

Review of Research

The Importance of Teaching Social-Emotional Skills

Social-emotional skills are important to healthy child development. Skills such as empathy, emotion management, and social problem solving contribute to children's success in school and to their later success in the workplace (Huffman, Mehlinger, and Kerivan, 2000). No single reason explains why some children develop severe and persistent problems with aggression while other children do not. However, young children who show behavior problems, such as frequent aggression, have about a 50 percent chance of developing more serious problems in later childhood (see Campbell, 1995, for a review). Moreover, a lack of social-emotional skills interferes with children's development even when they do not show significant behavior problems (Weissberg and Greenberg, 1997). Finally, learning alternatives to aggression in solving social problems is a major task of development for all young children (see Pettit, 1997, for a review).

The need for social-emotional learning is widespread. It is not limited to children identified as "at risk." Similarly, social-emotional learning is not limited to the home setting. The school and the family are the two most important social-emotional learning environments for children (see Weissberg, Caplan, and Harwood, 1991, for a review). The skills that result from this learning can promote healthy or unhealthy development. Thus, it is critical that educators take advantage of the rich opportunities, inherent to any school setting, to teach positive social-emotional skills to all children.

Program Overview

Second Step: A Violence Prevention Curriculum (Committee for Children, 1989, 2003; 1997, 2003) is designed to promote social competence and reduce social-emotional problems by teaching children skills in the core areas of empathy, emotion management (impulse control, emotion regulation, anger management), and social problem solving. It is a universal prevention program, which means that it is taught to every child in a classroom rather than to selected children. It has four levels: Preschool/Kindergarten, Grades 1–3, Grades 4–5, and Middle School.

Guiding Theory

The *Second Step* program emphasizes understanding and dealing with emotions, expressing emotions in socially acceptable ways, thinking about social situations in accurate and constructive ways, and learning prosocial behaviors through practice. The program assumes that feelings, thoughts, and

behaviors affect one another. These goals and assumptions are based on the cognitive-behavioral model (Kendall, 2000; Kendall, 1993), a broad psychological approach grounded in social learning theory (Bandura, 1986), social information processing (Crick and Dodge, 1994), and research on verbal self-regulation (for example, Luria, 1961). The *Second Step* units follow from the long-standing traditions in intervention research on empathy (Feshbach, 1975), social problem solving (Spivack and Shure, 1974), and anger management (Novaco, 1975).

Empathy, Emotion Management, and Social Problem Solving

Empathy, emotion management, and social problem solving are critical skill areas. Healthy social-emotional development requires the coordination and integration of feelings, cognitions, and behaviors (Greenberg, Kusche, Cook, and Quamma, 1995; Lemerise and Arsenio, 2000). Thus, empathy, emotion management, and social problem solving are not discrete skill areas; each contains emotional, cognitive, and behavioral elements.

Empathy

The *Second Step* program is based on a broad definition of *empathy* that includes: (a) knowledge of the emotions of self and others; (b) perspective taking (for example, the recognition that individuals can view the same situation differently and the ability to generate plausible reasons for a particular feeling); (c) vicariously experiencing others' feelings; and (d) communication of feelings and viewpoints to others. These characteristics are also included in concepts such as emotional intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997) and emotional competence (Saarni, 1997). Finally, responding prosocially to others' distress is included in the definition of *empathy* (Miller, Eisenberg, Fabes, and Shell, 1996). Examples of these defining features are listed in Table 1 (see page 16).

Empathy is related to social and academic competence. Children who accurately recognize and label emotions tend to be less aggressive, more accepted by peers, and have better general social skills (Arsenio, Cooperman, and Lover, 2000; Crick and Dodge, 1994; Denham, McKinley, Couchoud, and Holt, 1990; Izard, Fine, Schultz, Mostow, and Ackerman, 2001; Katsurada and Sugawara, 1998). Children who have high levels of emotional understanding at age five are more likely than other children to show academic gains at age nine. This is true even for children who had equally high verbal abilities at age five (Izard et al., 2001).

Young children who can label and comment about the emotions of others are better liked by their peers. Well-liked children have larger emotion vocabularies. As children develop during the preschool and kindergarten years, they become better at describing emotions they have experienced previously. This makes them better able to reflect on past emotional situations and to imagine how similar situations may occur in the future (Fabes, Eisenberg, Hanish, and Spinrad, 2001). This skill is useful for communicating with others and for predicting the consequences of actions.

Empathy can motivate people to respond to the distress of others in a caring way. Children are more likely to offer help and emotional support if they can take another's perspective (Carlo, Knight, Eisenberg, and Rotenberg, 1991; Crick, Casas, and Mosher, 1997; Iannotti, 1985; Litvack-Miller,

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McDougall, and Romney, 1997; Miller et al., 1996). In contrast, children who show more frequent aggression are less likely to provide assistance to a peer in distress (Hughes, White, Sharpen, and Dunn, 2000).

Development. Perspective-taking skills emerge during the early childhood period. Many emotional-expression and emotion-identification skills are relatively well developed for many children by the end of the preschool years (Greenberg et al., 1995). Between preschool and kindergarten, children's emotion communication becomes increasingly sophisticated and less self-focused. For example, instead of simply using emotion words to communicate likes and dislikes, children begin to label a wider variety of emotions and explain the causes of emotions. Preschool-aged children are also able to recognize that strong feelings decrease over time (see Harris, 2000, for a review). Children begin to focus on the emotions of peers and to reflect on past emotional experiences (Fabes et al., 2001). By age five, most children recognize that thinking about something upsetting that happened in the past can prompt negative emotions (Lagattuta and Wellman, 2001).

In the elementary years, children's emotion knowledge and perspective-taking skills continue to improve. Between kindergarten and sixth grade, children develop an increased understanding of the typical causes of emotions, learn rules about expressing emotions appropriately, and become increasingly aware that individuals can experience more than one emotion at a time (Greenberg et al., 1995). Older research suggested that young children do not understand mixed emotions (Harter and Buddin, 1987). More recent evidence indicates that four-year-old children can recognize mixed feelings in others based on nonverbal cues (Kestenbaum and Gelman, 1995) and five- and six-year-old children demonstrate an understanding of mixed emotions when provided with concrete examples of situations that cause mixed emotions (Brown and Dunn, 1996; Kestenbaum and Gelman, 1995). Thus, early childhood appears to be an excellent time to help children develop this understanding, which may be a building block for emotion management.

Another feature of empathy that changes with development is how children show personal concern when responding to a person who is upset or hurt. Surprisingly, most four- to five-year-olds show about the same level of personal concern regardless of whether they have significant behavior problems. By age seven, children with early behavior problems show less personal concern than they did at age five. The opposite is true for children who did not show early problems (Hastings, Zahn-Waxler, Robinson, Usher, and Bridges, 2000). In other words, it is not true that children with behavior problems lack personal concern during early childhood. Rather, most young children with behavior problems do not show age-expected gains in personal concern. These findings suggest that early childhood is a pivotal time in the development of personal concern. Early childhood teachers who nurture early personal concern may help children at risk retain and further develop this potential asset.

Specific skills. All levels of the *Second Step* program focus on three components of empathy: identifying feelings in self and others, perspective taking, and responding emotionally to others. In response to research indicating the importance of emotion knowledge to the development of young children, the *Second Step* Preschool/Kindergarten program has a stronger focus on the first component. Using photo-lesson cards, children practice how to identify the nonverbal, verbal, and situational clues related to seven common emotions and their feelings words: *happy, sad, angry,*

surprised, scared, disgusted, and worried. The first six emotions are included because they are universally expressed by people from different countries and cultures (Ekman and Friesen, 1975). Since fears and worries are common among young children (Lyman and Hembree-Kigin, 1994), the feeling *worry* is also included in the empathy lessons. Using the *Second Step* program, children learn how to identify and distinguish among their own feelings, using internal (muscle tension, heartbeat, breathing) and situational clues.

Emotion Management

Social-emotionally competent children are able to deal better with strong emotions and express them in socially acceptable ways than children with skill deficits (Eisenberg, Cumberland, and Spinrad, 1998). Emotion management applies to positive emotions (for example, inhibiting the impulse to run gleefully around the room during rest time) as well as negative or distressing emotions (for example, inhibiting the impulse to hit when another child takes away a toy). Additional examples of the features of emotion management are listed in Table 1 (see page 16).

Effective emotion management is associated with decreased aggression (Underwood, Coie, and Herbsman, 1992) and increased social-emotional competence (see Eisenberg, Fabes, and Losoya, 1997, for a review). An important ingredient of emotion management is attentional persistence, or the ability to remain focused on a goal while resisting internal or external distractions (Belsky, Friedman, and Hsieh, 2001). A benchmark of attentional persistence is the ability to resist immediate rewards in order to reach difficult goals (see Metcalfe and Mischel, 1999, for a review). One way that researchers have measured this ability, called “delay of gratification,” is to see how long preschool-aged children can wait alone in a room with a tasty marshmallow. They are promised a second marshmallow if they can resist eating the first one until the experimenter comes back into the room. Young children who could not wait long enough to get both marshmallows tended to get lower scores on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) when in high school and show social-emotional deficits in adolescence and adulthood. Further, delay of gratification appears particularly helpful to individuals who are highly sensitive to peer rejection (Ayduk et al., 2000; Sethi, Mischel, Aber, Shoda, and Rodriguez, 2000).

Development. Much of the research on the development of emotion-management strategies has focused on the management of distressing emotions, especially anger. In a comprehensive summary of the research on emotion management, Brenner and Salovey (1997) note that children use some emotion-management strategies consistently throughout childhood, while the use of other strategies changes with age. For example, although young children often seek the assistance of adults to manage distressing feelings, they become less reliant on adult support with age. Another general management strategy is distraction, which is to think about or do something that takes one’s mind off of the emotion. A common distraction strategy for both younger and older children is behavioral distraction (for example, managing sadness by coloring or playing basketball). Although children at all ages tend to use behavioral distraction with about equal frequency, older children more frequently use cognitive distraction (such as thinking about something pleasant) in response to distressing emotions than do younger children.

Another emotion-management strategy that children use is changing the situation that prompts the distressing emotion. For example, a child who is worried about the height of the tallest slide on the

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playground decides to play on a lower slide instead. There are no age differences in children's use of this strategy. As children get older, however, they more frequently try to change their feelings rather than try to change the situation itself. For example, children change their feelings by using relaxation strategies (taking deep breaths to calm down) or reframing their thinking about the situation (instead of thinking about not knowing anyone on the first day of school, thinking of it as an opportunity to meet new friends).

Specific skills. Research suggests that teaching children strategies such as thinking calming thoughts, deep breathing, doing a calming activity, and reframing stressful situations by focusing on positives promotes effective management of feelings such as anger (Nelson and Finch, 2000) and impatience (Metcalf and Mischel, 1999). It is critical that these strategies are used when children are able to use logical reasoning to manage emotions. When children are experiencing high levels of emotional distress, they have trouble using these emotion-management strategies (Metcalf and Mischel, 1999). Thus, it is important for adults to intervene when children are able to think clearly and are not overwhelmed by emotion.

The *Second Step* program teaches children to identify and distinguish among their own emotions, both positive and distressing, using internal physical cues (such as feeling hot and tense when angry). Instead of focusing on emotional distress, children are taught to shift their attention toward management strategies such as cognitive distraction (saying "Calm down"), behavioral distraction (doing something calming), and relaxation techniques (deep breathing). Children are also taught behavioral-distraction strategies, such as playing with blocks when sad or silently counting to ten when feeling impatient or bored. In coaching children in the use of behavioral distraction, it is important to encourage them to engage in constructive behaviors. For example, children are often taught to "vent" their anger by punching a pillow or pounding clay. However, instead of reducing aggression, this type of strategy can lead to increased aggression in the long run (see Slaby, Roedell, Arezzo, and Hendrix, 1995, for a review).

Problem Solving

Children must make sense of and respond to countless pieces of social information each day. Thought processes (attention, thinking, memory, reasoning, and beliefs), emotion processes (empathy and emotion management), and behavioral skills (successfully entering a play group, interrupting politely) play critical roles in the way that children respond to the social world around them. The social information processing model (Crick and Dodge, 1994) describes processes that contribute to socially competent behavior. These processes involve accurately "reading" a social situation, identifying goals for social interactions (remaining friendly with other children), generating possible responses to the situation, selecting the response that best meets social goals, carrying out the selected solution, and evaluating the outcome of the solution. Examples from each step of social information processing are listed in Table 1 (see page 16).

Children who rely on aggressive solutions to problems use social information differently than other children (for reviews, see Crick and Dodge, 1994; Rubin, Bream, and Rose-Krasnor, 1991). They tend to be on the alert for threats in the environment and are more apt to assume that others behave toward them with hostility, a characteristic called the "hostile attributional bias." Their responses to social

situations tend to be guided by relationship-damaging social goals (such as getting their own way, being in control) rather than prosocial goals (such as fairness, making friends, having fun together). When generating problem-solving strategies, they offer more aggressive strategies, value aggressive strategies as effective, and fail to consider the potential negative effects of aggressive responses. Although this research was carried out with elementary-aged children, differences in problem-solving strategies are also present in early childhood (Youngstrom et al., 2000). When asked to generate potential solutions to common social problems, socially competent children are more likely to generate prosocial solutions (such as sharing), while children who show more frequent aggression are more likely to generate antisocial solutions.

Development. Most research on social problem solving is focused on describing differences between children who frequently rely on aggression and those who do not. However, little research has been done that describes how problem-solving skills develop over time. During the preschool years, young children begin to make predictions (Gopnik, Sobel, Schultz, and Glymour, 2001) and talk increasingly about the causes of events (Dunn and Brown, 1993). Young children can explain events as stemming from a variety of causes (such as psychological cause—"Jacob is crying because he is sad" or physical cause—"The glass is broken because it fell off the shelf") (Hickling and Wellman, 2001). However, they have a tendency to reason that events have a psychological cause (Dunn and Brown, 1993). Crick and Dodge (1994) hypothesize that growth in attention span, accuracy in reading social situations, understanding cause-and-effect relationships, and knowledge of rules for appropriate behavior contributes to increased problem-solving skills over the elementary years. They further suggest that the quantity and quality of problem-solving strategies improves with age. The results of a longitudinal study conducted with young children (Youngstrom et al., 2000) supports this position. Seven-year-olds report that they use more problem-solving strategies than do five-year-olds. They report a particular increase in prosocial strategies, such as offering to trade, and a decrease in antisocial strategies, such as hitting or grabbing.

Specific skills. Effective problem solving requires the coordination of empathy, emotion management, thinking skills, and specific behavioral skills such as joining in, resolving conflicts by trading or sharing, and apologizing. The Problem Solving unit can be viewed as an integration of skills taught in the program rather than as a separate skill area.

A strong focus of the *Second Step* program is on teaching children a problem-solving model, presented as a sequence of steps. More advanced levels of the program teach the following process with five main parts: (1) identify the problem; (2) brainstorm possible solutions; (3) evaluate each solution by asking four questions ("Is it safe?" "How might people feel about it?" "Is it fair?" "Will it work?"); (4) select, plan, and try the solution; and (5) evaluate whether the solution worked and switch to another solution if needed.

To match the needs and abilities of younger children, the Preschool/Kindergarten level of the program contains only three steps: (1) "How do I feel?"; (2) "What is the problem?"; and (3) "What can I do?" These steps are at the heart of the more sophisticated steps in the social information processing model described above. Using these steps, children are taught how to "read" and interpret internal cues, external social cues, and generate possible solutions to the problem. They learn to evaluate

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solutions by predicting the consequences of the solution using “If—then” reasoning: “If Todd grabbed the ball back from Jill, *then* Jill might be angry.” Finally, children are taught to use behavioral skill steps to carry out a selected solution.

Given research evidence that points to the role of social goals in motivating children’s behavior, it has been argued that social-emotional learning programs that teach the “why” of social skills in addition to the “how” of social skills may be more effective than programs that teach only social skills (Erdley and Asher, 1996). The Preschool/Kindergarten level of the *Second Step* program highlights the prosocial goals of fairness and preserving friendship. For example, sharing and taking turns are presented as problem-solving strategies that promote fairness and having fun together. When evaluating solutions during problem solving, children are taught to anticipate the consequences of the solutions on people’s feelings.

Developmentally appropriate problems and solutions are included in the lessons. For example, a challenging social situation for young children is knowing how to join in with the play of others. Research shows that the way children try to enter ongoing play is critical. Children who lack effective joining skills are more likely to be rejected by their peers. The joining-in steps taught in the program directly follow this research (Putallaz and Gottman, 1981; Ramsey and Lasquade, 1996). The program’s steps for interrupting politely (wait for pauses in conversation before interrupting) also follow these findings.

Teaching Behavioral Skills

Empathy and knowledge of emotion-management and problem-solving strategies help children decide *what* to do. To be socially and emotionally competent, children must know *how* to carry out the strategies. The combination of modeling (teacher, puppet, and peer), practice, coaching, and positive reinforcement is an established best practice to teach socially competent behaviors to children (Elliot and Gresham, 1993; Ladd and Mize, 1983). In the *Second Step* Preschool/Kindergarten program, for example, these strategies are used in the Pretend and Practice activities. Teachers model the skill, children practice the skill, and teachers offer specific positive reinforcement (“You shared the clay with Adam, and now you are having lots of fun playing together”) and coach children through difficult situations (“You’re holding out that truck to Shawndra like you want to trade. Now you can ask, ‘Shawndra, would you like to trade?’”).

Transfer of Learning

Lessons in a student curriculum provide only part of the social-emotional learning equation in any classroom. Lessons must be used in combination with effective classroom-management practices (see Classroom Climate section of the Teacher’s Guide). Further, children’s newly acquired skills are maintained and further strengthened throughout the day when teachers (a) model social-emotional skills; (b) provide children with opportunities to practice skills in new, appropriate situations; (c) positively reinforce children’s skill use; and (d) use incidental teaching or “teachable moments” as opportunities to provide coaching, constructive feedback, and positive reinforcement to children to support skill use during real-life situations (Consortium on School-Based Promotion of Social Competence, 1994; Elliot and Gresham, 1993; Ladd and Mize, 1983).

For example, the Preschool/Kindergarten level of the program contains sheets of small cardboard Hearts. Teachers give Hearts to individual children along with verbal reinforcement of children's skill use. The purpose of the Hearts is to provide children with a concrete symbol of caring in addition to the specific information provided by the teacher. For example, a teacher might recognize a child for helping another child who is new to the classroom by saying, "You have been very helpful to Malik by showing him where the art supplies are kept. Here's a Heart to put in the container for our class.") Other sections of the Teacher's Guide and each *Second Step* program lesson contain further information about the use of the Hearts, positive reinforcement, and other transfer-of-learning strategies.

Social-emotional learning opportunities present themselves countless times each day; it is important to use these teachable moments so that children can see how the *Second Step* program skills fit into their daily lives. Similarly, development is an ongoing process. As children grow and change, their social world changes too. They need to increase continually the range and sophistication of their skills. Thus, it is not surprising that social-emotional programs that are taught for multiple years are typically more successful than short-term efforts (Weissberg and Greenberg, 1997).

Program Evaluation

Pilot studies of the *Second Step* program (Preschool/Kindergarten, 1–3, 4–5, and Middle School) showed that students who received *Second Step* lessons achieved greater gains in knowledge of social-emotional skills than students in comparison groups did (Moore and Beland, 1992; Beland, 1988; Beland, 1989; Beland, 1990).

More recent studies demonstrate changes in children's behavior and attitudes as well as their knowledge. Preschool and kindergarten children from low-income urban families showed decreased levels of observed aggression and disruptiveness following program completion, and increased knowledge of social skills (McMahon, Washburn, Felix, Yakin, and Childrey, 2000). Third- through fifth-grade children in a rural community who received the *Second Step* program were rated by teachers as more socially competent and less antisocial relative to those children who did not receive the program, and they were observed to follow adult directions more frequently (Taub, 2002). Urban African-American students in fifth through eighth grade showed increased empathy and knowledge of social skills, with the change in empathy corresponding to lower levels of self-reported aggression (McMahon and Washburn, 2003). These findings are in line with others showing that middle school students who received the *Second Step* curriculum increased their knowledge of violence and violence prevention skills (Orpinas, Parcel, McAlister, and Frankowski, 1995) and were less likely to endorse antisocial and aggressive behaviors than those who did not (Van Schoiack-Edstrom, Frey, and Beland, 2002).

Larger, more rigorous experimental evaluations of the elementary *Second Step* program also showed effects on student behavior and attitudes. Grossman et al. (1997) found that observed physical aggression decreased from autumn to spring among second- and third-grade students who received

the program. In contrast, students who did not receive the program became increasingly aggressive. Six months later, students who received the program continued to show lower levels of aggression. Frey et al. (2005) showed that students who received the program for two years required less adult intervention in minor conflicts, were rated more socially competent, and were more likely to choose positive social goals than students who did not receive the program. Finally, an experimental evaluation examining the impact of *Faustlos*, a German translation of the *Second Step* program, showed that students who received lessons over three years experienced less anxiety, depression, and withdrawn behavior, as reported by parents, than students who did not receive the program (Schick and Cierpka, 2005).

In sum, these evaluations of the *Second Step* program show sustained improvements in students' actual behaviors as well as in their knowledge, attitudes, and motivation.

Summary

Young children have an enormous capacity for growth and change, which offers both great challenges and resources to early childhood educators. Teachers are responsible for preparing young children for the academic and social tasks required of formal schooling at a time when most children have short attention spans, are highly emotional, and are just learning how to be part of a group. The purpose of the *Second Step* program is to build children's social-emotional skills, not only with the goal of promoting a caring classroom community, but also to foster children's lifelong learning to become healthy, responsible, and productive members of society.

Table 1
Defining Features of Empathy, Emotion Management, and Social Information Processing

Characteristics	Examples
Empathy	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifying emotions in self and others <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Using nonverbal cues 	<p>Anger in others: Clenched teeth, furrowed brow, crossed arms. Worry in oneself: Fast heart beat, stomachache.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Using cues from the situation 	<p>Sadness: Losing a treasured toy. Excitement: Waiting in line for outdoor play. Anger: Being called a hurtful name. Mixed feelings: The last day of school may prompt feelings of happiness and sadness.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perspective taking 	<p>Recognizing that Sara thinks playing farm is fun, but Trina thinks it's boring. Pretending to be a chef in the kitchen center.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experiencing others' feelings 	<p>Feeling sad when another child falls down and scrapes her knee. Feeling happy when another expresses delight at building a high block tower.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicating feelings and thoughts 	<p>"I like to play with you." Saying during a <i>Second Step</i> discussion: "I felt happy when Jerome shared his special markers with me."</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responding to others with care and concern 	<p>Asking a tearful child, "Are you sad?" Hugging a child who has lost his blanket. Apologizing and making amends. Offering comforting words to a person in distress: "You will feel better later."</p>
Emotion Management	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dealing with strong emotions 	<p>Behavioral distraction: Tasha looks at a book to help her wait for snack time. Relaxation: Take deep breaths. Cognitive distraction: Slowly count to three. Cognitive reframing: Julio's teacher tells the class that their field trip is postponed until the next day and that they will have free play instead. Julio feels disappointed and then thinks, "My aunt is coming over tonight. Now I have time to draw her some pictures, and we will get to go on the trip tomorrow."</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expressing emotions in acceptable ways 	<p>Telling the teacher, "I'm disappointed because I didn't get to be line leader." Using strong, nonblaming, polite statements to assert rights: "Cutting in line is against the rules." Ling smiles and says "Thank you" for a gift even though she thinks it's babyish.</p>

Table 1 (continued)

Characteristics	Examples
Social Information Processing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Reading” a social situation 	Using empathy skills to identify: How do I feel? “A little frustrated.” What is the problem? “Allesandra and I both want to play the frog in our fairy story.”
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifying goals 	Affiliation: “I want to keep playing with Allesandra.” Fairness Dominating others: “I want her to do what I say.”
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generating possible solutions 	Jacob thinks about two possible solutions: (1) Take turns being the frog. (2) Say, “You’re too ugly to be the frog.”
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluating solutions 	If I say, “You’re too ugly to be the frog,” then Allesandra might get mad.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selecting a solution 	Jacob selects the solution “take turns” because it is a fair solution that will help them keep having fun together.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrying out the selected solution 	Jacob says, “Let’s take turns!”
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluating the outcome of the solution 	If Allesandra agrees, sharing is naturally reinforced. If Allesandra disagrees, Jacob may try a different solution.

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