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EDITORIAL

Promoting scientific research for better service to the community is the main reason of the publication of this 18th issue of ULK Scientific Review that we are presenting to you.

Campaign for a knowledge-based economy in Rwanda, is the dream that the government of Rwanda strive for the benefit of its people. Within his research entitled *THE NEXUS BETWEEN PUNCTURED-HEALTH AND KNOWLEDGE ECONOMY: EVIDENCE FROM RWANDA*, Dr. EGWAKHE, A. J, a Lecturer in Department of Finance and Accounting, Adventist University of Central Africa, Masoro, Kigali, Rwanda analyzed that even if the Government is motivated for a knowledge-based economy in the country, there are some limitations in health mainly the punctured-health (HIV/AIDS) that other Non Government Organizations and stakeholders have to share in the effort of broadcasting the message on HIV/AIDS prevention .

Understanding and appreciating the factors that influence entrepreneurs to create new business ventures in Rwanda, establishing whether entrepreneurs have successfully managed their businesses under the influence of entrepreneurship and determining the rewards and the drawbacks of entrepreneurship, were the objectives of the second article in this Scientific Review which was written by Dr. KAAYA SIRAJE, Senior lecturer and the Dean of Faculty of Economic Sciences and Management, ULK/ Kigali.

As it is quite evident that organizations need to develop mechanisms for the effective management of emotions in the workplace, AKINYEMI, Benjamin Oyegoke, *PhD, CMC*, Rector of Kigali Institute of Management in his work entitled *MANAGING EMOTIONS IN THE WORKPLACE: THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE* advises organizations to enhance the development of employees' Emotional Intelligence investing in such trainings that help to both handle their own as well as others' emotions.

We sincerely address our heartfelt thanks to the contributors and readers both internal and external who allowed this 18th issue of ULK Scientific Review to come out.

Prof. Dr NGAGI M. Alphonse.
The Rector

THE NEXUS BETWEEN PUNCTURED - HEALTH AND KNOWLEDGE ECONOMY: EVIDENCE FROM RWANDA

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Abstract

Despite the tireless governmental campaign for a knowledge - based economy in Rwanda, various economic and behavioural forces seem to militate against the actualization of this dream. While the forces are multidimensional, complex, and interwoven, the principal factor that appears fundamental is punctured-health (HIV/AIDS). Hence, this paper quantitatively examines the nexus between punctured health (HIV/AIDS) and knowledge economy. The paper focuses empirically on examining the effect of people living with HIV/AIDS on knowledge economy aspiration using econometric model/correlations.

The person-specific and macroeconomic characteristics of a knowledge economy were examined for policy prescription. The data-set used were collated from National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda and the CIA World Fact data sheet from 2000-2008. The available empirical evidence suggests that punctured-health depletes the possibility of realizing a knowledge economy. The observation has heightened the risks of unchecked sexual behaviour and amplifies the need for Government and stakeholders' urgent intervention towards realizing a knowledge economy by 2020.

Keywords: *Knowledge economy, punctured health, HIV/AIDS, labour-force, Rwanda vision 2020.*

INTRODUCTION

The economic polarization, vulnerability to and the density of HIV/AIDS affected people within the underdeveloped nations, especially within African societies are impacting profoundly on the human capital built up. While this realization is a non-geographic restricted phenomenon (International Labour Organization (ILO), 2004), the punctured-health seems to limit nation's collective empowerment and participation in the knowledge economy.

Technically, knowledge economy embraces robust education/training (Schultz, 1960; Drucker, 1968; Romer, 1990; Bils & Klenow, 2000), social capital, and health (World Bank, 2009) which predominantly impact the nation's economic prosperity.

With the emergent and ever increasing vulnerability to HIV/AIDS, the probable risk of not actualizing knowledge economy is widening. The compound effect is exemplified among HIV/AIDS triggered poverty and illiteracy to a nation stagnation/poverty.

A nation's human capital health is paramount for knowledge creation which simultaneously constitutes the technical platform for productive innovation and sustainable competitiveness.

The health facet presents an unprecedented opportunity for inter-generation knowledge acquisition/transfer necessary to stimulate economic growth.

Existing evidences (Romer, 1990; Strauss & Thomas, 1998; Yesufu, 2000) demonstrate that economic growth is a derivative of accumulated knowledge. While economic growth is caused by intellectual capital (Houghton and Sheehan, 2000), Yesufu (2000) recognizes the primacy of healthy human capital in facilitating and preserving the economic prosperity.

However, punctured-health (HIV/AIDS) seems to deplete the productive human capital and this may logically affect the economy progressively.

The new growth theory associated with Romer (1990) and the knowledge-driven economy (Drucker, 1968) substantially illustrate that a nation's wealth generation and transformation are aftermath of intellectual capital. Thus, healthy labourforce becomes a valuable prerequisite for knowledge economy especially for the industries that depend on them to lubricate and sustain productive economic activities. On a contrary perspective, the prevalence of HIV/AIDS invariably plummet productivity and escalates man-labour hour lost, absenteeism, and other quantifiable cost to the individual, firms, and the nation. The afore-mentioned generates voluntary and involuntary unemployment and exposes

¹ See HIV/AIDS studies in Uganda, Ethiopia, Swaziland, Mozambique at www.savethechildren.org.uk & www.passlivelihoods.org.uk and Malawi at www.savethechildren.org.uk respectively

person to employment difficulties (World Bank, 2009). These losses associate HIV/AIDS with complex constraints; predominantly unattainable knowledge economy, poverty and high illiteracy level. Hence, the only alternative to knowledge economy is knowledge creation and healthy workforce for continuous economic improvement.

Certainly, there is a worldwide perception convergent that knowledge economy depends on technical educational (Benhabib & Spiegel, 1994) development and deployment of healthy labour force. This human capital facilitates economic productivity (Strauss & Thomas, 1998 and Kaplan & Norton, 2001) and interconnectivity at domestic and continental activities.

The education safeguards investments in human, economic infrastructures and ensures long-term economic growth sustainability. From this perspective, healthy human capital becomes a necessity for knowledge economy, since the intellectual capital assistance is vital for development.

Invariably, when the human capital required to sustain the knowledge economy is in short supply due to punctured-health, the ripple effects surpass the immediate economic, financial, and social cost.

² See International Labour Organization. "The economic impact of HIV/AIDS: Employment and labour market implication" www.ilo.org

Scholars like (Becker, 1962; Remor, 1990; Bils and Klenow, 2000) have identified the fundamental role of human capital in the knowledge economy. However, a systematic attention has not been accorded the nexus between a punctured-health and knowledge economy possibility in Rwanda. In this context, this research examines the nexus between punctured-health through HIV/AIDS and knowledge economy within the Rwandan scenario. The work is of core benefit to Rwandan government functionaries and people towards increase campaigning against HIV/AIDS and knowledge economy. The research paper is organized into sections: introduction, followed by theoretical and empirical literature review, research method and model specification, data analysis and discussions, and the conclusion respectively.

THE THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

Globally, the density of affected individuals/household living with HIV/AIDS has continuously been on the increase (Ethiopia Report, 2005) and the impact on the economy (World Bank, 2009) and people (ILO, 2004) have seen divergent approaches (Arndt and Lewis, 2000 and Burger, 2001). Despite the various perspectives, some empirical documentation connects the impact with macroeconomic factors and socio-behavioral (World Bank, 2009) variables. These fundamental factors are interwoven and complex, yet scholars have addressed them within the context and methodological purview of their investigations. However, the views on employment of affected persons, cost to persons/household income (Samson, 2002), GDP (Burger, 2001), savings, technical education, investments, and vulnerability to poverty (World Bank, 2009) are convergent and alarming.

The economic data that predates HIV/AIDS in Africa reveals that the economic performance of most Africa nations were on a progressive deterioration (Central Intelligence Agency World Factbook, 2004), however, it is worthwhile to investigate the epidemic implications within Rwanda context. The adverse consequence of HIV/AIDS is hypothesized to have depleted the affected person's productivity and limited the probability of employment (Burger, 2001).

The susceptibility to unemployment is explicit, especially when the health consequence becomes visible (Hunter, 2006). This instigates social stigmatization (Human Right Report, 2004) which translates into unemployment, voicelessness, and social exclusion. In light of the foregoing, Arndt and Lewis (2000) concludes that HIV/AIDS-afflicted workers are half as productive as their co-staff who do not suffer from HIV/AIDS. This conclusion was substantiated by Burger (2001) which reveals the productivity reduced (40%) in AIDS-afflicted (skilled and unskilled) workers.

The depth of macroeconomic impact is complex and difficult to fathom, though comprehensible. It reverses economic progress (Booyesen, 2003), depletes intellectual wealth (Whiteside, 2002) and household income (Van den Heever, 2003). Nevertheless, the effect varies according to the severity of the HIV/AIDS epidemic.

Despite the fact that socio-economic burdens fall profoundly on the affected individual and the household members, the ripple-effect outreaches other components of the economy.

The assumption is that a progressive deterioration in economic performance and higher cost of labour due to HIV/AIDS exacerbates investment and employment opportunities (Desmond, 2001). With depleted human capital, labour high cost, and household income deficit, the people are developmentally challenged and the economy rubbed-off of active future labour force.

The hypothesis that associates skilled and better-educated workers to HIV/AIDS vulnerability seems intellectually unsatisfactory, since ethnographic observations show that HIV/AIDS appears common among the poor and uneducated as sustained by (Poku, 2001). Nevertheless, the impact on the economy is not undermined provided the affected person constitutes a component of the aggregate population.

Within this assertion, Yesufu (2000) and Booyesen (2003) studies discovered a negative relationship with GDP, which connects it with poverty. The poverty thesis focuses on financial expenditure with allusion to illness or death of the infected persons in relation to depletion in savings and lost in household income (Samson, 2002) which affects the economy, the firms, and the individuals.

From the neoclassical growth doctrine, Romer (1990) connects a decrease in the growth rate of the working-age population with a corresponding increase in the labour-capital ratio since the marginal product of labour rises with wages.

See International Labour Organization. "The economic impact of HIV/AIDS: Employment and labour market implication" www.ilo.org

The aggregated costs are conventionally seen as sunk cost (Booyesen, 2003); investment cost, on the affected, increases with decrease in health and economic performance.

The view of Arndt and Lewis (2000) sees the total productivity factor reduced with HIV/AIDS epidemic, while Van den Heever, (2003) demonstrates that the reduction can possibly be cushioned by immigrant workers. However, Jochelson, Mothibeli, and Leger (1991) & Poku, (2001) previously argued that immigrant miners are prostitution-market creators, hence increasing the likelihood of HIV spread.

From this observation, it is evident that HIV/AIDS does have adverse effect on employment (Ambert, 2002) through wage costs, financial costs, and opportunity costs. In light of this, Booyesen (2003) offers an analysis of the long-term effects of HIV/AIDS on household income and a decline in returns to human capital. This, Booyesen (2003) says, affects the accumulation of intellectual capital.

Further, inter-generations impact framework (Arndt and Lewis, 2000) demonstrates that children's education is lost due to income lost from the family head's death.

The discontinuity in knowledge acquisition and transfer between generations resultantly deflates returns to human capital, mortality, and investment laxity in children's education.

HIV/AIDS affects human capital accumulation both at individual households and national levels. The household thesis is associated with children's propensity to drop-out of school due to harsh household economic and financial factors (Whiteside, 2001). Anchored on household income hardship, children are economically compelled to shoulder the financial burdens of health care and household consumption by dropping out of school.

This cycle of macroeconomic and educational impacts resonates the multidimensional complexity of the nexus between HIV/AIDS and knowledge economy: changes in employment, wage/savings, and investment in education, life expectancy and GDP.

The impact of HIV/AIDS on household's income is self-evident. The World Bank (2009) illustrates that affected persons are generally within productive age bracket of 15 and 40 years.

According to Hisrich & Peter (2005) this age constitutes the peak of entrepreneurial capacities development and utilization. A loss in human capital/household income, leads to income and intellectual poverty (Desmond, 2001; Whiteside, 2001; 2002). The experienced poverty knocks not the household income and education alone, but the ripple-effect reaches the family's economic/social behaviours (Poku, 2001).

The incapacitation and stigmatization of HIV/AIDS workers increase household income deficit which directly lowers propensity to demand for goods and services.

Consequently, the business sector suffers decreasing sales and profits leading to decreased in wage and downsizing. This resultantly inhibits the dream of a knowledge economy.

The empirical evidences (Drucker, 1968; Yesufu, 2000; Obikoya, 2002) suggest that education makes people productive catalysts for national development. Similarly, Scholars like (Schultz, 1960 & Becker, 1964) revealed that the educated and healthy people have the abilities to contribute significantly to knowledge economy. Likewise, Lochner and Moretti (2004) demonstrate that years invested in education's ripple incentives are greater than the private returns enjoyed by the individual.

However, HIV/AIDS threatens the young people's educational aspiration through drop-out resulting from household income deficit and HIV/AIDS medical cost.

The World Bank studies (2008; 2009 and Samson, 2002) indicate that school attendance by young people decreases by half when the head of the household died of HIV/AIDS in the previous year.

The education, household's employment status, and per capita household expenditures influence health status of the family, especially the children (Booyesen, 2003).

It was also established that investments in education and health facilities are positively related to economic growth (Strauss and Thomas, 1998).

Nevertheless, HIV/AIDS' ability to continuously deplete investment in education reduces the human capital quality, productivity and economic improvements. In light of this, Kaplan and Norton (2001) assert that learning-growth ability of a firm results from learning capacity and experience-effect of the knowledgeable workforce.

The post genocide socio-political, education, and economic progress of Rwanda are at risk since HIV/AIDS has the capacity to exacerbate these achievements. From different scholars' view, HIV/AIDS affects employment, household income, education, economic growth, and the human capital for knowledge economy.

The principal indicator of knowledge economy is the density of educated (Houghton and Sheelen, 2000) person not living with HIV/AIDS to the total population. The affected person-specific classification is anchored on the paper's method for quantifying the healthy people vis-à-vis the punctured-health for statistical analysis.

This approach makes it less difficult to compare a nation's human capacities and standardize it against the total human resource to a knowledge-driven economy.

RESEARCH METHOD AND MODEL SPECIFICATION

In most of the existing literature, the econometric analyses of knowledge economy are focused on the macroeconomic variables (Burger, 2001) knowledgeable people, without factoring in the socio-behavioral relationship to HIV/AIDS. Other studies were limited to HIV/AIDS' impact (Samson, 2002 and Poku, 2001) without considering the knowledge characteristics inherent within the economy. In contrast, this paper analysis is focused on HIV/AIDS to knowledge economy; educational level, GDP, household purchasing power.

By analyzing the economy through the density of people living with HIV/AIDS, labour force, life expectancy, and purchasing power, the research aims to identify the dynamics between HIV/AIDS and features of knowledge economy.

The research utilizes a correlation/econometric model to measure the nexus between punctured-health (HIV/AIDS) and knowledge economy. Towards actualizing the research objective, the categorical predictors were anchored on socio-behaviour and macroeconomics.

Thus, the data for both correlation and econometric analyses were obtained from National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (2006) and CIA World Facts (2008) for a time-slice of nine years: 2000-2008. The choice of this era emanates from the acclaimed Rwandan post-genocide economic erformance and the lack of pre-genocide reliable and objective data. Hence, the used data are valid and authentic for a research work.



From the nexus approach, the paper adopted a correlation towards defining the one-to-one relationship between HIV/AIDS and other categorical variables. This makes it easy to determine the statistical nexus which forms a basement for interpreting the knowledge economy implications.

For the purpose of establishing a predictor, the data were further subjected to econometric evaluation towards crafting a best-fit model of HIV/AIDS' impact. Following these dichotomized goals, the first analysis used the correlation to establish a nexus and the econometric model to predict the depth of impact.

From the theoretical and empirical reviews, five categorical variables were identified for both macroeconomics and socio-behavior; purchasing power (*PPP*), real GDP (*GDP*), literacy (*Littlelevel*), life expectancy (*lifexpect*), labour force (*Labforce*). The HIV/AIDS was taken as the number of people living with HIV/AIDS. Thus, the paper specifies a model where the independent variables (features of knowledge economy) were arranged in order to examine their movement with punctured-health (*HIV/AIDS*).

This was captured functionally in equation 1 below:

$$(Y_i) = f(KEc)^n$$

This simple equation was further transformed into a multiple linear regression with the explanatory variables inclusive:

$$(Y_i) = f(PPP + GDP + Lifexpect + Labforce + Littlelevel + U) \text{ -----}$$

----- (1)

Where:

Y_i = the representation of the dependent variable: punctured-health (people living with HIV/AIDS (*PHIV*))

PPP = it denotes the household income, hence cushion for national per capita/purchasing power indicator

GDP = the real GDP shows the density of economic productivity

Lifexpect = the longevity of the people of Rwanda over the nine years

Labforce = the totality of the people working or capable of working

Litlevel = the educational level of the citizenry

e = stochastic term capturing other variables not included in the model/disturbance.

The equation above was transformed to reflect in explicit form:

$$\frac{(PHIV)}{\text{-----}2} = \phi_0 + \phi_1 PPP + \phi_2 GDP + \phi_3 Lif\ expect + \phi_4 Labforce + \phi_5 Litlevel$$

Where $\phi_0, \phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \phi_4$ and ϕ_5 are the parameters to be estimated.

The former is the constant term while the others measure the nature of relationships between the dependent variable and the independent variables. In other words, it shows how the dependent variable would change given a change in the independent variables.

Theoretically, the author expects GDP, life expectancy, labour force, literacy, and purchasing power to decrease as the number of people living with HIV/AIDS increases. This assumption emerges from the understanding that punctured-health drives down other features of knowledge economy. Thus, the apriori is such that

$\phi_0, \phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \phi_4$ and $\phi_5 < 0$. e is the error term assumed to be iid and $N(0, \sigma^5)$.

DATA ANALYSES AND DISCUSSIONS

The hard-data were subjected to statistical analyses at two levels: (1) to establish a nexus through correlations, (2) to predict the best-fit model for understanding punctured-health to knowledge economy.

From the correlational statistical results, it is evident that a negative significant relationship exists between punctured-health and knowledge economy: literacy, labour force, and the income level. However, the nature and level of significance differ proportionally to each categorical variable.

From Table 1.0, statistical evidences depict significance, but negative direct relationship with literacy, labour force, and purchasing power (not significant) at 1% each respectively. Similar observation was not established for GDP and life expectancy; both were not significant at 1% and 5% level, although life expectancy and purchasing power indicate a non significant negative relationship induced by punctured-health.

The existing Pearson relationship between punctured-health and literacy level in Rwanda within the nine (9) years exhibits negativity (-0.964), implying that the major characteristics of knowledge economy (literacy & labour-force) are depleted by HIV/AIDS. Within the context of observation, the aspiration of a knowledge economy by the year 2020 is seriously threatened.

It therefore means that as punctured-health (HIV/AIDS) increases, the density of educated person and workforce that sustain the present economy decreases which directly challenges the prospect of knowledge economy. This decrease presupposes a reversal in Rwandan educational, labour force, purchasing power in subsequent years if unchecked.

Further, the purchasing power shows a negative relationship although not significant with HIV/AIDS -0.678 , but significant at 5% (0.07). It illustrates that household propensity to buy decreases as punctured-health increases. It could be inferred that since education is compromised and labour force depleted, the household buying power is gravely affected.

However, the aggregate observation denotes a negative interconnectivity between punctured-health and knowledge economy. Therefore, the negative nexus between punctured-health and knowledge economy in Rwanda amplifies and supports the existing documentations on HIV/AIDS impact on the economy.

Table 1.0 shows the Correlations

	Povline	Litlevel	Lifexpect	Labforce	PHIV	GDP	PPP
Povline	Pearson Correlation 1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
Litlevel	Pearson Correlation -0.519	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.152					
Lifexpect	Pearson Correlation -0.236	0.631	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.540	0.69				
Labforce	Pearson Correlation -0.325	0.977**	0.639	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.393	0.000	0.64			
PHIV	Pearson Correlation 0.452	-0.964**	-0.618	-0.954**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.222	0.000	0.078	0.000		
GDP	Pearson Correlation 0.130	-0.345	0.029	-0.349	0.303	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.738	0.364	0.358	0.427		
PPP	Pearson Correlation -0.323	0.704*	0.552	0.771*	-0.678*	-0.234	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.934	0.034	0.123	0.015	0.045	0.545

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The second phase of investigation employs an econometric tool to empirically predict which of the significant variables best predict the impact of HIV/AIDS on knowledge economy. This change in direction was informed by the observation in Table 1.0. Hence, a linear regression was carried-out as specified in the model with the exclusion of GDP and life expectancy; nevertheless, the results' satisfactory performance speaks profoundly of the model's fitness.

From Table 2.0, the robustness and efficiency of the model were statistically established and evaluated through the standard *F*-ratio, and significance diagnostic tests which reveal that asymptotically, the error terms are identically and independently distributed (iid).

Table 2.0. Model of Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F ratio	Standard Error of the Estimation
1	.0964	0.929	0.919	91.83	0.02734

Predictors: (constant), Litlevel.

Deducing from the model's robustness, the empirical result was considered technically rich for scientific interpretations and generalization. The Table 2.1 contains the statistical output of the empirical investigation.

The R^2 (92.9%) value demonstrates a variation in HIV/AIDS that is attributed to or explained by the literacy level.

It does imply that the change in HIV/AIDS density has a decreasing negative (*t*-ratio - 9.58) effect on the literacy level of the total population. Investigating the nature of relationship between HIV/AIDS and literacy variable, the regression results show that holding other principal variables constant, HIV/AIDS has a negative relationship (**B**-value -0.010) with literacy. The negative effect was significant at 1%. This is in accordance with the initial specified *apriori* expectations.

Table 2.1. Coefficients

	Unstandardized	Coefficients	Standardized		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t-ratio	Sig.
1Constant	0.920	0.046		14.33	0.000
Litlevel	-0.010	0.001	-0.964	-9.583	0.000

Dependent Variable : PHIV

From the statistical observations, lack of educated person, lower labour-force, depleted purchasing power and high density of affected person discriminate against Rwandan economic competitiveness and limit the possibilities of knowledge economy. This hampers developmental efforts both at household level and national level.

In similar proportion, lack of proper protection or enforcement of HIV/AIDS preventive schemes in Rwanda may exponentially affect the interest of individuals, industries, infrastructural development, and the nation's prosperity.

The diagnostic tests were done using SPSS package, when the probability values are high (say 0.000 significant level, & F-ratio 91%), it means null hypothesis cannot be rejected at 1.0% significant level.

CONCLUSION

The debate on the nexus between punctured-health and knowledge economy is far from over, but insights from Rwanda added value to the discussions. Fundamentally, workers' health and education are complementary features of a knowledge economy.

Divorcing one from the other makes the dream of a knowledge economy unattainable, since the skills required for knowledge economy will increasingly be those that are complementary with its features, not those that are substitutes. Whereas machines have the capacity to replace labour during the industrial era, the knowledge economy envisaged by Rwanda will increasingly depend uniquely on human knowledge (tacit and codify) and health.

Thus, the knowledge economy will continuously rely on knowledge, as well as healthy people. This means that the success of Rwandan people, enterprises, and the economy is reliant upon knowledgeable and healthy workers' effectiveness in acquisition, absorption, and utilization of production factors for wealth creation.

From the dual analyses, it becomes evident that an economy robbed of healthy and knowledgeable people is unlikely to achieve a knowledge economy dream. Therefore, what accelerates economic development resides within the domain of symbolic analysts and Rwanda must continuously learn, adapt health messages, and organize local infrastructures to contain the spread of HIV/AIDS.

From the statistical evidences, it becomes compelling that increased vulnerability to punctured-health depletes the possibility of realizing a knowledge economy. The observation heightens the risks of unchecked health behaviour and amplifies the need for Government's urgent intervention towards realizing a knowledge economy by 2020.

However, the do-it-alone mentality may militate against this effort; hence it is recommended that other Non Governmental Organizations and Stakeholders share in the effort of diffusing the message of HIV/AIDS prevention.

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ENTREPRENEURSHIP AS A DRIVING TOOL IN SMALL SCALE BUSINESSES CREATION IN RWANDA

**(Case of the 12th Rwanda International Trade Fair Gikondo
Expo, Kigali)**

BY: Dr KAA YA Siraje

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

This article focuses on Entrepreneurship as a driving tool in business creation in Rwanda. The researcher considered the Rwanda 12th international trade fair at Gikondo expo, Kigali as a case.

The objective of carrying out this research was to let the readers understand and appreciate the factors that influence entrepreneurs to create new business ventures, to establish whether entrepreneurs have successfully managed their businesses under the influence of entrepreneurship, and to determine the rewards and the drawbacks of entrepreneurship.

In this article, various literatures on entrepreneurship were reviewed. In other words, the research findings revealed that entrepreneurs, knowingly or unknowingly, joined business because of the entrepreneurial concepts which include; unemployment, job opportunities, innovativeness, technology, internal and external competition, economic growth, then population growth of Rwanda, plus the help of the Private Sector Federation (PSF), have led people into becoming entrepreneurs.

1. PROBLEM STATEMENT AND HYPOTHESIS

Rwanda is one of the fast developing countries and growing economies in Africa. It should be remembered that, soon after the 1994 genocide, Rwanda was left in both an economic and manpower vacuum, due to the fact that, the then existing businesses and intellectuals were almost wiped out, and the manpower was reduced to almost nothing by the Genocidiaries.

However, the willingness, the ability, the spirit of hard work and the patriotism of the remaining people towards the country, have helped them to quickly rebuild up the country. The Rwandan economy has stabilized and continued to grow due to the stable security, trust and faithfulness of the people in the country.

This has largely enticed the indigenous people with the help of Private Sector Foundation (PSF) to start up businesses in the various parts of the country.

Not only Rwandan citizens have opened up businesses, but also different investors have come into Rwanda to invest in businesses of their choices.

It is from the above reasons that the researcher was driven into finding out how the entrepreneurship concepts have really contributed to the opening up of the various businesses in Rwanda today.

By starting up business ventures means entrepreneurship yet successful entrepreneurs have led to the rapid growth and development of Rwanda. In order to achieve the above objectives, a number of questions were applied:

1. What are the factors that influence people to start businesses in Rwanda?
2. How has entrepreneurship helped the welfare of the business owners?

The research is based on entrepreneurship as a driving tool in business creation case study of Gikondo expo, 2009.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1. To establish the factors that drive people to start businesses in Rwanda
To determine the effects of entrepreneurship on the welfare of business owners.

1.1 Research Design

Churchill (1992:108) defines research as the framework or plan of study that guides the collection and analysis of study. Richard and Williams(1990:138) also define research as the total plan researchers use to aid in answering our research questions; as part of his plan, he decides what the research questions should be, what data will be required to answer them, from whom data will be obtained and the best way to gather the data.

In this case, the researcher obtained the data from the Rwanda International Trade fair (RITF) organizers and the exhibition participants of the 12th RITF.

According to Grinnell and Williams (1990:41), a research design is a careful systematic study or investigation in some field of knowledge undertaken to establish some factors or principles. They further emphasize that a research design is the entire process of the study, the problem formulation through dissemination of findings.

Richard M. and Williams (199:117), assert that the research may be exploratory, descriptive or explanatory. Under this study, the researcher used a case study a case study and explanatory approaches.

The researcher adopted a case study and explanatory approaches because the researcher selected Rwandan entrepreneurs as a case study in order to establish how they have used entrepreneurship contributions in achieving their objectives.

1.2.1 Primary data

According to Audrey J. Roth (1989:57), primary data comes straight from the people or works being researched and therefore the most direct kind of information that can be collected. For Churchill Jr. (1992:49), he defines primary data as the information collected especially for the investigation at hand.

Primary sources of data are of paramount importance to this research because it provides first hand observation and investigation. The primary data required for this research was minimal and to a small extent collected from the 12th RITF at Gikondo expo, Kigali Rwanda.

1.2.2 Interview schedule

According to Mannheim and C. Rich (1995:444), an interview schedule refers to the questionnaire used in personal interviews. The researcher got the information from both the staff and the entrepreneurs of the Businesses found in the 12th RITF.

1.2.3 Secondary Data

Another very important source was secondary data. Grinnell Jr. Richard M. and Margaret Williams (1990:219), defined secondary Data as the Data that already exists in boxes, in some companies or organizations' computers. This has been the most important source of Data as far as this study was concerned. The researcher obtained the secondary data from the Private sector Foundation, which organized the 12th RITF. This involves comparison and analysis of the already existing Data.

The other research methods include; Population, sample and area of study which Richard M. Grinnell Jr and Margret Williams (1990:118) defined population as the totality of persons or objects with which a study is concerned,

whereas Kenneth D. Bailey (1978:69) defined population as the sum of all units of analysis. Within the Population, sample and area of study, we find population and sample selection, sample methods which simple random sampling and purposive sampling. In this case the researcher considered the population of 419 members who participated in the 12th RITF at Gikondo expo, Kigali.

TERM DEFINITIONS

1.3 CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

1.3.1 Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is the practice of starting new organizations or revitalizing mature organizations, particularly new businesses generally in response to identified opportunities. Entrepreneurship is often a difficult undertaking, as a vast majority of new businesses fail.

Entrepreneurial activities are substantially different depending on the type of organization that is being started. Entrepreneurship ranges in scale from solo projects (even involving the entrepreneur only part-time) to major undertakings creating many job opportunities.

Many "high-profile" entrepreneurial ventures seek venture capital or angel funding in order to raise capital to build the business. Angel investors generally seek returns of 20-30% and more extensive involvement in the business.^[1]

Many kinds of organizations now exist to support would-be entrepreneurs, including specialized government agencies, business incubators, science parks, and some NGOs.

Entrepreneurship is one of the factors of production on which a country relies to satisfy its needs.

Whereas entrepreneurs are those individuals in societies who take the lead as well as the risk in mobilising the production factors like; capital, human resources, and natural resources, in specific combination to produce products and services to their community.

The profits entrepreneurs make is the remuneration for the risks they take and for their initiatives, while a loss can be regarded as a penalty for wasting resources. In this research, the researcher will not apply this method due to time lag.

Other people define entrepreneurship in various ways. Common to most definitions is the notion of **value creation through a new venture**. Various authors stress rapid growth, risk taking and innovation.

The following definitions are a sample of what is available:

- Bateman & Snell (1996:208) Entrepreneurship is the act of forming a new organization of value
- Stoner, Freeman & Gilbert: (1995: 160) states that entrepreneurship is the seemingly discontinuous process of combining resources to produce new goods and services

- According to Martin & Batol (1998:672), entrepreneurship refers to the creation of an innovative economic organization (or network of organizations) for the purpose of gain under conditions of risk and uncertainty.
- It is once more, the process of creating something new with value by devoting the necessary effort, assuming the accompanying financial, physical and social risks and receiving the resulting reward of monetary and personal satisfaction and independence.

In other words the term of entrepreneurship means the process of conceptualizing, organizing, launching and – through innovation, nurturing a business opportunity into a potentially high growth venture in a complex, unstable environment.

1.3.2 The Entrepreneur

Entrepreneurs have many of the same character traits as leaders. Similar to the early great man theories of leadership; however trait-based theories of entrepreneurship are increasingly being called into question. Entrepreneurs are often contrasted with managers and administrators who are said to be more methodical and less prone to risk-taking.

Such person-centric models of entrepreneurship have shown to be of questionable validity, not least as many real-life entrepreneurs operate in teams rather than as single individuals.

Still, a vast but now clearly dated literature studying the entrepreneurial personality found that certain traits seem to be associated with entrepreneurs:

- David McClelland (1961) described the entrepreneur as primarily motivated by an overwhelming need for achievement and strong urge to build.
- Collins and Moore (1970) studied 150 entrepreneurs and concluded that they are tough, pragmatic people driven by needs of independence and achievement. They seldom are willing to submit to authority.
- Bird (1992) sees entrepreneurs as mercurial, that is, prone to insights, brainstorming, deceptions, ingeniousness and resourcefulness. They are cunning, opportunistic, creative, and unsentimental.
- Cooper, Woo, & Dunkelberg (1988) argue that entrepreneurs exhibit extreme optimism in their decision-making processes. In a study of 2004 entrepreneurs they report that 81% indicate their personal odds of success as greater than 70% and a remarkable 33% seeing odds of success of 10 out of 10.
- Busenitz and Barney (1997) claim entrepreneurs are prone to overconfidence and over generalizations.

2.0 LITERARUE REVIEW

2.1 History of Entrepreneurship

The understanding of entrepreneurship owes much to the work of economist Joseph Schumpeter and the Austrian economists such as Ludwig von Mises and Friedrich von Hayek. In Schumpeter (1950), an entrepreneur is a person who is willing and able to convert a new idea or invention into a successful innovation. Entrepreneurship forces "creative destruction" across markets and industries, simultaneously creating new products and business models. In this way, creative destruction is largely responsible for the dynamism of industries and long-run economic growth.

Despite Schumpeter's early 20th-century contributions, the traditional microeconomic theory of economics has had little room for entrepreneurs in its theoretical frameworks (instead assuming that resources would find each other through a price system).

Conceptual and theoretic developments in entrepreneurship history. Adapted from Murphy, Liao, & Welsch (2006)

Some notable persons and their works in entrepreneurship history. For Frank H. Knight (1967) and Peter Drucker (1970) entrepreneurship is about taking risk. The behavior of the entrepreneur reflects a kind of person willing to put his or her career and financial security on the line and take risks in the name of an idea, spending much time as well as capital on an uncertain venture. Knight classified three types of uncertainty.

- Risk, which is measurable statistically (such as the probability of drawing a red colour ball from a jar containing 5 red balls and 5 white balls).
- Ambiguity, which is hard to measure statistically (such as the probability of drawing a red ball from a jar containing 5 red balls but with an unknown number of white balls).
- True Uncertainty or Knightian Uncertainty, which is impossible to estimate or predict statistically (such as the probability of drawing a red ball from a jar whose number of red balls is unknown as well as the number of other coloured balls).

The acts of entrepreneurship are often associated with true uncertainty, particularly when it involves bringing something really novel to the world, whose market never exists. Before Internet, nobody knew the market for Internet related businesses such as Amazon, Google, YouTube, Yahoo etc. Only after the Internet emerged did people begin to see opportunities and market in that technology.

However, even if a market already exists, let's say the market for cola drinks (which has been created by Coca Cola), there is no guarantee that a market exists for a particular new player in the cola category. The question is: whether a market exists and if it exists for you.

The place of the disharmony-creating and idiosyncratic entrepreneur in traditional economic theory (which describes many efficiency-based ratios assuming uniform outputs) presents theoretic quandaries.

William Baumol has added greatly to this area of economic theory and was recently honored for it at the 2006 annual meeting of the American Economic Association.

Entrepreneurship is widely regarded as an integral player in the business culture of American life, and particularly as an engine for job creation and economic growth. Robert Sobel published *The Entrepreneurs: Explorations Within the American Business Tradition* in 1974. Zoltan Acs and David B. Audrestch have produced an edited volume surveying Entrepreneurship as an academic field of research in the *Handbook of Entrepreneurship Research: An Interdisciplinary Survey and Introduction*.

2.2 THE OVERVIEW OF AN ENTERPRENEUR

Longenecker (2000:8-10) states that entrepreneurs are achievement oriented, like to take responsibility and have high energy levels, great continuation of trying and imagination. This combined with a willingness to take moderate calculated risks enable them to transform what often began as very simple, ill-defined idea, into something concrete.

Entrepreneurs bring enthusiasm into an organization and convey a sense of purpose and determination and by doing so, convince others that they are "where the action is".

The other characteristics include; Need for achievement, willingness to take risks, locus of control, passion for business, innovation, strategic orientation, commitment opportunity, control and deployment of resources, management structure and reward focus as further discussed below:

2.2.1 Need for achievement

Every entrepreneur has a greed for success in whatever he/she does.

Longenecker et al (2000:8) says that the need for achievement is a desire to succeed, where success is measured against a personal standard of excellence as:

- ◆ People with a high need for achievement have a desire to do well, not only for the sake of social recognition or prestige but also be personally responsible for feeling of personal accomplishment.
- ◆ Entrepreneurs prefer to be personally responsible for setting goals, and reaching these goals by their own effort.
- ◆ A person with a high need for achievement is characterized as follows:
 - ◆ takes responsibility for decisions
 - ◆ sets goals and support them with his/her efforts
 - ◆ Has a strong desire for regular feedback, this is drive to achieve and find among the ambitions individuals who start new firms.

Robbins (2001:162) stated that it was McClelland D. (1961), a Harvard psychologist, who began meaningful modern research on entrepreneurship traits or characteristics. McClelland D's work was not only a major contribution to the literature, but was also a pioneering effort in determining whether entrepreneurs tend to have a certain psychological mind-set. His research was based on the concept of "need for achievement".

2.2.2 Willingness to take risks

The second common characteristic of entrepreneurs is a risk taking propensity which is closely linked with the need for achievement. McClelland D. (1961) determined that individuals with a high need for achievement are moderate risk takers.

This means that prefer risky situations in which they exert some control over the outcome in contrast to gambling situations in the outcome depends on pure chance. Virtually all current definitions on an entrepreneur have a component that concerns taking risks. Moderate risk takers prefer risky situations in which they can get control over.

2.2.3 Locus of control

One fear that people (persons) have when starting their own enterprises is that they will not have the drive and energy to keep control over the developing enterprise and allow it to grow. Longenecker, J G, Moore, CW & Petty, JW (2000), stated that successful entrepreneurs do not take on something that they feel they will be unable to control.

The individuals who are self-confident and feel they can meet the challenges that come in their way. Therefore "Locus of control" means that an individual (person) perceives the outcome of an event as being either within or beyond his/her personal control and understanding.

2.2.4. Innovativeness

Schumpeter (1934) identified entrepreneurship as a process and described entrepreneurs as innovators who make new combinations in order to introduce new products, develop new methods of production, open up new markets and find new resources to create forms of business enterprises.

According to Peter Drucker in the (The practice of innovation, 1997), innovation is the specific tool of entrepreneurs, the means by which they exploit change as an opportunity for a different business or a different service. It is capable of being presented as a discipline, capable of being learned and capable of being practiced.

Entrepreneurs need to search purposefully for the source of innovation, the changes and their symptoms that indicate opportunities for successful innovation. And they need to know and apply successful innovation. Entrepreneurs are investors, who make new combinations in order to introduce new products, develop new methods of production, open up new markets, and find new resources to create new forms of business enterprises.

Harvard entrepreneurial expert Teresa Amabile (1996:36) says that for entrepreneurs to be successful, they should master creativity first. He defined creativity as "generating novel and useful ideas to solve any problem or take advantage of any opportunity.

Creative thinking is necessary not only to come up with novel or new ideas, but also to adapt old ones to take advantage of changes in your existing environment.

Ochse (1990:2) says that everyone has the potential to be creative even though the nature and extent of their creative drive may be different. The differences may be ascribed to differences in individual ability, interest, beliefs and circumstances.

Ochse (1990:186) talked about the numerous psychologists and scientists who have studied the creative process as having approached it as a case of "problem solving", while others have analyzed it by identifying a typical sequence of phases through which people pass when they solve problems. Ochse (1990:186) divides the process into five stages as indicated below;

Step 1: Problem identification (inspiration, new ideas) This is where the aspiring entrepreneur gets the ideas of solving such problems which leads him into becoming an entrepreneur.

Step 2: Preparation (conscious search for knowledge, experimenting)

Step 3: Incubation (unconscious assimilation of knowledge)

Step 4: Illumination (Realization that the idea is feasible)

Step5: Verification (Validation or test whether that idea has values through idea

Contributions).

2.2.5 The role of ideas in entrepreneurialism

Every business depends on an initial idea. By an idea, I mean a mental impression concept or plan, an intention, purpose or essential future.

It is not necessary the very first idea that develops into a business venture. Usually, the original idea is subjected to a series of tests and evaluations. During this process, the idea is adapted to become more active. Although some ideas may seem particularly promising, the question arises; is having a perfect or brilliant idea all it takes to be an entrepreneur?

Lauren Swason (1997:17), explains the job of business as conceive ideas, nurture or care for them to birth and help them grow. In other words a good idea is merely the foundation on which entrepreneurs build an enterprise. What they do with the idea will determine whether or not they eventually become entrepreneurs. One brilliant idea rarely results in a prospering new business in any time. Potential entrepreneurs usually pass through a series of trials - and- errors situations before they achieve success.

According to Longenecker, Moore & Petter (2000:18), ideas can pop up in a flash, as happened in the case of Tomima Edmark who suddenly had the idea to turn a ponytail inside out. Ideas can originate as a result of a chance encounter.

Longenecker et al (2000:5) states that William Williams got his ideas from observing his environment (no African - American food in store) while at Viasat incorporated. Longenecker (2000:3) also determined the need of clients such as the government and designed a communicator according to requirements. Often, the original idea develops into a different one that works better than the original idea.

In the process, the idea is subjected to various tests to establish its feasibility. However, ideas are hard to find. According to Small Business Development Corporation (1996:16), there is no shortage of ideas. In fact, the flow of ideas can be amazing. The Small Business Development Corporation received a total of 207,000 enquiries in 1996 and the majority of these were in connection with financing a new business.

Longenecker et al (2000:74-75) identified three basic types of ideas that can develop into new business ventures, namely;

A: Ideas that focus on providing customers with products or services that do not exist in

their markets but already exist in other markets.

B: Ideas that involve new or relating new technology.

C: Ideas that improve existing products and services and thus provide new benefits.

3.0 THE FINDINGS

3.1 THE 12TH RWANDAN INTERNATIONAL TRADE FAIR (RITF)

The 12th Rwandan international Trade fair (RITF) was hosted by the private sector federation (PSF) and the Ministry of Trade and Industry (MINICOM). This International Trade fair started from 30th July 2009 up to 10th August 2009 at Gikondo Expo ground, in Kigali. Various entrepreneurs participated in the trade fair.

The participants came from eleven countries which included; Rwanda, the host country, Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania and Burundi that form the East African Community, then Ghana, Egypt, India, Turkey and the United Arab emirates(UAE) Dubai.

There were 419 (Four Hundred and Nineteen) participants who designated two categories; the local entrepreneurs and the international entrepreneurs.

Table: 1 CATEGORY OF PARTICIPANTS

Category	Number of participants	Percentage (%)
Local (Rwanda)	300	71.6
International(from outside Rwanda)	119	28.4
Total	419	100

Source: *exporwanda.com (2009)*

According to the table above, it is indicated that the total number of participants were 419, out of which 300, were Rwandan entrepreneurs constituting 71.6% whereas 119 were international entrepreneurs making up 28.4% of the total participants.

3.2 BACKGROUND OF THE 12TH RITF ORGANISER PSF

According to the www.exporwanda.com, the Private Sector Federation (PSF), Rwanda was established in 1999 as a fusion between the then chamber of commerce and industry and the employers' organization. The two organizations were effectively replaced by the federation. Initially, PSF grouped together 14 B Associations that were sector specific.

The number grew to 23 Associations representing 17 specific business associations and 6 provincial business associations. In 2006, the leadership undertook a restructuring exercise for the purposes of injecting a greater level of efficiency within all its working sites. Currently, the federation groups together nine professional and promotional chambers, seven of sector specific and two of them cross-cutting.

The Rwandan Private sector Federation (PSF) is thus a professional organization, dedicated to promote and represent the interest of the Rwanda business community. It is the umbrella organization and voice of the private sector.

Table: 2, The nine chambers that form PSF

Serial no.	Name of Chamber
Chamber 1	Agriculture and livestock
Chamber 2	Industry
Chamber 3	Commerce and services
Chamber 4	Tourism
Chamber 5	Financial services
Chamber 6	Crafts, Artists and Artisans
Chamber 7	Liberal professions
Chamber 8	Women Entrepreneurs
Chamber 9	Young Entrepreneurs

Source: Secondary data 2009

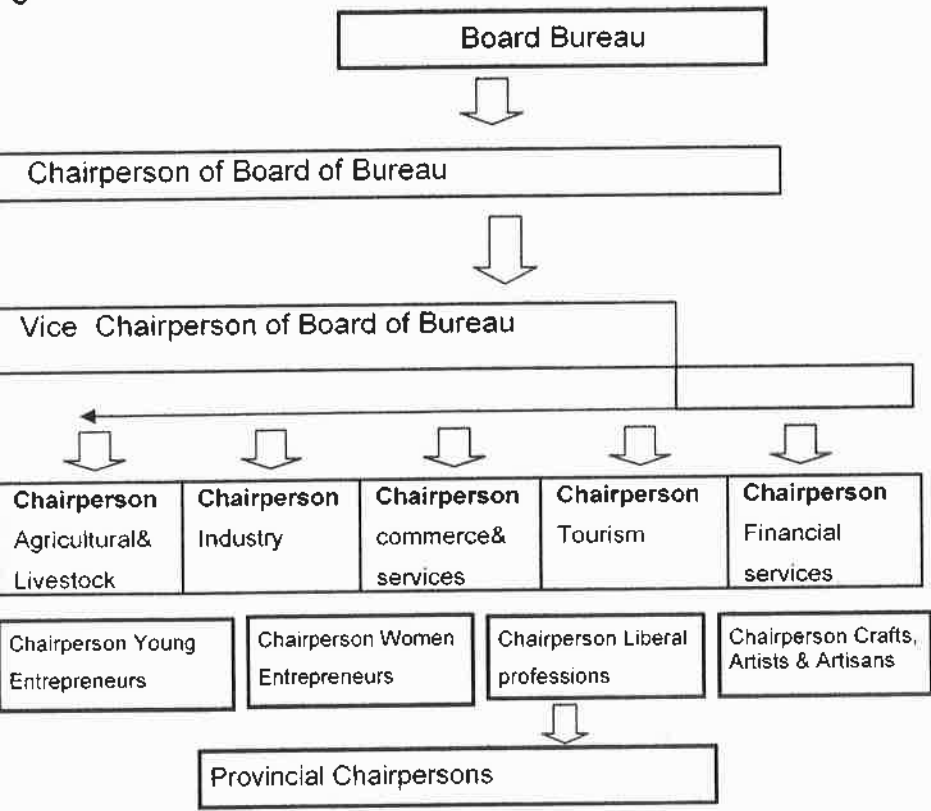
The above given chambers are sector specific in nature and bring together business associations within the sector for advocacy and business challenges assistance. The PSF is a key role player in enabling the private sector to respond to Rwanda's vision for her future.

As the country's flagship business institution, private enterprises look to PSF to address or facilitate solutions to business constraints that they face and represent their interests in dialogue with the Government.

The PSF has made tremendous progress in restructuring itself and fostering private sector Development in Rwanda. Nonetheless, the road forward is arduous as significant business changes persist.

SF organization structure is enriched with a spectrum of dedicated members of the board, senior and support staff at different levels, majority of whom are either directly or indirectly engaged in business. The highest decision-making organ is the General Assembly which sits annually to review progress, approves the annual report and accounts as well as action plan and budget for the following year. The General Assembly mandates the Board of Directors to oversee the operations of the organization. The Board is composed of 16 members.

Figure 1: THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS



Source: Secondary data 2009

- ◆ Three members of Board Bureau composed of the Board Chairperson and Two Vice Chairpersons.
- ◆ Nine members being chairpersons of the Nine sector specific chambers constituting PSF.
- ◆ Four members representing the Federation geographically as PSF provincial chairpersons.

The day-to-day operations of the federation are run by the permanent secretariat, headed by the Secretary General, assisted by the deputy Secretary General and a team of Directors, then managers and professional staff. The Secretary General is an ex-official member of the Board of Directors.

It is because of the mission of PSF which is to represent the private sector while providing innovativeness services to member enterprises towards sustainable private sector led development that entices the Federation to organize the International trade fair in the country.

3.2.1 How to Enter the Exhibition

In order to participate in the Rwanda International trade fair, the entrepreneurs had to complete the booking forms. The forms are of two types:

Form 1: BOOKING FORM FOR FOREIGN AND LOCAL COMPANIES

Source: Secondary data 2009

Company details

Name of Company.....

Address.....

Products to be Exhibited.....

Name of contact person.....

Position..... Tel..... Fax..... E-mail:

..... Date:.....

(An authorized officer of the participating company should sign this form.)

Booking details

We are hereby book.....M2 of stand
space.....

Minimum expo space with built stand inside main hall 1&2 is 9 sq
Square meter for USD 1350

Open space at prime area - USD 100 per sq meter

Open space other area-USD 75 per sq meter. (Please indicate space
required 9, 18, and 27)

This includes two chairs, one table, two spotlights, and one 14 amp
socket outlet and company name on fascia (a maximum of 23
characters).

Stand is under the tent. Pay by a certified cheque, cash transfer to Rwanda Private Sector Federation; Account No. 0027934-15-97 USD/BCR; Swift: BCRWRWRW

(Space will be allocated after submission of proof of full payment)

Deadline for registration: 30/06/2009

All prices include a company listing in the exhibition catalogue, daily cleaning services, 24 hour security and two exhibition passes per stand of 9m²

Request for registration badges

We hereby request..... Badges (cost per badge =3000frw payable on PSF EXPO Account)

3.2.2. 2009 RITF rules and regulations

1) In these rules and regulations, the term exhibitor means the signatory of these rules and regulations and includes all employees, workers or agents of the exhibiting company. In case of a joint venture howsoever described, the exhibitor is deemed to have obtained the consent of all individual participants to all the rules and regulations.

2) Applications for space must contain details of the proposed exhibits and the names of any other company represented by the exhibitor.

3) When payments for the space are not made when due, any previous deposit may be forfeited and the space re-located by the organizers.

4) Exhibitors shall complete the setting up of their stand by 29th July 2009; otherwise the stand will be closed until the official opening of the ceremony is over.

5) The organizers will not in any way be liable for any loss or damage to the exhibitor suffered by or arising out of any default of any servant, agent, employee or subcontractor of the exhibitor.

6) The exhibitor shall not without the written consent of the organizer display, exhibit or bring to the exhibition hall any explosives or dangerous material or any such thing which may cause noxious fumes or make use of or display any other materials which may involve danger to the health of any person. The exhibitor shall indemnify the organizers against any loss or damage arising out of the breach of this clause.

7) All stands requiring electricity supply from the venue must submit their precise power requirements to the organizers before July 10th 2009. Please fill the electrical requirement form.

8) Exhibitors may not display, attach or distribute material of any kind whatsoever inside the Gikondo Expo Grounds, except at their own designated stand areas. Any material touted elsewhere may be confiscated, and other appropriate penalties applied. Please take note that the car parks are included in the Gikondo grounds.

- 9) The organizers will provide firefighting equipment and personnel related to common areas of the venue. Exhibitors are allowed to make provision for their own stands if needed.
- 10) The organizers will provide sanitary services throughout and general cleaning services in the morning on each day of the show.
- 11) The organizers will provide 25 hours security of the show grounds from the start of the build up to the completion of the breakdown. A senior security officer, armed police and perimeter guards will be assigned. Special permission will be given on request to exhibitors who need to station extra security personnel to guard their own specific stands. Please note that additional guards must come from registered security companies in Rwanda.
- 12) Exhibitors may sale goods at the fair but this will be subjected to Rwanda Customs Regulations.
- 13) The exhibitors are required to open at 8:00am and remain open during the official hours of the show up to 10:00pm each day. Inform the organizers if you cannot continue exhibiting as soon as possible.
- 14) A list of exhibits from foreign exhibitors shall be prepared and shown to the Customs office at the point of entry.
- 15) Each exhibitor is entitled to two (2) exhibitors' cards free of charge per stand of 9m². These cards are nominal strictly personal and are not interchangeable. Additional cards are requested by the exhibitors are provided by the provided by the RITF management, as its own discretion at a price determined by the organizer.

16) No exhibitor will be permitted to sublet the whole or any portion of the stand plot neither allocated to her / him nor permits the space to be utilized by anyone else without having first obtained permission from the organizer.

17) Temporary stands and exhibits must be removed not later than 2 days after the close of the fair, thereafter participants will be required to pay a penal rent.

18) Gangways; passages, open spaces or pathways must be left clear. Failure to observe this regulation may result into disciplinary action to be determined by the organizers.

19) Exhibitors must make full payment on booking the stand/ space. The registration form accompanied by the payment must be signed by an authorized officer of the company and be duly stamped with the company stamp or seal.

20) For the purpose of all or any proceedings related to hereto or arising from these rules and regulations, the exhibitor consents to the jurisdiction of the Rwandan courts.

3.2.2.1 The Participants Reasons For Joining Business

In proving the hypothesis of this paper, the researcher found out that people join business because of unemployment, job opportunities, forces of change, innovation, technology, international competition and economic growth.

In addition to that, the Rwanda investment Export and import Agency (RIEPA) identified the reasons for entrepreneurs to invest in Rwanda as;

1. Rwanda is a country whose time and opportunity has come.

2. Strong political leadership committed to private sector growth and development.
3. Macroeconomic stability manifest in high GDP growth at 9.9% (2000) and low inflation rate of 3.2%(2002).
4. Stable currency operating in a free exchange rate regime.
5. Access to huge, lucrative markets (COMESA, EU and USA).
6. Excellent and fertile soils.
7. Strong privatization programs (Tea, ICT and Tourism).
8. Modern communication infrastructure.
9. Predictable business environment.
10. Attractive fiscal and non fiscal incentives.
11. Strategic location at the heart of Africa.
12. Abundance of low-cost-skilled and non-skilled labor.
13. Outstanding nature, beauty and wildlife.
14. Excellent quality of life.

Once the entrepreneurs open various businesses, the

3.2.2.2 Contributions of Entrepreneurs to the population.

Develop new markets. Under the modern concept of marketing, markets are people who are willing and able to satisfy their needs. In Economics, this is called effective demand. Entrepreneurs are resourceful and creative.

They can create customers or buyers. This makes entrepreneurs different from ordinary businessmen who only perform traditional functions of management like planning, organization, and coordination.

Discover new sources of materials. Entrepreneurs are never satisfied with traditional or existing sources of materials. Due to their innovative nature, they persist on discovering new sources of materials to improve their enterprises from the neighbouring countries and overseas. In business, those who can develop new sources of materials enjoy a comparative advantage in terms of supply, cost and quality.

Mobilize capital resources. Entrepreneurs are the organizers and coordinators of the major factors of production, such as land labour and capital. They properly mix these factors of production to create goods and service. Capital resources, from a layman's view, refer to money. However, in economics, capital resources represent machines, buildings, and other physical productive resources.

In this case, many buildings are being built by the entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs have initiative and self-confidence in accumulating and mobilizing capital resources for new business or business expansion.

Introduce new technologies, new industries and new products in Rwanda. A part from being innovators and reasonable risk-takers, entrepreneurs take advantage of business opportunities, and transform these into profits.

So, they introduce something new or something different. Such entrepreneurial spirit has greatly contributed to the modernization of Kigali.

Every year, soon after the 1994 Genocide, there are new technologies and new products introduced into Kigali city by the entrepreneurs. All of these are intended to satisfy human needs in more convenient and pleasant way.

Create employment. The biggest employer is the private business sector. Millions of jobs are provided by the factories, service industries, agricultural enterprises, Universities, Schools, modern super markets like Star, Chinise, KBC and Simba super markets plus the various Banking institutions, and the numerous small-scale businesses in Kigali.

Likewise giant corporations like Cogear, SORAS, SONARWA, etc, employ thousands of workers. More jobs mean more incomes. This increases demand for goods and services. This stimulates production. Again, more production requires more employment.

Conclusion

The participants were happy about the EXPO EXHIBITION and the organizers were successful in enticing the local and international entrepreneurs to participate in the EXPO.

Entrepreneurs enjoyed the expo, and the clients and customers benefited from cheap suppliers.

In this the entrepreneurs got a chance of opening their business oriented minds by gaining experience from other already existing and strongly based entrepreneurs.

By practically learning business tactics, for instance, customer care, business awareness, price and quality control of their goods plus continuous and relevant stock control and maintenance, and many others.

Suggestions

The expo-ground appeared small due to a large number of business people who turned up; the writer therefore suggests that the organizers should think about a wider ground or space in the near future.

Local and international entrepreneurs should put in more effort to invest in or to start business in Rwanda because of the reasons which RIEPA identified in point 3.2.2.1 in the third part of this work.

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MANAGING EMOTIONS IN THE WORKPLACE: THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

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ABSTRACT

Emotions are central to human and organisational life. They have significant impact on inter - personal relationships, customer service, productivity, profitability and organisational sustainability. As organisations respond to mounting global competitive pressures individual employees are directly affected. Changes leading to downsizing, mergers and acquisitions, for instance trigger emotional responses from employees.

Negative emotions are usually dysfunctional. They affect employees' behaviour and attitude. In the prevailing unpredictable and volatile operating environment, organisations cannot afford to disregard the potential negative impact of dysfunctional emotional responses on individual productivity and the overall organisational performance. Organisations, therefore, need to develop effective emotions management strategies to deal with this challenge. This paper explores the concept of workplace emotions, their possible impact and management. Specifically, it examines the relevance of emotional intelligence as workplace emotions management strategy. It offers insight into how organizations could support their employees in developing the skill of emotional intelligence.

INTRODUCTION

"Emotions are part of organizational life, so we need to have a basic understanding of them and measure their effects in order to manage them better" (Callahan & McCollum, 2001). Emotional disequilibrium, whether on a short or long term, stifles individual creativity and hampers the generation of innovative ideas which are much needed by contemporary enterprises. Individual learning, knowledge productivity, creation and sharing are subject to prevailing emotional condition.

In addition, emotions affect leadership and team effectiveness, customer service, performance, inter-personal relationship, conflict resolution and change process.

It is, therefore, essential for organisations to develop strategies through which emotions in the workplace can be effectively managed to guarantee employee well-being and organisational success.

The Integrative theory of emotional responses suggests that emotions form the operating system for all human-environment interactions. Emotions are important part of every individual. As the organisations of the 21st century continue to responding to both internal and external stimulus of change, various strategies such as merger, acquisitions, downsizing and outsourcing are being adopted.

1.1 Methodology

A literature review methodology was employed which involved a search of terms such 'Emotions', 'Emotions Management', 'Workplace Emotions', 'Intelligence', 'Emotional Intelligence (EI)' and Emotional Quotient (EQ). Access to relevant online empirical and research based articles was conducted through Google Scholar (<http://scholar.google.com/schhp?hl=en&tab=ws>).

The International Network for the Availability of Scientific Publications and the Programme for the Enhancement of Research Information (INASP/PERI) provided access to free and open access online journals and databases.

Current journal articles, conference proceedings, technical manuals, books and books' chapters by notable authors on emotions and emotional intelligence in the workplace did provide a good insight into the theoretical and conceptual issues relating to the subject of workplace emotions and emotional intelligence.

In addition, the author accessed articles from a notable website dedicated to research on emotions and emotional intelligence in the workplace i.e. The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations (<http://www.eiconsortium.org/index.html>).

2.0 EMOTIONS

Emotion has been defined to cover areas such as basic emotions (joy, love and anger), social emotions (shame, guilt and jealousy), and related constructs like mood, sentiment, and affect (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). It is a feeling state (including physiological responses and cognitions) that conveys information about relationships.

Emotions are intense feelings that are directed towards someone or something, and are considered to be critical factors in employee behaviour (Robbins, 2005).

According to Bagozzi, *et al.* (1999) emotion is a mental state of readiness that arises from cognitive appraisal of events or thoughts; has a phenomenological tone; is accompanied by physiological processes; often expressed physically (e.g., in gestures, posture, facial features); and may result in specific actions to affirm or cope with the emotion, depending on its nature and meaning for the person having it.

It refers to feelings experienced toward an object, person, or event that create a state of readiness. Thus, emotion plays a very crucial role in all interpersonal relationships especially within organisations where success and sustainability depend much on inter-relationships.

Caruso (2004) states that emotion occurs due to a change in the environment; occurs automatically; comes on quickly; involves changes in physiology; can vary in intensity; creates changes in attention and thought; motivates certain behaviour; has a subjective experience (feeling); dissipates rapidly; and serves an adaptive function. Emphasizing the role of emotions in human behaviour Caruso further stressed that:

"Emotions direct our attention and motivate us to engage in certain behaviours. These emotional signals heighten awareness in general, redirect our attention from whatever it is you were doing to an important event, and get you ready to act in some way. The most important aspect of emotions is to give us critical data about our interpersonal world."

One of the most effective strategies for driving change initiatives is the use of training which enables employees to acquire new knowledge, skills and abilities. However, workplace training and learning are influenced by emotions. Since employees' feelings are involved in the learning process (Knowles, Holton, and Swanson, 1998), "emotions are integral to learning" (Short, 2001).

2.1 Emotions Management

Bellamy and Bellamy (2003) describe Emotions Management as the "ability to regulate emotions and behaviours according to their situational appropriateness.

They added that "this requires cognitive reflection on the way in which an emotional behaviour will affect and be affected within a specific situation". Organizational life is increasingly becoming complex.

Operating business environment is fast becoming volatile and unpredictable. The global economic landscape is witnessing an unprecedented turbulence, instability and discontinuity. This has generated an increase in the factors that cause stress for managers.

They have to grapple with the changing role, interpersonal relationships, changing organizational structure, climate and culture. Understandably, change generates different kinds of emotions. This needs to be understood and channelled in the right direction in order to enable employees cope and succeed at the workplace. (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995).

Employees' emotions are regarded as a significant aspect of organizational life and are a critical component of an employee's ability to succeed in his or her career (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Bar-On, 1997; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Cooper, 1996).

Opengart (2005) states that emotions in the workplace cannot be ignored, and they cannot be treated as independent and unrelated phenomenon. They must be acknowledged as existing, often as job requirements, particularly in service positions.

he ability to manage emotions is a distinctive characteristic of highly influential and effective managers and leaders in every sphere of life, such as, business, social, political and organisational lives. Insensitivity to the feelings of other people is seen as a flaw in leadership.

Today a lot of research has been carried out regarding strategies of effective emotions management. Prominent among these is the ground-breaking work of researchers on emotional intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence has been identified by researchers and practitioners as the panacea for combating the crisis of emotions in the workplace as well as in other areas of life where human interactions occur.

2.2 Emotional Intelligence

The concept of Emotional Intelligence was first suggested by Darwin (1872) when he emphasized the need for emotional expression for survival and adaptation. Subsequently, the concept has attracted a lot of attention from intelligence researchers who described it in different ways (see Table 1).

It gained popularity among researchers and practitioners with Goleman's book "Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than EQ" published in 1995.

Table 1: Evolution of the Concept of Emotional Intelligence

Author	Concepts, Terms & Descriptions
Darwin (1872)	Social Intelligence—the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation.
Thorndike (1920)	Social intelligence—the ability to understand, manage and act wisely in human relationships.
Dewey, J (1925)	Imagination—marriage of emotion and intelligence leads to progressive institutions... learning and growth in general.
Weschler (1940)	Non intellectual elements— affective, personal and social factors are essential for predicting one's ability to succeed in life.
McClelland (1973, 1975)	Work on motivation noted that traditional testing methods were poor at predicting success, in part due to cultural bias. Found competencies differentiating outstanding and average performers related to self awareness and social awareness (focus on others).
Gardner (19863)	Multi-intelligences or fames for mind include interpersonal intelligence.
Mayer and Salovey (1990)	The ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions.
Bar-On (2000)	Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI)—a measurement based approached which defines an array of non cognitive capabilities competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environment demands and pressures; featuring a strong intra-personal and interpersonal focus; and non intellectual test per se.
Klemp (2005)	Emotional intelligence reflects the ability to make decisions and take actions that balance organizational performance with concern for others; the key to this balance is regulation.
EQI.Org	Emotional intelligence is the innate potential to feel, use, communicate, recognize, remember, describe, identify, learn from, manage, understand and explain emotions.

2.3 Definitions of Emotional Intelligence

According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), emotional intelligence refers to "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." Goleman (1995, 1998) later applied this concept to the workplace by relating it to career success and leadership effectiveness.

He defined emotional intelligence as "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" (Goleman, 1995). Table 2 is a list of other definitions of the concept of Emotional Intelligence.

Table 2: Definitions of Emotional Intelligence

Author(s)	Definition
Mayer and Salovey (1993)	"the ability to monitor one's own and others' feeling and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and action."
Mayer and Salovey (1997)	"the ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions, and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth."
Weisinger (1998)	"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."
Schmidt (1997)	"the ability to recognize and respond to the emotions and feelings of others, as well as the skill to help others manage their emotions."
Bar-On (1988)	"the ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions, and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth."
Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (2000)	The ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others.
Freshman and Rubino (2002)	"proficiency in intrapersonal and interpersonal skills in the areas of self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, social awareness and social skills."

Source : Compiled by Author

The ability model of emotional intelligence defines it as the ability to reason with and about emotions, combining feelings with thinking and thinking with feeling. Following this model, emotional intelligence consists of four related, but different, abilities (Table 3).

Table 3: Four Related Abilities of Emotional Intelligence

1. Ability to Identify Emotions	Emotions contain information, or data. The ability to identify emotions allows you accurately to recognise how you and those around you are feeling.
2. Ability to Use Emotions	This is the ability to generate emotions, and to use them in cognitive tasks such as problem-solving and in creativity.
3. Ability to Understand Emotions	This includes the ability to understand complex emotions and emotional 'chains' – how emotions transition from one stage to another.
4. Ability to Manage Emotions	This is the ability that allows you intelligently to integrate the data of emotions in yourself and in others in order to devise effective strategies that help you achieve positive outcomes.

Source: Caruso, D.R. (2004). An intelligent way to assess emotional intelligence. In the 2004 Proceedings of the International Test Users' Conference.

All the above definitions agree that the emotionally intelligent individual is not only aware of his and other's emotions, but he has, as well, developed the ability to effectively manage it. It is concerned much with "knowing when and how to express emotion as it does with controlling it" (Cherniss, 2000, p. 7).

Emotions permeate individual and group behavior, and as such, emotional intelligence certainly has impact on and determines to a large extent the formation of successful interpersonal relationships. In fact group cohesion depends largely on the ability of group members to study, understand and take into consideration others' emotional state.

Emotional intelligence, therefore, is a determinant factor when considering individual career success, group effectiveness or organizational performance. Managers' and leaders' influence and performance can, as well, be enhanced through the display of emotional intelligence.

2.4 Components of Emotional Intelligence

According to Goleman (1995), emotional intelligence skill is associated with personal management or interpersonal relationship skills. He further stated that emotional intelligence skill includes abilities that may be categorized into five domains (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) as shown in the table below:

Table 4: Components of Emotional Intelligence and their Hallmarks

	Definition	Hallmarks
1. Self Awareness	The ability to recognize and understand your moods, emotions and drives, as well as their effect on others	Self-confidence Realistic self-assessment Self-deprecating sense of humour
2. Self Regulation	The ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods The propensity to suspend judgement – to think before acting	Trustworthiness and integrity Comfort with ambiguity Openness to change
3. Motivation	A passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status A propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence	Strong drive to achieve Optimism, even in the face of failure Organizational commitment

4. Empathy	<p>The ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people</p> <p>Skill in treating people according to their emotional reactions</p>	<p>Expertise in building and retaining talent</p> <p>Cross-cultural sensitivity</p> <p>Service to clients and customers</p>
5. Social Skill	<p>Proficiency in managing relationships and building networks</p> <p>An ability to find common ground and build rapport</p>	<p>Effectiveness in leading change</p> <p>Persuasiveness</p> <p>Expertise in building and leading teams</p>

Source Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality*, Vol. 9, 185-211.

3.0 WORKPLACE RELEVANCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Goleman (1995:160) rightly predicted that "Emotional Intelligence, the skills that help people harmonize, should become increasingly valued as a workplace asset in the years to come".

He noted that in a collaborative work, people work together with a group IQ, which is, 'the sum total of the talents and skills of all those involved' (Goleman, 1996:160) and further added: 'The single most important element in group intelligence...is not the group IQ in the academic sense, but rather in terms of emotional intelligence.' In support of the idea that emotional intelligence is already increasingly becoming important in the workplace, Fatt (2002) advanced three reasons for this development. These are:

1. Research has shown that for star performance in every field, emotional intelligence is twice as important as cognitive abilities. For success at high levels, close to 90% of success is attributable to emotional intelligence (Chen, *et al.*, 1998).
2. Companies and individuals are becoming more interested in their search for competitive advantage and recognise the need to balance rational and emotional aspects of strategy.
3. A major drive of interest has been the failure of IQ alone to account sufficiently for differences in success levels in individuals, both in educational and organisational contexts.

Buckingham and Coffman (1999) examine many years of research by the Gallup Organisation. They conclude that employees are still more interested in the quality of relationships at work, especially with their leaders.

Second to the pay packet itself, the primary needs being met are emotional. It is important for employees to find approval and self-esteem at work, as it is to see a pay and career path developing (Psaila and Birch, undated). Cherniss (2000) identified the workplace as a logical setting for evaluating and improving emotional intelligences giving four main reasons:

1. Emotional intelligence competencies are critical for success in most jobs;
2. Many adults enter the workforce without the competencies necessary to succeed or excel at their job;
3. Employers already have the established means and motivation for providing emotional intelligence training; and
4. Most adults spend the majority of their waking hours at work.

The 1983 strike by the American Airline attendants (80% women) during the Thanksgiving holiday season illustrates this phenomenon. These workers perceived themselves as subjects of disrespect. Their perceptions: "They treat us like we're disposables, a number." ... "My self-respect is more important than my job." ... "They treated us like we were back in kindergarten" (Kilborn, 1993, pp. A1,9).

In the workplace, workers do experience a wide range of positive and negative emotions.

People at work can feel happy, sad, depressed, excited, enthusiastic, lustful, vengeful, resentful, bored, playful, worried, anxious, hurt, hopeful, furious, isolated, frightened, satisfied, exhilarated, proud, angry, frustrated and anxious.

The human brain has been programmed to respond when emotions are experienced. For instance, an emotional response is triggered as the brain responds to the threats of anger, frustration and anxiety.

However, acting on that first impulse usually leads to regrets over one's expression or action. With Emotional Intelligence, the emotion is acknowledged but restraint is exercised and rational thought is allowed to prevail. This eventually leads to good judgement and right decision.

An example from Barsade and Gibson (2007) illustrates how a sales manager can demonstrate the virtue of Emotional Intelligence in the workplace.

"Let's say that a sales manager has come up with an amazing idea that will increase corporate revenue by up to 200%, but knows that his boss tends to be irritable and short-tempered in the morning. Having emotional intelligence means that this manager will first recognize and consider this emotional fact about his boss, and despite the stunning nature of his idea—and his own excitement—he will regulate his own emotions, curb his enthusiasm, and wait until the afternoon to approach his boss."

Dileep (2006) links a worker's effective use of skill and knowledge in time to the effective regulation of emotions at work and his readiness to contribute his best in his team's target achievement. According to him, "knowing one's emotions and feelings as they occur, and tuning one's self to the charged situation, requires the emotional competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity that determine the success of adaptability and adjustment with the change scenario. A work situation involves individuals with different ideas, suggestions, and opinions. An effective conglomeration of all these would determine the best outcome. In such cases, emotional intelligence plays a very significant role.

With Emotional Intelligence, an individual has the ability or capacity to understand the remote causes of negative emotions and to use this understanding in effectively dousing the tensions that arise from them. He puts the best constructions possible on other's actions and assists to diffuse tension, calm frayed nerves while, at the same time, working towards achieving set goals.

Goleman (1995) has noted that people with higher emotional intelligence tend to "have a notable capacity for commitment to people or causes, for taking responsibility, and for having an ethical outlook; they are sympathetic and caring in their relationships" (p. 45). Emotions are said to be related to organizational learning. For instance, informal learning is shaped by employee emotions, which may react differently to individual circumstances.

Emotions are integral to learning as the whole person is involved in the learning process, including one's own feelings (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 1998).

Emotions influence employee attitudes toward learning needs, support learning and behavior change in general (Short & Yorks, 2002). It is often connected to change and can be used as a property of change that can be celebrated or manipulated, or, in helping people adapt to change through formal or informal processes (Callahan & McCollum, 2002). In view of the significance of emotions in the workplace, it is essential to develop effective strategy that guarantees effective management.

Over the years, emotional intelligence has been identified as one desirable quality needed by every organizational member because of its perceived advantage of helping individuals in adapting during change process, reducing inter-personal conflict, fostering cordiality and peaceful co-existence which are needed for cohesion among organizational, team or group members. Cooper and Sawaf (1996) argue that it influences creativity, communication, teamwork, and customer loyalty.

3.1 Emotional Intelligence, Cognitive Intelligence and Career Success

Emotional intelligence, rather than traditional Intelligence Quotient (IQ), make more contributions to success in life (Bar-On, 1997; Cooper, 1996; Cherniss, 2000, 2001; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Lusch & Serpkenci, 1990; Weisinger, 1986). Confirming this, a study was carried out at Berkeley in the United States. In this study, eighty PhDs (as graduate students) in science underwent a battery of personality tests, IQ tests, and interview in the 1950s.

In their seventies, forty years later, they were tracked down and estimates were made of their success based on resumes, evaluations by experts in their own fields, and sources like *American Men and Women of Science*.

It turned out that social and emotional abilities were four times more important than IQ in determining professional success and prestige (Feist & Barron, 1996). This attests to the general belief that Emotional Intelligence is a critical element in career success.

According to Goleman (1995), people with higher emotional intelligence tend to "have a notable capacity for commitment to people or causes, for taking responsibility, and for having an ethical outlook; they are sympathetic and caring in their relationships" (p. 45).

Still corroborating the fact that Emotional Intelligence is the major determinant factor in career success, Cooper (1997) identifies three driving forces of competitive advantage: building trusting relationships, increasing energy and effectiveness, and creating the future. He contends that emotional intelligence, not IQ, dictates who will have the most satisfying and successful lives.

Empirical evidence has shown that employees' emotions are not only a significant aspect of organizational life, but are, as well, a critical component of an employee's ability to succeed in his/her career (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Bar-On, 1997; Cherniss and Goleman, 2001).

The emotionally intelligent worker, i.e., those workers who are best able to deal with their own and their co-workers' feelings stand a better chance of career success. Employees with interpersonal skills are increasingly needed in modern organizations. Researchers such as Bar-On (1997), Goleman (1998) and Chermis (2000) maintain that aspects of emotional intelligence, rather than traditional IQ, make the biggest difference for success in life. Goleman (1996) suggests that when people come together to collaborate they work together with a group IQ, i.e. 'the sum total of the talents and skills of all those involved'. He claims, however, that 'The single most important element in group intelligence...is not the group IQ in the academic sense, but rather in terms of emotional intelligence' (p. 160). Evans (2001) agrees that intelligent action results from a helpful mix of both reason and emotion.

Specifically, organisational application of Emotional Intelligence includes (but not limited to) areas such as: leadership and team effectiveness, customer service, performance enhancement, communication skills, relationship management, conflict resolution and change management. It is, therefore, clear that acquiring, developing and utilising the skill of Emotional Intelligence is indispensable if personal and organisational success is to be achieved.

3.2 Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness

In leadership the skill of emotional intelligence is indispensable. While we need to recognize the importance of technical and functional expertise as indispensable skills for leadership effectiveness, it is essential to underscore the need for leaders to study,

understand and manage personal and others' emotional state as well as possible outcomes. Emotional Intelligence skill overwhelmingly distinguish outstanding leaders from average performers. Emotional Intelligence becomes more important the higher the level leadership in the organisation. In a study by Chen, et al. (1998), close to 90 percent of the success in leadership of star performers was attributable to Emotional Intelligence.

Creating and maintaining sustainable competitive advantage in the continuous environment of turmoil, discontinuity and change requires that organizations have employees and leaders who are adaptive, work effectively, constantly improve systems and processes, are customer focused, and who share the need to make a profit. Effective leadership is a key element in driving and managing the "permanent white waters" of the 21st century (Vaill, 1996) and no leader can champion change successfully if emotional intelligence is lacking. "Great leaders move us. They ignite our passion and inspire the best in us. When we try to explain why they are so effective, we speak of strategy, vision, or powerful ideas. But the reality is much more primal: Great leadership works through the emotions" (Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee, 2002, p. 3).

Such leaders use Emotional Intelligence for a variety of purposes such as: building trust, facing up to feedback, adaptation, developing influence, and developing others through mentoring and coaching (Forster and Mach, 2007). The need for Emotional Intelligence, therefore, becomes more evident at the higher level of leadership within the organisation.

The ability of leaders to use emotions to guide decision-making enables them to motivate subordinates, and encourage open-minded idea generation, decision-making and planning, because consideration of multiple points of view is possible.

Researches that focus on the relationship between emotional intelligence abilities have reported a positive relationship. For instance, evidence suggests that emotionally intelligent leadership results in improved business performance (Goleman *et al.*, 2001). A study (McClelland, 1998) on division heads of a global food and beverage company found that the divisions of the leaders with strengths in emotional intelligence competencies outperformed yearly revenue targets by a margin of 15 to 20 percent. Another study of outstanding leaders in health care by the Catholic Health Association in 1994 found that more effective leaders were more adept at integrating key competencies (Goleman, 2001).

According to findings by Megerian and Sosic (1999), managers with self awareness (component of emotional intelligence) are rated as more effective by both superiors and subordinates than those managers without self awareness.

3.3 Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Effectiveness

Emotional intelligence will cause varying degrees of success in organisations. As the global trend continues to swing towards market saturation of service industries, excellent customer service will be a major critical success factor.

For service industries to cope with increasing competitive pressures and customers' changing needs as well as demand for excellent service, the development of employees' emotional intelligence has to be given top priority.

According to Cherniss (2001), emotional intelligence plays a role in any factor that influences organizational effectiveness. He further states that a number of areas of organizational effectiveness which emotional intelligence influences.

These are: employee recruitment and retention, development of talent, team work, employee commitment, morale and health, innovation, productivity, efficiency, sales, revenues, quality of service, customer loyalty and client or student outcomes. In view of this, it is evident that emotional intelligence influences individual, group and overall organizational effectiveness and performance.

4.0 DEVELOPING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

“Developing emotional intelligence in the workplace means acknowledging that emotions are always present, and doing something intelligent with them” (Rothman, 2002). The indispensability of emotions management skills is the major reason for organizations to consider, as a matter of high priority, the development every category of staff in emotional intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence skill is related to personal management or interpersonal relationship skills. Forster and Mach (2007) suggest that this skill can be developed through a systematic and consistent approach to building competence in personal and social skills. Anyone who displays a high aptitude in these skills is emotionally intelligent. Shown in table 4 below is a basic hierarchical model of how emotional intelligence can be developed.

The model depicts the stages or phases of emotional intelligence as well as the indications that a person has the corresponding level of emotional intelligence characteristics linked to each stage or phase of development.

Each phase requires the use of all the skills that have previously been outlined (in table 3). According to the table below, perceiving emotion is the basic phase while managing emotion is the most developed phase.

Table 5: Phases of Emotional Intelligence Development and Corresponding Characteristics

Phase	Description	Outcome
Phase 4 Managing Emotion	Ability to manage emotions and emotional relationships for personal and interpersonal growth	The person manages and uses emotions and emotional relationships as part of personal growth and personality

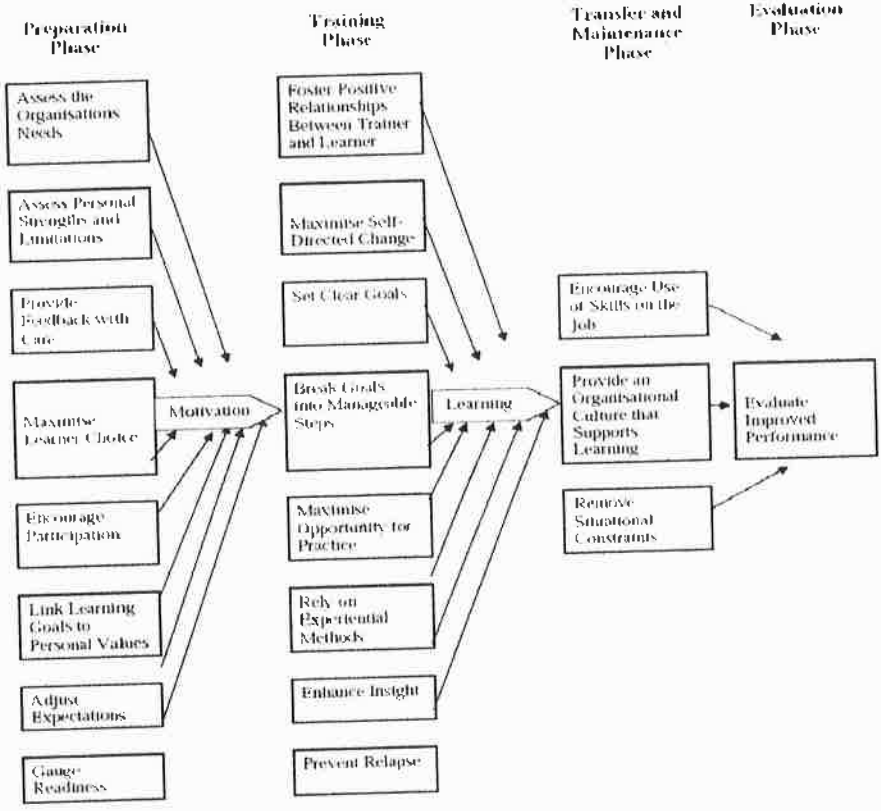
Phase 3 Understanding Emotion	Ability to comprehend emotional information about relationships, transitions from one emotion to another, linguistic information	The person can control and understand and link abstract processing and reasoning about emotions and emotional information
Phase 2 Facilitating thought with Emotion	Ability to harness emotional information and directionality to enhance thinking.	The person takes into consideration and adjusts their thinking based on emotional information.

Phase 1 Perceiving Emotion	Ability to identify emotions in faces, pictures.	The person can input emotional signals into their conscious thoughts
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Adapted from: Mayer, et al. (2001)

The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations (1998) has developed the Optimal Emotional Intelligence Development Process. In this development process, there are four phases of Emotional Intelligence development, viz: preparation, training, transfer and maintenance, and evaluation (see figure 1).

Figure 1: Developing Emotional Intelligence in Organisations: The Optimal Process



Source: Stys Y. And Brown, S.L. (2004)

According to the optimal process of Emotional Intelligence development (Figure 1), the training process in Emotional Intelligence development is divided into four phases. Phase one is the preparation stage. This phase is crucial for effective and emotional learning and occurs at both the organizational and individual levels.

Phase two covers the change process itself and includes the processes that help people change the way in which they view the world and deal with its social and emotional demands.

The transfer and maintenance phase is the third phase. It addresses what happens following the formal training experience. The fourth phase, which is the final phase involves evaluation of the effectiveness of the process.

5.0 CONCLUSION:

The main purpose of this article is to present a review of literature on the significance of emotions, management of emotions, the need for emotional intelligence and the development of emotional intelligence in the workplace. The article neither intends to agree or disagree with various writers whose work has been cited nor present a personal opinion at this stage.

It is quite evident that organizations need to develop mechanisms for the effective management of emotions in the workplace. Emotional Intelligence appears to be an indispensable soft skill that could help in creating a cohesive workforce thereby enhancing effectiveness, performance, productivity and competitiveness.

Emotions are related to creativity and innovation. With a high level of emotional intelligence individuals within organizations are better players in co creation by social capital.

In essence, contemporary organizations must enhance the development of employees' Emotional Intelligence investing in such trainings that help to both handle their own as well as others' emotions.

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