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Emotional Intelligence in the K-12 Curriculum and its Relationship to American Workplace Needs: A Literature Review

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The purpose of this article is to review the content of existing social–emotional learning programs in the American K-12 curriculum and the relationship between the school-based programs and the needs of the American workplace. Social and emotional learning (SEL) programs were examined for their content and compared to research on critical emotional intelligence skills for the workplace. Emotional intelligence literature was reviewed, as was the SEL literature. The two literatures were compared to identify gaps so that practitioners of human resource development have a basis on which to consider important areas for training programs in emotional intelligence.

Keywords: *emotional intelligence; social and emotional learning*

Emotional intelligence has been studied intensively during the past several decades, particularly its application in the workplace (Cherniss & Adler, 2000; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Researchers have advanced beyond early ways of perceiving emotions that characterized thinking and feeling as polar opposites and emotion as something chaotic and immature and not capable of assisting reason (Salovey & Sluyter, 1997). Current research examines emotional intelligence definitions and the concept as related to leadership effectiveness and performance (Lusch & Serpkenci, 1990; McClelland, 1998; Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Emotional intelligence abilities may account for a large difference between effective top leaders' and non-effective leaders' performance (Goleman, 1998).

With this new perspective, American companies are spending increasing amounts of money to develop employees' emotional intelligence skills. The American Society for Training and Development found that 80% of companies surveyed in 1997 were trying to promote emotional intelligence in their employees (Goleman, 1998). Thus it seems that research and the majority of organizations believe that emotional intelligence skills are critical.

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Yet, while American companies are allotting significant amounts of their budget to this cause, the school systems are still in the beginning stages of implementing programs oriented toward emotional and social learning. These SEL programs are still infantile. It may be that even with the research base indicating the importance of emotional intelligence for career success, some school system administrators may still possess the traditional view of emotion and intelligence as polar opposites (Salovey & Sluyter, 1997). This is problematic because research also suggests that learning new skills, such as emotional intelligence, is easier when one is young (Goleman, 1995; Kusche & Greenberg, 2006).

Even the U.S. government supports the acquisition of work-related skills when young. As one example, the U.S. Congress passed the School-to-Work Opportunities Act of 1994 to promote the alignment of students' educational opportunities and their future employment opportunities (Ng & Feldman, 2007). Thus it seems critical to review the efforts toward developing emotional intelligence in the school system, which is both a workplace in and of itself and a foundational learning environment for future employees.

There are emotional intelligence programs in place in innovative school systems. These are most often referred to as SEL, social and emotional learning programs. They are developed based on local needs and therefore differ greatly from one another. They are still infantile in any potential large-scale national effort to implement a school-to-work emotional intelligence program. Given the emergent state of emotional intelligence training as part of the school curriculum, it seems critical to examine the connection between school curriculum and future workplace needs in the area of emotional intelligence (EI).

The purpose of this article is to review the content of existing social–emotional learning programs in the American K-12 curriculum and the relationship between the school-based programs and the needs of the American workplace. Identifying gaps between the two generates recommendations to human resource development (HRD) practitioners for potential employee training needs.

Method

The author conducted a literature review of empirical and research-based articles and books to understand the theoretical and conceptual aspects of emotional intelligence. In addition, the author reviewed findings (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Lusch & Serpkenci, 1990; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Sivanathan & Fekken 2002; Sosik, & Megerian, 1999) regarding specific emotional intelligence skills found to be associated with success in the workplace. The research in this area is organized according to categories of skills and presented as such in this article.

Articles and books were located using several databases, including ABI Inform, Academic Search Premier, and Business Source Premier. Two Web site listings of resources were used—Emotions in Organizations Network (Emonet)

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and the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations. In addition, articles of interest were located from reference lists and the author's recently completed dissertation.

The other area of literature reviewed was that of SEL programs. Information on SEL programs was derived from multiple avenues, including academic journals, books, and a relevant Web site. Articles and books were located using several databases, including ABI Inform, Academic Search Premier, and Business Source Premier. One Web site listing of resources was used—Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL).

The research in both areas, EI and SEL, was compared to determine whether there was overlap or gaps in education between the EI skills identified as necessary and those that were found to be taught in SEL programs. Gaps in the programs were identified and recommendations were made for HRD based on these findings.

EI Defined

Given that the theoretical framework of this article is EI, it is important to review its definition. There are actually several variations of definitions, depending on the author and his or her affiliation with the ability-based, trait-based, or mixed-model definition of EI. Content of training differs depending on which definition is utilized.

Whereas the ability models focus on aptitude, the trait models include personality traits and behaviors, and the mixed models conceptualize EI as a diverse construct, including aspects of personality and the ability to perceive, assimilate, understand, and manage emotions. Mixed models include motivational factors and measures of character such as self-concept, assertiveness, and empathy (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995).

Salovey and Mayer, who coined the term *emotional intelligence* in 1990, prefer the aptitude-oriented definition—"the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 5).

Goleman (1995, 1998), who views EI from the trait perspective, popularized the concept and applied it to the workplace. He discussed the importance of EI for success and claimed that the impact of emotional intelligence is even greater within top levels of leadership. The popular and influential account offered by Goleman (1995) appears to define emotional intelligence by exclusion: as any desirable feature of personal character not represented by cognitive intelligence. His theory has been criticized as not having empirical support (Zeidner, Matthew, & Roberts, 2004).

Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) described EI as comprising four levels of abilities that range from basic psychological processes to more complex processes integrating emotion and cognition. The model is developmental: The

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complexity of emotional skill grows from the first tier to the fourth, and skill in the first is required to possess the skills of the next levels. The first level, emotional perception, includes skills that allow an individual to perceive, appraise, and express emotions. These abilities include identifying one's own and other's emotions, expressing one's own emotions, and discriminating the expressions of emotion in others. The second level, emotional integration and/or facilitation, involves emotions facilitating and prioritizing thinking. Emotions enter the cognitive system, are recognized and labeled, and subsequently alter thought. The cognitive system can then view things from different perspectives.

The third level is emotional understanding and reasoning. At this level, emotional signals are understood, along with their implications. These implications, such as feeling or meaning, are then considered. The fourth level, emotional management, involves an openness to emotions that allows personal and intellectual growth. This level of EI is more complex, with skills that allow individuals to selectively engage in or detach from emotions and to monitor and manage emotions in themselves and in others (Mayer et al., 2000).

Another approach, moving beyond a rigid conceptualization of EI, advocates distinguishing between EI (as an ability) and emotional competencies (learned capabilities) (Goleman, 2001). Goleman (1998, 2001) concluded that the major qualities differentiating successful from unsuccessful executives are the competencies underlying EI. The less successful executives have poorer emotional control, despite strengths in cognitive abilities and technical expertise. The author stated that emotional competencies are learned capabilities, based on EI, that result in outstanding performance at work (Goleman, 2001).

These conceptual discrepancies reflect a major discontinuity in measurement paradigm. Those who conceptualize EI as a well-defined set of emotion-processing abilities and skills (Mayer et al., 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 1997) assess EI through objective performance tests. On the other hand, those who view EI in terms of multiple aspects of personal functioning (Bar-On, 1997; Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000; Goleman, 1995) tend to measure EI using self-report methodologies. Self-report measures of ability suffer from low reliability and validity, as people's self-assessment reflects self-concept rather than actual ability or trait (Mayer et al., 2000). There are, in fact, three types of measures of EI, including ability, self-report, and observer-rating measures (Mayer et al., 2000).

Ability tests use a performance measure, where the person is asked to solve problems (Mayer et al., 2000). Mayer et al. (2000) argue that ability tests are "the gold standard in intelligence research because" they measure actual capacity to perform well, as opposed to beliefs about abilities (p. 325). Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso developed the MSCEIT, the Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test, which is an ability measure designed to yield an overall EI score. Mayer et al. (2000) claim that mental ability can be reliably measured and that internal consistencies are comparable to other standard tests of intelligence (Mayer et al., 2000). Tests of the earlier MEIS indicated age differences in abilities.

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A well-known self-report measurement tool is Bar-On's, the EQ-I, the Emotional Quotient Inventory. It is "a self-report measure of emotionally and socially competent behavior that provides an estimate of one's emotional and social intelligence" that "was developed to measure this particular construct and not personality traits or cognitive capacity" (Bar-On, 2000, p. 364). Yet, this somewhat contradicts the author's statement in 1997 that it measures "an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills" (Bar-On, 1997, p. 14). The published version was normed on a large and representative sample of North America and the author claims that numerous reliability and validity studies have been conducted using this instrument. The sample used was diverse in terms of gender, age, ethnic, socioeconomic, educational, and occupational breakdown. An analysis of variance of age and gender effects indicated an age effect, suggesting that emotional and social intelligence increases with age (Bar-On, 2000).

Observer-rating, or the informant approach, measures the reputation of the person, and not necessarily the abilities (Mayer et al., 2000). The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) combines both self-report and observer-rating. The ECI is based on competencies developed by Goleman, which he organized into clusters. Beginning as an instrument that had been developed from competencies validated against managers' performance, Boyatzis refined it further to have broader applicability across occupations (Boyatzis et al., 2000). The instrument has been revised several times based on reliability tests.

A number of problems affect the EI research under the mixed model, including that what is being measured with mixed models may not be the same type of EI as that assessed by ability models (Zeidner et al., 2004). Content will vary due to interpretation of the meaning of EI (Mayer et al., 2000). Tests of EI that assess noncognitive traits, such as assertiveness, optimism, and impulse control, seem to be tapping dimensions of individual differences that relate to established personality constructs rather than to intelligence (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). In view of these problems, proponents of EI as a cognitive ability have promoted alternative scoring procedures (Mayer et al., 2000). The MSCEIT, for example, measures areas of abilities, including perception, facilitation, understanding, and management of emotions (Mayer et al., 2000).

Although some authors question the validity of EI training (Clarke, 2006), and the content of EI training programs will vary based on which definition informs the training (Clarke, 2006; Opengart, 2005), employees' emotions are likely to influence their work performance. These skills are crucial to one's career and are within the domain of employee development and performance; therefore, HRD professionals have a responsibility for helping employees to develop these capacities (Opengart, 2005). The question of what the focus of the training content should be can be answered in multiple ways, including affiliations to a particular definition of EI, organizational leadership values, organizational context, and/or by using the method proposed in this article—comparing what the literature identifies as useful or critical to employees with what might be lacking in new employees' educational preparation.

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EI and Its Importance for Work Success

The research provides multiple examples of the importance of EI for work success. There are several themes under which the research in EI and work success can be grouped, including leadership, self-awareness, empathy, mood regulation in oneself and others, and stress management. Many authors have described competencies they claim to be critical for success in occupational settings. The specific competencies claimed to be of critical importance are the following.

Leadership and Motivational Tendencies

Evidence suggests that emotionally intelligent leadership results in improved business performance (Goleman, 2001). One author (McClelland, 1998) studied executive positions from more than 30 companies and many professions and showed that a wide range of competencies distinguished the top performers. In addition, he found that the divisions of the leaders with strengths in EI competencies outperformed yearly revenue targets by 15% to 20%.

Several researchers have shown relationships between EI and transformational leadership skills, mainly by asserting that by definition of transformational, they would have to possess the skills identified to be considered as EI (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Barling et al., 2000; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Megerian & Sosik, 1996; Sivanathan & Fekken, 2002). In other words, EI factors may predispose individuals to be transformational leaders and that the leaders project a vision for, inspire, and motivate their followers. They are leaders who can recognize and manage their own and others' emotions, and will therefore be higher in EI as well as more successful (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002).

Self-Awareness

Several authors have suggested that one aspect of EI, self-awareness, is vital to transformational leadership effectiveness (Bennis, 1989; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). Self-awareness refers to the identification of emotion and understanding how emotions are related to one's goals, thoughts, behaviors, and accomplishments (Goleman, 1998; Weisinger, Weisinger, & Williams, 1998).

One study indicated that managers with self-awareness are rated as more effective by both superiors and subordinates than those managers without self-awareness (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Multisource data were collected from 63 managers and their superiors, indicating that correlations between aspects of EI, leader behavior, and performance varied based on self-awareness (Sosik & Megerian, 1999).

Church (1997) found that leader self-awareness resulted in greater performance and that self-monitoring of emotions was positively related to self-awareness. Despite different approaches to measurement, high performing

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leaders were significantly more self-aware and this was consistent regardless of data source, organization, or method of assessing performance. Shipper and Dillard (1994) attributed leaders' failures to lack of self-awareness. Self-awareness is also thought to be the foundational competency on which other competencies develop (Cherniss & Goleman, 2006).

Social Awareness and Empathy

Empathy, one of the aspects of EI as defined by Goleman, has been described as particularly important (Cherniss & Adler, 2000). Empathy and social awareness include awareness of others' feelings, needs, and concerns, understanding and sympathizing with others' emotions, and responding to others' unspoken feelings (Goleman, 1998; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Pilling and Eroglu's 1994 survey of retail sales buyers found that sales representatives were most valued for their empathy. The authors manipulated salesperson empathy, professionalism, and merchandise salability and explored the impact of these factors on retail shoppers' likelihood of listening to future sales presentations and placing orders. Results support the importance of both empathy and professionalism.

Studies have shown that empathy is related to leadership emergence (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2002; Wolff, Pescosolido, & Druskat, 2002). Kellet et al. (2002) examined the relationship between empathy and leader effectiveness and concluded that empathy is a key variable in effective leadership. Wolff et al. (2002) proposed that empathy precedes and enables leadership skills by providing an accurate understanding of team emotions and needs. Using a longitudinal study of 382 team members comprising 48 self-managing teams, the authors concluded that their theory is supported in that emergent leaders need to understand, coordinate, and motivate individual team members.

Empathic leaders inspire greater depth of self-exploration (Long & Schultz, 1973) and the supportive relationship increases followers' positive perceptions and feelings about the leader, as well as job satisfaction (Haddad & Samarneh, 1999).

Self-Management and/or Mood Regulation

This competence involves intentionally eliciting and sustaining pleasant and unpleasant emotions when considered appropriate, effectively channeling negative affect, and restraining negative emotional outbursts and impulses (Boyatzis, 1982; Goleman, 1998).

Isen (2001) reviews evidence that positive affect improves problem solving and decision making, leading to cognitive processing that is flexible, innovative, thorough, and efficient. Using managerial simulations, Staw and Barsade (1993) examined the relationship between affect and performance and found that people with stable and positive dispositions make more accurate decisions and improve interpersonal performance. They also suggested that affect may be a useful predictor of organizational performance. Mittal and Ross (1998)

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examined whether affective state affects issue interpretation and risk taking in the context of strategic decision making. The authors induced a mood by reading a short story. Compared to participants in a negative mood, those in a positive mood were more likely to see opportunities in problems and also displayed lower levels of risk taking. Thus, the conclusions of each of the above authors imply that managing and regulating mood so that it is positive, will result in better decision making, and, therefore, a better leader.

Identifying and Regulating Emotions in Others and/or Social Skills

This competence incorporates influencing others, effectively communicating with others, and managing conflicts (Weisinger et al., 1998). According to Cherniss and Adler (2000) influence, which means being skilled at winning over others, tuning presentations to appeal to the listener, and ability to build support, is one of the competencies that most strongly distinguishes superior managers from others.

Fox and Spector (2000) conducted a study with college students whereby they participated in a simulated job interview. The authors measured empathy, self-regulation of mood, and self-presentation as well as affective traits (positive and negative) and suggested they were related to job interview performance. This research demonstrates the contributions of EI and trait affect to interview success.

Lopes et al. (2004) conducted two studies on emotion regulation and the quality of social interactions. The authors found positive relationships between the ability to manage emotions and the quality of social interactions. Scores on managing emotions were positively related to the perceived quality of interactions, as evaluated by self and peers. In addition, scores were also positively related to perceived success in impression management.

Stress Management

EI is claimed to influence one's ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures (Bar-On, 1997). Lusch and Serpkenci's 1990 study of retail store managers concluded that inner-directed managers, those who perceive events in their lives as being a consequence of their own actions and therefore controllable, cope with stress much better than those who are other-directed. Another author (Averill, 2000), found that people who score high on the ECI have reported more traumatic experiences during their childhoods, and that emotionally creative people are more flexible in their coping strategies.

Jordan, Ashkanasy, and Hartel, (2002) proposed that EI moderates employees' emotional reactions to job insecurity and their ability to cope with associated stress. They found that employees with low EI are more likely than high EI employees to experience negative emotional reactions to job insecurity and to adopt negative coping strategies.

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In sum, research indicates the EI skills that are most valued for workplace and leadership success to include leadership, self-awareness, social awareness and/or empathy, self-management and/or mood regulation, identification of mood in others, and stress management.

K-12 SEL Programs

A driving force behind the development of SEL programs is CASEL, the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning. The goals of this organization include to "advance the science of social and emotional learning (SEL), expand coordinated, evidence-based SEL practice, and build a sustainable and collaborative organization to accomplish" their mission (CASEL Web site, www.casel.org). CASEL defines SEL as

> the process of acquiring the skills to recognize and manage emotions, develop caring and concern for others, make responsible decisions, establish positive relationships, and handle challenging situations effectively. . . . Social and emotional education is a unifying concept for organizing and coordinating school-based programming that focuses on positive youth development, health promotion, prevention of problem behaviors, and student engagement in learning. (CASEL website, www.casel.org)

There is good evidence that SEL competencies can be taught as part of a school-based curriculum (Payton et al., 2000), that they can promote children's social and emotional adjustment (Lopes & Salovey, 2004), and that they enhance school performance (Barchard, 2003; Fleming et al., 2005; Gumora & Arsenio, 2002; Linares et al., 2005).

Different goals and assumptions make it difficult for researchers and practitioners to agree on key skills to focus on in SEL programs. Some authors argue that there is no obvious curriculum because of cultural differences and uncertainty about what challenges children will face in the future (Lopes & Salovey, 2004). CASEL assembled an interdisciplinary team to identify the critical elements of quality programs, and included the following: self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, relationship skills, and responsible decision making (Payton et al., 2000). SEL curriculum decisions have tended to be made based on consensual goals and values and anticipation of future needs and challenges (Lopes & Salovey, 2004). The best programs emphasize particular skills, choose skills that can generalize across situations and settings, and rely on informal learning (Lopes & Salovey, 2004).

Some authors suggest that there may not be enough time to teach all the skills in the classroom, or that it is not possible to teach everything about social and emotional skills through explicit instruction. Therefore, personal experience and practice, teaching a broad set of competencies, and relying on informal learning may be necessary (Lopes & Salovey, 2004). In fact, informal learning has been demonstrated to be a main source of learning about emotional expression in the workplace (Opengart, 2003).

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Most SEL programs combine a number of elements yet have common themes, including cooperative experiences, social skills training such as conflict resolution, and civic values (Johnson & Johnson, 2004). One such program, the Three Cs program, is based on social interdependence and conflict theories and teaches cooperative community, constructive conflict resolution, and civic values. These three C's are needed for children to develop skills in relationships and emotions, responsibility, and problem solving (Johnson & Johnson, 2004).

Another program, Social Decision Making and Social Problem Solving (SDM/SPS) emphasizes self-control, social awareness and group participation, and critical thinking. It is aimed at improving childrens' social decision-making ability and interpersonal behavior. The self-control unit includes skills such as listening, turn taking, remembering, and following directions. The social awareness unit teaches the importance of positive emotion and appreciation for others, group building, expressing feelings, characteristics of friendship, and being and choosing a good friend. Children involved in the program derived many benefits, including greater sensitivity to others' feelings, better understanding of consequences of behavior, higher self-esteem, positive prosocial behavior, lower levels of antisocial and self-destructive behavior, and improvement in academic areas, self-control, social awareness, social decision making, and problem solving (Elias, 2004). A recent program site showed significant pre- and postgains with regard to the acquisition of skills in interpersonal sensitivity, problem analysis, and planning (Elias, 2004).

Many SEL programs focus on prevention. For example, the Seattle Social Development Project (SSDP) is a preventive intervention program for elementary students focusing on strengthening prosocial involvement and children's bonds to school and family. It is thought that positive involvement in school and family sets them on a positive developmental course because the bond increases positive choices and commitment to schooling and academic success. Teachers were trained in proactive classroom management and students engaged in cooperative training of social competencies. These competencies included interpersonal cognitive problem solving, building communication, decision-making, negotiation, and conflict resolution skills. Older students were taught refusal skills to help them resist negative social influences. Parents were also offered training to support student development. Studies of the SSDP showed that it improved bonding and academic and behavioral outcomes, and decreased aggressive and self-destructive behavior (Hawkins, Smith, & Catalano, 2004).

Another program focusing on prevention is the Resolving Conflict Creatively Program (RCCP). In this school-based conflict-resolution program originally developed in New York City, children are taught to identify feelings and develop empathy and intercultural understanding for skills in conflict resolution. The program also includes peer mediation, training for parents, training for administrators, and training of trainers. Data on social and emotional learning were collected using child and teacher report assessment. Findings

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from this program indicate that children whose teachers used the program the most developed more positively than peers who received less or no instruction (Brown, Roderick, Lantier, & Aber, 2004).

Raising Healthy Children is a collaborative effort in Seattle, Washington that tries to bond students to school and family. The program is based on research showing that there are risk factors causing children to make bad choices and that there are protective factors preventing bad choices. These protective factors include being socially and emotionally competent, having strong bonds to positive socializing influences, and having healthy beliefs and clear standards (Haggerty & Cummings, 2006). This broad-based, integrated program teaches social and emotional skills to prevent problems in adolescence such as antisocial behavior, academic failure, and low commitment to school. There was staff development for teachers and units for children, including listening, problem solving, sharing, anger management, giving compliments, recognizing feelings, and learning manners. Teachers assessed students' skills and findings regarding the effectiveness of this program indicated significant changes, including increased positive attachment to family and school, increased scores on standardized achievement tests, and decreased aggression and delinquent behavior (Haggerty & Cummings, 2006).

The PATHS curriculum (promoting alternative thinking strategies) is a comprehensive prevention program for elementary-aged children that is intended to improve social and emotional and academic functioning as well as prevent behavior problems. It is taught by regular classroom teachers as an integrated component of the curriculum. A central focus of PATHS is to encourage children to discuss meaningful feelings and experiences. It also focuses on self-control, problem solving, self-esteem, and peer communications and relationships. The outcomes of the PATHS curriculum were investigated in multiple settings and show effectiveness in improving the social competence of children (Greenberg, Kusche, & Riggs, 2004).

The above description of SEL programs certainly does not cover the extent of programs offered everywhere. Only a representative sample can be included in this article, and it is assumed that the presence of these programs in published research suggests that they are the largest of the programs currently being offered. It appears that they are mainly oriented toward prevention of problematic behaviors traditionally seen in adolescence. Bonding of the student to the school and family appears as a frequent part of SEL programs.

Some of the areas identified in the emotional intelligence literature are seen as part of the content and curriculum in SEL programs. For example, self-awareness and recognition of emotions appear to be common components of SEL programs. Social awareness, social skills, and empathy also appear to be common components of SEL training. However, self-management, stress management, and mood regulation do not appear as frequently in SEL programs.

There are important areas addressed by SEL programs that appear to go above and beyond those categories of skills addressed in the emotional intelligence

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TABLE 1: Gaps Between SEL Training Programs and Workplace Needs

Workplace EI Needs	*SEL Programs*	*Identified Gaps for Workplace Preparation*
Leadership	Gap	X
Self-awareness	Self-awareness	
Social awareness/empathy	Social awareness/empathy/ social involvement	
Self-management/mood regulation	Gap	X
Identification of mood in others	Extent varies	X
Stress management	Gap	X
	Conflict resolution	
	Problem solving	
	Communication skills	

NOTE: EI = emotional intelligence; SEL = social and emotional learning.

literature (see Table 1). However, they may be subsumed under other skill groups as discussed in the emotional intelligence literature. For example, conflict resolution could be considered an aspect of social awareness and/or mood identification and regulation. Problem-solving skills could fall under social awareness as could communication skills. SEL programs do not specifically or directly address skills to develop leadership capacity.

Thus, there remain some gaps in the skills taught and developed in SEL programs and those identified as necessary to workplace success as identified in the emotional intelligence literature. Although the SEL programs appear to be effective, they are not developed specifically with the future employee in mind. In other words, the programs are not developed to improve future functioning in the workplace. If school curricula addressed, through SEL programs, the future social and emotional needs of the workplace, schools would better prepare people for their future employment needs. Identifying existing gaps can assist HRD practitioners to determine where there are training needs (see Table 1).

Conclusions and Recommendations

Empirical evidence seems to suggest that SEL programs can improve children's success in school and in life. The effective programs have approaches that are comprehensive and multiyear. They include many components that are based on theory and research; teach children to apply SEL skills; build connections to school, parents, and communities; provide instruction that is developmentally and culturally appropriate; are integrated into the curriculum; and involve high-quality teacher development and support.

To adequately prepare children for future employment, we need to teach a broader range of skills and competencies than is currently addressed in schools. Schools are moving toward a preventative approach to promote

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student social and emotional development. Researchers seem to agree that the best approach is comprehensive to develop a broad range of social and emotional skills that can be generalized to many settings (Fleming & Bay, 2004) and to integrate programs into the curriculum, not as an instructional unit but as a caring learning context that is a comprehensive, multiyear program (Elias, 2004; Lopes & Salovey, 2004).

SEL needs to become a required part of the curriculum, an educational foundation. SEL programs do not improve students' behavior at the expense of academics. They actually improve both behavior and academic performance (Hawkins et al., 2004). Because teachers are creating and implementing these learning environments, it seems critical to incorporate these skills into teacher preparation curriculum; yet few colleges of education have incorporated it into their programs (Fleming & Bay, 2004). Teachers must be both willing and able to teach and encourage social and emotional development and model the skills they are trying to teach for increased effectiveness (Hawkins et al., 2004).

It also seems critical for curricula to address the future workplace needs and incorporate areas with gaps into the SEL programs. There is an implied relationship between school and work; school should prepare students to be effective employees. The school to work transition is the first major adjustment young workers have to make, and its success enables them to have self-efficacy, stability, and coping skills and affects organizational productivity, turnover, and the amount of employee training required (Ng & Feldman, 2007).

Contribution to HRD

Given the extent to which research points to the importance of social and emotional skills for one's career and workplace success, it is important to evaluate the appropriateness and effectiveness of training, education, and preparation in the area. A role of K-12 education is to prepare working adults for the future. Thus, if we perceive a lack of adequate training, HRD practitioners in the workplace will need to address those deficiencies. HRD can identify gaps in the social and emotional education of employees and determine which areas require further training, and provide that training, resulting in more effective workers. Therefore, this research provides direction; it helps to identify which areas HRD practitioners may need to examine and strengthen to help employees be more successful.

In addition to providing direction for HRD training, this research may assist human resource practitioners in reducing turnover. Research shows a negative relationship between turnover and job satisfaction (Mobley, 1977). One of the consequences of job dissatisfaction is to stimulate thoughts of quitting, or at the least, other forms of withdrawal such as absenteeism or low effort (Mobley, 1977). Perhaps job satisfaction can be increased with emotional intelligence training; whether through improving interpersonal relationships, improving performance and employee effectiveness, or by increasing stress

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management skills. In sum, the benefits of increasing an employee's emotional intelligence will increase the likelihood of job success and satisfaction, resulting in lower absenteeism and turnover.

Although this research does point out gaps that HRD needs to fill, "training does not take place in a vacuum" (Bunch, 2007, p. 146). The gaps identified must be examined in concordance with the organizational context, as context and culture should provide a foundation upon which HRD builds an emotional intelligence training program. The contextualized nature of emotions has been identified as important because the appropriateness of emotional expression is dependent on particular circumstances and environment (Clarke, 2006; Opengart, 2005). Therefore, this research adds to the tools HRD can utilize to increase training effectiveness.

Implications for Future Research

This study is limited to literature review and would benefit from a future empirical study. Although there have been many small-scale studies indicating the effectiveness and value of SEL programs, there could be greater assurance of the influence of SEL programs on creating high-quality future workers, particularly if large-scale, longitudinal studies were conducted. Large-scale studies would allow for assessment of the contribution of these programs given a variety of demographic differences. To accomplish this, some agreement as to the optimal content of these programs is necessary for sake of comparison. Longitudinal studies would provide the opportunity to evaluate the effect of increased social and emotional skills on workplace success.

An important issue to consider is this: "The definition of an ability is that it is a capacity rather than a topic to be taught" (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 31). If one interprets emotional intelligence as an ability, the entire concept of SEL programs is to be dismissed. Yet, the research indicates improvement in many academic and personal areas resulting from these programs, so hope remains that teaching the subject matter is in fact increasing the capacity and ability to act in ways that are consistent with being emotionally intelligent.

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