Leader's Social Intelligence and Organizational Effectiveness: Theoretical Review

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ABSTRACT
Social intelligence has drawn the attention of psychologists, psychiatrists, and other professionals in diverse sectors such as organization and management as one of the new areas in psychology in recent decades, owing to its appealing and widespread qualities. It can be thought of as a general concept for analyzing how people manage their social interactions. Learning to be as transparent and present as possible is an important part of developing social intelligence. Furthermore, leadership as a social process refers to a person's ability to influence, encourage, and empower others to contribute to the effectiveness and success of the organization. Because cognitive and behavioral adaptability and flexibility are crucial attributes of good leaders, some developing leadership theories suggest that social intelligence is increasingly necessary for leaders. In contrast to abbreviated emotive experiences, individuals who are socially intelligent appear to have a rich, meaningful life. Aspects of social intelligence have also been linked to improved social problem-solving abilities, leadership expertise, and good interpersonal experience. Leadership effectiveness and success can be based on, as well as facilitated, by social intelligence. A literature review of past research in this topic was employed as the study's strategy. The data was analyzed qualitatively according to the nature of the study. The goal of this research was to investigate the connections between social intelligence components like social awareness and social facilities and organizational efficiency. According to the findings, there is a link between organizational efficiency and leader social intelligence. It is proposed that a manager's social intelligence be measured and that a plan be developed to help him or her improve it. The study concludes that serve to reduce stress by moderating conflict, promoting understanding and fostering cooperation. It also aids managers in improving their collective intelligence, resulting in increased production. According to the findings, social intelligence may be used as a foundation for, and can aid in, leadership effectiveness and success, which leads to organizational effectiveness.
Keywords: Intelligence, Social Intelligence, Social facilities, Social awareness, Social Information Process, Organizational Effectiveness.

INTRODUCTION
Human talents research dates back over a century (Fakultät, 2008), and intelligence is viewed as a broad, coherent notion that is mostly tied to cognitive capacity. According to the literature review, there are several types of intelligence that should be considered in organizations, including organizational intelligence, psychological intelligence, moral intelligence, emotional intelligence, social intelligence, and so forth. Learning to be as "clear" and present as possible is a crucial aspect of developing social intelligence (Phipps, 2007). In other words, intelligence refers to one's ability to think and learn, and has

traditionally been used to describe the acquisition and application of skills and facts (Clarken, 2009); however, interest in social intelligence has resurged in recent years under the umbrella term of social effectiveness constructs (Lievens & Chan, 2009).

As a result, one of the first options for a new intelligence construct to supplement traditional human ability notions was social intelligence (Fakultät, 2008). The history of social intelligence is the most extensive. Thorndike (1920) coined the term "social intelligence," which he defined as "the ability to understand and govern men and women, boys and girls - to behave sensibly in human relations." Thorndike did not develop a theory of social intelligence, according to Landy (2005), but he did use the term to clarify that intelligence might present itself in various forms (e.g., abstract, mechanical, and social) (Lievens & Chan, 2009). Emotional intelligence and social intelligence have - without doubt - become two very important constructs to organizations. Mayer and Salovey (1990) and Salovey and Mayer (1993) claimed that social intelligence is a larger concept that encompasses emotional intelligence (Bosman, 2003).

By defining social intelligence in terms of behavioral outcomes, Ford and Tisak (1983) were successful in establishing a distinct domain of social intelligence. They defined social intelligence as "one's ability to achieve relevant objectives in specific social situations." Goleman's (2006) notion of social intelligence splits it into two categories: social awareness and social facility. He defined social awareness as "what we detect about others," and "what we do with that awareness" as "what we do with that awareness" (Dong, et al. 2008). Theorists have provided several definitions of social intelligence, but they consistently include two elements: a) awareness of others and b) responsiveness and adaptation to people and social settings (Dong, et al. 2008). Martinussen and Dahl (2001) operationalized social intelligence into a scale (TSIS) containing three distinct components: social information processing, social awareness and social skills. The first two factors have to do with cognitive aspects of comprehending and interpreting ambiguous social data. The final aspect, social skills, is quite different and has to do with one's favorable perceptions of one's ability to perform in social situations (Friborg, Barlaug, Martinussen, Rosenvinge & Hjemdal, 2005).

General intelligence continues to have a strong relationship with numerous indices of leadership and leader effectiveness, as evidenced by studies conducted in a number of settings (Zaccaro, Kem & Bader, 2003). Because cognitive and behavioral adaptability and flexibility are crucial attributes of effective leaders, some developing leadership theories suggest that emotional and social intelligence are even more important for leaders and managers (Bosman, 2003). In general, the term "social intelligence" is associated with concepts such as "social skills" and "competence" (Björkqvist et al. 2000). Social intelligence can be thought of as a starting point for determining how well people handle their social relationships (Friborg, et al. 2005). Eydi, Ramezanineghad, Yousefi and Sajjadi (2012) explain that leadership is rooted in a social context and social intelligence is a required trait for leaders.

Eydi, Ramezanineghad, Yousefi & Sajjadi, (2012) describe leadership as a social process that is "the ability of a single person to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and the organization's success" (Parolini, 2005). In organizations, social intelligence refers to intentionally using good people skills with an understanding that the effective use of those skills will have a favourable impact on others - an impact which is biologically based and observable (Kolski-Andreaco, 2010). Zaccaro and his colleagues (Zaccaro, 1999, 2001, 2002; Zaccaro, Zaccaro, Gilbert, Thor, & Mumford, 1991) have argued that social appraisal skills, or social intelligence, reside at the heart of effective leadership (Zaccaro, et al. 2003). In essence, social intelligence is the ability to recognize the significant influence of connections in order to help leaders improve the performance of the people they lead. A leader's toolbox must include initiative, empathy, adaptability, and persuasiveness. Lacking awareness of his or her emotional impact on others can doom a leader to failure as a people manager, regardless of how competent in the subject matter or job skills he or she may be.

Social intelligence, when applied to leadership, recognizes that the most crucial activity of a leader is to connect with others for the purpose of amplifying the latter's performance (Kolski-Anderaco, 2010).

Social intelligence also includes the ability to select an acceptable response and to be adaptive in one's behavior (Robert, 2008). People who have not developed their social intelligence abilities, on the other hand, are unable to interact effectively with others and may even alienate or insult them. Employees and bosses alike might be guilty of this (Kolski-Anderaco, 2010). The study looks at two factors: social intelligence and self-esteem. A total of 419 undergraduates from two western institutions were studied to see if there was a link between social intelligence and intercultural communication sensitivity. It was also looked into the relationship between self-esteem and intercultural communication sensitivity. The findings back up the hypotheses and show a statistically significant link between social intelligence and intercultural communication sensitivity, with social intelligence accounting for more than 10% of the variance in ICS (Dong, et al. 2008).

Furthermore, according to Björkqvist et al. (2000), correlations between social intelligence and all sorts of aggression rise, while correlations between social intelligence and peaceful dispute resolution fall. Another study shows that social intelligence is a key to workplace communication and innovation (Phipps, 2007). Furthermore, the positive relationships of intelligence to leadership are highly significant (Zaccaro, et al. 2003). Many studies have found that social intelligence is one of the most essential variables in a person's ability to succeed and advance in their career (Goleman, 2006). As a result, social intelligence is described as an individual's ability to effectively relate to, understand, and engage with others (Marti, 2005). It entails noticing others' emotions, listening, caring for others' emotional states, and assisting others in managing their emotions. According to research, understanding these social intelligence features is an important aspect of good leadership. Social intelligence can in large part be learned in an organization.

Organizational effectiveness, on the other hand, is one of the most difficult and understudied issues in the study of social organizations. Many issues arise when attempting to accurately describe the concept of efficacy. Some are due to the proximity with which the concept is related with the issue of values (e.g., "management" versus "labor" orientations). Other issues arise when researchers select a priori efficacy criteria that seem intuitively correct without methodically integrating them into a consistent and larger framework. In fact, precise criteria that may be appropriate in one organization may be completely incorrect in another. The challenge is whether it is possible to define effectiveness and create criteria that are applicable across organizations and can be meaningfully placed within a general conceptual framework.

In spite of all the debates when it comes to the issue of leaders' social intelligence and organizational effectiveness and other related constructs, little works have been done on the issue of leaders' social intelligence and organizational effectiveness. The goal of this study is to see how much leaders' social intelligence influences organizational efficiency in Port Harcourt businesses.

Objective of the study

The aim of the study is to evaluate the impact of leader's social intelligence on organizational effectiveness. Therefore, the specific objective of the study is:

i.   To determine the influence of social awareness on organizational effectiveness.

ii.   To determine the influence of social facilities on organizational effectiveness
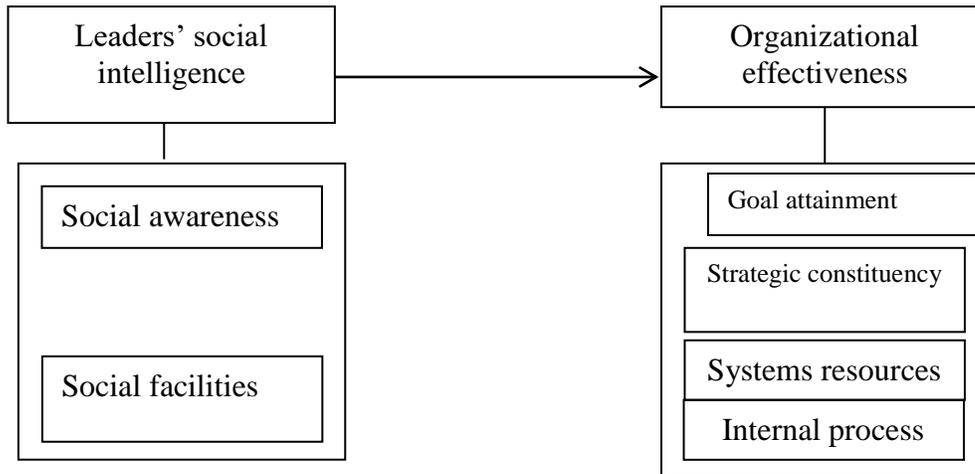
Conceptual Framework

Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework

Conceptual Review
Leaders' social intelligence
Leadership means penetration on someone over others in a particular situation which is directed by individual for the purpose of achieving certain goals. Leadership training is a valuable concept and depends on many factors, including requirement and legal recommendations of government, beliefs, experiences and the capacity to training managers of school and the nature and needs of the community (Halinger, 2003). Considering that cognition, emotions and behaviors of managers of training center effect on the behavior of managers, teachers, professors leads them to effectiveness or non-effectiveness of education of learners, accordingly such persons taking a leading role in their respective organizations (Niromand, 2005).

Leadership style is defined as the Behaviors that the leader uses to penetrate in subordinates, it is referred to the following styles according to title of research: • Task-based oriented behavior including descriptions of roles, organizing operations and projects and the organizational performances. These actions emphasize on tasks, using resources and labor efficiency, stable and safe processes and increasing development (Abaszadeh, 2008). Relation-oriented behaviors including support, development, recognition, consultation and managing. These activities strengthen people's relationships, partnerships, teamwork, and organizational obligations. Behaviour Task: leaders will involve one-way communication by explaining to subordinates that where and how to carry out duties.

Since the publication of a bestseller by the same name in 1995, leaders' social intelligence has grown into a prominent issue of interest in scholarly circles in addition among the general public (Goleman). Despite the recent surge in interest in this novel concept, scholars have been studying it for the better part of the twentieth century, and the historical origins of the field can be traced all the way back to the nineteenth century. With Edward Thorndike's work on social intelligence in 1920, publications began to appear in the twentieth century. Many of these early studies concentrated on characterizing, classifying, and assessing socially competent behaviour in young children (Edgar Doll produced the first tool to test socially intelligent behavior in young infants) (1935). Two subscales ("Comprehension" and "Picture Arrangement") in David Wechsler's well-known test of cognitive intelligence appear to have been devised to examine components of social intelligence, probably influenced by Thorndike and Doll. A year after the test was first published in 1939, Wechsler explained the influence of no intellective components on

intelligent behavior, which was yet another reference to this notion (1940). Furthermore, he asserted in the first of a series of publications published after this early description that our ideas of intelligence would not be complete until these qualities could be adequately defined (1943). (2005, Bar-On).

Rather than describing and assessing social intelligence, researchers began to focus their efforts on understanding the purpose of interpersonal interaction and the role it plays in effective adaptability. This area of research contributed to the social definition of human effectiveness and supported one of the most important components of Wechsler's (1958) definition of general intelligence: "the individual's capacity to behave meaningfully." This also aided in the recognition of social intelligence as a subset of general intelligence (Bar-On, 2005). Social intelligence is defined as the capacity to effectively navigate complicated social connections and environments. Humanity, according to Nicholas Humphrey, a psychologist and professor at the London School of Economics, is defined by social intelligence rather than quantitative intelligence. Social intelligence, according to social scientist Ross Honey, is a combination of self- and social awareness, growing social concepts and attitudes, and the ability and desire to deal with complex social change. A person with a high social intelligence quotient (SQ) is neither better nor worse than someone with a low SQ, but they have very different attitudes, hopes, interests, and desires. The tools and practices used by organizations to aggregate social data (gathered via social media monitoring tools and social analytics engines) with existing data and integrate with systems of records and real-time analytics engines are referred to as social intelligence in the context of these business groups.

The end result is actionable insights that provide brands with new information about their customers, products, and campaigns, allowing them to improve what they do and how they do it. The value of Social Intelligence is in using this data to proactively foresee and anticipate customers' needs, as well as deliver on their individual wants and wishes. Despite the fact that few tests for social intelligence are available, Wolfe and Putler (2002) reviewed the existing measures and found two major issues: a) many of them are time consuming and difficult to administer; and b) different types of social intelligence measures are often not highly correlated with one another, owing to disagreements in the definition of social intelligence and possible self-report biases (Gini, 2005). Wolfe & Putler (2002), discuss social intelligence in three distinct parts: processing of social information, social skills & social awareness. 1- Social information processing is a technique for assessing comprehension and predicting behavior and feelings in others. 2- It assesses social abilities and the ability to adapt to a new social situation. 3- Social awareness use to measure of consciousness in events at social statues (Maltese and colleagues 2012).

Social Awareness

Individuals' ability to notice and perceive significant social indicators regarding others' thoughts and emotions, as well as comprehend complex social circumstances, is referred to as social awareness. Social awareness is defined as the ability to comprehend and empathize with people from other origins and cultures, as well as the ability to recognize family, school, and community resources and supports. Social awareness is an important component of good classroom behavior, which helps to create a learning atmosphere. Social awareness is also widely recognized as a critical component of workplace success. Professionalism, teamwork, communication, and social responsibility are four of the five most crucial skills for high school graduates entering the workforce, according to a recent employer poll done by the Partnership for 21st Century Skills.

Social Facility

Individuals' ability to deal with people is referred to as social capability (Halinger, 2003). Self-awareness, emotion management, goal-setting, and empathy, according to Niromand and Masjedian (2005), are all related to the ability to build and maintain relationships. Individuals with social awareness and empathy may sense another person's inner condition and understand what that person feels and thinks (Goleman, 2006, cited in Wawra, 2009). All of these elements, it may be said, comprise social intelligence, which aids individuals in forming successful interpersonal interactions.

Organizational effectiveness

One of the foundations of management and organization theory and practice is organizational effectiveness. It is at the heart of all organizational theory, and it is quickly becoming a central theme in organizational sustainability (Young & Tilley, 2006). Not only at the human level, but also at the organizational level, there is a growing need to analyze effectiveness. An organization can be thought of as an organic system that produces various types of systems, processes, and behaviors in order to achieve its goals. Individuals, business strategies, and systems must all be coordinated with competency development if a company wants to be viewed as effective (Andreadis, 2009).

Furthermore, it is probably most relevant in comparative organizational research, i.e., in relational rather than absolute terms, but the notion might also be utilized to evaluate the effectiveness of the same organization over time.

Traditionally, the investigation of modern associations has examined and operationalized effectiveness primarily regarding efficiency. In this regard, Thorndike has observed a general trend among personnel and industrial psychologists to accept the following as "ultimate criteria" of organizational success: organizational productivity, net profit, the extent to which the organization achieves its different missions, and the organization's success in keeping up with or growing itself. "Morale," "commitment to the organization," personnel turnover and absenteeism, and member satisfaction have all been cited as effectiveness metrics in various situations. Except for organizational productivity, virtually every metric employed as a criterion for organizational success has been shown to be insufficient and unsatisfactory. Previous findings, for example, on "morale" and member satisfaction in relation to efficacy (as assessed by productivity) have generally been inconsistent, non-significant, or difficult to analyze and understand. It's the same with turnover and absenteeism. The differential sensitivity of these two variables to such "third" considerations as the nature and volume of work to be processed, organizational level affected, and season of occurrence, apart from the degree of such occurrence, is a major problem in using these two variables as effectiveness criteria. In light of many unanticipated external swings, such as fluctuations in the general economy, markets, sales, and pricing, net profit is also a bad criterion.

In light of these and other shortcomings, the function of other potential organizational performance factors should be investigated. In addition to productivity, Kahn and Morse have proposed the factors of organizational flexibility and member potential maximization, although no research has been done in this area. Bass has suggested that the value of an organization to its members, as well as the value of the organization and its members to society, be used as a criterion in other places. However, it is better to study the concept of organizational efficiency from the standpoint of the system itself—that is, the entire organization in question—rather than from the perspective of some of its components or the larger society, for theoretical reasons. In addition, proposed criteria should be system-relevant and cross-organizational in nature. Furthermore, it is desirable if such criteria are derived from a cohesive framework that can effectively link the concept of organizational effectiveness.

Almost all of the elements that have been used as effectiveness criteria have a direct or indirect link to organizational goals. On the other hand, this connection is only a prerequisite. Not every component that meets this condition is suitable. Many cannot be extended across organizations (for example, some organizations have no problems with turnover or absenteeism, and some may even be overstaffed), and many do not logically conform to a widely held model of organizations.

We believe that all groups seek to attain certain goals and generate group goods by manipulating available animate and inanimate resources. As a result, definitions of organizational success must take into account these two aspects: an organization's objectives and the means by which it sustains itself and achieves its goals, particularly those means that typically become functionally autonomous (i.e., that come to assume the character of and function as organizational goals). In other words, in the study of organizational performance, the question of organizational means and ends must be addressed. The most common and important common objectives of organizations, assuming that the organizational system maintains itself, are: (a) high output in the sense of achieving the end results for which the organization is designed,

whether quantitatively or qualitatively; (b) ability to absorb and assimilate relevant endogenous and exogenous changes, or the ability of the organization to keep up with the times without jeopardizing its integrity; and (c) preservation of the organization's integrity. We should be able to examine organizational success in a way that is both possible and fruitful if we focus our criteria variables on these broad elements of organization.

We define organizational effectiveness as the extent to which, given specific resources and means, an organization as a social system achieves its goals without depleting its resources or putting excessive pressure on its members. This definition of effectiveness includes the following general criteria: (1) organizational productivity; (2) organizational flexibility, as evidenced by successful internal organizational changes and externally imposed change adaption; and (3) the absence of intra-organizational strain or conflict between organizational subgroups. These three criteria are both related to an organization's means-to-end dimension and might potentially apply to nearly all of them. The first is concerned with the organization's progress toward its goals (locomotion); the others are concerned with organizational survival requirements in the face of external and internal unpredictability, as well as the dimension of organizational means preservation (or incapacitation). We applied these criteria to the study of a large-scale organization to examine the existing technique, which we believe is particularly suited to our research due to its structure's simplicity.

There are five categories in which these various methods to effectiveness can be classified. To put it another way, theorists have proposed five methods for assessing organizational efficiency.

Goals attainment approach, system resource approach, internal process approach, strategic constituencies approach, and conflicting values approach are all examples of these approaches.

Goal Attainment Approach

The first strategy is goal attainment, which is defined by the identification of performance objectives. According to the goals model, an organization's efficiency is determined by how well it achieves its goals. The objective method, according to Weese, is the most commonly used (1997). It measures an organization's effectiveness by how well it achieves its objectives. It is thought to be the "logical approach" to studying organizational effectiveness.

The ability to succeed in one or more areas is characterized as effectiveness. The goal attainment theory asserts that an organization's effectiveness should be assessed by how well it achieves its end goals. Goals must be easily recognized, measurable, and attainable within a reasonable time frame. The goal-oriented approach, however, has flaws. The most obvious example is when an organization has many goals that conflict with one another.

Goal shifts can be caused by an organization's interactions with its environment, internal changes, or external forces. When the goals of an organization are "unclear, unstable, and in contradiction with one another." Using the goal method, measuring organizational success becomes extremely challenging. In other words, one of the first techniques to analyzing organizational achievement, particularly in sport organizations, was the goals method. This approach focuses on a company's objectives or output, as well as how successfully it achieves those objectives. As a result, the final standing of a national sport team in a global championship would demonstrate the national sport organization's effectiveness (NSO). Early studies of organizational performance in sports organizations used the objective approach, and they tended to focus on, or at least highlight, the potential significance of win-loss records as a measure of effectiveness.

Trail and Chelladurai (2000) looked into the value that instructors and students place on intercollegiate athletics' goals and methods. The findings revealed disparities in the relative relevance of these goals and procedures to professors, students, males, and females. Clearly, this strategy has some appeal for elite-level sport, but it is less beneficial for mass participation and the full of organizational responsibilities. The flaws in this approach are readily apparent in the sporting arena. That is, the proclivity to evaluate competence in terms of gold medals and international competition success is far too strong to ignore. Administrators' myopic perceptions of success litter much of sport's history.

System Resource Approach
The second framework is the system resource approach. The system resources model was introduced by Yuchtman and Seashore (1967), who defined effectiveness as "the organization's ability, in either absolute or relative terms, to exploit its environment in the acquisition of scarce and valuable resources." This notion of efficacy centered on an organization's ability to draw resources to ensure survivability, as is the case with systems theory in general. The application of the systems model is contingent on drawing critical resources and maintaining a harmonious relationship with the environment.

Effectiveness is defined as the ability to extract scarce and valuable resources from the environment. The final objectives are not neglected, but they are only one component of a larger set of criteria. It emphasizes characteristics that will help the organization survive in the long run.

As a result, the National Sport Organization (NSO) would be judged effective if it could raise considerable finances for its activities through corporate and private donations. If a school of physical education can enroll a significant number of students and/or recruit highly qualified staff members, it will be regarded effective. Because resources are required to meet the organization's goals, it is thought that the bigger the resources, the greater the organizational effectiveness.

Because public funds are used to maintain organizational stability, the genuine nature of this interdependence is "manufactured" in the case of national and state sporting organizations. Similarly, sporting organizations have traditionally been laser-focused in their pursuit of sponsorship cash, often at the expense of more comprehensive integrated marketing tactics. The ability to measure some inputs and outputs is emphasized in this strategy, but this is not always a measure of efficacy. Frisby (1986) built on previous work in this area by combining the goal and systems resource approaches. The world ranking for each sporting organization's Olympic team or teams, the Olympic team's percentage ranking, and the most recent change in world ranking were used in the target model. Among the system resource concerns explored were an examination of the operating budgets and an increase in funding from Sport Canada (federal government department responsible for sport in Canada).

Frisby's research found only weak positive connections between aim and system resource model factors. According to the study, higher operating costs were linked to effective results in international competitiveness. Chelladurai, Szyszlo, and Haggerty examined the effectiveness of Canadian NSOs using the systems resource method (1987). "By superimposing the separate domains of elite and mass sport on the systemic input-throughput-output cycle to give six dimensions of effectiveness—input-mass, input elite, throughput mass, throughput-elite, output-mass, and output-elite," according to the study's theoretical framework. Despite the fact that the empirical findings did not entirely support the theoretical framework of NSO efficacy, the research was an important step toward a better understanding of Canadian NSO operations.

Internal Process Approach
The internal process approach is the third framework. Effective operations, according to this paradigm, are those that may provide a harmonious and efficient internal environment. Internal efficiency, coordination, motivation, as well as employee satisfaction are all aspects of effectiveness. The model's flaws, however, are not just in its one-sided perspective of efficacy (in which crucial variables such as resources, outputs, and client or participant satisfaction are overlooked), but also in identifying and assessing valued internal processes. When compared to, say, the goal attainment method, factors like trust, integrated systems, and smooth operating are seen as more specific metrics of organizational effectiveness. Because they convert an organization's inputs into desired outputs, the process model emphasizes internal logic and consistency among the organization's throughput processes.

The primary premise of this strategy is that there is a direct correlation between internal procedures (such as decision-making and staffing) and desired outcomes. Goal attainment, systems resource, and internal process models of effectiveness all fail to account for the political side of organizations, in addition to the aforementioned concerns. Non-profit organizations, such as Hellenic national sporting organizations (NSOs), are political entities in which a diverse group of stakeholders (volunteers, coaches, paid

administrative staff, state representatives, and so on) work together to achieve organizational goals and meet their needs or expectations. In these terms, numerous constituency models can provide a more accurate picture of an organization's effectiveness. This is because strategic constituent groups, in actuality, dictate how organizations run and what is deemed effective or ineffective.

The input-throughput-output cycle was introduced by Chelladurai (1987), as well as the fact that an open system view of organizations. This paradigm combined three concepts of effectiveness: aim, system resources, and process, all of which focused on the output, input, and throughput sectors of an organization, respectively. Connolly et al. (1980) stated that earlier models, such as the goal approach and various systems approaches, are insufficient since they only use a single set of evaluation criteria. The multiple constituency models recognize that organizations have multiple constituencies or stakeholders who evaluate effectiveness in diverse ways, rather than viewing it as a single assertion.

Strategic Constituencies Approach

The fourth framework, dubbed the strategic constituencies approach, focuses on human resources. According to Connolly, Conlon, and Deutsch (1980), determining the major stakeholder's position on efficacy is critical. The multiple-constituency model is based on "a view of organizational effectiveness in which several (potentially many) different effectiveness statements can be made about the focal organization, reflecting the criterion sets of different individuals and groups we will refer to as constituencies," according to Connolly *et al*., (1980).

Effectiveness is defined as the ability to serve various strategic constituencies both within and beyond the company, according to the Constituencies method. It is the ability to meet the needs of those in its immediate environment who must support it in order for it to survive. Its goal is to evaluate only those aspects of the environment that could jeopardize the organization's survival.

A few scholars argue that considering the political perspective on effectiveness is critical, and that the multiple-constituency method is a viable alternative for analyzing effectiveness in both commercial and non-profit organizations.

Because various constituent groups (both internal and external) have diverse viewpoints on what the company should be doing, they are likely to judge organizational effectiveness differently.

Naturally, the question of which of these perspectives should take precedence in determining organizational efficiency arises. Using this concept, a faculty's administration may judge the unit as effective, but students may rate the faculty as ineffective. Both of these assessments are correct. Each constituent group may take a distinct view of the organization's operations. Each constituent group contributed in some way, whether as an employee, a board member, a sponsor, a player, an official, or a volunteer. Cameron (1978) conducted an exploratory study in which he interviewed representatives of university internal coalitions (i.e. academic, financial, general, and student affairs administrators, as well as deans and heads of academic departments) and identified nine composite variables relevant to the effectiveness of educational institutions.

Among the topics discussed were student educational satisfaction, academic development, career development, and personal development; faculty and administrator employment satisfaction; professional development and faculty quality; systems openness and community interaction; ability to acquire resources; and organizational health. Despite acknowledging the theoretical value of the multiple constituency approach, researchers such as Chelladurai and Haggerty (1991), Morrow and Chelladurai (1992), Vail (1985), Papadimitriou (2000), Karteroliotis and Papadimitriou (2004) investigate the construct by looking at a small number of constituent groups or imposing effectiveness variables on NSOs. Vail (1985) seeks to determine the relative importance to diverse interest groups of six pre-determined parameters indicating organizational effectiveness in the administrative sector of a representative sample of NSOs (i.e. adaptability, communication, finance, growth, human resources and organizational planning).

Competing values approach
The Competing Values Model has been dubbed a "universal paradigm" for business success (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1981). The Model's overall paradigmatic stance arises from the fact that it articulates major perspectives on organizational performance held by well-known experts in the field.

That argument is backed up by the Model's broad application in organizational and management studies. The Competing Principles Model outlines how a business functions, how people cooperate, and what the company's core values are.

Many alternative organizational performance metrics have been proposed, with one of the most widely used, based on Quinn's competing value framework, being used in a range of national contexts. In the competing values paradigm, organizational success is portrayed as paradoxical and contradictory by nature, particularly in terms of seemingly mutually opposing value dimensions such as flexibility vs control and internal vs external focus. The competing values framework was applied to a variety of organizational phenomena, including leadership, organizational commitment, organizational culture, and decision-making, yielding a universal measure for trans-organizational analysis at several levels.

The competing value technique refers to the criteria you value and utilize to assess an organization's effectiveness. Return on investment, new product innovation, market share, and employment security are all examples of these.

Gap in literature
Despite all of the debates concerning a leader's social intelligence and organizational effectiveness, as well as other relevant characteristics, little study on the subject of social intelligence and organizational effectiveness in the workplace has been done. This study provides empirical evidence that there is a link between social intelligence and organizational effectiveness. As a result, the study has filled a gap in the literature that previously existed, such as studies linking leaders' social intelligence (downward management) with organizational effectiveness.

SUMMARY
The study found out that there is a relationship between leader social intelligence and organizational effectiveness. It is proposed that a manager's social intelligence be measured and that a plan be developed to help him or her improve it.

CONCLUSIONS
Social intelligence as a concept was developed in an effort to explain variations in outcome measures (i.e. behavior) (Bosman, 2003), and the paper shows how social intelligence is essential for effective leadership through a literature review. Contemporary research on intelligence offers renewed potential for leadership trait research. Leadership is embedded in a social context, and the idea of social intelligence as a required leadership trait is a powerful one (Bosman, 2003). Because social intelligence develops over a lifetime of learning, understanding and developing it requires more than cognitive learning such as reading and hearing information (although these are helpful as well) (Phipps, 2007).

Individuals who are socially intelligent are thought to have a richer, more meaningful existence than those who have abbreviated emotive experiences. Aspects of social intelligence have also been linked to improved social problem-solving ability, seasoned leadership, and favorable interpersonal experiences (Dong, et al. 2008). People who learn to improve their own social intelligence talents are more successful in growing the creativity and productivity of those they supervise, and as a result, their leadership qualities are more recognized.

Social intelligence elements help to relieve stress by resolving dispute, establishing understanding and relationships, and promoting stability and cooperation (Kolski-Anderaco, 2010). Accordingly, social intelligence enables knowledge managers to enhance their collective intelligence, yielding greater productivity levels. What's more, managers with high social intelligence seem to be success in effective

cooperation, problem-solving, and increasing creativity. Research evidence indicates that social intelligence is linked to leader effectiveness and is able to be improved through training interventions.

RECOMMENDATIONS

According to this study, social intelligence can serve as a basis for leadership effectiveness and success, as well as aid enable it. Consequently, it is recommended that a manager's social intelligence be measured and that he or she be assisted in developing a plan to improve it.

Leaders are advised to improve their social intelligence skills in order to increase their effectiveness. Apart from leaders, even subordinates should learn social intelligence in organization as a means of improving social interaction between and or among the workers which in turn can lead to harmony at work.

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