

Introduction

The *Second Step* program for early learning is a universal, classroom-based program designed to increase children’s school readiness and social success by building social-emotional competence and self-regulation skills. This is a review of the research that supports the overall design and content of the program.

Social-Emotional Competence and Self-Regulation

Social-Emotional Competence

Children who are socially and emotionally competent have the skills to successfully manage their emotions and behavior, cooperate with others and form positive relationships, and make responsible decisions (Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning, 2007). Socially and emotionally competent children are better able to recognize and manage emotions, develop care and concern for others, and handle challenging situations constructively and ethically. Social-emotional competence helps children identify how they and others are feeling, make friends and handle disagreements with peers. The *Second Step* program for early learning supports skill development in four key areas of social-emotional competence: empathy and compassion, emotion management, friendship skills and problem solving, and Skills for Learning.

Children who learn social-emotional skills early in life are more self-confident, trusting, empathic, intellectually inquisitive, competent in using language to communicate, and capable of relating well to others (Cohen, Onunaku, Clothier, & Poppe, 2005). Socially competent children have the personal knowledge and skills to engage in enjoyable interactions, activities, and relationships with peers and adults (Han & Kemple, 2006; Leffert, Benson, & Roehlkepartan, 1997). Socially and emotionally competent children reap tremendous benefits from their ability to make friends and get along with peers and adults. Children who are socially and emotionally competent have more friends and more connections with positive peers, and are less likely to be rejected, isolated, and bullied. Children with friends are both happier and more successful in school (Guay, Boivin, & Hodges, 1999; Wentzel & McNamara, 1999).

Self-Regulation

Self-regulation is the ability to control and manage emotions, thoughts, and behaviors (Barkley, 2004; McClelland, Ponitz, Messersmith, & Tominey, 2010). Clearly, self-regulation and social emotional competence are overlapping constructs. Self-regulation is a key to school readiness that supports children’s ability to be successful across multiple domains, from academic to social situations (Raver, 2003). Self-regulation allows children’s behavior to be mindful, intentional, and thoughtful (Bodrova & Leong, 2005). The set of competencies that make up self-regulation include the ability to delay gratification, control impulses, pay attention, and stay on task (Han & Kemple, 2006; Kostelnik, Whiren, Soderman, Stein, & Gregory, 2002; Raver, 2003). Self-regulation can be taught in preschool classrooms, and instruction in self-regulation can benefit all children, not just “problem” children (Bodrova & Leong, 2005).

Social-Emotional Competence, Self-Regulation, and School Readiness

The goal of early education is to support young children’s development of the skills and abilities required for school and life success. Providing young children with support for school readiness is critical to their long-term development (Gilliam, 2005). Successful transition into, and performance in, kindergarten lay the

foundation for future academic success or failure (Schulting, Malone, & Dodge, 2005). School readiness goes beyond fostering literacy and numeracy skills and includes developing the social-emotional skills for cooperating with others and forming and sustaining positive relationships with teachers and peers (National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2004). In a national study of what kindergarten teachers viewed as essential or very important readiness skills, less than a third named specific academic skills (such as knowing the names of colors and shapes, counting to 20, or recognizing letters) as compared to over 75 percent who highlighted skills such as being able to follow directions, not be disruptive, and communicate both needs and thoughts (Lin, Lawrence, & Gorrell, 2003).

When children enter early childhood programs, they are still learning how to manage and cope with their emotions (Cole, Michel, & Teti, 1994) and need to develop a sound emotional infrastructure that facilitates building solid relationships with their peers and teachers (Pitcl, Provance, & Kerlake, 2006). Fostering social-emotional skill development is a critical role for early learning programs (Denham, 2006; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000) that is as important as literacy, language, and number skills in helping children be ready for school (Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000).

To be ready to succeed in school, children need to be able to cooperate with adult rules and requests, participate constructively in classroom activities, and get along with their peers (Thompson & Raikes, 2007). Young children are more likely to succeed in their transition to school if they can identify emotions in themselves and others accurately, relate to teachers and peers positively, manage feelings when faced with emotionally charged situations, and work independently and cooperatively in a classroom environment (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1992). There is strong evidence that these skills predict early academic achievement and that promoting these skills in preschoolers is critical for preparing them for a successful kindergarten transition (McClelland et al., 2007). When children begin kindergarten with strong social-emotional competence, they are more likely to be successful at transitioning into school, develop positive attitudes about school, and have higher grades and achievement in elementary grades (Birch, Ladd, & Blecher-Sass, 1997; Denham, 2006; National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2004). The social-emotional competence of young children predicts their academic performance in first grade, even when controlling for their actual cognitive skills and family backgrounds (Raver & Knitzer, 2002).

Unfortunately many children do not have the basic social-emotional and self-regulatory skills necessary to transition successfully to school or even be successful in preschool settings (Boyd, Barnett, Bodrova, Leong, & Gomby, 2005; Lin et al., 2003; McClelland, Acock, & Morrison, 2006; Raver & Knitzer, 2002). In one study, kindergarten teachers reported that more than half their children come to school unprepared for academic learning, and twenty percent are not socially-emotionally ready for school (Boyd et al., 2005). In another large national study, 46 percent of kindergarten teachers reported that over half of their children had inadequate self-regulation skills (Rimm-Kaufman, Pianta, & Cox, 2000).

Children can pay a high price when they lack the skills to succeed in a classroom environment. Children with poor social-emotional competence and self-regulation not only have more difficulty transitioning to school, they are at increased risk for low academic achievement, emotional and behavioral problems, peer rejection, and school dropout (Denham, 2006; Duncan et al., 2007; Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie, & Reiser, 2000; McClelland et al., 2006; Shaw, Gilliom, Ingoldsby, & Nagin, 2003; Vitaro, Brendgen, Larose, & Tremblay, 2005).

Preschool-age children who struggle with social-emotional skills are disruptive in the classroom, spend less time focused on tasks, and receive less instruction and positive feedback from their teachers. Additionally, opportunities for peer-to-peer learning are lost, and children who are disliked by their teachers and peers grow to like school and learning less (Raver, 2002). There is clear evidence that when young children are aggressive and are rejected by their peers in the early school years, they are at risk for long-term difficulties, including lower academic achievement, grade retention, dropping out of school, delinquency, and criminal behavior (Raver, 2002).

Children with social-emotional skill deficits also have high rates of expulsion from preschool classrooms (Gilliam & Shahar, 2006). In a national study of 3,898 prekindergarten classrooms, children were expelled at 3.2 times the rate for kindergarten through grade twelve students. Deficits in these skills predict whether a child will be held back to repeat kindergarten even when cognitive and language skills have been taken into account (Agostin & Bain, 1997). Preschool settings can support children's school readiness and help prepare them for higher levels of academic success (Ackerman & Barnett, 2005). Successful interaction with peers is a key developmental task of the preschool period (Denham et al., 2003). Developing skills in social competence is a complex task for young children, and once they acquire these skills, they need to learn how and when to use them (McCay & Keyes, 2002). Teachers can assist and guide children in developing and effectively using these skills by modeling them and assisting children in constructively managing and coping with their feelings and impulses (Han & Kemple, 2006).

Second Step Early Learning Program Units

Skills for Learning

The *Second Step* early learning program focuses on four self-regulation skills that children need in order to be ready for school. These are called Skills for Learning, and they are listening, focusing attention, self-talk, and being assertive. These skills support school readiness and prepare children for academic achievement, and children need to learn to integrate and apply these skills to be successful in classroom settings (McClelland et al., 2010). There is strong evidence that these Skills for Learning predict early academic achievement and promoting these skills in preschoolers is critical for preparing them for a successful kindergarten transition (McClelland et al., 2007). Children who enter Kindergarten with higher levels of Skills for Learning also have higher math, literacy, and vocabulary skills (Kroesbergen, Van Luit, Van Lieshout, Van Loosbroek, & Van de Rijt, 2009; Ponitz, McClelland, Matthews, & Morrison, 2009) and are ultimately more likely to graduate from high school (Vitaro et al., 2005). The benefits of the four self-regulatory skills taught in the Skills for Learning Unit go beyond academics; they also support the rest of the program content by providing a critical foundation for the development of social-emotional competence (McClelland et al., 2006).

Empathy

Empathy is a central aspect of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) and emotional competence (Saarni, 1997). Empathy is an emotional response that stems from recognizing and understanding another person's emotional state or feelings (Findlay, Girardi, & Coplan, 2006). Humans seem to be biologically predisposed to develop empathy; even infants will show signs of distress when other infants cry. Behaviors

such as touching or patting a distressed person, or giving the person something of comfort, such as a teddy bear, emerges between ages 1 and 2. Between 30 and 36 months of age, empathic responses become more complex, for example, comforting and helping a troubled child and asking an adult for help (Eisenberg, 2000; Lewis, 2000).

Empathy is a critical element of prosocial behavior, and prosocial behavior is linked with healthy peer interactions. Children who have good empathy skills tend to display more prosocial tendencies, such as assisting or helping others, comforting others, or being responsive to someone else's needs (Findlay et al., 2006). These types of skills are dependent on emotional skills (for example, understanding emotions and emotion regulation), are viewed positively by others, and are associated with healthy social-emotional functioning, including maintaining positive peer relations. In short, empathic children display more socially competent, sensitive, and appropriate behavior and attitudes, and have fewer social difficulties with peers (Findlay et al., 2006).

Empathy is related to both social competence and success in school settings. Being able to identify, understand, and respond in a caring way to how someone is feeling provides the foundation for helpful and socially responsible behavior, friendships, cooperation, coping, and conflict resolution. For example, children who are better at labeling and describing emotions are also better accepted by their peers (Crick & Dodge, 1994; Fabes et al., 1994). Being able to identify emotions accurately in themselves and others helps prepare children to start school successfully (Raver & Knitzer, 2002). Empathic children with good perspective-taking skills are less likely to be physically, verbally, and indirectly aggressive toward peers (Kaukiainen et al., 1999). Research shows that young children with higher levels of empathy tend to be less aggressive, better liked, and more socially skilled, and make greater progress in school than children with lower levels of empathy (Arsenio, Cooperman, & Lover, 2000; Crick & Dodge, 1994; Denham, McKinley, Couchoud, & Holt, 1990; Izard et al., 2001; Katsurada & Sugawara, 1998). Children with better perspective-taking skills are more likely to offer emotional support to others (Carlo, Knight, Eisenberg, & Rotenberg, 1991; Litvack-Miller, McDougall, & Romney, 1997), which is associated, in turn, with better grades and higher academic achievement in elementary school (Wentzel, 1991, 1993).

In the *Second Step* early learning program's empathy unit children build their emotional literacy by developing skills for identifying and labeling a variety of emotions in themselves and others. Increasing children's empathy helps create a foundation for the units that follow. In addition to building empathy, these lessons help prepare children for the Emotion-Management Unit by increasing their awareness of what they are feeling so they can identify and cope with strong emotions. Empathy also provides a critical interpersonal foundation for carrying out the skills learned in the Friendship Skills and Problem-Solving Unit. In this unit children begin to think about how other people feel in order to make friends and solve interpersonal problems.

Emotion Management

A child who manages emotions well has the self-regulation to cope with strong emotions and express them in socially acceptable ways (Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinrad, 1998). Emotion-management skills can be used for both positive emotions (for example, inhibiting the impulse to run excitedly in the hallway) and negative or distressing emotions (for example, inhibiting the impulse to hit another child who takes a toy or

ball away). Children who can manage their feelings in emotionally charged situations are more successful in the transition to formal schooling (Raver & Knitzer, 2002). More emotional competence at ages 3 to 4 increases children's social competence both at age 3 to 4 and in kindergarten (Denham et al., 2003).

When feelings are not managed or regulated well, thinking can be impaired; when the brain is dealing with unregulated emotion, it cannot learn (National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2004). Effective emotion management is related to decreased levels of aggression (Brady, Myrick, & McElroy, 1998; Underwood, Coie, & Herbsman, 1992; Vitaro, Ferland, Jacques, & Ladouceur, 1998), and increased levels of social-emotional competence (Eisenberg, Fabes, & Losoya, 1997). Children who have a hard time managing their emotions are more likely to have difficulties behaving in socially skilled ways (Eisenberg et al., 1997). Children with poor emotion-management skills are also prone to act impulsively on their emotions rather than using problem-solving skills such as analyzing situations, anticipating consequences, and planning (Donohew et al., 2000; Simons, Carey, & Gaher, 2004).

Research shows that children can learn a variety of cognitive-behavioral strategies to manage their emotions (Nelson & Finch, 2000) and cope with stressful situations. For example, they can learn techniques to stop themselves, name their feeling, take deep belly breaths, and relax. Research suggests that teaching children to recognize strong feelings and use deep breathing and other stress-reducing strategies to “stay in control” can be effective ways to increase coping and reduce aggression and other problem behaviors (Lochman, 1992; Lochman, Burch, Curry, & Lampron, 1984).

Second Step emotion management lessons emphasize coping with situations that provoke strong feelings. Children are taught proactive strategies, such as identifying feelings and deep, centered breathing, to prevent strong feelings from escalating into negative behavior. When children are better able to focus and stay calm, they may be more likely to think about a situation before responding, rather than acting on their first impulse. It is important that children learn to take positive action early in their conflicts so that they can calm down before they are overwhelmed by emotion. Once an emotion becomes overwhelming, strong physiological reactions keep children from being able to reason well, and they have trouble using emotion-management strategies (Metcalf & Mischel, 1999). It can then take several minutes for their bodies and minds to return to normal. The ability to keep from escalating and being driven by strong emotions allows children the chance to employ many of the other skills taught in the program such as assertiveness, problem solving, and friendship skills.

Having the skills to manage strong emotions such as anger, disappointment, frustration, worry, and excitement can improve children's ability to get along with their peers and make good choices. Children who struggle with anxiety and are thus more likely to lack effective coping skills and misperceive situations as threatening (Greenberg, Domitrovitch, & Bumbarger, 1999), may also benefit from *Second Step* lessons on calming down in stressful situations.

Finally, in the Emotion-Management Unit, children are encouraged to use and increase their feelings vocabulary. Research on affective education programs has shown that children's verbal fluency in labeling and discussing emotions can be increased, and that such gains are linked to improved self-control and interpersonal problem solving (Greenberg, Kusche, Cook, & Quamma, 1995).

Friendship Skills and Problem Solving

In the Friendship Skills and Problem-Solving Unit, children are taught that when they are having a problem with peers, it is important to calm down first, and then describe the problem and come up with lots of safe ideas for solving it. These steps are the first two steps of the more comprehensive problem solving model children learn in *Second Step* during the elementary grades. The sequence of Problem-Solving Steps is based on what we know about effective patterns of thinking in social situations, and research shows that children's social problem-solving skills can be improved (Denham & Almeida, 1987). Aggressive children often have different patterns of thinking than less aggressive children do when they interact with their peers (Crick & Dodge, 1994; Rubin, Bream, & Rose-Krasnor, 1991), and are especially vigilant for threats in the environment. One significant problem is that aggressive children are more apt to interpret others' behaviors toward them as being hostile (Dodge & Frame, 1982). Their negative interpretations are important, because when children believe that peers are treating them hostilely, they are more likely to choose aggression in response. Aggressive children are also more likely to both think of aggressive solutions to problems and do the first thing they think of, so it is important to practice generating multiple solutions that are safe.

After having become familiar with the Calming-Down Steps in earlier lessons, in the Friendship Skills and Problem-Solving Unit children learn the first two of the *Second Step* Problem-Solving Steps: (1) S: Say the problem use words to describe the problem; and (2) T: Think of solutions; generate safe solutions. Teaching these skills can help reduce impulsive behavior, improve social adjustment, and prevent violence and other problems that affect the success of children and youth (Hawkins, Farrington, & Catalano, 1998; Shure & Spivack, 1980, 1982; Tolan & Guerra, 1994).

The Problem-Solving Steps lead children through constructive prosocial thought processes that are consistent with the social information-processing model described by Crick and Dodge (1994). Children must become aware of social cues, which is the focus of the Empathy Unit. Children are guided to practice thinking about how the other the other person is feeling when there is a problem. Children also need to "read" the social situation. To help children with this skill, *Second Step* lessons in the Friendship Skills and Problem Solving unit direct children to "Say the problem" to encourage them to use their words to describe the situation. In addition, children are encouraged to select prosocial goals for social interactions. This perspective is taught indirectly in the *Second Step* lessons when children learn to generate possible solutions that are safe.

To reiterate, positive social connections with peers support children's school readiness and are very important for children's happiness and successful development. In addition to problem solving, the Friendship Skills and Problem-Solving Unit helps children develop other skills for making and keeping friends. Children learn three specific different Fair Ways to Play (playing together, trading, and taking turns). Lessons in this unit also focus on important social skills for younger children, such as learning how to join in others' play, learning how to invite others in to their own play, and the prosocial goal of having fun with friends rather than focusing on getting one's own way.

Brain Builders

Preschool classrooms can effectively strengthen children's social-emotional competence and self-regulation through highly planned, teacher-led, direct instruction and structured routine activities combined with on-the-spot naturalistic coaching, modeling, and reinforcement of skills (Han & Kemple, 2006). Brain Builders are a simple and fun way for teachers to reinforce skills children are learning during the weekly themes and a unique way to build the skills most useful for success in the classroom environment. The Brain Builders are designed to increase children's ability to focus their attention, remember directions and other information, and control their impulses.

Research has shown that teachers can positively affect these aspects of children's self-regulatory ability, more technically referred to as attention, working memory, and inhibitory control. These skills, sometimes referred to as executive-function skills, are critical to success in classroom settings. Attention refers to the ability to direct, focus, and shift attention while screening out or ignoring distractions (Barkley, 1997; Rothbart & Posner, 2005). Working memory involves the ability to remember and use information, such as a teacher's directions or the directions for an activity (Demetriou, Christou, Spanoudis, & Platsidou, 2002; Ponitz et al., 2009). Inhibitory control helps children stop automatic but inappropriate responses or actions and remember appropriate behaviors, such as raising a hand before speaking (Blair, 2002; Rennie, Bull, & Diamond, 2004).

Young boys with good attention control have been shown to be more likely to avoid aggression by using nonhostile verbal responses when angry (Eisenberg, Fabes, Nyman, Bernzweig, & Pinulas, 1994). A study of over 1,000 children found that the ability to sustain attention and inhibit impulses helped buffer the effects of negative family environment on preschoolers' school readiness (NICHD Early Child Care Research Network, 2003). Multiple studies have found that inhibitory control affects academic achievement (Blair & Razza, 2007; St. Clair-Thompson & Gathercole, 2006). Working memory has also been shown to be connected to children's early math, reading, and cognitive skills (Gathercole & Pickering, 2000; Kail, 2003; St. Clair-Thompson & Gathercole, 2006), to predict language comprehension skills in 4- and 5-year-olds (Adams, Bourke, & Willis, 1999) and mathematics ability in children aged 6 to 8 (Bull & Scerif, 2001), and to be important for early literacy development (McClelland et al., 2007). Children with higher inhibitory control show more positive adaptation to preschool environments, including teacher-reported social competence (Blair, 2002), and tend to have more regulated emotion control (Kochanska, Murray, & Harlan, 2000).

Attention, working memory, and inhibitory skills can all be improved through experiences in classroom settings (Morrison, Ponitz, & McClelland, 2010). One way to develop these abilities is through games that directly challenge and provide practice for these skills (Burchinal, Peisner-Feinberg, Bryant, & Clifford, 2000). Games with explicit rules can help children build school readiness skills useful for academic learning (Bodrova & Leong, 2007). The *Second Step* early learning program includes games, known as Brain Builders, designed to be played one or more times every day. They get progressively harder over the course of the program as children's skills improve. This approach has been inspired partly by the research of Dr. Megan McClelland, based on her work developing tools for evaluating and improving aspects of children's self-regulation critical for school readiness and success (McClelland et al., 2006; McClelland et al., 2007). Her work has included research showing that games like the Brain Builders can be used successfully to improve children's self-regulation skills (Tominey & McClelland, 2010).

References

- Ackerman, D. J., & Barnett, W. S. (2005). *Prepared for kindergarten: What does “readiness” mean?* Available at the National Institute for Early Education Research Web site, <http://nieer.org/resources/policyreports/report5.pdf>.
- Adams, A. M., Bourke, L., & Willis, C. (1999). Working memory and spoken language comprehension in young children. *International Journal of Psychology, 34*, 364–373.
- Agostin, T. M., & Bain, S. (1997). Retention in kindergarten. *Psychology in the Schools, 34*(3), 219–228.
- Arsenio, W. F., Cooperman, S., & Lover, A. (2000). Affective predictors of preschoolers’ aggression and peer acceptance. *Developmental Psychology, 36*, 438–448.
- Barkley, R. A. (1997). *ADHD and the nature of self-control*. New York: Guilford Publications.
- Barkley, R. A. (2004). Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and self-regulation: Taking an evolutionary perspective on executive functioning. In R. F. Baumeister & K. D. Vohs (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation: Research, theory, and applications* (pp. 301–323). New York: Guilford Press.
- Birch, S. H., Ladd, G. W., & Blecher-Sass, H. (1997). The teacher-child relationship and children’s early school adjustment: Good-byes can build trust. *Journal of School Psychology, 35*, 61–79.
- Blair, C. (2002). School readiness: Integrating cognition and emotion in a neurobiological conceptualization of children’s functioning at school entry. *American Psychologist, 57*, 111–107.
- Blair, C., & Razza, R. P. (2007). Relating effortful control, executive function, and false belief understanding to emerging math and literacy ability in kindergarten. *Child Development, 78*(2), 647–663.
- Bodrova, E., & Leong, D. J. (2005). The importance of play: Why children need to play. *Early Childhood Today, 20*(1), 6–7.
- Bodrova, E., & Leong, D. J. (2007). *Tools of the mind: The Vygotskian approach to early childhood education*, 2nd ed. New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Boyd, J., Barnett, W. S., Bodrova, E., Leong, D. J., & Gombay, D. (2005). *Promoting children’s social and emotional development through preschool education*. New Brunswick, NJ: NIERR. Retrieved September 19, 2010 from <http://nieer.org/resources/policyreports/report7.pdf>.
- Brady, K. T., Myrick, H., & McElroy, S. (1998). The relationship between substance use disorders, impulse control disorders, and pathological aggression. *American Journal on Addictions, 7*, 221–230.
- Bull, R., & Scerif, G. (2001). Executive functioning as a predictor of children’s mathematics ability:

Inhibition, switching, and working memory. *Developmental Neuropsychology*, 19, 273–293.

Burchinal, M. R., Peisner-Feinberg, E. S., Bryant, D. M., & Clifford, R. M. (2000). Children's social and cognitive development and child care quality: Testing for differential associations related to poverty, gender, or ethnicity. *Applied Developmental Science*, 4(3), 149–165.

Carlo, G., Knight, G. P., Eisenberg, N., & Rotenberg, K. J. (1991). Cognitive processes and prosocial behaviors among children: The role of affective attributions and reconciliations. *Developmental Psychology*, 27, 456–461.

Cohen, J., Onunaku, N., Clothier, S., & Poppe, J. (2005). *Helping young children succeed: Strategies to promote early childhood social and emotional development*. (Research and Policy Report). Washington, D.C.: National Conference of State Legislatures.

Cole, P. M., Michel, M., & Teti, L. O. (1994). The development of emotion regulation and dysregulation: A clinical perspective. In N. A. Fox (Ed.), *The development of emotion regulation: Biological and behavioral considerations* (pp. 73–100). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning. (2007). *Background on social and emotional learning (SEL)*. Chicago: University of Illinois at Chicago.

Crick, N. R., & Dodge, K. A. (1994). A review and reformulation of social information processing mechanisms in children's social adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115, 74–101.

Demetriou, A., Christou, C., Spanoudis, G., & Platsidou, M. (2002). The development of mental processing: Efficiency, working memory, and thinking. *Monographs of the Society of Research in Child Development*, 67 (Serial No. 268).

Denham, S. A. (2006). Social-emotional competence as support for school readiness: What it is and how do we assess it? *Early Education and Development*, 17(1), 57–89.

Denham, S. A., & Almeida, M. C. (1987). Children's social problem-solving skills, behavioral adjustment, and interventions: A meta-analysis evaluating theory and practice. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 8, 391–409.

Denham, S. A., Blair, K. A., DeMulder, E., Levitas, J., Sawyer, K., Auerbach-Major, S., et al. (2003). Preschool emotional competence: Pathway to social competence. *Child Development*, 74(1), 238–256.

Denham, S. A., McKinley, M., Couchoud, E., & Holt, R. (1990). Emotional and behavioral predictors of preschool peer ratings. *Child Development*, 61, 1145–1152.

Dodge, K. A., & Frame, C. L. (1982). Social cognitive biases and deficits in aggressive boys. *Child*

Development, 53, 620–635.

- Donohew, L., Zimmerman, R., Cupp, P. S., Novak, S., Colon, S., & Abbell, R. (2000). Sensation seeking, impulsive-decision making, and risky sex: Implications for risk-taking and design of interventions. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28, 1079–1091.
- Duncan, G. J., Dowsett, C. J., Claessens A., Magnuson, K., Huston, A. C., Klebanov, P., et al. (2007). School readiness and later achievement. *Developmental Psychology* 43(6), 1428–1446.
- Eisenberg, N. (2000). Empathy and sympathy. In M. Lewis & J. M. Haviland-Jones (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions* (2nd ed., pp. 677–691). New York: Guilford Press.
- Eisenberg, N., Cumberland, A., & Spinrad, T. L. (1998). Parental socialization of emotion. *Psychology Inquiry*, 9, 241–273.
- Eisenberg, N., & Fabes, R. (1992). Emotion, regulation, and the development of social competence. In M. S. Clark (Ed.), *Emotion and social behavior: A review of personality and social psychology* (pp. 119–150). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., & Losoya, S. (1997). Emotional responding: Regulation, social correlates, and socialization. In P. Salovey and D. J. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications* (pp. 129–163). New York: BasicBooks.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., Guthrie, I. K., & Reiser, M. (2000). Dispositional emotionality and regulation: Their role in predicting quality of social functioning. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78, 136–157.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., Nyman, M., Bernzweig, J., & Pinulas, A. (1994). The relations of emotionality and regulation to children's anger-related reactions. *Child Development*, 65, 109–128.
- Fabes, R. A., Eisenberg, N., Karbon, M., Bernzweig, J., Speer, A. L., & Carlo, G. (1994). Socialization of children's vicarious emotional responding and prosocial behavior: Relations with mothers' perceptions of children's emotional reactivity. *Developmental Psychology*, 30, 44–55.
- Findlay, L. C., Girardi, A., & Coplan, R. J. (2006). Links between empathy, social behavior, and social understanding in early childhood. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 21, 347–359.
- Gathercole, S. E., & Pickering, S. J. (2000). Working memory deficits in children with low achievement in the national curriculum at 7 years of age. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 70(2), 177–194.

- Gilliam, W. S. (2005). *Pre-kindergartners left behind: Expulsion rates in state pre-kindergarten systems*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Child Study Center.
- Gilliam, W., & Shahar, G. (2006). Pre-kindergarten expulsion and suspension: Rates and predictors in one state. *Infants and Young Children, 19*(3), 228–245.
- Greenberg, M. T., Domitrovich, C., & Bumbarger, B. (1999). Preventing mental disorder in school-aged children: A review of the effectiveness of prevention programs. Report submitted to The Center for Mental Health Services (SAMHSA), Prevention Research Center, Pennsylvania State University.
- Greenberg, M. T., Kusche, C. A., Cook, E. T., & Quamma, J. P. (1995). Promoting emotional competence in school-aged children: The effects of the PATHS curriculum. *Development and Psychopathology, 7*, 117–136.
- Guay, F., Boivin, M., & Hodges, E. V. E. (1999). Predicting change in academic achievement: A model of peer experiences and self-system processes. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 91*, 105–115.
- Han, H. S., & Kemple, K. M. (2006). Components of social competence and strategies of support: Considering what to teach and how. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 34*(3), 241–246.
- Hawkins, J. D., Farrington, D. P., & Catalano, R. F. (1998). Reducing violence through the schools. In Eliot, D. S., Hamburg, B. A., & Williams, K. R. (Eds.) *Violence in American schools* (pp. 188–216). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Izard, C., Fine, S., Schultz, D., Mostow, A., Ackerman, B., & Youngstrom, E. (2001). Emotion knowledge as a predictor of social behavior and academic competence in children at risk. *Psychological Science, 12*, 18–23.
- Kail, R. V. (2003). Information processing and memory. In M. H. Bornstein, L. Davidson, C. L. M. Keyes, & K. A. Moore (Eds.), *Well-being: Positive development across the life course* (pp. 269–280). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Katsurada, E. & Sugawara, A. I. (1998). The relationship between hostile attributional bias and aggressive behavior in preschoolers. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 13*, 623–636.
- Kaukiainen, A., Bjorkqvist, K., Lagerspetz, K., Osterman, K., Salmivalli, C., Rothberg, S., et al. (1999). The relationships between social intelligence, empathy, and three types of aggression. *Aggressive Behavior, 25*, 81–89.
- Kochanska, G., Murray, K. T., & Harlan, E. T. (2000). Effortful control in early childhood: Continuity and change, antecedents, and implications for social development. *Developmental Psychology, 36*, 220.

- Kostelnik, M. J., Whiren, A. P., Soderman, A. K., Stein, L. C., & Gregory, K. (2002). *Guiding children's social development: Theory to practice*. Clifton Park, NY: Delmar.
- Kroesbergen, E. H., Van Luit, J. E. H., Van Lieshout, E. C. D. M., Van Loosbroek, E., & Van de Rijt, B. A. M. (2009). Individual differences in early numeracy: The role of executive functions and subitizing. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment, 27*(3), 226–236.
- Leffert, N., Benson, P. L., & Roehlkepartan, J. L. (1997). *Starting out right: Developmental assets for children*. Minneapolis, MN: Search Institute.
- Lewis, M. (2000). The emergence of human emotions. In M. Lewis & J. M. Haviland-Jones (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions* (2nd ed., pp. 265–280). New York: Guilford Press.
- Lin, H. L., Lawrence, F., & Gorrell, J. (2003). Kindergarten teachers' views of children's readiness for school. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 18*, 225–237.
- Litvack-Miller, W., McDougall, D., & Romney, D. M. (1997). The structure of empathy during middle childhood and its relationship to prosocial behavior. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs, 123*(3), 303–324.
- Lochman, J. E. (1992). Cognitive-behavioral intervention with aggressive boys: Three-year follow-up and preventive effects. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 60*(3), 426–432.
- Lochman J. E., Burch P. R., Curry J. F., & Lampron, L. B. (1984). Treatment and generalization effects of cognitive-behavioral and goal-setting interventions with aggressive boys. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 52*, 915–916.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. J. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications* (pp. 3–31). New York: Basic Books.
- McCay, L. O., & Keyes, D. W. (2002). Developing social competence in the inclusive primary classroom. *Childhood Education, 78*(2), 70–78.
- McClelland, M., Acock, A. C., & Morrison, F. J. (2006). The impact of kindergarten learning-related social skills on academic achievement at the end of elementary school. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 21*, 471–490.
- McClelland, M. M., Cameron, C. E., Connor, C. M., Farris, C. L., Jewkes, A. M., & Morrison, F. J. (2007). Links between behavioral regulation and preschoolers' literacy, vocabulary, and math skills. *Developmental Psychology, 43*, 947–959.

- McClelland, M. M., Ponitz, C. C., Messersmith, E. E., & Tominey, S. (2010). Self-regulation: The integration of cognition and emotion. In R. Lerner (Series Ed.) & W. Overton (Vol. Ed.), *Handbook of life-span development, Vol 1. Cognition, biology, and methods* (pp. 509–553). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Metcalf, J., & Mischel, W. (1999). A hot/cool-system analysis of delay of gratification: Dynamics of willpower. *Psychological Review*, 106, 3–19.
- Morrison, F. J., Ponitz, C. C., & McClelland, M. M. (2010). Self-regulation and academic achievement in the transition to school. In S. Calkins & M. Bell (Eds.), *Child development at the intersection of emotion and cognition* (pp. 203–224). Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.
- National Scientific Council on the Developing Child. (2004). *Young children develop in an environment of relationships* (Working paper no. 1). Retrieved September 19, 2010, from http://developingchild.harvard.edu/library/reports_and_working_papers/working_papers/wp1/.
- Nelson, W. M., III, & Finch, A. J., Jr. (2000). Managing anger in youth: A cognitive-behavioral intervention approach. In P. C. Kendall (Ed.), *Child and adolescent therapy: Cognitive-behavioral procedures* (pp. 129–170). New York: Guilford Press.
- NICHD Early Child Care Research Network (2003). Do children’s attention processes mediate the link between family predictors and school readiness? *Developmental Psychology*, 39, 581–593.
- Pitcl, J., Provance, E., & Kerslake, C. A., (2006). *Social and emotional well-being: The foundation for school readiness*. Available at WestEd Center for Prevention and Early Intervention (CPEI) Web site, <http://www.wested.org/cpei/SocEmotWellBeingDoc.pdf>.
- Ponitz, C. C., McClelland, M. M., Matthews, J. S., & Morrison, F. J. (2009). A structured observation of behavioral self-regulation and its contribution to kindergarten outcomes. *Developmental Psychology*, 45, 605–619.
- Raver, C. C. (2002). Emotions matter: Making the case for the role of young children’s emotional development for early school readiness. *Social Policy Report*, 16(3), 3–18.
- Raver, C. C. (2003). *Young children’s emotional development and school readiness* (ERIC Digest). Champaign, IL: ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education.
- Raver, C. C., & Knitzer, J. (2002). *Ready to enter: What research tells policymakers about strategies to promote social and emotional school readiness among three- and four-year-olds*. (Policy Paper No. 3). New York: National Center for Children in Poverty.

- Rennie, D., Bull, R., & Diamond, A. (2004). Executive functioning in preschoolers: Reducing the inhibitory demands of the Dimensional Change Card Sort task. *Developmental Neuropsychology*, 26, 423–443.
- Rimm-Kaufman, S. E., Pianta, R. C., & Cox, M. J. (2000). Teachers' judgments of problems in the transition to kindergarten. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 15(2), 147–166.
- Rothbart, M. K., & Posner, M. I. (2005). Genes and experience in the development of executive attention and effortful control. In L. A. Jenson & R. W. Larson (Eds.), *New horizons in developmental theory and research* (pp. 101–108). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Rubin, K. H., Bream, L. A., & Rose-Krasnor, L. (1991). Social problem-solving and aggression in childhood. In D. J. Pepler and K. H. Rubin (Eds.), *The development and treatment of childhood aggression* (pp. 219–248). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Assoc.
- Saarni, C. (1997). Emotional competence and self-regulation in childhood. In P. Salovey and D. J. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications* (pp. 35–66). New York: Basic Books.
- Schulting, A. B., Malone, P. S., & Dodge, K. A. (2005). The effect of school-based kindergarten transition policies and practices on child academic outcomes. *Developmental Psychology*, 41(6), 860–871.
- Shaw, D. S., Gilliom, M., Ingoldsby, E. M., & Nagin, D. (2003). Trajectories leading to school-age conduct problems. *Developmental Psychology*, 39(2), 189–200.
- Shonkoff, J. P., & Phillips, D. A. (Eds.). (2000). *From neurons to neighborhoods: The science of early childhood development*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Shure, M. B., & Spivack, G. (1980). Interpersonal problem solving as a mediator of behavioral adjustment in preschool and kindergarten children. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 1, 29–44.
- Shure, M. B., & Spivack, G. (1982). Interpersonal problem-solving in young children: A cognitive approach to prevention. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 10, 341–356.
- Simons, J. S., Carey, K. B., & Gaher, R. M. (2004). Lability and impulsivity synergistically increase risk for alcohol-related problems. *The American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse*, 30, 685–694.
- St. Clair-Thompson, H. L., & Gathercole, S. E. (2006). Executive functions and achievements on national curriculum tests: Shifting, updating, inhibition, and working memory. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 59, 745–759.

- Thompson, R. A., & Raikes, H. A. (2007). The social and emotional foundations of school readiness. In D. F. Perry, R. K. Kaufmann, & J. Knitzer (Eds.). *Social and emotional health in early childhood: Building bridges between services and systems* (pp. 13–37). Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes.
- Tolan, P. H., & Guerra, N. G. (1994). Prevention of delinquency: Current status and issues. *Applied and Preventive Psychology, 3*, 251–273.
- Tominey, S., & McClelland, M. M. (2010). Red light, purple light: Findings from a pilot intervention using classroom games to improve behavioral self-regulation. Manuscript under review.
- Underwood, M. K, Coie, J. D., & Herbsman, C. R. (1992). Display rules for anger and aggression in school-age children. *Child Development, 63*, 366–380.
- Vitaro, F., Brendgen, M., Larose, S., & Tremblay, R. E. (2005). Kindergarten disruptive behaviors, protective factors, and educational achievement by early adulthood. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 97*(4), 617–629.
- Vitaro, F., Ferland, F., Jacques, C. & Ladouceur, R. (1998). Gambling, substance use, and impulsivity during adolescence. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors, 12*(3), 185–194.
- Wentzel, K. R. (1991). Social competence at school: Relation between social responsibility and academic achievement. *Review of Educational Research, 61*, 1–24.
- Wentzel, K. R. (1993). Does being good make the grade? Social behavior and academic competence in middle school. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 85*(2), 357–364.
- Wentzel, K. R., & McNamara, C. (1999). Interpersonal relationships, emotional distress, and prosocial behavior in middle school. *The Journal of Early Adolescence, 19*(1), 114–125.