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The FLIP IT Strategy – Supporting Children Ages 3 to 8

Source	Key Findings
<p>Nelson, J. R, Benner, G. J., Lane, K., & Smith, B. W. (2004). Academic achievement of K-12 students with emotional and behavioral disorders. <i>Exceptional Children</i>, 71, 59–73.</p> <p>Kauffman, J. M. (2004). <i>Characteristics of emotional and behavioral disorders of children and youth</i> (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.</p>	<p>Students who engage in high rates of challenging behavior experience difficulties in reading, math, and language (Nelson et al. 2004) and are more likely to encounter school failure (Kauffman 2004).</p>
<p>Campbell, S. B. (1995). Behavior problems in preschool children: A review of recent research. <i>Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry</i>, 36, 113–149.</p>	<p>Estimated that approximately 10–15% of young children have noteworthy behavior problems.</p> <p>Approximately 50% of preschool children with externalizing problems continued to show problems during their school years, with disruptive behavior showing the highest rates of persistence.</p>
<p>Lavigne, J. V., Gibbons, R. D., Christoffel, K. K., Arend, R., Rosenbaum, D., Binns, H., et al. (1996). Prevalence rates and correlates of psychiatric disorders among preschool children. <i>Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry</i>, 35, 204–214.</p>	<p>Researchers conducted a 5-year longitudinal study of about 500 children 2–5 years old from pediatric practices in Chicago and determined that 21% of the children met criteria for a diagnosable disorder, with 9% classified as having a “severe” disorder of social-emotional development.</p>
<p>Arnold, D. H., Ortiz, C., Curry, J. C., Stowe, R. M., Goldstein, N. E., Fisher, P. H., et al. (1999). Promoting academic success and preventing disruptive behavior disorders through community partnership. <i>Journal of Community Psychology</i>, 27, 589–598.</p>	<p>Challenging behaviors of young children do not simply fade away but, in many cases, continue to deleteriously impact the child’s development and social competence for many years.</p>
<p>Loeber, R., & Farrington, D. P. (1998). <i>Serious and violent juvenile offenders: Risk factors and successful intervention</i>. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.</p>	<p>Early behavior problems are highly associated with teenage delinquency, gang membership, school dropout, and contact with the adult criminal justice system as adults.</p>
<p>Fox, L., Dunlap, G., Hemmeter, M. L., Joseph, G. E., & Strain, P. S. (2003, July). The teaching pyramid: A model for supporting social competence and preventing challenging behavior in young children. <i>Young Children</i>, 48–52.</p>	<p>Optimal social-emotional growth is a function of attention being paid to nurturing relationships and instructional guidance that directs the young child toward prosocial competence and away from challenging behaviors.</p>
<p>West, J., Denton, K., & Germino-Hausken, E. (2000). <i>America’s kindergartner: Findings from the early childhood longitudinal study, kindergarten class of 1998–99, fall 1998</i>. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics.</p>	<p>Data from the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study revealed that 10% of kindergarteners arrive at school with problematic behavior.</p>
<p>Qi, C. H., & Kaiser, A. P. (2003). Behavior problems of preschool children from low income families: Review of the literature. <i>Topics in Early Childhood Special Education</i>, 23, 188–216.</p>	<p>Children living in poverty appear to be especially vulnerable, exhibiting higher rates of challenging behaviors than the general population.</p>

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<p>National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Early Child Care Research Network. (2003). Social functioning in first grade: Associations with earlier home and child care predictors and with current classroom experiences. <i>Child Development</i>, 74, 1639–1662.</p>	<p>When children enter school with problem behavior and poor social skills, those problems are likely to persist .</p>
<p>Kaufmann, R., & Wischmann, A. L. (1999). Communities supporting the mental health of young children and their families. In R. N. Roberts & R. R. Magrab (Eds.), <i>Where children live: Solutions for serving young children and their families</i> (pp. 175–210). Stamford, CT: Ablex.</p>	<p>Many early childhood programs feel unequipped to meet the needs of children who are emotionally delayed or have problem behavior.</p>
<p>Arnold, D. H., McWilliams, L., & Arnold, E. H. (1998). Teacher discipline and child misbehavior in day care: Untangling causality with correlational data. <i>Developmental Psychology</i>, 34, 276–287.</p>	<p>Teachers report that disruptive behavior is one of the single greatest challenges they face in providing a quality program, and that there seems to be an increasing number of children who present with these problems.</p>
<p>Cox, D. D. (2005). Evidence-based interventions using home-school collaboration. <i>School Psychology Quarterly</i>, 20, 473–497.</p>	<p>The relationships level of the teaching pyramid model (Positive Behavior Support) includes teaching practices that are linked to positive child outcomes in behavior and social skills. These practices include actively supporting children’s play; responding to children’s conversations; promoting the communicative attempts of children with language delays and disabilities; providing specific praise to encourage appropriate behavior; developing positive relationships with children and families; and collaborative teaming with colleagues and other professionals.</p>
<p>Grisham-Brown, J., Hemmeter, M. L., & Pretti-Frontczak, K. (2005). <i>Blended practices for teaching young children in inclusive settings</i>. Baltimore: Brookes.</p>	<p>The instruction of social and emotional skills requires a systematic and comprehensive approach using embedded instruction within planned and routine activities. Effective teaching strategies include teaching the concept, modeling, rehearsing, role-playing, prompting children in context, and providing feedback when the behavior occurs.</p>
<p>Byrd, R. S., & Weitzman, M. L. (1994). Predictors of early grade retention among children in the United States. <i>Pediatrics</i>, 93, 481–487.</p>	<p>Researchers examining almost 10,000 children found that the single best predictor of early school failure was the presence of behavior problems.</p>
<p>Gilliam, W. S., & Shahar, G. (2006). Preschool and child care expulsion and suspension: Rates and predictors in one state. <i>Infants and Young Children</i>, 19, 228–245.</p>	<p>Study found that almost 40% of preschool teachers reported expelling a child each year due to behavior problems.</p>
<p>Wehby, J. H., Symons, F. M., Canale, J., & Go, F. (1998). Teaching practices in classrooms for students with emotional and behavioral disorders: Discrepancies between recommendations and observations. <i>Behavioral Disorders</i>, 24, 52–57.</p> <p>Walker, H. M., Severson, H. H., & Feil, E. G. (1995). <i>Early screening project: A proven child-find process</i>. Longmont, CO: Sopris West Educational Services.</p> <p>Wehby, J. H., Lane, K. L., & Falk, K. B. (2003). Academic instruction for students with emotional and behavioral disorders. <i>Journal of</i></p>	<p>Students with severe challenging behaviors (a) are seldom praised for appropriate behavior (Wehby et al., 1998), (b) are seldom afforded effective academic instruction (Walker, Severson, & Feil, 1995; Wehby, Lane, & Falk, 2003), and (c) are often subject to ineffective, reactive, and punitive interventions from teachers (Shores, Gunter, & Jack, 1993).</p>

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<p><i>Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 11, 194–197.</i></p> <p>Shores, R. E., Gunter, P. L., & Jack, S. L. (1993). Classroom management strategies: Are they setting events for coercion? <i>Behavioral Disorders, 18, 92–102.</i></p>	
<p>Huffman, L. C., Mehlinger, S. L., & Kerivan, A. S. (2000). <i>Risk factors for academic and behavioral problems at the beginning of school.</i> Bethesda, MD: National Institute of Mental Health.</p>	<p>A variety of child and family risk factors contribute to early onset conduct disorders which lead to more recalcitrant and intractable problem behavior as the child develops. Some of those risk factors include lack of prenatal care, low birth weight, maternal depression, early temperament difficulties in infants, developmental disabilities, early behavior and adjustment problems, and inconsistent and harsh parenting.</p>
<p>Hausfather, A., Toharia, A., LaRoche, C., & Engelsmann, F. (1997). Effects of age of entry, day-care quality, and family characteristics on preschool behavior. <i>Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines, 38, 441–448.</i></p>	<p>High quality classroom environments are related to greater child interest and participation and lower levels of behavior problems.</p>
<p>Peisner-Feinberg, E. S., Burchinal, M. R., Clifford, R. M., Culkin, M. L., Howes, C., Kagan, S. L., et al. (2000). <i>The children of the cost, quality, and outcomes go to school: Technical report.</i> Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Frank Porter Graham Child Development Center.</p>	<p>The Cost, Quality, and Child Outcomes in Child Care Study produced data on the longitudinal effects of child care quality. This research began in 1992–1993 and followed 862 preschoolers. The outcomes analysis revealed evidence for a modest, continued influence on child skills and abilities into second grade. For problem behavior, they found that teacher–child closeness in the early childhood years had a predictive relationship to problem behavior and sociability in the second grade, with children who experienced higher teacher–child closeness demonstrating higher levels of social and behavioral competence.</p>
<p>Kontos, S., & Wilcox-Herzog, A. (1997). Influences on children’s competence in early childhood classrooms. <i>Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 12, 247–262.</i></p>	<p>Researchers found a relationship between positive caregiver interactions and prosocial skills and positive peer interactions.</p>
<p>Newcomer, L. L., & Lewis, T. (2004). Functional behavioral assessment: An investigation of assessment reliability and effectiveness of function-based interventions. <i>Journal of Emotional Behavioral Disorders, 12(3), 168–181.</i></p>	<p>Evidence suggests that interventions that address the function of the children’s challenging behaviors are more durable and effective than nonfunction-based interventions.</p>
<p>Conroy, M. A., Dunlap, G., Clarke, S., & Alter, P.J. (2005). A descriptive analysis of behavioral intervention research with young children with challenging behavior. <i>Topics in Early Childhood Special Education, 25, 157–166.</i></p>	<p>Teaching young children skills that can be used to replace challenging behaviors is one of the most effective, scientifically based interventions available for these behaviors.</p>
<p>Kern, L., Ringdahl, J. E., Hilt, A., & Sterling-Turner, H.E. (2001). Linking self-management procedures to functional analysis results. <i>Behavioral Disorders, 26, 214–226.</i></p>	<p>Teaching strategies that increase the use of appropriate behaviors have been effective in decreasing challenging behaviors, such as teaching self-management skills (Kern et al., 2001) and peer related social skills (Chandler, Dahlquist, Repp, & Feltz, 1999).</p>

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Chandler, L. K., Dahlquist, C. M., Repp, A. C., & Feltz, C. (1999). The effects of team-based functional assessment on the behavior of students in classroom settings. <i>Exceptional Children, 66</i> , 101–122.	
Lohrmann-O'Rourke, S., & Yurman, B. (2001). Naturalistic assessment of and intervention for mouthing behaviors influenced by establishing operations. <i>Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 3</i> , 19–27.	Researchers found embedding preference into difficult activities to be an effective intervention strategy.
Sanders, M. R., & McFarland, M. L. (2000). The treatment of depressed mothers with disruptive children: A controlled evaluation of cognitive behavioral family intervention. <i>Behaviour Therapy, 31</i> , 89–112.	Interventions that have provided families with behavioral techniques for teaching young children behavior expectations and social skills, using positive reinforcement, teaching compliance, and addressing challenging behavior have resulted in positive outcomes.
Honig, A., & Wittmer, D. (1992). <i>Prosocial development in young children: Caring, sharing and cooperation: A bibliographic resource guide</i> . New York: Garland.	Children develop ideas about how to express emotions primarily through social interaction in their families and later by watching television or movies, playing video games, and reading books.
Michalson, L., & Lewis, M. (1985). What do children know about emotions and when do they know it? In M. Lewis & C. Saarni (Eds.), <i>The Socialization of Emotions</i> , 117-139. New York: Plenum.	
Zeman, J., & Shipman, K. (1996). Children's expression of negative affect: Reasons and methods. <i>Developmental Psychology, 32</i> (5), 842-850.	The ability to regulate the expression of anger is linked to an understanding of the emotion and young children's ability to reflect on their anger in somewhat limited; therefore, young children need guidance from teachers and parents in understanding and managing their feelings of anger.
Perlmutter, M. (1986). A life-span view of memory. In P. B. Baltes, D. L. Featherman, & R. M. Learner, <i>Life-Span Development and Behavior</i> , (Vol. 7). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.	Memory abilities improve throughout early childhood (Perlmutter, 1986) enabling young children to better remember aspects of anger-arousing interactions. Children who have developed unhealthy ideas of how to express anger (Miller & Sperry, 1987) may retrieve the early unhealthy strategy even after teachers help them gain a more healthy perspective. This finding implies that parents and teachers may need to remind and teach children several times about the more appropriate and healthy ways of expressing anger.
Miller, P., & Sperry, L. (1987). The socialization of anger and aggression. <i>Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 33</i> (1), 1-31.	
Brown, J. R., & Dunn, J. (1996). Continuities in emotion understanding from three to six years. <i>Child Development, 67</i> (3), 789-803.	Talking about emotions helps young children understand their feelings.
Denham, S. A., Zoller, D., & Couchoud, E. A. (1994). Socialization of preschoolers' emotion understanding. <i>Developmental Psychology, 30</i> (6), 928-937.	The understanding of emotion in preschool children is predicted by overall language ability. Children gain an impaired ability to understand emotion when adults show a significant amount of anger. Preschool aged children better understand emotions when adults explain emotions.
Jalongo, M. (1986). Using crisis-oriented books with young children. In J. B. McCracken (Ed.), <i>Reducing Stress in Young Children's Lives</i> , 41-	Well presented stories about emotions validate children's feelings and give information about anger.

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46. Washington, DC: NAEYC.	
Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R., Schaller, M., Carlo, G., & Miller, P. (1991). The relations of parental characteristics and practices to children's vicarious emotional responding. <i>Child Development</i> , 62(6), 1393-1408.	Young children guided toward healthy and responsible anger management are more likely to understand and manage angry feelings directly and non-aggressively and to avoid the additional stress that often accompanies poor anger management.
Pianta, R., Smith, N., & Reeve, R. (1991). Observing mother and child behavior in a problem-solving situation at school entry: Relations with classroom adjustment. <i>School Psychology Quarterly</i> , 6, 1-15.	Parent-child interactions have been shown to be predictive of a range of social outcomes.
Elicker, J., Englund, M., & Sroufe, L. A. (1992). Predicting peer competence and peer relationships in childhood from early parent-child relationships. In R. Parke & G. Ladd (Eds.), <i>Family-peer relationships: Modes of linkage</i> (pp. 77-106). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.	Observation of parent-child interaction in developmentally appropriate problem-solving situations is a common means of assessing the competence of children from infancy through middle childhood.
Greenberg, M. T., & Speltz, M. L. (1988). Attachment and the ontogeny of conduct problems. In J. Belsky & T. Nezworski (Eds.), <i>Clinical implications of attachment</i> (pp. 177-28). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.	Research documented a high relation between disruptive behavior problems and child-parent attachment .
Bus, A. G., & van IJzendoorn, M. H. (1988). Mother-child interactions, attachment, and emergent literacy: A cross-sectional study. <i>Child Development</i> , 59, 1262-1272.	Researchers examined the relations between emergent literary skills, mother-child interaction, and security of child-mother attachment in a sample of 1- to 5-year-olds. Securely attached children paid more attention to their mothers, required less discipline, received more reading instruction from their mothers, engaged in more spontaneous reading activities, and performed better on emergent literary measures than did insecurely attached children.
Sroufe, L. A. (1983). Infant-caregiver attachment and patterns of adaptation in preschool: The roots of maladaptation and competence. In M. Perlmutter (Ed.), <i>The Minnesota Symposium on Child Psychology, Vol 16</i> . Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.	Children with a history of avoidant attachment to their caregivers elicited rejection from peers and adults in preschool while children with a history of ambivalent relationships with caregivers were aggressive and dependent in the preschool setting. Children with histories of avoidance or conflict had great difficulty in approaching learning tasks.
Sroufe, L. A. (1989). Relationships, self, and individual adaptation. In A. Sameroff & R. Erode (Eds.), <i>Relationship disturbances in early childhood</i> (pp. 70-96). New York: Basic Books.	The relations between mother-child interaction and attachment, and children's competence at mastering the tasks of the classroom setting reflect the extent to which child competence emerges from, and remains embedded within, a matrix of interactions and relationships with caregivers and adults.
Rogoff, B. (1990). <i>Apprenticeship in thinking: Cognitive development in social context</i> . New York: Oxford University Press.	Over the course of several years and countless interactions, the quality of adult caregiver-child interactions provide the child with the self-regulatory skills to explore the object world competently and to learn from the interactions with more competent adults. In this interpretation, child ability, academic achievement, and mother-child interaction, when assessed at school age, are highly correlated because of their common developmental antecedents.
Saarni, C. (1990). Emotional competence. In R. Thompson (Ed.), <i>Nebraska symposium: Socioemotional development</i> (pp. 115-161). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.	Emotional competence is central to children's ability to interact and form relationships.

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Denham, S.A., Zahn-Waxler, C., Cummings, E.M., & Iannotti, R.J. (1990). Social competence in young children's peer relations: Patterns of development and change. <i>Child Psychiatry and Human Development</i> , 22, 29-44.	When developmental milestones of emotional competence are not negotiated successfully, preschoolers experience problems, both at the time and later in life.
Cicchetti, D., Toth, S., & Bush, M. (1988). Developmental psychopathology and incompetence in childhood: Suggestions for intervention. In B. Lahey & A. Kazdin (Eds.), <i>Advances in Clinical Child Psychology</i> . New York: Plenum.	One critical milestone which could buffer an at-risk preschooler from emotional competence deficits, altering vulnerability and enhancing resilience, is a secure attachment with a primary caregiver. A second critical milestone of emotional competence is the ability to consciously recognize and label emotion.
Renken, B., Egeland, B., Marvinney, D., Mangelsdorf, S., & Stroufe, L.A. (1989). Early childhood antecedents of aggression and passive-withdrawal in early elementary school. <i>Journal of Personality</i> , 57, 257-281.	A pattern of care characterized by secure attachment allows a child to seek emotional closeness with others during times of stress or arousal. A consistently responsive adult provides a child with a model for competent social interaction upon which to build other relationships.
Greenburg, M.T., DeKlyen, M., & Speltz, M.L. (1989). <i>The relationship of insecure attachment to externalizing behavior problems in the preschool years</i> . Paper presented at the Society for Research in Child Development, Kansas City.	When children have the ability to label emotions, they have a vehicle with which to regulate emotions because they have experience in attaching a label to feelings inside and therefore can bring feelings to consciousness.
Pettit, G.S., Dodge, K.A. & Brown, M.M. (1988). Early family experience, social problem solving patterns, and children's social competence. <i>Child Development</i> , 59, 107-120.	A child who can consider alternative solutions to problems is less likely to, for example, push another child away simply because that child is in the way of a desired goal.
Pianta, R. C., Steinberg, M., & Rollins, K. B. (1995). The first two years of school: Teacher-child relationships and deflections in children's classroom adjustment. <i>Developmental Psychopathology</i> , 7, 295-312.	Early teacher-child relationships can develop positively, being characterized by closeness or rather negatively, being characterized by conflict or (extreme) dependency of the child on the teacher.
Ladd, G. W., & Burgess, K. B. (1999). Charting the relationship trajectories of aggressive, withdrawn, and aggressive/withdrawn children during early grade school. <i>Child Development</i> , 70, 910-929.	Problem behavior such as externalizing behavior (i.e., aggressive and hyperactive behavior) and/or internalizing behavior (i.e., asocial and anxious-fearful behavior) has proven to jeopardize the quality of relationship formation with teachers.
Burgess, K. B., Wojslawowicz, J. C., Rubin, K. H., Rose-Krasnor, L., & Both-LaForce, C. (2006). Social information processing and coping strategies of shy/withdrawn and aggressive children: Does friendship matter? <i>Child Development</i> , 77(2), 371-383.	When confronted with challenging social situations, children displaying externalizing (aggressive) behavior tend to respond in a hostile manner, driven by emotions such as frustration and anger, whereas children with internalizing behavior tend to withdraw and avoid confrontations.
Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2001). Early teacher-child relationships and the trajectory of children's school outcomes through eighth grade. <i>Child Development</i> , 72, 625-638.	Positive teacher-child relationship can function as a protective factor for children at risk for developing school adjustment difficulties, due to behavior problems.
Pianta, R. C., & Walsh, D. J. (1996). <i>High-risk children in schools: Constructing sustaining relationships</i> . New York: Routledge.	Positive effects reported of structured, supportive interactions with teachers on the social behavior of children at high risk for behavior problems.

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<p>Ahnert, L., Pinquart, M., & Lamb, M. E. (2006). Security of children's relationships with non-parental care providers: A meta-analysis. <i>Child Development</i>, 74(3), 664–679.</p>	<p>By establishing emotional supportive classroom climates through affectively positive responses, sensitivity and involvement, teachers can foster feelings of caring for the children in their classroom and benefit the development of more positive (secure) dyadic teacher–child relationships.</p>
<p>Sameroff, A. J., & Mackenzie, M. J. (2003). Research strategies for capturing transactional models of development: The limits of the possible. <i>Development and Psychopathology</i>, 15, 613–640.</p>	<p>Teachers bring with them a set of beliefs about relationships with children, based on their own history of social experiences, which influences the interpretation of the child's behavior and their subsequent behavior responses. Improving teachers' behavior through direct training of specific skills (e.g., sensitivity, involvement) may also be effective, since this (re)education in itself can make teachers adjust their beliefs and interpretations of children and children's behavior.</p>
<p>Blair, C. (2002). School readiness: Integrating cognition and emotion in a neurobiological conceptualization of children's functioning at school entry. <i>American Psychologist</i>, 57(2), 111–127.</p>	<p>Inefficient emotion regulation physiologically inhibits a child's use of higher order cognitive processes (e.g., working memory, attention, and planning) in the classroom.</p>
<p>Hughes, J., Cavell, T., & Jackson, T. (1999). Influence of the teacher–student relationship on childhood conduct problems: A prospective study. <i>Journal of Clinical Child Psychology</i>, 28(2), 173–184.</p> <p>Howes, C., Matheson, C., & Hamilton, C. (1994). Maternal, teacher, and child care history correlates of children's relationships with peers. <i>Child Development</i>, 65(1), 264–273.</p>	<p>A high quality student–teacher relationship supports the child (e.g., offering praise, encouragement, guidance, and discipline) throughout the challenging and novel educational environment to which the child must adjust. Research demonstrates that a positive student–teacher relationship characterized by warmth and closeness decreases children's subsequent aggressive behavior in the classroom (Hughes, Cavell, & Jackson, 1999) and is a protective factor for children at risk of behavioral problems (Howes, Matheson, & Hamilton, 1994).</p>
<p>Dunn, J., & Brown, J. (1994). Affect expression in the family, children's understanding of emotions, and their interactions with others. <i>Merrill-Palmer Quarterly</i>, 40(1), 120–137.</p>	<p>Children with better emotion regulation skills have been found to display greater social competence, better social skills, and greater peer popularity.</p>
<p>Urdu, T., & Maehr, M. (1995). Beyond a two-goal theory of motivation and achievement: A case for social goals. <i>Review of Educational Research</i>, 65(3), 213–243.</p>	<p>A positive, warm relationship with a teacher motivates students to achieve to please their teachers.</p>
<p>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. <i>Child Development</i>, 74, 238–256.</p> <p>Denham, S. A., Blair, K. A., Schmidt, M., & DeMulder, E. (2002). Compromised emotional competence: Seeds of violence sown early? <i>American Journal of Orthopsychiatry</i>, 72, 70–82.</p>	<p>The emergence of emotion regulation is vital to the creation and maintenance of positive relationships with peers (Denham et al., 2003); children who thrive in social interactions with peers, particularly those who succeed in negative interactions, effectively regulate their own emotions and subsequent emotion related behaviors (Denham, Blair, Schmidt, & DeMulder, 2002).</p>
<p>National Research Council and Institute of Medicine. (2000). <i>From neurons to neighborhoods: The science of early childhood development</i>. In Committee on Integrating Science of Early Childhood Development, J. P. Shonkoff, & D. A. Phillips (Eds.), Board on children, youth, and families, commission on behavioral and social sciences and education.</p>	<p>Temperament also exerts a strong influence on emotional development during early childhood as research is revealing the large extent to which the task of learning how to manage one's emotions . . . is a different challenge for children with different temperaments. . .” (p 114).</p>

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Washington, DC7 National Academy Press.	
Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., Guthrie, I. K., & Reiser, M. (2002). <i>The role of emotionality and regulation in children’s social competence and adjustment</i> . In L. Pulkkinen, & A. Caspi (Eds.), <i>Paths to successful development: Personality in the life course</i> (pp. 46–70). New York7 Cambridge University Press.	<p>Emotion regulation has been linked to numerous aspects of social functioning in preschoolers, including socially appropriate behavior, popularity with peers, adjustment, shyness, and sympathy.</p> <p>Children high in behavioral inhibition tend to be constrained and overcontrolled behaviorally, and this inhibition may often be involuntary; coping may tend to be passive and internal regulatory processes may be stressful. When faced with problems, their approach is to repress their emotions rather than dealing with them.</p>
Cole, P. M., Martin, S. E., & Dennis, T. A. (2004). Emotion regulation as a scientific construct: Methodological challenges and directions for child development research. <i>Child Development</i> , 75(2), 317– 333.	Emotion regulation accounts for complex processes beyond the simple expression of emotion; it accounts for how and why emotions direct or disrupt psychological processes, such as the ability to focus attention, promote problem solving, and support relationships.
Eisenberg, N., & Fabes, R. A. (1992). <i>Emotion and its regulation in early development</i> . San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer.	How children learn to cope with stressful, negative interactions includes not only dealing with their own feelings of distress and anger, but also with their reactivity to the negative emotions of others.
Farver, J. M., & Branstetter, W. H. (1994). Preschoolers’ prosocial responses to their peers’ distress. <i>Developmental Psychology</i> , 30, 334–341.	Preschoolers with soothable, persistent, or “easy” temperaments are more likely to display socially competent behavior.
<p>Denham, S. A. (1998). <i>Emotional development in young children</i>. New York: Guilford Press.</p> <p>Greenspan, S. I., & Wieder, S. (1998). <i>The child with special needs: Encouraging intellectual and emotional growth</i>. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.</p> <p>Joseph, G. E., & Strain, P. A. (2003). Comprehensive evidence-based social–emotional curricula for young children: An analysis of efficacious adoption potential. <i>Topics in Early Childhood Special Education</i>, 23, 65–76.</p>	<p>Some examples of preventive or interventional strategies appropriate for preschoolers (Denham, 1998) that can be utilized in the classroom include relationship building, educating children about emotions, and teaching children specific age-appropriate strategies for regulating their emotions. Through relationship building, teachers can begin to develop trusting relationships with the children and set the stage for appropriate emotional development. This intervention, can be implemented during “floor time”, a five-step process that is used to support social and emotional development by engaging with a child and helping them elaborate what’s on their mind through gestures, words, and pretend play (Greenspan & Wieder, 1998). Relationship building requires the teacher to open communication by observing the child during play and subsequently continuing the communication by following the child’s lead during play (Denham, 1998). As a result of this communication, positive affect sharing and distress relief occur. Once a trusting relationship between the teacher and child has developed, the teacher can facilitate emotion regulation in the child by providing security, modeling appropriate emotion regulation, and praising the child’s efforts to regulate their emotions (Joseph & Strain, 2003).</p> <p>The “Turtle Technique” is another useful intervention for teaching children how to regulate their emotions (Denham, 1998). Through this technique, children are taught how to control negative feelings by retreating into their “turtle shell” when they feel hurt or angry in order to calm down and think about how to respond appropriately to the situation.</p>

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	<p>The teacher then discusses the emotions the child is feeling and helps the child express and channel these feelings effectively. Pictures of the steps of the “Turtle Technique” can be posted throughout the classroom to remind children of the steps to take to regulate their emotions (Joseph & Strain, 2003).</p> <p>It is important to recognize that parents should also be provided with ideas and suggestions to develop appropriate emotion regulation in their children. Some of these suggestions may include: creating a secure emotional environment, helping children understand emotions throughout the day, modeling appropriate emotional responses, using pretend play to provide opportunities for children to understand and respond to various feelings, supporting regulation of emotions, and recognizing and praising children’s efforts to regulate their emotions (Denham, 1998; Joseph & Strain, 2003).</p>
<p>Denham, S. A. (1998). <i>Emotional development in young children</i>. New York: Guilford Press.</p>	<p>Along with relationship building, teachers can promote preschoolers’ emotion understanding by exposing them to feeling words, utilizing these words to label affect in themselves and others, and recognizing that actions can cause emotions. The teacher can then utilize social problem solving to improve the children’s ability to think through and resolve interpersonal conflicts effectively.</p>
<p>Joseph, G. E., & Strain, P. A. (2003). Comprehensive evidence-based social–emotional curricula for young children: An analysis of efficacious adoption potential. <i>Topics in Early Childhood Special Education</i>, 23, 65–76.</p>	<p>Empathy can be taught by having the children recognize and label emotions in themselves and others when thinking about the consequences of solutions to interpersonal conflicts. These techniques can be implemented as part of the curriculum as well as during the school day when incidents occur. For instance, the teacher can read stories involving a character who is facing a problem. Throughout the story, the teacher can pause and have the children discuss how the character may be feeling and what he may be thinking. The teacher can then assist the children in generating possible ways in which the character can appropriately regulate his emotions and resolve the problem.</p>
<p>Eron, L. D. (1990). Understanding aggression. <i>Bulletin of the International Society for Research on Aggression</i>, 12, 5–9.</p> <p>Snyder, H. (2001). Epidemiology of official offending. In R. Loeber & D. P. Farrington (Eds.), <i>Child delinquents: Development, intervention and service needs</i> (pp.25–46). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.</p>	<p>Without early intervention, behavioral problems such as aggression, oppositional behavior, or conduct problems in young children may become crystallized patterns of behavior by age 8 (Eron, 1990), beginning a trajectory of escalating academic problems, school drop-out, substance abuse, delinquency, and violence (Snyder, 2001).</p>
<p>Patterson, G. R., & Dishion, T. J. (1985). Contributions of families and peers to delinquency. <i>Criminology</i>, 23, 63–79.</p>	<p>Parenting practices associated with the development of conduct problems include inconsistent and harsh discipline and low nurturing.</p>
<p>Patterson, G., Reid, J., & Dishion, T. (1992). <i>Antisocial boys: A social interactional approach</i> (Vol. 4). Eugene, OR: Castalia.</p> <p>Brestan, E. V., & Eyberg, S. M. (1998). Effective psychosocial treatments of conduct-disordered children and adolescents: 29</p>	<p>The most influential developmental model for describing the development of oppositional behavior and aggression in children is Patterson’s theory of the “coercive process” (Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992), a process whereby children learn to escape or avoid parental criticism by escalating their negative behaviors. This, in turn, leads to increasingly aversive parent interactions and escalating dysregulation on the part of the child. These negative parent responses directly</p>

Matrix of Studies

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years, 82 studies, and 5,272 kids. <i>Journal of Clinical Child Psychology</i> , 27, 180–189.	model and reinforce the child’s conduct problems. As a result of Patterson’s theory, the primary approach to treating early onset conduct problems has been to teach parents to be more positive and less harsh in their discipline style (Brestan & Eyberg, 1998).
Coie, J. D., & Dodge, K. A. (1998). Aggression and antisocial behavior. In W. Damon & N. Eisenberg (Eds.), <i>Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 3. Social, emotional and personality development</i> (5th ed., pp. 779–862). New York: Wiley.	An approach to treating conduct problems, namely, directly training children in social skills, problem solving, and emotional management. The theory underlying this approach is the substantial body of research indicating that children with conduct problems show cognitive and social skills deficits with peers.
Kazdin, A. E., Siegel, J. C., & Bass, D. (1992). Cognitive problem-solving skills training and parent management training in the treatment of antisocial behavior in children. <i>Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology</i> , 60, 733–747.	A controlled-trial evaluation with diagnosed children demonstrated that teaching children social skills, problem-solving, and anger-management strategies is effective for reducing conduct problems.
Kellam, S. G., Ling, X., Merisca, R., Brown, C. H., & Ialongo, N. (1998). The effect of the level of aggression in the first grade classroom on the course and malleability of aggressive behavior into middle school. <i>Development and Psychopathology</i> , 10, 165–185.	Poor classroom management skills and low rates of teacher praise lead to classrooms with higher levels of aggression and rejection; these, in turn, have been shown to influence the development of individual children’s continued conduct problems.
Hawkins, J. D., Catalano, R. F., & Miller, Y. (1992). Risk and protective factors for alcohol and other drug problems in adolescence and early adulthood: Implications for substance abuse prevention. <i>Psychological Bulletin</i> , 112, 64–105.	Inconsistent and negative teacher, as well as parent, interactions with children are considered proximal links in the chain leading to the escalation of conduct problems, academic failure, and later development of delinquency and substance abuse.