expectation, identifying and analyzing the dimension of expectation of managerial skills and comparative analysis of the expectation.

Chapter V analysis the curriculum designed to develop managerial skills at the point of view expected by the executives and the importance given by the faculty.

Chapter VI chapter covers profile of the students and their opinions about the effectiveness of current practices, expectation of executives and evaluation of the students and the importance given by the faculty and evaluation of the students.

Chapter VII presents the summary of findings, suggestions, directions for future research and conclusion.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

2.1 MANAGERIAL SKILLS - A VIEW

Managerial skills have become very significant in today's globally competitive market. Learning more about various skills that must be an integral part of an individual's personality, at the managerial level. Management thinkers
have time and again stated the immense value of able managers and leaders for the success of a firm. Managers equipped with the right set of management skills and qualities motivate employees to give their best. What are managerial skills? Managerial skills are set of qualities and attributes in the personality of managers that enable them to effectively manage the functioning of a firm. Good managerial skills can create a world of difference in the efficiency and performance of a firm. Discussed below are some of the most important management skills that are required in today's managers.

2.2 BRIDGING THE SKILLS GAP

In an era where knowledge and skills play a significant role in organizational success, the widening gap between the skilled workers and the skills they need are having a direct impact on recruitment, productivity and moral. Global businesses are not only struggling to fill positions that require technical expertise, but are also unable to fulfil their requirement of employees with basic communication, leadership and organizational skills needed for entry level white collar jobs. The highest on the list of needed skills though are those associated with management and leadership. One reason for the skill gap could be plain demographics. There
are fewer candidates entering the workforce, and not nearly enough X and Y men workers to fill the huge void left behind by retiring baby boomers. Also, companies complain that many of the fresh entrants in the job market fall short of communication and leadership qualities, making it tougher for them to find the right fit for their requirements. Yet another reason could be the rapid changes in technology. This is creating an almost permanent backlog of skills set that need to be updated. The sky–rocketing turnover rates are only adding to the long list of woes plaguing organizations worldwide.

Once the gaps have been identified, there are several ways in which an organization can choose to close these gaps. Apart from recruitment or outsourcing, an organization can explore other options. While some companies work in collaboration with colleges and universities to gain access to a pool of fresh talent that already has acquired the skills they require, other corporations are committed to education and in–house training programs after making the hire. With training programs tightly bound to strategic business goals, businesses have better chances of grooming employees in core competencies necessary to adapt to continually changing environments. Considering that trained, work–ready talent comes at a premium these days, it also pays to have in place, a good retention program to ensure the once they have the required skills, employees stay put. After all, sustaining rapid growth and development can well be an elusive goal without
the support of a loyal and committed workforce whose goals and ambitions are aligned to the success of the organization.

2.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This study seeks to identify and compare the different models of management development in Germany and the U.S. A model of management development maps a main route through which individuals acquire their managerial skills. Each management development model has a number of dimensions:

- Who receives the training?
- Who provides the training?
- What types of skills are produced?
- Who pays for the training?
- What role, if any, the government plays?

Each country has more than one management development model, although one route (e.g., Internal company training following a general university degree in large Japanese firms) may be dominant. The models are not intended to be mutually exclusive. In the course of their lives, individuals may pass through several different routes of management development, starting with a large company’s management training program and then leaving to get an MBA and start their own business. Two advantages of concentrating on management development

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34 http://cen/usc.edu/pdf/G96/1305, pdf.
models are: first, it acknowledges the wide diversity of managerial jobs and skill needs, with some forms of management development perhaps more appropriate for certain sectors, firm sizes, or occupations. Second, organizing the complex reality of management development into models and then analyzing how they vary across countries and along the above dimensions makes it easier to identify lessons that can be transferred across national borders.

In a rapidly changing business environment, it is crucial to incorporate a dynamic component into any analysis of management development. Thus, our conceptual framework begins by identifying the different management development models that evolved through the mid-1980s and then focuses on how these models have been adapted to change the competitive conditions in the last decade.

There are a set of common forces (e.g., Globalization of the economy, technological change) that are driving changes in management development in all of the industrialized countries. How each nation responds to these external pressures, however, well in part be determined by its institutions and culture and the pre-existing models of management development. Managers in Japanese, German, and U.S. firms, for example, may each respond differently to a recession with American companies generally quicker to lay off managers and workers and cut back on training expenditures. National and regional institutions create capacities and impose constraints that can have important effects on individuals and firms
decisions regarding management development e.g. Employer organizations or other intermediate institutions may facilitate management development in small firms that would not occur in a free market. Of excessive state regulation and/or lack of financial incentives may slow the pace of innovation among public education providers in response to new demands on managers. We focus on four main types of institutional structures in each country that are most relevant to management development: education and training providers, internal company structures and practices, intermediate institutions (e.g. Employer organizations) and the state.

External forces can have both direct effects on the institutions responsible for management development (e.g., The use of new technologies to train managers or a recession that cuts available funds) and indirect effects, as firms adapt their
strategies, structures and human resources policies to the changing conditions, leading to different skill demands on managers: e.g. combining analytical and interpersonal skills, lifelong learning, foreign experience. Providers of management education and training will often act as a transmission mechanism for new management practices, modifying their courses in response to changes in skill demands from leading firms, and then producing managers who help bring about changes in other organizations.

2.4 OTHER’S PERCEPTION ABOUT MANAGERIAL SKILLS

Various experts describe today’s global economy as one in the transformation to knowledge economy. Information systems and information technology have become at the beginning of the 21st century the most important factors of economy functioning in developing countries. However, it is not only the information systems and information technology, but actually working with the information itself, which convey the change of thinking and creation of value in modern approaches to business and management.

These changes are reflected in the current economy. The utilization of resources is being shifted from current capital strategic resources to strategic resources in the form of information, knowledge, creativity thinking and innovation. Skills belong to critical factors of production. Enterprises can gain
competitive advantage by implementing continual and on-going innovations and the managerial skills are at the center of this process of innovations.

Being the manager is not an easy task due to the work involved with the people management. From all production factors people are the most intricate to manage. Not everybody feels at ease in managing people. Nonetheless, there are certain personal abilities, which can predict the future efficiency and success of a manager. Scholars from Faculty of management in Slovakia tried to identify necessary abilities, roles and skills managers should possess\(^\text{35}\) (Papula, 1995, p.28):

- Creativity – the ability to search and find new solutions
- Intuition – be able to predict future development from own experience without analysis
- Goal-oriented – be able to set realistic goals and respect the goal hierarchy
- Responsibility – sense for achieving set goals and objectives
- Self-confidence – belief in own strength and ability to achieve goals
- Initiative – an effort to look for new possibilities and solutions for reaching set goals
- Independence – the courage to make decisions based on own judgment

• Cautiousness – be able to make decisions under stress and unsure conditions
• Scrupulosity - support social values and norms
• Discipline – self-control and regulation of own behavior
• Persistence – tenacity needed to overcome barriers when achieving goals
• Optimism – orientation towards positive goals and things in connection with faith in success
• Fantasy – creation of visions and imaginations about the future

Every man has hidden potential of a certain kind inside. It is important how one can utilize this potential. The manager needs to use and influence behavior of people around to reach the goals of the enterprise. In doing so, the manager uses the managerial functions – planning, organizing, leading and control; while “playing” the following roles in the enterprise (Papula, 1995, p. 18)36.

• Interpersonal roles – Figurehead, Leader, Liaison
• Information roles – Monitor, Disseminator, Spokesperson
• Decision making role – Entrepreneur, Disturbance handler, Resource allocator, Negotiator

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Managers use managerial skills to fulfill their duties. These skills directly affect the results of the manager, but they can be learned and gained by training. The criteria for dividing the skills can vary but these are considered to be the basic managerial skills, which are needed for an effective managerial work (Piskanin, Rudy et al., 2006, p.11).

- Technical – ability of managers to use specific methods and techniques in doing the managerial work. However these technical skills are not related to technology, such as skills of engineers. The technical skills for managers represent the usage of methods like break even analysis in planning or ability to prepare for and conduct a structured interview.

- Interpersonal – people are most valuable resource of any enterprise and manager needs to know how to lead people. Abilities include the motivation of workers, solving work conflicts, communication and working with people. Therefore interpersonal skills are essential at every level of management.

- Conceptual – these skills are must for middle or top management. This is the ability to “grasp the whole picture”. See the organization as one wholly intertwined with the surrounding environment with the relevant priorities and important issues.

• A communication – manager needs information for decision making. The ability to disseminate and receive information is thus important tools for managers. It is not only verbal communication, but the manager should be able to distinguish nonverbal signals, mood and feelings to filter the right information.

Technical/professional knowledge alone is certainly needed to make the “technical side” of making the business work, but is not sufficient for successful development of the enterprise. The growth of small enterprises leads to the new situation, which requires managerial skills. Acquiring of management skills is not a simple task, because it means to apply theoretical knowledge into praxis. On one hand graduates from college miss the practical experience; on the other hand, the hard workers with long-term praises many times have not yet covered new theoretical knowledge. Only by intersecting theoretical knowledge with experience from praxis it is possible to gain managerial skills.

Organizations are confronted by continuous change to their products, services, processes, markets, competition, and technology. These changes require managers to respond in new ways of thinking and behaving. Increasingly, it is recognized that the knowledge and skills of managers affect the competitive advantage of organizations (c. £. Kotter, 198838, Pedler et al., 198939). Numerous

researchers have studied the managerial role and the skills required for effective performance (c.f. Katz. 1955\textsuperscript{40}, Mintzberg, 1975\textsuperscript{41}, Burgoyne and Stuart, 1976\textsuperscript{42}, Boyatzis, 1982\textsuperscript{43}). More recently, in explored the kinds of skills and competencies required by managers; Cox and Cooper (1989)\textsuperscript{44} studied the abilities of successful British managers; and McCall et al. (1988)\textsuperscript{45} in the US developed a set of fundamental management skills. The main skills identified in this literature include strategic thinking (seeing the big picture, visioning, helicopter view, setting and implementing agendas), analytical problem solving, decision making, action orientation (getting things done), interpersonal and team skills, leadership, learning from failure (personal reflection), and personal attributes relating to maturity, temperament and personal awareness.


A number of managerial skills are common to most of the above streams of research. Analytical/problem solving skills is important along with strategic thinking, decision making, team skills, communication and leadership. There is a clear need to incorporate these desired characteristics into the teaching and learning strategies employed in schools of business. If this is not done, university programs will attract continued criticism from businesses for their lack of relevance.

The importance of generic managerial skills is reinforced by examining likely changes in the HR profession. Over the past decade, management scholars have built a strong case for a shift to a more strategic and integrated approach to the management of employees (Boxall, 1994; Boxall & Dowling, 1990; Smart & Pontifex, 1993; Schuler & Jackson, 1987), and some pioneering organizations have successfully made this transition (CF. Howes & Foley, 1993; Boxall, P. (1994), “Placing HR Strategy at the Heart of Business Success”, Personnel Management, July, 32-35.


Plevel et al. 1994). Should the strategic approach be widely adopted, the job of the HR professional will be substantially enlarged, to include roles such as a business partner, strategy formulator, innovator, and change manager. The HR professionals of the future will need to be able to perform these new strategic roles as well as integrate them with traditional HR knowledge and competencies (see Boxall, 1990; Dunphy & Stace, 1990; Schuler et al. 1992; Walker, 1992 for detailed discussion). Individuals studying to enter the HR profession should be equipped to undertake the enlarged role demands they may encounter. One might question the extent to which these sophisticated skills can be fully developed in the classroom, but it seems quite likely that educators can do more along these lines than is presently being done.


The literature suggests several typologies of managerial skills of successful leaders (e.g. Castanias and Helfat, 1991\textsuperscript{56}; Christensen et al., 1978\textsuperscript{57}; Katz, 1974\textsuperscript{58}; Shipper, 1995\textsuperscript{59}; Yukl, 2002\textsuperscript{60}). A hierarchy of four types of skills emerges from the studies of Castanias and Helfat (2001)\textsuperscript{61} and Bailey and Helfat (2003)\textsuperscript{62}:

1. generic skills, which are transferable across sectors and organizations;
2. sector-related skills;
3. organization-specific skills; and
4. “industry-related” skills.

\footnotesize


Using the time interval for learning/performing and the degree of behavioral specificity as the two dimensions, Waters (1980)\textsuperscript{63} has made a systematic attempt to classify managerial skills. Reviewing this typology is helpful as it highlights the drive towards trade as opposed to education. Waters’ matrix is presented in Figure 2.1.

**FIGURE 2.1**

**MANAGERIAL SKILLS FRAMEWORK**

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**Practice Skills:** Active listening, non-directive interviewing, public speaking, report writing, asserting one’s self, etc.

Context Skills: Goal setting, work planning, managing time, making demands, designing controls, introducing change, building commitment and motivation, asserting authority, etc.

Insight Skills: Working in groups, empathizing, coping with ambiguity, assessing readiness for change, dealing with authority, dealing with peers, building trust. Creativity, dealing with cultural differences, bargaining, negotiating, etc.

Wisdom: Gaining power, allocating resources, entrepreneurship, working the hierarchy, strategy formulation, etc.

With the exception of Keleman et. al. (1990)\(^6\), current texts portray the managerial skills as a set of distinct, though interdependent skill topics, which are organized as a sequence of topical chapters. A listing of the skill topics included in a number of skills texts is shown in Table 2.1.

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**TABLE 2.1**

MAJOR SKILL CONTENT AREAS (BY FREQUENCY):

DRAWN FROM NINE MANAGERIAL SKILLS TEXTS

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication, listening &amp; feedback</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Management, team building &amp; meetings</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation &amp; job design</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power &amp; Influence, negotiation, persuasion &amp; politics</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews &amp; Performance Appraisal</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership &amp; vision</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision Making</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization development, culture, planned change</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Awareness</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress management</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal setting</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity &amp; innovation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integration of skills</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness/initiative</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination/organizing</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing subordinates</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solving</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career management</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disciplining</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentor role</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This table indicates that a variety of skill topics have been identified as important by one author or another. These skills may be organized into five categories, according to their target or relation to skill learning:

1. **Intrapersonal skills**, in which self-related goals receive primary emphasis; e.g., Decision making, planning, time and stress management, goal and action management, personal productivity, and self-motivation.

2. **Interpersonal skills**, in which external relational goals and changes in others are emphasized; e.g., Communication, delegation, influence, conflict, group management, motivating others, and leadership.

3. **Learning skills**, which enable or facilitate the development of other skills; e.g., Self-awareness, creativity and learning from doing.

4. **Personal characteristics**, which may not be skills in themselves, but attributes of individuals which are related to managerial skillfulness and skill development; e.g., productivity, disposition to lead, perceptual objectivity, positive regard, and risk taking.
5. **Administrative skills**, used to carry out administrative functions; e.g. decision making and planning. These skills in themselves tend to require more cognitive and less interpersonal process in their execution.

A manager's job is varied and complex. Managers need certain skills to perform the duties and activities associated with being a manager. What type of skills does a manager need? Research by Robert L. Katz (1974)\(^{65}\) found that managers need three essential skills. Those are technical skills, human skills and conceptual skills.

**Technical Skill**

The technical skill implies an understanding and proficiency in a specific kind of activity, particularly one involving the method, processes, procedures or techniques; it involves specialized knowledge, analytical ability within that specialty, and facility in the use of the tools and techniques of the specific discipline. Vocational and on-the-job training programs largely do a good job in developing this skill.

**Human Skill**

This refers to the ability to work with, understand and motivate other people; the way the individual perceives (and recognizes the perceptions of) his superiors, equals, and subordinates, and the way he behaves subsequently. The person with

highly developed human skills is aware of his own attitudes, assumptions, and beliefs about other individuals and groups; he is able to see the usefulness and limitations of these feelings. He is sufficiently sensitive to the needs and motivations of others in his organization so that he can judge the possible reactions to, and outcomes of the various courses of action he may undertake.

**Conceptual Skill**

This skill involves the ability to see the enterprise as a whole; it includes recognizing how the various functions of the organization depend on one another, and how changes in any one part affect all the others; and it extends to visualizing the relationship of the individual business to the industry, the community, and the political, social and economic forces of the nation as a whole.

**2.5 RESEARCHER'S PERCEPTIONS ABOUT MANAGERIAL SKILLS**

What managerial effectiveness components do need to be efficient and effective managers? What are the skills managers really need? How do they acquire the behaviors, motivation and skills to be effective managers? What can educators do to improve the process by which students acquire these behaviors, motivation and skills? These are fundamental questions management educators must consider when designing management courses.
The Management Students need several personal qualities like thirst for continuous education, personal drive and motivation, strong goal and ambition, clear vision and always a great deal of passion.

Beyond those personal qualities they may require certain major skills like:

- Communication
- Planning and organizing
- Productivity
- Creativity
- Human Relations

The major skills again divided in too many Sub-Skills.

**Communication Skills**

Conveys ideas and information clearly and in a manner appropriate to the audience.

- **Assertive**

  Assertive behavior presupposes a clear understanding of what is permitted and what is not. It gives an opportunity to look for alternative decisions.

- **Influencing**

  Building on their preparation, delegates define influencing in small groups. This moves into a discussion on how people are influenced.

- **Listening**
Giving full attention to what other people are saying, taking time to understand the points being made, asking questions as appropriate, and not interrupting at inappropriate times.

- **Managing Information**
  Appreciates the importance and relevance of effective information management.

- **Negotiation**
  Bringing others together and trying to reconcile differences.

- **Nonverbal communication**
  The ability to enhance the expression of ideas and concepts without the use of coherent labels, through the use of body language, gestures, facial expression and tone of voice, and also the use of pictures, icons and symbols.

- **Presentation**
  With good presentation skills one can present the ideas systematically and in an effective manner. This is done by researching, organization and conceptualization.

- **Selling**
  Convincing others to buy merchandise/goods or to otherwise change their minds or actions.

- **Verbal Communication**
Verbal Communication is the act of what's on your mind with words.

- **Written communication**
  
  The ability to write effectively in a range of contexts and for a variety of different audiences and purposes, with a command of the English language.

**Planning & Organizing Skills**

The ability to manage self and/or others and the resources including time and surrounding circumstances to reach a specific goal.

- **Analytical**
  
  The ability to use logic to examine and measure a problem.

- **Business awareness**
  
  Understands the business, its customers and markets, the way it works, its structure and culture.

- **Critical thinking**
  
  Using logic and reasoning to identify the strengths and weaknesses of alternative solutions, conclusions or approaches to problems.

- **Decision making**
  
  Evaluates the implications of various options before deciding on a course of action and then showing commitment to and accountability for that decision.

- **Financial awareness**
Understand the concepts of profit and loss, cash flow and managing budgets in order to use financial information effectively.

- **Logistics and Networking**
  Need to have the right people in the right jobs with what they need when they need it to get their work done. The logistics might not put you on the cover of Time magazine but it could make you a hero in your office.

- **Project management**
  Project management makes your life and that of your team less stressful and gets things done on time and on budget.

- **Risk taking**
  When people do things that involve risks in order to achieve something.

- **Self development**
  Takes responsibility and control for own development and learning; plans for future direction.

- **Self management**
  Demonstrates self-confidence and assertiveness in a variety of business situations.
➢ Strategic thinking

   Takes a strategic view of the business environment, clearly understands business strategy.

➢ Work life balance

   Learn to set priorities and run projects to make work fit your life not the other way around.

**Productivity Skills**

   The abilities necessary within a workforce in order for it to produce certain goods or services.

➢ Conflict management

   The identification and control of conflict within a team and organization.

➢ Crisis management

   They need to be capable of taking responsibility and to exercise leadership in often chaotic and confusing situations.

➢ Information technology

   Understands how to use new technology in business and its potential impact on the business.

➢ Leadership
Takes charge and adapts own leadership style to suit the situation, to inspire, influence and motivate others to perform effectively.

➢ Learning skills
Building up valid knowledge and understanding for a particular situation but remaining open to other views and other information.

➢ Managing change
Understands the need for and implications of changes in the organizational context.

➢ Managing cultural differences
Appreciates that cultural differences exist and works to adapt own behavior in order to create effective outcomes.

➢ Managing uncertainty
Is prepared to move away from familiar ways of thinking and working and deals with uncertain situations comfortably.

➢ Marketing awareness
Understands basic marketing principles in order to set up a system to tap into customer needs and market moves.

➢ Monitoring
Monitoring / Assessing performance of yourself, other individuals, or organizations to make improvements or take corrective action.

- **Multitasking**
  They also need a high tolerance for ambiguity. Just because we did something one way last week doesn’t mean that this is the way we’ll do it this week.

- **Process management**
  Understands the principles of how a business operates, both on a day-to-day and a long term basis with a view towards performance improvement.

- **Team working**
  Works well in cross-functional groups with peers, subordinates and seniors; encourages participation and involvement by team members through being open and approachable.

- **Time management**
  The term refers to the management of activities and processes that occur during a general or a specified period of time.

**Creativity Skills**

The act of turning new and imaginative ideas into reality.

- **Innovation**
Innovation is the production or implementation of ideas.

- **Problem solving**
  Identifies issues, gathers all relevant information, interpret the facts and explores all possible solutions.

**Human Relations Skills**

The skills and abilities required of a manager to make decisions, deal with employees (human resources) and deal with customers, suppliers, co-workers and the public.

- **Coordination**
  Adjusting actions in relation to others' actions.

- **Developing Others**
  Develops staffs to their full potential, providing timely, constructive feedback on performance, setting challenging work assignments and objectives, and monitoring progress.

- **Ethics and Value proposition Skills**
  Practice ethical behavior in difficult situations & accept others' opinions and action in a non-judgmental way.

- **Intra personal skills**
In which self-related goals receive primary emphasis; e.g., Decision making, planning, time and stress management, goal and action management, personal productivity and self-motivation.

- **Interpersonal skills**
  In which external relational goals and changes in others are emphasized.

- **Stress management**
  Dealing Effectively with stress and learning how to manage both workplace and home life stress.

- **Team building**
  Encouraging and building mutual trust, respect and cooperation among team members.

- **Valuing Skills**
  Assess a course of action in terms of its long-range effects on the general human welfare.

  Whether a person is having these skills or not may be tested by his performance. These performance functions as an Indicator of skills development. To evaluate the performance of a student certain test may be employed and their skills achieved by a management student may be assessed.

### 2.6 IDENTIFYING CRITICAL MANAGERIAL SKILLS
In order to develop an approach to help students to develop the managerial skills, we first had to be clear about what was meant by the term managerial skill. Skills differ from inherent personality traits (e.g., being aggressive), motives (e.g., Need for security), roles (e.g., Supervisor) and functions (e.g. Planning). On the one hand, they encompass more than single managerial actions such as writing one’s name or smiling at an employee. On the other hand, they encompass less than the multiple behavior involved in the classic management functions (e.g. POSDCORB). Skills include cognitive knowledge or how to perform an action, but they involve more than just knowledge itself.

While it is difficult, and somewhat arbitrary, to establish the boundaries for what is and what isn’t to be considered a skill, we feel comfortable in adopting the following definition of managerial skills: A managerial skill involves a sequential pattern of behaviors performed in order to achieve a desired outcome. (See 

66 Boyatzis, 1982, and Katz, 197467, for a more thorough discussion of what constitutes managerial skills). This definition eliminates traits such as honesty or loyalty since these concepts are not defined by a specific or a sequential set of behaviors. It also eliminates roles or functions such as leading or controlling as skills since they involve a variety of patterns of behaviors.

With an idea of what constitutes a managerial skill, our next step was to identify the skills that are preformed by effective managers. First, we conducted a study in which over 400 managers at various hierarchical levels of both public and private organizations were asked to identify the skills they used in their work on a regular basis. (The specific results are reported in Whetten and Cameron, 1984). Our results were then compared with the characteristics of effective managers proposed by others (Boyatzis, 1982; Flanders, 1981; Ghiselli, 1963; Livingston, 1971; Miner, 1973; and Mintzberg, 1975). A summary list was formed that fit the following criteria: (1) the list contained a combination of both personal and interpersonal skills; (2) it focused on the proven characteristics of high performing managers; (3) it contained only characteristics that have trainable behavioral components; and (4) it avoided highly situational specific techniques.

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70 Flanders, L.R. Report 1 from the Federal Manager’s job and Role Survey: Analysis of Responses by SES and Mid-Management Levels Executive and Management Development Division U.S. Office of Personnel Management, Washington, D.C.
that are best suited for one-the –job training. The final summary list is given in Table 2.2.

**TABLE 2.2**

**CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE MANAGERS: MANAGEMENT SKILLS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Self awareness</th>
<th>6. Effective delegation and Joint decision making</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Personality</td>
<td>• Assigning tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Values</td>
<td>• Evaluating performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Needs</td>
<td>• Autonomous vs. Joint decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Cognitive style</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Managing personal stress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Time management</td>
<td>7. Gaining power and influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Goals</td>
<td>• Sources of power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Activity balance</td>
<td>• Converting power to influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Creativity problem solving</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Divergent thinking</td>
<td>• Beneficial use, not abuse, of power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Conceptual blocks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Redefining problems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Establishing supportive communication</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Listening</td>
<td>8. Managing conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Empathy</td>
<td>• Sources of conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Counselling</td>
<td>• Assertiveness &amp; sensitivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Improving employee performance and motivating others</td>
<td>9 Improving group decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Needs / expectations</td>
<td>• Chairing meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Rewards</td>
<td>• Avoiding the pitfalls of bad meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Timing</td>
<td>• Making effective presentations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.7 SOCIAL LEARNING THEORIES AS AN APPROACH TO TEACHING MANAGERIAL SKILLS

To effectively integrate managerial skills training into the curriculum requires modifying pedagogical approaches as well as the course content. Staying with the traditional lecture – discussion format might teach students about the skills they need to acquire, but it would not provide an opportunity for them to develop these skills. The use of traditional approaches would also give the erroneous impression that these skills are simple techniques to be recalled from memory and applied when the need arises and then returned to storage (similar to cost accounting or cash flow analysis technique). Katz (1974)\textsuperscript{75} points out the error in thinking about managerial skills in this manner.

Real skill in working with others must become a natural, continuous activity, since it involves sensitivity not only at times of decision making, but also on the day-to-day behavior of the individual. Human skills cannot be a “sometime thing”. The techniques cannot be randomly applied, nor can personality traits be put on or removed like an overcoat. Because everything which an executive says and does (or leaves unsaid or undone) has an effect on his associates, his true self will, in turn show through. Thus to be effective, the skill must be naturally developed and

unconsciously as well as consistently demonstrated in the individual’s action. It must become an integral part of his whole being.

If students are to learn management skills, a new approach to classroom learning is needed. The approach we suggest relies heavily on Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977⁷⁶, Davis and Luthans, 1980⁷⁷) which has been used widely in supervisory training programs in industry (Goldstein and Sorcher, 1974⁷⁸), as well as in allied professional education classroom settings such as teacher education and social work (Rose, Cayner and Edleson, 1977⁷⁹, Singleton, Spurgeon and Stammers, 1980⁸⁰). Social learning theory focuses on changing behavior through the modelling process. By focusing on shaping behaviour directly, social learning theory differs from traditional approaches to education by relying less on the power of intellectual persuasion to induce changes in behaviour and more on observing role models and adopting their behaviors.

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The reason we are advocating the use of a modified form of social learning theory in this paper is that there is substantial evidence that management effectiveness can be significantly improved by using it in skill training (see Burnaska, 1976; Smith, 1976\textsuperscript{81}; Moses and Ritchie, 1976\textsuperscript{82}; Latham and Saari, 1979\textsuperscript{83}; Porras and Anderson, 1979\textsuperscript{84}) extrapolating from the impressive track record of this approach to management training in applied settings. We are confident that students who do well in a course on managerial skills using this learning model will significantly increase the probability of their doing well as managers on the job.

The approach used most widely for skill training in industry usually consists of four steps (Goldstein and Sorcher, 1974\textsuperscript{85}) first, the presentation of principles (sometimes called behavioral guidelines or key action steps) that are based on data collected from successful practicing managers or derived from general theories of


human behavior; second, demonstration of the principles to participants by the instructor, a videotaped incident, or written scripts; third, opportunities to practice the principles in role plays or exercises; fourth, feedback on personal performance received from the instructor, experts and/or peers.

Our suggestion for teaching managerial skills follows these four activities, but we also have made two additions. First, because most students do not have extensive managerial experience of organizations, it is difficult for them to know their current level of competence in managerial skills. Moreover because of this lack of experience, the importance of developing some of the skills may not be immediately apparent. Therefore, we suggest the addition of a reassessment activity at the beginning of the learning experience which serves both to let students know how well they can perform the skill (since it is impossible to improve unless one knows where one is starting) and to motivate them to improve their skill performance.

Second, we have added an application activity at the end of the learning experience. This activity is designed to help students apply the skills in a setting similar to the one they will face on the job. Its purpose is to provide an opportunity to practice the skill in an environment more similar to an actual managerial environment than the college classroom. Most application activities require that
students record their experiences in a journal or an essay so as to analyze their degree of success or failure.

Based on these modifications, our suggested approach to teaching management skills follows the format in Table 2.3. At the beginning of each skill learning experience, students are given an opportunity to assess their current level of understanding and competence in each skill topic before engaging in any learning activities. This skill reassessment takes the form of a questionnaire, questions about a brief case, or a role play or other experiential activities. The purpose of the reassessment is to increase the efficiency of the learning process by focusing attention on the deficiencies in knowledge or performance.

TABLE 2.3

SUGGESTED SKILL LEARNING APPROACH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Contents</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skill Preassessment</td>
<td>Survey Instruments Role plays</td>
<td>Assess current level of skill competence and knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill learning</td>
<td>Written text behavioral guidelines</td>
<td>Teach correct principles and present the rationale for the behavioral guidelines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill analysis</td>
<td>Cases</td>
<td>Provide examples of appropriate and inappropriate skill performance. Analyze behavioral guidelines and why they work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill practice</td>
<td>Exercises simulations role plays</td>
<td>Practice behavioral guidelines. Adapt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The second step is skill learning through the presentation of conceptual material based on the most essential and relevant theory and research. That is, “need-to-know” takes priority over “nice-to-know”, and empirically tested principles take precedence over anecdotal or opinion data. The specific objective is to provide a sound rationale for the behavioral principles that are summarized and enumerated by the instructor. It is important that behavioral guidelines are specified by the instructor rather than just descriptions of theories, cases or examples. This set of guidelines serves as the foundation for subsequent practice and application activities and it is generally presented best in a lecture–discussion format.

Third, a skill analysis activity should be presented wherein students are asked to analyze one or two brief cases. These cases serve both a modeling function (showing competent and/or incompetent skill performance) and a cognitive function allowing students to analyze how the behavioral principles apply in real world situations. The intent of this section is to bridge the gap...
between intellectual assimilation and behavioral application. Critiquing the performance of managers in these cases provides students with an opportunity to check comprehension of the skill learning material prior to practicing it themselves and to analyze a model of the skill being performed. We have used written cases for this activity as well as video tapes, audio recordings, and movies.

Fourth, the skill practice activity allows students to try out an experimenting with the behavioral guidelines in the supportive atmosphere of the classroom. It is important that they avoid the trap of simply mimicking the style or particular mannerisms of a role model (either written or visual). Instead, they are encouraged to experiment, adapting each set of behavioral principles to their particular personality and interpersonal style. Feedback from peers and from the instructor performs and important function during this activity by allowing students the opportunity to correct mistakes, rehearse various alternatives, and find out with little risk how well they are doing. The student observes sharpen their observation, perception, and feedback skills as they help one another and the new skill behaviors begin to become internalized and habitual. Skill practice activities generally take and form of exercises, role plays, and group activities, all of which is accompanied by observation and feedback.

Fifth, the skill application activity contains specific assignments to facilitate the transfer of classroom learning in everyday practice. These assignments may ask
students to teach the skill to someone else (an excellent test of understanding), to report on the impact that friends and associates have on others when they succeed or fail in utilizing the behavioral principles, to report on a personal effort to apply the principles in an appropriate setting, to confront a problem where skill performance is required, and so on. The intent of these activities is to provide the opportunity to perform the skill in a real-world setting while still maintaining a close mentoring relationship with the instructor. Opportunities for self analysis and feedback from others during this activity can help refine and improve skill performance.

Combining the five activities in teaching skill development has advantages over other common approaches to teaching. For example, it incorporates the lecture –discussion technique, but goes beyond that method by allowing for personal diagnosis and skill practice. This approach also uses case analysis to help students analyze problems and apply concepts to new situations, but the addition of preassessment, presentation of behavioral guidelines, practice, and application help overcome the limitations of a traditional case approach. Similarly, experiential exercises and group participation have their place, but they are not included merely to illustrate concepts or theories but are designed as practical opportunities and evaluation activities where competencies can be improved. (Pre-assessment instruments, behavioral guidelines, cases practice exercises, and
application assignments are provided for the nine skills listed in Table 1 in Whetten and Cameron, 1984\(^8\).

**2.8 CURRENT PRACTICE IN SKILLS TEACHING**

These are three areas in which skill literature has explicitly or implicitly defined current practice. The first is our image of what managerial skills essentially are. The second is pedagogy: how we go about teaching skills. The third is the content of what we teach. It is discussed each in more detail below.

**2.8.1 Current Image of Managerial Skills**

Surprisingly there is very little consideration in the current literature of what a skill is. In reviewing nine skills texts, it is found only one which explicitly defined "skill" (Robbins, p. 9)\(^7\). Instead of defining skills, most texts lay out a learning process intended to improve skills. Our current image of skills, therefore, is indirect; to be inferred from how skills are dealt with. Based on current texts, this image might be expressed as follows:

"Managerial skills refer to theories, techniques, and behavioral guidelines which, if applied properly, will enhance a manager's practice."

**2.8.2 Current Pedagogy of Skills**


Whetten and Cameron's 1983 skills text provided a skill learning model based on the social learning model put forth by Bandura (1977)\textsuperscript{88}. Subsequent skills texts have generally adopted, directly or indirectly, variants of this model. The steps involved are as follows:

\textbf{a) Preassessment.} Most texts begin a skill unit with some form of preassessment activity (usually self-administered). This activity is intended to provide students with some insight into their current skill level and perhaps also to educate students as to important dimensions of skills.

\textbf{b) Conceptual learning.} Preassessment is followed by readings designed to provide a conceptual understanding of the skill. This and the previous step were added to Bandura's model by Whetten and Cameron, and subsequent texts have generally included them as well.

\textbf{c) Modeling.} Some texts (though many do not) include skill modeling; i.e., Demonstration of competent skill use. This is often done through videotapes, but can also be done through reading of written scripts or live modeling by the instructor or others.

\textbf{d) Practice.} Following this students practice applying their understanding. This practice usually takes place in two phases. The first involves practice in applying

concepts to cases and other described situations. The second phase involves live skill practice in role-playing situations and exercises, often followed by feedback from other students, using behavioral guideline checklists.

e) **Life application.** Students then are given assignments which encourage skill application outside the classroom in settings naturally occurring in students' lives.

f) **Skill Assessment.** The final step is an assessment of what has been learned. While the previous learning steps are conducted for each skill unit, skill assessment is commonly conducted for groups of units, and is more for the purpose of grading than for learning. Given the difficulty of assessing, most instructors use traditional examination methods of multiple choice and essay exams, possibly augmented with student reports and assessments. Two other approaches, however, have been developed to assess skill learning. The first is an "action exam" approach. This was pioneered by Jim Waters (Waters, Adler, Poupart, and Hartwick 1983)\(^9^9\), and has undergone some development since then (e.g., Bigelow, 1991, chapter 10)\(^9^0\). Essentially this approach involves the use of role plays accompanied by scoring through the use of established criteria. The second approach involves "assessment centers" (e.g., Bigelow, 1991, chapter. 9). An assessment center has students

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undergo a battery of tests and then provides a systematic assessment of the status of the student's skills.

The pedagogy of current practice then is related to social learning theory in that it incorporates a "learning from experience" process. It however, amends this process by adding a significant cognitive component prior to practice. Students are expected to apply this material in developing their skill behaviors.

2.8.3 Current content of skills courses

With the exception of Keleman et. al. (1990), current texts portray the managerial skills as a set of distinct, though interdependent skill topics, which are organized as a sequence of topical chapters. A listing of the skill topics included in a number of skills texts is shown in Table 2.4.

| TABLE 2.4 |
| MAJOR SKILL CONTENT AREAS (BY FREQUENCY): |
| DRAWN FROM NINE MANAGERIAL SKILLS TEXTS |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill Area</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication, listening &amp; feedback</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group Management, team building &amp; meetings</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation &amp; job design</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power &amp; Influence, negotiation, persuasion &amp; politics</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews &amp; Performance Appraisal</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership &amp; vision</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision Making</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization development, culture &amp; planned change</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Awareness</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress management</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal setting</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity &amp; innovation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integration of skills</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness/initiative</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinator/organizing</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing subordinates</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career management</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disciplining</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentor role</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral presentations</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal productivity</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productivity</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This table indicates that a variety of skill topics have been identified as important by one author or another. These skills may be organized into five categories, according to their target or relation to skill learning:

1. **Intrapersonal skills**, in which self-related goals receive primary emphasis; e.g., Decision making, planning, time and stress management, goal and action management, personal productivity and self-motivation.

2. **Interpersonal skills**, in which external relational goals and changes in others are emphasized; e.g., Communication, delegation, influence, conflict, group management, motivating others and leadership.

3. **Learning skills**, which enable or facilitate the development of other skills; e.g., Self-awareness, creativity and learning from doing.

4. **Personal characteristics**, which may not be skills in themselves, but attributes of individuals which studies suggest are related to managerial skillfulness and skill development; e.g., proactivity, disposition to lead, perceptual objectivity, positive regard and risk taking.

5. **Administrative skills**, used to carry out administrative functions; e.g. Decision making and planning. These skills in themselves tend to require more cognitive and less interpersonal process in their execution.
2.8.4 Summary of Current Practices

There are three characteristics which distinguish current practice. First, it is a process-oriented approach, based on the premise that if students undergo the prescribed learning steps their skills will improve. While students do some personal assessment of skills initially, skill definition and measurement are not central to current practice. Second, it is a sequential approach. While some texts have integrating frameworks and/or integrating later chapters, skills are in the main dealt with one by one. Third, it is largely a deductive learning approach, in which skill learning consists of assimilating and applying the skill learning of others.

A caveat: While "current practice" describes what most current skills texts support, it is not the only practice currently employed. At least two other university skill learning approaches can be identified. The first is a self-managed learning approach in which students' skills are assessed and students use the results to develop a learning program. The second is a situational approach which emphasis is given to skill practice in critical management situations. Both of these approaches have important advantages. I would argue, however, that "current practice" describes the approach which is at present most commonly used in teaching management skills at universities, and I will limit my discussion of this approach only.
2.9 "TRAINING" VS. "MANAGERIAL" SKILLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training skills</th>
<th>Managerial skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A simple procedural</td>
<td>Interactive, nonroutine and unfolding in expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Straightforward application</td>
<td>Involve multiple possibly conflicting goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear prompting</td>
<td>Often very little prompting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation defined by others</td>
<td>A situation often needs to be defined by a manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prescriptive convergent</td>
<td>May be manifested in creativity or unexpected action.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Managerial skills are interactive, nonroutine, and unfolding in expression. Skill situations are typically interactive, and during an interaction a manager may learn new things which fundamentally change his/her appreciation of the situation. The manager may try an approach but find it is not working; e.g., Advice is rejected, or efforts at producing a compromise are failing. This means that the person must be flexible, good at assessing how an approach is working and have more than one tactic in his/her skill "tool box".

Managerial skills involve multiplication, possibly conflicting goals. In an interaction a manager may be working on more than one goal, and these goals may be conflicting. For example, a task may need to be done quickly but also have
developmental possibilities which require more time. A manager may need to balance his/her own life, and have more opportunities than there is time to pursue. A manager may need to encourage an individual's creativity and conformance to collective activities at the same time. In such situations the manager's response is likely not to be the sum of the responses to the two goals taken singly.

Managerial skills are often unprompted. Where job skill trainers work hard to ensure that environmental or other prompts are provided for cue worker skill behavior, the managed environment is usually less structured and less predictable. Often the manager's biggest challenge is to sort out the issues in an ambiguous and unprecedented situation. The skill behavior in itself may be simple; a smile, praise, or simply saying nothing. The timing and context, however, can make the behavior highly effective.

Managerial situations often need to be defined by the manager. In a behavioral job skill approach, exercisers of job skills work in situations defined by others. If a situation occurs which has not been anticipated, it is usually considered to be a failure of managers or other job designers; not of the worker. Managers, on the other hand, are responsible for making sense of situations. They cannot blame others if they fail to pick up on an important issue. This suggests that a part of managerial skillfulness is the ability to make sense of situations, to identify important issues and to create action plans to address them.
Skillful Behavior may be manifested in creativity or unexpected action. Literature on skill practice tends to conclude that there is one or a limited number of action tactics from which a person may draw in a given situation. Since our research methods are designed to produce convergence, this tendency is predictable. Particular situations, however, may make possible alternative, even unexpected approaches didn't normally think of. Thus, skillful managers may "break the rules", but nonetheless accomplish their goals. A number of behavioral strategies can be identified which have been successful, but are not typically taught; e.g., the use of silence, jokes, "cooling out", positive rumors, "good guy-bad guy" strategies, allowing situations to worsen, and criticising opposition. The list of possible tactics a manager may use is divergent, not convergent. We cannot hope to train students in all possibly useful skill tactics. Rather, they must become to some extent innovative in developing action tactics.

2.10 ISSUES IN TEACHING MANAGERIAL SKILLS

Introducing managerial skills into the business school curriculum are not a straightforward or unencumbered endeavour. A variety of issues are associated with teaching management skills that must be addressed.
For example, fewer subjects can be covered in a skill course than in a traditional Organisational behavior or management course. Extra time is required for students to analyze and practice new behaviors. Faculty must be prepared and model some of the behaviors associated with effective skills performance, since students often look to them to see whether they can practice what they preach. Large class sizes are more difficult to handle than small classes when teaching skills; the logistics of videotaping each student’s performance, for example, are often prohibitive. Since teaching management skills are seldom directly connected to the faculty member’s research, tradeoffs between spending extra time in teaching versus research become an issue. Alternative class schedules may need to be considered. Traditional 50 minute time slots may not always be appropriate. The level at which the skill course is thought is an important consideration. It generally should not be the first management or Organisational Behaviour class students take because the theory and management principles taught in most introductory courses serve as a good foundation for the student’s skill and development. (Conversely, we have found that the closer students are to graduation and the job market, the more motivated they are to develop skill competencies). Care must be taken to maintain a student’s sense of self-worth; derogatory or insensitively given feedback can be more damaging than helpful as students try to improve their behavioral skills.
Aside from these issues, probably the most important issue associated with teaching management skills is how to evaluate and grade skill competency. Rose, Crayner, and Edieson (1977)\footnote{Rose, S.D. Cayner, J.J. and Edieson, J.L., (1977), “Measuring Interpersonal Competence”, Social Work, 22, pp.125-129.} pointed out:

The development of professional interpersonal skills is of paramount concern..... However, few of these (skill training) programs have been evaluated to determine their effectiveness or their relevance to interpersonal activities. At best, participants are asked to indicate their satisfaction with programs or are given some form of paper – and – pencil test to measure what they have learned (p.125).

The cognitive component of skill development can be assessed relatively easily using traditional paper – and – pencil tests, but other methods are also required if behavioral competency is to be evaluated. Evaluating the behavioral component of skills often raises issues about what criteria are to be included, who is to do the evaluating, can an equitable standard be established, and how long will it take? We have derived several guidelines that have proven useful to us in addressing these issues in our own skill development classes.

First, behavioral guidelines must be clearly specified. It is difficult to assess skill competency unless it is clear what constitutes effective performance. That is why the skill learning activities must be more than a review of theory and
examples. Instructors must help students learn what behaviors are to be preformed (see, for example, Whetten and Cameron, 1984).

Second, multiple assessment sources are needed. Because there is always some subjectivity in evaluating skill competency, instructors may be accused of being biased, arbitrary, or stylistic in rating students’ performance. Having multiple rating sources guards against the accusation that “it is your opinion against mine. We use four sources of ratings to assess the extent to which students perform a skill competently: (1) the students own self – assessments after viewing a video or audio recording of performance; (2) peer assessments of performance, which are always guided by an assessment or observer’s form (i.e. A from outlining the appropriate behaviors to be performed); (3) instructor’s ratings; and (4) outside observers ratings (frequently business executives or practicing managers who are invited into the class). Evolution from these four sources is usually done in the context of a role play, in – basket exercise, interviews, formal presentations, or group problem solving session.

Third, multiple assessment devices are needed. Because traditional tests are inadequate by themselves, we have relied on at least four different devices to grade skill competency. They are not listed in priority order, because depending on the skill being assessed, the weighting of importance given to each assessment device

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may change: (1) paper – and – pencil examinations which assess the cognitive component of the skill (e.g., Reading material); (2) rater evaluations of behavior from the four sources mentioned above; (3) a personal journal kept by each student; and (4) written essays by students, which address issues, solve problems, discusses when particular skills are relevant, point out conditions in which the behavioral guidelines are not appropriate and so on. These essays differ from journal entries in that they are much longer and they generally involve library research.

The journal is used by students to analyze their own skill performance and skill application; frequently we have asked students to respond to certain questions or problem situations line their journals. Students write in journals regularly and the written material is evaluated several times during the skill course. Our experiences with requiring students to keep journals has been much the same as Kaiser (1981)\(^{94}\), Progoff (1975)\(^{95}\) and others

---- The journal was a vehicle that led to greater creativity. But I found that a good many journals were just diaries: without a project to be done, people’s diaries just went around in circles (Kaiser, p.76).


When kept in connection with attempts to improve skill competency, journals become powerful tools for personal growth for students as well as a device for evaluation by the instructor.

The fourth evaluation guidelines are that presence absence or frequency – type rating scales are often better than being good – bad rating scales in evaluating skills. It frequently is easier, less controversial, and more helpful to students to record whether or not they performed a behavior or how many times they displayed an action than to judge how well they did or how good they are. Presence – absence evolutions are more objective than are good bad evolutions, and reliable ratings are less dependent on prior experience by the rater (i.e. Untrained students can serve as raters). Moreover, suggestions for how to improve skill performance can be more easily provided by suggesting what behaviors include in skill performance than to simply suggest, “Do it better”. This type of evaluation requires that the behavioral guidelines associated with each skill are specified in a presence – absence format, so that just doing certain behaviors is sufficient to indicate effective skill performance. For example, performing effective delegation requires specifying a time to report back, indicating the level of initiative to be taken by subordinates, informing those to be affected by the delegated task, and so on. That is, “was the behavior performed?” Not, “How well was it performed?”.
Differences in the quality of skill performance always exist among students, of course, but those quality differences are more reliably assessed by experts such as the instructor or the outside raters than by students peers. Previous experience in management is generally a prerequisite to differentiating reliably among qualitative differences in performances.

We have discovered that evaluating students are much more time consuming in management skill courses than in regular Organisational behavior or management courses. This is mainly due to the necessity of rating behavioral performance and providing feedback in addition to reading papers and grading tests. This extra time commitment is one of the major inhibitors of management skill training being widely practiced in business schools. We have tried to reduce the extra time required of instructors by are multiple rating exercises going on simultaneously (where multiple sets of peers or outside raters are present) and by instituting several structural changes in the format of the class itself. For example, we have used lab sessions (similar to a biology lab), conducted by teaching assistants for the skill practice and the evaluation activities. Students receive a lab grade from the teaching assistants. We have divided large classes into smaller sections and had teaching assistants conduct the sessions independently. We have had students go to the media center on their own time to be videotaped in certain evaluation exercises. The tapes were analyzed later by the instructor or in class.
We have limited the number of students permitted in the course so that the workload was less burdensome. Each of these formats has advantages and disadvantages, and some may be more practical than others in certain institutions. Despite these time conservation methods, however, instructors in management skill courses must still recognize that evaluation and feedback play a central role in helping students develop competencies. Therefore, the time required to perform these activities properly is greater than the most other types of classes.

2.11 CRITICAL MANAGERIAL SKILLS

To answer the question, "what are effective managerial skills?" It is necessary to determine which skills differentiate effective managers from less effective ones. Several studies have attempted to identify the skills and competencies that separate effective performers from less effective ones. For example, Luthans et al\textsuperscript{96} examined 52 managers in three organizations. The major focus was to identify those skills associated with the most effective management compared to the least effective managers. Results revealed that significant differences in skill levels existed in the following areas: (i) building power and influence; (ii) communication with insiders and outsiders; (iii) goal setting; (iv) managing conflict; and (v) decision making.

A survey of 428 personnel administrators asked them the skills managers needed in order to be successful in their organizations. It was reported that interpersonal skills, written communication, enthusiasm, technical competence and the ability to listen and give counsel were listed as critical.

Camp et al\textsuperscript{97} focused their research on why managers fail. Their sample included 830 managers from various industries in the United States. The study included 166 focus groups and revealed that the major reasons managers fail include ineffective communication skills, poor interpersonal skills, failure to meet expectations, poor delegation, inability to develop teamwork, inability to motivate others and a lack of trust.

Another study identified 402 individuals rated as highly effective managers in their organizations in the fields of business, healthcare, education and state government by asking senior officers to name the most effective managers in their own organizations. Those individuals were then interviewed to determine common characteristics of managerial effectiveness. Questions asked included:

1. How have you become so successful in this organization?
2. Who fails and who succeeds in this organization and why?
3. If you could design an ideal curriculum or a training program to teach you to become a better manager, what would it contain?

The ten most common characteristics of effective management skills identified were all behavioral skills. They are common across industries, levels and job responsibilities. They are also very similar to other published management studies on the subject. The most frequently cited skills of effective managers based on a representative sample of studies that relied on a heterogeneous mix of respondents from a multitude of diverse industries.

2.12 MANAGERIAL SKILLS IN MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

Korukonda, Appa Rao\textsuperscript{98}, historically, there have been a tension between two fundamental orientations to Management education: analytical detachment vs. Practical relevance. This tension can be traced to a controversy between academics and practitioners regarding their respective roles in shaping the goals of a formal education in Management. Without question, such a tension is inevitable, necessary and to some extent healthy.

This tension, which initially surfaced in the form of a polarization of thought on the basic emphasis and mission of business schools, has, over the years, declined in intensity as the arguments for practical relevance gained ground. An offshoot of this has been that a skill component has gradually assumed a momentum and permanence of its own in management education. Unfortunately,

however, the emphasis on managerial skills has resulted in a preoccupation with pedagogy and a remarkable bankruptcy of thought on such fundamental questions as the effects of a skill bias on basic assumptions regarding the nature of management, management theory and management education.

2.13 MANAGERIAL SKILLS: WHAT BUSINESS SCHOOLS DON'T TEACH YOU

Business schools\(^99\) whilst they teach the theory of management do not teach people how to work in practice. So much can be done of the calculations and the presentation of work and how this can be used. What business schools do not tell the students is how to work effectively. Group presentations of work attended at class time helps to assess individual and group presentation of work. The individuals own communication skills are also not really assessed well which is what employers want to have.

The business school theory of teaching stuff from text books is really not practical entirely to create a good character based and employee focused individual. The items learned by reading and taking part on academic projects whilst it is useful it is not applicable to modern day working. For sure deadlines have to be met as well as the projects handed with a good standard are what employers want to see themselves on a day to day basis. The students however

have the fallback of having many weeks and months to prepare assignments and coursework.

The work based stuff where the money is earned is time pressurized where deadlines are much stricter and results have to be achieved and met fast. There is no excuse in employment which can be made in 1 or 2 pieces of coursework. If deadlines are not met, the candidate in a business school can simply take the option of the course module again and also hand in the work late. In an employment center the work tends to be standardized using accounting or software that standardizes the work, which makes knowing theories good to know, though people have to know what is going on in terms of being able to know the bigger picture of work.

Business schools also do not teach people the need to communicate with people and the art of networking to a good standard. They will mention it at the induction and the rest is pretty much left alone to the individual class social gathering throughout the semester. This is an area that is important in life and as well as at work. Business theories are also historical academic which was based on research for a study many years ago, and therefore the research papers used by business schools may or may not apply to everyday working life.
Also business schools cannot teach people as to how to find a well paid job, even the highest grade candidates will struggle in gaining employment. People skills not just the grades matter.

CHAPTER III

EVALUATION OF TESTING COMPONENTS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter an attempt have been made to evaluate the statistical tools applied in the analysis of the present study. The statistical tools used as the testing components of the present study are conventional percentage analysis, arithmetic mean, standard deviation, chi-square test, KMO Measures, factor analysis, rank correlation coefficient and t-test.

3.2 CONVENTIONAL PERCENTAGE ANALYSIS

After collecting information from the respondents, the data were analyzed according to the objectives.