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To Meadora B. Walberg and Herbert J. Walberg.

—Sam Redding

There I thank them.

Grandchildren has kept at least one of my feet planted on terra firma. For raising our children and watching them raise what today holds seven

—Roger P. Wassberg

To my nuclear family, who laugh, me about family partnerships.

To my parents, who shaped my spirit. To my teachers, who enriched my

—Evanghia N. Parthakoum

School-Family Partnerships for Children's Success

CHILDREN'S SUCCESS

Children's Success
Influences and Challenges to Better Parent–School Collaborations

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As previous chapters have pointed out, schools and families are partners in the healthy academic, social, and emotional development of the child. During the elementary years, and often earlier, children spend more time in the school and the home than anywhere else. Thus, both need to communicate and interact often in order to coordinate and manage the healthy development of a child. The research, however, suggests that this type of coordination and communication is not common and that if it does occur, it is based on specific features of parents, teachers, and schools (Comer & Haynes, 1991; Epstein, 1990; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). There is evidence to suggest that both parents and teachers would like more interaction, but it is often difficult to achieve, and even if it initially exists it declines rather rapidly as children make their transition into secondary school (Dauber & Epstein, 1989; Eccles & Harold, 1993; Epstein, 1986). The research also suggests that having high-quality links (e.g., frequent telephone and personal communication) between parents and teachers promotes positive school success for children (Comer, 1980; Comer & Haynes, 1991; Epstein, 1990). So the question is: What are the challenges to creating these links, and how can those challenges be reduced so that the links can be retained over time? In this chapter we review the basic literature on challenges to forming partnerships between schools and families and then introduce a developmental model that presents a way that schools and families can work together in their important roles in the academic, social, and emotional development of children. We end with
recommendations on how families and schools can make changes to support the academic, social, and emotional development of children in the varying contexts where they spend their time.

**CHALLENGES TO PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT**

Eccles and Harold (1993) introduced a model that examined a wide range of variables across multiple contexts (family, school, community) that likely influence parental involvement. In this model, they proposed how distal influences such as neighborhood and school characteristics and more proximal characteristics of teacher and parental beliefs influence whether or not parents get involved in the schools and have subsequent effects on child outcomes. Recent reviews of research on parent involvement (Henderson & Mapp, 2002) have supported the existence of these various influences and challenges to better interactions and communication between parents and the schools. These major influences and challenges are reviewed and discussed below.

**Parent/Family Characteristics**

This category encompasses the general socioeconomic status of the family as well as the mental health of the parents. Here it is noted that parents' education and workforce participation are important predictors of involvement, with more highly educated parents being more involved and those in the workforce having limited time for involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Other important parent/family characteristics likely to be important to involvement are social and psychological resources of the parents, parents' perceptions of their child, parents' beliefs about their role in their child's education, parents' attitude toward school, parents' ethnic identity, socialization practices, and parents' prior involvement in children's education. As was discussed in Chapter 2, these factors are important in determining how willing parents are to participate in the schools. Parents may not, for example, have confidence that they can influence their child's achievement by participating in school (parental efficacy). They may place more emphasis on getting the child to school on time with the appropriate materials and not on assisting in the classroom. They may have language difficulties and feel strange about participating with adults and children whom they cannot understand, or have difficulty understanding the materials that are sent home explaining participation opportunities (Garcia Coll et al., 2002). Dornbusch (1994) and Romo (1999), for example, found that parents and adolescents, especially from minority populations,
do not know what courses are required for getting admitted into the university system. The adolescents believed they were taking, and doing quite well in, the right courses; however, they found out too late that the courses would not meet the requirements and that they were not being taught the information needed to do well on the entrance exams. As a consequence, they had to change their post-high school plans despite their parents’ best efforts. Similarly, Garcia-Coll et al. (2002) found that parents’ reports of language difficulty were one of the strongest predictors of lack of involvement in schools for Portuguese, Dominican, and Cambodian immigrant groups regardless of socioeconomic status. They also found that the Dominican group was impacted the least by the language discomfort and had more interaction with the schools. They believe that this is due to the strong emphasis in the schools on bilingual education and materials that kept parents informed and helped the teachers and parents coordinate educational challenges such as homework.

Thus, it is very important that schools be aware that parents, like their children, do not enter the school environment with the same characteristics, background, or general understanding of how they might interact or be a part of the relationship with the school. The schools need to provide very specific assistance with materials sent home with the schools and make no assumptions about basic literacy or language comprehension.

**Community Characteristics**

Similar to the parental characteristics that influence families’ involvement in schools are the characteristics of the communities in which the families are members. Parents develop parenting behaviors that are consistent with the demands of their environments. In high-risk neighborhoods, for example, parents are more likely to concentrate on protecting their children from the negative influences and consequences of that environment than on other issues of development. These parents are not necessarily less involved with their children; instead they have chosen to focus their parenting influence on protection rather than on talent or achievement development. In lower-risk neighborhoods, danger is less of a concern and there are generally more resources (e.g., after-school programs, recreation programs, enrichment activities for dance and music) that parents can use to help in developing their children. There is also an interaction between the parent characteristics and the communities. Parents with lower education, lower-status jobs, low social support, lower emotional intelligence or social skills, and lower financial resources are often residing in high-risk environments. These parents face additional challenges in assisting their children with education or school-related activities. Schools need to
use appropriate strategies and innovations to assist these parents to get involved and stay involved (Eccles & Harold, 1993). For these children and families, schools may be the one safe and stable place they can go to experience positive involvement with the community. Schools could capitalize more on this fact by providing programs that serve both parents and children (see Chapter 5 for an extended discussion of this issue).

**Child Characteristics**

Characteristics of the child also influence the participation of parents in school settings, especially when children enter adolescence, which is a time of tremendous exploration and growth (for a discussion of the longitudinal effects of school–family partnership programs, see Chapter 7). Adolescents’ lives are changing as they transition first from elementary to middle school and then to high school. These transitions to new environments present risks to self-esteem and motivation (Eccles et al., 1993). Schools and families must work together not only to prevent negative outcomes, but also to promote positive, healthy, successful development. This requires open and ongoing communication and collaboration.

Parents may feel that as children get older they want less participation from their parents. Some parents may also feel less adequate at helping or participating with adolescents because the schoolwork becomes more complicated over the school years. Parents who were initially active in elementary schools might find fewer avenues to contribute in middle and junior high schools as their children spend more time with peers and the schools have fewer activities requiring or encouraging parent involvement. One reason for this decline in involvement might be parent response to the growing autonomy of their children. It becomes increasingly difficult as children grow older for parents to know what their role should be in the education of their children when issues such as college selection and occupation in the workforce begin to take prominence in children’s lives. However, parent involvement is not only necessary as adolescents enter a transition that can lead to a healthy or risky developmental trajectory (Eccles & Harold, 1993), it is actually what many adolescents want.

**School and Teacher Characteristics and Practices**

Schools and teachers also play a strong role in initiating and sustaining involvement with parents (Dauber & Epstein, 1989). Factors such as teacher beliefs about the role of the parent in the classroom, the opportunities for involvement that are made available in the classroom and school, and the schools’ policies (or lack thereof) regarding parental involvement
are crucial in creating an atmosphere that is conducive to parents’ involvement at school (Eccles & Harold, 1993). There are two major challenges that schools need to overcome if they want to increase parents’ involvement: the organization and physical structure of the school, and the school personnel’s beliefs and attitudes regarding parent involvement across all grades. The physical structure of the school may make it difficult for parents to easily find classrooms or to locate personnel who can help them with issues. The school may make no allowances for space for parents, for example, a parent room or an area where they can get refreshments or meet with teachers. Teacher attitudes and beliefs are also important predictors of how accommodating a classroom is to the parent and whether or not a parent feels welcome and invited to participate in the classroom or school. The more positive teacher attitudes are, the more welcome parents feel, the more likely they are to be involved.

In Chapter 2, Hoover-Dempsey and her colleagues outlined a model of parents’ involvement in which parents’ choices and behaviors were stressed as the key determinant of parents’ involvement. This model is especially useful for identifying potential challenges to parents’ involvement. They presented a five-level model that ascends from general parental beliefs and characteristics to positive outcomes for children. The barriers are similar to the Eccles and Harold model (1993) in two ways: (1) parents need to feel that they can make a difference and (2) demands on parents’ time often make it difficult for them to participate in schools. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1997) also stressed the decision-making process of the parents who are actively making choices regarding their involvement in school. They argued that parents’ decisions are influenced by their own beliefs as well as the action of the schools. They also argued that parents’ involvement can have positive outcomes for children based on how parents model their own positive involvement with the schools; thus the children also show positive behaviors toward school. Schools can assist in this decision-making process by giving parents many options to be involved and to understand that parents have various demands on their time and may need to have many options available to participate in school.

These two models stress the fact that both parents and schools are important components in producing good parental involvement. There are many challenges that exist between the parents and the schools that can make the relation between these two important contexts very weak. What both models emphasize is that negative beliefs about involvement from either the parent or the school are critical challenges for creating a positive achievement, social, and emotional environment for children. In the next section, we introduce a model that examines parents’ and schools’ involvement in a child’s life from a developmental perspective and outline
how important it is for both groups to focus on how they can work together to promote healthy and positive academic, social, and emotional development for children.

THE CONCEPT OF FAMILY MANAGEMENT

A child’s life revolves around several contexts and significant individuals as well as institutions. Our model tries to incorporate these different contexts, with the focus on the management (or mismanagement) of children’s academic, social, and emotional development. Children learn by interacting with their physical and social environments. They take in and process information, leading to cognitive and social learning. This flow of information occurs in a rich set of social contexts. There are multiple avenues through which information and resources reach each child. Early in life this information is generally managed by parents or parental figures through both their daily practices and the decisions they make concerning the types of information and resources the child receives. This type of management has been termed family management (Eccles, 1992; Furstenberg, Cook, Eccles, Elder, & Sameroff, 1999). As the child matures, teachers, religious figures, relatives, peer groups, coaches, and other significant people come to influence the informational flow and resources available to the child. Thus, over the years of childhood and adolescence, multiple significant others are engaged in managing the information and resources available to both inform children about their world and shape their growing knowledge, social and emotional development, and skill repertoire.

DEVELOPMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS

It is easy to imagine how a parent can do this coordination and management on behalf of a child during the preschool years. But what happens when the child goes to school? Parents who have had their children in day care or preschool programs have experienced major developmental transitions that are negotiated between the two contexts, school and home. Perhaps the best example of this is toilet training, where the parents and the teachers have to work closely together to coordinate this learning experience so that it is not a failure. Most preschools encourage lots of conversations with families regarding sleeping and eating habits or other major home issues that may influence the children’s day at school.

It is difficult to think of similar examples for the elementary school, where this kind of regular communication does not take place unless there
is substantial behavior or academic problems. In preschools, parents walk their children into the centers; in elementary school they are encouraged to drop them off and go about their day. Are elementary-age children less likely to be affected by home issues or developmental changes than preschool children? Sleeping and eating habits are still critical to the day of an elementary student as well as to their more general cognitive, social, and emotional development. So are other family issues and problems. The only difference is that opportunities for communication between parents and teachers have diminished and are often relegated to parent–teacher conferences once or twice a year.

What is becoming more apparent in the developmental literature is that dealing with social and emotional issues early is very important to the long-term outcomes for children. Research suggests that social and emotional outcomes and problem behaviors begin to stabilize and become predictive of later mental health and behaviors around 8 years of age (Huesmann & Guerra, 1997). Work on the transition to secondary school also suggests that this is a critical juncture for good parent–school communication as children move into a new structure, and those with lower social skills and self-esteem and higher anxiety begin to flounder (Eccles et al., 1993). Thus it is very important for parents and teachers to coordinate and manage their knowledge on developmental changes with each other, especially early in elementary school and as children transition into secondary school, in order for intervention to take place either in the home or at school.

The next section extends this concept of family management and builds on the concepts that have been more fully developed in work on the executive processing management in the brain. We believe this framework provides an integrative perspective on how information and resources are funneled through significant individuals in a child’s environment and how these individuals need to work together in order to successfully raise a child into a competent individual able to manage his or her own emotions and problem-solving behaviors.

**EXECUTIVE FUNCTION: AN ANALOGY**

As discussed earlier, effective child-rearing depends on close coordination of actors in various institutions. This coordination and interaction is analogous to the smooth functioning of the multiple subsystems in the human body and brain. Work in cognitive psychology has documented the importance of executive function in the brain to allow such coordination and management to occur (Borkowski & Burke, 1996). Executive functioning
is the management of information and resources coming into and being distributed within the cognitive system; it constantly evaluates and monitors the performance of various subsystems in order to make necessary adjustments for required tasks to occur (Borkowski & Burke, 1996). Effective executive functioning is critical for managing both the flow of information coming into the cognitive system from the physical and mental world and the flow of information out of the brain to the relevant subsystems throughout the body.

We are most interested in the developmental nature of effective and efficient executive functioning. Initially, efficient executive control of children’s interactions with their external world needs to be scaffolded by more mature individuals for two reasons: (1) to protect the child and make sure the child has the resources necessary for survival and growth, and (2) to help the child learn both the content-specific skills and the executive functioning skills necessary to manage his or her own survival.

A good example of how this management is important for child development is in the literature on social-emotional learning (Elias et al., 1997). Here the goal is to help a child develop competence in regulating, managing, and expressing emotions in order to successfully negotiate the demands of family, school, and relationships. These processes involve parents, teachers, and other adults (e.g., coaches, religious leaders) helping to interpret and scaffold for children the different emotions and social situations that occur during development. If successful, the child begins to do this regulation independent of the significant adults and is able to successfully manage other social interactions and life tasks. If these significant adults are not successful or do not coordinate these efforts in helping the child manage emotions and appropriate social responses, then it is likely that this child will not develop the essential competences for social and emotional learning.

We believe that the idea of executive functioning provides a useful metaphor for conceptualizing individuals’ interactions with their social worlds. Understanding the academic, social, and emotional developmental processes underlying the ontogeny of an efficient executive function system is critical to understanding successful social and cognitive development. Borkowski and Burke (1996) discuss the development of executive functioning skills in terms of repetition or multiple redundancies. Once a child has acquired a skill, he or she then uses it in different contexts, thus expanding skill and knowledge. Using this strategy allows the child to learn to apply the skill correctly in multiple situations. As the child continues to develop, she begins to select strategies, independent of adult assistance, from her own growing repertoire and implement them appropriately for the context. This sequence is considered to be the basis of adap-
tive learning and the beginning of self-regulated behavior (Borkowski & Burke, 1996).

**DETAILS OF THE SOCIAL EXECUTIVE FUNCTIONING MODEL**

In the previous sections we reviewed the various components that created the conceptualization and framework for the social executive functioning model (Davis-Kean & Eccles, 2000). In this section we present the details of this model and describe how it can be used to promote parent-teacher partnerships.

The contextual influences and number of significant individuals in a child’s life are vast and difficult to fully capture in any model. Nonetheless, Figure 3.1 is an attempt to schematize some of this complexity. The model, derived in part from Bronfenbrenner and Morris’s (1998) nested context model, is conceptually similar to the multisystem framework presented in the Introduction. The Executive Functioning Model highlights the role of significant individuals and social institutions as the managers (executive functionaries) of children’s daily lives. What isn’t depicted is the critical importance of these various individuals and institutions working closely together so that all actors have sufficient information and feedback mechanisms to allow each actor to be an effective executive functioner for each child. Consequently, we assume that all elements interact and affect each other. Further, the distance of any particular element from the individual child is not indicative of the magnitude of influence—effective functioning is a dialectical property of the entire system. For example, the impact of community context will vary across communities and will depend on the effectiveness of the family’s and the school’s executive functioning on behalf of the child. Similarly, the demands on the family’s executive functioning will depend on the characteristics of all of the other social contexts experienced by the child. Thus, the elements of this model dynamically interact, with each individual child having his own configuration of how much he is influenced by the different spheres.

**The Child**

At the heart of the framework is the individual child who is receiving resources and processing information from her world. This child brings to the situation her own cognitive processing ability, temperament, gender, and other constitutional factors. This is where the connection is made between the socially organized executive functioners and the child’s
Figure 3.1. The Social Executive Functioning Model
internal executive functioning. The information and resources from the outside spheres present themselves to the child, who must then process and incorporate the information into his or her own cognitive processes. In order for a child to have good social skills and learn to be self-regulated, for example, a parent or significant adult in his or her life would need to provide accurate and effective information on what skills are needed for positive interactions and self-control.

**Significant Individuals and Organizations**

The next sphere represents the groups most likely to interact directly with the child. They are the significant people and other influences in the child’s life. These groups manage information coming in from the other spheres and adjust them in response to the child characteristics. In the early years of life, the management and resources generally flow through the parents or primary caregivers. These caregivers provide information, transportation, food, values, safety, teaching, health care, social support, discipline, social and emotional learning, motivation, and other important physical and psychological resources to the child. The day care or school institution, for example, begins providing information, safety, transportation, food, values, and other physical and psychological resources. Similarly, the teacher or caregiver provides for social support, discipline, attention, social-emotional learning, motivation, and teaching as well as the psychological and physical resources. However, for these new caregivers to be effective executive functionaries for the child, they must coordinate their activities with the activities and management of the family-level caregivers. Without this connection, neither set of social executive functionaries has the information it needs to be an effective executive functionary for the child. Recent calls for greater collaboration between school and families are an example of the growing awareness of the need for coordination among the child’s various social executive functionaries. But for this collaboration to occur, the two systems must have access to the same sources of information and must have shared goals against which each system is evaluating progress and potential problems.

As the child gets older, the number of potential individuals (e.g., peers, counselors, religious leaders, coaches) who can act as social executive functionaries and the number of institutional settings (e.g., community programs, Head Start, juvenile court) in which executive functioning needs to occur increase. In addition, the number of opportunities and dangers that need to be managed by both the child and her social executive functionaries increases and, in many cases, become increasing more risky and difficult to manage. Thus, the demands on the child’s executive functioning
and on her social executive functionaries increases, leading to a need for even stronger coordination across the various executive functionaries. Unfortunately, in our society today, such coordination usually becomes increasingly difficult due to the marked independence of the various contextual systems through which our children and adolescents must navigate.

**Community Context**

The outermost sphere represents the community contexts that indirectly influence the child through the executive functionaries. Community contexts include the neighborhood and the larger community characteristics as well as the shared cultural context (see Chapters 4 and 5 for a detailed discussion of the issues). These contexts interact with the primary caregivers' own demographics and put certain constraints on what is proximally available to the significant people in a child's life to manage. Community contexts vary in the extent to which their potential impact on the child needs to be, or can be, managed by the child's primary caregivers. Resource-rich and safe communities with consistent norms and values can be used by the primary caregivers to provide their children with many positive opportunities. To the extent that the primary caregivers both agree with the norms and values of the community and trust their neighbors or friends to help them raise their children, the primary caregivers' executive functioning for the child is more easily distributed and shared with other members of the community. At the other extreme, primary caregivers may have to exert considerable energy as executive functioners to protect their children from the risk and dangers in their neighborhood.

When the resources and information do not exist, then the ability to reach these goals is diminished. In the case of the executive functionaries, if a primary caregiver, institution, or significant other does not have access to needed resources, then the likelihood that the child will learn to effectively self-regulate is reduced. Sometimes, however, resources not available in one social context (such as the family) may be provided in other contexts. As with the concept of family management, other significant individuals or institutions may compensate for lost or missing resources. Schools, for example, may provide resources not available in the home or community. Free or reduced-price lunch programs are one example of such resources: expert knowledge is another, and regulation of emotions and good social skills is yet another domain for which school can provide resources that may not be available in the home. Individuals at school can also connect families and children with other organizations or programs that may provide this assistance. Community outreach programs can provide assistance to families that are not able to provide certain
resources (e.g., school supplies, clothes, medical care) to their children. Conversely, if the schools are not doing an adequate job of teaching a child, parents can supplement this teaching by providing it themselves or seeking out tutoring from other institutions. Hence, there is a certain amount of compensation that can and should occur between the executive functionaries in order to aid in the academic, social, and emotional development of a developing child. Within the framework of executive functioning, such compensation is likely to work best when the various systems are working together on behalf of the child.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter has outlined a model of how parents, teachers, and schools can work as partners to promote the academic, social, and emotional development of children. The main recommendation stemming from this work is to create programs and curriculum that stress the importance and need for communication between parents, teachers, and schools (see Figure 3.2). This is not a new recommendation, but communication still remains one of the weakest links between parents and teachers in our schools today. Including this emphasis in curriculum in the primary and secondary schools begins with changes in the education schools where teachers receive their degrees. As Chavkin discusses in Chapter 9, there should be a focus in teacher training to better prepare teachers to work with families more effectively, especially on how teaching is not just about what happens in a classroom but is only one element of a system where all members need to be informed of issues as they relate to achievement and social and emotional development. Children spend many hours outside the home in educational settings; hence, teachers, coaches, and schools are just as responsible for the positive academic, social, and emotional development of a child as the parents. In these settings, they develop not only their academic skills but also their social skills of dealing with their peers and with adults. Such skills are valuable talents to foster and are predictive of success in adulthood. For that, it is important that avenues are created where communication, management of information, and coordination are the tools to foster both the social and academic talents of children. Highlighting a broad array of skills in educational institutions that teach future educational professionals is one way to intervene and to provide an avenue for these skills to reach the classroom.

It is also important that avenues be established where parents can bring the school into the home. Possible avenues for this involvement include monitoring homework, assisting in projects, teaching computer...
**Figure 3.2. Recommendations for Coordination Between Executive Functionaries**

1. Cultivate Schools and Classrooms That Welcome and Integrate Families
   - Provide a space inside the school for parents to gather with each other, meet with school personnel, and access information and resources.
   - Make parents feel that they are a valued constituency, and welcome visits at the school.

2. Establish Effective Systems of Communication Between Home and School
   - School administrators and teachers should ensure that they have communication systems that facilitate the flow of information between parents and schools.
   - Have updated telephone and computer systems, translators, and personnel who can welcome and orient parents to the school and its practices.
   - Provide necessary infrastructure for the effective coordination and transmission of information.

3. Teach Executive Functioning Skills
   - Teachers can explicitly teach children executive functioning skills and provide parents with suggestions and tips about how to help children plan, organize, and complete homework assignments.

4. Help Families Navigate School-Related Tasks and Activities
   - Teachers and schools should be aware that some parents may not feel comfortable helping with homework assignments, while others may not know what courses are required for college attendance.
   - Schools and teachers may need to provide some parents with tools that will enable them to guide and support their children through the educational system.

skills, and promoting educational opportunities that are offered by the school such as band, sports, and journalism. Parents also are strong role models for their children and can influence the importance that children place on schooling. Thus it is important for parents to have a positive view of the schools. Communication with the schools and exchange of information about a child are good ways to promote a positive view. Teacher and parents can also meet early in each school year to jointly create developmental and educational plans for their children that target a range of activities that include academic, social, and emotional skills and those that promote both these skills. In this way, teachers and parents establish
an avenue where they can discuss the issues of development and also become partners in this endeavor (Eccles & Harold, 1993).

Finally, the administration of the school is critical in creating an environment where both parents and teachers feel they can meet and discuss issues related to children. There should be parent resource rooms where information on academic, social, and emotional development and curriculum is available, as well as various ways to be involved at both the classroom and school level. There should be avenues for parents of different cultures and language ability to obtain information on the expectations of schools and the policies that govern the completion of each grade level as well as completion of schooling overall. Once this coordination and information management between the schools, teachers, and parents is established, then we should see healthier academic, social, and emotional outcomes for children.

**CONCLUSION**

Even though there are various models in the literature regarding parent-school involvement, we believe that conceptualizing it from a developmental perspective, with each partner having an important role in the positive academic, social, and emotional development of the child, is an important step in changing the way parents and teachers conceptualize their roles in this process. The advantage of this integrated perspective is that it focuses our attention on the interconnections among the various social contexts that influence children's lives. Understanding what facilitates efficient coordination among the various contexts in which children develop is critical to understanding how parents, teachers, schools, and other significant contexts often do a less than optimal job at this social task. There are often challenges that can lead to inadequate coordination of executive functioning across individuals and organization, such as lack of coordinated problem solving and goal-setting and lack of access to important school information.

The research we have carried out over the years has indicated that coordination between parents and teachers is critical to the social and emotional development of children, especially as they make their transitions into and out of elementary school. When social and emotional development is ignored or not managed well, then a detriment is seen to not only the mental health of the children but also to their academic achievement (Zins, Weissberg, Wang, & Walberg, 2004). Recently, the relationship between social and emotional development and academic outcomes in schools has become the focus of new curriculum and teacher
training on social and emotional learning in the schools (Elias et al., 1997; Zins et al., 2004). This approach holds strong promise of pulling parents and teachers together to aid in the development of good social and emotional skills in children.

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