

The relationship between emotional intelligence and the effectiveness of management and leadership methods

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Abstract

Classical management-organizational methods, which were highly effective in the mid-twentieth century based on long-term strategic planning practices, gradually lost their effectiveness by the 1980s and typically do not guarantee effective operation for organizations in today's market environment. Therefore, this paper first reviews the most important changes that have occurred in the global market and social environment in the recent period. It then examines the new demands that the changed environmental conditions place on leadership functions and tasks: after a review of various leadership theories, it briefly defines the concept of emotional intelligence and its main components, and then lists the areas within which leadership practices must continue to respond in a meaningful way in order to maintain the competitiveness of their organisations. Finally, the conclusion shows how important and indispensable the competences are that the CI brings together in order to deliver these areas adequately and to a high standard.

Keywords: *management, leadership, emotional intelligence, market environment*

MARK: *I31, J24, J28, M11, M12, M14, M16, M19, M51, M54, M59, O01, O02, O03*

1 Introduction, objectives

The acceleration of the pace of change is one of the most significant trends in the evolution of environmental factors, whether economic-market or

social. At both the individual and organisational level, the ability to adapt flexibly in a system of rapidly changing conditions is a fundamental key to survival and successful coping (Szemző et al, 2022) (Awais et al, 2023). This paper reviews the nature of the key changes that have occurred in recent times, examines the associated new demands in leadership organizational tasks and functions, both in leadership theories and in new areas of challenges and problems to be addressed, and finally reviews why the competencies represented by emotional intelligence are essential in enabling leaders to provide consistently high quality strategic responses in these areas.

2 New social and market environment

From changing but usually predictable business environment conditions, the global economy and national markets were already in the 1970s placed in an increasingly turbulent socio-economic environment in a decade of global market restructuring caused by commodity crises, which also brought with it a failure of expectations for a welfare market economy, with many and worsening social tensions. The increasing globalisation trends of the eighties and the new impetus of the technological revolution in the nineties clearly called for principles of strategic management practices rather than a more rigid approach to long-term planning (Barakonyi, 2002).

2.1 Background and implications of VUCA characteristics

Ever more rapidly (and increasingly hectically) changing environmental factors are shaping the market and social conditions with "VUCA" characteristics that force organisations to adapt continuously. In a rapidly changing (volatile), unpredictable (uncertain), complex and ambiguous economic and social environment, the main types of problems (Bennett, Lemoine, 2014) can be summarised briefly as follows:

2.2 Structural change in the world market

The main environmental consequences of this issue are the uncertainty of raw material supply and the growing importance of sustainability considerations. The raw material crises of the 1970s posed a greater challenge to the leaders of national economies (and the populations affected) than the 'classic' economic crises (demand crises). The new set of problems is well characterised by the perversity of the economic policy instruments to be applied: while rising unemployment typically requires the use of

expansionary economic policy instruments, rising inflation typically requires the use of restrictive economic policy instruments, so that the emerging crisis symptoms (combining the previous problems) could not be solved by a single set of economic policy instruments (Bonadio et al, 2023).

In the 1970s, the dramatic decline of commodity-intensive industries and the boom in knowledge-intensive sectors put further severe pressure on labour markets with a sharp rise in frictional unemployment. On the one hand, this period of globalisation trends has reinforced the increasingly international orientation of firms' demand (sales-marketing) activities. On the supply side, on the other hand, managers have increasingly decided to relocate even entire production processes to areas where they could reduce their costs in all areas (e.g. labour, material costs, etc.), also in the areas of production, purchasing, supply chain management (with an increasing emphasis on cost efficiency criteria) (Lewis et al, 2022).

2.3 Impact of the technology/mobile communications revolution

Since the early nineties, the spread of the internet, followed by the development of mobile communications and the dramatic increase in the popularity of social networking sites, has completely transformed people's everyday lives - changing lifestyles have brought radically new demands on markets for goods and services: within a few years, demand for some products (services) has virtually disappeared, while new demands and markets for other services have emerged almost "out of nowhere" (Rosario, Diaz, 2022).

The nature of the major transformations brought about by technological change (now at the paradigm shift level) is illustrated by the term fourth industrial revolution, or Industry 4.0, which highlights the increasing interconnectivity of systems as the main cause of accelerating change, resulting in the dissolution of the boundaries between the physical, virtual and biological worlds. The application of artificial intelligence-type technologies, innovations in genetic engineering research, and the technological environment shaped by high levels of robotization are inducing profound changes in both social and production interconnections: increasing integration is improving the efficiency of communication processes and the effectiveness of different processes — both by increasing the possibilities for self-monitoring and by improving the sophistication of machine learning systems (Qureshi, 2022).

In terms of specific sales-marketing processes, one of the most important effects of the technological - mobile communication revolution can be seen in the constantly changing lifestyles and consumption habits: today's consumers live and communicate differently, and thus have different market needs than their predecessors. Their (constantly and radically changing) perceptions of the world, of life and of the patterns to be followed in it not only pose an increasing challenge for product and service policies, with drastically shorter product life cycles and increasingly complex product design processes, but also the whole toolbox of marketing mix strategies must be constantly 'on standby' to adapt to changing consumer needs by constantly fine-tuning all related methods (Kenny, 2021).

The unprecedented scale of digitalisation and the concomitant growth of networks, in addition to the above effects, is also triggering a deeper change content in social and economic processes. The complex notion of embedded connectivity captures how, at the beginning of the 21st century, information and knowledge assets (processed and available at different levels) are constantly being organised (and reorganised) into complex and intricate files that can empower the actors of our present world (whether biological or artificial intelligence bearers) with capabilities at any level from complete incomprehension to almost incomprehensible levels of competence , 2022)

The emergence of the concept of infocommunication is based on the recognition that today the "machine-human" relationship no longer provides a sufficiently useful conceptual framework for understanding the complex interactions between human communicative and cognitive processes and digital knowledge content. Virtual Reality (VR) (as a specific media) provides a higher level of connectivity to the digital content offered by the metaverse: it can provide an experience of presence and lived participation by expanding perspectives of space and time, creating a continuous, real-time interactive connection between users. This not only opens up new possibilities for the creation of new alternative realities, but also allows for a higher level of human learning and a new, extended quality of learning. However, this is where options come into play whose real impact and potential cannot yet be fully appreciated. The interaction of cyber and physical architectures, the evolution of human-robot systems and the continuous development of the common technological base of possibilities underlying increasingly complex structures, therefore, has long since been seen not only as an increase in the technological options available to the supply side, but also as the development of an extended socio-cognitive

reality beyond the limits of human sensory and intellectual capacities (Kő et al, 2023).

2.4 Key market and social impacts of globalisation

On the business side, the primary impact of the expansion of globalisation is of course the continuing intensification of competition. However, in addition to the increasingly fierce competition in the markets for goods and services, it is also worth mentioning the input markets, where the intensification of globalisation also poses serious challenges: one of the most important problems is the labour market. On the one hand, companies can of course benefit in principle from the fact that they have an ever wider range of opportunities to acquire the necessary skills and competences as the labour market supply increases, and the increasingly diversified international composition of potential candidates for the corporate positions on offer.

However, with increasing opportunities come increasing potential challenges: a multicultural working environment (while it can also foster creativity and innovation) can also be a source of many communication failures and countless organisational conflicts, which become increasingly difficult for HR professionals to manage properly and effectively. The situation is further complicated by the fact that the differences in motivation, communication style and dominant values between the different generations currently working in the labour market are so great that including employees from different cultural backgrounds as an additional dimension in this framework can be a challenge for corporate management, which they are often not able to optimally address (Kenny, 2021).

These are therefore the key trends that shape the market and social conditions behind the VUCA world: volatile supply and demand fluctuations in the goods and services markets, as well as in the labour and capital markets, which result in complex interactions that require market and institutional actors to be constantly "on the alert" to understand, monitor, and develop and implement continuous strategic responses to these changes. Flexible systems are therefore needed instead of classical organisational standards, as the quality of the adaptive responses and understanding of continuous change will be the key to long-term competitiveness (Awais et al, 2023).

2.5 Paradigm shift: the BANI world order

It can therefore be seen that the VUCA characteristics in themselves pose a serious challenge to market (and societal) actors due to the constant need for flexibility to adapt; therefore, even strategies that are considered highly competitive at a given time can lose their relevance surprisingly quickly if the actors involved do not continuously adapt their parameters to changing conditions. In recent years, however, the national economies and societies have undergone such dramatic changes that even a model describing this hectically and unpredictably changing environment has not been sufficient to model the situation adequately. The 'volatile' component of the 'VUCA' thus became brittle, the uncertain anxious, the complex non-linear, and the ambiguous incomprehensible (Stöttinger, 2022).

So what is the BANI environmental model and what does it mean for today's social and market actors? The last 3-4 years have been dominated by the effects of the following dramatic conflicts. This was followed by (2) the shocking turning point of the Russia-Ukraine conflict with the start of the Russian invasion of Ukraine on 24 February 2022 (and the subsequent new world and economic conflicts). These series of events have triggered a series of consequences in world societies and economies of such intensity, such depth and such diversity that the framework described by the VUCA characteristics, which had already been bringing about constant changes and therefore imposing a constant adaptive tension, has proved inadequate to understand and adequately address them.



Figure 1: The VUCA – BANI transition (GD, 2024)

Both the underlying triggering events and the system of consequences are characterised by their sudden/unexpected nature, as well as by the shocking magnitude and multiplicative, spill-over nature of the negative impacts that result. The existing system of socio-economic rules and institutions were insufficient at this point to respond adequately to the events of the shocking series of changes. This is why the last few years have not simply called for the development and implementation of new, adaptive responses, but for a complete renewal of the basic structures of thought, i.e. a paradigm shift.

The changed "BANI" conditionality calls into question several cornerstones of the old approach (Figure 1). The Brittle criterion expresses the need to break the illusion of strength and to let go of it: the "everything will be fine" expectation cannot be guaranteed by the national and international institutional systems that humanity and its societies have built up over the past decades. The acceptance of, and adequate preparation for, a fragile world order thus accepts that there is not always sufficient power to solve the even more serious problems that arise (Dieffenbacher, 2023).

Anxious describes the process whereby people are in a state of persistent anxiety in the face of very unexpected and surprisingly negative events: anxiety is no longer fear of a particular source of danger, but is generally fearful of unexpected negativity, fearing that any (now completely unknown/unfaced) source of danger may result in the loss of the ability to maintain a firm grip on events. The state of anxiety may therefore point the way for those seeking real solutions to let go of the illusion of control and accept that events are not always under our control.

The Non-linear property is again based on a painful realisation. Over the past decades, or even centuries, many causal relationships have been discovered in the real and social sciences, which have provided the basis for groups of people, or even societies, to prepare themselves for many phenomena. However, the world around us seems to operate on the basis of such complex conditionalities that we must understand that it is often the case that we cannot always foresee many events or changes (even of major proportions), and that this means a loss of the illusion of predictability.

Finally, the Incomprehensible parameter makes us realise that we must also abandon the illusion of knowledge, i.e. we cannot build on the false assumption that we understand all the connections and correlations that shape the world around us and the events that happen to us in it (Stöttinger, 2022).

2.6 Changing demands on the management-organisation functions

As the micro- and macro-factors of the business environment of the global economy have increasingly taken on VUCA-type characteristics, starting in the 1970s, so the importance of adaptive, flexible management methods for organisations seeking to achieve long-term competitiveness has grown. An important parameter of this was the reassessment of the role of control as companies had to shift from long-term strategic planning practices to a strategic management approach. It is very important to note that this change did not only imply a shortening of the planning and intervention cycle time, but also the need for a complex shift in approach, from which the new demands on management and leadership methods, which are one of the main focuses of this thesis, can be understood as a complex, coherent framework (Szemző et al, 2022)

2.7 A period of long-term strategic planning

During the period of long-term strategic planning in the 1950s and 1960s, three- to five-year (sometimes even seven-year) strategic plans were typically approved by a narrow group of managers (typically the CEO / top management), so decision-making power was in the hands of a very small group of people. It is true that they received considerable methodological (mostly statistical - expert) support, as they were able to use the forecasts of a number of economic policy and market trends as an information input for complex planning work over a longer time horizon. The strategic plans themselves took longer to prepare, as they not only set out the main directions for development, but also the shorter-term methods and actions leading to the objectives, in considerable detail. The specific plan documentation, which covered almost all management functions, was then easily broken down both over time and into organisational units, so that the overall planning timeframe could be easily broken down into specific plans on an annual (or even shorter period) basis, with a specific set of expectations, objectives and action actions for each department. In this system, middle managers and expert staff with a strong experience and knowledge base thus also became 'quality implementers', since in the decades of concrete and detailed planning, control and incentive systems also tended to reward the most precise implementers of concrete plans (Barakonyi, 2002).

2.8 A more flexible approach to strategic management

But with the advent of environmental factors with VUCA characteristics, this (previously well-functioning) system has become increasingly vulnerable. In an era of constant change (which was increasingly widespread and difficult to predict), plans adapted to the original conditions became obsolete in a very short time, and rigid adherence to them led to a rapid erosion of market positions. The solution has been a strategic management approach, where the ever-changing social and market environment factors are constantly monitored, and based on the changes observed, the original plans, objectives and actions to implement them are continuously adapted to the environmental changes, in order to effectively maintain or even strengthen their market positions by viewing change as an opportunity and strategically responding better than competitors (Li et al, 2011).

2.9 Renewable management principles

However, this new approach required a profound shift in approach in all areas of management-organisational philosophies, principles and methods. The shift from a long-term strategic planning practice/approach to strategic management does not, of course, merely mean a shortening of the time horizon. Environmental changes can be of such diverse types and take such complex shapes that their continuous monitoring is an impossible task for a narrow management/board. It is also very important to note that the involvement of staff/employees is essential not only because of the numerical necessity to provide a "back-up team" for the "few" managers in perceiving and understanding changing environmental conditions, but also because some employee tasks are particularly suited to the targeted collection and even: meaningful interpretation of certain types of information/knowledge. (e.g., sales or customer service staff receive first-hand and continuous feedback from customers/buyers on potential problems or new related product needs that arise during product use).

Beyond the "input side" of the content (i.e. beyond the perception and understanding of change), the next step is for the enterprise to "do something" with the evolving micro- and macro-environmental elements of the market, i.e. to renew the organisational strategy (and then the related shorter-term plans/tactics/tasks) again and again based on the events that require change. Again, this is not a self-evident task and it is important to stress that the decisions made here are not of the algorithmic but of the heuristic problem-

solving type. There is therefore no predefined methodology which, if followed through, will automatically lead to a solution. In the case of heuristic problems, the problem is not well structured and the solution requires a "creative spark" (the inclusion of new, innovative elements). However, finding innovative solutions at the highest possible level is again not without elements of group thinking and joint decision-making, since creativity itself can be defined as a new way of combining existing things, which as a basic element builds on the abilities of a diverse group of people with more and more heterogeneous competences and personality traits, who are not only capable of focused problem-solving, but (based on their diverse characteristics) can 'run' a wide range of possibilities of associations in their creative thinking together. (Mankins, 2022)

Subsequently, it is important that the new, modified strategic elements are understood and accepted by the leaders and that all the knowledge necessary for the members to adapt their behaviour to the new strategic directions in an appropriate and high level is effectively transferred to all members.

The more flexible governance principles of strategic management therefore seriously reshape (expand) the tasks/functions related to the effective performance of managerial tasks at a number of points. In order to achieve and maintain long-term competitiveness, it is thus necessary to involve the members of the organisation to a much greater extent in the perception and understanding of environmental changes, in collaborative and creative decision-making, thus making the adaptive strategic fine-tuning process to constantly changing environmental conditions increasingly effective. Among the related new tasks, it is therefore important to highlight (1) the decentralisation and optimal delegation of decisions, (2) the more targeted use of employee competences, (3) the rethinking of motivation principles and incentive methods, (4) the focused exploitation of the potential of teams, and (5) the effective support of new knowledge creation and knowledge transfer (Kafetzopoulos, 2023).

The above new tasks and objectives brought with them the appreciation of human resource management (as a complete management function) in the 1990s and 2000s, the increasing importance of knowledge management as a new management area, and the emergence of the role of leadership alongside management tasks. Whereas the manager organises, assigns and coordinates (or directs) processes, assigns tasks to the members of the organisation according to the defined objectives and monitors their proper performance, the leader leads his organisation in a different way. In contrast to the task-

oriented manager, the leader already knows that organisational goals are too complex and the best strategic solutions to achieve them change too frequently to be met at a high level by the 'manual control' of a single person. The leader therefore pays serious attention to his people (the members of the organisation) - trying to understand their competencies, personalities/strengths from as many perspectives as possible and to formulate visions for them that summarise the larger goals and inspire them along the values associated with them, rather than specific solution steps. Then, by actively involving them (building on their work with confidence), he/she guides/coordinates/ accompanies them on the path towards a solution. With his charismatic personality and value-oriented commitment, he therefore effectively engages the members of the organisation as followers, proactively encouraging them to find appropriate solutions together (Kotter, 1990; Robotham, Windon, 2023)

Having summarised the essentials of the new leadership tasks/styles required in the new type of business environment, in this second part we will now briefly review how elements of the changing-evolving leadership theories relate to this new approach.

3 An overview of new demands on leadership through the development of leadership theories

Building on a rich literature base of leadership theories, this chapter aims to provide a brief and concise overview of the leadership tasks and emphases in order to provide a more structured overview of the new expectations of leaders in business organisations in the current globalised market environment, based on an understanding of the changing focus of leadership in Chapter 4.

3.1 Classics

Theories of leadership in the early 20th century sought to define/classify leadership tasks and to take stock of the qualities of a good leader. This era saw all the reasons for the success of the effective leader in the underlying personal characteristics: this direction did not yield breakthrough results, as too many, often significantly different, traits or personality traits were found to underlie the personality of the large number of leaders studied, which did not draw a uniformly desirable profile to describe the 'prototype' of the leader who is always effective in all circumstances (Szabolcsi, 2016).

In an overview of managerial tasks, the Taylorian view, among the classics, highlighted as the most important tasks the detailed planning of all elements of work processes, the constant consideration of performance/efficiency in the selection and development of employees, professional management and supervision, a high level of work and responsibility sharing, and differentiated (typically financial) incentives based on detailed performance appraisals. In addition to his clearly defined managerial functions (planning, organising, direct management, coordination, control), Henri Fayol stressed the importance of a clear and effective division of labour and the role of stability, order and discipline derived from the authority of the manager. In addition to fairness towards subordinates, it is worth noting that he already considered it important (and useful) for the manager to support staff initiatives, as well as to recognise group achievements and encourage workplace communities. In his theory of bureaucracy, Max Weber stressed the importance of the rational organisational principles inherent in the bureaucratic form of organisation: he described the ideal bureaucratic organisation as disciplined, stable and reliable, where impersonality actually promotes the maximum application of the principles of objective, professional competence. Henry Ford, in addition to consistently applying Taylor's principles to the organisation of work, attached particular importance to planned logistical processes in his production processes and to the planning of time frames for each phase of work (Dickson, 2022).

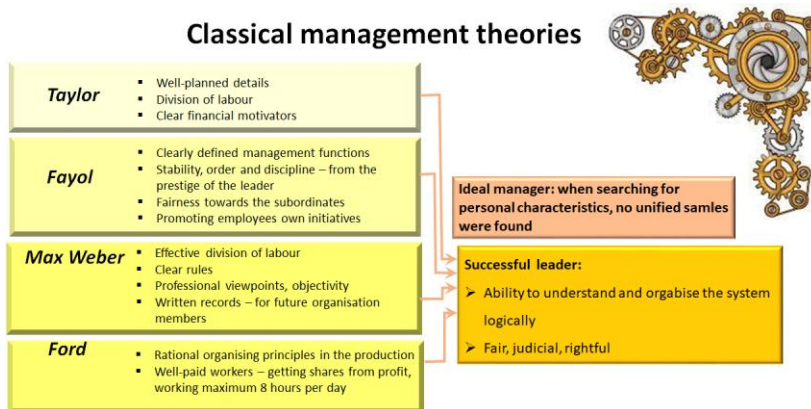


Figure 2: The classical trends and their concepts of leadership (own edit)

In the era of the classical schools of management, experts typically saw the peak of management performance in maximising the efficiency of (precisely

designed) processes, and the ideal leader was therefore also seen as having logical, interrelated competences. They did not actually succeed in creating a more personal, detailed profile of qualities; however, it is important to stress that the importance of fairness, clear incentives and physical and mental well-being, to which the leader should pay special attention, was already recognised in relation to employees (Figure 2).

3.2 The Human Relations trend

In Hawthorn's experiments, conducted between 1929 and 1932 and now widely known, Elton Mayo and his colleagues concluded, in contrast to the classical schools of management theory, that human factors had much more to do with work productivity than previously thought. The perception of a good manager has therefore been modified by their influence so that he or she must no longer only have logical and process-organizing competences, but also good social skills. Indeed, the human relations movement is convinced, on the basis of clear experimental evidence, that if the social psychological needs of the members of the organization are met at a higher level, this clearly improves work performance. In addition to Mayo's research on the role of organizational informal networks and job satisfaction, we should also mention the work of Mary Parker Follett, who, in addition to her research on two-way communication and effective conflict management, also drew attention to the differential effectiveness of situational management methods, which made her a forerunner of contingency theories in management science. (Muldoon et al, 2020)

Chester Barnard's concept (social systems theory) is worth mentioning in this section because he described companies as a behavioural arena of mutual (and constant) social interaction, where motivation and communication play a key role in long-term success and survival. The leader needs to understand that members will stay in the organization as long as it can provide them (the individuals and groups involved) with enough incentive to adequately compensate for their contribution to organisational goals. In addition to ensuring a constant adequate level of motivation, the leader is also responsible for implementing a high level of organizational communication, as this is the main coordination tool that can create and maintain the cooperation of the members of the organization towards common organizational goals - since the leader's power is based on the willingness of subordinates to cooperate (Nikezić et al, 2016)

Herbert Simon's theory of bounded rationality is a very important milestone in the field of management science because it illustrates in a clear and simple context that decision-makers work in a highly constrained set of conditions in many ways when making decisions (whether minor/operational or major/strategic) on a daily basis. Perfect decision making requires that all relevant information is gathered and evaluated in all relevant aspects in order to develop all decision alternatives and select the most optimal one. In reality, this has several limitations: both the time available to make a decision, the human thinking/analytical capacity and the amount of information available are finite. Individuals and managers at different levels of organisations therefore strive to make not perfect but reasonably good decisions by applying simplifying logics, so-called heuristics: the decisions made in this way require significantly less information and time; they are often good enough, but are often of generally inferior quality, and can be the source of many biases. (Simon, 1991) Simon's model is also important because it has inspired a number of decision analyses and nascent theoretical models including the Nobel Prize-winning Kahneman-Tversky viewpoint theory (Kahneman, 2013).

The so-called integrationist movements have sought to reinterpret the human relations learned in the human-centred schools of thought in terms of the original goal systems of the classical concepts; alongside their systems theory and cybernetics approaches, a significant movement is the "new human relations" movement, also known as the McKinsey 7S model, which takes into account the factors that a manager must analyse in order to achieve the successful functioning of the organisation he or she leads. The theory draws attention to the combined effects of the role of organisational (system) elements and human factors (Hollósy-Vadász, 2020). Also included in the integration theories are the so-called contingency theories, which are described in more detail in the next section:

The next three stages of human behaviour research are decision-centred, personality-centred and contingency leadership theories (Figure 3).

Behaviour-based leadership theories



Figure 3: Behaviour-based leadership theories (own edit)

3.3 Decision-oriented leadership theories

Decision-centred models look at how managers give their subordinate groups the opportunity to participate in decision-making. Lewin, Likert and Hofstede's models, as well as Tannenbaum-Schmidt's theory, can be clearly classified as decision-centred leadership theories, while the Vroom-Yetton model can be placed among decision-centred and contingency theories (Busse, 1014) (Hussain-Hassan, 2016) (Taucan, 2016)

In Lewin's well-known model, he distinguished between autocratic leaders, who alone control the group's activities and subjectively evaluate them, democratic leaders, who involve the group members in decisions and seek objective evaluation, and passive, non-initiating (helping only on request) - essentially laissez faire leaders, who are more like advisors.

Likert's model also examined the extent to which subordinates are involved in management processes and decisions, and it is important to note that this factor was also examined in eight areas of management activity (group leadership, motivation of members, communication with members, nature of interactions between people, the overall process of setting objectives, how decisions are made, the nature of control, and the nature of performance objectives). Likert's research has led him to distinguish four types: the hard-handed commander (1) (which can be likened to Lewin's autocratic leader) typically uses downward channels of communication in his centralised decision-making, has little trust in his subordinates, and most often enforces his instructions by threatening them. The benevolent commander (2) shows a little more trust in his subordinates, occasionally listens to his subordinates, but still supervises them closely - although he uses rewards more often than

punishment. The consultative style leader (3) is a big improvement on this, with increasing trust in the members of his organisation/team, who are increasingly involved in decisions; upward communication is now standard practice. This tendency is finally fulfilled in the participative group leader (4), where the basic attitude (and also a typical motivational tool) is to ensure the constant, active participation of subordinates in organisational decision-making - a type of leader comparable to Lewin's democratic leader.

Geert Hofstede, in constructing his cultural typology, also distinguished four degrees (very similar to Likert-types) within the dimension of power distance he described his groups as autocratic, persuasive paternalistic, consultative and democratic. Compared to Likert-type research, Hofstede focused on two leadership activity factors instead of eight: decision-making and implementation.

The Tannenbaum-Schmidt authors also examined the centralized / vs. decentralized nature of leadership in a broader "band": they were astute to point out that the concrete act of choice (decision) is preceded by a number of phases in the life of organizations / groups that can also have a significant impact on decision-making. The formulation of the problem, the suggestion of alternative solutions, the commenting on the proposals and the formulation of the rules for decision-making all have a major influence on the decision to be taken. This theory has refined previous typologies and described the transition from maximum centralised decision-making to full subordinate participation in seven stages.

The Vroom-Yetton model distinguishes five levels (two autocratic, two consultative and one group). An important difference with pure decision-oriented theories is that there is no ideal version of the theory that guarantees the highest effectiveness for all decision situations; instead, the manager must assess the situation and choose the most appropriate of the five styles. This theory is therefore also part of the contingency leadership model, since it identifies the way in which a leader makes decisions as something that needs to be modified in different circumstances. The conditions examined in this theoretical framework are the importance of the decision, the commitment and support of the group members, the appropriate structure of the problem, the availability of the necessary information and the likelihood of conflict within the group.

3.4 Personality-centred leadership theories

Personality-centred models look at the focus that leaders apply in their work, i.e. which areas they consider most important in achieving their leadership goals/tasks (Henkel, 2018; Busse, 2014; Ionela, 2021)

The research team at the University of Michigan (in whose work Likert also played a leading role) relied heavily on interview analysis to distinguish between task-centred and subordinate-centred leadership styles. The two types defined by the research at Ohio University are explicitly similar to the Michigan results: there, the two identified leadership attention-foci were described by the names initiator-structuring and attention, respectively.

Task-focused and initiative-structuring managers set out in detail the tasks to be performed by their employees, based on the goals to be achieved, and then keep them under tight control by constantly monitoring their work - for them, the completion of the task at the right level is the measure of high performance, and they use various coercive-rewarding tools to achieve this - typically using legal forms of power.

Subordinate-centred and attention-focused managers, on the other hand, want their people to have fun at work: that's why they try to get to know their employees' personalities, needs and situations as well as possible and create a friendly, supportive atmosphere for them at work. Instead of an autocratic allocation of tasks, they strive to develop and effectively manage appropriate team structures, whereby decision-making powers are distributed harmoniously and according to the personal strengths of team members, and to pay continuous attention to the individual development of employees.

In addition to the similarity of the defined types, an important difference between the Michigan and Ohio models is that while the University of Michigan results suggest that the two leadership orientations are mutually exclusive, the Ohio experts suggest that effective representation of both styles can be measured in the same leader, so that the above orientations can coexist within the same person. The fact that the two styles are mutually exclusive or can coexist is also evident in the effectiveness studies of the two models: the Michigan model clearly rated subordinate-centred leaders as more effective. In contrast, the Ohio experts found that it was best for a leader to score high in both orientations (and although both models found higher levels of employee satisfaction for subordinate- or attention-centered leaders, the Ohio

studies also found high employee effectiveness for task-centered leaders where attention to subordinates was low.)

The Blake-Mouton model shows the closest similarity with the Ohio University model: the two typical leadership orientations (which they labeled attention to people and attention to production) were identified as characteristics that were also observed/measured non-exclusively but side by side in each leader. By representing the two characteristics as two variables/axes of a coordinate system, the managers could be placed anywhere in the space thus plotted based on their focus (the scale values they used ranged from 1 to 9 along both variables). In the model, five distinctive types were also identified according to the low/high/ and medium values of the two characteristics: (1) the leader who scores high on both scores (9.9) is a champion of group-centred leadership: he/she excels both in organisation and in building high levels of mutual trust and appreciation; (2) the drive leader (9.1) is task-centred only; (3) the people-centred leader (1.9) focuses only on subordinate-centred foci. The (4) compromising leader (5.5) shows moderate results on both axes, which typically allows him/her to achieve adequate organizational performance, while (5) semi-leadership (1.1) does not pay much attention to either dimension. An important feature of this model is that it does not rely on specific outcomes to measure the variables, but rather on the areas that managers emphasise when assessing their own work - this school thus relies on subjective self-assessment in that it places explicit importance on how the manager wishes to see him/herself.

Fiedler's contingency theory also distinguishes between task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership types - in his view, these orientations are strongly embedded in personality, so (like the Michigan model) he sees the two foci as rather mutually exclusive. Another important feature is that, according to Fiedler, no leadership style works equally well in all situations: the appropriate focus depends on the situation, so that effective leadership orientations may be different in different situations.

3.5 Contingency leadership theories

According to contingencialist models, different situations require different management methods; the Fiedlerian concept presented above and the Vroom-Yetton model, mentioned last in the decision-oriented theories, can therefore be classified as contingencialist theories (Ionela, 2021; Taucean, 2016)

In addition to these two theories, the Hersey-Blanchard theory, where task- and relationship-oriented behaviours are also the two main variables used to assess the work of managers, should be included in the contingency school. Based on the low and high scores along these two dimensions, the model distinguishes four main leadership styles: the strongly task-oriented (1) dictator (telling), where relationship orientation is low; (2) seller (selling), where both dimensions are strong; (3) participant (participating), where task focus is weak with strong relationship orientation; and finally (4) delegator (delegating), where both focuses are weak. As an external variable, the model identifies the maturity of the subordinate staff as the set of conditions (which determines which management style would be most effective in a given situation). This involves examining whether employees are able or willing to perform the tasks assigned to them responsibly - the low and high values measured here determine which of the four styles is expected to be most effective.

3.6 New leadership trends

Leadership theories have of course evolved beyond the groups/schools we have just reviewed and continue to evolve today. Among the more recent trends, John Kotter's theory will be discussed in this chapter: behind the manager vs. leader roles he distinguishes (which were discussed in more detail at the beginning of this chapter) is the observation that management must rely increasingly on its human resources to create and implement quality, continuous strategic responses to the complexity of a rapidly changing business environment. In fact, the managerial organizational tasks and the employee-oriented leader role overlap significantly with two major orientations of personality-centered theories (Kotter, 1990).

The transactional vs. transformational leadership style again emphasises the differentiated applicability of leadership methods, focuses and situations. A transactional leader "trades" rewards and punishments in the organisation, i.e. motivates its members with positive and negative incentives to make the appropriate efforts to achieve the goals he or she has set. A transformational leader, on the other hand, encourages development/change while building trust with and shaping a shared vision with the involvement of his or her employees, listening to their feedback and developing a supportive organisational culture for effective, creative work where members take responsibility for common goals and are committed to their work. In the short term, a transactional leadership style can be effective with clear expectations

and transparent accountability, but in the long term it tends to be inflexible and does not encourage members of the organisation to adapt creatively and innovatively to changing circumstances. It is not difficult to see parallels with the typologies of leadership of the earlier schools (Klein, 2023).

Further / renewed expectations of leadership will be reviewed in Chapter 4 using the perspective of what the current social and market conditions demand of today's effective leaders. But first, the next chapter will briefly review the concept of emotional intelligence, its main definitions and its components.

3.7 Emotional intelligence

The study of the relationship between emotions and intellectual ability goes back thousands of years. Even ancient philosophers were seriously concerned with the role of emotions and their place in human life and thought (e.g. Aristotle, Stoic philosophers) (Aristotle, 1999) In the 18th century, we can find the search for the place and role of emotions in the teachings of Western philosophy (e.g. Descartes) and then in the Enlightenment (e.g. Spinoza), especially in the trends of rationalism. (Descartes, 2012) In the 19th century, Charles Darwin's theory of evolution represents another significant stage in the study of emotions (Darwin interpreted emotions as a remnant of the evolutionary past and pointed out a number of parallels between the ways in which humans and animals express emotions).

In the 20th century, the study of emotions became the focus of interest mainly in academic psychology. While the period 1900-1969 was characterised by the study of intelligence and emotions as two separate fields, the period 1970-1989 saw the beginning of a convergence between researchers in these two fields (Ciarrochi et al, 2003). Howard Gardner's theory of Multiple Intelligences is a very important milestone of this period: in addition to language, logical-mathematical, spatial, musical and bodily-kinesthetic intelligences, Gardner defined interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence, which correspond well to the two basic areas of study of emotional intelligence (Gardner, 2011).

The emergence of Emotional Intelligence as an independently defined scientific discipline dates back to 1990 (Ciarrochi et al, 2003). The authors John D. Mayer and Peter Salovey published their major papers between 1990 and 1993 (Mayer et al, 2003) (Mayer-Salovey 1993) (Mayer-Salovey 1995), in which they summarized the major research findings in the field and laid

the theoretical foundations of Emotional Intelligence (EI). Through this conceptual clarification, they have also justified the existence of EI as a new and distinct field of intelligence and have developed a formal theory of it. Equally importantly, they also described their method for measuring EI (the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)), developed jointly with David Caruso (Mayer et al, 2003).

Mayer-Salovey's definition of EI is ability-based: its authors defined it as a group of abilities such as: a) perceiving emotions, b) using them to stimulate thinking, c) understanding the meaning of emotions, d) and managing emotions. Their tests measuring these abilities (MEIS (Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale) and the MSCEIT mentioned above) use problem-solving tasks (e.g., identifying emotions in pictures of faces or answering questions about a given story) rather than self-assessment questions (Mayer et al, 2003).

In 1995, a new name "exploded" into the field of EI research: the book by Daniel Goleman and Emotional Intelligence (Goleman 2008), which presented many aspects of the field in an easy-to-understand, interesting, readable style of popular science fiction books. The topics covered are wide-ranging, from the emotional architecture of the brain to the surprisingly significant advantages and disadvantages of positive and negative behaviours associated with emotions, to the promise of developing the ability sets associated with EI (Goleman 2012). Goleman's book became a resounding bestseller - translated into more than thirty languages and boasting over five million copies sold - and the subject of EI has since become a subject of growing interest (Goleman 2015(1); Goleman 2015(2)). In addition to the interest in the strict scientific field, the number of more popular, popular science publications has naturally increased. Perhaps this fact led to a number of criticisms of Goleman's work: his definition of EI was considered too broad, too general, based on a general notion of character rather than on the definition of a specific set of competences (Goleman's EI categories are Self-Assessment/Self-Regulation/Motivation/ and Empathy). (along with the American psychologist Reuven Bar-On's concept of EI, whose categories of Intrapersonal/Interpersonal/Apathy/Stress Management/ and General Mood EI were also found to be too diverse to be used to characterise a specific set of abilities) (Ciarrochi et al, 2003).

The main source of criticism was the ability-based Mayer-Salovey school itself (Mayer-Salovey 1993) (Mayer-Salovey 1995). Their most important criticism of the mixed approach is thus that it not only has ability-based components, but also includes elements from other domains of personality

among its basic components (e.g. motivation, which is included in Goleman's EI, but which Mayer considers to be 'systemically negative' and which, in his view, cannot be considered part of any type of intelligence (Mayer et al, 2003). On the basis of this criticism, Mayer and Salovey consider the mixed approaches to be unscientific and their findings to be unnovel (Ciarrochi-et al, 2003)

At the end of this chapter, it is certainly useful to take a position on the concept of S&E that we will follow in this work and in the doctoral thesis: we do not consider the mixed approach to S&E to be unscientific, but we appreciate it as a much better model of reality, and as a much more widely applicable concept of S&E. From the point of view of effective leadership, this approach means that emotional intelligence, which has a major influence on individual and group behaviour, should again be approached in its complexity in each individual, for which a 'bottom-up' approach may be a good practice. From this perspective, developed emotional intelligence can be understood as a well-functioning interplay of complex psychological and social abilities, which should be measured in terms of the degree of aptitude and competence in individual situations, rather than trying to break down the already overly complex process system of EI into its 'input side'. The 'output-side' approach also provides an opportunity to map a very wide range of emotional characters and behaviours, as individuals may show different patterns of emotional competence in different situations, with different patterns of success and failure. This approach provides a very good basis for understanding the advantages and identifying the disadvantages between different behaviours, and is therefore also applicable to group learning exercises.

The argument that the mixed approach breaks down EI into components, some of which are not strictly classifiable as skills, can be answered as follows: on the one hand, it is rarely relevant for the usability of EI whether its components are of a purely competence-type or not. Moreover, the individual components, whether of EI or of character, are so inextricably linked that what is a cause in one context is a cause in another: once again, the effort to define each component as a primary or secondary component derived from the previous one becomes futile. Finally, as a key element of Mayer's reasoning, he argues that the components of the mixed approach are not only part of the so-called 'knowledge factory' of the personality (i.e. the competences in the strict sense), but can also be part of other personality components (a good example is the motivation mentioned earlier: while

Goleman defines it as part of emotional intelligence, Mayer argues that it cannot be, since instead of the so-called 'knowledge factory' (i.e. the competences in the strict sense), it is the so-called 'knowledge factory' (i.e. the so-called 'competences'). "In the remainder of our work, we will therefore clearly proceed in the spirit of the mixed approach to EI: we will capture and model emotional intelligence in the processes of the interplay of several components of the personality.

4 Overview of new demands on management - focus on values and tasks

In a changing social and market environment, effective management tasks are constantly expanding. As we have seen from the first chapter of this thesis, the environmental characteristics characterised by accelerating change and the new managerial demands they dictate are interlinked, and these processes interact in a constant chain of cause and effect. In this chapter, however, in order to make better use of the space available, we feel it more appropriate to summarise the management areas brought to life by the new challenges, by theme.

4.1 The importance of knowledge management

A prerequisite for effective, adaptive corporate adaptation to the ever-changing business and social environment is for management to support all forms of effective knowledge transfer through the use of well-designed knowledge management strategies (Bencsik, 2011) and to create an organisational culture within the company that consciously leads to a learning organisation. (Bencsik, 2009; Bencsik-Juhász, 2015) Learning organisations develop the attitudes that enable them to adapt successfully to a changing environment with increasing efficiency. Senge's model identifies five principles that, if implemented, enable an organisation to operate in the spirit of a philosophy of continuous openness and learning. Senge's criteria for learning organisations are (Senge 2006; Bencsik-Bognár, 2003):

- (1) Systems thinking, whereby problems are explored and situations are solved both in time and space, with an understanding of the deeper context.
- (2) Self-direction, the capacity for self-management, which refers to the nature of individuals/groups/organisations' awareness, guided by a specific vision, that enables them to make concentrated efforts and to pay appropriately focused attention and learn.

(3) The use of thought patterns implies not only open and systems thinking, but also organisational awareness: the use of common ways of acting and thinking together, which not only increases group and organisational efficiency, but also strengthens loyalty to the organisation and group cohesion (Bencsik, 2003).

(4) A shared vision is an effective way to motivate individual employees and groups of employees, both for specific actions and for the learning stages of the pathfinding process. It gives a common identity to the members of the organisation, while at the same time effectively helping to channel energy and focus towards common goals.

(5) Through the continuous use of group learning practices, individual and group capacities for understanding and learning can develop in a symbiotic way, reinforcing each other. At the same time, the organisation's problem-solving capacity is rapidly improving as employees' attitudes become more open and flexible in constantly changing situations.

While Senge focuses on attitude, openness, organic harmony between the organisation as a whole and its individual members, and the harmonisation of their goals, Garvin's model of the learning organisation focuses on the processes of knowledge creation, dissemination and use. This model also describes well, however, the conceptual features that are typical of any effectively functioning learning organisation. An open and supportive organisational culture, flexibility, task variety, innovative approaches and group decision-making are typical features of any learning organisation (Garvin 2003).

A successful manager in today's business environment should therefore know his or her employees and their competences as well as possible; based on this, he or she should be able to know which competences should be developed in which direction, so that the individual can increasingly fulfil his or her own goals and advance the organisational goals more effectively. Build an organisational culture of trust, where it is clear to all employees that sharing their knowledge with others in the organisation is preferable to retaining it. From the development and constant refinement of the corporate goal structure to the continuous co-contemplation of all members of the organisation at all levels of corporate planning, so that it can actively support any form of new knowledge creation.

4.2 The role of motivation

An important feature of fair and effective organisational incentive and reward systems is that they adequately meet all the main groups of needs. The human needs grouped into several categories by the various content theories of motivation are, of course, related in many ways in terms of content, since each seeks to capture the needs of human nature and the typical mechanisms of operation between them. Knowing and accepting that the comparison will obscure important differences at many points, for the purposes of this subsection we will nevertheless briefly show that the need groups of the important content theories of motivation can be somewhat effectively mapped to the groups according to the extrinsic-intrinsic motivational divisions (emphasizing that the result of the classification is typically used in the evaluation of incentive-reward instruments, not in the analysis of human psychological processes).

According to this view, the human needs represented by the two lower levels of Maslow's Needs Pyramid (physiological and certainty needs groups), Alderfer's Existence Needs, Herzberg's Hygiene Needs and Murray's Primary (biological) Needs groups are typically met by employers (fully in line with the current system of social norms/expectations) with extrinsic incentives. Indeed, adequate financial benefits and fair job security are excellent tools in the current social systems for individuals to effectively meet the needs of these groups.

The post-biological needs groups of Maslow's pyramid (the top three levels: social, recognition, and self-actualization), Alderfer's Development and Relationship Needs, Herzberg's Motivator Factors, Murray's secondary (psychogenic) needs, and all of McClelland's needs (he did not address the biological ones at all) are typically more easily and directly related to work activity, and thus tend to be intrinsically motivated, typically by non-material incentives. (Atkinson- Hilgard, 2020)

Without effective motivation, organisations will lose their competitiveness and even their viability in the long run; in this sub-chapter, I would like to mention two key motives for successful leadership: the respectful/fair use of extrinsic incentives and the exploitation of the rich application potential of intrinsic incentives.

Several HR-related articles today address the increasing role of intrinsic incentives: this is true when the employer incentive system provides fair

rewards on the extrinsic side. In this case, the Herzberg model really works on paper: if the hygiene factors are in order, they are "silenced": if they are not in order, they will typically play the role of expectancy (rather than motivator) factors in motivating members of the organisation. However, the lower the average income in a given society and the more consciously an employer company exploits this (i.e. the less it is characterised by fair financial incentives and general job security for its employees) - the less true it is that external incentives do not affect job performance. As long as money remains the basis of exchange in societies, and as long as the vast majority of citizens in countries derive the vast majority of their income from the labour market, the inadequacy of extrinsic rewards will be a fundamental barrier to achieving not only optimal but also minimum sufficient levels of motivation in organisations.

In the context of intrinsic motivations, social needs are the responsibility of all members of the organisation, so it is essential for the leader to develop a safe and supportive organisational culture based on trust. In addition, it makes sense to work with a more personalised intrinsic motivation policy, based, of course, on a deeper understanding of the individual needs and personal characteristics of employees. The potential here can be further enhanced, however, if managers in organisations develop methods in this area with the necessary expertise and patience. This means, on the one hand, the application of tools that respect and recognise the sensitive nature of human creativity and, on the other hand, the consistent and personalised application of the three factors of SDT (Self Determination Theory): autonomy, self-development and the linking of activities to higher goals, which, in the hands of any skilled and committed leader, can become a mastery tool for achieving truly effective organisational motivation (Pink, 2018; O' Hara, 2017)

4.3 The ability to change focus

Today's leaders need to understand that both individuals and organisations are constantly part of larger networks, which have now, as we enter the BANI era, proven to operate in fragile and unstable conditions. Thinking in terms of systems therefore implies not only a clear understanding of the causal relationships of a given network (and the place and potential of a given entity: individual or organisation within that network), but also a constant, vigilant awareness of the interplay of larger systems.

The ability to continuously maintain a change of focus implies, in addition to the willingness to flexibly exchange global and local perspectives, the ability to (a) quickly change priorities and (b) find and take up solutions in a straightforward way in non-optimal situations.

Flexible mindsets can also be linked to the ability to step out of one's comfort zone, as well as a very complex repertoire of leadership skills that recognise the need for change management and are able to initiate and manage it. Today's leaders often have to take dramatic decisions, which require courage and charismatic commitment, often involving not only an understanding of environmental change, but also a strong value orientation that includes the willingness to even attempt to actively influence their environment. This can take the form of strong, value-driven advocacy and leading by example, as well as seeking new solutions rather than tried and tested, but proven to be flawed, types of response.

4.4 People, groups, empathy

At the beginning of the 21st century, successful leaders cannot afford not to pay special attention to individual and group psychological and social psychological processes. Understanding the complex and often illogical drivers of human behaviour is not an easy task and requires almost constant self-improvement. However, effective managers need to master communication, conflict management and motivation as key competences, and must also constantly develop their ability to understand human processes.

4.5 Creativity, inspiration, diversification

Changing environmental conditions require organisations to constantly renew their strategic responses. Problems are typically ill-structured, so algorithmic problem-solving methods are not sufficient; heuristic problems require creative responses; and creativity, while it may seem like a magical, non-automatable solution, can be promoted very effectively with the right management attitude.

Csikszentmihályi's definition of creativity is simply a new way of putting things together (Csikszentmihályi, 2021). This clear and very simple definition gives organisational leaders a strong opportunity to make creativity a core property of their organisation, rather than a difficult to achieve, somewhat mystified goal, by creating an organisational environment that

supports it. The secret of creative thinking, as defined above, lies in the broadening of the free associations available this is also the simple secret of using group creative techniques.

The next step is "just" to understand that the more novel and daring (i.e. creative) an idea is, the more unpredictability and uncertainty surrounds the process of its implementation. The majority of new ideas fail, not because the planners and implementers make a serious mistake, but because a significant proportion of innovations fail because of the many unforeseen obstacles and unexpected problems. The organisation (and the manager) must incorporate this huge uncertainty factor into their preliminary calculations: it is no small thing to take up an individual's particular idea and then take responsibility for it at organisational level: creativity is a fragile thing and associative thinking is the opposite of focused problem solving, which is a prerequisite for any successful project. Behind both approaches, whether in an inspirational or analytical/implementing role; the leader must be the one to take the lead.

The issue of organisational diversification is based on the same contradiction: whatever (gender, cultural, international) factors the organisation may take into account in its embrace of increasing diversity, it promises increasing conflict on one side, which the manager must manage with ongoing empathy, professional communication and highly effective knowledge transfer processes. On the other hand, an innovative and increasingly empathetic and understanding team of employees will be strengthened under the aegis of your organisation.

4.6 And finally: to continue the search for balance

In the BANI world order, individuals, organizations and much larger social units must live and evolve in a state of great uncertainty, as part of confusing and complex processes, in constant consideration of conflicting truths and values. Anxiety is a constant experience of the modern human being, and mismanaged fears often spill over into individual and group conflicts. Leaders in today's business and social organisations must not only responsibly manage these as individuals/persons, but also stand behind and embrace complex systems of goals and objectives, leading people/groups and whole organisations towards them.

Burnout, workplace bullying, group conflicts, crises, or even real value crises are just examples of emerging conflicts that leaders have a role and responsibility to resolve.

We conclude by building on the complex issues presented in these sub-chapters to show how the competences of emotional intelligence are essential and indispensable to understanding and effectively addressing these challenges.

5 Conclusions: effective leadership and emotional intelligence

At the end of Chapter 3, emotional intelligence was defined as the set of skills that enable an individual to understand and manage their own and others' feelings. In this summary, the importance of these four areas is discussed from the perspective of managers in organisations operating in an early 21st century social - market environment.

Understanding one's own emotions: a given level of self-awareness is essential because the environmental elements and issues to be addressed, as presented in chapters 1 and 4, are of a complexity that cannot be effectively addressed with a well-algorithmised toolbox (i.e. a constant "solution set"). In the communication and interaction of managers with individuals, groups or even larger social units, the continuous assessment of the situation and the decisions to be made, implemented and the responsibility that this implies, are a constant intellectual and spiritual challenge that can only be built on a solid foundation of self-awareness if the individual is in balance. This part also includes the importance of the constant practice of self-reflection, which is also inconceivable without an existing base of self-awareness.

Understanding the emotions of others: the simple term "empathy" is both difficult to learn and a new and new content on many levels, capable of fine-tuned development through continuous experiential learning, as well as of constantly setting responsible boundaries in new and new situations.

Managing one's own emotions: depending on one's disposition, this is often the most challenging area, even for those with high emotional competences; especially when dealing with situations of value conflict and when making leadership decisions that significantly affect the lives of others, strong competences in this area can even protect the long-term integrity of the leader's personality.

Managing the emotions of others: a very large group of leadership situations constantly draw on the competences of this area in very different situations. All forms of communication, effective conflict resolution techniques, understanding and acceptance of major decisions, and all levels of effective

motivation constantly "feed" on the skills of this domain. It is very important to note that while the distorted values-based management of professional influence i.e. manipulation may bring significant short-term success to the manager who uses it, in the long term it automatically leads to an escalation of moral and other problems and is therefore not a valuable and applicable competence. High emotional skills must be based on an appropriate set of values for a leader who wants to help his people effectively and responsibly towards common goals.

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