3.1  Introduction

Enhancing the competency and performance of executives has been an area of interest to management philosophers and researchers for a long time. The popularization of the concept of "Emotional Intelligence" (EI) has really given a new dimension and momentum to the research initiatives linking personality factors with the superior performance of the executives. The concept of cognitive intelligence, which is often referred to as intelligence or Intelligent Quotient (IQ), as the sole determinant of individual performance has been questioned with the emergence of the concept of "emotional intelligence". Consequent to the large number of research publications during the last two decades, EI has been identified as a critical factor in the performance and success of individuals in varying roles in their professional career and it has become an important consideration in human resource
planning, job profiling, recruitment interviewing and selection, training and executive development.

In the post-liberalization era, the managers are faced with many challenges like working with people from different cultures and increased foreign assignment, like improving the quality, productivity and customer service which requires a dynamic work force with different needs, aspirations, attitudes and styles, and an effective leader or manager to direct the work force in a competitive and highly fruitful manner. Different studies and researches reveal that efficiency is not simply determined by the physical and intellectual potentialities, but it is highly influenced by the emotional markup of the work force and the managers.

Emotional intelligence (EI) is the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately, and to use emotional information to guide thinking and behaviour. There are three models of EI. The ability model, developed by Peter Salovey and John Mayer, focuses on the individual's ability to process emotional information and use it to navigate the social environment. The trait model, as developed by Konstantin Vasily Petrides, "encompasses behavioural dispositions and self-perceived abilities and is measured through self-report". The final model, the mixed model is a combination of both ability and trait EI. It defines EI as an array of skills and characteristics that drive leadership performance, as proposed by Daniel Goleman.

Managerial skills are sets of qualities and attributes in the personality of managers that enable them to effectively manage the working of a firm. Good managerial skills can create a world of difference in the efficiency and performance of the organization. Researchers have found that traditional
Manager skills wouldn't bring favourable change at the workplace. So, the Manager has to learn some special skills which bear on employee's behaviour and attitudes, so that the organization can be much benefited by their labour. It is a fact that the Manager causes productivity and non-productivity of employees and organizations. He may directly influence the workers' attitude, interest, and aptitude or change their behaviour toward commitment to work and objectives. Organization can stand to bear the challenges of change through only right Managerial style and behaviour. This paper would highlight on the various skills required by the Manager to perform various complex tasks or implement various policies in Global environment. Skill is essential to utilize the scarce resources of the organization (Raju.R 2011)

The American Management Association has identified important skills, i.e., conceptual, communication, effectiveness, and interpersonal skills. These skills help manager to execute the policies and activities associated with being a manager. The performance of the organization depends on the wholehearted support of employees, suppliers, customers, and investors; to deal with them effectively special kinds of skills which make manager's successful in their tasks are required. A skill is a Manager’s ability to translate knowledge into action. Skills can be developed and learnt. A manager should learn or develop the following skills to enhance effectiveness of organization.

3.2 Emotional Intelligence

Intelligence comes as a result of two causes, viz., cognition and emotion. We, by and large, have been exposed to one dimension of personal intelligence, i.e., cognition or traditional intelligence, and little has been explored with regard to the role of emotions towards the intelligence of a person. The conventional wisdom among the cognitive scientists held the view that
intelligence is a mere processing of fact, and emotions have no role to play in intelligence. But, with the changing times, and progressing research in the field of psychology, the theory of conventional wisdom propounded by the cognitive scientists has been found to be a lopsided vision. The researchers have begun recognizing and realizing the significance of feeling while thinking. Thus emerged the domain of emotional intelligence.

Before unveiling the various aspects of emotional intelligence, the meaning of the word 'emotion' needs to be understood. The word 'emotion' connotes various meanings to various people. Going by the Oxford English Dictionary, emotion is "any agitation or disturbance of mind, feeling, passion, any vehement or excited mental state." Emotions vary in accordance with the blends, variations and mutations of the mental state. In such emotional repertoire, each emotion plays a unique role as prompted by the people's biological tendencies. These various biological propensities are shaped further by our experience in life and culture.

3.2.1 History of Emotional Intelligence

The first use of the term "emotional intelligence" is usually attributed to Wayne Payne's doctoral thesis, A Study of Emotion: Developing Emotional Intelligence from 1985. However, prior to this, the term "emotional intelligence" had appeared in Beldoch (1964) and Leuner (1966). Stanley Greenspan (1989) also put forward an EI model, followed by Peter Salovey and John Mayer (1989). The distinction between trait emotional intelligence and ability emotional intelligence was introduced in 2000. However, the term became widely known with the publication of Goleman's Emotional Intelligence - Why it can matter more than IQ (1995). It is to this book's best-selling status that the term can attribute its popularity. Goleman has followed up with several
further popular publications of a similar theme that reinforce the use of the term.

3.2.2 Definitions on Emotional Intelligence

The concept of emotional intelligence brings new depth to the understanding of human intelligence; it expands the ability to evaluate one's general or overall intelligence. Like cognitive intelligence, emotional intelligence is difficult to define. Broadly speaking, emotional intelligence addresses the emotional, personal, social and survival dimensions of intelligence, which are often more important for daily functioning than the more traditional cognitive aspects of intelligence (Bar-On, 1997).

There are lots of arguments about the definition of EI, arguments that regard both terminology and operationalizations. Salovey and Mayer (1990) made the first published attempt toward defining the concept. The concept of emotional intelligence has been defined in various ways by different authors, giving emphasis to different components of the concept. While Mayer and Salovey (1997) emphasize the cognitive elements in their definition of EI, Goleman relates it to the way people function emotionally, if their function is at its potential or at least is not problematic. The definition given by Cooper and Sawaf (1997) gave greater emphasis to the higher aspects of human behaviour, particularly aspects associated with business leadership. Their concept includes factors such as intuition, integrity, personal purpose, and creativity, not emphasized by Goleman. Weisinger's (1998) definition is relatively close to Goleman's definition.

Currently, there are several definitions of EI in use and they do not necessarily match well. EI is a multifaceted construct and we do not have a
clear, simple definition of it. Nonetheless, the following are some of the widely used definitions at present. Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as "a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions".

Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive emotions, to assess and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotion so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Martinez (1997) refers to emotional intelligence as being "an array of non cognitive skills, capabilities and competencies that influence a person's ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures" (cited in Len Tischler et al., 2002).

Goleman (1997) provides a very useful definition of the construct of emotional intelligence, which is about:

- Knowing what you are feeling and being able to handle those feelings without having them swamp you;
- Being able to motivate yourself to get jobs done, be creative and perform at your peak; and
- Sensing what others are feeling, and handling relationship effectively.

In other words, Emotional Intelligence, as defined by Goleman, is the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships. His framework has five branches: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills.
Cooper and Sawaf (1997) define emotional intelligence as the ability to sense, understand, and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection, and influence.

Bar-On's (1997) non-cognitive model defines emotional intelligence as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures".

Weisinger (1998) defined emotional intelligence as "the intelligent use of emotions: you intentionally make your emotions work for you by using them to help guide your behaviour and thinking in ways that enhance your results".

Caruso (1999), co-creator of the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEJS), has offered another definition: 'Emotional intelligence is the ability to use your emotions to help you solve problems and live a more effective life. Emotional intelligence without intelligence, or intelligence without emotional intelligence, is only part of a solution. The complete solution is the head working with the heart'.

Emotional intelligence has been defined by Mayer et al., (1999) as an ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and their relationships to reason, and problem-solve on the basis of them. Emotional intelligence is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions, and manage them.

El has been defined by lames (2004) as the ability of a person to use emotions as a guiding tool for interpersonal effectiveness in his or her social environment.

According to Murthy (2004), El is the ability to choose the right feelings appropriate to a given situation and the skill to communicate these feelings
effectively. It is the emotional competency which includes awareness of our own emotions, ability to identify and empathise with others' feelings, understanding the impact of one's emotions on others, and sensitivity to cultural sanctions for expression of emotions that constitutes EI.

3.2.3 EI at the workplace

Organizations dispose of a variety of mechanisms to neutralize emotions at the workplace. These mechanisms aim to either prevent emotions from arising in the first place or to "safety" control those emotions that arise; work groups with higher EI appear to have the necessary criteria to be productive from the outset (Goleman, 1995). Therefore, it appears that it is in the organization’s best interest to ensure that positive levels of EI are displayed in both individual and team work settings.

According to Goleman's research on EI, vis-à-vis the leadership style of executives, close to 90 per cent of their leadership success was attributable to emotional intelligence. Managers who use emotional intelligence can ameliorate stress related to job insecurity and also help to reference the situation so that it positively impacts employee performance. Maintaining healthy and productive relationships between employees and the organization can be a high leverage influence. When managers seek to continue a spirit of shared goals with employees, they become quite convincing, which is in the best interest of the employee to remain a part of the team.

Emotional quotient also helps one to cope with stressful organizational solutions. Stress management, therefore, largely depends upon striking an emotional balance between a potential stress condition and the person's reaction to it. Only professionals with a higher degree of emotional quotient can develop such an effective support system.
Given the value of the personal and organizational effectiveness of EI-based capacities, organizations need to hire for emotional intelligence along with whatever other technical skills or business expertise they are seeking. Some of the ways in which emotional intelligence assists us in our work based upon the four branch theory of emotional intelligence are:

(a) **Identifying Emotions**
- One needs to be aware of his/her own feelings and emotions so that he/she is not blinded by his/her emotions.
- Being aware of others’ emotions is a key to working with people.

(b) **Using Emotions**
- Creative ideas can come from one's ability to generate a mood or an emotion.
- Feeling for other people, having empathy may be based in part upon your ability to generate a feeling that other people feel.

(c) **Understanding Emotions**
- know what motivates people
- understand other people's points of view
- understand and handle team interactions

(d) **Managing Emotions**
- stay aware of your emotions, which have valuable information, and use them to solve problems.
- take a feeling of sadness, find out why you have been disappointed, and solve the problem.
Chapter 3

- take a feeling of anger, find out why you are frustrated, and solve the problems.
- take a feeling of anxiety, find out why you are worried, and solve the problem take a feeling of job, find out why you are happy, and do it again.

Emotional intelligence forcefully impacts one's work life in many ways:

- EQ in sales, administration, customer service and management stimulates motivation, reduces stress, improves communication and enhances decision making.
- EQ positively impacts one's ability to sustain both physical and mental health.
- EQ is a primary factor in healthy ageing, permitting long life and wellness.
- EQ helps in the identification and expression of one's feelings.
- EQ allows one to address fears using reasons, rather than avoiding them or allowing them to paralyze him.
- Because of high EQ one can empathize with others' feelings, acknowledge them, and seek to soothe them.

Research has identified the potential of emotional intelligence to predict a range of interpersonal qualities in the workplace that may contribute to successful organizational change.

3.2.4 The Major Emotional Intelligence Models

The Encyclopedia of Applied Psychology states that there are three major models of emotional intelligence:
Theoretical Framework of Emotional Intelligence and Managerial Skills

a) The Mayer-Salovey model: which defines this construct as the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions to facilitate thinking;

b) The Bar-On model: which describes El as a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that impact intelligent behaviour and

c) The Goleman model: which views it as an array of emotional and social competencies that contribute to managerial performance.

The Bar-On Model and the Goleman Model are also known as the Mixed Models of Emotional Intelligence. Models that mix together emotional intelligence qualities with other personality traits unrelated to either emotion or intelligence are often referred to as mixed models of emotional intelligence.

3.2.4.1 The Mayer-Salovey Model of Emotional Intelligence (Ability Model)

It is the first formal model of emotional intelligence - the 1990 model - was the one Daniel Goleman relied on in his popularization of the field. The Mayer-Salovey model of Emotional Intelligence is widely known as the 'Ability Model of EI'. The model views emotions and thoughts as working with each other in adaptive ways. This model defines El as "intelligence" in the traditional sense, that is, as a set of mental abilities to do with emotions and the processing of emotional information that are a part of, and contribute to, logical thought and intelligence in general. These abilities are arranged hierarchically from basic psychological process to the more psychologically integrated and complex ones, and are thought to develop with age and experience in much the same way as crystallized abilities. Further, they are
considered to be independent of traits and talents and preferred ways of behaving (Mayer and Salovey, 1993).

Emotional intelligence refers in part to an ability to recognize the meanings of emotional patterns and to reason and solve problems on the basis of them (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotion so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

The Mayer-Salovey model was initially known as the Four Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence. This model describes four areas of capacities or skills that collectively describe many of areas of emotional intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). The domain of emotional intelligence describes several discrete emotional abilities. As per the ability model of EI, these emotional abilities can be divided into four classes or branches, as shown below.

![Figure 3.1 Mayer-Salovey Model of Emotional Intelligence](source:www.sebwyn.org)
1. **Perception and Appraisal of emotions (Identifying Emotions):**

The most basic skill involves the perception and appraisal of emotion. It is the ability to recognize how you and those around you are feeling. The initial, most basic, area has to do with the nonverbal reception and expression of emotion. The capacity to accurately perceive emotions in the face or voice of others provides a crucial starting point for more advanced understanding of emotions.

Individuals who accurately appraise and express (perceive and respond to) their emotions are likely to be better understood by the people they work with, and they also have the potential to better lead and manage people when they are able to perceive the emotions of the people around them and to develop empathy - the ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them oneself. (Salovey and Mayer, 1989, 1990)

2. **Assimilating Emotion in Thought (Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought):**

The second set of skills involves assimilating basic emotional experiences into mental life, including weighing emotions against one another and against other sensations and thoughts and allowing emotions to direct attention. In other words, "it is the capacity of the emotions to enter into and guide the cognitive system and promote thinking. For example, cognitive scientists point out that emotions prioritize thinking. In other words, something we respond to emotionally, is something that grabs our attention. We may hold an emotional state consciousness so as to compare it with a similar sensation in sound, colour, or taste (Mayer et al., 2000).
Individuals also differ in the ways (functional vs. dysfunctional) in which they utilise their emotions. Emotions can:

- Help in generating multiple future plans (flexible planning)
- Improve the decision-making process due to a better understanding of one's emotional reaction (creative thinking)
- Facilitate cognitive processes such as creativity on the one hand and punctuality on the other hand (mood redirected attention); and
- Enhance persistence regarding challenging tasks (motivating emotions) (Salovey and Mayer, 1989, 1990)

3. **Understanding and Analysing Emotions:**

   The third level involves understanding and reasoning about emotions. It is the ability to understand complex emotions and emotional 'chains', how emotions transition from one stage to another. According to the proponents of the model, emotions convey information: Happiness usually indicates a desire to join with other people; anger indicates a desire to attack or harm others; fear indicates a desire to escape, and so forth. According to Mayer and Barsade (2008), each emotion conveys its own pattern of possible messages, and actions associated with those messages. He says that a message of anger, for example, may mean that the individual feels treated unfairly. The anger, in turn, might be associated with specific sets of possible actions: peacemaking, attacking, retribution and revenge seeking, or withdrawal to seek calmness. Understanding emotional messages and the actions associated with them is one important aspect of this area of skill. In other words, emotional...
intelligence involves the ability to recognize the emotions, to know how they unfold, and to reason about them accordingly.

4. Managing Emotions:

The fourth and the highest level of emotional intelligence involves the management and regulation of emotion in oneself and others such as knowing how to calm down after feeling angry or being able to alleviate the anxiety of another person. Mayer et al. (2008) say that a person needs to understand that emotions convey information. To the extent that it is under voluntary control, a person may want to remain open to emotional signals so long as they are not too painful, and block out those that are overwhelming. In between, within the person's emotional comfort zone, it becomes possible to regulate and manage one's own and others' emotions so as to promote one's own and others' personal and social goals.

People differ in their ability to manage (monitor, evaluate, and adjust to changing moods) their emotions, as well as in their ability to regulate and alter the affective reactions of others (Salovey and Mayer 1989, 1990). Regulation of one's own emotions and moods results in positive and negative affective states. Emotionally intelligent individuals are adept at placing themselves in positive affective states and are able to experience negative affective states that have insignificant destructive consequences.

Mayer et al. (2000) opine that the mental ability model of emotional intelligence makes predictions about the internal structure of the intelligence and also its implications for a person's life. The theory predicts that emotional intelligence is, in fact, an intelligence like other intelligences is that it will meet three empirical criteria. First, mental
problems have right or wrong answers, as assessed by the convergence of alternative scoring methods. Second, the measured skills correlate with other measures of mental ability (because mental abilities tend to intercorrelate) as well as with self-reported empathy. Third, the absolute ability level rises with age (Mayer et al., 2000). The model further predicts that emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to (a) have grown up in biologically adaptive households (i.e., have had emotionally sensitive parenting), (b) be non-defensive, (c) be able to reframe emotions effectively (i.e., be realistically optimistic and appreciative), (d) choose good emotional role models, (e) be able to communicate and discuss feelings, and (f) develop expert knowledge in a particular emotional area such as aesthetics, moral or ethical feeling, social problem solving, leadership, or spiritual feeling (Mayer and Salovey, 1995).

3.2.4.2 The Bar-On Model of Emotional Intelligence

Unlike the Ability model, the Bar-On model explicitly includes non-ability traits also in its efforts to explain Emotional Intelligence and it is also known as Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence. The Bar-On's (1997) non-cognitive model defines emotional intelligence as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures". While Bar-On (2000) places this model under the banner of EI, it is a somewhat broader construct to which he more generically refers as "emotional and social intelligence". This model describes EI as a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that impact intelligent behaviour. He defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and
Theoretical Framework of Emotional Intelligence and Managerial Skills

coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands.

This model can be divided into two main parts. The first part is the theory, or conceptualization, of emotional-social intelligence; and the second part is the psychometric aspect of the model, which is, essentially, the measure of emotional social intelligence based on the theory and designed to assess it. These two aspects of the model have also been referred to as (a) the Bar-On conceptual model of emotional-social intelligence, and (b) the Bar-On psychometric model of emotional-social intelligence, while (c) the Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence refers to both the conceptual and the psychometric aspects of this model combined into one entity. The psychometric aspect of the Bar-On model is the measure of the construct which was created to assess the conceptual aspect of this model. The Bar-On (1997) model of emotional intelligence was intended to answer the question, "Why are some individuals more able to succeed in life than others?" Bar-On reviewed the psychological literature for personality characteristics that appeared related to life success. He has operationalised this model according to 15 conceptual components that pertain to five specific dimensions of emotional and social intelligence. These five major domains in Bar-On's (1997) model are:

1) Intrapersonal skills: representing abilities, capabilities, competencies and skills pertaining to the inner self.

2) Interpersonal skills: representing interpersonal skills and functioning.

3) Adaptability: representing how successfully one is able to cope with environmental demands by effectively sizing up and dealing with problematic situations.
4) Stress management: concerning the ability to manage and cope effectively with stress, and

5) General mood: pertaining to the ability to enjoy life and to maintain a positive disposition.

Each broad area is further subdivided. For example, intrapersonal skills are divided into emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, and independence. The 15 components of the model are described as non-cognitive variables that resemble personality factors (Bar-On, 1997). Bar-On offered the following rationale for his use of the ten forms of emotional intelligence:

*Intelligence* describes the aggregate of abilities, competencies, and skills that represent a *collection of knowledge used to cope with life effectively*. The adjective ‘emotional’ is employed to emphasize that this specific type of
intelligence differs from cognitive intelligence (Bar-On, 1997). Bar-On's theoretical work combines what may qualify as mental abilities (e.g., emotional self-awareness) with other characteristics that are considered separable from mental ability, such as personal independence, self-regard, and mood; this makes it a mixed model (cited in Mayer et al., 2000). Bar-On (1997) contended that to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express ourselves, to understand and relate well with others, and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures. Bar-On proposes that the components of this model develop over time, change throughout life, and can be improved through training and development programmes, and that the model relates to the potential for performance rather than the performance itself.

The development of Bar-On's model of El had been influenced by the contributions of many earlier theorists including Darwin, Thorndike and Wechsler. Darwin's early work (1837-1872) on the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation influenced the development of the Bar-On model, which also stresses the importance of emotional expression and views the outcome of emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour in terms of effective and successful adaptation. Thorndike's (1920) description of social intelligence and its importance for human performance as well as Wechsler's (1940) observations related to the impact of non-intellective (non-cognitive) factors on what he referred to as intelligent behavior, are also influenced the development of the Bar-On's Model. Gardner's (1983) introduction of the concept of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences, within the context of multiple intelligences, had an impact on the development of the intrapersonal and interpersonal components of the Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence.
The most popularly used measure of Emotional Intelligence is the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (the EQ-i). The development of the conceptual aspect of the Bar-On model and the construction of its psychometric component (the EQ-i) are closely interrelated. Consequently, the EQ-i may be considered an 'operationalisation' of this model. Consistent with the way this model is conceptualized, to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express ourselves, to understand and relate well with others, and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures. This is based, first and foremost, on our interpersonal ability to be aware of ourselves, to understand our strengths and weaknesses, and to express our feelings and thoughts non-destructively.

On the interpersonal level, being emotionally and socially intelligent encompasses the ability to be aware of others' emotions, feelings and needs, and to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships. Ultimately, being emotionally and socially intelligent means to effectively manage personal, social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation, solving problems and making decisions as the need arises. To do this, we need to manage emotions so that they work for us and not against us, and we need to be sufficiently optimistic, positive and self-motivated. Subsequently, Bar-On (2000) defined EI in terms of an array of emotional and social knowledge and abilities that influence our overall ability to effectively cope with environmental demands. This array includes

1) The ability to be aware of, to understand, and to express oneself;
2) The ability to be aware of, to understand, and to relate to others;
3) The ability to deal with strong emotions and control one's impulses; and

4) The ability to adapt to change and to solve problems of a personal or a social nature.

3.2.4.3 The Goleman Model (The Emotional Competencies Model):

Daniel Goleman's books, *Emotional Intelligence* (1995) and *Working with Emotional Intelligence* (1998b), have served to popularize this relatively new area of 'Emotional Intelligence'. He has presented his adaptation of a few existing models of emotional intelligence and emphasized how it is altered throughout life, the ways basic emotional skills can augment one's ability to function better and to succeed in life, and the price paid for what he calls "emotional literacy".

The El model introduced by Daniel Goleman focuses on El as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive managerial performance. The competency-based model of emotional intelligence by Goleman (2001) has been designed specifically for workplace applications. In *Working with Emotional Intelligence*, Goleman (1998b) explored the function of El on the job, and claimed El to be the strongest predictor of success in the workplace, with more recent confirmation of these findings on a worldwide sample seen in Bradberry and Greaves, "The Emotional Intelligence Quick Book" (2005). In his research at nearly 200 large, global companies, Goleman found that truly effective leaders are distinguished by a high degree of emotional intelligence. Without it, a person can have first-class training, an incisive mind, and an endless supply of good ideas, but he still won’t be a great leader. Goleman's model of intelligence is also a mixed model and it is characterized by the five broad areas. They are: 1) knowing one's emotions (Self awareness),
2) managing emotions (Self-management), 3) motivating oneself, 4) recognizing emotions in others (Social awareness), and 5) handling relationships (Relationship management). Goleman included a set of emotional competencies within each construct of EI. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.

![The Emotional Competence Framework](http://managementpocketbooks.wordpress.com)

**Figure 3.3 Goleman Model (The Emotional Competencies Model)**

Goleman (1998a) summarises the five broad areas of his EI model in his famous article published in Harvard Business Review (HBR) as given in the following Table:
Table 3.1. Summary of the five broad areas of competency-based model of EI by Goleman

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
<th>Hallmarks</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-Awareness</td>
<td>The ability to recognize and understand your moods, emotions, and drives, as well as their effect on others.</td>
<td>• Self-confidence</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Realistic self-assessment</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Self-deprecating sense of humour</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self-Regulation</td>
<td>The ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods. The propensity to suspend judgment-to think before acting.</td>
<td>• Trustworthiness and integrity</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Comfort with ambiguity</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Openness to change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>A passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status. A propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence.</td>
<td>• Strong drive to achieve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Optimism, even in the face of failure</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Organisational commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>The ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people. Skill in treating people according to their emotional reactions.</td>
<td>• Expertise in building and retaining talent</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• cross-cultural sensitivity service to clients and customers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social skill</td>
<td>Proficiency in managing relationships and building networks. An ability to find common ground and build rapport.</td>
<td>• Effectiveness in leading change persuasiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Expertise in building and leading teams</td>
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Goleman (1995) recognized that he was moving from emotional intelligence to something far broader. He states that "ego resilience is quite similar to [this model] emotional intelligence" in that it includes social (and emotional) competencies. He goes so far as to note that, "There is an old-fashioned word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: *Character*" (Goleman, 1995). Goleman (1995) notes that, "at best, IQ contributes about 20 per cent to the factors that determine life success, which leaves 80 per cent to other factors". He further states that El can be as powerful as, and at times more powerful than, IQ". Mayer et al. (2000) opine that, 'it is hard not to conclude that at least part of the popular excitement surrounding emotional intelligence is due to these very strong claims'. Goleman (2001) proposes that the underlying abilities of the model are necessary, though not sufficient, to manifest competence in anyone of the El domains and that the emotional competencies are job skills that can be learned. Within this context, Goleman defines emotional intelligence as the ability to recognize and regulate emotions both within the self and others.
### Table 3.2 Three Competing Models of Emotional Intelligence*

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall Definition</strong></td>
<td>Overall definition</td>
<td>Overall definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Emotional intelligence is the set of abilities that account for how people's emotional perception and understanding vary in their accuracy. More formally, we define emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion and regulate emotion in the self and others&quot;. (Mayer &amp; Salovey, 1997)</td>
<td>&quot;Emotional intelligence is an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures&quot;. (Bar-On, 1997)</td>
<td>&quot;The abilities called here emotional intelligence, which include self control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself&quot; (Goleman, 1995). &quot;There is an old-fashioned word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: Character&quot; (Goleman, 1995).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Major Areas of skills and Specific Examples</strong></td>
<td><strong>Major Areas of skills and Specific Examples</strong></td>
<td><strong>Major Areas of skills and Specific Examples</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perception and Expression of Emotion</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intercorporal Skills</strong></td>
<td><strong>Knowing One's Emotions</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying and expressing emotions in one's physical states, feelings, and thoughts. Identifying and expressing emotions in other people, artwork, language, etc.</td>
<td>Emotional self-awareness</td>
<td>Recognizing a feeling as it happens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assimilating Emotion in Thought</strong></td>
<td>Self-regard</td>
<td>Monitoring feelings from moment to moment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions prioritize thinking in productive ways</td>
<td>Self-actualization</td>
<td><strong>Management of Emotions</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions generated as aids to judgment and memory</td>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>Handling feelings so they are appropriate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Understanding and Expressing Emotions</strong></td>
<td>Interpersonal skills</td>
<td><strong>Ability to soothe oneself</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to label emotions, including complex emotions and simultaneous feelings</td>
<td>Interpersonal relationships</td>
<td>Ability to shake off rampant anxiety, gloom, or irritability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to understand relationships associated with shifts of emotions</td>
<td>Social responsibility</td>
<td><strong>Motivating Oneself</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reflective Regulation of Emotion</strong></td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>Marshalling emotions in the service of a goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to stay open to feelings</td>
<td>Adaptability Scales:</td>
<td>Delaying gratification and shifting impulsiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to monitor and regulate emotions reflectively to promote emotional and intellectual growth</td>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>Being able to get into the &quot;flow&quot; state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mayer and Salovey, 1997)</td>
<td>Reality testing</td>
<td>Recognizing Emotions in Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td><strong>Empathic awareness</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stress Management Scales:</td>
<td>Attraction to what others need or want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stress tolerance</td>
<td><strong>Handling Relationships</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impulse control</td>
<td>Skill in managing emotions in others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General mood:</td>
<td>Interacting smoothly with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Optimism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model Type</strong></td>
<td><strong>Model Type</strong></td>
<td><strong>Model Type</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Models of Emotional Intelligence by Mayer et al. (2000)*
3.2.5 Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI)

The ECI is a 360-degree tool designed to assess the emotional competencies of individuals and organizations. It is based on emotional competencies identified by Dr. Daniel Goleman in *Working with Emotional Intelligence* (1998), and on competencies from Hay/McBer’s *Generic Competency Dictionary* (1996) as well as Dr. Richard Boyatzis’s Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SAQ). Hay/McBer’s *Generic Competency Dictionary* was originated by Lyle and Signe Spencer as documented in their book *Competence at Work* (1993), and revised by the psychologist David McClelland after an extensive review of the literature. It is based on over 20 years of research initiated by Dr. McClelland (1973) with his seminal article, “Testing for Competence rather than Intelligence.” Hay/McBer and other researchers have established that every core competency in the Dictionary reliably differentiates performance in a variety of organizations.

The Self-Assessment Questionnaire was initially developed by Dr. Boyatzis in 1991 for use with MBA and executive students to assess competencies in the Generic Model of Management used at the Weatherhead School of Management, Case Western Reserve University. The SAQ has shown a high degree of construct validity against a variety of behavioural and questionnaire measures. Since 1991, it has been used in numerous studies, including longitudinal research (Boyatzis, Baker, Leonard et al., 1995; Boyatzis, Cowen & Kolb, 1995). Expanding upon Dr. Boyatzis’s well-established evaluation measure, Dr. Boyatzis and Dr. Goleman developed a pool of items designed to capture the full spectrum of emotional competencies. Items were selected from this pool based on conceptual and logical considerations. Hay/McBer consultants further refined these items to
reflect developmental scaling, which is characteristic of Hay/McBer’s *Generic Dictionary of Competencies*. Developmental scales were designed and target levels were identified based on expert opinion and prior studies.

### 3.2.6 Importance of Emotional intelligence

When it comes to happiness and success in life, emotional intelligence (EQ) matters just as much as intellectual ability (IQ). Emotional intelligence helps you build stronger relationships, succeed at work, and achieve your career and personal goals. As we know, it is not the smartest people that are the most successful or the most fulfilled in life. We probably know people who are academically brilliant and yet are socially inept and unsuccessful at work or in their personal relationships. Intellectual intelligence (IQ) is not enough on its own to be successful in life. Yes, one’s IQ can help him/her get into college, but it is one’s EQ that will help him/her manage the stress and emotions when facing their final exams.

Emotional intelligence affects:

- **performance at work.** Emotional intelligence can help us navigate the social complexities of the workplace, lead and motivate others, and excel in our career. In fact, when it comes to gauging job candidates, many companies now view emotional intelligence as being as important as technical ability and require EQ testing before hiring.

- **physical health.** If we are unable to manage our stress levels, it can lead to serious health problems. Uncontrolled stress can raise blood pressure, suppress the immune system, increase the risk of heart attack and stroke, contribute to infertility, and speed up the aging process. The first step to improving emotional intelligence is to learn how to relieve stress.
Chapter 3

- **mental health.** Uncontrolled stress can also impact our mental health, making us vulnerable to anxiety and depression. If we are unable to understand and manage our emotions, we will also be open to mood swings, while an inability to form strong relationships can leave us feeling lonely and isolated.

- **relationships.** By understanding our emotions and how to control them, we are better able to express how we feel and understand how others are feeling. This allows us to communicate more effectively and forge stronger relationships, both at work and in our personal life.

3.2.7 Can Emotional Intelligence be Learned?

This is an interesting question and this particular aspect-learnable, made this concept so popular all over the world. Are people born with certain levels of empathy, for example, or do they acquire empathy as a result of life's experiences? Goleman (1998b) says the answer is both. He states that the scientific inquiry strongly suggests that there is a genetic component to emotional intelligence. He further says that psychological and developmental research indicates that nurture plays a role as well. How much of each perhaps will never be known, but research and practice clearly demonstrate that emotional intelligence can be learned (Galeman, 1998b). He has the opinion that EI can be improved with the help of the training programmes focused on the right part of the brain. EI is born largely in the neurotransmitters of the brain's limbic system, which governs feelings, impulses, and drives. Research indicates that the limbic system learns best through motivation, extended practice, and feedback. Compare this with the kind of learning that goes on in the neocortex, which governs analytical and technical ability. The neocortex grasps concepts and logic. It is the part of the brain that figures out
how to use a computer or make sales call by reading a book. Goleman (1998b) says not surprisingly—but mistakenly—it is also the part of the brain targeted by most training programmes aimed at enhancing emotional intelligence.

Based on his research with the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organisations, he further adds that when such programmes take, in effect, a neocortical approach can even have a negative impact on people's job performance. Goleman (1998b) opines that the organisations must refocus their training to include the limbic system to enhance the emotional intelligence of the employees and the training programme requires an individualized approach. Sincere desire and concerted effort from the part of the individual is essential for building one's emotional intelligence. A brief seminar won't help; nor can one buy a how-to learn manual. It is much harder to learn to empathize—to internalize empathy as a natural response to people—than it is to become adept at regression analysis (Goleman 1998b). Goleman (1998a) concludes his famous HBR article, thus: "It is fortunate, then, that emotional intelligence can be learned. The process is not easy. It takes time and, most of all, commitment. But the benefits that come from having a well-developed emotional intelligence, both for the individual and for the organisation, make it worth the effort".

Raju (2004) proposes the following as the ways in which one can improve his emotional intelligence:

- Take responsibility for your emotions and your happiness.
- Examine your own feelings rather than the actions or motives of other people.
Develop constructive coping skills for specific moods. Learn to relax when your emotions are running high and to get up and move when you are feeling down.

Make hunting for the silver lining a game. Look for the humour or life lesson in a negative situation.

Be honest with yourself. Acknowledge your negative feelings, look for their source, and come up with a way to solve the underlying problem.

Show respect by respecting other people's feelings.

Avoid people who invalidate you or don't respect your feelings.

Listen twice as much as you speak.

Pay attention to non-verbal communication. We communicate with our whole selves. Watch faces, listen to tone of voice, and take note of body language.

Realize that improving your EI will take time and patience.

### 3.2.8 Key Domains of Emotional Intelligence:

The key domains of emotional intelligence, according to Goleman (1995), are Self-Awareness, Self-Control, Motivation, Empathy and Social Skill. They are elucidated as given below:
3.2.8.1 Self-Awareness (Knowing One’s Emotions)

The ability to “recognize a feeling as it happens and put it off if inconvenient” is the keystone to emotional intelligence. One has to be aware of his own and others’ feelings and emotions in order to have accurate data and information about the world around him. An individual’s ability to monitor feelings from moment to moment is crucial for his/her psychological insight and self-understanding. Being aware of other's emotions is essential for building a successful workplace environment and quality interpersonal relationships. One can respond appropriately to a situation only if he can read his emotions in that situation. The skill comes into play in most jobs, particularly those that involve dealing with people. People who are unable to know their feelings are at a tremendous disadvantage. In a sense, they are emotional illiterates.
3.2.8.2 Self-Control (Managing or Controlling one’s Emotions)

This domain of EI comprises the ability to regulate moods and emotions in oneself and in other people. Emotionally intelligent people must be able to monitor, discriminate, and label their feelings accurately, believe that they can improve or otherwise modify these feelings, employ strategies that will alter their feelings, and assess the effectiveness of these strategies. That is emotionally intelligent people will be able to handle uncomfortable emotions, once they have accepted that they are feeling them. At times, one can stay open to his feelings, learn from them, and use them to take appropriate action. Other times, however, it may be better to disengage from an emotion and return to it later. This work is mainly about developing an inner mothering mode and learning to soothe ourselves when Theoretical and Conceptual Orientation things seem difficult. The attitude one should have is ‘whatever it takes, to make me feel’, I care about myself and my value myself.

3.2.8.3 Motivating Oneself

Positive motivation – the marshalling of feelings of enthusiasm, zeal and confidence – is paramount for achievement. To motivate oneself for any achievement requires clear goals and an optimistic ‘can-do’ attitude. Emotions motivate us but also can disempower us if they are too strong and if we allow them to overwhelm us. It requires delaying gratification or stifling impulsiveness. People who have this skill tend to be more highly productive and effective in whatever task they undertake.

3.2.8.4 Empathy (Recognizing Emotions of Others)

The capacity to know how another person feels is important in any job and in the case of managers too. As one begins to recognize emotions in oneself and realizes her/his own emotional weather systems, she/he will be
able to sense them in others more accurately. This means one can feel with someone rather than feel about themselves. People, who are empathetic, are more attuned to the subtle social signals that others’ need or want. Understanding emotions includes knowledge of the emotional lexicon, including simple and complex emotion terms, and the ways in which emotions combine (anger and disgust form contempt), progress (annoyance to anger to rage), and transition to one another, the capacity to analyze emotions and their causes, and the ability to predict how people will feel and react in different situations. This skill answers the reason for feeling anxious, the consequences of an action, etc. Empathy skills are most important in managing relationships. When a person is empathetic, she/he has the ability to have strong bonds with other people, can communicate more clearly, can understand others’ view points, have compassion and can forgive others for their transgression. Goleman has explained empathy as ‘social radar’. He explains empathy as being able to pick up another’s feeling without having a word uttered by them.

3.2.8.5 Social Skills (Handling Relationships)

The art of relationship is, in large part, skill in managing emotions in others. Understanding of other people’s emotions gives us the ability to motivate them, be effective leaders, and to work in successful teams. People who excel in these skills do well at anything that relies in interacting smoothly with others. The old rigidities, born out of fear or anxiety, can dissolve into acceptance of others and ourselves. EI gives the ability to have ‘grace under fire’ and to act with integrity and courage. The four interpersonal skills described by Schmuck et al. (1977) are paraphrasing, impression checking, describing other’s behaviour and describing one’s own feelings. The five domains of EI have, altogether, twenty-five sub domains under them. All of them are given in Table 3.4 below.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Self-Awareness</strong></th>
<th><strong>Knowing one’s internal state, preferences, resources and intuitions</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional awareness</td>
<td>Recognizing one’s emotions and their effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accurate self-assessment</td>
<td>Knowing one’s strengths and limits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td>A strong sense of one’s self-worth and capacities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Self-Control</strong></th>
<th><strong>Managing one’s internal state, impulses and resources</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-regulation</td>
<td>Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses under check</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>Maintaining standards of honesty and integrity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>Taking responsibility for personal performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>Flexibility in handling change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovation</td>
<td>Being comfortable with novel ideas and approaches</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Motivation</strong></th>
<th><strong>Emotional tendencies that facilitate reaching goals</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement drive</td>
<td>Striving to meet a standard of excellence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Aligning with group or organizational goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>Readiness to act on opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optimism</td>
<td>Persistence despite setbacks and obstacles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Empathy</strong></th>
<th><strong>Awareness of others’ feelings, needs and concerns</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understanding others</td>
<td>Sensing and taking active interest in others’ concerns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing others</td>
<td>Sensing others’ development needs and helping them in growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service orientation</td>
<td>Anticipating, recognizing, and meeting others’ needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leveraging diversity</td>
<td>Cultivating opportunities through different kinds of people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political awareness</td>
<td>Reading a group’s power relationships</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Social skills</strong></th>
<th><strong>Adeptness at including desirable responses in others</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influence</td>
<td>Wielding effective tactics for persuasion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Listening openly and sending convincing messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict management</td>
<td>Negotiating and dissolving disagreements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Inspiring and guiding individuals and groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change catalyst</td>
<td>Initiating or managing change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building bonds</td>
<td>Nurturing instrumental relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration and cooperation</td>
<td>Working with others toward shared goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team capabilities</td>
<td>Creating group synergy in pursuing group goals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Apart from Goleman’s theory, Dabrowski, Mayer-Salovey-Caruso, and Hay Acquisition Company have significantly contributed to the theory of emotional intelligence and its measurement. Dabrowski’s theory of emotional development suggests that personality structure disintegrates between levels of development, with the highest level approaching universality as described in this study. Emotions are the directing forces of development and they drive the transition from lower levels to higher levels. Intense negative emotions have a disintegrating power that is necessary to dismantle the primary integration and assist the move to secondary integration.

3.2.9 The Emotional Skills Assessment Process (ESAP)

It is a self-assessment instrument with 213 items providing scale-specific measures of: (1) Assertion, (2) Comfort, (3) Empathy, (4) Decision Making, (5) Leadership, (6) Time Management, (7) Drive Strength, (8) Commitment Ethic, (9) Self-esteem, and (10) Stress Management. The problematic indicators measured are Aggression, Deference, and Change Orientation, which are related to the need for skill development in the areas of Anger Management, Anxiety Management, and Positive Personal Change. The instrument was constructed in an independent response format with a Likert type rating scale for each item.

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) is designed to measure the four branches of the EI model of Mayer and Salovey. It was developed from an intelligence-testing tradition formed by the emerging scientific understanding of emotions and their functions and from the first published ability measure specifically intended to assess emotional intelligence, namely, Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). MSCEIT consists of 141 items and takes 30-45 minutes to complete. MSCEIT provides 15 main scores: Total EI score, two Area scores, four Branch scores, and eight Task
scores. In addition to these 15 scores, there are three Supplemental scores (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). The four-branch model of emotional intelligence consists in identifying the emotion(s) present, using the emotion to think and solve problems, understanding the causes of the emotion(s), and managing the emotions to obtain positive results.

The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), by Hay Acquisition Company, I, Inc. USA., is a measure of 18 emotional competencies arranged in 4 clusters – Self Awareness, Self Management, Social Awareness and Relationship Management. The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) is a 360 multi-rater feedback instrument. The ECI combines the seminal work of Goleman and Richard Boyatzis with the Hay Group’s 35 years of competency research and field-proven assessment technology. The ECI is used to provide detailed and focused feedback about individual strengths and areas for improvement, it indicates the specific emotional competencies where development will enhance the individual’s emotional intelligence.

Earlier, Goleman in 1995 had identified five characteristics of persons with high emotional intelligence. But, recently in 2002, he has reorganized his conceptualizations of EI and now stressed only four Clusters of EI: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. (Table 3.5). EI stresses the importance of being able to deal with both the inner world of self and external world of interactions with others and the environment. These four clusters having nineteen categories (Table 3.5) are described in his 2002 book, “Primal Leadership”. Two extra categories were added by the Hay Group (2002). They are as given in italics in Table 3.5 of Emotional Intelligence Dimensions:
Table 3.5 Emotional Intelligence Dimensions (Goleman, 2002 and Hay Group, 2002)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Salient Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cluster: Self-Awareness</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional self-awareness</td>
<td>Recognizing one’s emotions and their effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accurate self-assessment</td>
<td>Knowing one’s strengths and limits.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td>A strong sense of one’s self-worth and capacities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cluster: Self – Management</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional self-control</td>
<td>Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses under check.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>Maintaining standards of honesty and integrity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Conscientiousness</em></td>
<td>Taking responsibility for personal performance.</td>
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<td>Flexibility in handling change.</td>
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<td>Optimism</td>
<td>Persistence despite setbacks and obstacles.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Achievement orientation</td>
<td>Striving to meet a standard of excellence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>Readiness to act on opportunities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cluster: Social Awareness</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>Awareness of others’ feelings, needs and concerns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Awareness</td>
<td>Reading a group’s power relationships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service orientation</td>
<td>Anticipating, recognizing, and meeting others’ needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cluster: Relationship Management</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing others</td>
<td>Sensing others’ development needs and helping in growth.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building bonds</td>
<td>Nurturing instrumental relationships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teamwork &amp; Collaboration</td>
<td>Creating group synergy in pursuing group goals and Working with others toward shared goals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* These categories were added later in the same year by the Hay Group (2002).
The present investigation on emotional intelligence is based on the 21 dimensions of Emotional Intelligence given in Table 3.5 above.

The first cluster of EI skills deals with the abilities of an individual which give him awareness about himself. Emotional self-awareness helps an individual to be aware of Theoretical and Conceptual Orientation about his emotions. The skill of emotional self-awareness is a real help in situations that provoke one for emotional outburst. Assessment of one’s own emotions accurately is a quality that is to be appreciated. This ability helps a person to excel in his area of strength and at the same time to be careful in his weak areas. Having a confidence about one’s capacities helps an individual to perform to the best of his abilities. Awareness about the emotional behaviour of an individual, his assessment about his emotions at a particular situation and his confidence in dealing with the situation in an emotionally mature way - these are all some of the indicators of EI.

Managing oneself is one among the important EI clusters. One who can manage his emotions will be able to manage his entire being. Emotional self-control is the ability of an individual to control her/his emotions in a manner appreciable to the society in which she/he lives. Lack of emotional self-control can lead to frustrations due to anger and rage. Being a person of integrity, whom people can trust, reflects the EI of the individual. One’s deeds determine whether he is trustworthy. People with high levels of EI will manage their personal matters such that they will be dedicated to their work. The quality of a person to adapt to a situation easily as well as to be optimistic in all situations substantiates that the individual is emotionally intelligent. One can manage his activities very well if he has a desire to achieve something. An orientation to achieve something acts as a motivation for a better performance.
The readiness of an individual to initiate an action is a clear evidence of his EI level. A person with high EI likes to initiate an action and to be the source of that change.

Emotionally intelligent people will be always aware of needs and problems in their society. He will be aware about the tensions in the society, different kinds of people in the society, and the ways he should choose to deal with each member of the society. Kindness and empathetic attitude are the characteristics of people with high EI. They try to understand each member of the society to which they belong. Emotionally intelligent people will have awareness about the society in which they are living and working. Such a person has the ability to deal appropriately with the members of the organization, according to their position in the social stratum. Taking extra effort in serving others without seeking any reward from them is another quality of an emotionally intelligent individual.

In a society, it is easy for an individual to make a relation with others; but to maintain that relation for a long time requires skill. People with high EI level have the ability to maintain good relationship with others. Understanding the needs of others and helping them to develop is a characteristic of the emotionally intelligent people. The needs of an individual can be understood very well if one has a close relationship with him. Giving help in all the possible ways to develop others is a quality which helps in maintaining good relationship with others. Leaders are the pillars on which the success of the whole group depends. Good leaders are those who have the capacity to lead a group and solve problems of that group without struggle. Emotionally intelligent leaders will not impose rules and restrictions upon their followers; rather, they will inspire others. The ability of a person to influence others
determines to an extent his relationship with them. Emotionally intelligent people will use effective tactics which give due respect to the individuality of people and persuade others in doing something. Relationship with others becomes stable only if they can share their views and ideologies. Listening to the opinions of others and responding to it with the help of good verbal as well as nonverbal language is a sign of good communication skill. Emotionally intelligent people will have the ability to initiate and manage a desired change. They have the ability to smoothen the frustrations caused due to the introduction of new things/issues. Conflicts can arise anywhere at any time. Resolving or managing conflicts is important to lead a peaceful life. Emotionally intelligent people have the ability to resolve the conflict without hurting the emotions of others. In maintaining a relation, it is important to nurture the relationship. People with high EI level build and maintain healthy relationship with others. Working in a team requires some special skill. Emotionally intelligent people will understand the feelings of other members of a group and always strive to maintain a peaceful atmosphere in the group.

This EI enhancement programme was carried out mainly by keeping in mind the contents of Table 3.5. Briefly, EI is a kind of social intelligence, which involves the capacity for recognizing one’s own feelings and those of others for motivating herself/himself and for managing emotions well in her/him and in her/his relationships. EI includes awareness and management of one’s self as well as of her/his societal relationships.

3.2.10 Conceptualization and assessment of Emotional Intelligence in the Indian context

As psychological processes are assumed to be culturally constituted and may be expected to vary with differences in cultural meaning and practices,
Misra’s paper examines the notion of Emotional Intelligence (EI) in the Indian Socio-Cultural Context. An attempt has been made to discern the indigenous notion of EI based on the perspective of people (parents, teachers and children) in the contemporary Indian society, where people exhibit a relational and context-sensitive construal of self. The results indicate that the Indian view of EI is embedded in its highly valued social concerns, virtues, cultural traditions and practices. These provide a frame for emotional learning and are therefore basic to the notion of EI. Responding to open-ended questions, the participants (N=1047) described the emotional qualities desired by them in children and those required to be successful in life. The indigenous view of EI takes cognizance of such factors as social sensitivity, pro-social values, action tendencies and effective states. The results indicate that the Indian view of EI is context-sensitive and focuses on the role of family and society in shaping one’s emotions.

By adopting a qualitative mode of inquiry, Sharma and Sharma explored the notion of Emotional Competence among a sample of adolescents (N=70). Open-ended interview and classroom-based enactments as well as written exercises accompanied by group discussions were the main strategy for making sense of the perspectives of the children. The study helped to discern the varied understanding and use of emotions in children’s everyday lives. Their developing awareness of emotions as the means of describing oneself demonstrates the interplay of thought and feeling. Pant and Prakash critically evaluated one of the original measures of emotional intelligence, the MEIS, in the Indian context. It can be concluded that most of the reliabilities of MEIS subtest are weak for the Indian sample. The inter-correlations between the subtests indicate that the MEIS do not meet the correlation standard for an intelligence. Further, in the Indian sample, no substantial gender differences
were observed in EI and there were weak (also negative) relationships with criterian measures of empathy and social skills.

Singh presents the findings of a study initiated for developing and standardizing a measure of EI. While writing the items, the study has followed Goleman’s (1998) model of EI competencies. Five dimensions: Self Awareness, Self Regulation, Motivation, Empathy and Social Skills, have been incorporated. Data were collected from managers (N=263) from various functional areas and representing a heterogeneous set of organizations. The scale was constructed and tested to examine the hypothesized positive relationship with three variables, viz., Organisational Commitment, Emotional Expression and Quality of life. The five dimensions of EI were positively correlated with organizational commitment, emotional expression and quality of life, suggesting concurrent validity.

Bhattacharaya attempted to examine the factor structure of the construct of EI in India. From a pool of 130 items drawn from various scales developed in western countries, 49 items were selected that were subjected to principal component factor analysis, followed by varimax rotation. The analysis yielded three factors: appraisal of negative emotions, appraisal of positive emotions, interpersonal conflicts and difficulties. The findings suggested that the construct of emotional interpersonal skills and flexibility, and goal on warding intelligence involve appraisal and experience of emotion for self and interpersonal situations in valance-specific terms (positive-negative) in India.

Tiwari and Srivastava investigated developmental change in EI on a sample of primary school children (N=270), drawn from different schools following a 2x3x3 factorial design, consisting of two gender groups (Male/Female), three types of medium of instruction (Hindi, English and
Mixed) and three grades (third, fourth and fifth). The results showed that gender had no significant main effect, while medium of instruction and grade had significant main effects on all the three components of EI, i.e., Expression and Appraisal, Regulation and Utilization of Emotions. It was noted that the children attending English medium schools scored higher followed by Hindi and Mixed medium school children, respectively. The older children of the fifth grade scored higher than third and fourth grade children. It was found that perceived environmental qualities of home as well as of school were positively related to EI score.

Relationships of the factor-analytically derived dimensions of EI with some of the organizationally relevant outcome variables were examined by Sinha and Jain, based on the data obtained from 250 middle-level male executives of two-wheeler automobile manufacturing organizations. Results based on multiple regression analysis suggest that the dimensions of EI were meaningfully related with the job satisfaction, personal effectiveness, organizational commitment, reputation effectiveness, general health, trust, turnover intention, organizational effectiveness and organizational productivity.

In the Indian context, the use of the EI concept is extremely important because Indians, by and large, have high affiliation need which, if effectively tapped through the appropriate use of the concept of EI, can lead to significant gains in productivity. Moreover, given the fact that the Indian organizations are now becoming more and more outward-looking, taking cognizance of cultural differences and the concept of EI for dealing with such variations to their advantage would considerably enhance their capability to achieve an even-level playing relationship with the world economic leaders. The possibility of developing skills related to EI has been scrutinized by several
investigators. For example, Guinan has the opinion that success in sport and physical activity requires individuals to assume a variety of roles and exhibit mental, physical and emotional strength. He claims that through his workshop, participants will experience activities designed to help individuals become more conscious of what they can offer their group or team, as well as what they need to develop and what they need from others to be successful. This process continues to open lines of communication, relationship building, appreciation, and compassion for the many differing personality styles within any group of two or more. Ultimately, by learning about themselves and others, and by learning to communicate and relate more effectively, individuals will be better prepared to promote team work, build esteem, gain co-operation, reward performance, accept change, resolve conflict, and improve communication and interpersonal dynamics.

3.3 The Bhagavad-Gita and Emotional Intelligence

The Bhagavad-Gita (the Divine song), considered to be the fifth Veda, is Lord Krishna’s moral guidance to Arjuna on the battle field. It is considered to be the essence of the four Vedas (Rig, Yajur, Sama and Atharva) (Robinson, 2005; Easwaran, 1985). The Vedas are Hindu religious texts which include hymns, incantations, religious rituals and sacrificial rites (Goodall, 1996). The Bhagavad-Gita gives the core message of the Vedas in a pragmatic way, thus being a more practical document than the Vedas (Jeste and Vahia, 2008). The background of Bhagavad-Gita is the Kurukshetra war where the first cousins stand against each other when Arjuna, the warrior nonpareil loses his nerve and refuses to fight. His mind is a cauldron of emotions gripped with the moral dilemma of to do or not to do. Even as Arjuna struggles to accept the fact that he has to fight his own kith and kin, his guru and his childhood friends,
Krishna admonishes his lack of mental strength and points out the supremacy of people who have absolute control over their mind, are focused on their duty and are unperturbed by neither pain nor pleasure.

That calm man who is the same in pain and pleasure, whom these cannot disturb, alone is able, O great amongst men, to attain to immortality. (Swami Swarupananda, 1996). (Bhagavad-Gita, Ch. II, Sloka 15)

Following this is an active, spontaneous conversation between Krishna and Arjuna, which throws light on the supremacy of knowledge, bhakthi (devotion) and selfless action. Krishna simplifies the philosophy of life as it can be understood and practised by even laymen who do not have any formal education. We can see striking similarities between Krishna’s emotionally stable person (Sthithapragna) and Mayer and Salovey’s emotionally intelligent person. Mayer and Salovey’s ‘ability model’ (2004) identifies four stages through which a person becomes emotionally intelligent –

- Emotional Perception
- Emotional Assimilation
- Emotional Understanding, and
- Emotional Management

The first step – emotional perception – is an ability to be self-aware of emotions and to express them accurately. When a person is aware of the emotions he is experiencing, he moves on to the next level – emotional
assimilation, which is to distinguish between the different emotions he is undergoing and also to identify those emotions that affect his thought process. This ability leads him to—emotional understanding—an ability to understand complex emotions and also to recognize the transition from one emotion to another. By then, he becomes adept in dealing with his emotions and thus is able to manage his emotions by connecting to, or disconnecting from, any emotion at any given situation. This gives him complete control over his impulses and is thus able to think, analyze and behave rationally in any situation. The first two stages are when a person identifies and becomes aware of his own and others’ emotions and the awareness leading to a better judgment of the situation he is in and its consequences. Though the *Bhagavad-Gita* does not speak of this fundamental requirement of emotional intelligence, it stresses the effectiveness of being able to control and manage emotions, i.e., the third and fourth stages. The reason being Arjuna has already satisfied the preconditions as he is aware of his emotional turmoil and clearly spells out his predicament to Krishna, he perfectly understands his misgivings and seeks Krishna’s help to overcome them. The slokas (verses) four to eight of the second chapter of the *Bhagavad-Gita* bring out the anguish of Arjuna in his own words.

कार्पणयदेशोपहतस्वभावः पृच्छामि त्वां धर्मसंपूर्णेचेता।
यथेवः स्थाविनितं ब्रूहि तनं शिष्यस्ते शाधिमा त्वं त्यां प्रपन्नम्।।

kāraṇaḥ adosopahatasyabhāvaḥ
pr̥ecchāmi tvāṁ dharmasampratam brūhi tānme
yacchreyah syānivyātāṁ brūhi tānme
śiṣyasteśam śādhi māṁ tvāṁ prapannam

// ii.7
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With my nature overpowered by weak commiseration, with a mind in confusion about duty, I supplicate Thee. Say decidedly what is good for me. I am Thy disciple. Instruct me who have taken refuge in Thee. (Swami Swarupananda, 1996)

नाहि प्रास्यांि ममानुष्यद्वच्छोकमुच्छोषणमिन्द्रियाणाम्।
अञ्जाय भूमावसपत्तमूले राज्येः सुरणामिष्य चाधिपत्यम्॥ II. 8

naha prapaśyami mamāpanudyādyacakamucchoṣanamindriyāṇaṁ /
avāpya bhūmāvasapatnamṛddham rājyaṁ surāṇāmapi cādhīpataṇaṁ //ii. 8

I do not see anything to remove this sorrow which blasts my senses, even were I to obtain unrivalled and flourishing dominion over the earth, and mastery over the gods. (Swami Swarupananda, 1996) (Bhagavad-Gita, Ch. II. Slokas 7, 8)

We clearly see that Arjuna has what we can call the qualifying qualities of an emotionally intelligent person – emotional perception and assimilation. The precise words chosen by him effectively convey his state of mind. He says that his nature is overpowered by ‘weak commiseration’. He commiserates with himself for being in a place where he has to fight his own dear ones. He feels pity for his cousins who have brought their entire clan to this sorrowful state. But he also realizes that this commiseration is a weak one, one that weakens and confuses him against doing or even deciding on what his duty is, and thus supplicates to Krishna to guide him, advise him on the right course of action. It is in response to this does Krishna discuss at length the need for emotional management. It is interesting to note at this juncture that Krishna does not merely stress effective emotional management but first spells out the reasons that lead to emotional disturbances and then moves on to the ways of dealing with them. Krishna offers a systematic analysis of the problem at hand and a
solution as well. Thus Krishna’s advice becomes more practical. The course of action that he advises Arjuna is one that can be followed by anyone at any place. The guidance is universal in nature and holds meaning even to present-day life.

Tracing the root cause of all emotional turmoil, Krishna identifies desire and anger as the two vices that lead an individual to his downfall.

\[ dhya\text{\textbar}a\text{\textbar}ta\text{\textbar} visay\text{\textbar}amp\text{\textbar}sa\text{\textbar} sa\text{\textbar}gas\text{\textbar}es\text{\textbar}up\text{\textbar}a\text{\textbar}ja\text{\textbar}ya\text{\textbar}te \]
\[ sa\text{\textbar}gas\text{\textbar}a\text{\textbar}n\text{\textbar}j\text{\textbar}a\text{\textbar}ya\text{\textbar}te\text{\textbar} ka\text{\textbar}m\text{\textbar}a\text{\textbar}h\text{\textbar} kam\text{\textbar}at\text{\textbar}k\text{\textbar}ro\text{\textbar}d\text{\textbar}ha\text{\textbar}bhi\text{\textbar}j\text{\textbar}a\text{\textbar}ya\text{\textbar}te \]

Thinking of objects, attachment to them is formed in a man. From attachment longing, and from longing anger grows.

\[ kro\text{\textbar}dha\text{\textbar}dbh\text{\textbar}a\text{\textbar}vi\text{\textbar}ta\text{\textbar} sam\text{\textbar}moh\text{\textbar}a\text{\textbar}h\text{\textbar} sam\text{\textbar}moh\text{\textbar}a\text{\textbar}hsm\text{\textbar}r\text{\textbar}tvibhra\text{\textbar}ma\text{\textbar}h / \]
\[ sm\text{\textbar}r\text{\textbar}tibhra\text{\textbar}ma\text{\textbar}s\text{\textbar}d\text{\textbar}budd\text{\textbar}hi\text{\textbar}na\text{\textbar}a\text{\textbar}so\text{\textbar} budd\text{\textbar}hi\text{\textbar}na\text{\textbar}a\text{\textbar}pra\text{\textbar}na\text{\textbar}a\text{\textbar}nyati \]

From anger comes delusion, and from delusion loss of memory. From loss of memory comes the ruin of discrimination, and from the ruin of discrimination, he perishes. (Swami Swarupananda, 1996). (Bhagavad-Gita, Ch. II, Slokas 62, 63)

It is the strong desire for and attachment to the worldly objects that drive an individual to his downfall. Desire when not satisfied leads to anger, which
in turn leads to delusion. This further destroys the ability to discriminate, which leads to complete ruin.

‘The Bhagavad-Gita refers to the emotionally intelligent person as a Sthithapragna’ (the emotionally stable person). As Arjuna asks Krishna who a Sthithapragna is, Krishna describes the nature and qualities of a Sthithapragna in detail.

What, O Kesava, is the description of a man of steady wisdom, merged in Samadhi? How (on the other hand) does the man of steady wisdom speak, how sit, how walk? (Swami Swarupananda, 1996). (Bhagavad-Gita, Ch. II, Sloka 54). Krishna answers him in twenty one slokas (55 – 72) discussing in detail the qualities of an emotionally stable person.

He whose mind is not shaken by adversity, who does not hanker after happiness, who has become free from affection, fear, and wrath, is indeed the Muni of steady wisdom.
He who is everywhere unattached, not pleased at receiving good, nor vexed at evil, his wisdom is fixed.

A *Stithapragna*, according to Krishna, is one who remains unperturbed in the face of calamity, and takes good or evil with equanimity. He is neither happy when something good happens, nor is he affected when things go against him. This does not mean that he lacks sensitivity. He has the ability to keep his emotions in check and the skill of withdrawing his feelings away from the object of pleasure or pain. Even as a tortoise withdraws its head and legs inside the protective cover of its shell whenever it faces danger, so does an emotionally stable person withdraw all his emotions and feelings within himself and remains unperturbed. He has the power to emotionally attach or detach from any situation, at his will. This is not far from what Mayer and Salovey list as the skills pertaining to the fourth branch of their ‘ability model’ (Salovey, Mayer & Caruso, 2002).
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- Ability to be open to feelings, both pleasant and unpleasant
- Ability to monitor and reflect on emotions
- Ability to engage, prolong, or detach from an emotional state
- Ability to manage emotions in oneself, and the
- Ability to manage emotions in others

The difference between Krishna and the proponents of the theory of EI is that Krishna takes a more comprehensive view of the problem. He studies the cause, discusses the effect and also offers the means of encountering the problem successfully. Having identified the cause of all emotional distress, he identifies the qualities of an emotionally stable person and completes the circle by advocating the medicine for the ailment. One of the greatest hurdles of EI is whether it can be successfully imparted, and, if so, what would be the best method. Though there are innumerable training centres and courses which promise to enhance the emotional intelligence of an individual, the question that looms large is, are they really effective, and if so, are they universally applicable irrespective of time place and culture. On the other hand, Krishna’s answer to the problem is universal and is applicable to any individual of any place or culture. It is simple and practical. To achieve emotional stability, Krishna shows the path of ‘Nishkama Karma’—action with detachment to the outcome or result of the action. As it was seen earlier, emotional instability stems from attachment to and a longing for the desired object. So Krishna’s advice is to detach oneself from the fruits of one’s action.

कर्मण्येवाधिकारस्ते मा फलेषु कदाचन ।
मा कर्मफलहेतुर्भुर्मां ते संगोऽस्त्वकर्मणि ॥ २.४७

karmaṇyevaḍhikāraste mā phaleṣu kadācana /
mā karmaphalaheturbhūrmai te saṅgoṣṭvakarmaṇi // ii.47
Thy right is to work only; but never to crave for the fruits thereof. Be thou not the producer of the fruits of (thy) actions; neither let Thy attachment be towards inaction.

योगस्थः कृष्ण कर्मांणि संगम्यानि त्वस्बक्तः धनांजय।
सिद्धस्यात्मस्याः समाभूत्वा समत्वं योगं उच्यते || २.४८

Yoagastha kuru karmaapani saigaapi tyakta dhananjaya /
Siddhyasiddhyoh samo bhutva samatvam yoga ucyate // ii.48

Being steadfast in Yoga, O, Dhananjaya, perform actions, abandoning attachment, remaining unconcerned as regards success and failure. This evenness of mind (in regard to success and failure) is known as Yoga.

दुरेण खयरे कर्म बुद्धियोगानन्दनः
बुध्दो गतगतमन्विच्छ कृपणाः पलाहेतव || २.४९

dureṇa khareṇe karmam buddhiyogānandanaḥ /
buddhaṃ gatagatamnivarcha kripanāḥ phalhetavah // ii.49

Work (with desire) is verily far inferior to that performed with the mind undisturbed by thoughts of results. O, Dhananjaya, seek refuge in this evenness of mind. Wretched are they who act for results.

बुद्धियुक्तं जाहितं उभे सुकृतदुन्कतो।
तस्मादायगभुवनस्य योगं कर्मसः कौशलम् || २.५०

buddhiyukto jahātiha ubhe sukṛtaduṇkate /
tasmādyogaya yujyasva yogah karmasu kauśalam // ii.50

Endued with this evenness of mind, one frees oneself in this life, alike from vice and virtue. Devote thyself, therefore, to this Yoga. Yoga is the dexterity of work.
The wise, possessed of this evenness of mind, abandoning the fruits of their actions, freed for ever from the fetters of birth, go to that state which is beyond all evils. (Swami Swarupananda, 1996). (*Bhagavad-Gita*, Ch. II, Slokas 47-51)

Krishna points out that action without desire, action that does not bind the doer with the outcome, is the right kind of action. When an individual acts for the sake of action, because it is the right thing to do, and does not fear the result, then his mind remains unfettered. Taking the example of Arjuna himself, Arjuna was worried about fighting his cousins because he was worried about the outcome. He was upset because he found no gain or happiness in winning the war. He did not want to fight because there was no positive result for him at the end of the war. Winning he loses, losing he gains nothing. If on the other hand, Arjuna does not think or worry about what is to happen after the war, but proceeds with the fight because it is his duty as a kshatriya to fight when called upon, then there is no confusion or emotional turmoil. He does what has been expected of him, not what is convenient or productive. This ‘Nishkama Karma’ has a dual effect. It frees the doer from the emotional imbroglio of worrying about the outcome and also frees him from the responsibility of the outcome as well. It is a liberating feeling which annihilates any negative thoughts or emotions. When the mind is free from negative emotions, it calms down and a calm, tranquil mind is the fountainhead of all things positive. It is with a stamp of authority that Krishna declares,
In tranquillity, all sorrow is destroyed. For the intellect in him, who is tranquil-minded is soon established in firmness. (Swami swarupananda, 1996). (Bhagavad-Gita, Ch.II, Sloka 65).

This is the desired end towards which the proponents of emotional intelligence are working.

To conclude, the Bhagavad-Gita is a text which has influenced many thinkers from east and west alike. The lessons that can be taken from this divine exposition on the philosophy of life are boundless. Recent research has linked many concepts of management to the Bhagavad-Gita. As one commentator of the Bhagavad-Gita points out, it is a text which speaks of many things at different levels (Das, Sita pati). It is a ‘complete’ text – Purnam – as one says in Sanskrit. To quote the same pundit, “We can continue to discuss and inquire about Bhagavadgita unlimitedly, and never find the end of its ability to produce the most profound realizations about life, the universe, and the purpose and the person behind them.” This description is but a drop in the ocean trying to find similarity of thought between the theory of EI and the Bhagavad-Gita. The prospects are innumerable which will help researchers perfect the theory of emotional intelligence.
3.4 Managerial skills

Managerial skills are sets of qualities and attributes in the personality of managers that enable them to effectively manage the working of a firm. Good managerial skills can create a world of difference in the efficiency and performance of the organization. Researchers have found that traditional Manager skills wouldn't bring favourable change at the workplace. So, the Manager has to learn some special skills which bear on employee's behaviour and attitudes. So, that organization can be much benefited by their labour. It is a fact that the Manager causes productivity and non-productivity of employees and the organization. The Manager may directly influence the workers’ attitude, interest, and aptitude or change their behaviour toward commitment to work and objectives. Organizations can stand to bear the challenges of change through only right Managerial style & behaviour (Raju.R 2011).

The American Management Association has identified important skills, i.e., conceptual, communication, effectiveness, and interpersonal skills. These skills help the manager to execute the policies and activities associated with being a manager. The performance of an organization depends on the whole-hearted support of employees, suppliers, customers, and investors; to deal with them effectively there are required special kinds of skills which make managers successful in their tasks. A manager should learn or develop the following skills to enhance the effectiveness of his organization. A skill is a Manager’s ability to translate knowledge into action. Skills can be developed and learnt. Effective management demands a number of skills to be possessed by the person who performs the job of a manager in an organization. Different authors, researchers and experts organized and categorized the managerial
skills in different ways. The following is an overview of the important skills to be possessed by a manager to manage people, situations, events, and difficulties well. They are (i) Goal-setting skills, (ii) Planning skills, (iii) Decision-making skills, (iv) Problem-solving skills, (v) Motivating skills, (vi) Leadership skills, (vii) Conflict-resolving skills, (viii) Delegating skills, (ix) Communication skills, (x) Supervisory and controlling skills and (xi) Customer relationship skills.

3.4.1 Goal-setting skills

Research in the area of goal-setting as a psychological skill was initiated within the realms of organisational psychology, and has often involved some sort of time and motion based criterion for success. Locke's (1968) goal 'theory' stimulated a considerable number of studies into the effects of formalised goals in industrial and organisational settings. The principal components of Locke's theory have, more recently, been applied and tested within the sport and exercise domain. In a review of both laboratory and field studies into the effects of goals on task performance, Locke, Shaw, Saari and Latham (1981) found that 90 per cent of the 110 studies reviewed supported the major tenets of goal theory and further, identified the existence of highly generalisable, positive performance effects. Meanwhile, however, Tubbs' (1986) meta-analytic examination of goal theory contended that, while the results from well-controlled studies were supportive of goal-theory, method variance had potential for moderating the results. Specifically, he suggested that variations in the environment in which the study took place, together with a number of factors relating to the way in which goals were operationalized, might confound the results (e.g. assignment of goals, feedback, goal types, and goal level).
3.4.1.1 Types of Organisational Goals

Organizations set many different types of goals. These goals are most commonly classified into two broad categories: i) level-wise (top, middle and operational), ii) time-wise (short-term, medium-term, and long-term).

i) Level-wise goals

Organizations are generally divided into three levels-top, middle and bottom. Generally, organization goals are formulated at the top of the pyramid and filter down. In some cases, the reverse is also true. Based on this classification of organizational levels, four types of goals can be identified: a) mission, b) strategic goals, c) tactical goals, and d) operational goals.

a. Mission

The organization’s mission describes the vision its top leadership has of the organization’s purpose and philosophy. The organizations must first visualize what they aim to become. They develop and formulate inspiring statements of the core purposes of their work. These mission statements, thus, reflect the focus, image, philosophy, and aspirations of the organization. The mission projects the image of the organization. Organizational members identify themselves with the mission and share of pride and commitment.

b. Strategic goals

Strategic goals are stated in general terms. They are developed in view of the mission of the organization. They outline the overall organization’s goals relating to different dimensions of their business, like profit making, product development, resources allocation, human
resource development, research priorities, and so on. These are, therefore, organization set strategic goals. The board of directors and the top management of the organization set strategic goals. While setting such goals, they seek inputs from staff specialists and middle managers. Strategic goals, thus, indicate the real tensions of an organization. The executive management of an organization usually determines the strategic goals. These top leaders scan the external environment for opportunities or threats to the organization. Their aim is to match internal strengths and weaknesses to changes in the external environment in order to create new opportunities.

c. **Tactical or intermediate goals**

Tactical or intermediate goals are set to translate the strategic goals into action. These goals involve the middle level managers. Compared with strategic goals, these goals have a somewhat shorter time span, and more specific and concrete focus. The focus of tactical goals is on how to operationalize actions necessary to achieve the strategic goals.

d. **Operational goals**

Operational goals are set for lower-level management. The main concern here is with shorter term issues associated with intermediate or tactical goals. The supervisory level staff members are responsible for developing and implementing operational goals that will meet the tactical goals. Activities and resources are assigned to individuals and groups to carry out some portion of the operational goals. The operational goals affect employees’ day-to-day-activities.
ii) Time-wise goals

Organizational goals are also set across different time spans. It is a common practice to divide goals into three time frames - long-term, medium-term and short-term. Missions have infinite time horizons. Strategic goals are long-term and cover many years, perhaps even decades. Intermediate or tactical goals are medium-term and usually cover periods from one to five years. Operational goals are short-term and have a time frame of one year or less.

3.4.1.2 Steps for Successful Goal Setting and Achievement

Goal Setting is an extremely powerful technique for accomplishment, but for Goal Setting to be really effective requires more than just writing down what we want to achieve. The following are the important steps that will help to define and achieve goals with more success (Paul Christenbury 2011).

1) Well-formed Goal Statements
2) Breaking goals down into manageable Steps
3) Motivation and Commitment
4) Reminders and Keeping on track
5) Frequent Review and Re-assessment

1. Well-formed Goal Statements

The Goal Statement forms the basis for the entire process; so, careful attention should be placed on formulating a clear and accurate goal statement. A good way to remember how a goal statement should be defined is the old S.M.A.R.T acronym used by many experts in goal setting. SMART stands for:
Chapter 3

Specific
Measurable
Action-Oriented
Realistic
Time and Resource-Constrained

The Goal should be specific enough so that we know exactly what we are striving for, measurable so we can tell exactly when the goal has been reached, action-oriented to indicate an activity that will produce results, realistic is that it is practical and can be achieved, and time and resources-constrained, meaning that it has a definite deadline for completion and realizes limited availability of resources. The goal statement “Increase sales 25 per cent by the end of the fiscal year without increasing advertising spending” is an example that follows these rules.

2. Breaking down Goals into manageable Steps

Once we have a well-formed Goal Statement, we need some direction to follow to achieve this Goal. The creation of Goal Steps gives us a list of the important things that need to be done to achieve the Goal, an action plan, and also allows us to track our progress towards the goal. While the goal “Increase sales 25 per cent by the end of the fiscal year without increasing advertising spending” is a great goal statement; this is a monumental task without being broken down into smaller detailed steps.

3. Motivation and Commitment

Motivation and commitment are what make us strive for achievement. They give us the push, desire, and resolve to complete all of the other
steps in the Goal process. This motivation can be obtained by developing a statement that creates a high level of emotion and energy that guarantees achievement. Commitment is what sets us on the direct course to reach our goals and create costly negative consequences for failure.

4. **Reminders and Keeping on Track**

Reaching our goals requires persistence and regular attention. We need some sort of system to keep us reminded and accountable. MyGoalManager.com uses a combination reminder emails, calendars, and reports to keep users organized and on track. If some accountability system is not used, then we are likely to lose sight and fail.

5. **Frequent Review and Re-assessment**

Goal Setting is definitely an ongoing process that is accomplished over time. When we first sit down and start to define goals, it can seem like a difficult and daunting task but over time it begins to get much easier. Patience is required. All goals due in the next year should be reviewed at least once a week and daily if possible. The great thing about frequent review is that this forces us to make big decisions and determine priorities in our life. We should keep watch for goals that aren’t being achieved on time or for goals on which we keep extending the deadline.

3.4.2 **Planning skills**

In simple words, planning is deciding in advance what is to be done, when, where, how and by whom it is to be done. Planning bridges the gap from where we are to where we want to go. It includes the selection of
objectives, policies, procedures and programmes from among alternatives. A plan is a predetermined course of action to achieve a specified goal. It is an intellectual process characterized by thinking before doing. It is an attempt on the part of the manager to anticipate the future in order to achieve better performance. Planning is the primary function of management.

- According to Alford and Beatt, "Planning is the thinking process, the organized foresight, the vision based on fact and experience that is required for intelligent action."

- According to Theo Haimann "Planning is deciding in advance what is to be done. When a manager plans, he projects a course of action for further attempting to achieve a consistent co-ordinate structure of operations aimed at the desired results".

- According to Billy E. Goetz "Planning is fundamentally choosing and a planning problem arises when an alternative course of action is discovered."

- According to Koontz and O' Donnell, "Planning is an intellectual process, conscious determination of a course of action, the basing of decision on purpose, facts and considered estimates."

Planning skills are any skills that allow one to look ahead and accomplish goals or avoid emotional, financial, physical or social hardship. These skills let one make and implement decisions. Planning is a major part of business. Planning skills are necessary to develop a budget, develop and monitor individual aspects of projects and determine the overall direction to the organization.
3.4.2.1 Importance of planning in an organization

An organisation without planning is like a sailboat minus its rudder. Without planning, organisations are subject to the winds of organizational change. Planning is one of the most important and crucial functions of management. According to Koontz and O'Donnell, "Without planning business becomes random in nature and decisions become meaningless and adhoc choices." According to George R. Terry, "Planning is the foundation of the most successful actions of any enterprise." Planning becomes necessary due to the following reasons:

- Reduction of Uncertainty
- Better Utilization of Resources
- Increase in Organizational Effectiveness
- Reduction of the Cost of Performance
- Concentration on Objectives
- Help in Co-ordination
- Encouragement to Innovation
- Increases in Competitive Strength
- Delegation is Facilitated

3.4.3 Decision-making skills

Decision making is a daily activity for any human being. There is no exception about that. When it comes to business organizations, decision-making is a habit and a process as well. Effective and successful decisions make profit to the company and unsuccessful ones make losses. Therefore, corporate decision-making process is the most critical process in any organization. In the decision-making process, we choose one course of action
from a few possible alternatives. In the process of decision-making, we may use many tools, techniques and perceptions. Usually, decision-making is hard. A majority of corporate decisions involve some level of dissatisfaction or conflict with another party.

According to James Stoner, “Decision making is the process of identifying and selecting a course of action to solve a specific problem.” According to Trewartha and Newport, “Decision-making involves the selection of a course of action from among two or more possible alternatives in order to arrive at a solution for a given problem.”

Decision-making skill is the ability to make a logical choice from the available options. When trying to make a good decision, a person must weigh the positives and negatives of each option, and consider all the alternatives. For effective decision making, a person must be able to forecast the outcome of each option as well, and based on all these items, determine which option is the best for that particular situation.

The essence of management is making decisions. Managers are constantly required to evaluate alternatives and make decisions regarding a wide range of matters. Just as there are different managerial styles, there are different decision-making styles. Decision making involves uncertainty and risk, and decision makers have varying degrees of risk aversion. Decision making also involves qualitative and quantitative analyses, and some decision makers prefer one form of analysis over the other. Decision making can be affected not only by rational judgment, but also by nonrational factors such as the personality of the decision maker, peer pressure, the organizational situation, and others.
Management guru Peter F. Drucker, as quoted in Association Management, identified eight "critically important" decision-making practices that successful executives follow. They are:

1) Ask "What needs to be done?"
2) Ask "What is right for the enterprise?"
3) Develop action plans
4) Take responsibility for decisions
5) Take responsibility for communicating
6) Focus on opportunities rather than problems
7) Run productive meetings
8) Think and say "we" rather than "I",

According to Ralph L. Keeney, professor at the University of Southern California's Marshall School of Business and co-author of Smart Choices: A Practical Guide to Making Better Decisions, managers commonly consider too few alternatives when making difficult decisions. When approaching a problem, decision makers need to regularly consider, starting at the outset, "Is this what I really need to decide?" In addition, the nature of the problem may change during the decision-making process, as either the situation changes or the decision maker's insights into the situation change.

By not formulating the problem correctly, decision makers risk missing a whole range of other alternatives. Decision makers can improve the chances of asking the right question by probing objectives, goals, interests, fears, and aspirations. They also need to consider very carefully the consequences of each alternative. They can devise new alternatives through brainstorming and imagining as many options as possible, keeping in mind objectives, but not
necessarily being entirely practical at first. In practice, action-oriented decision makers tend to focus on solutions without considering whether they are working on the right problem. Instead of choosing from decisions selected by others, decision makers need to review what decisions they should be addressing.

Managers in a corporate setting tend to view decision making differently than entrepreneurs. Since they are typically given a fixed amount of budgeted resources to work with, managers tend to define a problem in terms of what can be done with the resources at hand. Entrepreneurs, on the other hand, will likely pose the problem in terms of an objective—"This is what I want to get done"—and then worry about finding the resources to accomplish that objective. As a result, entrepreneurial decision makers will lay out a wider range of alternatives from which to choose. They feel less constrained by a lack of resources. To develop more alternatives, decision makers should release themselves from existing constraints, think imaginatively, and brainstorm with others, all the while keeping objectives clearly in mind and being honest about what they really need or desire.

3.4.3.1 The Decision making process

The decision making process includes important steps such as setting objectives, collecting information and ideas, analyzing information and ideas, choosing the best course of action, communicating and implementing the decision and follow up.
3.4.3.2 Types of Business Decisions

**Programmed Decisions:** These are standard decisions which always follow the same routine. As such, they can be written down into a series of fixed steps which anyone can follow. They could even be written as a computer program.

**Non-Programmed Decisions:** These are non-standard and non-routine. Each decision is not quite the same as any previous decision.

**Strategic Decisions:** These affect the long-term direction of the business e.g., whether to take over Company A or Company B.

**Tactical Decisions:** These are medium-term decisions about how to implement strategy e.g., what kind of marketing to have, or how many extra staff to recruit.
**Operational Decisions:** These are short-term decisions (also called administrative decisions) about how to implement the tactics, e.g., which firm to use to make deliveries.

![Decision-Making Model](http://tutor2u.net/business/organisation/decisionmaking.htm)

**Figure 3.6 Types/Levels of Decision-Making**

The model in Figure 3.6 above is a normative model, because it illustrates how a good decision ought to be made. Business studies also use positive models which simply aim to illustrate how decisions are, in fact, made in businesses without commenting on whether they are good or bad.

Linear programming models help to explore maximising or minimising constraints e.g. one can program a computer with information that establishes parameters for minimising costs subject to certain situations and information about those situations.

### 3.4.3.3 Emotional intelligence and decision making

The secret to making smarter decisions that aren't swayed by our current emotions -- particularly when our emotions are unrelated to the decision at hand -- could lie in emotional intelligence, according to new study.
For the study, published in the journal *Psychological Science*, researchers conducted several experiments to evaluate how different levels of emotional intelligence influence decision-making. In one experiment, researchers found that anxiety's effect on a decision involving risk -- when that anxiety was unrelated to the decision at hand -- seemed to be blocked in people with high emotional intelligence. For people with low emotional intelligence, on the other hand, anxiety seemed to influence the decision-making.

The researchers said that emotional intelligence can likely help us stop any emotions -- not just negative ones, like stress and anxiety, but also good ones, like excitement -- from influencing unrelated decisions. "People who are emotionally intelligent don't remove all emotions from their decision-making," Côté said in the statement. "They remove emotions that have nothing to do with the decision." Indeed, a 2008 study published in the *Journal of Consumer Research* also showed that emotional intelligence could play a role in decision-making by helping people realize their emotions can sway the choices they make.

### 3.4.4 Problem Solving

Problem solving is the key to management function. In an organization, problems do occur of various natures, but their tackling is the art of an experienced head, well-versed in the managerial skill. Problem-solving is a mental ability that involves discovering, analyzing and solving problems. The ultimate goal of problem-solving is to overcome obstacles and find a solution that best resolves the issue. The best strategy for solving a problem depends largely on the unique situation. In some cases, people are better off learning everything they can about the issue and then using factual knowledge to come up with a solution. In other instances, creativity and insight are the best options.
Problems that can detrimentally affect the recognition of a problem include: (1) ignoring relevant information, thus making the manager oblivious of the problem; (2) identifying the wrong causes or problems from the information; and (3) skipping over the recognition stage altogether, trying to solve problems before it is clearly defined (usually called a “a Band-Aid approach” to problem-solving) (Charles, 1976). Van Gundy ([1981] 1988:3) believes “a problem can be defined as any situation in which a gap is perceived to exist between what is and what should be”. Based on this definition, a problem solving process is one whereby a situation that is not as it should be is changed into one that is as it should be. Problem-solving is the process of eliminating the discrepancy between the actual and desired situation (Archer, 1980).

According to Rowe et al. (1984), there are three types of persons:

1) A problem avoider ignores information that points to a problem. Avoiders are inactive and do not want to confront problems.

2) A problem solver tries to solve problems when they come up. Solvers are reactive; they deal with problems after they occur.

3) Problem seekers actively seek out problems to solve or new opportunities to pursue. They take a proactive approach by anticipating problems. Managers can, and do, use all three approaches. For example, there are times when avoiding a problem happens so quickly. And innovative, creative organizations need managers who proactively seek opportunities and ways to do things better.
3.4.4.1 The problem-solving process

Bransford and Stein (1993) proposed a model for improving problem solving skills. It is based on research in the field of problem solving by such people as Wertheimer ([1945] 1959), Polya (1957), and Newell and Simon (1972). The components of the approach are represented by the acronym IDEAL. Where

I = Identify problems and opportunities.
D = Define goals.
E = Explore possible strategies.
A = Anticipate outcomes and act.
L = Look back and learn.

Source: http://winastwangora.com

Figure 3.7 Problem solving process

Identifying problems and opportunities

The argument is that one should identify potential problems and treat them as opportunities to do something creative. It is just as important actively to look for problems as simply to respond to them when they become critical or when they are noticed. Actually identifying problems and then treating them as opportunities in the dimension of strategic management can lead to the establishment of a strong competitive advantage. Bransford and Stein (1993) quote the example of a friend who, for years, had never questioned the fact that he often got splattered with grease when he fried bacon. One day, while looking
through a mail-order catalogue he found a device which protects cooks from hot, splattering grease – effectively a fine wire mesh with handle to place over the frying-pan during cooking. What impressed their friend more than anything else was not the invention itself but the fact that someone had actually identified the problem in the first place and viewed it as an opportunity. The friend had never thought explicitly about the fact that splattering grease signified the existence of a problem that, once identified, might be solved.

**Defining goals**

Different goals often reflect how people understand a problem. For example, the problem of lack of strategic direction in the business could be identified. All concerned might agree that it could represent an opportunity to do something creative. However, people could disagree on what the goals should be. Some people might argue that the objective of the business should be growth in one direction while others might argue for growth in another. In each instance, the goals clearly reflect how different groups perceive the same problem. Defining the goal is thus a crucial step in moving towards a solution to a problem.

In practice, people often do not consider alternative goals but move straight to the exploration of strategies. Under these circumstances, strategies may well be generated which lead to the solution to a given problem, but deciding which one to choose then becomes a difficult problem. Moreover, if goals have not been specified, solution strategies which are generated may not provide acceptable answers to a problem.

**Exploring possible strategies**

This involves reanalysing goals and considering options or strategies that might be employed to achieve those goals. In many instances it is easy to
consider all the relevant information without experiencing a strain on short-term memory capacity. As problems increase in complexity, this becomes more difficult to do. Experienced problem solvers often keep track of information by creating external representations. Rather than trying to keep all the information in their head, they write it down on paper – or in some other medium. This allows them to think more freely about the problem they want to solve. There are many ways of recording and analysing a problem: graphs and Venn diagrams are examples: The most effective way to represent information depends on the nature of the problem. Hayes (1989) and Halpern (1989) suggest that some problems are more readily solved if one uses verbal representation whereas others may be better represented visually or even mathematically.

Other additional general approaches include: working a problem backwards, or focusing on a simpler, specific situation – building scale models or performing experiments that simulate certain characteristics of a real world environment, are good examples. Although there are general strategies for solving problems, specialised knowledge is often necessary in some cases. For example, we may know how to set about gathering market-survey data, but the actual designing of a questionnaire which will enable the data to be collected requires expert knowledge and skill to construct.

**Anticipating outcomes and acting**

Following the selection of a strategy, contingency plans should be drawn up and the strategy implemented. Often, an active role in testing strategies has to be taken before possible outcomes can be anticipated. The building and testing of a prototype, for example, can often help anticipate the outcomes of particular strategies.
Looking back and learning

The last component of the IDEAL model is to look at the effects of the particular strategy and learn from the experience. When trying to solve a problem the emphasis should be on finding the first step rather than on trying to find a complete solution immediately. Having tried out the first step and learned from the experience, one can then proceed to work through subsequent steps. Test marketing is a case in point, where the launch of a new product is done on a gradual basis. Any aspects of the introduction which are less than satisfactory are corrected before the next stage in the roll-out process. Writing and debugging computer programs follows a similar process.

3.4.4.2 Steps in problem solving

According to Dean (2002) for effective problem solving, the manager should go through the following steps:

- Collect the facts about the problem.
- Define the problem and the desirable solution.
- Find out how people feel about it.
- Identify the objectives.
- Generate possible solutions.
- Review the solutions and select the most promising.
- Put it into action.
- Evaluate the outcome.

3.4.5 Motivating

Motivation is the bunch of “internal and external factors that stimulate desire and energy in people to be continually interested in and committed to a job, role, or subject and to exert persistent effort in attaining a goal”.
Motivation is the influence or drive that causes us to behave in a specific manner and has been described as consisting of energy, direction, and sustainability (Kroth, 2007). In an organizational context, a leader’s ability to persuade and influence others to work in a common direction reflects his or her talent to motivate. A leader’s ability to influence is based partly on his or her skill and partly on the motivation level of the individual employee. Motivation theories explore the multiple approaches to meeting individuals’ needs, including expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), need theory (Maslow, 1954), reinforcement theory (Skinner, 1971), and the widely used goal theory (Karoly, 1993). It has been shown that predictors of motivation include job satisfaction, perceived equity, and organizational commitment (Schnake, 2007). In other words, motivation is either positively or negatively affected by the experience an employee has within a given work environment and with his or her leaders.

Carlisle and Murphy (1996) contend that motivating others requires skilled managers who can organize and provide a motivating environment: communicate effectively, address employees’ questions, generate creative ideas, prioritize ideas, direct personnel practices, plan employees’ actions, commit employees to action, and provide follow-up to overcome motivational problems. A recent study involving highly creative technical professionals found that how these employees were managed was a significant motivating factor (Hebda, Vojak, Griffin, & Price, 2007). Specifically, 23 per cent of the respondents indicated that having freedom, flexibility, and resources was a significant motivator, while 25 per cent indicated that the most important motivator was the time provided by their management (e.g., long stretches of time to focus on solving complex problems). Leaders plan, organize, and execute work processes in complex organizations. The complexity reflects continuous changes in technology, shifts in workforce demographics, the need
for faster decision making, and developing the capability to continuously adapt and change. It is within this organizational context that leaders must create a work environment that elicits employee motivation.

According to *Webster’s New Collegiate Dictionary*, a ‘motive’ is “something (a need or desire) that causes a person to act.” Motivate, in turn, means “to provide with a motive,” and motivation is defined as “the act or process of motivating.” Thus, motivation is the act or process of providing a motive that causes a person to take some action. In most cases motivation comes from some need that leads to behaviour that results in some type of reward when the need is fulfilled.

Motivation refers to “the reasons underlying behaviour” (Guay et al., 2010, p. 712). Paraphrasing Gredler, Broussard and Garrison (2004) broadly define motivation as “the attribute that moves us to do or not to do something” (p. 106).

Motivating skill is one’s ability to influence, inspire and induce another to behave in a specific manner so as to achieve the goal effectively. A manager should possess these skills to direct the work of the subordinate in a fruitful way.

### 3.4.5.1 Importance of motivation

The significance of motivation in the workplace is high because of the following benefits it provides. Firstly, motivation puts human resources into action and improves the level of efficiency of employees. Every concern requires financial and human resources to accomplish the goals. The performance of motivated employees is high, which results in increased productivity and reduced cost of operations. A motivated employee will not try to get by with little effort; will be more oriented on his job.
Secondly, motivation leads to the stability of the workforce that is very important from the point of view of the reputation and goodwill of the company. In order to keep employees loyal, they should feel themselves as part of the organization, feel that they are needed and appreciated. The longer the person works in the organization, the more the experience he gathers, as, say, “Old is gold”. When people are willing to work for one organization for a long time, and they do not consider the organization as one of the steps of a staircase, it will prevent the organization from the high index of turnover and the positive image that will be created from the word-of-mouth marketing, will attract competent and qualified people into a concern. Thirdly, motivated people are not resistant to the changes taken into the organizations. Change is the law of nature and companies have to incorporate different essential ones. With the help of effectively motivated workforce, those changes will be accepted, introduced and implemented without negative attitude and the organization will be kept on the right track of progress. Fourthly, motivation brings employees closer to the organization. As long as the needs of employees are met through attractive rewards, promotional opportunities, etc., they begin to take more interest in their company. They begin to think that there is no difference between the interests of the enterprise and their interests. This helps in developing cordial relations between the management and the workers. These are the main reasons why motivation is important to business. But, of course, this is significant for both parties: motivation is essential for an individual as it helps him achieve his personal goals, develop and what is very important, be satisfied with his job.

3.4.6 Leadership skills

Leadership has gained the attention of researchers worldwide. A review of the scholarly studies on leadership shows that there is a wide variety of
different theoretical approaches to explain the complexities of the leadership process. Some researchers conceptualize leadership as a trait or as a behaviour, whereas others view leadership from an information processing perspective or relational standpoint. Leadership has been studied using both qualitative and quantitative methods in many contexts, including small groups, therapeutic groups, and large organizations.

A common definition of leadership states that it is ‘the process through which leaders influence the attitudes, behaviours and values of others’ (Hagen et al, 1998). As with many other ‘soft’ issues, the definition is somewhat vague in that it does not address the question of how leaders actually conduct the process of influencing. Organizational structure, personalities of leaders and followers, the context in which they operate and so on, all play a part in determining the function and style of leadership. Such a great number of variables make constructing a profile of a good leader impossible. However – again as with many soft management issues – the exact definition is less important than the fundamental principles behind the concept.

Hersey and Blanchard (1996) define leadership as “the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation”(p. 94). Capezio and Morehouse (1997) define leadership as “the ability to influence individuals or groups to think, feel and take positive action to achieve goals” (p. 1). Pareek (2004) “Leadership is an act of making an impact on others in a desired direction” (p.263). Koontz and Welhrich (2006) define leadership as “influence that is the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically towards the achievement of group goals” (p. 311).
From the above definitions we understand there are variations in their definition on leadership. However, they all agree that leadership is an influencing behaviour. In our context, leadership may be defined as an act influencing people in a desired direction for achieving the organisation goals.

Leadership skill is one’s ability to influence the attitudes, behaviours and values of others. Organizational structure, personalities of leaders and followers, the contexts in which they operate, and so on, all play a part in determining the function and style of leadership. The manager should possess effective leadership skills to achieve the organizational objectives.

3.4.6.1 Leader Versus Manager

It is said leaders are born and not made. However, the qualities of leadership can be learned with continuous feedback and practice. Milgram et al. (1999) describe the characteristics of leaders and managers.

- Leaders are agents of change.
- Leaders are original, while Managers copy.
- Leaders develop, while managers maintain.
- Leaders embrace change proactively.
- Leaders focus on things they can control and dismiss the things they cannot.
- Leaders focus on people, while managers are busy focusing on systems and structure.
- Leaders inspire trust, while managers rely on control.

Managers and leaders are very different. The aims and goals of a manager arise out of necessities rather than desires. They focus on diffusing
conflicts between individuals or departments, and ensuring that an organisation’s day-to-day activities flow smoothly. On the other hand, leaders personally associate themselves with the goals of the organisation. They look for the potential opportunities and rewards in the organisation. Because of their personal involvement, they inspire their subordinates to execute the tasks. Leaders also kindle the creativity of the people with their energy and commitment (Zaleznik 1998). A management needs both managers and leaders to succeed, and therefore must find ways to train excellent managers and simultaneously develop leaders.

3.4.7 Conflict-Resolving skill

One of the most difficult things to deal with as a manager is conflict management. No matter how great a corporate culture he creates or how good

Source: www.managementguru.net

Figure 3.8 Leader Vs. Manager
a role model he is, there will always be situations that require him to deal with emotional stress within the ranks. Personal conflicts, outside pressures, personality issues and job-related stress occur in any workplace setting. Conflict-resolution is the distinctive field in the peace research area. It emerged as a distinctive discipline in social science in the late 1950’s. It is a problem-solving method in order to restore peace and harmony to situations where it has been disturbed.

“Conflict is the interaction of interdependent people who perceive incompatible goals and interference from each other in achieving those goals” (Folger, Poole, and Stutman 1997). “Conflicts are communicative interactions among people who are interdependent and who perceive that their interests are incompatible, inconsistent, or in tension” (Conrad 1990). “Conflict means perceived divergence of interest, or a belief that the parties' current aspirations cannot be achieved simultaneously” (Pruitt and Rubin 1986).

Conflict-resolution skill is the ability to resolve conflicts in order to restore peace and harmony in situations where it has been disturbed. Conflict-resolution theory is more applicable in international, regional, group and personal level issues. Many institutions and research centres are established by peace scientists in domestic and international levels.

3.4.7.1 Resolving Workplace Conflict

Webster’s dictionary defines conflict as a sharp disagreement or opposition of interests or ideas. Anytime people work together, conflict is a part of ‘doing business’. Conflict is a normal and natural part of any workplace. When it occurs, there is a tendency for morale to be lowered, an increase in absenteeism, and decreased productivity. It has been estimated that managers spend at least 25 per cent of their time resolving workplace
conflicts – causing lowered office performance. Handling and resolving conflicts that arise in the workplace is one of the biggest challenges managers and employees face. Typically there are two responses to conflict: run away (avoidance) or ‘battle it out’. In either case, we often feel uncomfortable or dissatisfied with the results because no resolution has been achieved. By learning to constructively resolve conflict, we can turn a potentially destructive situation into an opportunity for creativity and enhanced performance.

### 3.4.7.2 Sources of workplace Conflict

There are many causes or reasons for conflict in any work setting. Some of the primary causes are:

- **Poor Communication:** different communication styles can lead to misunderstandings between employees or between employee and manager. Lack of communication drives conflict ‘underground’.

- **Different Values:** any workplace is made up of individuals who see the world differently. Conflict occurs when there is a lack of acceptance and understanding of these differences.

- **Differing Interests:** conflict occurs when individual workers ‘fight’ for their personal goals, ignoring organizational goals and organizational well-being.

- **Scarce Resources:** too often, employees feel they have to compete for available resources in order to do their job. In a resource-scarce environment, this causes conflicts – despite awareness of how scarce resources may be.

- **Personality Clashes:** all work environments are made up of differing personalities. Unless colleagues understand and accept each other’s approach to work and problem-solving, conflict will occur.
3.4.7.3 Addressing workplace Conflict

There are a number of ways that can be utilized to address workplace conflict:

- Avoidance: ‘hiding our head in the sand’, hoping the conflict will go away.
- Collaboration: working together to find a mutually beneficial solution.
- Compromise: finding the middle ground whereby a ‘little is given and little is gotten’.
- Competing: ‘may the best person win’.
- Accommodation: surrendering our own needs and wishes to please the other person.

It is generally believed that either collaboration or compromise is the most productive form of addressing conflict because there is not a winner or loser but rather a working together for the best possible solution.

3.4.7.4 Resolving workplace conflict

Arriving at a positive resolution of conflict is always the ultimate goal. In resolving conflict, it is important to make sure we do the following:

- Clearly articulate the causes of the conflict – openly acknowledging there will be differing perceptions of the problem(s).
- Make a clear statement of why we want the conflict resolved and reasons to work on conflict.
- Communication of how we want the conflict resolved.
- Address the issues face-to-face (notes, email correspondence, memos are not a productive way to resolve differences).

- Take time out if necessary. In the resolution of a conflict, our emotions may interfere with arriving at a productive resolution. If this transpires, take a time out and resume resolving the conflict at another designated time.

### 3.4.7.5 Emotional Intelligence & Conflict Resolution

Statistics speak of the need for improved Emotional Intelligence in the workforce. The typical manager spends 25-40 per cent of his or her time dealing with workplace conflicts, that is one to two days of every work week (Washington Business Journal, May 2005). As can be seen in The Persuasion Tools Model below, emotion is a key component in conflict resolution. Being able to understand one’s own emotions as well as of those involved in the dispute leads to successful mediation.

![The Persuasion Tools Model](Source: www.centerforworklife.com)

**Figure 3.9 Persuasion tools model of Conflict resolution**
3.4.8 Delegating skills

Delegation of authority is a process in which the authority and powers are divided and share amongst the subordinates. When the work of a manager gets beyond his capacity, there should be some system of sharing the work. This is how delegation of authority becomes an important tool in organization function. Through delegation, a manager, in fact, is multiplying himself by dividing/multiplying his work with the subordinates. Delegation is the transfer of authority to make decisions and complete specific tasks. Learning how to delegate is one of the most important skills for managers and leaders to possess. Strong delegation techniques can help managers save time, motivate people, and train people, and these techniques can enable managers to take on new opportunities. However, the lack of delegation practices often leaves people frustrated, unmotivated, and under-trained, while the manager remains overworked. Delegation is a skill that enables managers to achieve more without burning themselves out.

3.4.8.1 Importance of delegation

Through delegation, a manager is able to divide the work and allocate it to the subordinates. This helps in reducing his work load so that he can work on important areas such as - planning, business analysis, etc. With the reduction of load on the superior, he can concentrate his energy on important and critical issues of concern. This way, he is able to bring effectiveness in his work as well in the work unit. This effectivity helps a manager to prove his ability and skills in the best manner.

- Delegation of authority is the ground on which the superior-subordinate relationship stands. An organization functions as the authority flows from the top level to the bottom. This in fact shows
that through delegation, the superior-subordinate relationship becomes meaningful. The flow of authority is from top to bottom, which is a way of achieving results.

- Delegation of authority in a way gives enough room and space to the subordinates to flourish their abilities and skill. Through delegating powers, the subordinates get a feeling of importance. They get motivated to work and this motivation provides appropriate results to a concern. Job satisfaction is an important criterion to bring stability and soundness in the relationship between the superior and the subordinates. Delegation also helps in breaking the monotony of the subordinates so that they can be more creative and efficient. Delegation of authority is not only helpful to the subordinates but it also helps the managers to develop their talents and skills. Since the manager gets enough time through delegation to concentrate on important issues, their decision-making gets strong and in a way they can flourish the talents which are required in a manager. Granting powers and getting the work done helps the manager to attain communication skills, supervision and guidance, and effective motivation and leadership traits flourish. Therefore, it is only through delegation, that a manager can be tested on his traits.

- Delegation of authority is a help to both superiors and subordinates. This, in a way, gives stability to a concern’s working. With effective results, a concern can think of creating working flow in more departments and divisions. This will require creation of more managers, which can be fulfilled by shifting the experienced, skilled
managers to these positions. This helps in both virtual and horizontal growth, which is very important for a concern’s stability.

3.4.8.2 Main Concepts of Delegation

The authority, responsibility, and accountability for the task change hands when a person delegates a task. Before delegating a task, it is important to understand how delegation affects these three concepts.

**Authority** – Authority is the power given to a person or a group of people to act and make decisions within designated boundaries. When delegating a task, the authority is shared between the manager and the person receiving the delegation.

**Responsibility** – Responsibility refers to the act of carrying out the task. When delegating a task, the manager and the person receiving the delegation share the responsibility of completing the work. The manager has the responsibility of providing instructions on what work needs to be done, while the person receiving the delegation is responsible for figuring out how the task should be completed.

**Accountability** – Accountability is the act of being liable for a person’s actions and decisions. During delegation of a task, the accountability of the task transfers from the manager to the person receiving the delegation and actually completing the work. Any positive or negative consequences associated with their performance are ultimately their responsibility.
3.4.8.3 Process of Delegation

The delegation process involves four distinct stages. The following figure shows the stages in the process of delegation of authority.

![Diagram of delegation process]

*Source: [http://business-world.weebly.com](http://business-world.weebly.com) Figure 3.10 Process of delegation*

**Assignment of duties to subordinates:** Before delegating, the delegator has to decide precisely the duties which are to be delegated to the subordinate or a group of subordinates. The authority is delegated accordingly and the subordinate is told what is expected from him. The usual practice is to list the functions to be performed by the subordinate. If necessary, targets to be achieved by the subordinate are also spelt out. Subordinates may be assigned tasks either in terms of activities or in terms of results. The manager (delegator) must communicate clearly his expectations. Competent and responsible employees may be given general guidelines about what needs to be accomplished. Their less competent and responsible counterparts need more specific guidelines. In brief, in the first stage of delegation process, duties are assigned to the subordinate.

**Transfer of authority to perform the duty:** In the second stage of delegation process, the authority is granted by the delegator to his subordinate (delegate). Authority must be delegated strictly to perform the assigned duty. The
performance of duties suffers serious setbacks when the required authority is not delegated along with the duty. In brief, the transfer of authority should be adequate, considering the duties assigned to the subordinate.

**Acceptance of the assignment:** In this third stage of delegation process, the subordinate/delegate has to accept or reject the task assigned to him in the first stage along with the authority given in the second stage. If the delegates refuse, the delegator has to make fresh plan of delegation or may consider some other subordinate who is capable and is willing to accept the assignment. On the other hand, the process of delegation will move to the fourth and the last stage, if the first delegates accept the assignment of work accompanying the authority.

**Creation of obligation / accountability / responsibility:** The fourth stage in the delegation of authority is the creation of obligation on the part of the subordinate to perform duties assigned to him, in a satisfactory manner by using the authority given. When the subordinate accepts a task and the authority is given, an obligation is created. He has to perform the assigned task by using the authority granted to him. A subordinate is also responsible/accountable for completing the assigned work. He is held answerable to a superior for the satisfactory performance of the work assigned. The delegator has to help his subordinate as and when necessary as he is responsible to his superior/organisation.

3.4.9 **Communication skill**

Communication skill is one’s ability to exchange ideas, emotions and feelings to another. Effective communication occurs only if the receiver understands the exact information or idea that the sender intended to transmit.
Many of the problems that occur in an organization are either the direct result of people failing to communicate and/or processes, which leads to confusion and can cause good plans to fail.

"The most important thing in communication is hearing what isn't said" (Peter Drucker). "A communication takes place when one individual, a sender, displays, transmits or otherwise directs a set of symbols to another individual, a receiver, with the aim of changing something, either something the receiver is doing (or not doing) or changing his or her world view. This set of symbols is typically described as a message." (William Rice-Johnson). "To effectively communicate, we must realize that we are all different in the way we perceive the world and use this understanding as a guide to our communication with others." (Tony Robbins).

Communication may be oral, written or non-verbal.

![Figure 3.11 Types of Communication](http://blog.careerfutura.com)
Errors usually arise because of ineffective communication on the part of the communicator and the receiver’s end. This is where the 9 Cs will definitely assist anyone in effective communication. According to the 9 Cs, communication needs to be – **Clear, Concise, Concrete, Correct, Coherent, Complete, Courteous, Credible** and Creative (Mind Tools).

### 3.4.9.1 Communication process

The progression of transmission and interchange of ideas, facts, feelings or actions is known as “Process of Communication”. The Process of Communication is a full cycle of events from the sender to the receiver and back to the sender. Communication is a two-way process.

![Image: The Communication Process](http://managementandenglish.blogspot.in)

**Source:** [http://managementandenglish.blogspot.in](http://managementandenglish.blogspot.in)

**Figure 3.12 Communication process**

**Sender:** The process of communication starts with a sender, the person who has an idea and wants to convey it to the receiver. In other words, we can say that the person with ideas to share is called sender. The formation of idea is the first step of communication. So, Communication process begins with the sender.
**Encoding:** The conversion of the idea into message by verbal or nonverbal method is called encoding. While encoding a message, one needs to consider what will be the interpretation of the message. This process of converting the thought of the sender into message is encoding.

**Message:** It is an important part of communication. Message is the content that the sender wants to convey. A message could be verbal or non-verbal. The thought, idea, emotion or anything that the sender wants to convey is called message.

**Channel:** The way or the medium of sending the message is called ‘channel’. Medium or channel can be oral, written or it can be non-verbal.

**Receiver:** The receiver is the person who receives encoded message. In the best way, if it reaches the receiver then there is no problem to the receiver to understand the message properly.

**Decoding:** It is a process where the received message is being understood. It is not necessary that the message reached to the receiver will be understood by the receiver but decoding is a process which converts the message into understanding. There are chances of misinterpretation of the message.

**Feedback:** This is the last part of the communication process. After receiving the message, the receiver reacts or responds to the sender. The response can be based on the perfect understanding of the message or it can be based on the misunderstanding or misinterpretation of the message. This reply from receiver to sender is called feedback. Feedback has its own importance as the success or failure of communication is decided by feedback only.
3.4.9.2 Emotional Intelligence and Communication skills

Emotion guides effective communication. It provides a road map to follow when we are in utter darkness and in need of a ‘lead’. Even minor situations in daily life demand effective communication. To be ‘human’ is to have emotions and these emotions show as we communicate, no matter how hard we strive not to display them. Emotions many a time can be signified by non-verbal signs like facial expression, body language and gestures. To be able to communicate properly (or argue), one must be able to identify and interpret the signs without failure. After the identification phase, our cognition attempts to use this obtained knowledge to promote our thought process or make advance connections. We tend to respond and react more emotionally to things that gather our attention. Understanding emotions flawlessly can also provide us with an edge by facilitating us with the essential tools for coping with the situation at hand. An emotionally intelligent person doesn’t necessarily need years of training to understand how people of different cultures interpret meaning in order to understand them, although that helps. Empathy is a widely used buzz-word when it comes to emotional intelligence.

3.4.9.3 Ways to improve communication skills

Regardless of the size of the organization – whether it is a large corporation, a small company, or even a home-based business – one needs good communication skills if he/she wants to succeed. The important ways to improve the communication skills are:

**Awareness of our own interaction with others:** Awareness of our own interaction with other people is the first step in improving our communication skills. Learning to identify which types of situations make us uncomfortable
and then modify our behaviour to achieve positive results is a critical step in improving our communication skills.

**Have One Conversation at a Time:** Multitasking may be fine for some, but people rarely want your *divided* attention. If too many things are going on, we are likely to miss important details that might make the difference between success and failure. Whether you are having a conversation in person or on the phone, give the other person focused time. We will make them feel important and worthy.

**Look People in the Eye:** Look at the eye of the person with whom we make conversation. Studies show that doing this conveys truth and honour. It helps to build up a stronger connection and find that it is easier to read emotions.

**Determination and self-awareness:** Determination and self-awareness will make our desire to improve our communication skills a reality.

**Write Things Down:** Write down the matters needed to be conveyed on a piece of paper or book before we start a conversation. It will help to make sure that no matter has been omitted to convey.

**Read and Respond to the Entire Email:** Slow down, read the whole email, and respond to all items. When sending emails, keep them short and to the point, or we deserve to be ignored. Use numbered lists and bullet points to make our ideas clear and simple to address. If we have tons to discuss, pick up the phone.

**Create a Response Schedule:** Setting a routine for communication can help both with our productivity and with the managing expectations of the people with whom we interact. It is frustrating to spend time chasing others, not knowing when we will get a response. We can set our own appropriate
timeframe, but once we have a schedule, we can better manage our time. We
can also let people know what to expect. Those who work with us regularly will
soon recognize and respect our habits.

**Use non-verbal communication:** Non-verbal communication is as important
as the things that we say. Positive body language is extremely important in our
interactions with other people. If our words and our actions do not match, we
will have a difficult time succeeding in social situations.

**Assume Best Intentions:** With the increase in texting and short e-mails, it is
often hard to know the intended tone of communication. With any short
communication, always start with the assumption that the intentions are good on
the other side.

**Accept responsibility:** Accept responsibility for our own behaviour and do
not fear apologizing for errors in judgment or insensitive actions. Asking
others for honest feedback about the way we interact with others can be very
helpful. Accept the negative feedback along with the positive and make
changes accordingly.

**Be a patient listener:** In order to learn how to improve our communication
skills, we must become patient listeners. We must fight the urge to respond
immediately and really listen to what the other person is trying to
communicate. Offering suggestions or criticism before we are certain of the
other person's intent can only lead to frustration for both parties.

**Maximize positive personality traits:** Maximize the positive personality
traits and use them in our interactions with others. Good communication and
great listening skills are the most important tools we can use in improving our
communication skills.
Close the Loop: While ending the communication, we should confirm that the conversation is finished.

3.4.10 Supervisory Skills

Supervisory skill is the ability of a person to oversee people at work so as to direct their work in an effective manner to achieve the goal. Almost 60 years ago, Robinson (1949) defined supervision in the context of social work as “an educational process in which a person with a certain equipment of knowledge and skill takes responsibility for training a person with less equipment” (p. 53). In another definition of supervision, Kadushin (1976) added to these two sets of tasks the “expressive–supportive leadership function” (p. 20) that focuses on the problem of sustaining social workers by offering emotional support and making efforts to assist them when they have “job-related discouragements and discontents.” Kadushin (1976), combining these three major functions, provided a definition of supervision that serves the purposes of this entry well.

3.4.10.1 Important Supervisory skills

The following are the skills commonly recognized as important for people to succeed as a supervisor.

Communicate effectively – Share information and encourage candid and open dialogue. Ensure that people share information and have access to the information they need to perform their tasks effectively. English / Spanish skills are a plus.

Responsible and completes work without close supervision – Ability to work independently, solve problems and move ahead without constant instructions.
Leadership ability – Confident, knows himself well, people gravitate to him, and commands respect and trust among peers and others.

Organized – Organizes time and priorities to achieve business results in a timely manner.

Adapts to and implements change – Accepts that change is inevitable and embraces change with innovation, courage, and resilience.

Promotes key values – Consistently demonstrates work ethics and values. Conducts duties of the position with truth, sincerity, and fairness.

Team and people building skills – Understands the importance of mentoring and coaching employees. Shows enthusiasm for helping others improve or develop new skills.

Uses sound judgment – Applies knowledge of the business and tasks and uses common sense and analysis to make the best decision.

Produces results – Directs his/her actions and the actions of others toward achieving goals that are critical to the success of the operation.

3.4.11 Controlling skills

Controlling skill is the ability of a person to set measurable standards, measure actual performance, compare the actual performance with standard and take corrective action if necessary. Controlling is one of the managerial functions like planning, organizing, staffing and directing. It is an important function because it helps to check the errors and to take the corrective action so that deviations from standards are minimized and stated goals of the organization are achieved in a desired manner. According to modern concepts,
control is a foreseeing action whereas the earlier concept of control was used only when errors were detected. Control in management means setting standards, measuring actual performance and taking corrective action.

In 1916, Henri Fayol formulated one of the first definitions of control as it pertains to management: Control of an undertaking consists of seeing that everything is being carried out in accordance with the plan which has been adopted, the orders which have been given, and the principles which have been laid down. Its object is to point out mistakes in order that they may be rectified and prevented from recurring. According to EFL Breach, Control is checking current performance against pre-determined standards contained in the plans, with a view to ensure adequate progress and satisfactory performance. According to Harold Koontz, Controlling is the measurement and correction of performance in order to make sure that enterprise objectives and the plans devised to attain them are accomplished.

3.4.11.1 Process of control

Control as a management function involves the following steps:

![Figure 3.13 Steps in control](source: www.acqnotes.com)
Establishing standards: Standards are criteria against which results are measured. They are norms to achieve goals. Standards are usually measured in terms of output. They can also be measured in non-monetary terms like loyalty, customer attraction, goodwill, etc.

Measuring performance: The measurement of actual performance must be in the units similar to those of a predetermined criterion. The unit or the yardstick thus chosen be clear, well-defined and easily identified, and should be uniform and homogenous throughout the measurement process.

Comparing the actual performance with expected performance: This is the active principle of the process. The previous two, setting the goals and the measurement are the preparatory parts of the process. It is the responsibility of the management to compare the actual performance against the standards established. This comparison is less complicate if the measurement units for the standards set and the performance measured are the same and quantified. The comparison becomes more difficult when these require subjective evaluations.

Correcting Deviations: The final element in the process is the taking of corrective action. Measuring and comparing performance, detecting shortcomings, failures or deviations from plans, will be of no avail if it does point to the needed corrective action. Thus, controlling, to be effective, should involve not only the detection of lapses but also probe into the failure spots, fixation of responsibility for the failures at the right quarters, recommendation of the best possible steps to correct them. These corrective actions must be applied when the work is in progress. The primary objective should be avoidance of such failures in future. Corrective action must be well balanced, avoiding over controlling and at the same time letting not things to drift.
3.4.11.2 Importance of control in management

Control in management implies:

**Reduces Risk:** Control eliminates the risk of non-conformity of actual performance with the main goals of the organisation. Control is the function which regulates the operation to ensure the attainment of the set objectives. Regular measurement of work in progress with proper adjustments in operations puts the performance on the right track and helps in the achievement of goals.

**Basis for future action:** Control provides the information and facts to the management for planning and organizing, when the work is completed and the result is evaluated. In fact, evaluation of results helps the management replant for non-repetitive operations and rewarding, punishing and disciplining the workers. It would be better to say that future long term planning is not possible unless and until control information is available in time to the managers for the operation of work.

**Size of the business:** In large scale business in the modern times it is quite impossible to work without proper policies, procedures and quality of different varieties of goods. That is why in a large-scale organisation there is always the need of a scientific system of control to solve the day-to-day problems.

**Indicator for managerial weakness:** In the organisation there will be certain unforeseen and unknown problems which cannot be traced out by mere planning, organising and staffing efforts. It is the control process that can trace these out. That is why it is known as an indicator of the managerial weakness. Control not only finds out the weakness of managers but also provides solutions and remedial action to solve the problems.

**Facility of coordination:** Management and coordination of the business activities and workers has a very important role. It binds all the workers and their activities
and motivates them to move towards the common objectives through coordination. Control will play the role of a middleman between the workers and the management, to provide the required information in time to the workers.

**Simplifies supervision:** A systematic system of control helps in finding out the deviation existing in the organisation which also simplifies the task of the supervisor in managing his subordinates. So, through control, it becomes simpler for the supervisor to supervise and guide the workers to follow the right track and fulfil the required goals.

**Extension of decentralisation:** Control system helps the top management to extend the frontiers of decentralisation without the loss of control. When proper procedures, policies, targets, etc, are clearly communicated to the subordinates, they develop self-confidence and need not always refer to their supervisors with the problems.

### 3.4.12 Customer Relationship skills

Customer relationship skill is the ability of a person to create, develop, maintain and expand long lasting relationships with the customers. It helps to build up a strong bond between the organization and the customer.

Customer Relationship Management is a broad concept for retaining, creating and expanding customer relationships in the banking sector. CRM enables organization to effectively manage relationship with their customers; it is an overall business strategy. CRM enables to anticipate, understand, manage and personalize the requirements of customers. Today, many business organisations such as insurance companies, banks and other service providers realize its importance. They also understand the potential of CRM which helps them to attract new customers and retain existing ones, which maximizes their lifetime value.
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The origins of the term CRM can be traced back to the 90’s of the 20th century when the concept of marketing changed from transactional to relational (Dohnal, 2002, p. 31). Since the beginning, many definitions have appeared with different meanings and sometimes even the meaning of the acronym CRM varied from Customer relationship management to Customer relationship marketing (Buttle, 2009, p. 3). It is hard to verify who the first to define CRM was. Some sources claim that Lehtinen (together with colleagues) was one of the first to describe and thoroughly research CRM (Lehtinen, 2007, p. 18-19). According to Lehtinen (2007, p. 18), CRM came into being together with development of marketing which gradually became more personal until it transformed into direct customer marketing, also known as one-to-one marketing, which aims at individual customers. Therefore, CRM implementation requires companies to change their view of marketing. Transactional (classical) marketing is becoming a thing of the past and the new trend is relational marketing, defined by Dohnal (2002, p. 32) as: “a process of identifying, establishing, maintaining, improving, and if necessary timely termination of economic relations with customers and other concerned subjects for the mutual benefit of all involved parties, which is achieved by mutual fulfilling of obligations and values.”

3.4.12.1 Need of CRM in the Banking Industry

A Relationship-based Marketing approach has the following benefits

- Over time, retail bank customers tend to increase their holding of the other products from across the range of financial products / services available.
- Long-term customers are more likely to become a referral source.
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- The longer a relationship continues, the better a bank can understand the customer and his/her needs and preferences, and so the greater the opportunity to tailor products and services and cross-sell the product/service range.

- Customers in long-term relationships are more comfortable with the service, the organization, methods and procedures. This helps to reduce operating costs.

- There is intense competition among the Private Sector Banks, Public Sector Banks and Foreign Banks and they are all taking steps to attract and retain the customers, through new technologies, research facilities, globalization of services, the flood of new products and the concept of all the facilities under one roof to provide better customer service leading to customer delight.

- The Customers in Banking Industry today are well informed. With the introduction of new technology, the world has become like a small village. Thus, if a Bank wants to have more customers, it should develop a good relationship with its present customers and try to maintain the same in the future also.

- In the present scenario, brand loyalty is on the decline. The customers are switching over frequently to avail better facilities from other banks. Newer and superior products and services are being introduced continuously in the market. Thus, the banks have to upgrade their products, improve customer service and create bonds of trust through proper care of customer needs and regular communications. With the help of CRM, strong customer loyalty and a good image for the organization can be developed.
• In the intensely competitive banking industry, retention of existing customers is vital, which can be achieved through the process of CRM.

3.4.12.2 Essential Customer relationship skills

Certain essential customer relation skills that must be mastered by every manager to create, develop and maintain effective customer relationship are discussed below (Gregory Ciotti 2014):

**Patience:** It is the very essential quality to be possessed by a customer relationship manager. Not only is patience important to customers, who often reach out to support when they are confused and frustrated, but it is also important to the business at large. While dealing with customers on a daily basis, be sure to stay patient when they come to you stumped and frustrated, but be sure also to take the time to truly figure out what they want — they'd rather get competent service than be rushed out the door!

**Attentiveness:** The ability to really listen to customers is so crucial for providing great service for a number of reasons. Not only is it important to pay attention to individual customer interactions (watching the language/terms that they use to describe their problems), but it is also important to be mindful and attentive to the feedback received from the customers.

**Clear Communication Skills:** More importantly, we need to be cautious about how some of our communication habits translate to customers, and it is best to err on the side of caution whenever we find ourselves questioning a situation. When it comes to important points that we need to relay clearly to customers, keep it simple and leave nothing to doubt.

**Knowledge of the Product:** Without knowing our product from front-to-back, we will not know how to help customers when they run into problems.
The best forward-facing manager in a bank will work on having a deep knowledge of how his product works. It is not that every single team member should be able to build the product from scratch, but rather they should know the ins and outs of how the product works, just as a customer who uses it every day would.

**Ability to Use "Positive Language":** Language is a very important part of persuasion, and people (especially customers) create perceptions about us and our company, based on the language that we use. Small changes that utilize "positive language" can greatly affect how the customer hears our response.

**Acting Skills:** Every great customer service representative will have those basic acting skills necessary to maintain their usual cheery persona in spite of dealing with people who may be just plain and grumpy.

**Time Management Skills:** We shall not waste time trying to go above and beyond for a customer in an area where we will just end up wasting the time of both.

**Ability to "Read" Customers:** Look and listen for subtle clues about their current mood, patience level, personality, etc., and we'll go far in keeping our customer interactions positive. This skill is essential because we not want to misread customers and end up losing them due to confusion and miscommunication.

**A Calming Presence:** The best customer service persons know that they cannot let a heated customer force them to lose their cool; in fact, it is their job to try to be the "rock" for a customer who thinks the world is falling down due to their current problem.
Goal Oriented Focus: Business goals and customer happiness should work hand-in-hand without resulting in poor service. The managers should bear this point in mind while dealing with the customers.

Persuasion Skills: Experienced customer support personnel know that, oftentimes, they will get messages in their inbox that are more about the curiosity of their company's product, rather than having problems with it. It is not about making a sales pitch in each email, but it is about not letting potential customers slip away because we could not create a compelling message that our company's product is worth purchasing! To take the customer service skills to the desired level, the managers need to have some mastery of persuasion so that they can convince interested customers that their product is right for them.

Tenacity: Remembering that the customers too are people and knowing that putting in the extra effort will come back to us ten-fold should be our driving motivation to never "cheat" our customers with lazy service.

Closing Ability: Being able to close with a customer means being able to end the conversation with confirmed satisfaction and with the customer feeling that everything has been or will be taken care of.

Willingness to Learn: This is probably the most "general" skill on the list, but it is still necessary. Those who do not seek to improve what they do, whether it is building products, marketing businesses, or helping customers, will get left behind by the people willing to invest in their skills.

3.4.12.3 Customer service training

To create strong and long-lasting customer relationships, the employees in an organization should be trained to deal with the customers effectively.
The following figure shows the important elements of effective customer service training.

![Diagram showing the important elements of effective customer service training. Source: www.helmword.com](image)

**Figure 3.14 Customer service training**

### 3.4.12.4 Emotional Intelligence and Customer relationship skills

In order to provide great customer service, one must learn how to perceive, use, understand and manage emotions. When the staff is better equipped to understand their own emotions, they can more effectively temper their reactions to deal with the issues of the customer. Likewise, being able to better understand customers’ emotions will help them see through the clouds of reaction and approach each problem more clearly. Studies have shown that salespeople, and customer services agents who have undergone EQ training, develop more accounts, have higher sales, deliver strong customer service and
realize better customer retention than those who have not (Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations).

### 3.5 Management Guidelines from the *Bhagavad Gita*

“Mind is very restless, forceful and strong, O Krishna, it is more difficult to control the mind than to control the wind” ~ Arjuna to Sri Krishna (Bhagavat Gita, Ch. VI Sloka 34) One of the greatest contributions of India to the world is the Holy Gita which is considered to be one of the first revelations from God. The Holy Gita is the essence of the Vedas and the Upanishads. It is a universal scripture applicable to people of all temperaments and for all times. It is a book with sublime thoughts and practical instructions on Yoga, Devotion, Vedanta and Action. The management lessons in this holy book were brought to light by Maharshi Mahesh Yogi, Sri Sri Ravi Shankar and Swami Bodhanandji, and many other spiritual leaders all over the world., and the spiritual philosophy of the great Adi Sankaracharya, the greatest philosopher of India and a proud son of Kerala, and Sri. Srila Prabhopada Swami, and the humanism of Mata Amritanandamayi Devi and Satya Sai Baba. Maharshi calls the *Bhagavad-Gita* the essence of Vedic Literature and a complete guide to practical life. It provides "all that is needed to raise the consciousness of man to the highest possible level." Maharshi reveals the deep, universal truths of life that speak to the needs and aspirations of everyone.

Arjuna gets mentally depressed when he see his relatives with whom he has to fight (mental health has become a major international public health concern now). To motivate him, the *Bhagavad Gita* is preached in the battle field Kurukshetra by Lord Krishna to Arjuna as a counselling to do his duty while multitudes of men stood by waiting. It elucidates all the management tactics to achieve mental equilibrium and to overcome any crisis situation. It
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shows us the path to handle the situation with equiipoised mind irrespective of what comes our way and reminds us, time and again, what the right action is.

There is an important distinction between effectiveness and efficiency in managing. Effectiveness is doing the right things. Efficiency is doing things right. The general principles of effective management can be applied in every field, the differences being more in application than in principle. The Manager's functions can be summed up as:

- Forming a vision
- Planning the strategy to realize the vision
- Cultivating the art of leadership
- Establishing institutional excellence
- Building an innovative organization
- Developing human resources
- Building teams and teamwork
- Delegation, motivation, and communication
- Reviewing performance and taking corrective steps when called for

Thus, management is a process of aligning people and getting them committed to work for a common goal to the maximum social benefit - in search of excellence. The major functions of managers are planning, organizing, leading and coordinating activities; they put different emphasis and suggest different natures of activities in the four major functions. The critical question in all managers' minds is how to be effective in their job. The answer to this fundamental question is found in the Bhagavad Gita, which repeatedly proclaims that "you must try to manage yourself." The reason is that
unless a manager reaches a level of excellence and effectiveness, he or she will be merely a face in the crowd.

3.5.1 Old Truths in a New Context

The *Bhagavad Gita*, written thousands of years ago, enlightens us on all managerial techniques leading us towards a harmonious and blissful state of affairs in place of the conflict, tensions, poor productivity, absence of motivation and so on, common in most Indian enterprises today and probably in enterprises in many other countries. The modern (Western) management concepts of vision, leadership, motivation, excellence in work, achieving goals, giving work meaning, decision making and planning, are all discussed in the *Bhagavad Gita*. There is one major difference. While Western management thought too often deals with problems at material, external and peripheral levels, the *Bhagavad Gita* tackles the issues from the grass roots level of human thinking. Once the basic thinking of man is improved, it will automatically enhance the quality of his actions and their results.

3.5.2 Utilization of Available Resources

The first lesson of management science is to choose wisely and utilize scarce resources optimally. During the curtain-raiser before the Mahabharata War, Duryodhana chose Sri Krishna's large army for his help, while Arjuna selected Sri Krishna's wisdom for his support. This episode gives us a clue as to the nature of the effective manager - the former chose numbers; the latter, wisdom.

3.5.3 Work Commitment

A popular verse of the *Gita* advises "detachment" from the fruits or results of actions performed in the course of one's duty. Being dedicated to
work has to mean "working for the sake of work, generating excellence for its own sake." If we are always calculating the date of promotion or the rate of commission, before putting in our efforts, then such work is not detached. It is not "generating excellence for its own sake" but working only for the extrinsic reward that may (or may not) result. Working only with an eye to the anticipated benefits, means that the quality of performance of the current job or duty suffers - through mental agitation of anxiety for the future. In fact, the way the world works implies that events do not always respond positively to our calculations and hence expected fruits may not always be forthcoming. So, the Gita tells us not to mortgage present commitment to an uncertain future.

Some people might argue that not seeking the business result of work and actions, makes one unaccountable. In fact, the Bhagavad Gita is full of advice on the theory of cause and effect, making the doer responsible for the consequences of his deeds. While advising detachment from the avarice of selfish gains in discharging one's accepted duty, the Gita does not absolve anybody of the consequences arising from the discharge of his or her responsibilities. Attachment to the perishable gives birth to fear, anger, greed, desire, feeling of "mine" and many other negative qualities. Renounce attachment by regarding objects for others and for serving others. Depend only on God (not body, nor intellect), and the dependency on the world will end. Renouncing attachment is the penance of knowledge, which leads to His Being - Truth, Consciousness and Bliss. (Bhagavad Gita-4.10). Thus the best means of effective performance management is the work itself. Attaining this state of mind (called "nishkama karma") is the right attitude to work because it prevents the ego, the mind, from dissipation of attention through speculation on future gains or losses.
3.5.4 Motivation of Self and Self-Transcendence

It has been presumed for many years that satisfying lower order needs of workers such as adequate food, clothing and shelter, are key factors in motivation. However, it is a common experience that the dissatisfaction of the clerk and of the director is identical - only their scales and compositions vary. It should be true that once the lower-order needs are more than satisfied, the Director should have little problem in optimizing his contribution to the organization and society. But, more often than not, it does not happen like that. ("The eagle soars high but keeps its eyes firmly fixed on the dead animal below.") On the contrary, a low paid schoolteacher, or a self-employed artisan, may well demonstrate higher levels of self-actualization despite poorer satisfaction of their lower-order needs.

This situation is explained by the theory of self-transcendence propounded in the Gita. Self-transcendence involves renouncing egoism, putting others before oneself, emphasizing team work, dignity, cooperation, harmony and trust and, indeed, potentially sacrificing lower needs for higher goals, the opposite of Maslow. "Work must be done with detachment." It is the ego that spoils work and the ego is the centrepiece of most theories of motivation. We need a theory not merely of motivation but a theory of inspiration. The Great Indian poet, Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941, known as "Gurudev") says that working for love is freedom in action. A concept is described as "disinterested work" in the Gita where Sri Krishna says,

"He who shares the wealth generated only after serving the people, through work done as a sacrifice for them, is freed from all sins. On the contrary those who earn wealth only for themselves, eat sins that lead to frustration and failure."
Disinterested work finds expression in devotion, surrender and equipoise. The former two are psychological while the third is determination to keep the mind free of the dualistic (usually taken to mean "materialistic") pulls of daily experiences. Detached involvement in work is the key to mental equanimity or the state of "nirdwanda." This attitude leads to a stage where the worker begins to feel the presence of the Supreme Intelligence guiding the embodied individual intelligence. Such de-personified intelligence is best suited for those who sincerely believe in the supremacy of organizational goals as compared to narrow personal success and achievement.

### 3.5.5 Work Culture

An effective work culture is about vigorous and arduous efforts in pursuit of given or chosen tasks. Sri Krishna elaborates on two types of work culture "*daivi sampat*" or divine work culture and "*asuri sampat*" or demonic work culture. Daivi work culture involves fearlessness, purity, self-control, sacrifice, straightforwardness, self-denial, calmness, absence of fault-finding, absence of greed, gentleness, modesty, absence of envy and pride. Asuri work culture involves egoism, delusion, personal desires, improper performance, work not oriented towards service. Mere work ethic is not enough. The hardened criminal exhibits an excellent work ethic. What is needed is a work ethic conditioned by ethics in work.

It is in this light that the counsel, "*yogah karmasu kausalam*" should be understood. "*Kausalam*" means skill or technique of work which is an indispensable component of a work ethic. "*Yogah*" is defined in the *Gita* itself as "*samatvam yogah uchyate*" meaning an unchanging equipoise of mind (detachment.) Tilak tells us that acting with an equable mind is Yoga. By making the equable mind the bedrock of all actions, the *Gita* evolved the goal
of unification of work ethic with ethics in work, for, without ethical process, no mind can attain an equipoise. The guru, Adi Sankara (born circa 800 AD), says that the skill necessary in the performance of one's duty is that of maintaining an evenness of mind in the face of success and failure. The calm mind in the face of failure will lead to deeper introspection and see clearly where the process went wrong so that corrective steps could be taken to avoid shortcomings in future.

The principle of reducing our attachment to personal gains from the work done is the Gita's prescription for attaining equanimity. It has been held that this principle leads to lack of incentive for effort, striking at the very root of work ethic. To the contrary, concentration on the task for its own sake leads to the achievement of excellence and indeed to the true mental happiness of the worker. Thus, while commonplace theories of motivation may be said to lead us to the bondage or extrinsic rewards, the Gita's principle leads us to the intrinsic rewards of mental, and indeed moral, satisfaction.

3.5.6 Work Results

The Gita further explains the theory of "detachment" from the extrinsic rewards of work, in saying: If the result of sincere effort is a success, the entire credit should not be appropriated by the doer alone. If the result of sincere effort is a failure, then, too, the entire blame does not accrue to the doer. The former attitude mollifies arrogance and conceit while the latter prevents excessive despondency, de-motivation and self-pity. Thus, both these dispositions safeguard the doer against psychological vulnerability, the cause of the modern managers' companions of diabetes, high blood pressure and ulcers.
Assimilation of the ideas of the *Gita* leads us to the wider spectrum of "lokasamgraha" (general welfare) but there is also another dimension to the work ethic - if the "karmayoga" (service) is blended with "bhaktiyoga" (devotion), then the work itself becomes worship, a "sevayoga" (service for its own sake.). The *Gita* espouses the doctrine of *nishkamya karma* or pure action untainted by hankering after the fruits resulting from that action. Modern scientists have now understood the intuitive wisdom of that action in a new light.

### 3.5.7 Basic approach to work in *Gita*

Management is all about doing work, doing it efficiently and ensuring that results follow. Viewed from this perspective, *Gita* offers counter-intuitive ideas on these issues (see figure for a basic framework depicting this).

**Axioms**
- Work of Action
- Fruits of Action
- Source of the fruits of Action
- Relationship among these

Source: www.samskritbookfair.org

![Figure 3.15 The nature of work according to the Bhagavad Gita](source)
3.6 Conclusion

The conceptualizations of the El construct are different among different researchers and this has resulted in different approaches to the operationalisation of the concept. However, they appear to share a view of the roots of El and its place within the organizational context. It can be concluded that the approaches to operationalisation tend to fall into three broad categories, namely, Abilities (Mayer et al., 2001), Competencies (Goleman, 1998b) and Personal factors (Bar-On, 2000; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000a). Managerial skills are sets of qualities and attributes in the personality of managers that enable them to effectively manage the working of a firm. Good managerial skills can create a world of difference in the efficiency and performance of the organization. Researchers have found that traditional Manager skills would not bring favourable change at the workplace. So, the manager has to learn some special skills which bear on the employee's behaviour and attitudes. Different authors, researchers and experts organized and categorized managerial skills in different ways. The important skills to be possessed by a manager to manage people, situations, events, and difficulties well are Goal setting skills, Planning skills, Decision-making skills, Problem-solving skills, Motivating skills, Leadership skills, Conflict-resolving skills, Delegating skills, Communication skills, Supervisory and Controlling skills and Customer relationship skills. The present study is intended to explore the interrelationship between Emotional Intelligence and Managerial Skill of selected public sector and private sector bank managers in Kerala. The study also envisages to make a close comparison between the Emotional Intelligence and Managerial Skills of public and private sector bank managers. Different statistical tools are applied to analyze the relationship between the Emotional Intelligence and Managerial...
Skills of the selected bank managers and for making comparison between the private and public sector bank managers.

The model applied for analyzing the relationship between EI and Managerial Skills of bank managers in this study is displayed below:
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