

Appendix O



Washington Social Emotional Learning Standards

Annotated Bibliography

WA State Standards and Benchmarks

JANUARY 2019

Elizabeth Nolan | Juliette Berg | Kathleen Theodore | Ramona Chauvin

MAKING RESEARCH RELEVANT

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Contents

| | Page |
|--|-------------|
| Introduction..... | 1 |
| Washington's K--12 Social Emotional Learning Standards and Benchmarks..... | 3 |
| Standard 1: Self-Awareness and Benchmarks 1A-1C..... | 4 |
| Standard 2: Self-Management and Benchmarks: 2A-2B..... | 8 |
| Standard 3: Self-Efficacy and Benchmarks: 3A-3C..... | 13 |
| Standard 4: Social Awareness and Benchmarks: 4A-4C..... | 15 |
| Standard 5: Social Management and Benchmarks: 5A-5C..... | 21 |
| Standard 6: Social Engagement and Benchmarks: 6A-6C..... | 24 |
| Appendix A References..... | 28 |

Introduction

In 2017, the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI) convened another workgroup to build upon and continue the work of the 2015 Washington Social Emotional Learning Benchmarks Workgroup (SELB). The Washington State Legislature directed both OSPI and the second SEL workgroup to develop detailed, culturally relevant grade-level SEL indicators for the existing Benchmarks, solicit feedback from statewide stakeholders, and develop a model of evidence-based best practices for implementation of grade-level SEL indicators. To support and inform the workgroup's development of SEL indicators, OSPI requested that the American Institutes for Research (AIR) conduct an initial scan of relevant literature (theoretical and empirical) related to each one of Washington State's K--12 Social Emotional Learning Standards.

AIR used a developmental lens to look closely at each one of the six competencies and focused on providing the following: an introduction to relevant literature, terminology that reflects alignment with the existing literature base, and the extensive mismatch that exists between frameworks and the terms defining social and emotional competencies (Berg et al., 2017) that need to be considered carefully when developing SEL standards, benchmarks, and indicators.

AIR conducted the scan using OSPI's definition of social emotional learning: "SEL is broadly understood as a process through which individuals build awareness and skills in managing emotions, setting goals, establishing relationships, and making responsible decisions that support success in school and in life."

<http://www.k12.wa.us/StudentSupport/SEL/default.aspx>

Key Points from the Initial Scan

- Development of social and emotional competencies occurs throughout the lifespan. (Jones & Kahn, 2017)
- Social, emotional, and behavioral competencies develop simultaneously as part of an ongoing change process; individuals are shaped by their social contexts, which, in turn, are also shaped by individuals and their interactions. (Lerner, 2006)
- Specific grade-level or age-related developmental competency definitions are difficult to assign; social and emotional development's "nature" is complex and non-linear.

- Based on the research, AIR categorized the annotated articles into one of two developmental periods: middle childhood (ages 6 through 11) or adolescence (ages 12 through 18); these two periods roughly align with the age range for students in grades K–12th (6-18 years old).
- AIR did not conduct a comprehensive or systematic review of all related literature; rather, AIR focused the scan on Washington State's definition of SEL.

Key Focus of AIR's SEL Literature Review: Version 2

- Identify literature related to Washington State's standards/competencies and each benchmark, as available, to inform and assist the SEL Workgroup in aligning benchmarks in accordance with the literature.
- Provide an annotated bibliography organized by the Washington SEL Standards and Benchmarks.

Washington's K--12 Social Emotional Learning Standards and Benchmarks

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
| STANDARD 1 SELF-AWARENESS – Individual has the ability to identify and name one’s emotions and their influence on behavior. | | STANDARD 4 SOCIAL AWARENESS – Individual has the ability to take the perspective of and empathize with others from diverse backgrounds and cultures. | |
| BENCHMARK Self-awareness 1A | Demonstrates awareness and understanding of one’s emotions. | BENCHMARK Social Awareness 4A | Demonstrates awareness of other people’s emotions, perspectives, cultures, language, history, identity, and ability. |
| Self-awareness 1B | Demonstrates knowledge of personal strengths, areas for growth, culture, linguistic assets, and aspirations. | Social Awareness 4B | Demonstrates an awareness and respect for one’s similarities and differences with others. |
| Self-awareness 1C | Demonstrates awareness and understanding of family, school, and community resources and supports. | Social Awareness 4C | Demonstrates an understanding of the social norms of individual cultures. |
| STANDARD 2 SELF-MANAGEMENT – Individual develops and demonstrates the ability to regulate emotions, thoughts, and behaviors in contexts with people different than oneself. | | STANDARD 5 SOCIAL MANAGEMENT – Individual has the ability to make safe and constructive choices about personal behavior and social interactions. | |
| BENCHMARK Self-management 2A | Demonstrates the skills to manage and express one’s emotions, thoughts, impulses, and stress in constructive ways. | BENCHMARK 5A | Demonstrates a range of communication and social skills to interact effectively with others. |
| Responsible Decision-Making 2B | Demonstrates constructive decision-making and problem-solving skills. | 5B | Demonstrates the ability to identify and take steps to resolve interpersonal conflicts in constructive ways. |
| | | 5C | Demonstrates the ability to engage in constructive relationships with individuals of diverse perspectives, cultures, language, history, identity, and ability. |
| STANDARD 3 SELF-EFFICACY – Individual has the ability to motivate oneself, persevere, and see oneself as capable. | | STANDARD 6 SOCIAL ENGAGEMENT – Individual has the ability to consider others and a desire to contribute to the well-being of school and community. | |
| BENCHMARK Self-management 3A | Demonstrates the skills to set, monitor, adapt, persevere, achieve, and evaluate goals. | BENCHMARK 6A | Demonstrates a sense of social and community responsibility. |
| Responsible Decision-Making 3B | Demonstrates problem-solving skills to engage responsibly in a variety of situations. | 6B | Demonstrates the ability to work with others to set, monitor, adapt, achieve, and evaluate goals. |
| Self-management 3C | Demonstrates awareness and ability to speak on behalf of personal rights and responsibilities. | 6C | Demonstrates effective strategies to contribute productively to one’s school, workplace, and community. |

Source: Social Emotional Learning Benchmarks Workgroup (SELB). (October 1, 2016), p. 3.

Standard 1: Self-Awareness

Individual has the ability to identify and name one's emotions and their influence on behavior.

Benchmark 1A: Demonstrates awareness and understanding of one's emotions.

ELEMENTARY

Saarni, C. (1999). *The development of emotional competence.* New York, NY: Guilford Press.

This book offers key insights into how children's development of emotional competence proceeds from infancy to early adolescence. The author defines emotional competence as being skilled in social transactions in which emotions are involved. The concept can be complex, because emotional competence as a construct represents a host of developmental theories. Beginning in preschool, children communicate about emotions to others, which helps them develop emotional awareness. As children mature, they begin to evaluate themselves and their emotions. In middle childhood, children become aware of conflicting emotions, especially with regard to the same person. In adolescence, children become aware of emotional cycles (e.g., feeling upset, then feeling embarrassed for feeling upset). Emotional and social development are deeply intertwined: Any interaction that causes an emotional response is embedded in the social and cultural context where the interaction takes place. To be meaningful, emotional competence must be considered with respect to an individual's cultural context.

SECONDARY

Hessler, D. M., & Katz, L. F. (2010). Brief report: Associations between emotional competence and adolescent risky behavior. *Journal of Adolescence*, *33*, 241–246.

This study looks at the connection between behavior and emotions: specifically, the association between risky behavior, self- or emotional awareness, and self-regulation. According to the authors, emotional awareness (knowledge about one's feelings) precedes emotion regulation. To measure emotion regulation as a single construct, the researchers used a five-item scale, which asked adolescents to rate the difficulty they experienced in managing emotions like anger and sadness. The findings suggest that children's emotional competence could decrease risky behavior in adolescence. The authors also find that emotional competence skills developed earlier, in middle childhood, influence adolescent behavior. Specifically, children who did not develop adequate emotional awareness and regulation were more likely to turn to substance abuse and other externalizing behaviors as a coping mechanism, demonstrating the important connection between self-awareness and self-management.

Benchmark 1B: Demonstrates knowledge of personal strengths, areas for growth, culture, linguistic assets, and aspirations.

ELEMENTARY

Eccles, J. S. (1999). The development of children ages 6 to 14. *The Future of Children*, 9(2), 30–44.

This article examines a series of developmental changes that characterize middle childhood and adolescence. Eccles outlines the developmental conflict to be resolved at each developmental period. In middle childhood, children are learning to be competent and productive—cognitively, emotionally, and behaviorally—but may struggle with feelings of inferiority and struggling to perform well. In adolescence, children are figuring out who they are and are developing their identities; however, they may become confused about their future roles. Self-awareness is a key skill that develops in middle childhood. Children form beliefs about how to learn, for example, and then experience strategies in classrooms that confirm or update their beliefs. Children become better able to retrieve information, reflect on that information, and integrate it to solve novel problems. To do this successfully, children in middle childhood must reflect on their emotions and behaviors and make a plan to act similarly or differently in the future (moving into self-management).

Reese, E., Yan, C., Jack, F., & Hayne, H. (2009). Emerging identities: Narrative and self from early childhood to early adolescence. In K. C. McLean & M. Pasupathi (Eds.), *Narrative development in adolescence: Creating the storied self*. Boston, MA: Springer.

In this chapter, the authors argue that the origins of self-awareness and creation of a narrative of oneself begin in early childhood and have foundations in parent–child interactions. As children mature, their ability to tell stories about themselves and their identities matures as well. Older children recall earlier parent–child memories as they begin to formulate their identities. Toward the upper band of middle childhood and into early adolescence, children begin to be able to make meaning out of events in their lives and integrate these situations into their identity formation. These processes set the stage for self-concept and self-awareness.

SECONDARY

Eccles, J. S. (1999). The development of children ages 6 to 14. *The Future of Children, 9(2)*, 30–44.

This article examines a series of developmental changes that characterize middle childhood and adolescence. Eccles outlines the developmental conflict to be resolved at each developmental period. In middle childhood, children are learning to be competent and productive—cognitively, emotionally, and behaviorally—but may struggle with feelings of inferiority and struggling to perform well. In adolescence, children are figuring out who they are and are developing their identities; however, they may become confused about their future roles. Self-awareness is a key skill that develops in middle childhood. Children form beliefs about how to learn, for example, and then experience strategies in classrooms that confirm or update their beliefs. Children become better able to retrieve information, reflect on that information, and integrate it to solve novel problems. To do this successfully, children in middle childhood must reflect on their emotions and behaviors and make a plan to act similarly or differently in the future (moving into s.

Eccles, J. S. (2009). Who am I and what am I going to do with my life? Personal and collective identities as motivators of action. *Educational Psychologist, 44(2)*, 78–89.elf-management).

In adolescence especially, children begin to develop a set of beliefs about themselves and begin to think about who they would like to become in the future—in essence, they begin to form their personal identities. These reflection skills are informed by two processes, both of which are social in nature. First, every child grows up in a cultural and social context and is exposed to a different set of behavioral norms based on their culture. Their reactions to the behaviors they witness shape their awareness and identity. Second, as children mature, they are better able to select their social contexts—including peer groups and social activities—which further modify their beliefs about themselves and their related behaviors.

Hessler, D. M., & Katz, L. F. (2010). Brief report: Associations between emotional competence and adolescent risky behavior. *Journal of Adolescence, 33*, 241–246.

This study looks at the connection between behavior and emotions: specifically, the association between risky behavior, self- or emotional awareness, and self-regulation. According to the authors, emotional awareness (knowledge about one's feelings) precedes emotion regulation. To measure emotion regulation as a single construct, the researchers used a five-item scale, which asked adolescents to rate the difficulty they experienced in managing emotions like anger and sadness. The findings suggest that children's emotional competence could decrease risky behavior in adolescence. The authors also find that emotional competence skills developed earlier, in middle childhood, influence adolescent behavior. Specifically, children

who did not develop adequate emotional awareness and regulation were more likely to turn to substance abuse and other externalizing behaviors as a coping mechanism, demonstrating the important connection between self-awareness and self-management.

Benchmark 1C: Demonstrates awareness and understanding of family, school, and community resources and supports.

Standard 2: Self-Management

Individual develops and demonstrates the ability to regulate emotions, thoughts, and behaviors in contexts with people different than oneself.

Benchmark 2A: Demonstrates the skills to manage and express one’s emotions, thoughts, impulses, and stress in constructive ways. (Self-Management)

Benchmark 2B: Demonstrates constructive decision-making and problem-solving skills. (Responsible Decision Making)

ELEMENTARY

Center on the Developing Child at Harvard University (2011). *Building the Brain’s “Air Traffic Control” System: How Early Experiences Shape the Development of Executive Function: Working Paper No. 11.* <http://www.developing.child.harvard.edu>

This brief defines executive function and argues that executive function skills are crucial building blocks for the early development of cognitive and social capacities, that differences in individual developmental trajectories and environments as well as significant adversity affect the development of executive function skills, and that interventions that support executive function can be effective. The brief provides a mapping of the increasingly complex executive function skills that develop from birth through adulthood. The report argues that teachers and parents would benefit from information and training in the development of executive function skills.

Davidson, M. C., Amso, D., Anderson, L. C., & Diamond, A. (2006). Development of cognitive control and executive functions from 4 to 13 years: Evidence from manipulations of memory, inhibition, and task switching. *Neuropsychologia*, 44(11), 2037–2078.

This study examined three key components of executive function in early and middle childhood: working memory, inhibitory control or controlling impulses, and task-switching. The authors provide subjects with a series of tasks that they must complete to measure their executive functions. The authors find that, after the age of 6, children are better able to hold multiple thoughts in their minds at once and use clues from their contexts to make decisions about their behaviors. However, these skills do not fully mature until young adulthood, meaning it is more difficult for younger children to control their impulses and regulate behavior. Cognitive flexibility or the ability to switch between tasks was found to be not fully mature at age 13; the authors concluded this skill does not mature until adulthood. Older children – those entering the adolescent years and adults – are more likely to control their impulses on tasks to preserve

their accuracy of completion, but this is far less prevalent in younger children. The study demonstrates that inhibition presides over attention and behaviors.

Diamond, A. (2012). Activities and programs that improve children’s executive functions. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 21(5), 335-341.

This article defines executive functions, which include inhibition, working memory, and cognitive flexibility and describes general principles for strategies that effectively improve EFs in young children. Children with the weakest EFs benefit the most. Effects on one component of EF does not necessarily transfer to another component. EF demands need to keep increasing. Repeated practice is key. How an activity is done is important for its effectiveness. Outcomes measures must test the limits of children’s EF abilities to see a benefit. Activities that have been reported by at least one study to improve EFs include computerized trainings and physical activity. The author notes that programs that successfully improve EFs likely also need to address emotional and social development.

Haydon, Abigail, and Nat Kendall-Taylor (2015). *Communicating Scientific Findings About Adolescence and Self-Regulation: Challenges and Opportunities*, OPRE Report 2015-78, Washington, DC: Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation, Administration for Children and Families, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

This report reviews and synthesizes over 12 years of research conducted by the Frameworks Institute to highlight the strengths and challenges around communicating the science of adolescent self-regulation. The brief summarizes the untranslated science of self-regulation and the patterns of thinking that present challenges to communicating this science. These include that self-regulation is about the self, that development “just happens,” that development is a “black box,” that the effects of early experiences are fixed, that adolescence is about surviving not thriving, that interventions are about programs for “those people,” and that damage done is damage done. The brief that provides recommendations for ways to build a new narrative around self-regulation in adolescence, which include using values to establish shared beliefs and explaining that self-regulation is important.

McClelland, M. M., Ponitz, C. C., Messersmith, E. & Tominey, S. (2010). *Self-regulation: The integration of cognition and emotion*. In R. Lerner (Series Ed.) & W. Overton (Vol. Ed.), *Handbook of lifespan human development*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley and Sons.

This chapter examines self-regulation across the lifespan, arguing that self-regulation helps to select, optimize, and use strategies to pursue and refine goals and manage life events and transitions. In other words, self-regulation encompasses the coping skills to manage life events

and deal with challenges. Self-regulation involves the integration of emotion, cognition, and behavior. The development of self-regulation occurs through dynamic interactions at multiple levels of influence, with the developing individual as an active agent in its development. The self-regulation model of decision-making proposes three phases: generation of ideas and action, implementation, and evaluation. These phases are rooted in and improved by self-regulation. School engagement and motivation are related to self-regulation. In elementary school, attention, working memory, and inhibitory control (executive function) predict classroom behavior and achievement. As children get older and move from concrete operations to formal operational thinking, decision-making and motivation become markers of self-regulation. Children self-regulate through complex, future-oriented processes such as goal-setting, planning, and weighing options in terms of values, expectancies, and possible consequences. As children move towards adolescence, they develop more fully conscious, self-directed, and self-regulatory minds and better able to control how they process information.

Murray, D. W., Rosanbalm, K., Christopoulos, C., & Hamoudi, A. (2015). *Self-regulation and toxic stress: Foundations for understanding self-regulation from an applied developmental perspective* (OPRE Report #2015-21). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation, Administration for Children and Families.

This article focuses on the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral domains of self-regulation with an eye toward contextual factors. Self-regulation is defined as managing thoughts and emotions to produce goal-directed behaviors, including organizing, controlling impulses, and solving problems. Self-regulation is malleable, or changeable, across the lifespan and can be taught at any age, if appropriately modeled. Although manageable stress can strengthen self-regulation or coping skills, extreme stress can have a toxic effect if it overwhelms children's skills or the support that is available to them.

Rosanbalm, K.D., & Murray, D.W. (2017). *Caregiver Co-regulation Across Development: A Practice Brief*. OPRE Brief #2017-80. Washington, DC: Office of Planning, Research, and Evaluation, Administration for Children and Families, US. Department of Health and Human Services.

Self-regulation development is dependent on predictable, responsive, and supportive environments. This brief provides caregivers and program administrators guidelines for effective co-regulation support—the process between caring adults and children, youth, or young adults that fosters self-regulation development—at each stage of development. Co-regulation involves warm, responsive relationships, a structured environment, and explicit

teaching and coaching of self-regulation skills. The amount of co-regulation a child needs varies by developmental period and by child. The brief provides suggested skills for caregivers to teacher and practice with children in elementary school and during adolescence.

Zelazo, P. D. (2015). Executive function: Reflection, iterative reprocessing, complexity, and the developing brain. *Developmental Review, 38*, 55–68.

This article describes the development of executive function in early to middle childhood. Executive function includes cognitive flexibility, working memory, and inhibitory control, and the process starts early in childhood. Executive function promotes self-management, including the ability to regulate one's own emotions and behaviors, and helps children do so in a variety of contexts by considering others' perspectives. It also includes inhibitory control, or the ability to suppress attention that enables us to plan, stay focused on our plan, and manage our own behavior toward that goal. The author presents a model of how the brain reflects on and reprocesses information prior to generating a behavioral response. In early childhood, executive function abilities undergo a rapid transformation and in the preschool years, children acquire basic skills in reflection. In later years, children use their baseline executive functions skills repetitively, incorporating their increasing levels of reflection to reprocess their executive function abilities. The author claims it is possible to strengthen the executive function in the brain by targeting the abilities of reflection and response.

SECONDARY

Blackwell, L. S., Trzesniewski, K. H., & Dweck, C. S. (2007). Implicit theories of intelligence predict achievement across an adolescent transition: A longitudinal study and an intervention. *Child Development, 78*(1), 246–263.

In contrast to earlier developmental periods, adolescence is marked by shifting societal demands, conflicting role demands, increasingly complex social relations, and new educational expectations/environment, in addition to physical changes. The ways adolescents navigate these changes, and the skills they have at their disposal to do so, can predict later outcomes. Put another way, adolescents' ability to see themselves as capable is dictated by social contexts as well as individual beliefs. The authors posit that adolescents' beliefs about intelligence—whether it is fixed or malleable—can affect their response to academic challenges. Students who believe that intelligence is malleable understand that intellectual ability can always grow—in other words, they are more likely to see themselves as capable and able to persevere.

Duckworth, A., Kim, B., & Tsukayama, E. (2013). Life stress impairs self-control in early adolescence. *Frontiers in Psychology, 3*(608), 1–12.

This study examines how the occurrence of negative life events affects self-control—the tendency to regulate impulses and resist immediate rewards—in early adolescence through three studies. Using longitudinal data from three large samples, the researchers found that negative life events reported by the child or his or her mother led to small, measurable impacts on self-control. The findings suggest further support for the notion that stress can impair self-control skills in adolescence. In the discussion, the authors discuss the hypothesized implications for self-control in terms of two models of self-control: hot (impulsive, trigger-prone responses) and cool (flexible, slow, strategic responses). As stress levels increase, the “hot” system is more likely to dominate individual processing, because the environment has become less stable.

Gestsdottir, S., & Lerner, R. M. (2008). Positive development in adolescence: The development and role of intentional self-regulation. *Human Development*, 51, 202–224.

The authors posit that the fundamental challenge of adolescence is adapting to physical, contextual, and social changes. Navigating these transitions requires self-regulation, a term for skills that enable one to monitor and control thoughts, emotions, and behaviors. Interactions between individuals and their contexts are bidirectional: that is, individuals influence their contexts and contexts help individuals develop. The authors explain that certain self-regulation skills appear in toddlers (e.g., delayed gratification) and develop throughout childhood (e.g., executive function). Higher-order self-regulation capacities, like goal-driven behavior, are mostly acquired during adolescence.

Standard 3: Self-Efficacy

Individual has the ability to motivate oneself, persevere, and see oneself as capable.

Benchmark 3A: Demonstrates the skills to set, monitor, adapt, persevere, achieve, and evaluate goals. (Self-Management)

Benchmark 3B: Demonstrates problem-solving skills to engage responsibly in a variety of situations. (Responsible Decision Making)

Benchmark 3C: Demonstrates awareness and ability to speak on behalf of personal rights and responsibilities. (Self-Management)

ELEMENTARY

Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs as shapers of children’s aspirations and career trajectories. *Child Development*, 72(1), 187–206.

This empirical study tested how children’s career aspirations and pathways are affected by children’s—and their parents’—perceived self-efficacy, defined as the belief that individuals can achieve outcomes they define for themselves through action and agency. The authors discuss how self-efficacy beliefs emerge in childhood through a conceptual model. In the model, family socioeconomic status influences parents’ perceived self-efficacy as well as their academic aspirations, which then influences children’s perceived social, academic, and self-regulatory efficacy, as well as their academic and career aspirations. The authors suggest that academic self-efficacy has the greatest impact on aspirations: they can believe from a young age in their abilities, due to influences from their parents. To test the model, researchers administered a battery of measures. Results indicate support for the conceptual model, suggesting that children’s beliefs about their own efficacy is influenced mainly by parents’ beliefs and influenced indirectly by family socioeconomic status.

Schectman, N., DeBarger, A. H., Dornsife, A. H., Rosier, S., & Yarnall, L. (2013). Promoting grit, tenacity, and perseverance: Critical factors for success in the 21st century. Menlo Park, CA: Center for Technology in Learning, SRI International. Retrieved from <http://pgbovine.net/OET-Draft-Grit-Report-2-17-13.pdf>

This technical report summarizes literature on the concepts of perseverance, grit, and tenacity as three key “noncognitive” skills that can help students reach their long-term goals. The combination of being challenged and interested offers the greatest opportunity for cognitive engagement and perseverance at any age. Perseverance grows when students have the

opportunity to act in service of worthwhile goals. According to the research, students' age and stage of development affect how they understand a worthy goal and thus impact their ability to persevere. Younger students may respond better to shorter-term goals in alignment with brain development. When students see that their effort will be worthwhile in that what they are being asked to do is challenging and interesting, they are more likely to persevere.

SECONDARY

Crone, E. A., & Dahl, R. E. (2012). Understanding adolescence as a period of social-affective engagement and goal flexibility. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, 13, 636–650.

Through a meta-analysis, the authors review a series of functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) studies to investigate complex developmental processes in adolescence. Recent evidence suggests that adolescents' brains change in ways that cause them to seek out external stimuli and to increase their ability for social reasoning. Beginning in early adolescence, or around age 12, structural brain changes lead children to seek novelty and new sensations and are more motivated when they receive attention and admiration from their peers. The authors find that these brain changes peak in mid-adolescence or around age 15 and, to a lesser degree, influence children as they become adults. With this evidence, the authors posit a conceptual model that shows adolescence as a period of great learning and flexibility, where adolescents have great capacity for adjusting their goals, motivations, and priorities.

Dweck, C. S., & Master, A. (2008). Self-theories motivate self-regulated learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 31–51). New York, NY: Erlbaum.

In this chapter, the authors argue that students use learning strategies because they believe these strategies will help them overcome obstacles in their learning, but that many students do not hold such theories about their intelligence and perseverance. Instead, many students hold a fixed view of intelligence that discourages them from taking charge of their learning and goals and dissuades them from seeing themselves as capable. When students adopt a different view of intelligence, namely that intelligence can change and grow, they update their prior beliefs and can orient themselves toward a belief in their own self-efficacy.

Standard 4: Social Awareness

Individual has the ability to take the perspective of and empathize with others from diverse backgrounds and cultures.

Benchmark 4A: Demonstrates awareness of other people’s emotions, perspectives, cultures, language, history, identity, and ability.

ELEMENTARY

Halberstadt, A. G., Denham, S. A., & Dunsmore, J. C. (2002). Affective social competence. *Social Development, 10(1)*, 79–119.

The authors describe theory supporting affective social competence, a model that is composed of three dynamic competencies: sending affective (emotion) messages, receiving affective messages, and experiencing affect. To have this competence, children should be aware of and able to identify affect in oneself and in others; be able to interact within a complex, changing social context; and manage and regulate emotions and accompanying behavior. The authors emphasize that the ability of children to integrate these skills is a product of children’s socialization patterns as well as their past, present, and future relationships. This article also contains a useful table that summarizes and compares prior theories of social competence.

Rubin, K. H., Bukowski, W. M., Parker, J. G., & Bowker, J. C. (2008). Peer interactions, relationships, and groups. In D. Kuhn (Ed.), *Children and Adolescent Development: An Advanced Course* (pp. 141-180).

This chapter explores the developmental context of peer relationships for children across the life span. The authors posit that there are interwoven layers of complexity in children’s social participation, which consists of interactions, relationships, and group membership. Each “order” of complexity is rooted in culture, meaning that children learn to interact with one another in the culture in which they group up. In middle childhood and early adolescence, school is the main context in which children’s social interactions take place. As children experience different types of peer groups, they become aware of emotions, perspectives, and cultures of children different from them.

SECONDARY

Choudhury, S., Blakemore, S-J., & Charman, T. (2006). Social cognitive development during adolescence. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience. 1(3)*, 165–174.

Social relationships are particularly important during adolescence. In recent years, new technology has enabled more studies of the adolescent brain; these studies have shown that the brain undergoes major structural changes during adolescence. The changes that take place in the brain overall affect social cognition, or information processing with regard to social situations. Using an experiment, the researchers examined the development of emotional perspective taking during adolescence. The findings suggest that the ability to take perspectives in adolescence matures greatly as brain undergoes structural changes. For example, the authors speculate that pre-adolescents have immature cognition related to perspective-taking relative to adolescents and adults. Adolescents' skills for assessing emotions in others' faces is enhanced, and they are better able to take perspectives of others, but they lack the inferential skills of adults with regard to perspective-taking.

Eisenberg, N., Spinrad, T. L., & Knafo-Noam, A. (2013). Prosocial development. In P.D. Zelazo (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Developmental Psychology, vol. 2: Self and Other*.

This chapter discusses how empathy-related responses and prosocial behavior – defined as voluntary behavior to benefit another person – develop across childhood. The authors show that environmental factors contribute to differences in behaviors like moral reasoning, social competence, self-regulation, and low aggression. These prosocial behaviors depend on secure attachment to parents, positive peer and sibling relationships, and the school environment. School-age children tend to develop more prosocial behaviors, while adolescence may see a decline and rebound in the adoption of prosocial behaviors. Empathy-related behaviors, like sympathy, increase throughout childhood due to ongoing cognitive development and emotional awareness.

Benchmark 4B: Demonstrates an awareness and respect for one's similarities and differences with others.

ELEMENTARY

Mah, V. K., & Ford-Jones, E. L. (2012). Spotlight on middle childhood: Rejuvenating the "forgotten years." *Paediatrics and Child Health, 17(2)*, 81–83.

In this article, the authors discuss how in middle childhood, children shift from an inward view of the world to an outward view. Children become more aware of their own feelings, realizing that they are distinct from others. At this age range, children begin to consider the feelings of others. The ability to do so requires a certain level of intelligence, communication, insight, empathy, altruism, and morality. Forming this prosocial behavior of considering another's point of view is partially dependent on parent modeling as well as genetics. Children also begin to

understand stereotypes during this developmental period. Thus, how one comes to view and interact with the world as adults is largely established during middle childhood.

McKown, C., & Weinstein, R. S. (2003). The development and consequences of stereotype consciousness in middle childhood. *Child Development, 74*(2), 498–515.

This study looked at age-related changes in children's conception of stereotypes, children's responses to stereotype threat conditions, and how these conceptions and responses affect their cognitive outputs. Stereotype consciousness is an awareness that others endorse preconceived notions about particular groups of people. Stereotype threat is when one fears their performance will be judged by existing stereotype, which then impacts their own performance negatively. The study finds that the ability to infer an individual's stereotype increases dramatically between ages 6-10, or throughout middle childhood. However, neither age nor awareness of other's stereotypes predicts response to stereotype conditions - African American and Latino children were more likely to be aware of broadly held stereotypes than White and Asian children. This suggests that "academically stigmatized ethnic groups" are also more susceptible to stereotype threat.

SECONDARY

Blakemore, S.-J., & Mills, K. L. (2014). Is adolescence a sensitive period for sociocultural processing? *Annual Review of Psychology, 65*(1), 187–207.

In this review article, the authors explore the functional and structural changes that occur in the brain during adolescence. During this developmental period, adolescents must navigate more complex, intimate relationships, while the parts of the brain that control social cognitive processes continue to develop. The changes in social environment that occur during adolescence might interact with increasing executive functions and heightened social sensitivity to influence a number of adolescent behaviors. For example, the authors write that while the reward-seeking area of the brain undergoes changes during adolescence, children are also more influenced by social and contextual cues from their peers. In other words: they may be more likely to engage in what adults perceive as risky decision-making because 1) they underestimate levels of risk and 2) anticipate the social rewards (e.g., attention) from their peers will be high.

Rubin, K. H., Bukowski, W. M., Parker, J. G., & Bowker, J. C. (2008). Peer interactions, relationships, and groups. In D. Kuhn (Ed.), *Children and Adolescent Development: An Advanced Course* (pp. 141-180).

This chapter explores the developmental context of peer relationships for children across the life span. The authors posit that there are interwoven layers of complexity in children’s social participation, which consists of interactions, relationships, and group membership. Each “order” of complexity is rooted in culture, meaning that children learn to interact with one another in the culture in which they group up. In adolescence, children’s friendships further solidify. Adolescents build close relationships with individuals with similar attributes and “behavioral status,” such as being aggressive or being more prosocial. Group membership is an important feature of the adolescent years: this is when children define and describe which groups or statuses they belong to in school.

Benchmark 4C: Demonstrates an understanding of the social norms of individual cultures.

ELEMENTARY

Chen, X., & French, D. C. (2008). Children’s social competence in cultural context. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 59(1), 591–616.

In this literature review, the authors concentrate on how cultural values and norms influence social competence, defined as the ability to attain success in social situations. Success is conceptualized as active participation in social situations, and appropriate social behaviors. Social competence contains two components: (1) Social initiative is the tendency to initiate social interactions, and (2) behavioral control is the regulation of one’s emotions and behaviors. The authors note that different societies place different values on social initiative and behavioral control in children and adolescents, which affect the interpretation and evaluation of specific aspects of social functioning including sociability, shyness-inhibition, cooperation-compliance, and aggression-defiance. A number of international comparative studies are reviewed about each concept and the examples are useful for thinking about specific populations that schools and districts serve. For instance, with regard to peer relationships, North American children moving from middle childhood to adolescence are more likely to have larger groups of friends, and intense “clique” friendships tend to decline. However, in more collectivistic societies (e.g., Arabic, Chinese, Indonesian, Israeli, and Latino) children may be more likely to identify with a single group of friends, maintain fierce loyalty to that group, and may face greater pressure to conform to group norms.

McKown, C., & Weinstein, R. S. (2003). The development and consequences of stereotype consciousness in middle childhood. *Child Development*, 74(2), 498–515.

This study looked at age-related changes in children's conception of stereotypes, children's responses to stereotype threat conditions, and how these conceptions and responses affect

their cognitive outputs. Stereotype consciousness is an awareness that others endorse preconceived notions about particular groups of people. Stereotype threat is when one fears their performance will be judged by existing stereotype, which then impacts their own performance negatively. The study finds that the ability to infer an individual's stereotype increases dramatically between ages 6-10, or throughout middle childhood. However, neither age nor awareness of other's stereotypes predicts response to stereotype conditions - African American and Latino children were more likely to be aware of broadly held stereotypes than White and Asian children. This suggests that "academically stigmatized ethnic groups" are also more susceptible to stereotype threat.

SECONDARY

Choudhury, S., Blakemore, S-J., & Charman, T. (2006). Social cognitive development during adolescence. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*. 1(3), 165–174.

Social relationships are particularly important during adolescence. In recent years, new technology has enabled more studies of the adolescent brain; these studies have shown that the brain undergoes major structural changes during adolescence. The changes that take place in the brain overall affect social cognition, or information processing with regard to social situations. Using an experiment, the researchers examined the development of emotional perspective taking during adolescence. The findings suggest that the ability to take perspectives in adolescence matures greatly as brain undergoes structural changes. For example, the authors speculate that pre-adolescents have immature cognition related to perspective-taking relative to adolescents and adults. Adolescents' skills for assessing emotions in others' faces is enhanced, and they are better able to take perspectives of others but lack the inferential skills of adults with regard to perspective-taking.

Leventhal, T., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2003). Children and youth in neighborhood contexts. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 12(1), 27-31.

In this article, the authors summarize empirical and theoretical literature on how neighborhoods can impact children's development. The article primarily focuses on socioeconomic inequality. Families tend to congregate – and children tend to grow up – in areas that are segregated by income; children learn and understand norms relative to the social groups they interact with in their neighborhoods. Large experimental and quasi-experimental studies have demonstrated that neighborhood effects are real, that is, that children achieve higher education attainment, and better mental and physical health, when their neighborhoods

have larger socioeconomic resources. Because families have choices about where they live, it is difficult to distinguish “neighborhood effects” from the impacts that families have on children.

Standard 5: Social Management

Individual has the ability to make safe and constructive choices about personal behavior and social interactions.

Benchmark 5A: Demonstrates a range of communication and social skills to interact effectively with others. (Relationship Skills)

ELEMENTARY

Benchmark 5B: Demonstrates the ability to identify and take steps to resolve interpersonal conflicts in constructive ways. (Relationship Skills)

Benchmark 5C: Demonstrates the ability to engage in constructive relationships with individuals of diverse perspectives, cultures, language, history, identity, and ability. (Relationship Skills)

ELEMENTARY

Hay, D. F., Payne, A., & Chadwick, A. (2004). Peer relations in childhood. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 45(1), 84–108.

The authors present a developmental model that describes normal peer relations and highlights processes that underlie the emergence of problems with peers in childhood. They theorize that six processes contribute to children’s harmonious interactions with their peers: (1) joint attention, or seeking out attention and responding to attention bids from another person, through both verbal and nonverbal means; (2) emotion regulation, or controlling negative feelings in response to momentary frustration; (3) inhibitory control, or limiting one’s behavioral response to novel challenges; (4) imitation, or matching another’s behavior; (5) causal understanding, e.g., understanding how another’s intentions affect that person’s behavior; and (6) language. Children’s relationships with their peers begin in the first years of life. By the age of 3, children have clear preferences for certain peers. Social skills that facilitate peer relationships consolidate in the preschool years. In middle childhood, relationships mature as peer groups become more structured; however, children who were rejected by peers in earlier developmental periods may face difficulty in navigating more complex social interactions later in childhood.

Ladd, G. W. (1999). Peer relationships and social competence during early and middle childhood. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50(1), 333–359.

This literature review examines major research trends in the study of children’s social competence and peer relationships since the 1970s. Through systematic investigations, many researchers have been able to better understand how children develop their social competence and relationships with one another. Social competence is defined as the view that children are differentially skilled and bring different levels of skills to social tasks. Social competence can encompass constructs such as friendship, peer acceptance, and behaviors with peers.

Certain behavioral patterns (e.g., aggression, withdrawal) increase children’s risk for peer rejection or loss of friendship. However, age, sociocultural context, and gender affect whether children truly experience such outcomes. Social competence is also an outcome of early family socialization, making it important to understand parenting perspectives when assessing child competence and ability to form relationships.

Laursen, B., Finkelstein, B. D., & Betts, N. T. (2001). A developmental meta-analysis of peer conflict resolution. *Developmental Review*, 21(4), 423-449.

The authors conduct a series of meta-analyses to examine how conflict resolution – the ability to amicably resolve disputes – looks across the lifespan, especially in childhood and young adulthood. Negotiation, coercion, and disengagement are investigated as skills in particular. In this review, negotiation refers to compromise, where both sides make concessions; behaviors may include sharing, taking turns, or discussing to resolve differences. Coercion refers to using assertive tactics, such as verbal commands, denials, or physical aggression, to get the other person to submit to demands. Disengagement is dropping the conflict without achieving a resolution, such as by walking away or ignoring. In early and middle childhood, children are more likely to employ coercion strategies, and have difficulty disengaging. The preferred strategy in adolescence is negotiation, although they may also use coercion and disengagement in equal measure. As children enter young adulthood, towards the end of high school, they exhibit increased levels of negotiation and more nuanced negotiation tactics.

SECONDARY

Guerra, N. G., & Bradshaw, C. P. (2008). Linking the prevention of problem behaviors and positive youth development: Core competencies for positive youth development and risk prevention. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 122, 1–17.

This chapter reviews developmental literature on the links between positive youth development and risk prevention. The authors first define competence as effectively adapting to a given environment; it can also be defined as mastery within a developmental stage as determined by age appropriate and cultural contexts. The authors posit that healthy adjustment in adolescence is linked to five competencies: a positive sense of self (defining oneself through decisions and judgments in a given social context); self-control (regulating emotions and behaviors, and expressed as setting and pursuing goals); decision-making skills (attending to relevant context cues to generate multiple solutions, which requires abstract reasoning skills); a moral system of belief (internalized beliefs about how people in a social context should treat each other, which requires perspective-taking and empathy); and prosocial connectedness (a psychological sense of belonging to a range of social contexts and groups, measured by a desire to participate and engage).

Kilford, E. J., Garrett, E., & Blakemore, S-J. (2016). The development of social cognition in adolescence: An integrated perspective. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, 70, 106–120.

The researchers introduce the concept of the ‘social brain,’ the network of neural circuits that enables us to manage social interactions. Successful transition to adulthood requires the rapid refinement and integration of new cognitive information and new physiological neural circuits. Many adolescent behaviors, such as peer influence and sensitivity to social exclusion, involve dynamic interactions between these physiological and cognitive systems. Generally, adolescents are more likely to increase their exploration behaviors, especially with regard to exploring new social interaction; are more likely to seek novelty or new situational challenges; are more likely to change their emotional states quickly or to an exaggerated extent. The authors note that it is expected there will be substantial variation in individuals based on each person’s brain development. Since interactions vary across individuals, contexts, and stages of development, there is a need for further study to identify the best methods for adolescents to manage their behavior.

Standard 6: Social Engagement

Individual has the ability to consider others and a desire to contribute to the well-being of school and community.

Benchmark 6A: Demonstrates a sense of social and community responsibility. (Relationship Skills or Responsible Decisions)

ELEMENTARY

Wray-Lake, L., & Syvertsen, A. K. (2011). The developmental roots of social responsibility in childhood and adolescence. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 134, 11–25.

The authors define social responsibility as a value orientation rooted in interpersonal relationships and moral principles of care and justice; social responsibility motivates individuals' prosocial and civic behaviors. In this literature review, the authors summarize behaviors, perspectives, and developments that precede children's social responsibility values. In other words, some social, emotional, and behavioral competencies are foundational to building a sense of social responsibility. For example, as children mature in middle childhood, they become less egocentric and develop empathy as they interact with those who are both similar to and different from themselves. However, empathy intersects with emotion regulation: children who are too empathetic may cause themselves internal distress, so must be able to adapt their emotions to navigate social relationships and their responsibility to others. In adolescence, children explore views about the world and their relationships with others, leading to self-concept and the integration of a personal identity, which may include social responsibility values.

SECONDARY

Guillaume, C., Jagers, R. J. & Rivas-Drake, D. (2015). Middle school as a developmental niche for civic engagement. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 56, 321–331.

The study investigated how youth's beliefs about school connectedness, school climate, and their academic strengths informed their civic engagement behaviors, defined as behaviors related to involvement in the local community and society. The findings suggest that students' feelings of connectedness to school are significantly positively associated with civic engagement. In other words, when students feel they are valued as part of their school

community, they are more likely to feel a sense of personal responsibility (e.g., they display prosocial behaviors and attitudes and act to promote the common good).

Sherrod, L. (2007). Civic engagement as an expression of positive youth development. In R. K. Silbereisen & R. M. Lerner (Eds.), *Approaches to Positive Youth Development* (pp. 59–74). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

This chapter broadly discusses the bidirectional, dynamic nature of positive youth development in the context of civic engagement. The authors argue that children accumulate assets through their interaction with civic engagement, while engagement also helps build assets in children. By accumulating assets, children are more likely to engage positively with their schools, communities, and society. Sherrod cites the assets according to the “6 C’s” model: connection, character, caring, competence, confidence, and contribution (adapted from Lerner, 2007). Connection is the feeling of safety, structure, and belonging; confidence refers to a sense of self-worth and mastery; competence is the ability to act effectively in school and during social interactions; character is being able to take responsibility and connect one’s actions to principles and values; contribution is active participation to make a difference; and caring is sympathy and empathy for others. The 6 C’s model demonstrates the interconnection of multiple social and emotional competencies needed to enact civic responsibility and behavior.

Benchmark 6B: Demonstrates the ability to work with others to set, monitor, adapt, achieve, and evaluate goals. (Relationship Skills or Responsible Decisions)

Benchmark 6C: Demonstrates effective strategies to contribute productively to one’s school, workplace, and community. (Relationship Skills)

ELEMENTARY

Metzger, A., Alvis, L. M., Oosterhoff, B., Babskie, E., Syvertsen, A., & Wray-Lake, L. (2018). The intersection of emotional and sociocognitive competencies with civic engagement in middle childhood and adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, first online.

Using data from a geographically and racially diverse sample, the authors studied how emotional and social competencies—including empathy, emotion regulation, prosocial reasoning, and future orientation—relate to civic engagement, such as volunteering behavior and social responsibility values. The authors found that empathy and future orientation strongly predicted civic engagement. This study demonstrates that youth who can envision their future selves, and who are more empathetic toward others, are more likely to act in the interest of others.

Nicotera, N. (2008). Building skills for civic engagement: Children as agents of neighborhood change. *Journal of Community Practice, 16(2), 221-242.*

In this study, the author focuses on how children develop the skills necessary to be civically engaged, that is, feeling a sense of connection to and contributing to the community. The author examines an eight-week program for children who live in public housing. Through an afterschool program, the children become more engaged with their neighborhood by going on field trips and documenting the “assets and tribulations” of their neighborhoods. Children then work in small groups to reflect on their observations and create plans for solving the issues they see in their community. The study suggests that children can learn strategies for engaging with their communities through collaborative learning and learning more about their neighborhoods.

Ochs, E., & Izquierdo, C. (2009). Responsibility in childhood: Three developmental trajectories. *Ethos, 37(4), 391-413.*

The authors discuss how children develop in three different cultures: Peruvian Matsigenka, Samoan, and middle-class urban American. The authors argue that across these three cultures, there are common developmental themes which help to instill in children a sense of community and social responsibility. Through ethnographies, the authors find that in the Peruvian and Samoan cultures, parents teach children outward orientation – that is, helping children to notice the activities others are engaged in around them. Children learn from their families to be aware of and responsive to social context, from a young age. In the U.S., orientation is more accommodating of the child and less focused on social awareness of others. The authors state that these orientations can affect how children learn responsibility for others, and for themselves, as they grow up.

SECONDARY

Flanagan, C., & Levine, P. (2010). Civic engagement and the transition to adulthood. *The Future of Children, 20(1), 159-179.*

This article discusses the importance of civic engagement and participation in transitioning to young adult years. The authors define civic engagement as having a voice in community affairs. The authors find different rates of civic participation across youth from different social, racial, and ethnic backgrounds. They posit that these differences are due to factors such as unequal opportunities in childhood, as well as different opportunities for engaging with civic institutes. The authors point out that while most adolescents become “civically incorporated” in the

college years, many adolescents do not have the opportunity to go to college and thus are left with a gap in a formal learning mechanism for civic engagement.

Watts, R. J., Williams, & N. C., & Jagers, R. J. (2003). Sociopolitical development. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 31(1–2), 185–194.

This article discusses sociopolitical development, a process the authors describe as growth in knowledge, skills, emotional competence, and capacity for action in social and political systems. The theoretical framework developed in the article describes a process of how young people, in particular, come to understand social inequity. A five-stage model is proposed, which is not tied to age but begins in adolescence: acritical, adaptive, pre-critical, critical, and liberation. In the acritical stage, youth are unaware of the social order, and see the world as just and fair. In the adaptive stage, youth begin to acknowledge asymmetry in how different groups are treated, but they take actions to maintain a positive sense of self. Youth become concerned about inequality and treatment of social groups in the pre-critical stage. As they learn more, youth in the critical stage may conclude that the asymmetry they see in the world is unfair, and some youth seek to change these circumstances. At the liberation stage, youth are actively involved in social action to change the social inequality. The article has important implications for understanding how adolescents acknowledge responsibility to community and society and how they can move toward engagement.

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