

Fostering Emotional and Social Intelligence in Organizations

[CRAIG R. SEAL](#)

Niagara University

[RICHARD E. BOYATZIS](#)

Case Western Reserve University

[JAMES R. BAILEY](#)

George Washington University

This paper integrates diverse research to provide a theoretical model of the process whereby emotional and social intelligence (ESI) is fostered in organizations. The purpose of this paper is to provide: (1) an overview of the theory of ESI, including the historical contributions and current conceptualizations; (2) the impact of ESI on performance, including the research evidence and examples of organizations using ESI; (3) developing ESI competencies and a model for desirable, sustainable change; and (4) a call to action for education and management, including guidelines for fostering ESI in organizations. Unlike general intelligence or personality, the key assumption and rationale for the current paper is that ESI can be developed. Increasing ESI competencies through the learning process can guide program design, implementation, and measurement for scholars and practitioners. Research has demonstrated that ESI competencies may be developed through a process of desirable, sustainable change called Intentional Change Theory (ICT).

Key Words: Emotional and Social Intelligence (ESI), Emotional Intelligence, Social Intelligence, Competency, Change, Education, Leadership, and Management

Fostering Emotional and Social Intelligence in Organizations

Emotional and social intelligence (ESI) are relatively recent labels to a 35 year old research tradition. This tradition examined behavioral competencies and their impact on performance. Building upon longitudinal and predictive competency data, and a multidisciplinary approach that includes neurology, biology, and psychology, ESI has demonstrated promise in impacting the effectiveness of today's organizations.

The purpose of this paper is to provide: (1) an overview of the theory of ESI, including the historical contributions and current conceptualizations; (2) the impact of ESI on performance, including the research evidence and examples of organizations using ESI; (3) developing ESI competencies and a model for desirable, sustainable change; and (4) a call to action for education and management, including guidelines for fostering ESI in organizations.

Organizations who have successfully utilized ESI competencies for improved performance include the U.S. Air Force, L'Oreal, Met Life, Egon Zehnder International, Tandem Computers, and American Express among others.

Part 1—The Past: ESI Theory

Social, Personal, and Practical Intelligence

Although the roots of our understanding of emotional and social intelligence (ESI) have been debated, it is generally agreed that philosophers and social scientists have long wrestled with the question of emotional/social aspects of human behavior and their relative contributions to performance. Early contributions providing the theoretical foundation for ESI include Thorndike's (1920) conception of *social intelligence*, McClelland's (1973) and Boyatzis' (1982) *competencies*, Gardner's (1983) *personal intelligences*, and Sternberg's (1985) *practical intelligence*.

Thorndike (1920) suggested three distinct types of intelligence: (1) abstract intelligence; (2) mechanical intelligence; and (3) social intelligence. Although social intelligence resonated intuitively, psychologists focused on the first aspect, abstract or scholastic intelligence, after early attempts to refine and measure social intelligence proved unsuccessful. Although several early studies attempted to overcome the psychometric and theoretical limitations to distinguish social from traditional intelligence, the results were mixed at best.

McClelland (1973) and Boyatzis (1982) introduced an inductive way of determining the underlying capabilities of a person in producing effective performance. The characteristics, called competencies, had both an unconscious intent and alternate behavior outcomes, depending on the situational demands. The competencies that distinguished outstanding performance in management, leadership, and professional jobs in many countries included abilities in the personal, social, and cognitive arena.

Gardner (1983) is often credited with reframing the debate and spawning several new scientific inquiries into alternatives to traditional intelligence. Gardner (1983) proposed a new, detailed, multimodel of intelligence along seven distinct constructs: (1) linguistic; (2) logical; (3) musical; (4) kinesthetic; (5) visual/spatial; (6) interpersonal; and (7) intrapersonal. The interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences are of particular interest to ESI, legitimizing the potential theoretical orientations of Thorndike's (1920) social intelligence, and providing the content domain for most contemporary definitions of ESI.

Sternberg (1985) continued the "social intelligence" tradition, developing a theory of successful intelligence, defined as those "who recognize their strengths and weaknesses and who capitalize on their strengths while at the same time compensating for or correcting their weaknesses" (Hedlund & Sternberg, 2000, p. 138). For Sternberg, there were three broad types of abilities that derive from successful intelligence: (1) analytic; (2) creative; and (3) practical. It is practical intelligence that is most applicable to ESI, providing researchers with new hope in being able to distinguish both operationally and conceptually, between traditional and emotional/social aspects of intelligence and their relative contributions towards success.

Emotional Intelligence

The modern ESI construct credits Bar-On (1985) with establishing the link between social and emotional intelligence, Salovey and Mayer (1990) with originating the term and general construct of emotional intelligence (EI), and Goleman (1995) with popularizing the ESI construct.

Bar-On (1985) is credited as the first author to coin the term emotional quotient (EQ), often used interchangeably with EI. He helped provide the theoretical link between earlier conceptions of social intelligence (SI) and later conceptions of EI. Bar-On (1985) proposed that overall emotional and social functioning could be measured using 15 competencies that factor into the five key components: (1) intrapersonal; (2) interpersonal; (3) stress management; (4) adaptability; and (5) general mood. The greater the number of effective EQ competencies, then “the more positive the prediction for effective functioning in meeting environmental demands and pressures” (Bar-On, 2000, p. 366).

Although Bar-On (1985) was the first to use the EQ designation, Salovey and Mayer (1990) are frequently cited as the originators of the modern EI construct. Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined EI as “the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (p. 189). Salovey and Mayer (1990) argued that social intelligence provides the overall theoretical justification for the narrower scope of EI, which relates to an individual’s ability to correctly identify emotions in him/herself and others, to distinguish between various emotions, and use this knowledge to appropriately respond to the environment.

Similar to Bar-On (1985), the authors maintained that EI is best understood as ability, distinct from other types of intelligence, but contributing to one’s overall cognitive capacity to process and capitalize on information. According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), emotional intelligence reflects not a single trait or ability but, rather, a composite of distinct emotional reasoning abilities: perceiving, understanding, and regulating emotions.

Whereas Salovey and Mayer (1990) coined the phrase “emotional intelligence,” it is Goleman (1995; 1998) who popularized the concept, placing EI into the general culture and spawning a series of commentary and debates regarding the nature and impact of EI on human capabilities. For better or worse, EI was now a contemporary construct, often incorporated into business, consulting, counseling, and education, due in large part to the influence of Goleman (1995; 1998). It is precisely this integration into the larger cultural fabric that necessitates continued study of the potential promise of EI.

Goleman’s (1995; 1998) original construct linked the earlier work of Boyatzis (1982) and Spencer and Spencer (1993) on competencies to emerging research in affective neuroscience and other streams of research in psychology. Boyatzis and Goleman (2006) focused on four broad clusters of behaviors within EI: (1) self-awareness; (2) self-management; (3) social awareness; and (4) relationship management, with 18 underlying competencies.

The authors maintained that EI is best understood as a competency, focusing on behaviors that lead to greater social and emotional functioning. According to Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee (2000), EI is observed “when a person demonstrates the competencies that constitute self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills at appropriate times and ways in sufficient frequency to be effective in the situation” (p. 344).

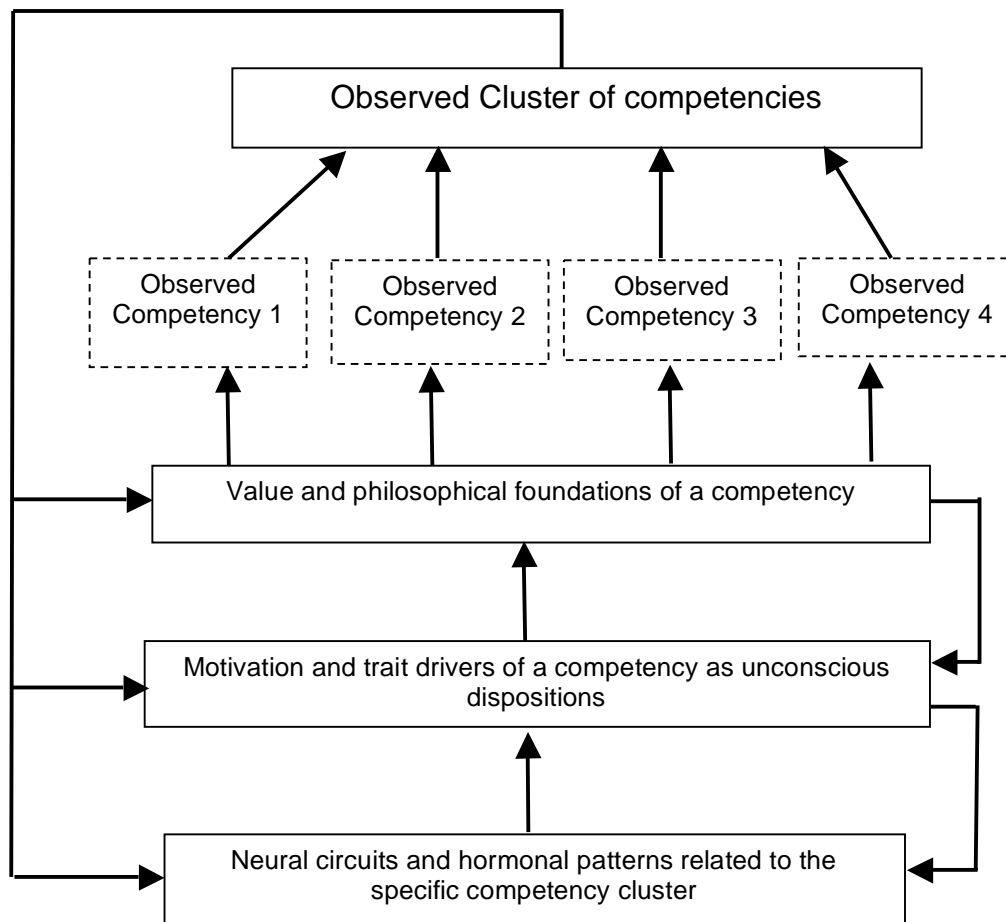
Competencies

The competency paradigm emerged from a related stream of research to emotional and social intelligence, focusing on explaining and predicting effectiveness in various occupations, often with a primary emphasis on managers, leaders, and professionals (McClelland, Baldwin, Bronfenbrenner, & Strodbeck 1958; McClelland, 1973; Bray, Campbell, & Grant, 1974; Boyatzis, 1982; Luthans, Hodgetts, & Rosenkrantz, 1988; Kotter, 1982; Thornton & Byham, 1982; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). In this “competency” approach, specific capabilities that linked explanation and prediction of performance were identified and validated against effectiveness measures and then articulated as competencies.

In the purest sense, a competency is defined as a capability or ability that leads to a successful outcome. It is a set of related but distinct sets of behaviors organized around an underlying purpose or goal, called the “intent.” Competencies, therefore, are the result of appropriate behaviors used effectively in the situation or time to further the underlying goal or purpose that emerges from the intent. For example, listening to someone and asking him or her questions are several behaviors. A person can demonstrate these behaviors for multiple reasons or to various intended ends. A person can ask questions and listen to someone to ingratiate him or herself or to appear interested, thereby gaining standing in the other person’s view. Or a person can ask questions and listen to someone because he or she is interested in understanding this other person, his or her priorities, or thoughts in a situation. When used successfully, the latter is a demonstration of *empathy*. The underlying intent is to understand the person. Meanwhile, the former underlying intent is to gain standing or impact in the person’s view, elements of a demonstration of *influence*.

The specification of a competency emerges from a theory of performance, as shown below, that incorporates and predicts the relationship among a person’s: (a) neural circuits and endocrine (i.e. hormonal) processes; (b) unconscious dispositions called motives and traits; (c) values and operating philosophy; (d) observed separate competencies; and (e) competency clusters.

This conceptualization requires a more holistic perspective than is often taken. When integrating the physiological level with the psychological and behavioral levels, a more comprehensive view of human performance emerges. The evidence of the causal sequence predicted in this theory is emerging but is slow to develop due to the disparate nature of the different fields studying distinct parts of the model. However, more recently, authors have begun to redefine EI to better incorporate this cross-disciplinary approach to understanding human behavior.



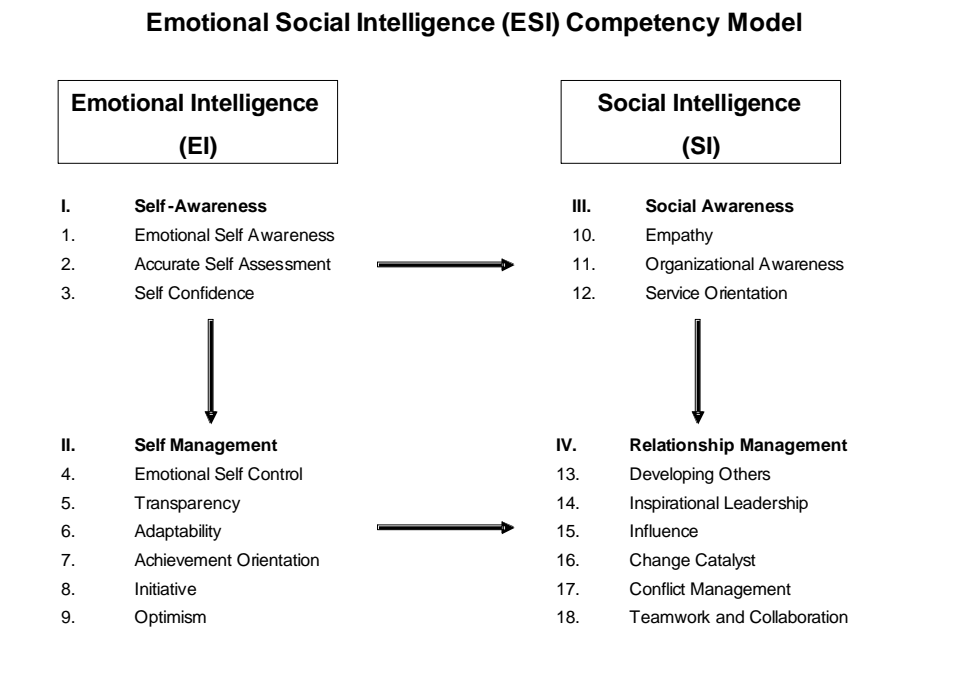
Emotional and Social Intelligence Competencies

In their latest works, Goleman (2006) and Boyatzis and Goleman (2006) have reclassified their array of competencies and clusters into two distinct aspects. The interpersonal clusters (social awareness and relationship management) have been relabeled social intelligence (SI) competencies; and the intrapersonal clusters (self-awareness and self-management) have been relabeled emotional intelligence (EI) competencies. The new term, *emotional and social intelligence* (ESI) helps to differentiate the behavioral manifestations of the intrapersonal awareness and management of emotions within the self (EI) from the behavioral manifestations of the interpersonal awareness of others’ emotions, needs, thoughts, and perceptions as well as navigate the larger social environment and working with others (SI).

This integrated concept of ESI offers more than a convenient framework for describing human dispositions—it offers a theoretical structure for the organization of personality and linking it to a theory of action and job performance. As mentioned earlier, a competency is an “underlying characteristic of the person that leads to or causes effective or superior performance” (Boyatzis, 1982, p. 21), therefore, an *ESI competency is an ability to recognize, understand, and use emotional information about oneself (EI) or others (SI) that leads to or causes effective or superior performance*. This definition can be elaborated to “how people handle themselves and their relationships” (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002), that is, ESI is a set of competencies, or abilities, organized along two distinct aspect (emotional and social) in how a person: (a) is

aware of himself/herself; (b) manages him/herself; (c) is aware of others; and (d) manages his/her relationships with others.

Building upon and integrating the competency research, Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) presented a model of ESI with 18 competencies arrayed in four clusters and two aspects (Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer & Spencer, 1993; Rosier, 1994-1997; Goleman, 1998). The updated ESI model is illustrated below:



Although there may be a tendency for researchers and practitioners to define ESI as a single construct, this tendency may be misguided, due to attribution and articulation.

The first issue is the possible attribution of a halo effect, that is, the tendency to believe that more effective people have the vital ingredients for success invites the attribution of a halo effect. For example, person A is effective, therefore she has all of the right stuff, such as brains, savvy, and style. Similar to the issue of finding the best “focal point” with which to look at something, the dilemma of finding the best level of detail in defining constructs with which to build a theory of performance may ultimately become an issue of which focal point to select. With regard to ESI, the most helpful focal point for the description and study of performance is the various specific competencies, or abilities that can be empirically, causally related to effectiveness *and* describe the *clusters* within which these competencies are organized. But we must start with the competencies.

Second, the articulation of one overall ESI might be deceptive and suggest a close association with cognitive capacity; traditionally defined “intelligence” or what psychologists often call “g” referring to general cognitive ability (Davies, Stankov & Roberts, 1998; Ackerman & Heggestad, 1997). The latter would not only be confusing, but would additionally raise the question as to

what one is calling ESI and whether it is nothing more than an element of previously defined intelligence or cognitive ability.

As suggested in Boyatzis (1982), clusters of competencies appear to hold more promise in understanding the “best fit” than merely single competencies. Using one or two competencies from each of the clusters is far more effective than using all of the competencies within a cluster. This finding was cross-validated by McClelland (1999) in predicting performance of presidents of divisions of a food company and then by Boyatzis (2005) for leaders in a multinational professional service firm.

The anchor for understanding which behaviors and which intents are relevant in a situation emerges from predicting effectiveness. The construction of the specific competency is a matter of relating different behaviors that are considered alternate manifestations of the same underlying intent. They are organized primarily, or more accurately initially, by the similarity of the consequence of the use of these behaviors in social or work settings. For example, as we said earlier, the competency called *empathy* can be *observed* by watching someone listen to others or ask questions about his or her feelings and thoughts. If one is demonstrating empathy, the person would be undertaking these acts with the intent of *trying to understand another person*. On the other hand, someone could *demonstrate* these acts while listening to his or her boss, to *help ingratiate* him or herself to their supervisor to facilitate requesting a later reward, which is likely a demonstration of another competency, *influence*.

A theory of performance, therefore, is the basis for the concept of competency. Maximal performance opportunities occur when the person’s individual characteristics are consistent with the job demands and the organizational environment (Boyatzis, 1982). The theory used in this approach is a basic contingency theory, as shown in Figure 3.

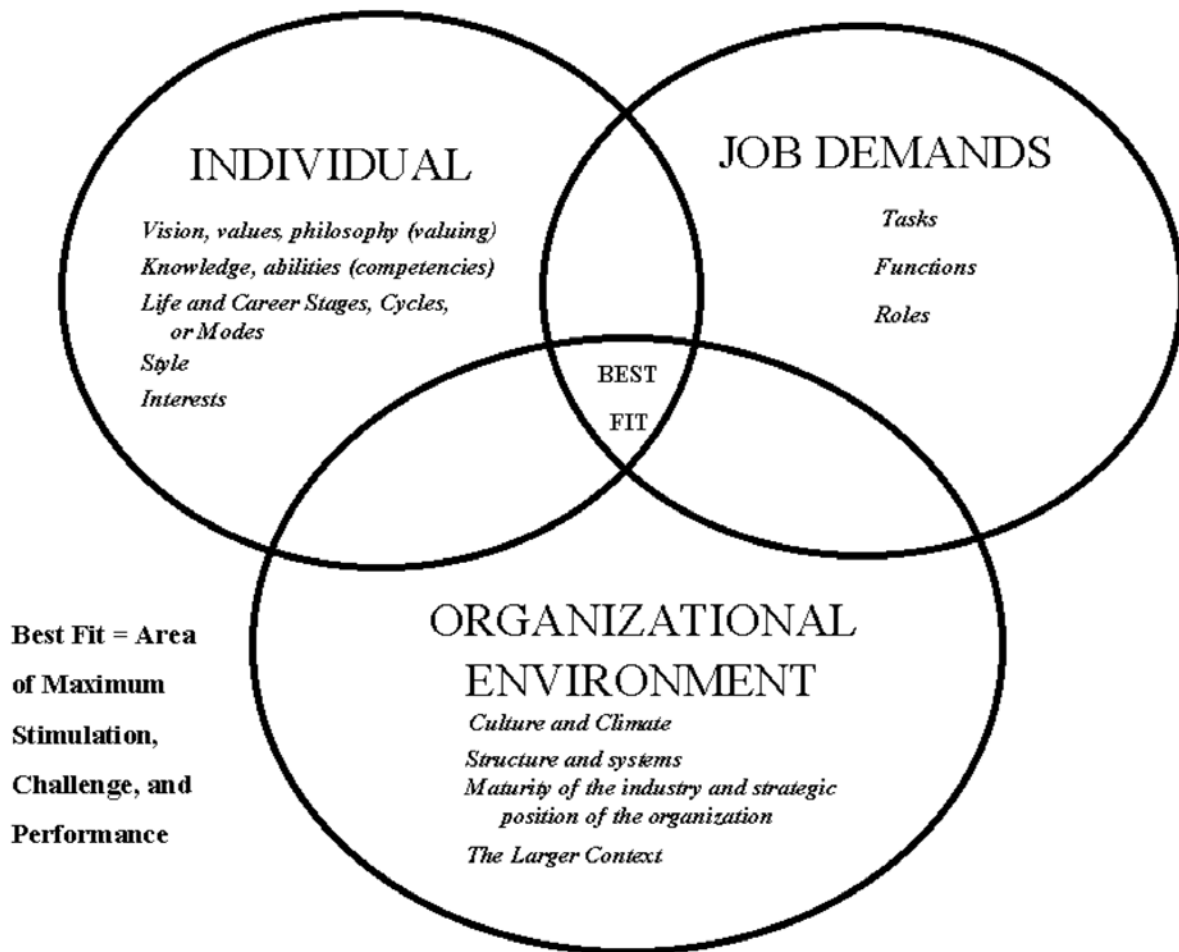
The individual characteristics are described by his or her values (including personal philosophy and vision), competencies (knowledge, skills, and abilities), and interests (and styles of operating). Job demands can be described by the role responsibilities, tasks that need to be performed, and the goals and function of the position in the organization. Aspects of the organizational environment that are predicted to have important impact on the demonstration of competencies include the culture and climate, structure and systems, maturity of the industry, the strategic positioning of the organization within the industry, and aspects of the larger context (including economic, political, cultural, and social surroundings and developments).

Part 2—The Present: ESI and Performance

The Evidence for ESI

The evidence for the potential impact of the underlying assumptions of ESI is compelling. According to Cherniss (2000), two-thirds of competencies linked to superior performance in the workplace are emotional or social in nature. More specifically to ESI, many organizations recognize ESI as a set of emotional competencies that allow people to use emotions to facilitate desired outcomes (Fox & Spector, 2000). As argued by Fisher and Ashkanasy (2000), the best rationale for the potential importance of ESI is that “the study of emotions in the workplace has

CONTINGENCY THEORY OF ACTION & JOB PERFORMANCE (Boyatzis, 1982)



the potential to add to our understanding of behavior in organizations” (p. 123). The list of behaviors potentially impacted by ESI includes such diverse outcomes as job satisfaction (Fisher, 2000), positive work attitudes (Carmeli, 2003), leadership potential (Higgs & Aitken, 2003), self-efficacy (Gundlach, Martinko, & Douglas, 2003), and change management (Mayer & Caruso, 2002). Given these diverse behavioral outcomes, it is clear that ESI may encompass a key career success factor for employees today.

Perhaps the most compelling evidence of career impact was an exploratory, longitudinal study conducted by Dulewicz and Higgs (2000). Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) examined the influence of ESI on career advancement using a sample of general managers (GMs), finding that GMs with higher levels of emotional competencies were more likely to have advanced their careers, above and beyond what was predicted through cognitive and personality measures alone. This presents a powerful argument in favor of the importance of ESI, at least as a factor in career advancement.

Although the potential impact on individual personnel decisions has fostered the majority of the research on ESI, there are indications that ESI is not limited to the individual unit of analysis. Expanding on the individual performance assumption, there is now evidence that ESI may impact multiple levels of the organization, including teams and groups (Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Douglas, Frink, & Ferris, 2004; Offermann, Bailey, Vasilopoulos, Seal, & Sass, 2004); organizational culture (Mayer & Caruso 2002; Gabriel & Griffiths, 2002) and economic outcomes of the firm (Tomer, 2003). How well a person can recognize and manage his or her emotions and the emotions of others may explain a significant amount of the variance in the overall effectiveness of today's organizations.

Examples of ESI in Action

In support of the prior empirical examples, Cherniss (2006), through the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, has collected a compelling set of *business cases* that demonstrate the utility of ESI competencies in action, including such notable organizations as the U.S. Air Force, L'Oreal, Met Life, Egon Zehnder International, Tandem Computers, and American Express, among others.

Focusing on the practical implication of ESI, recent practitioner based studies have demonstrated the impact of using ESI competencies to differentiate high performing partners in a multinational consulting firm (Boyatzis, 1999), distinguish stars from average executives in global companies (Spencer, McClelland, & Kelner, 1997), select sales agents to reduce turnover (Spencer & Spencer, 1993), and increase retention and performance in executive selection (McClelland, 1999). The common element in each case was the application of underlying ESI competencies to address specific organizational issues. The results continue to demonstrate the significant positive impact of ESI on organizational performance.

Part 3—The Future: ESI and Development

Developing ESI Competencies

As mentioned earlier, one of the key assumptions associated with ESI, and the rationale for the current paper and the promise to employers, is the potential for the construct to be developed. Contrasting personality and general intelligence, which are largely established in childhood and remain relatively stable through adulthood, ESI has been postulated with the potential for development through the learning process. Although research has shown that ESI may in fact increase through targeted development practices, the actual process, that is how the increase is achieved, has largely remained unexplored. Initial research on ESI has theorized that at worst ESI should develop as part of the normal development process (i.e. as a person ages) and at best the development process may be influenced through focused training. If ESI can be learned, then the questions regarding understanding, designing, and implementing programs becomes critical to both researchers and practitioners.

Learning is a relatively permanent change in the frequency of occurrence of a specific individual behavior that occurs as a result of experience, including the acquisition of knowledge, skills,

and/or understanding. Kolb (1984) defines learning as “the process whereby knowledge is created through transformation of experience” (p. 41). Learning in general, and experiential learning in particular, draws upon our understanding of human development and is defined as a process whereby individuals respond to “contextual demands” (Kolb & Kolb, 2005, p. 194). The contextual demands refer to the “patterns of transaction between the individual and his or her environment” (Kolb, 1984, p. 63). In other words, we are an amalgam of our heredity, environment, situation, and perhaps most importantly our choices.

Additionally, it is now the contention of leading researchers in affective neuroscience and genetic expression that the transformation of experience overtakes genetic dispositions in determining the biological basis of behavior for adults (Williams et al., 1997; Davidson, 2003). This would suggest that a person’s experience, and his or her arousal effect, rewire neural circuits and tendencies to invoke certain neuro-endocrine pathways. In terms of the ESI model, that means experience would not only change the potential nature of the competencies themselves (e.g. utilizing different behaviors and/or intents), but may also create deeper levels of change to the underlying values, motivations, and even the neural pathways themselves. The use of one’s competencies (i.e. behavior in specific settings in life to further an individual’s goals) becomes an arousal that over time creates different dispositions, even at the biological level. Competencies foster learning, creating a relatively permanent change in the frequency of occurrence of a specific individual behavior that occurs as a result of experience.

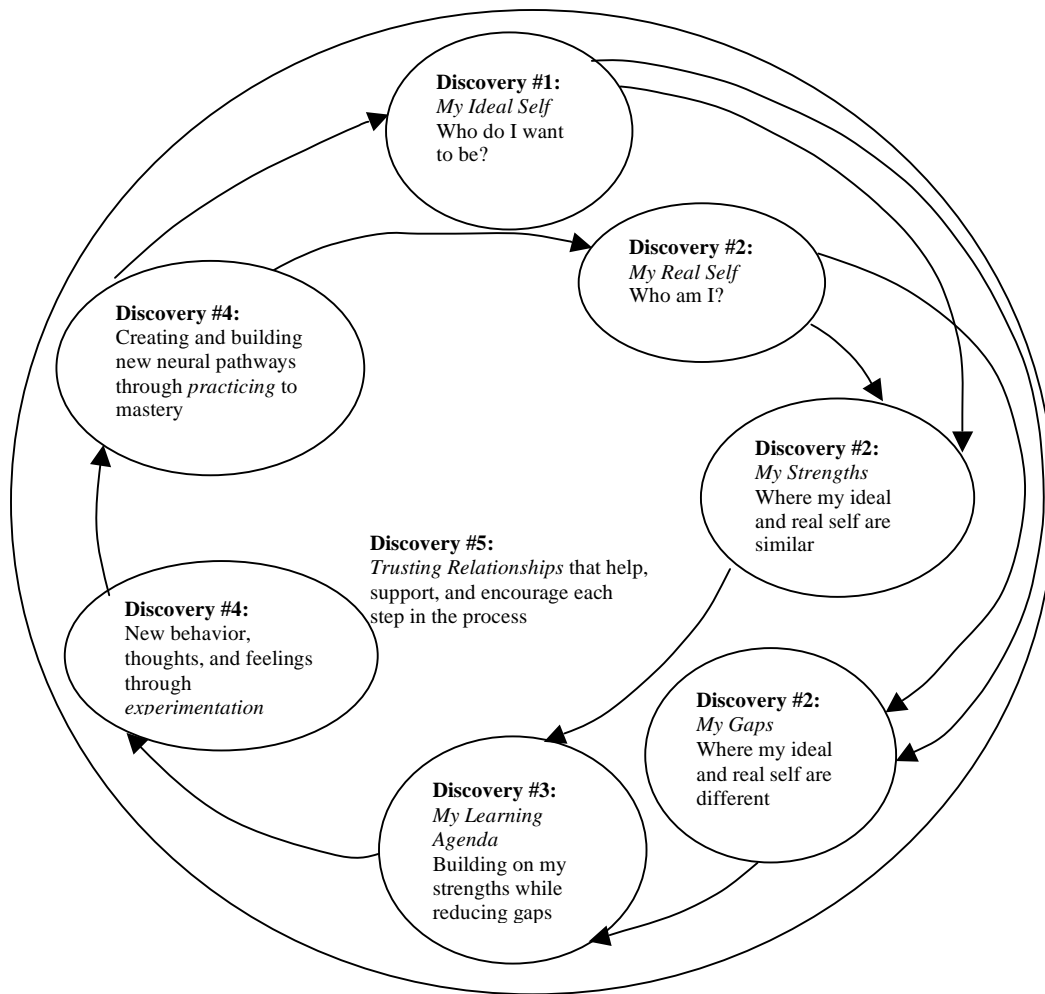
Behavioral Change Model: Intentional Change Theory

Intentional Change Theory (ICT) describes the essential components and process of *desirable, sustainable* change in one’s behavior, thoughts, feelings, and perceptions. ICT is the modern equivalent of Self-Directed Learning (Boyatzis, 1999; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Boyatzis, 2006). The “change” may be in a person’s behaviors or intentions (i.e. competencies). It is “desired” in that the person wishes it so or would like it to occur. It is “sustainable” in that it endures—lasts a relatively long time. A “desirable, sustainable change” may also include the desire to maintain a current desirable state, relationship, or habit.

Desired sustainable changes in an individual’s behavior, thoughts, feelings, or perceptions are, on the whole, discontinuous. Changes in a person’s career, even those desired, will often be discontinuous. So whether we are describing the career itself or the changes a person makes to enable a development of his/her career, the change process is not smooth. The changes appear as emergent or catastrophic changes over time and effort, which is an essential component of complex systems (Casti, 1994). The experience is one of an epiphany or discovery (Boyatzis, 1983). Awareness or mindfulness of self and context, both emotionally and socially, (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005) is inversely proportionate to the degree of surprise or discovery. When one is highly aware, he/she will experience the change process as more of a set of smooth transitions. One of the underlying goals of the ICT process (as outlined below) is to help individuals increase awareness, and thereby decrease the discontinuous nature of change.

The same forces that result in discontinuity also often result in the changes being non-linear (Boyatzis, 2006). For example, it is often a common practice in industry to promote an individual to an increased set of duties and responsibilities *prior* to the necessary training to meet

Intentional Change Theory



those new obligations. Therefore, another underlying goal of the ICT process is to create planned change that minimizes the non-linear aspects of change. ICT is a complex system; therefore, *the change process is often non-linear and discontinuous, appearing or being experienced as a set of discoveries or epiphanies.*

Although the process to help facilitate desirable, sustainable change involves a sequence of discontinuities, called discoveries, which function as an iterative cycle in producing the sustainable change at the individual level, the use of a change model helps individuals manage these discontinuities. This is an enhancement of the earlier models developed by Kolb, Winter, and Berlew (1968), Boyatzis and Kolb (1969), and Kolb and Boyatzis (1970a and b). The ICT model is shown graphically below (Boyatzis, 1999, 2001, 2006; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002) and involves the following distinct discovery stages: (1) Ideal Self; (2) Real Self; (3) Learning Agenda; (4) Experimentation and Practicing; and (5) Resonant Relationships.

The “Ideal Self” asks the question “Who do I want to be?” The focus here is on creating a personal vision from the person’s dreams, aspirations, and ideals.

The “Real Self” answers the question “Who am I”? This is an experience of discovery and self-awareness, a comparison of the real self to the Ideal Self resulting in an assessment of one’s strengths and weaknesses. The focus is identifying current strengths that exemplify the ideal (i.e. where the ideal and real self are similar) as well as identifying current gaps between the real and ideal self (i.e. where the ideal and real self are different) in a sense a Personal Balance Sheet of relating the ideal self to who the person is now. The process of uncovering the real self is not always a pleasant one for the individual involved, as it necessitates a frank appraisal of weaknesses. However, it has been demonstrated that honest reduction of uncertain abilities in relation to environmental demands can enhance self-esteem in the long run (Bailey, Strube, Yost & Merbaum, 1994).

The “Learning Agenda” focuses on the question “How do I get there?” This involves creating an action plan that builds on the current strengths while reducing the gaps.

“Experimentation” and “Practicing” involve discovering new behaviors and building new pathways. It is important for the person to attempt new behaviors, thoughts, perceptions, and feelings and then to build upon those that are successful or part of the overall learning agenda to translate skill experimentation to skill mastery. It is through the identification and repetition of behaviors that new neural pathways are established and ultimately successful habits are developed. The process of self-exploration is one over several potential selves that are “enacted” to derive an affective sense of adaptive capabilities (Bailey & Ford, 1994).

Part 4—Actions: ESI Applications

Management Education

In terms of management education, although schools are largely lauded for their ability to prepare students for the technical knowledge necessary for future jobs, they are routinely criticized for not adequately preparing the types of managers and leaders that organizations need. As noted by Jaeger (2003), “few graduate professional program curriculums adequately address the intrapersonal and interpersonal skills that prospective employers want most in their employees and that employees find most useful in their work” (p. 616).

One critical issue in management education that emerges as the result of poor interpersonal and intrapersonal skill training is “derailment.” Derailment is defined by Lombardo and McCauley (1988) as occurring when a promising employee is fired, demoted, or plateaus within their organization, generally due to poor intrapersonal and interpersonal skills. As noted by Tucker, Sojka, Barone, and McCarthy (2000), “Studies of management derailment indicate a lack of emotional intelligence” (p. 332). Going farther, Tucker et al. (2000) argue that “It is important, then, for business schools to consider ways to incorporate emotional intelligence skills into each student’s ‘toolbox’ for enhanced career success” (p. 332).

To better prepare future managers for the changing, team-oriented workplace of the future, management education must be willing to accept the challenge by incorporating these various 'people skills' into their curriculums. In order for future managers to deal with the rapid pace of change and the increasing use of teams (Williams & Sternberg, 1988), management education must respond to the challenge by addressing ESI in their curriculums.

According to Boyatzis, Stubbs and Taylor (2002), outstanding leadership and management performance includes (1) knowledge—what a person can do; (2) competencies—how a person can do it; and (3) motivation—why a person feels the need to do it. Although MBA programs are generally accomplished at providing knowledge and motivation is clearly an individual trait, it is within the realm of competencies that MBA programs often fail, specifically the key clusters of emotional and social competencies: (1) self-management or intrapersonal abilities; and (2) relationship management or interpersonal abilities that form the basis of ESI and which may be most amenable to development.

Whetten and Cameron (2002) identified three intrapersonal management skills (self-awareness, creative problem solving, and stress management) and six interpersonal management skills (supportive communication, conflict management, motivating others, power and influence, empowering and delegating, and teamwork) that were critical to future success. The development of these types of skills is generally done through a de-emphasis of lectures and an emphasis or focus on case studies, role-plays, and experiential exercise methodologies that incorporate reflection. As noted by Moriarty and Buckley (2003), "The use of discussion and reflection, rather than instruction, can ensure that new skills and ideas are linked to his (experiential) experience and therefore learning will be more permanent" (p. 99). In addition, the development of ESI generally includes two sets of modalities, training and application through such aspects as being attentive to emotions in self and others, journaling, reflection, and communication techniques that are applied (Goleman, 1998). A study by Clark, Callister, and Wallace (2003) demonstrated a significant, positive change in ESI competencies through the inclusion of a management skills course to the curriculum for undergraduate students.

A promising study by Boyatzis, Stubbs and Taylor (2002) utilized a 50-year longitudinal study to examine the impact of program changes to their MBA program. The results indicated significant increases in ESI competencies that were attributed to five key factors: (1) an explicit philosophy of education; (2) an early course on assessment and development utilizing self-directed learning theory; (3) a focus on specific competency development in targeted courses; (4) a dramatic increase in requiring field projects in companies, group work, and student collaboration; and (5) expanded opportunities for voluntary activities, such as community service and business clubs. In addition, recent competency studies by Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) clearly indicated the percentage improvements in ESI competencies through the use of targeted competency development courses as illustrated below.

One of the major guidelines from researchers is for MBA programs to include more impact studies on their MBA programs and their relative contributions to student development. With so few student-change outcome studies available it is difficult to accurately assess changes within programs.



Leadership Development

The longitudinal data and experiences of trying to develop leaders over the last 20 years generate hope that leaders can be developed. Using ICT with intensive coaching, results have been equally impressive in helping people in leadership positions. As Boyatzis and McKee (2005) explain, helping leaders develop effective, resonant relationships through mindfulness, hope, and compassion, creates more effective sustainable leaders.

In general leadership requires the exercise of power and influence to channel the behaviors of others towards a common goal. These exercises, by their nature, create stress within the individual, which may lead to a decrease in leadership effectiveness and leadership behaviors in the future. As argued by Boyatzis, Smith and Blaize (2006), “leaders may better sustain themselves by balancing the potentially stressful effects of exercising leadership with the ameliorative effects of coaching the development of others” (p. 8). Further, this provides a synergistic effect, in not only helping the individual leaders’ sustainability, but also in developing new leaders and modeling effect resonant relationships that may contribute to the sustainability of the firm as a whole.

Fostering ESI

As outlined earlier, the potential impact of fostering ESI competencies within an organization produces bottom line results for businesses. As indicated by Hunter, Schmidt and Judiesch (1990) one standard deviation increase in performance provides a 19 to 48 percent increase in

economic value for non-sales positions and 48 to 120 percent increase in sales positions. In linking performance to ESI, Spencer (2001) argues that, “Fifteen years of published meta-analytic data shows that ESIC (emotional intelligence competency)-based staffing, training and performance management interventions do (or can) add economic value” (p. 80).

Building upon the assertions of economic value, the recent recognition of the importance of ESI to firm performance, and the \$50 billion growth industry of training and development programs, the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence presented a set of “best practices” for use in developing ESI in the workplace.

Drawing upon the wealth of training data currently available, Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan, and Adler (1998) published the following guidelines, organized into the four distinct phases: (1) preparation; (2) training; (3) transfer and maintenance; and (4) evaluation, to promote ESI in the workplace.

Phase one (Preparation for Change) includes the following set of guidelines: (1) assess the organizational needs—a systematic and rigorous study that identifies competencies important to success; (2) assess personal strengths and limitations—increase realistic awareness and the use of multiple ratings from multiple perspectives (e.g. 360-degree feedback); (3) provide feedback with care—feedback should be provided with sensitivity and skill, from a trusted or respected source to minimize defensive behaviors; (4) maximize learner choice—have options, including the option not to participate; (5) encourage participation—senior management commitment encourages employee acceptance of the value of the training; (6) link learning goals with personal goals—align change and training goals with goals of value for the employees; (7) adjust expectations—learners need to understand the value of increased ESI, realize that change is often difficult, and obtain assistance in increasing their self-efficacy for change; (8) gauge readiness—assess the readiness for change and design appropriate interventions based on that assessment.

Phase two (Training) includes the following set of guidelines: (9) foster a positive relationship between the trainer and learner—participants demonstrate higher levels of development and lower dropout rates when they have an empathetic, warm, and genuine relationship with the trainer; (10) maximize self-directed change—the reality is that different people respond differently and trainees are more likely to respond when they select the competencies they wish to develop; (11) set clear goals—establish specific, moderately challenging goals; (12) break goals into manageable steps—establish attainable sub-goals or steps along the training process; (13) maximize opportunities for practice—repetition over long periods of time within the job situation itself; (14) provide feedback on practice—focused and sustained feedback on whether the learner is on track with the training program; (15) rely on experiential methods—active, concrete methods such as role-plays, discussions, and simulations; (16) build support—change initiatives tend to be more effective when reinforced by support groups throughout the training; (17) use models—learning is enriched when participants study, analyze, and emulate successful models; (18) enhance insight—insight is the link between thoughts, feelings, and actions that enhances self-awareness; (19) prevent relapse—prepare people mentally for the inevitable and natural setbacks that occur when learning new behaviors.

Phase three (Transfer and Maintenance) provides the following set of guidelines: (20) encourage use of skills on the job—including reinforcement from supervisors and peers for utilizing the new behaviors; and (21) provide an organizational culture that supports learning—a climate where innovation and development is encouraged, promoted, and perhaps most importantly rewarded. Finally, phase four (Evaluate Change) is to (22) conduct ongoing evaluation research—recognizing that change is a process whereby poor programs can be improved and successful programs can be understood and broadened.

Conclusion

One might quip that the ESI construct is merely “old wine in a new bottle.” Although it is true enough that elements of ESI have a long and august history, to dismiss it as recycled would do grave injustice to its intellectual heritage and practical potential for several reasons. First, early concepts such as Thorndike’s social intelligences are as potent and applicable today as they ever were. Second, ESI brings together a host of interrelated skill sets under the structure of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. To be sure, virtually all of these skill sets encompassed have previously been researched and advanced as important leadership qualities, but never had they been so meaningfully organized. Third, the ESI literature draws heavily from research in biology, neurology, and psychology, which adds interdisciplinary credibility to the explanations and predictions derived. Fourth and finally, the evidence overwhelmingly supports the conclusion the ESI competences can be developed and sustained.

Taken together, the Emotional and Social Intelligence construct is a vibrant one with a rich tradition in the behavioral sciences and enormous practical potential. Its recent popularity with practitioner audiences is due to the fact that the concept not only intuitively resonates, but possesses immediate and apparent applicability to a host of internal leadership development challenges. The Intentional Change Theory described herein is a specific and rigorous pathway for competency development that, if responsibly deployed and seriously sponsored by firms, holds great promise for renewing leadership at the individual and organizational level.

REFERENCES

- Ackerman, P. L., & Heggestad, E. D. (1997). Intelligence, personality, and interests: Evidence for overlapping traits. *Psychological Bulletin*, 121(2), 219-245.
- Bailey, J. R., & Ford, C. M. (1994a). Of methods and metaphors: Theater and self-exploration in the laboratory. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 30, 381-396.
- Bailey, J. R., Strube, M. J., Yost, J. H., & Merbaum, M. (1994). Proactive self-appraisal in the organization. In R. H. Kilmann, I. Kilmann & Associates (Eds.), *Managing ego energy: The transformation of personal meaning into organizational success* (pp. 128-148). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bar-On, R. (1985). *The development of an operational concept of psychological wellbeing*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Rhodes University, South Africa.
- Bar-On, R., Parker, J. D. A. (Eds.). (2000). *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence: Theory, development, assessment, and application at home, school, and in the workplace*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Bray, D. W., Campbell, R. J., & Grant, D. L. (1974). *Formative years in business*. New York: Wiley-Interscience.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1982). *The competent manager: A model for effective performance*. NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1983). Who would drink what, when and where if looking for a fight? In E. Gottheil, K.A. Druley, T.E. Skolada, & H.H. Waxman (Eds.), *Alcohol, drug abuse, and aggression*. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas. This was based on a presentation at the American Psychological Association annual conference in Detroit, 1979.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1999). Self-Directed Change and Learning as a Necessary Meta-Competency for Success and Effectiveness in the 21st Century. In Sims, R., and Veres, J.G. (Eds.), *Keys to employee success in the coming decades*, Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing.
- Boyatzis, R. E., (2001) "How and why individuals are able to develop emotional intelligence," In C. Cherniss and D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace: How to select for, measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (2005). Using tipping points of emotional intelligence and cognitive competencies to predict financial performance of leaders. *Psicothemia*, 17.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (2006). "Intentional change theory from a complexity perspective" *Journal of Management Development*. 25 (7), 607-623.
- Boyatzis, R.E., & Goleman, D. (2006). *Emotional and Social Competency Inventory*. Boston: The Hay Group.
- Boyatzis, R. E., Goleman, D., & Rhee, K. S. (2000). Clustering competence in emotional intelligence: Insights from the Emotional Competence Inventory. In R. Bar-On, & J. Parker (Eds.), *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence: Theory, development, assessment, and application at home, school, and in the workplace* (pp. 343-362). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Boyatzis, R. E., & Kolb, D. A. (1969). *Feedback and self-directed behavior change*. Unpublished Working Paper #394-69. Sloan School of Management, MIT.
- Boyatzis, R. E. & McKee, A. (2005). *Resonant leadership: Sustaining yourself and connecting with others through mindfulness, hope, and compassion*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Boyatzis, R. E., Smith, M., & Blaize, N. (2006) "Sustaining leadership effectiveness through coaching and compassion: It's not what you think." *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 5(1), 8-24.
- Boyatzis, R. E., Stubbs, L., & Taylor, S. (2002). Learning cognitive and emotional intelligence competencies through graduate management education. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*. 1(2), 150-162.
- Carmeli, A. (2003). The relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes, behavior and outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18 (8), 788-813.
- Casti, J. L. (1994). *Complexification: Explaining a paradoxical world through the science of surprise*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Cherniss, C. (2000). Social and emotional competence in the workplace. In R. Bar-On, & J. Parker (Eds.), *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence: Theory, development, assessment, and application at home, school, and in the workplace* (pp. 433-458). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Cherniss, C. (2006). *The business case for emotional intelligence*. Retrieved from http://www.eiconsortium.org/research/business_case_for_ei.htm
- Cherniss, C., Goleman, D., Emmerling, R., Cowan, K., & Adler, M. (1998). *Bringing emotional intelligence to the workplace*. New Brunswick, NJ: Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, Rutgers University.
- Clark, S. C., Callister, R., & Wallace, R. (2003). Undergraduate management skills courses and students' emotional intelligence, *Journal of Management Education* 27(1), 3-23.
- Davidson, R.J. (2003). Personal communication. See Boyatzis, Smith, and Blaize (2006) for an explanation of Davidson's work with references.
- Davies, M., Stankov, L., & Roberts, R. D. (1998). Emotional intelligence: In search of an elusive construct. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75 (4), 989-1015.
- Douglas, C., Frink, D., & Ferris, G. R. (2004). Emotional intelligence as a moderator of the relationship between conscientiousness and performance. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 10 (3), 2-14.
- Druskat, V. U., & Wolff, S. B. (2001, March). Building the emotional intelligence of groups. *Harvard Business Review*, pp. 81-90.
- Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (2000). Emotional intelligence—A review and evaluation study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 15 (4), 341.
- Fisher, C. D. (2000). Mood and emotions while working: Missing pieces of job satisfaction? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 185-202.
- Fisher, C. D., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2000). The emerging role of emotions in work life: An introduction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 123-129.
- Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (2000). Relations of emotional intelligence, practical intelligence, general intelligence, and trait affectivity with interview outcomes: it's not all just 'G'. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21: 203-220.
- Gabriel, Y., & Griffiths, D. S. (2002) Emotion, learning, and organizing. *Learning Organization*, 9 (5), 214-221.
- Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (2006). *Social intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. E., & McKee, A. (2002). *Leadership and emotional intelligence*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Gundlach, M. J., Martinko, M. J., & Douglas, S. C. (2003). Emotional intelligence, causal reasoning, and the self-efficacy development process. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 11 (3), 229-246.
- Hedlund, J., & Sternberg, R. J. (2000). Too many intelligences? Integrating social, emotional, and practical intelligence. In R. Bar-On, & J. Parker (Eds.), *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence: Theory, development, assessment, and application at home, school, and in the workplace* (pp. 136-167). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Higgs, M., & Aitken, P. (2003). An exploration of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership potential. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18 (8), 814-823.
- Hunter, J. E., Schmidt, F. L., & Judiesch, M. K. (1990). Individual differences in output variability as a function of job complexity, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 28-42.

- Jaeger, A. J. (2003). Job competencies and the curriculum: An inquiry into emotional intelligence in graduate professional education. *Research in Higher Education*, 44 (6), 615-639.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Kolb, D. A., & Boyatzis, R. E. (1970a). On the dynamics of the helping relationship. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 6 (3), 267-289.
- Kolb, D. A., & Boyatzis, R.E. (1970b). Goal-setting and self-directed behavior change. *Human Relations*, 23(5), 439-457.
- Kolb, A. Y., & Kolb, D. A. (2005). Learning styles and learning spaces: Enhancing experiential learning in higher education. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 4(2), 193-212.
- Kolb, D. A., Winter, S. K., & Berlew, D. E. (1968). Self-directed change: Two studies. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 6 (3), 453-471.
- Kotter, J.P. (1982). *The general managers*. NY: Free Press.
- Lombardo, M. M., & McCauley, C. D. (1988). *The dynamics of management derailment*. Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.
- Luthans, F., Hodgetts, R. M., & Rosenkrantz, S. A. (1988). *Real managers*. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger Press.
- Mayer, J. D., & Caruso, D. R. (2002, November/December). The effective leader: Understanding and applying emotional intelligence. *Ivey Business Journal Online*, pp. 1.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Implications for educators* (pp. 3-31). New York: Basic Books.
- McClelland, D. C. (1973). Testing for competency rather than for intelligence. *American Psychologist*, 28, 1-14.
- McClelland, D.C. (1999). Identifying competencies with behavioral event interviews. *Psychological Science*. 9 (5), 331-339.
- McClelland, D. C., Baldwin, A. L., Bronfenbrenner, U., & Strodbeck, F. L. (1958). *Talent and society: New perspectives in the identification of talent*. Princeton: D. Van Nostrand.
- Moriarty P, & Buckley F. (2003); Increasing emotional intelligence through process; *Journal of European Industrial Training*; 27, (2).
- Offermann, L., Bailey, J. R., Vasilopoulos, N. L., Seal, C. & Sass, M. (2004). EQ versus IQ: The relative contribution of emotional intelligence and cognitive ability to individual and team performance. *Human Performance*, 17 (2), 219-243.
- Rosier, R. H. (ed.). (1994-1997). *The competency model handbook* (Vols. 1-4). Lexington, MA: Linkage.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition & Personality*, 9 (3), 185-211.
- Spencer, L. M. (2001). The economic value of emotional intelligence competencies and EIC-based HR programs. In C. Cherniss and D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace. How to select, measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations* (pp. 45-82). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Spencer, L. M. Jr., McClelland, D. C., & Kelner, S. (1997). *Competency assessment methods: History and state of the art*. Boston: Hay/McBer.

- Spencer, L. M. Jr., & Spencer, S. M. (1993). *Competence at work: Models for superior performance*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Sternberg, R. J. (1985). *Beyond IQ: A triarchic theory of human intelligence*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Thorndike, E. L. (1920). Intelligence and its uses. *Harper Magazine*, 140, 227-235.
- Thornton, G. C. III, & Byham, W.C. (1982). *Assessment centers and managerial performance*. New York: Academic Press.
- Tomer, J. F. (2003). Personal capital and emotional intelligence: An increasingly important tangible source of economic growth. *Eastern Economic Journal*, 29 (3), 453.
- Tucker, M. L., Sojka, J. Z., Barone, F. J., & McCarthy, A. M. (2000). Training tomorrow's leaders: Enhancing the emotional intelligence of business graduates. *Journal of Education for Business*. 75 (6), 331-338.
- Whetten, D.A., & Cameron, K.S. (2002). *Developing management skills*. (5th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Williams, R. B., Barefoot, J. C., Blumenthal, J. A., Helms, M. J., Luecken, L., Pieper, C. F., Siegler, Ilene C., & Suarez, E.C. (1997). Psychosocial correlates of job strain in a sample of working women. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 54: 543-548.
- Williams, W. M., & Sternberg, R. (1988). Group intelligence: Why some groups are better than others. *Intelligence*, 12, 351-377.

Craig R. Seal is an Assistant Professor of Commerce in the College of Business Administration at Niagara University. He is also the Associate Editor for the *International Encyclopedia of Organizational Studies* and a member of the Editorial Board for the *Academy of Management Learning and Education Journal*. His scholarship focuses on the theoretical and empirical understanding of emotional intelligence. Craig is also a member of the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations. Email: cseal@niagara.edu

Richard E. Boyatzis is Professor of Organizational Behavior, Chair of the Department of Organizational Behavior in the Weatherhead School of Management at Case Western Reserve University. His main areas of research are adult development, leadership, and emotional intelligence. He is the author of numerous articles and books on motivation, self-directed behavior change, leadership, and managerial competencies. Richard has a BS in Engineering from MIT and an MA and Ph.D. in Social Psychology from Harvard University. Email: richard.boyatzis@case.edu

James R. Bailey is the Tucker Professor of Leadership and Director of Executive Development at the George Washington University School of Business, and a Fellow in the Centre for Management Development, London Business School. He is the author of the award winning *Handbook of Organizational and Managerial Wisdom* and the forthcoming *Riding the Change Curve: Leading Transition*. He currently serves as Editor-in-Chief of the *Academy of Management Learning and Education*. Email: jbailey@gwu.edu