EOU incentives**
 - Duty free imports of capital goods, raw materials and consumables
 - Exemption from central excise
 - Exemption from sales tax and electricity duty
 - Income-tax holiday for five consecutive years during first eight years of operations
 - Term finance available at subsidized interest rates
 - Fully owned foreign company can invest in south zones

➤ **Necessary conditions**

- Unit should be predominantly export oriented
- Minimum value addition should be 30%

➤ **SEZ and its incentives**

SEZs are specially delineated enclaves treated as foreign territory for the purpose of industrial service and trade operation, with relaxation in customs duties and a more liberal regime in respect of other levies, foreign investments and other transactions. Domestic restrictions and infrastructure inadequacies would be removed in the SEZs to create an internationally benchmarked environment for business transactions and operations. Government of India guidelines suggest that SEZs can be developed in the public-private or joint sector domains, or by State Governments.

- A designated duty free enclave and to be treated as foreign territory for trade operations and duties and tariffs.
- No license required for import.
- Exemption from customs duty on import of capital goods, raw materials, consumables, spares, etc.
- Exemption from central excise duty on procurement of capital goods, raw materials, and consumable spares, etc. from the domestic market.
- Reimbursement of central sales tax paid on domestic purchases.
- 100% income-tax exemption for a block of five years, 50% tax exemptions for two years and up to 50% of the profits ploughed back for next 3 years under section 10-A of the Income-tax Act.
- Carry forward of losses
- SEZ unit to be positive net foreign exchange earner within three years.
- 100% foreign direct investment in manufacturing sector allowed through automatic route, barring a few sectors.
- Facility to retain 100% foreign exchange receipts in EEFC (Exchange Earner's Foreign Currency) Account.

4.1.3. Technology Selection

The technology that is selected should be appropriate technology. An improper selection of technology can be futile for a project. There are so many cases where the selection of a wrong technology has led a project to be sick in the early years.

4.1.3.1. Appropriate Technology

Appropriate technology can be defined as the technology which is best suited for the conditions of its operations (time and location). A technology which is appropriate today may become inappropriate in future. So, time is one big factor which can make a technology inappropriate. Thermal power projects were appropriate in the past, but now, with increasing danger of global warming, they have become inappropriate.

Another important factor which makes a technology inappropriate is the space or location. Technology which is appropriate in America may not be appropriate in India because of its different climatic conditions, different culture, and different level of skills or different economic environment.

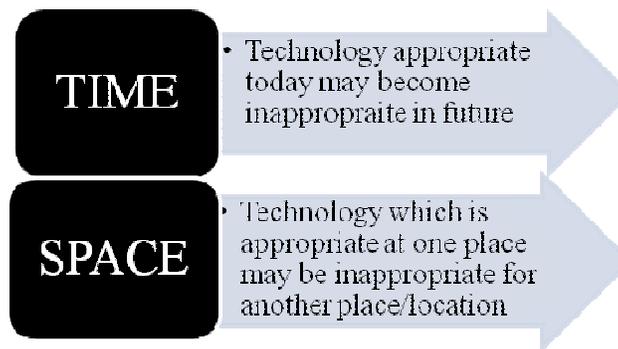


Figure 4.2 Reasons for technology being inappropriate

Factors to be considered while selecting a technology are:

- **Environmental:** Physical environment should be considered before selecting a technology. A technology which works in cold European countries may not work in hot tropical climate of India.
- **Ethical and cultural:** Selected technology should not violate ethical or cultural practices of the region. Technology using skin of cattle or fats of pigs will not be acceptable in India.
- **Social:** Technology which needs highly qualified workers may not be successful in states with very low literacy.
- **Economical:** This is one of the most important parameters for the selection of technology. Countries like India have lower manpower cost and high unemployment but very high cost of capital. So, the selected technology should be more labour intensive rather than power or capital intensive.

4.1.4. Capacity Planning and Cost Capacity Relationship

Another important decision in technical feasibility is the determination of optimum capacity of the project. Over capacity may result in lower operating efficiency and wasteful investments and, on the other hand, under capacity may be losing opportunities. Here, we will discuss various factors essential for capacity planning.

4.1.4.1 Primary Factors

The primary factors which are essential in capacity planning are as follows:

- **Market potential:** Capacity should not exceed the market potential of the product or service.
- **Resource available:** Resources like manpower, power and raw material also impose constraint on capacity.
- **Funds availability:** An investor may have an opportunity to sell or have other resources for higher capacity, but higher capacity means higher investment.
- **Break even efficiency:** Installed capacity should not just exceed the break even quantity, but should be at least 2-2.5 times the break even capacity so that break even efficiency is at 40%-50%, leaving a good chance for the organization to earn.

4.1.4.2 Secondary factors

- **Legal rules:** Although majority of products and services are delicensed, still there are restrictions on the production of a few goods and services. This offers another constraint on capacity building.
- **Competitor's analysis:** Higher capacity creates an opportunity for return to scale. If competitors are having very high capacity, they may make survival of the project difficult.
- **Technical reasons:** Some equipment is available for particular capacity. We have to restrict ourself as per the size of the equipment available easily. For a maize processing unit, the separators are available for the capacity of 80 MTPD or 160 MTPD so, a planner should either choose capacity of 80 MTPD or 160 MTPD.

4.1.4.3 Relationship between Break Even Quantity and Capacity

Break even quantity does not remain constant with increased installed capacity. A 500 unit capacity plant will not have same break even quantity with a plant with installed capacity of 100 units. The fixed cost certainly increases with higher installed capacity.

It can always be assumed that there is a direct relationship between capacity and initial investment. Components of fixed cost include interest, depreciation and salary majorly. And all these costs are more likely to increase in the same proportion of the fixed investment. Therefore, it will be a good assumption to assume break even quantity to vary with initial investment.

Moreover, we can assume that contribution per unit is constant irrespective of installed capacity.

$$\frac{C_1}{C_2} = \left(\frac{BEQ_1}{BEQ_2} \right) = \left(\frac{Q_1}{Q_2} \right)$$

Example

What will be BEQ of a soyabean processing unit installed with a capacity of 200 MTPD? Another soya processing unit has a break even quantity of 50 MTPD which is installed for a capacity of 120 MTPD. Cost capacity ratio for soya processing unit is 0.4.

$$\text{Solution } \left(\frac{BEQ_1}{50} \right) = \left(\frac{200}{120} \right) 0.4$$

Calculating the above, $BEQ_1 = 61.3$ MTPD

We can conclude that break even efficiency of a plant with capacity 120 MTPD is $50/120 = 41.66\%$, whereas break even efficiency of a plant with capacity 200 MTPD is $61.3/200=30.65\%$.

Market Potential Analysis

5.1. Demand Analysis

Market potential of a product or service is the estimated maximum total sales revenue of all supplies of a product or service in a market during a certain period. Estimation of demand alone is not sufficient and other marketing aspects such as proper pricing, distribution and advertising issues are also essential to assess the market.

Since the inception of project planning, estimating demand-supply gap has been the technique for estimating market potential. The process starts with estimating demand in future and then comparing the same with present supplies and prospective new suppliers. A positive demand-supply gap favours the market potential and vice versa.

5.2. Demand forecasting techniques

Demand forecasting is a crucial aspect in gap analysis. There are various quantitative and qualitative methods used for forecasting in different situations. All the techniques are classified in Figure 5.1

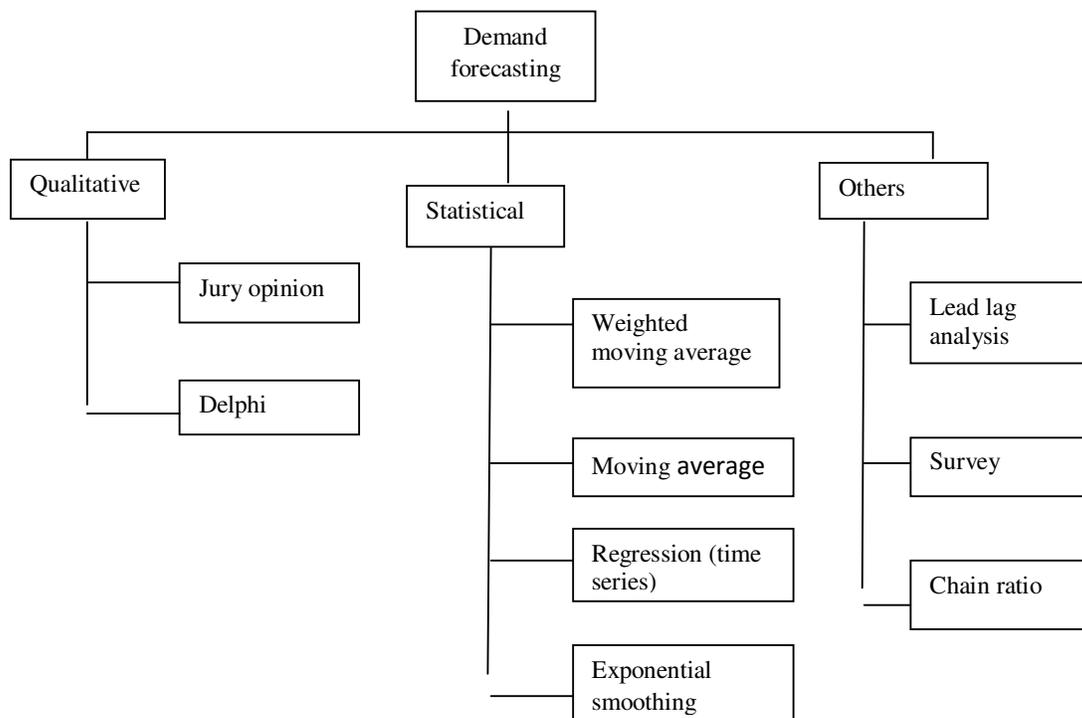


Figure 1.1 Demand forecasting techniques

5.2.1. Qualitative Techniques

5.2.1.1. Jury Opinion

Jury opinion is a method of combining views of several executives regarding a forecast. The general practice is to bring together top executives from various fields of management, viz., finance, human resources, marketing, purchasing and production. They provide information experiences and opinions to project planning. Jury opinion is simple and commonly used as it is less time-consuming.

5.2.1.2. Delphi Technique

Delphi technique is drawing upon the group's expertise by getting individual submissions, without the drawback of face-to-face meeting. It is a systematic and interactive (though no direct interaction is involved) forecasting method which is based on the outcomes of responses of panels of experts. The convener of the process prepares a questionnaire and mails it to various experts. Based on the preliminary responses, a secondary questionnaire is prepared and resent to the experts. It sometimes may require more than two rounds of questionnaires. After each round, a moderator provides summary of the experts forecasts from the previous round as well as the reasons they provided for their judgment. This encourages participant experts to revise their earlier responses. Finally, the experts converge in their opinion without any direct interaction.

5.2.2 Statistical Techniques

5.2.2.1. Moving Average Method

Simple moving average method uses simple mean of last few time intervals to forecast future demand. The number of time intervals generally varies from three to five.

Example

Calculate the forecast (using simple moving average method) for 2010 if demand were 32,36, 40,35,32,35 and 45, respectively, in each corresponding year from 2003 to 2009.

Table 5.1

Year	Demand	4-year moving average forecast
2006	32	
2007	36	
2008	40	
2009	35	
2010	32	35.75
2011	35	35.75
2012	45	35.5

The forecast for 2013 is the arithmetic mean of demand of last four years, viz. 2006 to 2012.

Forecast for 2013 is 36.75

5.2.2.2. Weighted Moving Average Method

A weighted average is any average that has multiplying factors to give different weights to different data points. But in technical analysis, a weighted moving average (WMA) has the specific meaning of weights which decrease arithmetically.

Example

Compute the forecast for 2013 using weights in the proportions of 1 : 2 : 3: 4.

Solution

Year	Demand	Weight	Weight x Demand
2006	32		
2007	36		
2008	40		
2009	35	1	35
2010	32	2	64
2011	35	3	105
2012	45	4	180
		10	384

Forecast for 2013 = $\frac{384}{10} = 38.4$

5.2.2.3. Exponential Smoothing

Exponential smoothing refers to a particular type of moving average technique applied to time series data, either to produce smoothed data for presentation, or to make forecasts. The time series data themselves are a sequence of observations. The simplest form of exponential smoothing is given by the formula.

$$F_{t+1} = F_t + \alpha e$$

Where F_{t+1} is next year forecast; F_t is current year forecast; and α is the smoothing factor, and the smoothed F_t is a simple weighted average of the latest observation D_t and the previous smoothed statistic F_{t-1}

$$0 < \alpha < 1$$

$$e = D_t - F_t$$

5.2.2.4. Regression (Time Series)

Regression methods involve determining the trend of consumption based on past consumption and project future consumption by extrapolating this trend.

Linear relationship $D = a + bT$ where $D =$ Demand, $T =$ year, a & $b =$ constants

Regression is the most commonly used technique for forecasting demand in project planning as it provides demand forecast for many years to come. The earlier methods are generally applied in operations management whereas this method is significantly useful in project management due to its longer time horizon.

Example

Determine the forecast for 2010 and 2013 using least square method for the data given below:

Year	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Demand	35	42	45	51	56

Solution

Table 5.5 represents the technique of least square method.

Least square method

Year	Demand (D)	Year (T)	T²	TD
2005	35	-2	4	-70
2006	42	-1	1	-42
2007	45	0	0	0
2008	51	1	1	51
2009	56	2	4	112
Total	229		10	51

Equation of line is

$$D = a + bT$$

$$a = \frac{\sum D}{n}$$

$$b = \frac{\sum DT}{\sum T^2}$$

$$a = 45.8; \quad b = 5.1$$

(5.9)

Forecast for 2010 is 61.1 (using $T = 3$).

Similarly, forecast for 2013 is 76.3 (using $T = 6$).

In the above example, the middle year is assigned a value of 0; if the number of data available is even, the two middle terms can be assigned value of -1 and +1, respectively, with a common difference of 2.

Financial Feasibility

6.1. Importance and Steps of Financial Feasibility

Financial feasibility is the process of identifying the overall investment outlay, determining expected rate of returns and evaluating project financially.

Financial feasibility is crucial for any organization as:

- It influences the firm's growth in long term
- It affects risk of the firm into consideration
- It involves huge quantum of funds generally
- A wrong decision with regard to investment of huge sum of funds may prove fatal for an existing firm. A careful analysis of cash outflows and inflows is essential before applying any capital budgeting technique.

Capital budgeting is the process of identifying, evaluating and selecting a project that requires large sums of funds and generates long-term benefits in future.



Figure 6.1 Steps in financial analysis

The various steps involved in financial analysis are

- **Estimation of cost of project:** There are various components of the cost of project. It mainly consists of two types of costs, fixed investment and working capital. The cost of project includes all costs incurred before commissioning of commercial production (manufacturing projects) or operations (service projects).
- **Estimation of project cash flows:** This estimate involves all the project cash flows during the life cycle of the project. It includes the initial investments, cash flows generated during operations, and at the termination of a project.
- **Estimation of expected rate of return:** For financing a project, there are many sources of funds. After careful evaluation, we design optimum capital structure for the firm. The expected return from the project includes two

components, risk free component (generally weighted average cost of capital) and risk component (risk premium due to the investments).

- **Application of decision rule:** The last stage of financial analysis is to apply various tools for checking the financial feasibility of a project. Capital budgeting techniques are applied to ascertain profitability and expected returns from the project.

6.2. Components of cost of project and its estimation

Project includes all expenses incurred before commercialization of the project. It includes capital investments and all other recurring expenses (like salary, interest, etc) incurred before the completion of a project or before the project is handed over for operations.

The various components of cost of project as per the guidelines of various financing and appraising authorities are as follows:

- **Land and site development:** It includes all expenses incurred on the acquisition of land and making it suitable for implementation of the project. The various subcomponents are:
 - Purchase price of land
 - Legal and registration charges
 - Levelling of land
 - Laying of internal and approach roads
 - Boundary wall/fencing of land
 - Gates and site office
 - Tubewell and electrification for project implementation
 - Any other expenses of similar nature
- **Construction cost:** This cost includes expenses incurred on the construction of factory/non-factory buildings of all nature including RCC, PCC, etc. Different factory buildings are:
 - Production shed
 - Boiler house
 - Transformer room / generator room
 - Workshop
 - Laboratory, etc.

The various non-factory buildings are:

- Warehouse

- Stores
 - Security house
 - Workers' rest room
 - Parking
 - Time office/excise room
 - Administrative block
 - Essential quarters for workers
 - Canteen
- **Plant and machinery:** This is generally the biggest cost in manufacturing projects. It comprises the overall cost of imported and indigenous machinery including its erection and foundation cost. The following costs are included under this head:
- Basic cost of equipment
 - Excise/custom duty and sales tax
 - Transshipment cost (from vendor to site) and insurance during transportation
 - Erection and foundation cost
 - Piping cost
- **Technical know-how:** Whether generated or transferred, technology has its own cost. This technical know-how cost includes:
- Basic cost of technology development or purchase
 - Training cost for employees
 - Royalty paid (if lump sum)
- **Utility:** Utilities are common facilities used for various plants of the same organization. This seems similar to plant and machinery cost, but the difference lies in the fact that utilities are used for various plants whereas plant and machinery is for individual plant.
- Boiler
 - Compressor
 - Generator/transformer
 - Underground/overhead water tank
 - Effluent treatment plant
- **Miscellaneous fixed assets:** There are various costs which are not included in the costs, mentioned before. They are termed miscellaneous fixed assets:
- Furniture/fixtures
 - Computers/fax/printers and accessories
 - Vehicles

- Weigh bridge
- **Preliminary expenses:** These include market survey expenses, public issue expenses and interest during implementation.
- **Preoperative expenses:** These include the normal expenses such as salary and rent incurred by an enterprise prior to commercial production. This also includes travelling expense, company formation expense, commissioning expense, trial run costs, etc.
- **Contingency:** This is cushion fund kept for some foreseen over expenditures or some unforeseen expenses.
- **Margin money for working capital:** Working capital is generally financed through short-term sources of finance.

6.3. Working Capital Estimations

Working capital is referred to as operating capital. Working capital should just be adequate: A higher working capital will mean underutilization of funds and a lower working capital may hinder smooth operations.

Various determinants of working capital are

- Raw material inventory (less creditors)
- Work in progress inventory
- Finished goods inventory
- Debtors
- Cash (less bills payables)

6.4. Project cash flows

Project cash flows differ from financial cash flows during operations. Project cash flows can be classified into three types, viz. initial outlay, operating cash flow, and terminal cash flow.

Types of cash flows

Initial outlay	Fixed investment + working capital	Generally outflow	Generally in 0 th year
Operating cash Flow	EBIT – tax + depreciation	Generally inflow	From 1 st year to <i>r</i> th year
Terminal cash flow	Salvage value + working capital	Inflow	<i>r</i> th year

EBIT is Earning before Interest and Tax

Operating cash flow is calculated without considering interest as an expense. Initial outlay is generally before the project starts, but when there is capacity enhancement or increase in sales, there is additional outlay in next years. One should be careful in computing working capital. It should be made available one year in advance. For example, working capital of Rupees 2 millions is needed in the second year. There is working capital available for Rupees 1.5 millions in the first year, additional Rupees 0.5 millions should be considered in the first year's cash flow as first year's cash flow is basically at the end of first year or starting of second year.

Initial outlay is generally in the zero's year, but sometimes additional working capital requirement in succeeding years or reduction in working capital in succeeding years may incur addition or subtraction. Operating cash flow is non cash expenditure (like depreciation) added to net profit after tax.

Salvage value and redemption of working capital is considered as terminal cash flow in the last year of project life. The sum of the three cash flows in corresponding years is project cash flow.

Format of calculation of project cash flow

Year	0	1	2	3	4	5
Initial Outlay	FI + WC	Add. WC	Add. WC	Add. WC	Add. WC	-
Operating cash flow	-	EBIT – Tax + Depr.				
Terminal cash flow	-	-	-	-	-	SV + WC
Project cash flow	Sum of all 3	Sum of all 3	Sum of all 3	Sum of all 3	Sum of all 3	Sum of all 3

FI is fixed investment; WC is working capital; Depr. Is depreciation; SV is salvage value. It should be noted that only real expenses are considered in cash flows and not the accounting expenses like preliminary expenses written off or written down over heads.

Project Financing

7.1 Sources of long-term finance

The major classification of long-term sources is debt financing (outsider's liability) and equity financing (insider's liability)

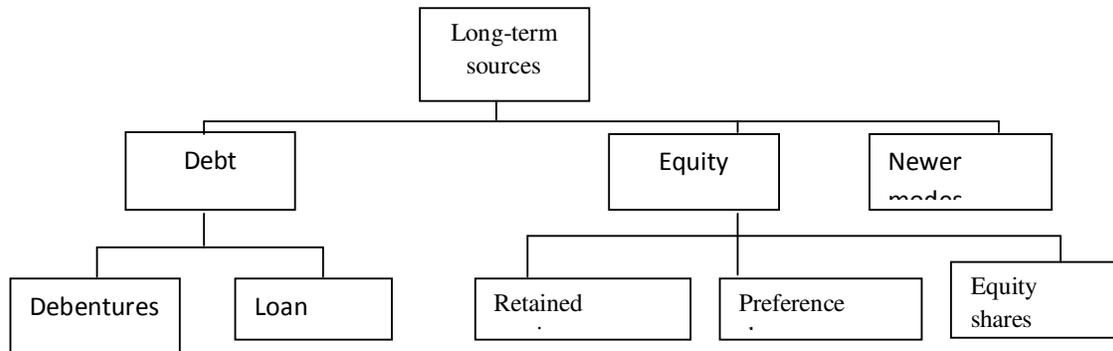


Figure 7.1 Source of Long-term finance

7.1.1. Debt Financing

Debt funds are the outsider's liability. The funding agencies evaluate the project and provide finance for the same with predetermined terms of returns and repayments. The repayment schedule is predetermined and so is the interest rate. The term, or time limit to pay a debt, is generally commensurate with the value of an item or investment. Business and governmental bodies carry long-term debt in the form of loans or bonds.

Loans are taken from institutes or banks and are paid back with an agreed interest rate. Bonds or debentures are similar to loans, but are usually purchased by individuals or other businesses.

7.1.1.1. Types of Debts

There are two broad classifications of debts: loans and debentures

Loans

Loans are the most common source of financing. There are several development banks/institutions and commercial banks providing finance with a

predefined rate of interest. The repayment schedule is also predefined. Repayments are generally made in installments (quarterly/semi annually/annually) whereas interest payment is generally on quarterly basis in India. There are various banks/institutes providing loans. Some of them are:

- **Central financial institutions/development banks:** Financial intuitions like IFCI (Industrial Financial Corporations of India), IRBI (Industrial Reconstruction Bank of India), and development banks like IDBI (Industrial Development Bank of India), ICICI Bank, SIDBI, GIC, EXIM, etc.
- **State Financial Corporations (SFCs):** All major states have their own SFC for funding medium sized projects. They all are refinanced by IDBI. For example, APSFC (Andhra Pradesh State Financial Corporation) in Andhra Pradesh, UPFC (Uttar Pradesh Financial Corporation), etc.
- **State Industrial Development Corporations (SIDCs):** The role of SIDC is not restricted to financing but they are also responsible for zones for industrial developments and infrastructural facility. Pithampur (near Indore) and Mandideep (near Bhopal) are developed by MPAKVN (Madhya Pradesh Audhyogic Kendra Vikas Nigam), Similarly, MIDC (Maharashtra Industrial Development Corporation) and GIDC (Gujarat Industrial Development Corporation) have developed a number of industrial areas in their respective states and contributed towards its development.
- **Commercial banks:** All commercial banks finance long-term debt at a predefined rate of interest, generally with collateral security. Both nationalized and private commercial banks are playing a major role in financing agro industries and service projects.
- **Private financing:** Private companies and NBFC are also providing long-term loans for projects.
- **International financial institutions :** These institutions provide funding to the projects of great magnitude. World Bank, International Finance Corporation, Asian Development Bank, Overseas Economic Co – operation Fund, etc.

7.1.1.2. Debentures

Debentures are loans that are usually secured and are said to have either fixed or floating charges with them. They are different from loans as loan is provided by a bank or an institution whereas debenture is funded by public or group of people.

A secured debenture is one that is specifically tied to the financing of a particular asset such as a building or a machine. Then, just like a mortgage for a private house, the debenture holder has a legal interest in that asset and the company cannot dispose of it unless the debenture holder agrees. If the debenture is for land and/or buildings, it can be called a mortgage debenture.

Debenture holders have the right to receive their interest payments before any dividend is payable to shareholders and, most importantly, even if a company makes a loss, it still has to pay its interest charges.

If the business fails, the debenture holders will be preferential creditors and will be entitled to the repayment of all of their money before the shareholders receive anything. This provides safety to the holders of debentures.

7.1.2. Equity Financing

Although owners of equity instruments are the owners of a company, it is actually equity shareholders who are the real owners of the company. There are various sources of equity financing.

- Preference shares
- Equity shares
- Returned earnings

7.1.2.1. Preferential Shares

Preference shares offer their owners preferences over ordinary shareholders. There are two major differences between ordinary and preference shares:

1. Preference shareholders are often entitled to a fixed dividend even when ordinary shareholders are not.
2. Preference shareholders cannot normally vote at general meetings.

7.1.2.2. Equity Shares

Equity shareholders are the true owners of the company. They have the voting rights and right on all the remainder profit after paying interest to debt and preferential dividends. Who owns Reliance Industries? Mukesh Ambani? No, he is just holding majority stake of the company, and so is controlling the company. All shareholders of Reliance industries are the owners of the company. The equity shares are generally not subjected to buy back and under no circumstances can an equity shareholders be forced for the buy back. Companies may offer a buy back but

can never force buy back on shareholder. Returns to shareholders are in the form of dividends, right shares or bonus shares. Generally, the return expected by shareholders is in the form of increased market prices. Future aspects, profits, reserves and all the aspects of the company are depicted by its share prices. The value of the company is determined by market price/share x No. of shares issued.

7.1.2.3. Retained Earnings

Retained earnings is the cheapest of equity source of capital. Companies do not declare dividends equal to their earnings; they retain some portions of their earnings for various reasons. One of the major reasons is future prospects. Such reserves are used as source of funding of a new project (generally in the case of brown field projects).

7.2. Short-Term Sources for Working Capital

The various short term sources of funds are

- **Cash credit limit/overdraft by banks:** This is a form of loan provided by a bank. This is a cheaper means of fund as interest is payable on the amount which is withdrawn on a particular date. Banks offer a drawing limit to business for meeting its requirement of funds for working capital needs for raw material storage, work in progress, finished goods stock and debtors.
- **Commercial papers:** Commercial paper is an unsecured, short-term debt instrument issued by a company, typically for the financing of accounts receivable, inventories and meeting short-term liabilities.
- **Factoring:** Factoring is a financial option used for the management of receivables.
- **Hundies:** It is very ancient source of financing short-term funds. A firm needing short-term funds for meeting its working capital needs raise the funds privately at a predefined rate of interest through money market. This is generally dependent on the goodwill earned by the borrower.
- **Trade credit:** Firm do take advantage of their good will during purchasing goods on credit thus reducing working capital requirement. Many firms also take deposits from their distributors which in turn provide them funds for working capital. Some firms also sell their product after receiving advances, which also provide funds for their working capital requirement.

7.3. Newer Sources of Finance

7.3.1 International financing: The International Finance Corporation (IFC), the Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA), and International Project Financing Agency (IPFA) give loans to promote private sector, corporate investment in developing countries, under the theory that such investment will provide economic growth. Other major sources of international financing include Euro Currency loans, Euro Bonds, Global Depository Receipt and American Depository Receipts.

7.3.2. Leasing: Lease is an agreement between two parties, the lessee and the lessor. The lessor purchases capital goods for the use of the lessee and the lessee uses it by payment of predefined rentals. The lessee continues to be the owner of the asset. Leasing is generally used for financing capital goods.

7.3.3. Hire purchase: It is a form of installment credit. Hire purchase is similar to leasing with the exception that ownership of the goods passes to the hire purchase customer as soon as the final installment is paid, whereas a lessee never becomes the owner of the goods.

7.3.4. Venture Capital Financing

Venture capital is the capital provided by outside inventors for financing of new, innovative or struggling business. Venture capital investments generally are high risk investments, but offer the chance for above average returns. A venture capitalist (also called angel investor) is a person who makes such investments. A venture capital funds is a pooled investment vehicle (often a partnership) that primarily invests the financial capital of third-party investors in enterprises that are too risky for the standard capital markets or bank loans. A venture capitalist is an expert not only in acquiring capital, but can also provide support and direction to early start-ups.

The Process

- **Deal origination:** Deals may be referred to the VCs through their parent organizations, trade partners, industry associations, friends, etc. There are various consultants like Mckinsey conduct quiz and competition to search out novel ideas.

- **Preliminary screening:** Venture capitalists carry out initial screening of all projects on the basis of some broad criteria like investment, risk, technology, and market scope.
- **Due diligence:** This is the step of detailed evaluation of the proposals. There are various criteria, but there are 11 guidelines given by I.M. Pandey from IIM Ahmedabad; integrity, urge to grow, long-term vision, commercial orientation, critical competence vis-à-vis venture, ability to evaluate and react to risk, well-thought out strategy to remain ahead of competition, high market growth rate, expected return over 25% p.a. in five years, managerial skills, marketing skills.
- **Deal structuring:** After evaluating the project, it is time to finalize the terms and condition for the deal. The venture capitalist and the investment company negotiate the terms of the deal and decide the terms and conditions of the deal.
- **Exit:** Venture capital fund is not a permanent fund, it has to withdraw after a particular period of time, 5-10 years. There are various ways to exit. The most common way is an IPO (Initial Public Offer). Some others are the investee company re-purchase the shares, or shares are sold to a third party, or the firm itself is sold.

Financial Analysis

8.1 Ratio Analysis

Return on investment: This measures overall return on overall investments.

$$ROI = \frac{EBIT - Tax}{Investment}$$

EBIT is earning before interest and taxes.

Return on equity: This measures return for shareholders.

$$ROE = \frac{EAT - Preferential dividend}{Equity}$$

EAT is earning after tax.

Operating profit margin: This measures the profitability in its gross terms.

$$OPM = \frac{EBIT}{Sales}$$

Net profit margin: This measures profitability in its true terms.

$$NPM = \frac{EAT}{Sales}$$

Break even analysis: This determines minimum quantity to be produced and sold to avoid losses. A company should not have break even efficiency of more than 50%; otherwise, it will lead to very high operating risk. Break even efficiency of 50% means that if the company performs at 50% of its installed capacity, it will not suffer losses. Moreover, only the remaining 50% production is capable of generating profits.

$$BEQ = \frac{Fixed\ cost}{Contribution/unit}$$

$$BEQ = \frac{Fixed\ cost * Sales}{Total\ Contribution}$$

$$Break\ even\ efficiency = \frac{BEQ}{Installed\ capacity} = \frac{Fixed\ cost}{Total\ contribution}$$

Debt service coverage ratio: This is the ratio which shows the proportion of earnings utilized for servicing debt. Ideally, DSCR should be Two. But it depends upon debt proportion or debt equity ratio. A company with lower D/E ratio should have a higher DSCR as compared to a company with higher D/E ratio.

$$\text{DSCR} = \frac{\text{EAT} + \text{Interest}}{\text{Interest} + \text{Loan repayment}}$$

Let us take an example to understand the ratio mentioned above.

EXAMPLE

A company is planning to invest Rs. 400 lacs in a project which will be financed with Rs. 240 lacs of debt @ 11% and the remaining through equity. The company is expecting variable cost to be 60% of sales and fixed cost to be Rs. 125 lacs. The company plans to repay loan in ten equal installments together with interest on outstanding loan. Determine financial feasibility of the project if projected sales is Rs. 500 lacs every year and tax rate is 30%.

Solution:

Sales	= Rs. 500 lacs	
Variable cost	= Rs. 300 lacs (60%)	
Fixed cost	= Rs. 125 lacs	
EBIT	= Rs. 75 lacs	
Interest	= Rs. 26.4 lacs (11% of Rs. 240 lacs)	
EBT	= Rs. 48.6 lacs	
Tax	= Rs. 14.58 lacs (30%)	
EAT	= Rs. 34.02 lacs	
ROI	= 60.42/400	= 15.1%
ROE	= 34.02/160	= 21.25%
OPM	= 75/500	= 15%
NPM	= 34.02/500	= 6.84%
Break even efficiency		= 80.7%
DSCR (1 year)		= 1.2

Working notes:

EBIT – Tax = Rs.75 lacs – Rs.14.58 lacs = Rs.60.42 lacs

Equity = Total investment – Loan = Rs.400 lacs – Rs.240 lacs = Rs.160 lacs

$$\text{Break even efficiency} = \frac{\text{Fixed cost}}{\text{Total contribution}} = \frac{\text{Rs. 125 lacs} + \text{Rs. 26.4 lacs}}{\text{Rs. 200 lacs}} = 80.7\%$$

Note: Fixed cost also includes interest cost for break even analysis.

$$\text{DSCR} = \frac{\text{EAT} + \text{Interest}}{\text{Interest} + \text{Loan repayment}} = \frac{\text{Rs. 340.02 lacs} + \text{Rs. 26.4 lacs}}{\text{Rs. 26.4 lacs} + \text{Rs. 24 lacs}} = 1.1988$$

Analyzing the above ratios, we can comment that although the project is lucrative from the angle of ROI and ROE but the project is having very high break even efficiency and lower NPM and DSCR. The company should try to reduce the fixed cost and debt proportion. That will improve DSCR and break even efficiency, otherwise, this project is not feasible as it is having very high risk associated with it.

8.2 Techniques of Capital Budgeting

There are various techniques used for capital budgeting. They can broadly be classified as non-discounting and discounting techniques.

Non-discounting techniques are those techniques which do not consider time value of money. Discounting techniques take time value of money into account. All the methods of capital budgeting are depicted in **Figure. 8.1**

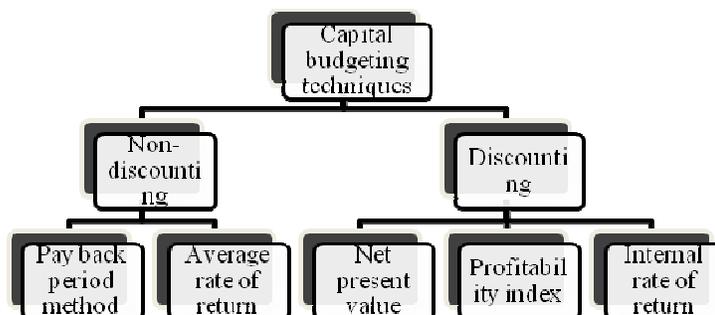


Figure: 8.1 Capital budgeting techniques.

8.2.1. Pay Back Period Method

Payback period is the easiest method to assess financial feasibility. Payback period is the time period in which the investor gets back his invested money in fixed assets from the project.

For example, Mr. Mehta invests Rs. 200 lacs in a project and he is projecting cash flow of Rs. 50 lacs every year. Then, his payback period is 4 years. A better project always has a lower pay back period.

$$\text{Pay Back Period} = Y_0 - \frac{\text{Cu. CF}_0}{\text{CF}_1}$$

where Y_0 is the year just before the pay back is attained.

Cu. CF_0 is cumulative cash flow of Y_0

CF_1 is cash flow of pay back year

Example

A company is projecting a cash flow of Rs. 30 lacs in the first year and the cash flow is going to increase @ Rs. 10 lacs every year for 4 years, after which the cash flow will start decreasing @ 15 lacs every year and thus will be closed after 5 years. The fixed investment for the project is Rs. 120 lacs and working capital requirement is Rs. 20 lacs. The company foresees to fetch a net salvage value of Rs. 35 lacs after 5 years.

Solution

Year	Cash flow	Cumulative cash flow
0	- 140	-140
1	30	-110
2	40	-70
3	50	-20
4	60	40
5	45	

All Rs. in lacs and investment is assumed in the zero year.

The year where cumulative cash flow becomes positive is identified (4th year). For computing exact Pay Back Period we apply the formula

$$\text{Payback period} = 3 - \frac{-20}{60} = 3.33 \text{ or } 3 \text{ years } 4 \text{ months}$$

Note: Salvage value and working capital are not considered in calculating cash flows.

8.2.2 Average Rate of Return

It considers the cash flows after the payback period and considers working capital and salvage value. The average return is the ratio of average return and average investment.

$$\text{Average rate of return (ARR)} = \frac{\text{Average return}}{\text{Average investment}}$$

$$\text{Average return} = \frac{(\sum_0^n CF)}{n} = \left(\frac{CF_0 + CF_1 + \dots + CF_n}{n} \right)$$

$$\text{Average investment} = 1/2 (\text{Initial investment} + \text{Terminal cash flow}) = 1/2\{(\text{FI} + \text{WC}) + (\text{WC} + \text{SV})\} = \text{WC} + 1/2(\text{FI} + \text{SV})$$

FI is Fixed Investment, WC is Working Capital and SV is Salvage Value.

8.2.3 Time Value of Money

Rs.20,000 after 3 years or Rs.20,000 now.

Which offer will one select?

Certainly, everyone will go for the money now. That shows that time matters. Present value of money is more than equivalent amount in future. The time value of money is money's potential to grow in value over time.

Money available today is worth more than the same amount of money in the future, based on its earning potential. This principle asserts that money can earn interest and grow, and so any amount of money is worth more the sooner a person has it so that that person can put it to use now rather than later.

Recalling the formula for compound interest

$$\text{Compound amount} = \text{Principal} (1 + r)^n$$

$$\text{Or, we can write Principal} = \text{compound amount}/(1 + r)^n$$

$$\text{Or, Present value of money} = \text{Future value} \times \text{Present value factor}$$

$$\text{where present value factor (PVF)} = 1/(1 + r)^n$$

R = Discounting factor

N = No. of periods

Some important terms as used in time value of money are discussed here.

Present value: Any value that occurs at the beginning of the problem is a present value. As zero is good baseline, all cash flows are converted into their present value for analysis.

Future value: The last cash flow is generally called *future value*. It can be understood as the cash transaction taking place after certain duration of time. If the same amount is transacted after a regular interval, it is termed *annuity*.

Annuity payment: As per literary meaning, an annuity payment means the yearly payment that occurs every year for more than one year. But in financial terms, the duration may not be yearly, it may be less as well, say quarterly, monthly, weekly, etc., but the duration between two successive payments remains constant. Each payment, if taken alone, is a future value, but together they make an annuity. It is important that annuity value is the sum of present values for the interest rate for n years and it starts from the first year.

Discounting factor (r): Discounting factor is the expected returns per unit period over the life of the project or investment. It is necessary to understand that if annuity is for quarterly payments or transactions, the annual expected return should be reduced to one quarter for computational purpose. Similarly, if transactions are made monthly, the annual expected return should be adjusted to $1/12^{\text{th}}$.

Number of periods (n): The total number of periods in any annuity is very important as they define the value of any annuity. It should again be noted that if transactions are done yearly, it is the number of years, but in the situation of quarterly payments, the number of periods should be quadrupled the number of years.

Example

Mr. Roy wishes to invest some money for future need of Rs. 2 lacs after 5 years. How much should he deposit in the bank if the bank, is offering an interest rate of 9% per year? What should be the invested amount if interest is paid semi annually?

Solution

$$\text{Present value} = \frac{500000}{(1 + .09)^5} = \text{Rs. } 3,25,000$$

If interest is paid semi-annually, $n = 10$ and $r = 4.5\%$

$$\text{Present value} = \frac{500000}{(1 + .045)^{10}} = \text{Rs. } 3,18,712$$

8.2.4. Profitability Index and Net Present Value

Net present value is the most common approach used in the field of financial investment analysis. It is very simple to use and evaluates on the basis of wealth maximization objective. It is defined as the difference between the present value of cash inflows and the present value of cash outflows. Profitability index is the ratio of inflows and outflows whereas net present value (NPV) is the difference between the two.

The advantage of NPV are:

1. Considers all cash flows.
2. Considers time value of money.
3. Computes contribution towards wealth creation.
4. Allows expected change in cost of capital.

The limitation of NPV is, it:requires pre-determination of discounting factor.

Example

Determine profitability index and net present value assuming discounting factor as 10%.

Solution

Cash flows are multiplied with the present value factor of the corresponding year to calculate present value for the year. The sum total of all negative and positive present value is net present value. The ratio of positive and negative cash flow is profitability index.

Year	Cash flow	PVF (10%)	PV
0	-160	1	-160
1	30	0.9091	27.27
2	40	0.8264	33.06
3	50	0.7513	37.57
4	60	0.6830	40.98
5	100	0.6209	62.09
Total			40.97

Profitability index = $200.97/160 = 1.256$

Net present value (NPV) = $200.97 - 160 = 40.97$

Project is accepted at 10% discounting as PI is greater than one and NPV is positive.

8.2.5 Internal Rate of Return

Internal rate of return is defined as the discounting rate which delivers a net present value equal to zero. It is the true interest yield from an investment. A simple decision-making criterion can be stated to accept a project if its internal rate of return exceeds the cost of capital and rejected if this IRR is less than the cost of capital.

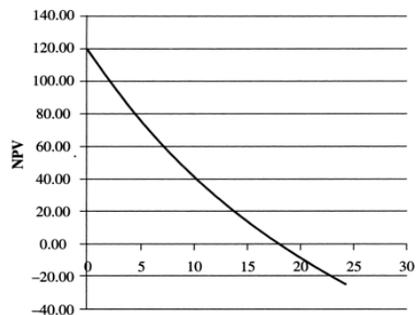


Figure: 8.2 Relation between discounting factor and NPV.

Calculating IRR is always considered a tedious process. It is done with the help of trial and error method. Continue increasing r to decrease NPV till it reaches negative. And then interpolate between the consecutive r values where it is positive and negative, respectively. This interpolation is assuming that it is a straight line. As mentioned earlier, interpolating with a difference of higher percentage (10% or less) will lead to inaccurate answer.

The interpolation formula:

$$(IRR) = r_0 + \frac{NPV_0}{NPV_1 - NPV_1}$$

where r_0 is the rate at which NPV is just positive

NPV_0 is just positive NPV

NPV_1 is just negative NPV

But we have to first ascertain rates at which NPV is just positive and just negative. This is generally a very time-consuming process of trails and error. Here, I just provide an approximation formula for IRR calculation.

$$\text{Internal Rate of Return (IRR)} = \text{Base rate} + \frac{1.7 \text{ NOV at base rate}}{n * \text{Initial investment}}$$

Example

Determine IRR for the earlier

Solution

Using the approximation formula

$$\text{IRR} = .1 + (1.7 * 40.97)/(5 * 160) = .1 + .087 = .187 = 18.7\%$$

Let us try at 18% and then 17% as 18% NPV is just negative. The following table shows calculation of net present value with discounting rates of 18% and 17%.

Year	Cash flow	18%		17%	
		PVF	PV	PVF	PV
0	-160	1	-160	1	-160
1	30	0.847	25.42	0.855	25.64
2	40	0.718	28.73	0.731	29.22
3	50	0.609	30.43	0.624	31.22
4	60	0.516	30.95	0.534	32.02
5	100	0.437	43.71	0.456	45.61
Total			-0.76		3.71

Further exact IRR is computed using the formula.

$$\text{Exact IRR} = 17 + 3.71/(3.71 - .76) = 17.84\%$$

However, if we interpolate using higher difference, we tend to receive an incorrect answer.

Computing IRR in the case of an annuity (constant cash flow)

Example

What is the IRR of a project with initial investment of Rs. 200 lacs and expected cash flow is Rs. 55 lacs for 5 years.

Solution

$$55 * (\text{PVIFA } r, 5) = 200$$

Or $PVIFA(r, 5) = 3.737$

Looking into PVIFA table, for period of 5 years, for $r = 10\%$ $PVIFA = 3.791$ and for $r = 11\%$, $PVIFA = 3.696$

Interpolating the result; $IRR = 10 + (3.791 - 3.737) / (3.791 - 3.696) = 10.48\%$

Risk Analysis

9.1. Sources of Risk in Project Management

There are various sources of risk. Any change in economy of a nation or globe, any change in price levels of inputs or outputs may lead to risk. Let us enumerate the various sources of risk.

- **Operational risk:** Any decrease in operational efficiency may lead to reduced profitability or even at times can lead to loss for the project. In some projects, the effects of decreased operational efficiency may be high or may not be high. Similarly, the possibility of variation of efficiency may vary from project to project. The breakdown of machines, demand and supply of the resources and products, shortfall of the goods and services, lack of efficient logistic and inventory may lead to inefficiency of production. Operational leverage is a measure of operational efficiency.
- **Market risk:** Although every project undergoes market potential analysis and demand forecasting, there are chances of variations due to various foreseen or unforeseen reasons, which may adversely affect market potential or sales of product or services to be rendered by the planned project. This is user acceptance risk.
- **Economic risk:** Global or national economy is always in different phases and no project can shield itself from ongoing economic changes. All projects are prone to risk of economy. Recession in economy reduces the purchasing power of the customers and thus can affect the sales or revenues of the project. It can also lead to reduce demand as well as selling price. Inflation rate varies with changes in economic situation which also affects prospects of any project.
- **Financial risk:** Any change in interest rates or cost of capital will affect the prospects of a project. A project which is feasible at the expected return of 12% may become infeasible if the expected return increases to 15%. The expected returns directly vary with interest rates. The degree of financial risk for different projects varies with its debt equity ratio and can be measured by the financial leverage.
- **Technological risk:** The failure of the selected technology is one of the biggest risks to any project. Moreover, a project may face the problem of

upgradation of technology. Many projects have failed due to inability to cope up with technological innovations. This particular source of risk is vital in the present world scenario as technology is changing very fast.

- **Commercial risk:** There is always the risk of a customer or debtor becoming insolvent. Although the company does manage and keeps provision for such bad debts, at times when the customer is a major one and the amount outstanding with him is large, it may affect the working of the project.
- **Quality risk:** Today's world is quality conscious and any degraded quality product may lead to rejections and the brand may lose its value in the long run if it is not able to maintain quality norms as per the customer's requirement.
- **Legal or regulatory risk:** Political environment of a country may lead to changes in legal or regulatory changes and may cause risk due to new taxes being imposed or barriers to imports or exports being introduced.
- **International risk:** If international prices with addition of transaction cost (transportation cost and duties) becomes less than domestic prices, there is an import threat. Any change in foreign exchange rates also affects projects with international exposure. A devaluated Indian currency may adversely affect a project which is dependent on imports of goods or services. Similarly, devaluation of foreign exchange may adversely affect project which are export oriented. Risk of war, imposition of export or import bans and change in political scenario of a country can also lead to risk in project involving international business.

92. Managing Risk

The various steps in managing risk are as follows:



Figure: 9.1 Risk Management

- **Identification of risk:** There are various methods used for risk identification. They are:
 - **Objective related risk identification:** The activities of the project are not in coherence with the objectives of the project.
 - **Source based risk identification:** The sources or the stakeholders of the project are not as per expectations.
 - **Industry based risk identifications:** The overall sector of industry may not be in a good shape.
 - **Economy related risk identification:** The project is not fulfilling the desired performance due to poor economic conditions in aggregate.
 - **Time based risk identification:** The project is running far behind the desired schedule.
 - **Financial ratio based risk identification:** This is one of the most common methods of risk identification. Various financial ratios reveal the project getting riskier.
- **Mapping out causes of risk and constraints involved:** Identify the cause/causes of the risk. There can either be one cause or more than one possible causes for the risk involved. The project owner should search as many possible causes as possible. There can be financial, economic, marketing, production or technology constraints. The cause identified may be varied in the boundaries of constraints. For example, there is a high deviation in the cost of production; the cause can be poor efficiency of the organization.
- **Quantifying the risk:** Various methods are used for quantifying the risk.
- **Develop the alternatives:** There can be various methods of reducing the risk, although it is not possible to eliminate it totally. There are various methods of risk management which are as follows:
 - **Mitigation:** It is the process of reducing either the probability or consequence of an event which can cause threat to the project. This includes financial, marketing or other measures.

- **Sharing:** if a project is expected to have a higher risk, it can be shared with some other firm using joint ventures to reduce the risk.
- **Outsourcing:** This is a very common methodology used in recent years to reduce the risk. The riskier component is outsourced. Outsourcing can also be very helpful in the situation where huge capital investment is the cause of risk.
- **Diversification:** Diversification is a very common methodology suggested since ages to reduce the risk. Diversification to a product or project with high negative correlation can reduce the risk of both the projects and products to a great extent.
- **Abandonment:** If a project is exposed to risk which is not manageable then, the project should be abandoned before its useful life. This is possible when exit is possible.
- **Retention:** Risk retention is a viable strategy for small risks. All risks that are not reduced or transferred are retained by default. In this situation, the firm should always be in a position to sustain itself in the occurrence of threatening event.
- **Contingency funding:** Contingencies are reserved for additional cost due to inflation or non-predicted costs. This eliminates sudden funding requirement during project implementation.
- **Time buffers:** Managers tend to start the activities at the latest start times as a human practice. A too much crashing leads to problem in practical applications. Thus, some time buffers are kept for certain activities.
 - **Selection of best alternative:** After developing various alternatives, the next step for risk management is to select the best alternative, which is cheap and easily manageable.
 - **Creation of risk management plan:** The selected risk management strategy should always be implemented properly to obtain the result. The project manager should plan the strategy and share with all the stakeholders. Individuals should be assigned responsibilities. In the event of risk retention strategy, guidance should be provided to top management and the operations management team to implement the measures in the situation of occurrence

of threatening event. The top management should be well aware of the action plan and the risk involved.

- **Implementation:** The project manager should lead the team to implement the plan. Constraints should always be identified and quantified before the implementation of risk reduction plans. Coordination between the project manager and his team is crucial in the success of the plan.
- **Review:** This is the phase, many a time, avoided by managers. But this is a very important activity as review may help in further improvement (reduction of risk to a greater extent). Moreover, if the desired results are not obtained, then some more steps may be required which are identified during the review phase.

Project Control through Networks

10.1. Work Breakdown Structure (WBS)

Work breakdown structure, as the name suggests, is breaking the project systematically into successive levels. But work breakdown structure is not limited to disintegration or breaking down; it also develops linkages between various tasks or activities. The breakdown can be:

1. **Agency-oriented:** In this type of breakdown, different agencies or type of agencies are allocated to a group or individual. For example, dealing with civil contractors, equipment suppliers, liasoning with government bodies.
2. **Function-oriented:** Like departmentalisation, the activities are divided on the basis of type of work. A project can be divided into engineering works, accounting works, financial works, procurement works, and human resource works, and so on.
3. **Location-oriented:** This type of WBS is generally useful when the project is multi-locational.
4. **Cost-orientation:** Different cost centres are identified and allocated to various groups or individuals.
5. **Life cycle-oriented:** There exists a project life cycle, so work can be divided on the basis of different phases of life cycle, like identification team, planning team, implementation team, and so on.

The WBS is depicted in Figure. 1.1

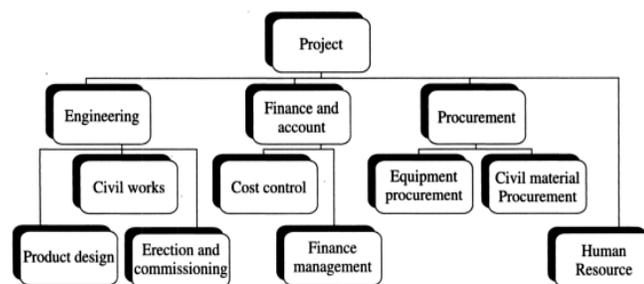


Figure: 1.1 Work breakdown structure on functional basis.

10.2. Gantt Chart

Henri Gantt (1861-1919) developed the bar charts to visualize the progress of activities on time scale. Due to his contribution in the field, he is also called *father of*

project management. In the charts, the top line shows the time scale and various activities as recognized by WBS are systematically written on vertical line. Individual activities are drawn on time scale, the starting date and finishing date mentioned.

This helps the project management team to identify the current situation of the project. They can find out how much they are lagging behind or leading in the planned schedule of the project.

Figure 10.2 describes a typical bar chart of a small industrial project. The development of plan is done in the first week. Identification of resources will start in the second week and will last for two weeks, to be completed by the end of third week. Total project will be implemented in eight weeks as per plans.

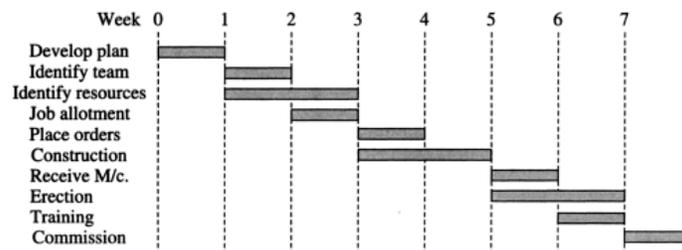


Figure: 1.2 Gantt chart

10.3 Networks

Network is a diagrammatic representation of various activities showing their interdependencies and dependencies, without drawing on scale. Networks are the most commonly used tool for planning and controlling any project.

Before discussing types of networks, we should understand various terms.

Activity: A specific task or group of tasks which are essential for completion of a project. They have their own resource requirement and time.

Event: This can be defined as milestones, which depict starting or ending of an activity.

Critical activities: The identified activities which are crucial for completion of the project on scheduled time. Any delay in these activities will lead to delay in the project schedule.

Critical path: It is the sequence of critical activities. It is the longest path starting from the start of a project and leading to the end of the project. A network can have multiple critical paths.

Predecessor: All those activities are called predecessors of an activity which are essential to be completed before starting the activity.

Successors: A set of all those activities which cannot be started before the activity itself is not finished. The dependent activities are called successor activities.

Concurrent activities: Those set of activities which can be done during the same duration as they are not dependent on each other.

Dummy activities: Those activities which do not consume resource or time. They are just drawn to depict the dependencies between some activities and avoid crossing.

10.4. Applications of Project Networks

The applications of project networks are as follows:

1. **Detailed project planning:** In large projects in which time span may be as large as few months to few years, a network diagram provides helpful tool in correlation of various activities. It is helpful in identifying crucial activities (critical activities).
2. **Project control:** It is very helpful in developing Gantt chart and schedule bar charts, which are essential for tracking a project. It can be helpful in identifying the lagging and leading activities, which is essential to control the project. As tasks are completed on time, or over time, the number of time units used can accurately display. Resources from the leading activities can be transferred to lagging activities to complete those on time. It is helpful in identifying the impact of delay caused by a particular activity. Identification or diagnosis of a problem is always helpful in solving it.
3. **Cost control:** Some activities which are crucial can be completed earlier than their normally expected schedule by paying some extra cost or employing some additional resources. This can be helpful in completing the project earlier and provide the organisation with saved indirect cost as well as opportunity costs.
4. **Resource control:** Some activities which are not critical and have some additional time available can always be eased out and their resources can be

utilised in critical activities to get them completed more efficiently with respect to time.

10.5 Fulkerson's rules for Activity on Arch (AOA) Networks

Dr. D.R. Fulkerson gave some set of rules to be followed for drawing a network on AOA basis.

1. All projects should start and end at one and one point only.
2. Activities are represented by arrows and depicted by small alphabets (a, b, c, ...). No two different activities are depicted by same alphabet and vice versa.
3. Events are depicted by points and are labeled by numerals (1, 2, 3, ...). Numbering should always be from left to right in increasing order. No activity can start at a higher event and end at a lower event.
4. Any two or more activities can be burst activities (starting at the same event but ending at different events) as in Figure 10.3 (a). Similarly any two or more activities can be merge activities (starting at different events but ending at the same event) as Figure 10.3 (b) but no two activities can be burst and merge simultaneously as Figure 10.3 (c). Either of the starting or ending event should be different. All starting activities are burst activities and all ending activities are merge activities.

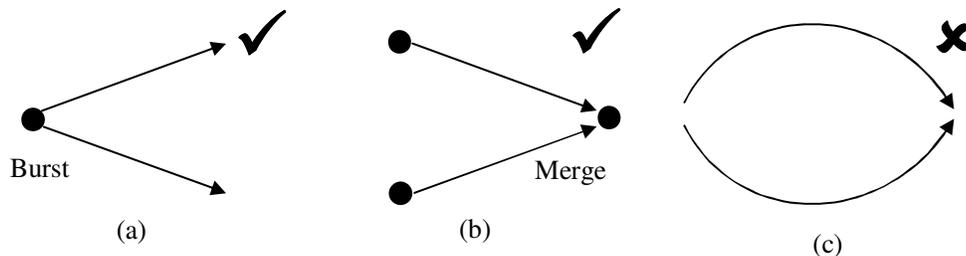


Figure 1.3: Burst/merge activities.

1. Avoid using arch, Figure 10.4 (a); try to depict every activity by a straight arrow like in Figure 10.4 (b).

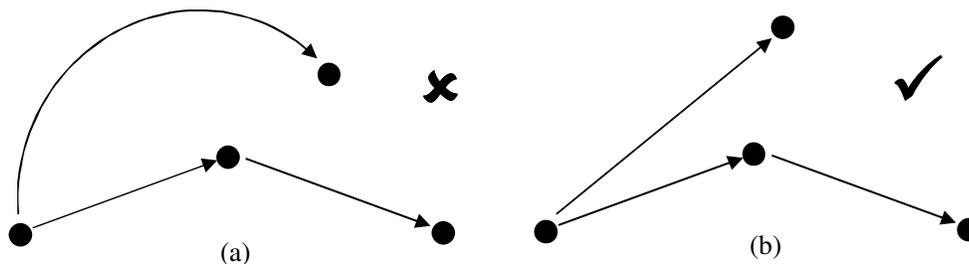


Figure 1.4: Fulkerson's rule regarding arch.

2. Minimize the number of dummy activities used.

3. Crossing of activities is generally not permitted, Figure 10.5 (a) and Figure 10.5 (b), but if it is essential, then only dummy activities should be crossed.

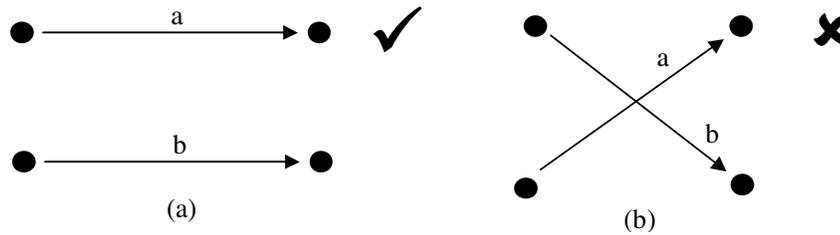


Figure 1.5: Fulkerson's rule regarding crossing of activities.

10.6. Network construction

Let us take an example to understand the construction of a network. A civil construction firm has to build a two-storied building with scope limited to civil works alone.

The various activities identified are:

Excavation of land (a) (1-2)

Foundation laying (b) (2-3)

Beams and columns of ground floor (c) (3-5)

Walls (ground floor) (d) (3-4)

Plaster ground floor walls (e) (4-8)

Roofing of ground floor (f) (5-6)

Beams and columns of first floor (g) (5-7)

Walls of first floor (h) (6-9)

Plaster first floor walls (i) (7-9)

Roofing first floor (j) (8-9)

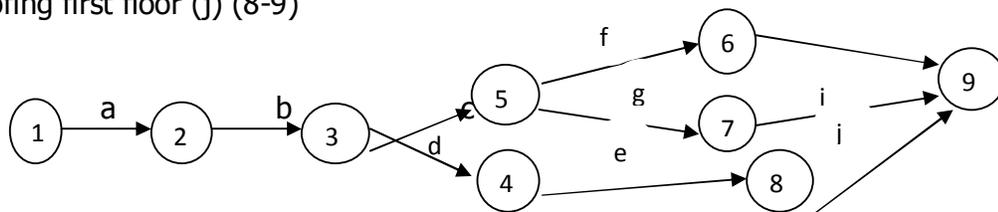


Figure: 1.6 AOA diagram for the construction of a two-storied building.

Above Figure 10.6 clearly defines the relationship between various activities. Foundation (b) cannot start unless excavation (a) is finished. Wall (c) and beams and columns (d) cannot start unless foundation (b) is completed. But these two activities, i.e. (c) and (d) are independent of each other and can go on at the same

time. They are concurrent activities as well as burst activities. Activity (e), (i) and (j) are merge activities. Project starts at one point (event 1) and ends at one point (event 9).

Now, let us find out where we need a dummy activity and how to identify whether a dummy is essential. There are four types of situations where dummy is essential.

1. When two or more of the starting activities become common precedence activity for another activity, then dummy is essential.

Example-1.1

Activity	Precedence activity
a	-
b	-
c	b
d	a, b

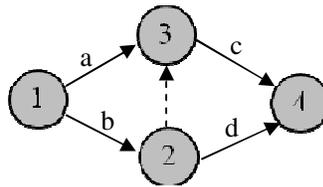


Figure: 1.7 Solution to Example-10.1

In this example, as activity (d) is dependent on both the starting activities (a) and (b), dummy is essential. Here, it should be noted that the direction of arrow is upward as activity (c) is dependent on activity (b) alone whereas activity (d) is dependent on both activity (a) and activity (b).

2. When two or more ending activities have same predecessors, the dummy is essential.

Example-1.2

Activity	Precedence activity
a	-
b	-
C	A
D	B
E	c, d
F	c, d

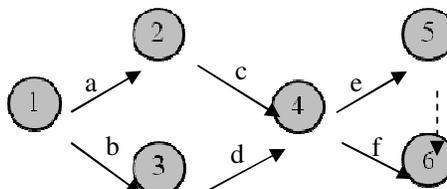


Figure: 1.8 Solution to example 1.2

In the example, the two ending activities (e) and (f) have common set of precedence activities (c, d). Therefore, dummy is essential to complete the project at one point.

3. In a situation where two or more activities have common precedence activity and become common precedence activities for another activity, then dummy is essential.

Example: 1.3

Activity	Precedence activity
A	-
B	a
C	a
D	b, c

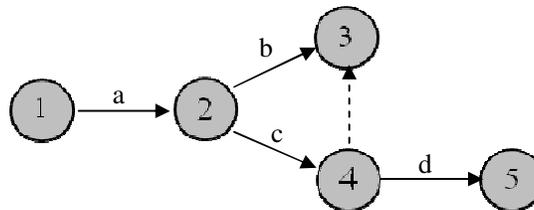


Figure: 1.9 Solution to Example-1.3

In the above cited example, activities (b) and (c) have the same precedence activity (a) and they are common precedence activity for another activity (d). Hence, dummy is unavoidable.

4. When an activity have two or more predecessors and either of the predecessors is predecessors alone for another activity or grouped with another activity as predecessor, then dummy is unavoidable.

Example-1.4

Activity	Precedence activity
A	-
B	a
C	a
D	b, c
E	c

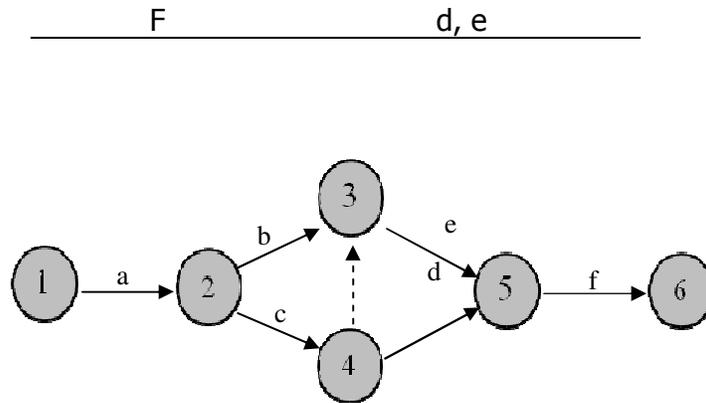


Figure: 1.10 Solution to Example-1.4

In the above example, as activities (b) and (c) are common precedence activity for activity (d) and (c) alone is precedence activity for (e). Therefore dummy is unavoidable. Note the direction of the dummy again.

10.7. Critical Path Method

A giant chemical company, DuPont, while going for a big expansion project and to determine the time needed for the completion of the expansion project, developed a network technique in 1950 and named it CPM.

Critical path: Critical path is the longest path. It gives the minimum time to complete any project.

Earliest Occurrence Time (EOT): Earliest possible time to reach an event. To reach an event, all the activities prior to that event should be completed.

Latest Occurrence Time (LOT): Latest possible time to reach an event without affecting the overall project duration.

Forward pass: When we start with starting event and keep allocating EOT in order of increasing number of events.

Backward pass: When we start with ending event and keep allocating LOT in order of decreasing number of events.

Project duration: Minimum time to complete a project. A project is completed only when all the activities involved are completed.

The steps in CPM are:

1. Construct the network and number the events.
2. Allocate zero time to EOT of starting event (1)
3. Start forward pass. Add the duration for the activity between event (1) and event (2) to EOT of event (1) and get the EOT of event (2). Continue the process to reach the last event.

In the situation where more than one activity is ending on one event, and we have two or more paths to reach one particular event, all the different possible EOTs should be noted and the maximum of these should be selected as EOT for the event.

4. Now all the events have EOT. Let us start the backward pass. LOT of last event is same as its EOT. Subtract the duration of activity from the LOT of last event and allocate it as LOT of next to last event. Continue the backward process till we reach the first event.

In the situation when more than one activity is starting from an event, compute all possible LOT for the event and select the minimum of them to allocate the LOT to the event.

5. We will find that LOT of starting event comes out to be zero. Hence, EOT and LOT of first and last events are always the same.
6. Mark all the events with same EOT and LOT. Try to draw a path or paths from starting event to last event connecting all events with same EOT and LOT. There will be at least one path. This is the critical path. Note that dummy activity has zero time, but should be considered in forward as well as backward pass.

Example-1.6

Activity	Precedence activity	Duration (days)
a	-	8
b	-	9
c	a	9
d	a, b	4
e	a	6
f	c	5
g	c, d, e	7

It can be noted that EOT of event (1) is zero.

For $EOT(2) = EOT(1) + \text{Duration of activity (a)}$.

For event (3), $EOT(3) = \text{Max. } [\{EOT(1) + \text{Duration (b)}\}, \{EOT(2) + 0\}]$

That is, $EOT(3) = \text{Max } \{(0 + 9), (8 + 0)\} = 9$

When we reach the last event (6), $EOT(6) = 24$ which is the project duration.

Now compute the LOT, starting with last event with $LOT(6) = EOT(6) = 24$

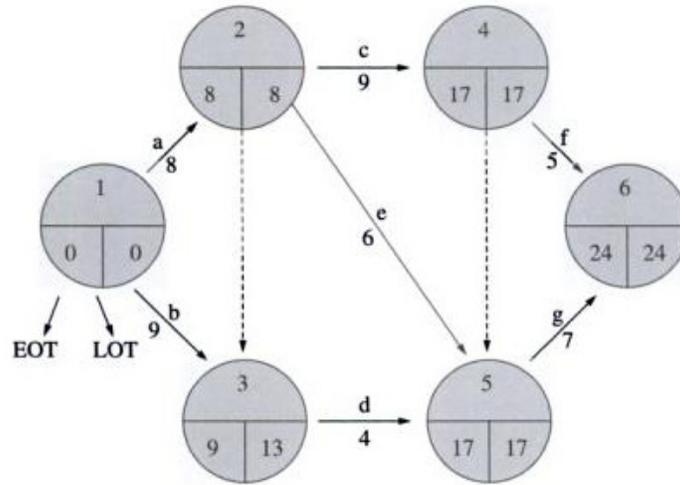


Figure: 1.2 Solution to Example-10.6

$LOT(5) = LOT(6) - \text{Duration (g)} = 24 - 7 = 17$

$LOT(4) = \text{Min } [\{LOT(6) - \text{Duration (f)}\}, \{LOT(5) - 0\}] = \text{Min. } \{(24 - 5), (17 - 0)\} = 17$

We carry on and reach event (1) with $LOT = 0$

We mark all the events with equal EOT an LOT, these are events (1, 2, 4, 5, 7).

And the critical path is the path joining all these events (1-2-4-5-7) or (a-c-g).

Dummy can be a part of critical path.

We can verify the result by adding the duration of all critical activities,

$8 + 9 + 7 = 24$ days, that is the EOT of last event.

We can also construct Gantt chart for the network as shown in below Figure.

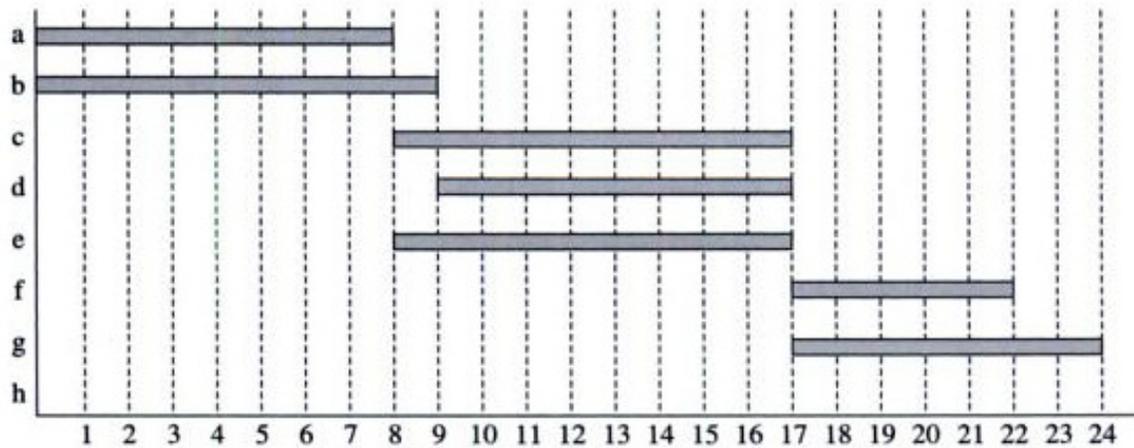


Figure: 1.13 Gantt chart for Example-6.

10.8 Slacks, Floats and their applications

Slack is the maximum delay possible for an event without affecting its overall duration.

$$\text{Slack } (j) = \text{LOT}_j - \text{EOT}_j$$

In Example below, Slack (1) = 0 - 0 = 0 and Slack (2) = 13 - 9 = 4

Floats for activities are the same as slacks are for events. So, we can define float as maximum delays possible for an activity without changing the project duration.

There are three types of floats.

1. **Total float:** It is the maximum delay possible for an activity without causing any delay in its precedence or succeeding activity.
2. **Free float:** It is the maximum delay possible for activities which will not affect the float of the successor activity.
3. **Independent float:** It is the maximum delay possible for an activity with used floats of preceding activities and will not affect the floats of succeeding activities.

$$\text{Total float } (i, j) = \text{LOT}_j - \text{EOT}_i - d(i, j) \text{ dij}$$

$$\text{Free float } (i, j) = \text{EOT}_j - \text{EOT}_i - d(i, j) \text{ dij}$$

$$\text{Independent float } (i, j) = \text{EOT}_j - \text{LOT}_i - d(i, j) \text{ dij}$$

The characteristics of float are:

Independent float \leq Free float \leq Total float

Only independent float can be negative, the rest two floats are always positive or zero.

Activities with all floats = 0, are critical activities.

The applications of floats are as follows:

1. It identifies the critical activities as well as quantify maximum delays possible for all non-critical activities.
2. It is very important in crashing of a network (reducing the time and/or cost of overall project).
3. It helps in resource allocation and smoothing

Economic and Social Cost Benefit Analysis

11.1. Social Cost Benefit Analysis

SCBA can be defined as the systematic evaluation of a concern's social performance as distinguished from its economic performance. It considers all such activities which have a social or macro economic impact. The technique of SCBA was developed by a French Engineer named Jules Dupuit in 1844. During the early stages of the 20th century, Professor A.C. Pigou, while working on welfare economics, pointed out the distinction between financial cost and benefit as against social cost and benefits. He said, "A project which may yield profit in monetary terms may not bring corresponding benefits to the society." Its practical application started in 1930 onwards. United States Government used it to analyze flood control measures in 1936.

For example, let us compare two projects, one producing cigarettes and another producing clothes. Financial gains are more in manufacturing cigarettes as per cost benefit analysis and various approaches used in capital budgeting. But it has just considered a very narrow aspect, monetary aspect, for the organization, but has it considered the effect of the products? Cigarette industry has wider effects other than monetary gains for the organization like increase in lungs or heart disease in the country, which may cost it too high. That cost is not considered while making the cost benefit analysis. Social cost benefit analysis uses broader parameters such as its impact on society and nation together with the monetary gains.

11.2. Social Costs

If any activity leads to depletion of a certain resource, it is a social cost. For example, a certain project like road quadrilateral project of the Central Government is using cement and that cement could have alternatively been used for the construction of homeless. It is a social cost. But if it is not leading to any decrease in the availability of cement for the construction of houses, it will not be a social cost.

Let us enumerate various types of social costs:

- **Environmental damage:** If any project disturbs the environment like cutting of trees or creating any type of pollution by emitting solid or liquid wasters, it is a social cost. It may be direct or indirect. An example of direct

cost is the emission from the industry and indirect can be through the vehicles used in transportation of goods.

- **Ecological imbalance:** Many projects lead to ecological imbalance such as over usage of natural resources like cutting of forests may lead to decrease in availability of habitat for many creatures. Over usage of water may lead to shortage of water. Satellite townships developed in many big cities have caused huge ecological imbalance and people are going to face problems of acute water shortage, and creatures like birds will become extinct in the area.
- **Human services used:** Manpower used in a project during implementation or during the operations might have been utilized for some other work. Thus, it is a social cost (opportunity cost). Moreover, the project may lead to illness or injuries related to the work. It may also cause occupational diseases which are social costs.
- **Material used:** Materials used in the project might have been used at some other application. Thus, it is a social cost.
- **Usage of public utility:** The project may use some public utility services like safety (police) or fire fighting, etc. It is also a social cost component.
- **Unemployment caused:** Many industries are creating problems of unemployment. Mechanization in agriculture may displace labour and their livelihood. A bridge over a river may cause unemployment for the people earning their bread through ferry services. A big industry kills many cottage or small scale industries and hence creates unemployment.
- **Depletion of energy and global warming:** Energy is a major concern in the present world. Any new organization or industry utilizes energy and thus reduces the availability of various sources of energy. The world is facing problem of energy shortage because of over usage of energy by big organizations. Over consumption of energy is leading to saturation of carbon dioxide which leads to global warming.
- **Usage of foreign exchange:** Some industries apply foreign exchange reserve of the country to procure resources like equipment or technology. This leads to decrease in foreign exchange reserve and it is a cost to the whole nation.
- **Subsidies:** Various types of subsidies like fertilizer subsidy, power subsidy or tax subsidy are again a cost to the nation, which is indirect cost to society as well.
- There are several other costs which can be identified for individual projects like increase in economic disparity, cost of soil erosion, deforestation etc.

11.3. Social Benefits

It is not that projects are only causing cost to society; they are also providing benefits to society.

Let us enumerate a few types of social benefits that a project can yield:

- **Improve environment:** Projects planned to plant trees, clean water and improve energy utilization may lead to benefit to society.
- **Products and services provided:** Projects provide many products and services to the society which improve the quality of life. A hospital, an educational institute or pharmaceutical products add to the quality of life to the society. This is an advantage for the society. A river bridge project may connect an isolated society to the rest of the society. This is again an example of social advantage.
- **Employment creation:** New projects generally provide better chances of employment for the society. Agro based projects in the city attract many unemployed people from the rural areas and help them in improving their quality of life.
- **Taxes:** Tax and excise payments made by projects during implementation and majorly after implementation are collected by government and are utilized for the benefit of the society. This is a major advantage to the society.
- **Indirect employment:** Projects always raise opportunities of indirect employment. Transporters, food and other suppliers in the area flourish as an outcome of a project in the area. The small village and the villagers of Pithampur near Indore have flourished and got huge opportunities to earn through business of either transportation or supplies to the directly employed workers or the industries developed in the area.
- **Earning foreign exchange:** Some projects earn foreign exchange through exports; others save the same through reducing imports. In both ways, they are adding to current account of foreign exchange reserve of the nation, thus, causing benefit to the nation and the society.
- **Hospital and educational facility:** Many projects which are not directly involved in the development of educational or medical facilities develop the same for the benefit of the workers which are also used by the people in the vicinity.
- **Development of backward area:** Government provides various incentives to the projects which are located in backward areas. Industrialists are

attracted by those incentives and set up their projects in the backward area. This leads to the uplift of backward areas and hence brings in better social equality.

There are many other advantages attached with individual projects such as decrease of class system, religious unity, decrease in poverty, etc. which all can be accounted as advantage or benefits to the society.

Human Aspects in Project Management

12.1. Roles of the Project Manager

The project manager acts like the captain of a ship who has all authorities and is responsible for making the ship reach the shore safely in time or the project completed with its all scope in proper time and within the cost limits. His role is integrating various resources (including material, equipment and people) to attain the objective(s).

The project manager has to play various roles during his tenure. The roles of a project manager are:

- **Entrepreneur:** The project manager may not be the owner or entrepreneur himself, but has to play the role of an entrepreneur. He is responsible for procurement of funds, facilities and people for the project. He is accountable for failure and wins all credits in the situation of success. The success of any project majorly depends upon this entrepreneur.
- **Decision maker:** The project manager is the responsible for the allocation of resources, defining project scope, managing the cost and schedules as per the plans. He is controlling the project to retain the project schedules and costs and decrease the sources of deviations.
- **Communicator:** The project manager is the central point of all communications in a project. He acts like a communication hub or a server. He collects various information and processes them. He is also responsible for communicating the methods, targets to various members of the project team. He also heads the review meetings.
- **Change agents:** The project manager brings about the changes and attempts to reduce the opposing forces developed due to change process. All changes bring in oppositional forces and they are very high especially in projects as they are generally aimed at radical changes. Eg: Introducing Bt crops
- **Motivator:** No expedition is completed successfully without committed and motivated crew members. The captain of the ship or project manager is responsible to create motivation level of his team members and maintain it through ups and downs. A project also goes through situations when it is as dark as blue moon and no success is visualized. There are the times when the

project manager's major role is to bring back the confidence of the team members in the project. He should maintain the enthusiasm and excitement of his teams. There are basically two types of motivation:

- That stimulates people for doing work
 - That refrain the workforce from fatigue
 - Motivation in project management can be brought up by
 - Making them feel meaningful for the project
 - Making them feel that it will be helpful in boosting their career
 - Not allowing them getting confused or insecure
 - Removing misbalance between perceived and received rewards.
- **Foresighted and fire fighter:** Risk is an inherent characteristic of any project. The successful project manager foresees the risk or variations and plans the route to face the possible deviations. In the situations when the unexpected is not seen and it occurs, then the project manager leads the team to face the problem like fire fighter. For example, the project manager should forecast an increase in prices of steel which is going to be there for a short span of time and accumulate the steel in advance. But if due to transport strike or some other reason, a shortage of steel occurs, then he should plan it so that the project schedule does not suffer because of the strike. He may opt for either acquiring steel from other place or project and if that is not possible, he should replant the work schedule and complete the other remaining work without steel for the period when strike is there.

12.2. Traits of Project Manager

Human Skills or Soft Skills

- **Leadership:** The project manager should be a leader instead of being a typical manager. He should be problem solver for his team and make his team feel that they have to work for him and make him successful.
- **Influencing:** A project manager should not just be influencing his team but he should be able to influence the project owners or top management. This can help him get the required resources and support for the project in a timely manner.
- **Decision making skills:** It is one of the most important skills expected of a manager. But it becomes a crucial skill for a project manager. This is because the teams and proper supportive decision makers are not generally available during project implementation and he has to take various decisions himself. A functional manager is always helped by other functional managers or experts

but a project manager may not be able to get such skillfull hands for his support in decision making process.

- **Alertness and quickness:** The project manager has to respond to problems and take fast decisions. He should be well aware about the environment as it affects the progress and effectivity of the project.
- **Communicator:** The project manager has to deal with many categories of people. It includes the project owners, the subordinate teams, the subcontractors and vendors. He needs multicomunication skills to deal with all of them simultaneously. He should set proper channels for communications and frequency of communications with various agencies.
- **Negotiating skills:** A project comprises purchasing of various equipment and contracting with many contractors and subcontractors. A project manager should possess good negotiation skills to deal with all of them.
- **Training:** Project team may or may not possess experienced staff members, the project manager has to play the role of a trainer for his team members. This also helps himself to become a leader of heart for the project team members.
- **Time management skills:** Schedule is a major success parameter of any project. Time management becomes a crucial activity in project management. The project manager should possess skills to manage the time.
- **Flexibility and versatility:** Project management cannot be completed with rigid structures and sticking religiously to the principles. A project manager should have quality of versatility and flexibility depending on the situation.
- **Presentation skills:** A project manager's first job is to get the project appraised and funded by the project manager. He should have skills t o present the project to get it appraised by the project owners and funding agencies.
- **Resourcefulness and creativity:** A project needs variety of resources during its implementation. The project may be planned to perfection, but there are still chances of unavoidable uncertainties. The project manager needs to apply his creativity to solve out the problem of inadequate resources or be resourceful to manage the gap between planning and execution.
- **Act like cheer leader:** The project manager should not be a miser in applauding or appreciating success of his team members and keep them cheerful and feel rewarded for the smallest of the successes.
- **Les bons comptes font les bons amis:** This is a French saying, which means good accounts always lead to good friends. The project manager

although seats at the apex of the project organization, he should maintain good accounts and should understand his shortcomings and mistakes. He should be willing to learn from mistakes as learning from smaller mistakes avoids big mistakes and leads to long-term success.

Hard Skills

- The project manager does have support from technical experts, but he should also have technical skills up to some extent to be able to solve problems in project implementation. He should be able to at least follow the advice of his technical staff managers.
- **Financial skills:** Cost is a major success criterion of any project. Basic knowledge of Finance and financial transaction is an essential skill required in any project manager.
- **Risk management skills:** Project management is full of risks and uncertainty. Uncertainty always leads to huge costs. The project manager should possess skill to anticipate the upcoming deviation and uncertainty as a diagnosed problem is half cured itself. Any diagnosed deviation with respect to any of the objective of the project like time, cost or scope can lead to corrective actions and keep project safe from risk or at least minimize its impact on the project. He should also have the ability to rapid planning as situations of fire fighting may arise due to unforeseen happening in the environment.
- **Generalist:** The project manager should be a generalist with the knowledge of various fields rather than specialized in one particular sector. Very high level technocrats may not be very good at project management as they may be specialized in their fields but may lack knowledge about various other fields.

12.3. Change Management

The success rate of all significant change initiatives is just 30%. Projects bring about big or radical changes and they are difficult to be absorbed by the people concerned. Newton's first law of motion (there is always inertial offered to any change of state) is applicable to human behavior. It is a big task of any project manager to bring about the change and make it acceptable by the people concerned.

Managers, especially project managers, always face big challenge offered by various people, including all stakeholders, due to change. Following steps should be taken to reduce the negative effects of change:

- **Proactive communication:** The people or stakeholders who would be affected by the project should be informed and taken in confidence. It should be conveyed in such a manner that the project's result becomes the wish of the stakeholders and they start seeking for the change. They should be well informed about the benefits of the change which are brought in. Instead of declaring the project, an environment should be built where stakeholders ask for the project implementation.
- **Encourage middle level management:** Middle level managers can play an important role in reducing resistance change. They are in direct association and regularly in touch with other two levels of management. They should be communicated the results of the projects and support should be asked from them.
- **Avoid over communications:** Sometimes, over communication also leads to increased resistance to change. Grapevine communications should not be motivated during change management as it often results in greater resistance.
- **Make the change process gradual:** The change process should be gradual and slowed down to reduce the negative effects. Let it be absorbed by the concerned people. It is always difficult to digest a different food early, so let it be a slow process.

It should be understood that perception is a major cause of resistance. Let the change be conducted in more harmonious climate where perception or expectation of stakeholders is positive with respect to the outcomes of the project.

Project Termination

13.1. Reasons for pre-completion termination of any project.

- **Low chance of technical or marketing success as per reanalysis:** During the project implementation, high risk may be foreseen in technical or marketing success of the project. In such situation, project may get terminated before its completion.
- **Low profitability or returns as per expectation:** While analyzing during the implementation, the top management feels that the expected returns of the project are not as per their expectation. Then, in a such scenario, they may be forced to drop the project.
- **Delay in schedule of implementation:** Sometime due to delay in implementation team is sometimes not able to find out solution to some technical problem and it leads to failure of the project or closure of the project before it takes the final shape.
- **Change in market conditions or increased competition:** Market forces are changing very fast. There may be introduction of some substitution product during the implementation, which may lead to make the product of the project unattractive. Or sometimes, too many projects are seen in the pipeline and therefore decided to discontinue the project due to probable intense competition.
- **Changes in economic conditions:** World economic scenario is dynamic. Economic aspects like interest rates, purchasing power, government policy, etc. are changing. During the project implementation, changes in economic conditions may force the top management to drop down a project under implementation.
- **Top management plans for some better investment opportunity:** The top management may get a more lucrative investment opportunity and they may plan to skip the undergoing project and redirect the resources for the new and more lucrative project.

13.2 Project Completion Audit

Audit is generally defined as an unbiased examination and evaluation of the process, documents or statements of an organization. It can be done internally (by

employees of the organization) or externally (by an outside firm)'. Project audit is assessing the actual profile of a project completed to what was desired and planned.

Project Completion Audit (PCA) is defined as evaluation of the project after its termination. Different types of PCA are:

- **Financial audit:** Every project has some financial projections made during the planning and appraisal phase. Financial audit compares the projections with the actual.
- **Technical audit:** This audit throws light on the other objectives of the project, that is, quality and scope. The actual quality attained in product and services and the planned quality is compared in this audit.
- **Schedule audit:** Time is another important objective of any project. A delayed project may lead to a huge loss in the form of opportunity cost or unsatisfied customer. Schedule audit aims at comparison of actual time of completion of a project as compared to projected time.
- **Social audit:** This type of audit is generally applicable to either public sector undertakings or government projects. It tries to determine the social cost incurred to what was projected.

13.3 Reasons for Failure of Projects

Many of the projects fail and result either in closure before completion or create problems after completion. There are various reasons for the failure of any project.

13.3.1 Reasons Related to Planning

There are several types of mistakes done at the planning stage which lead to failure of any project. An underestimated cost can lead to shortfall in cash flows and may lead to delay in the project which, in turn, leads to project failure. Some of the major mistakes done at the planning stage can lead to problems in project implementation and also can lead to project failure.

- Underdefined or poorly defined scope or objectives
- Underestimation of time and cost
- Large project planning
- Selection of improper technology
- Defective process planning

13.3.2 Reasons Related to Leadership

- Unclear role and responsibility
- Fearful environment
- Ignoring reality
- Inadequate monitoring and control
- Inadequate communication
- Inadequate tracking
- Inadequate frequency of reporting

13.3.3 Other Reasons

- Improper change management
- Ignorance of social aspects

13.4 Steps for Project Success

- Rationalize the size of the project with regard to organizational capabilities
 - Greater flexibility
 - Reduced risk
 - Chance of learning
 - Earlier revenue generation
 - Improved motivation
 - Easier change management
 - Better control
 - Continuity of team
- Plan open-heartedly
- Execute cost effectively

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