

August 2022

Impact of Teacher Cognition on the Implementation of Social-Emotional Learning Practices for EL Students

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IMPACT OF TEACHER COGNITION ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SOCIAL-
EMOTIONAL LEARNING PRACTICES FOR EL STUDENTS

by

Madeline N. Bliske

A Dissertation Submitted in
Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in Educational Psychology

at

The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee

August 2022

ABSTRACT

IMPACT OF TEACHER COGNITION ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL LEARNING PRACTICES FOR EL STUDENTS

by

Madeline N. Bliske

The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, 2022
Under the Supervision of Professor Kyongboon Kwon

There is a well-established achievement and graduation rate gap between English Learner (EL) students and their monolingual English-speaking peers (U.S. Department of Education, 2020). The current study focuses on teacher cognition and characteristics that may impact the likelihood that they will implement culturally and linguistically sustaining (CLS) social-emotional learning (SEL) practices for EL students within their classroom. Specifically, I descriptively analyze whether personal, professional, or school characteristics are associated with teachers' perception of EL students SEL competencies or implementation of CLS SEL practices. Utilizing the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), I evaluate whether teacher cognition (i.e., behavioral attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control) are associated with the implementation of CLS SEL practices. Finally, I investigate whether the association between TPB beliefs and implementation of practices is moderated by teacher beliefs about EL students.

To test each research question, 139 teachers located in the state of Wisconsin completed an online survey. I analyzed responses using Pearson r correlation, independent sample t -tests, and hierarchical multiple regression. The results indicated that teacher personal characteristics (e.g., bilingualism, race), type and amount of professional training, and school characteristics (e.g., dual language program), were associated with teacher beliefs about EL students SEL competency and

their implementation of CLS SEL practices. TPB beliefs were correlated with implementation but were not uniquely associated with implementation after controlling for teacher bilingualism and total training. Only teachers' beliefs about EL students' academic motivation were a significant predictor of implementation.

These results suggest providing teachers targeted training to work with EL students and implement SEL practices may increase the likelihood of using CLS practices within the general education classroom. Such training could enhance teachers' knowledge and understanding of EL students and how to best support them.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

English Learner (EL) students face many barriers when entering the American public-school system: adjusting to an unfamiliar environment, acquiring a new language, and simultaneously meeting grade level academic standards. According to the U.S Department of Education, (2020), from 2015-2016, the graduation rate for EL students was 67%; a rate equivalent to that of students with disabilities and significantly below the national average graduation rate of 84%. While many EL students receive English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) services, they spend much of their academic time in a monolingual English-speaking classroom with a general education teacher. Such teachers may or may not receive training on working with EL students resulting in varying beliefs about language acquisition, ability of EL students, and successful pedagogical practices for this population (Harrison & Lakin, 2018a, 2018b; Pettit, 2011).

In addition to teaching academic material to EL students, general education teachers are also tasked with fostering social-emotional development during the early school years. Social-emotional learning (SEL) refers to the process through which individuals develop and apply skills and knowledge related to developing a healthy identity, understanding and managing emotions, and maintaining supportive relationships (CASEL, 2020). Teachers can provide SEL to diverse learners by adopting culturally relevant or responsive teaching practices. There are several frameworks (e.g., culturally responsive teaching, culturally relevant teaching, culturally sustaining pedagogy) that are meant to utilize diverse learners' cultural knowledge, personal experiences, and performance styles to sustain students' home culture and their evolving cultural identity (Gay, 2018; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Paris & Alim, 2017). Collectively, these frameworks promote a strengths-based teaching method that defies a deficit model by ensuring students see

their language, culture, and identity reflected and valued within the school communities and curriculum (Muniz, 2019). For the purposes of this study, I will refer to such teaching practices and pedagogy as culturally and linguistically sustaining (CLS) approaches.

CLS SEL instruction is crucial for EL students as they face challenges in acquiring a second language (L2) and adapting to a new school environment. EL students must learn to negotiate between two differing sets of cultural and linguistic norms and expectations across the home and school settings (Halle et al., 2014). Furthermore, social-emotional competence is essential as EL face acculturation stressors, learning novel academic material, and forming peer relationships in a L2. Language ability is often associated with social competence and predicts prosocial behavior (Melani et al., 2020; Ren et al., 2016). Furthermore, lower English proficiency has been shown to contribute to EL students' internalizing or externalizing problems within the classroom setting, which negatively impact academic development (Cho et al., 2019; Rhodes et al., 2005). EL students with lower English proficiency tend to demonstrate lower interpersonal competencies, fewer adaptive skills, and more social-emotional difficulties compared to their non-EL peers (Adams & Richie, 2017). Teaching EL students SEL skills in a CLS manner may serve to enhance EL students' abilities to regulate strong emotions, enhance social competence to form and maintain peer relationships, and enhance self-management skills that foster bilingual development (Landry et al., 2019).

Teacher beliefs about the importance and implementation of SEL impact the quality and quantity of social-emotional instruction within the classroom (Morris et al., 2013; Poulou, 2017). For example, highly emotionally supportive teachers tend to engage in more discussion of emotions and view themselves as have a key role in the emotion socialization of their students (Zinsser et al., 2014). However, positive beliefs about SEL and effective emotion-related

teaching practices may not be sufficient if not applied in a CLS manner (Adams & Richie, 2017; Cho et al., 2019; Landry et al., 2019; Liggett, 2014; Lucas et al., 2008). CLS SEL practices may include providing emotional vocabulary in multiple languages, having social-emotional books that represent various cultures, and collaborating with families and communities to promote SEL both in the classroom and within the home (Adams & Richie, 2017; Good et al., 2010; Melani et al., 2020). The adaptation of SEL for EL students may require teachers' understanding of general SEL implementation as well as both social-emotional and linguistic development unique to EL students. Teachers' experience and cognition (e.g., knowledge, beliefs, and assumptions; Borg, 2003) related to teaching EL students are important in the academic and social-emotional development of these students (Pettit, 2011). Harrison and Lakin (2018) found that teachers with a better understanding of L2 acquisition had more effective pedagogical beliefs about instructing EL students and were, therefore, more likely to implement practices that support the development of this population. Alternatively, teachers with more negative or deficit beliefs about the ability and motivation of EL students in their classroom are less likely to hold high expectations, which may negatively influence student development (Carley Rizzuto, 2017; Jacoby & Lesaux, 2019; Pettit, 2011; Reeves, 2006). Teachers who interpret student behavior from a monolingual English-speaking and dominant culture perspective may view EL students' difficulties as within-child deficits. Doing so may result in misinterpretation of a child's social, emotional, or academic needs, devaluation of the EL students' strengths and resiliency, and perpetuation of linguist practices within the English-only general education classroom (Cho et al., 2019). Alternatively, teachers that recognize and utilize EL students' resilience and strengths, value cultural and linguistic diversity, and advocate to provide CLS SEL instruction for all students, are likely to foster positive development in social-emotional, behavioral, and academic

domains for EL and non-EL students alike (Adams & Richie, 2017; Cho et al., 2019; Landry et al., 2019; Liggett, 2014; Lucas et al., 2008).

Problem Statement

According to the theory of planned behavior (TPB), teacher experience and cognition are significant predictors of teaching behavior (Ajzen, 2002; Pajares, 1992). Teaching behavior is influenced by behavioral beliefs, societal norms, and self-efficacy associated with a specific behavior (Ajzen, 2002). Therefore, teachers' experience with and cognition about EL students likely interact with their beliefs about specific teaching behaviors (e.g., teaching SEL to EL students) to influence teaching practices. While there is extant literature focused on teacher experience with and cognition of SEL practices in relation to student emotional competence (e.g., Durlak et al., 2011; Jones & Kahn, 2017) and academic success (e.g., (Eisenberg et al., 2005; S. M. Jones & Kahn, 2017) there is minimal research in this area devoted to the EL population. Furthermore, existing research about the association between teacher beliefs about EL students and student outcomes has widely focused on academic achievement and neglected social-emotional development (Karabenick & Noda, 2004; Pettit, 2011; Reeves, 2006). While there is one identified qualitative study which examined teachers' beliefs about refugee EL students' social-emotional skills and self-reported use of culturally responsive teaching practices (Cho et al., 2019), there is little to no quantitative research dedicated to understanding teacher-related factors which may be associated with teacher's use of CLS SEL practices for EL students. Cho and colleagues (2019) utilized teacher interviews to understand teachers' perspective on refugee EL students' SEL and teachers' own ability to utilize teacher practices which promote equality and social justice within the mainstream classroom. While teachers reported utilizing various teaching methods (i.e., explicit teaching, creating a positive classroom environment), teachers appeared to

have a deficit-oriented view of EL students' SEL development. Most teachers indicated a willingness to offer individualized instruction for EL students but did not aim to engage them in whole class activities because they felt their English proficiency was a barrier to engagement (Cho et al., 2019). This study aims to continue to bridge an important gap between the SEL and EL student literature and provide a more nuanced understanding of the way in which teacher experiences, cognition, and practices impact the social-emotional instruction of EL students.

Purpose of the Current Study

The purpose of this study is to disentangle the broad construct of teacher cognition into more distinct factors (e.g., beliefs about a specific behavior, beliefs about the EL student population, and beliefs about the social-emotional development of EL students). The first aim is to descriptively analyze teachers' beliefs about the social-emotional competencies/difficulties of EL students based on the five SEL domains (i.e., self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making; CASEL, 2020). Relatedly, I will examine whether such SEL beliefs differ depending on teacher personal characteristics (i.e., bilingualism), professional experience (i.e., EL training, number of EL students), or school characteristics (i.e., schoolwide SEL curriculum).

The second aim is to examine the relationship between teachers' beliefs about a specific behavior (i.e., teaching SEL to EL students) and the implementation of CLS SEL practices within the classroom. More specifically, this study aims to clarify which of teachers' beliefs about teaching SEL to EL students (i.e., behavioral attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, Ajzen, 2002) may contribute to specific classroom practices. Furthermore, I aim to understand whether the association between teacher beliefs about teaching SEL to EL

students and implementation of CLS SEL practices is influenced by beliefs about EL students themselves (i.e., inclusion, language use and L2 acquisition, motivation and engagement).

Significance of Study

This study has the potential to inform the field to improve both academic and social-emotional development for an underserved and minoritized population of students. Culturally and linguistically sustaining (CLS) social-emotional learning (SEL) practices that allow EL students to develop resilience, confidence, and make positive social connections within their classroom are likely to positively impact academic achievement as well (Calkins & Bell, 2010).

This study aims to identify whether there are specific teacher or school characteristics that impact the likelihood that teachers use CLS SEL practices within their classroom. Identifying whether certain training experiences or beliefs influence pedagogical decision can inform pre-service and professional development training programs that provide explicit pedagogical considerations as well as engage teachers in self-reflection to challenge biases they may hold against EL students and their families. Finally, the study can provide an idea of the types of CLS SEL practices teachers are using in the classroom and offer suggestions on how to develop more inclusion and equity focused practices for all students.

Defining Terms

I have defined the following terms to help the reader comprehend the context of various terms included in this study.

English Learner (EL) student: a student whose primary language is not English and who are eligible for language services within the school based on results of an English proficiency assessment (ECS, 2020).

English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL)/English as a Second Language (ESL): programs designed to meet the needs of students whose dominant language is not English; the goal is to prepare students for success in school and society by developing English language proficiency and the skill necessary to meet standards on language proficiency and criterion referenced assessments (U.S. Department of Education, 2016).

Linguicism: discrimination based on which language one uses, how one uses the language, and which language(s) one does not use, or in which one is not fluent (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2012).

Culturally and linguistically sustaining (CLS) practices: a strengths-based teaching method that defies a deficit model, incorporates diverse languages, cultures, and identities into curriculum and practices, and values cultural and linguistic diversity within the classroom and school community (Muniz, 2019).

Social-Emotional Learning (SEL): process through which all individuals develop and apply attitudes, skills, and knowledge that are essential for managing emotions, empathizing with others, creating, and maintaining effective relationships, developing a healthy identity, and making responsible and healthy decisions (CASEL, 2020).

Teacher cognition: an overarching construct that includes the knowledge, beliefs, and assumptions which teachers hold that influence teaching behavior (Borg, 2003).

Teacher beliefs: persevering and self-perpetuating truths that defines and guides one's understanding of the world and self; a filter through which new information and experiences are processed and interpreted; influence one's perception and strongly affect behavior (Pajares, 1992); also includes teacher attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 2002).

Teacher attitudes: a behavioral belief formed through the association of performing a behavior with a certain outcome or attribute, the attitude toward a behavior is based on the evaluation of said outcomes (Ajzen, 2002; Underwood 2012). An instrumental attitude is an evaluation related to the perceived consequences involved in performing a behavior; an affective attitude is an emotional response provoked while performing a behavior (Elliot & Ainsworth, 2012; Wilson et al., 2016).

Subjective norms: a normative belief results in motivation to adopt or avoid a behavior to comply with subjective perception of social pressure from influential others (Ajzen, 2002; Underwood 2012). An injunctive norm is the perception that important others would approve or disapprove of a behavior; a descriptive norm is the belief that others are engaging in a specific behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011; Wilson et al., 2016).

Perceived behavioral control (PBC): degree to which an individual believes they have control over their ability to perform a behavior (Ajzen, 2002; Elliot & Ainsworth, 2012). Controllability refers to external factors which may facilitate or inhibit performing a behavior; self-efficacy is how capable an individual feels they are of performing a behavior (Wilson et al., 2016).

Teacher experience: personal experiences in general, such as one's world view, understanding of relationship between schooling and society, and personal or cultural understanding; personal experiences with school from a student perspective; experiences with formal knowledge such as understanding of specific subject matter and how students learn (Richardson, 1996); professional experience such as pre-service training, professional development, and years of teaching experience.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

English Learner (EL) students within the American educational system are graduating at rates comparable to those of students with disabilities (U.S. Department of Education, 2020). This alarming statistic is likely the result of numerous, interrelated factors. It is possible that EL students struggle to succeed in a systemically assimilationist educational system that has failed to require the implementation of culturally and linguistically sustaining (CLS) academic curricula. Alternatively, EL students may face academic challenges due to stress or social-emotional turmoil caused by acculturation, English proficiency requirements, discrimination, or trauma (Good et al., 2010; Oades-Sese et al., 2011). Perhaps, it is teachers themselves who need more training to successfully teach EL students within the general education classroom. Teachers own experiences or underlying cognitions about EL students may influence the practices they implement in their classrooms. Most likely, each of these factors contribute to the academic difficulties and concerning graduation rates of EL students within the United States. Therefore, the purpose of this literature review is to discuss extant research related to the implementation of CLS social-emotional learning (SEL) practices for EL students. More specifically, I will discuss characteristics of EL students within the United States, the importance of SEL for EL students, and various barriers to CLS practices within the educational system. Furthermore, this literature review will examine current theories and research on the ways in which teacher experience and cognition influence classroom practices. Finally, I will discuss research demonstrating CLS SEL practices that aim to foster the social-emotional development of EL students.

Theoretical Frameworks

Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining (CLS) Pedagogy

Culturally sustaining pedagogy refers to teaching practices that support students in sustaining cultural and linguistic competence within their home and community while offering access to the dominant culture (Paris, 2012). The field of culturally sustaining practices has undergone many changes in terminology and implementation within recent years. In the 1960's and 70's, deficit-based approaches to teaching viewed literacy, cultural practices, and languages of students of color as deficiencies to overcome through public education (Lee, 2007; Paris & Ball, 2009). During this time, all education was aligned with the dominant language, literacy, and practices of White middle-class American norms; those who did not align were considered unacceptable by US schools and the broader society. Therefore, the goal of the educational system became to eradicate linguistic, cultural, and literate practices of students of color and replace those with the "superior" practices of the dominant culture (Paris, 2012). In the 1970's and 80's, the field began to recognize the knowledge of students and communities of color as equal to, but different, from those legitimized in schools. The goal was now to bridge the gap between the home culture toward the dominant culture with little attention toward maintaining heritage or community practices (Paris, 2012).

Soon, specific practices to support cultural and linguistic differences began to emerge. Culturally relevant pedagogy (CRP; Ladson-Billings, 1995) and culturally responsive pedagogy (Cazden & Leggett, 1976; Gay, 2000) offered to produce students who could achieve academically, demonstrate cultural competence, and both understand and critique the existing social order within American society. However, the terms "responsive" and "relevant" do not necessarily guarantee that the goal of public education is to maintain cultural heritage and value

the sharing of cultural and linguistic knowledge to sustain and support bi- and multilingualism or culturalism (Paris, 2012). Therefore, the term “culturally sustaining” requires that the educational system support culturally and linguistically diverse students in sustaining their cultural and linguistic competence of their communities while developing cultural competence in the dominant culture. Unfortunately, current US educational policies and procedures do not prioritize sustaining cultures and languages of communities of color. The existence of English only policies, decontextualized language and literacy programs in communities of color, and explicit bans on studying histories and struggles of certain ethnic groups, point to an explicit effort to maintain deficit perspectives and assimilation pedagogy (Nieto, 2011).

Liggett (2014) has utilized the core tenants of CRT and applied them to working with EL students. CRT-ELL views linguisticism, like racism, as a permanent aspect of life for EL students who are discriminated against based on language proficiency and accent (Liggett, 2014). According to Phillipson (1992) “linguicism has taken over from racism as a more subtle way of hierarchizing social groups in the contemporary world (p. 241).” Like traditional CRT, CRT-ELL recognizes that EL students have valued cultural and linguistic knowledge and abilities that have been devalued by the broader dominant culture, and more specifically, the education system. Teachers must be aware of the historical impact of linguisticism in education and revise their own understanding of how linguisticism takes form in modern education. Teachers can use the CRT method of utilizing student storytelling to identify instances of oppression and validate the strengths and experiences that EL students bring to the classroom. Through students’ personal stories, important contextual aspects are highlighted, allowing for alteration of misperceptions (Liggett, 2014).

In this study I applied aspects of Liggett's (2014) CRT-ELL framework to the implementation of CLS SEL practices within the traditional monolingual English-speaking classroom. This study utilizes a strengths-based approach by emphasizing the importance of valuing EL students' and families' linguistic knowledge, cultural values, and resiliency when adapting SEL instruction. Furthermore, by prioritizing CLS pedagogy, I aimed to acknowledge that multilingualism and multiculturalism are essential to educational access and societal power (Paris & Alim, 2014). Therefore, SEL pedagogies can and must teach students to be linguistically and culturally flexible across various languages and cultural ways of believing and living to foster social, emotional, and academic success.

Social-Emotional Learning (SEL)

In New Haven, Connecticut during the 1960's, James Comer began the Comer School Development Program, developed on the concept that differences between student experiences at home and in the school impacts psychosocial development, which impacts academic achievement (Comer, 1988). Comer's program included a team composed of teachers, administration, parents, and a mental health worker which collaboratively made decisions to change school procedures to decrease behavioral problems. By 1980, the truancy and behavioral problems had declined while academic performance exceeding national average. In 1994, the term social-emotional learning (SEL) was becoming more widespread as the Collaborative to Advance Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL) established itself. In 2020, CASEL updated their definition and framework for SEL to include aspects related to identity, strengths, and experiences of all children, especially students marginalized by the educational system (CASEL, 2020). CASEL's new definition and framework maintain the five core components of SEL: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision

making, but have been altered to address issues of cultural and racial equity (CASEL, 2020). In this study I utilized CASEL's newest SEL definition and framework to guide current and future understanding and practices that minimize inequity for EL students. Furthermore, I used CASEL implementation guidelines and expands practices to encompass SEL adaptations that are specific for working with the EL population.

Teacher Beliefs and Behavior: Theory of Planned Behavior

Stern and Shavelson (1983) approached the study of teacher beliefs and practices with the following assumptions: 1) teachers are professionals who use reason to make judgments and decisions within the complex and variable contexts in which they work and 2) teachers' thoughts, evaluations, and decisions guide their behavior within the classroom. Within the fields of social and educational psychology, there have been inconsistencies in the use of constructs meant to capture the thought processes of teachers. Constructs such as beliefs, attitudes, perspectives, perceptions, theories, and conceptions have often been used interchangeably to refer to mental states that are thought to influence behavior (Richardson, 1996). For the purposes of this paper, I used the construct teacher cognition to refer more broadly to the knowledge, beliefs, and assumptions which teachers hold that influence behavior (Borg, 2003). From the 1950's to 1970's a majority of educational and social psychology research focused on how attitudes influenced behavior (Richardson, 1996). Attitudes are conceptualized as cognitive predispositions that are learned via experience and have the capacity to influence an individual's response to objects and situations in a favorable or unfavorable manner (Allport, 1967; Fishbein, 1967). As the field of social psychology began to become more cognitively oriented, there was a shift in distinguishing between attitudes and beliefs (Richardson, 1996). While attitudes were conceptualized as an affective experience or evaluation of an object along a positive to negative

dimension (Guyer & Fabrigar, 2015), beliefs became conceptualized as a more cognitive understanding about the world that is held in the mind as truth (Richardson, 1996). Beliefs are viewed as guides that allow individuals to make decisions, pass judgment on the behavior of others, manipulate objective knowledge for a specific purpose or circumstance, and are often integrated into schemas or systems that guide behavior (Abelson, 1979; Goodenough, 1963; Sigel, 1985).

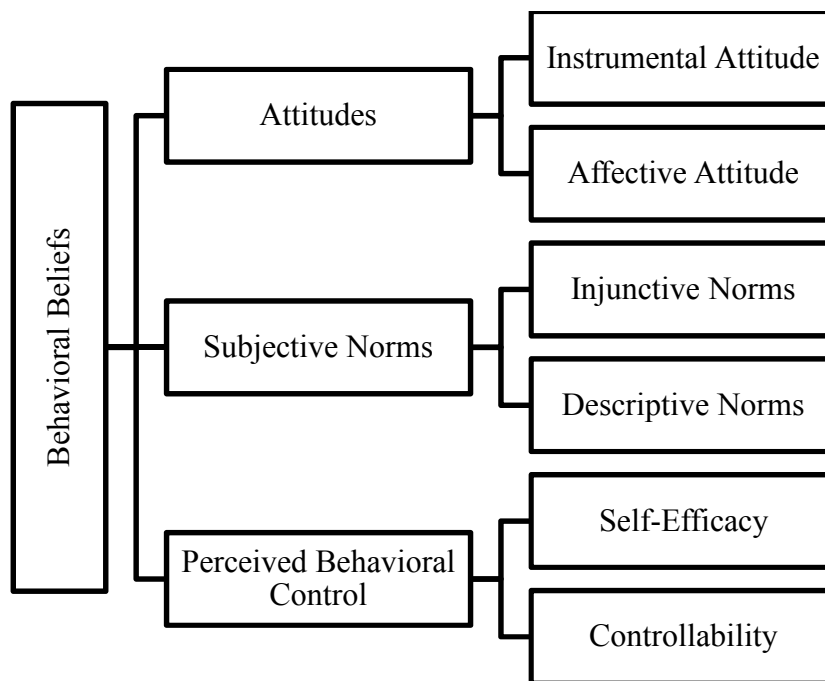
The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), first described by Ajzen (1985), and has now become one of the most widely accepted social-psychological models for predicting behavior. Ajzen (1985) developed TPB as a response to a lack of established relationship between individuals' general dispositions (e.g., racial attitudes) and their actual behavior (Ajzen & Cote, 2008). TPB proposes that behavior is influenced by behavioral attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (PBC). TPB assumes that human social behavior is planned, meaning people predict the likely consequences of a behavior (i.e., behavioral beliefs), normative expectations of others (i.e., normative beliefs), and factors that may facilitate or impede a behavior (i.e., control beliefs; Ajzen & Cote, 2008). However, behavioral, normative, and control beliefs may be inaccurate or biased, which may impact subsequent attitudes, subjective norms, and PBC. Therefore, behavior is likely to reflect these underlying beliefs, whether they are based in fact or influenced by bias (Ajzen & Cote, 2008).

The original TPB theory has since been updated to a two-component theory, presented in Figure 1, which distinguishes between instrumental versus affective attitudes, injunctive versus descriptive norms, and controllability versus self-efficacy (Ajzen, 2002; Wilson et al., 2016). Behavioral beliefs are personal and develop through the association of a behavior with certain outcomes or attributes, the attitude toward a behavior is then based on the evaluation of said

outcomes (Underwood, 2012). Instrumental attitudes are the perceived consequences involved in performing the behavior, while affective attitudes are the emotions that are provoked when performing a behavior (Wilson et al., 2016). Prior research suggests that affective attitudes are a strong predictor of intent across a wide array of behaviors (Kraft et al., 2005; Rise et al., 2008). Normative beliefs refer to social influence and are based on the perception that important others would approve or disapprove of adopting or performing a behavior (Underwood, 2012). This perception of social pressure has been categorized into injunctive norms (i.e., perception that others approve of the behavior) and descriptive norms, which is the belief that others are performing the behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Finally, control beliefs refer to the presence or absence of numerous factors that facilitate or impede a behavior (Underwood, 2012). Controllability, refers to the degree to which a person believes they have control over the performance of a behavior, often based on external factors (e.g., time, money) that enhance or inhibit the behavior (Wilson et al., 2016). Bandura's self-efficacy (1997) has also been added to the construct of control beliefs (Ajzen, 2002). Self-efficacy refers to how capable the individual feels they are of performing a behavior; it has been found to be a stronger predictor of behavioral intent than controllability alone (Wilson et al., 2016). The control belief construct accounts for influence due to experience, knowledge, training opportunities, and resources (e.g., time, money; Underwood, 2012).

Figure 1

Two-Component Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB; Ajzen 2002)



Through this study I aimed to demonstrate how teachers’ beliefs about the importance of SEL instruction for EL students and cognition about EL students in general (e.g., attitudes toward inclusion, language acquisition, and academic motivation) impact teaching practices.

Demographics and Achievement of English Learner Students

Students who speak a language other than English within the home are often referred to as “limited English proficient”; however, this term views EL students through a deficit lens. The preferred, and most widely used terms, of English Language Learner (ELL) or English Learner (EL) student refer to students’ whose native language is that other than English or who grew up in an environment in which a language other than English has impacted their English proficiency (ECS, 2020). EL students often have trouble in reading, writing, speaking, or understanding English, which impacts their ability to succeed in English-only classrooms, meet state academic achievement proficiency levels, and fully participate in American society in general (ECS,

2020). However, the variability in the methods to identify EL students and define English proficiency across the country have led to difficulty within the educational system and research with this population. The first method of identifying possible EL students is the Home Language Surveys (HLS); questions, language, and application of HLS vary from state to state (Linguanti & Cook, 2013). This variation tends to result in both false positives and false negatives for several reasons. EL parents may not understand the purpose of the HLS and worry that it is a tool to determine citizenship status or place their student in unequal or undesirable educational services. Schools may inaccurately translate the HSL questions or assume EL parents are literate in the language used on the HSL, resulting in misinterpretation (Linguanti & Cook, 2013). Furthermore, parents may not want their child to receive EL services due to worries that their child will become stigmatized (Winstead & Wang, 2017). Another issue in the identification of EL students is the variability in the English proficiency tests used to classify EL students' proficiency levels. While some states mandate a certain screener or placement test, others allow districts to determine which assessment to use. This variability creates differing standards and definitions of what determine "English proficient" as various tests (e.g., California English Language Development Test, ACCESS for ELLs) create composite scores differently (Linguanti & Cook, 2013). The variance in testing between and within states also causes complications for the reclassifying and exiting of EL students from linguistic service; a high-risk decision that has serious implications for students' overall academic success.

The percentage of EL students within the United States has steadily increased over time. From Fall 2000 to Fall 2017, the percentage of EL students enrolled in public schools has increased from 8.1% to 10.1% (NCES, 2020). During the 2017-2018 school year, there were over 5 million EL students enrolled in schools within the United States (OELA, 2021). Most EL

students are within lower grade levels, with 15.9% of kindergarten students identified as ELs in 2017 while only 4.7% of 12th graders were considered ELs. This difference in percentage is likely attributed to students obtaining English proficiency levels as they reach upper grade levels (NCES, 2020). In terms of home language, Spanish is the most widely spoken, with 74.8% of EL students and 7.6% of all public-school students speaking Spanish as their native language. Arabic and Mandarin are the next most common home languages of EL students within the United States (NCES, 2020). Although 23% of EL students within the United States are immigrants, 77% of EL students enrolled in public education are American citizens; 77% of all EL students have at least one immigrant parent (Zong & Batalova, 2015).

EL students have consistently shown poorer academic performance compared to non-EL peers across subjects. In 2017, only 14% of ELs in fourth grade were at or above proficiency levels in mathematics while only 9% met proficiency in reading (NEAP, 2017). In eighth grade, the proficiency gap in both reading and math between ELs and their non-EL peers was even more pronounced. While EL performance on measures of math and reading have improved overall since 2000, there has been little change in closing the achievement gap within recent years (U.S Department of Education, 2020). Monitored former English learners (MFELs), or those who exit EL services, are monitored on state assessments for four years after exiting. MFEL students perform similar to or worse than current EL students on state assessments. In the 2017-2018 school year, EL and MFEL students' proficiency in mathematics (M = 26.6%), reading/language arts (M = 27.8%), and science (M = 9.3%) were drastically lower than non-EL students' performance on the same tests (45.2%, 50.5%, and 48% respectively; OELA, 2021). This is especially concerning because it demonstrates that MFEL students show little to no

improvements after exiting EL services. In some cases, MFEL students show more difficulty on state assessment proficiency the longer they have been removed from services.

While state assessments may not accurately capture the academic growth of EL students, data shows that they also graduate high school at a much lower rate than their non-EL peers. During the 2015-2016 school year, the graduation rate for EL students was 67% while non-EL students graduated at a rate of 84%. Within the 2020 school year, six states in the United States had less than half of EL students graduating from high school within four years (U.S. Department of Education, 2020). While EL students are a growing population in the United States schools, there has been little success in increasing academic outcomes for these individuals within the past 20 years. Furthermore, it appears that students that exit from EL services continue to struggle with academic material despite meeting criteria to exit “EL” status.

An important consideration when attempting to uncover the etiology of the achievement gap between EL students and their non-EL is the language acquisition process. Research has demonstrated two different types of language proficiency: basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP; Kettler et al., 2014). The distinction between BICS and CALP lies in the difference between linguistic skills necessary for social conversations and those required for academic success (Cummins, 1978). While EL students may attain BICS within two years of being enrolled in monolingual English-only classrooms, CALP may take five to seven years to attain a level of proficiency equal to that of non-EL peers (Cummins, 2008). Oftentimes educational professionals misunderstand the difference in these two language proficiencies which may result in premature removal of EL students from ESL services (Cummins, 1999). EL students that are removed from ESL services may then experience academic difficulties because the general education teachers do not

recognize that their social communication proficiency does not translate to their ability to comprehend a textbook in English. It is important that general education teachers understand the difference between BICS and CALP to realize why EL students may need additional support to successfully complete academic tasks in English despite appearing to be fluent speakers (Lucas et al., 2008).

Language ability is also strongly associated with social competence, behavioral issues, and emotion regulation in EL students (Ren et al., 2016). Such competencies are a critical part of social-emotional development, which has been shown to be inextricably linked to academic performance of all students, including EL students. Durlak and colleagues (2011) conducted a meta-analysis that demonstrated an 11-percentile gain in academic performance in schools that utilized sequenced, active, focused, and explicit SEL practices aimed to enhance the social-emotional development of students.

Social-Emotional Learning

Social-emotional learning (SEL) refers to the process through which all individuals develop and apply attitudes, skills, and knowledge that are essential for managing emotions, empathizing with others, creating and maintaining effective relationships, developing a healthy identity, and making responsible and healthy decisions (CASEL, 2020). A recent update in the CASEL (2020) definition acknowledges that SEL is essential in working toward educational equity and excellence; SEL is meant to affirm the identities, experiences, and strengths of all children, but especially those marginalized by the current educational system. Equitable SEL may be achieved by establishing authentic and collaborative partnerships between the school, community, and families. Schools must strive to implement rigorous and culturally responsive

instruction and arm young people with the skills and voice to co-create a school environment which is safe, healthy, and just for all students (CASEL, 2020).

In an educational setting, a child's academic success tends to be influenced by their ability to regulate thoughts, emotions, and behavior; those who have difficulty with one of these skills tend to develop deficits in the other areas as well (Calkins & Bell, 2010). CASEL's SEL framework addresses five broad areas of social-emotional development that are meant to be taught and applied throughout development and across diverse racial and cultural contexts. The five areas of SEL are meant to teach students skills that will set them up for academic success, physical and mental wellbeing, and fulfilling future careers. The CASEL framework utilizes a systematic approach that encourages integration of SEL throughout a school's culture and academic instruction, across schoolwide practices, and with constant collaboration with families and communities (CASEL, 2020). Each of the five broad areas of this SEL framework are also related to thoroughly studied social, emotional, cognitive, and behavioral constructs which I will discuss in-depth.

The first key area of SEL is self-awareness, or the ability to understand one's own thoughts, values, and emotions as well as recognize how those influence behaviors across various contexts (CASEL, 2020). Skills associated with self-awareness include identifying one's emotions, integrating personal and social identities, identifying cultural and linguistic strengths, and examining prejudices and biases. An important construct associated with self-awareness is emotional understanding (EU), or an awareness that one can control the expression and experience of emotions and the knowledge of the nature and causes of emotion (Di Maggio et al., 2016). In young children, this may include the ability to recognize and label basic emotions (e.g., sadness, anger, fear, happiness), understand external causes of emotions, and matching emotion

words with appropriate environmental situations (Di Maggio et al., 2016). Development of EU is essential for effective social-emotional development; children must use what they have learned about emotions in the self to successfully manage their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors.

Self-management refers to the ability to manage thoughts, feelings, and actions successfully across various contexts to achieve goals. Self-management skills include the ability to successfully delay gratification, regulate strong emotions with effective coping strategies, and use organizational skills to set meaningful goals. Emotion regulation (ER) is an extensively studied construct that has been shown to be related to levels of aggression and externalizing disorders, (Holley et al., 2017; Zeman et al., 2006), depression and anxiety (Gross, 2015; Zeman et al., 2006), executive functioning and attentional control (Calkins & Marcovitch, 2010; Thompson et al., 2008), social competence (Di Maggio et al., 2016; Rhoades et al., 2009), language skills, and academic success (Cole et al., 2010; Eisenberg et al., 2005). ER involves engaging in strategies to effectively and appropriately up- or down-regulate one's affective experience. Regulation strategies may be external (e.g., managing emotions by altering behavior or environment) or internal (e.g., managing emotions by altering inner experience; Salovey & Sluyter, 1997), explicit (i.e., under cognitive control) or implicit (i.e., occurs automatically or without conscious intent; Sebastian & Ahmed, 2019). Positive ER refers to instances in which an individual uses adaptive and flexible methods of coping with emotions (Ren et al., 2016). A common example of a successful ER strategy is reappraisal, which involves the cognitive attempt to think about a situation in a way that alters the emotional response (Gross, 2015). This ER strategy has been associated with decreased levels of negative emotions and an increase in positive affect (Gross, 2015) as well as more emotional closeness in relationships (Gross, 2015). Suppression is a commonly studied ER strategy that has been associated with poorer

psychological outcomes. Suppression involves a behavioral ER strategy which aims to decrease emotion expressive behavior during emotional arousal (Gross, 2015). Use of suppression has been associated with decreased positive emotions, increased negative emotions, increased sympathetic nervous system response, and less emotionally close relationships (Gross, 2015). Dysregulated children may experience more problematic externalizing and internalizing behaviors, as well as lower prosocial behavior (Ren et al., 2016). ER is also considered highly correlated with executive functioning (EF) abilities, which are those involved in higher order cognitive skills (i.e., memory, inhibition, planning, goal-directed behavior) related to academic success (Calkins & Marcovitch, 2010).

The third aspect of SEL includes social awareness, or the ability to engage in perspective taking and empathize with others from various backgrounds, cultures, and contexts. Successful social awareness includes feeling compassion for others, understanding behavioral norms, and understanding the influences of broader organizations or systems on individual behaviors. Empathy is an important construct involved in social awareness and refers to the reactions that one individual has to the observed experience of another. Empathy can be either emotional (e.g., experiencing an affective reaction to another's experience) or cognitive (e.g., engaging in perspective taking or demonstrating Theory of Mind (Levy-Gigi & Shamay-Tsoory, 2017). CASEL's construct of social awareness also relates to another well-studied construct: social competence. Social competence refers to, "a pattern of effective adaptation in the environment, broadly defined in terms of reasonable success with major developmental tasks expected for a person of a given age and gender in context of his or her culture" (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998), p. 206). Socially competent children must have good verbal skills, ER strategies, empathy, and an understanding of socially and culturally acceptable display rules (Oades-Sese et al., 2011). As

children develop, they are taught to suppress or express their emotions based on culturally created display rules which may determine whether a child's regulation strategies are socially or culturally appropriate (Fogel et al., 1992). This may result in differing expectations of appropriate social-emotional competence between the home and school setting. For example, children from collectivistic cultures may have display rules of suppression for certain emotions while in an individualistic culture, suppression may be viewed as more maladaptive (De Leersnyder et al., 2013).

Relationship skills refer to an individual's ability to develop and maintain healthy relationships and successfully navigate interpersonal situations with differing cultural or social demands. When children enter school, peer relationships and friendships are an important context they must learn to navigate. Within the school setting, children learn to negotiate and discuss differences in perspectives and opinions, understand nonnormative social behavior, examine the behaviors of others, and ultimately form relationships (Rubin et al., 2011). As children begin to navigate this new social context, they form friendships that are characterized by reciprocity and equality, provide emotional security, allow for disclosure of emotions and beliefs, promote growth of interpersonal skills, and offer a prototype for later relationships (Rubin et al., 2011). Research has suggested children's relationships and friendships develop in a progressive nature as they grow, from simplistic social relationships to more empathic and complex friendships (Rubin et al., 2011).

Finally, responsible decision-making includes the ability to make careful and effective choices about personal behavior and social interactions across various situations and contexts. Such skills include considering ethical standards and evaluating the risk and benefits of one's actions in terms of social, personal, and community well-being (CASEL, 2020). An important

construct associated with decision making is executive functioning (EF), which are cognitive skills such as selective attention, goal-directed behavior, planning, monitoring, working memory, and inhibitory control (Calkins & Marcovitch, 2010; Holley et al., 2017). EF is closely related to ER in that each are control processes that are linked to basic attentional and physiological processes and have implications for development of important social and cognitive skills (Calkins & Marcovitch, 2010). Emotional control processes develop earlier than cognitive processes; therefore, children who can successfully understand and regulate their emotions are more likely to be successful in attending to, processing, and integrating information from their environments (Blair, 2002; Calkins & Marcovitch, 2010). Furthermore, responsible decision making relies on many of the previously mentioned social-emotional competencies included in CASEL's SEL framework (e.g., perspective taking, understanding social norms, and social competence).

SEL can be implemented within the classroom setting through various approaches whether it includes explicit instruction, daily teaching practices, or an integration of SEL within the academic curriculum (CASEL, 2020). Despite the method of implementation, high quality classroom based SEL practices are sequenced, active, focused, and explicit (SAFE; CASEL, 2020). Successful SEL practices follow a specific and coordinated trajectory of training approaches to encourage and foster competency. Teachers must utilize active forms of learning to help students practice and master SEL skills. SEL lessons must be focused and intentionally emphasize development of SEL competencies. Finally, SEL instruction must define and explicitly target skills, attitudes, and knowledge required for social-emotional competence (CASEL, 2020). Durlak and colleagues (2011) conducted a meta-analysis to understand the effectiveness of school based SEL interventions and coded studies based on the SAFE criteria.

The meta-analysis included studies from 1955 to 2007 in which many of the interventions were conducted by classroom teachers. The researchers discovered that half of the studies used invalid outcome measures to capture SEL competency; however, 83% of the studies met the SAFE criteria based on Durlak and colleagues (2011) coding procedure. The researchers concluded that across all studies, classroom based SEL interventions resulted in an increase in SEL competencies and attitudes about the self, others, and school as well as an 11-percentile gain in academic performance. Furthermore, studies that met the SAFE criteria, found positive effects in numerous areas, while those who did not meet criteria failed to demonstrate positive student outcomes (Durlak et al., 2011). This meta-analysis emphasizes the importance of SAFE SEL practices and demonstrates the positive effects that SEL can have across social, emotional, behavioral, and academic domains. The study also demonstrates that teacher-led, classroom-based SEL practices can result in positive outcomes across methods of implementation (e.g., explicit instruction, class wide practices, or academic integration).

Aside from the importance of SAFE SEL practice, SEL is also most effective when implemented in a safe and nurturing classroom environment in which teachers and students form caring and positive relationships (CASEL, 2020). Teachers can create a positive classroom environment by recognizing the individual strengths and needs of each student and attempting to understand and support students' personal and cultural identities. Creating an inclusive classroom includes incorporating students' cultural background and personal stories and involve students as partners in the educational experience (CASEL, 2020). In addition to creating a safe and welcoming classroom for students, teachers can also work toward collaborative relationships with families and caregivers. When schools reach out and attempt to establish meaningful and collaborative partnerships with families, it fosters connections that reinforce student social-

emotional development in both settings. Research has shown that evidence based SEL programs are the most effective when skills and practices are generalized into the home (CASEL, 2020). For this to occur, teachers and schools must work with families and recognize that parents/caregivers have expertise about their child's culture, learning needs, personal experiences, and development; all of which can be utilized to inform and support SEL efforts in the home and in the classroom (CASEL, 2020). Schools can also create a collaborative and ongoing relationship with families in the planning, implementation, and improvement of SEL practices. This collaborative approach can help caregivers understand child development and the importance of SEL and while providing teachers insight into family background, values, and cultural practices (CASEL, 2020).

While CASEL recently updated their SEL definition and framework to include themes of equity, inclusivity, and cultural awareness, there are not specific guidelines that can be specifically applied to EL students. Providing CLS SEL instruction is key for the development of EL students' social-emotional skills, bilingual/bicultural identity, and overall resilience. Classroom based SEL practices are often led by a mainstream classroom teacher, and are therefore, typically conducted in English. For SEL practices to be equitable, they must be accessible for all students and families regardless of race, ethnicity, or language.

Importance of SEL for EL Students

While EL students face the challenge of learning English once they enter school, there are numerous other environmental factors that may negatively impact their academic and social-emotional development. Many EL students face various stressors such as trauma associated with the immigration process, stress due to family separation, acculturation conflicts, and discrimination (Suárez -Orozco et al., 2008). About 68% of EL students in elementary school

live in low-income homes, almost twice as many as non-EL children (Capps et al., 2005). In a sample of third grade students, 89% of Spanish-speaking EL students and only 55% of Asian language EL students and non-EL students fell below the mean SES level (Niehaus & Adelson, 2013). Furthermore, EL students' – specifically Asian language EL students – report significantly more difficulties with peer relations compared to Spanish-speaking EL students and non-EL students (Niehaus & Adelson, 2013). Asian language EL students reported having fewer friends, feeling rejected by peers, and having more difficulty making friends compared to their Spanish-speaking peers (Niehaus & Adelson, 2013). An accumulation of numerous risk factors places EL students at higher risk for social-emotional, and therefore, academic concerns.

Language is inherently related to the ability to learn and regulate emotions. From a young age, children develop a sense of security, attentional linguistic skills, and regulatory expectations through emotional exchanges with a caregiver; therefore, early emotion communication is foundational for the development of ER and language ability (Cole et al., 2010). As children enter school, verbal ability predicts positive emotion expression, social competence, and emotional knowledge (Trentacosta et al., 2006). As children develop an understanding of emotions in the self and others, they use both expressive and receptive language skills to enhance their emotional knowledge to apply to their own ER (Cole et al., 2010). For children to understand their own emotions, they require language input. When caregivers and teachers discuss emotionally relevant events and contexts, children naturally develop an understanding of the causes and consequences of emotional reactions and develop perspective taking abilities; however, language difficulties may inhibit this development (Cole et al., 2010). As children develop a larger emotion vocabulary and grammatical complexity, language can become a tool for self-regulation as children use self-talk to direct ER strategies and initiate social interactions

(Cole et al., 2010). For example, a child that is overly anxious about an upcoming test may use self-talk to remind themselves it will be okay or to take deep breaths. Language is a tool that can help children shift their attention, distract themselves, or reframe negative thoughts.

Furthermore, children that have a large emotional vocabulary are better able to express their internal states to others that allows for adult support and peer connectedness (Vano & Pennebaker, 1997). EL students learn to develop emotional vocabularies in at least two languages to navigate both home and school interactions. When students are limited in their ability to express their internal states, they may need to rely on non-verbal expressions to get their needs or wants met. EL students that have an emotional vocabulary in their L1, but not in English, may experience frustration and behavioral problems within a monolingual English-only classroom (Vaño & Pennebaker, 1997). EL students that have difficulty communicating in English tend to be rated by teachers as showing higher internalization of problems, more frequent externalizing behaviors, lower interpersonal skills, and fewer adaptive skills than their English-speaking peers (Adams & Richie, 2017; Niehaus & Adelson, 2014). Trouble with emotional self-expression may result in externalizing or internalizing difficulties within the school setting as EL students struggle to develop their L2 and effectively communicate with those around them in their L1.

Aside from language proficiency difficulties, many EL students also experience acculturation, immigration, socioeconomic, and race related issues within the public school system. Acculturation refers to the process of learning and adopting the norms of a culture different from one's own and the degree to which an individual maintains the norms of their heritage culture (Escovar et al., 2017). Acculturation involves alteration in cultural practices (e.g., foods, traditions), cultural values (e.g., collectivism belief system), and cultural

identification (e.g., integrating cultural groups into self-concept; Doucerain, 2019). Many EL students experience acculturative stress which arises from integrating two sets of cultural norms and values. Such stress may be the result of discrimination, language barriers, and sociocultural conflict with peers (Escovar et al., 2017). Acculturative stress may occur both in the school setting, as EL students attempt to fit in with mainstream culture, and in the home as EL students negotiate maintaining their heritage culture while incorporating mainstream societal norms and values. Qualitative research suggests former EL students experienced stigmatization in school for receiving ESOL services or speaking English with an accent. Their stories recount a desire to distance themselves from their L1 to avoid ridicule from peers and teachers. Using their L1 less frequently as a method of self-preservation that resulted in language loss and rejection of their heritage culture. As past EL students relied more heavily on English, it became more difficult to communicate effectively with parents and grandparents (Winstead & Wang, 2017). This separation between EL children and their families and cultural heritage is referred to as an acculturation gap. Research suggests acculturation gaps, especially between adolescents and parents, has been linked with psychological distress and can impede healthy cultural identity formation (Supple et al., 2018).

In a vast majority of American classrooms, the maintenance of EL students' L1 is not encouraged, which has implications for cultural and linguistic identity and pride. Aside from the stressors of speaking a language other than English and/or being an immigrant, most EL children and adolescents are also within a racial/ethnic minoritized group within the United States. Being within a minoritized group places these individuals at risk for experiencing prejudice and discrimination throughout their lives, which is likely to impact their identity and mental health outcomes. Therefore, EL students are at risk of experiencing discrimination and prejudice in the

forms of linguisticism, nationalism, and racism. Cultural and linguistic identity formation has a bidirectional relationship with EL students' academic motivation, achievement, self-esteem, and self-efficacy (Suárez -Orozco & Suárez -Orozco, 1995; Umana-Taylor et al., 2008). While EL students within dual language immersion programs tend to experience an increase in academic confidence and positive cross-cultural attitudes and identities, EL students in English-only programs feel misunderstood or unwelcome by teachers and peers (Newcomer, 2020). Furthermore, EL students in monolingual classrooms show less academic growth, as well as segregation and internalized shame in speaking their L1 (Newcomer, 2020). EL students that experience such discrimination may adopt certain coping strategies to psychologically disengage from the unjust treatment or alternatively, internalize such treatment into their perception of self-worth (Jones et al., 2013)). Thus, the messages EL students receive from peers and teachers at school have implications for both cultural and linguistic identity formation, but also their identity as a student within the classroom.

While EL students can become bilingual and bicultural, the growth of such competencies and identities is not often encouraged once they enter school. L1 maintenance and development is viewed as less of a priority than learning English and achieving academic success. Development of cultural heritage identity and pride is replaced with the viewpoint that EL students must assimilate, learn English, and adhere to mainstream societal norms and values within the classroom setting (Liggett, 2014). Juggling the tasks of learning a L2, acculturating to the classroom setting, learning academic content in English, and creating social relationships requires significant resilience and perseverance. EL students may feel socially isolated and more likely to receive negative feedback from teachers and peers when they have difficulty communicating in English (Niehaus & Adelson, 2013). They may also view their cultural

identity as different from peers, causing insecurity and a sense of otherness within the classroom (Han, 2010). When EL students internalize negative messages about their language, cultural identity, and social or academic abilities, it can become a self-fulfilling prophecy that results in less successful completion of academic tasks, as well as more internalizing and externalizing difficulties (LeClair et al., 2009). Therefore, CLS SEL instruction is key in fostering L2 development, maintaining EL students' cultural and linguistic identity, improving social communication skills, developing resilience, and improving academic outcomes for EL students.

Barriers to Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining (CLS) Practices

The American educational system has created a societal focus on improving English proficiency and reaching academic standards for EL students. However, research demonstrates a need for developing social-emotional skills for this population as well. Teachers tend to rate EL students as having higher externalizing, internalizing, and adaptive difficulties that are related to their learning (Niehaus & Adelson, 2014). Despite the barriers EL students face in receiving CLS instruction, there are also barriers to receiving instruction focused on social-emotional development. For example, 70% of EL students are enrolled in only 10% of the schools within the United States (Consentino de Cohen et al., 2005). EL students are often enrolled in urban schools that have a considerable proportion of racially and ethnically minoritized and economically disadvantaged students (Niehaus & Adelson, 2014). EL students enrolled in schools with a smaller concentration of students that speak the same L1 may be at an even greater disadvantage due to fewer supports and services offered in their home language. As Spanish is the most common language spoken by EL students, those who do not speak Spanish may have a more challenging time gaining access to required services (Niehaus & Adelson, 2014). While low-income schools receive Title I funding that is meant to provide more

structured support for families and students, Title I schools also face many challenges. The education that low income, urban students receive in public schools is drastically insufficient compared to the education offered in middle and upper class schools (Hudley, 2013). Title I schools are more likely to have outdated textbooks and technology, limited school supplies, fewer advance placement classes, and more likely to be in general disrepair (Freel, 1998). Structural conditions may serve to undermine students' concentration and result in decreased motivation or engagement in school (Evans & Kim, 2013). Finally, Title I schools have a teacher turnover rate that is 50% higher than middle- and upper-class schools (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017). Therefore, EL students are more likely to attend schools that have poorer physical conditions, outdated supplies, and higher teacher turnover, which may all serve to impact social-emotional development and academic achievement.

Despite a steady increase in dual language education programs within the United States (Boyle et al., 2015), there continues to be barriers that prevent equitable education for all EL students across the country (Dorner, 2016). Dorner (2016) identified five major areas that contribute to the continued educational inequities for the EL population: inequitable access and experience, classroom practices and curriculum, teacher preparation and background, parent/community engagement, and district/state-level policies and politics. From an ecological perspective (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2007), my study recognizes the numerous contexts that play a role in creating a barrier to CLS instruction for EL students. However, most research and policy meant to serve EL students focuses on English language development and academic achievement and neglects the importance of resources to foster social-emotional development for this population. To improve language, academic, and social-emotional outcomes for this

population within the educational setting, there needs to be changes in individual schools and classrooms, and ultimately, within the system itself.

To understand the underlying roots of cultural and linguistic inequities that face EL students in this country, it is essential to identify systemic barriers that are inherent in the educational institution. Much of the educational experiences for immigrant, refugee, Indigenous, and minoritized populations involve some form of linguisticism (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2012). Linguicism is a term used to describe discrimination based on which language one uses, how one uses the language, and which language(s) one does not use, or in which one is not fluent. Such discrimination is all based on the norms of the dominant culture or entities within a society who have the power to judge others based on their native language or use of mainstream language (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2012). While the United States has not declared English the official language, there are 32 states wherein official government business is conducted solely in English (U.S. English, 2021). English is viewed as the preferred or “valued” language, therefore, the unlearning or forgetting of non-English languages is deemed necessary for societal success (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2012). This assimilationist ideology has resulted in subtractive schooling practices that date back to European colonialism (Liggett, 2014; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2012). Subtractive schooling, a term introduced and developed by Valenzuela (1997), refers to a type of schooling that systematically separates minoritized students from their language, culture, and wellbeing with the purpose of assimilation to the majority culture (Wiemelt, 2015). Alternatively, in countries that hold an integrationist viewpoint, the dominant language is learned in addition to L1, and bi/multilingualism is seen as a societal norm that is valued within society. However, in the United States, the educational system is organized in such a way that all instruction occurs via the dominant language, and most teachers are monolingual in English.

Even the term EL student implies the inherent expectation that this population is expected to learn English to be successful in school. This systematic English dominance and instruction results in EL students being immersed in a setting the necessitates adherence to the dominant language and culture, which reflects institutional linguicism (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2012). Contemporary language policies continue to perpetuate assimilationist views within the education system in the United States through “English Only” initiatives. For example, Proposition 227 in California (1998) and Proposition 203 in Arizona (2000) restricted the use of EL students L1 in schools (Winstead & Wang, 2017). Furthermore, the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) act (2001) cut the funding for bilingual education programs, eliminated the requirement to provide bilingual education, and demanded that EL students, regardless of English proficiency, take standardized tests in English alongside their non-EL peers just three years after entering the school system (Han, 2010; Liggett, 2014). While classroom educators and school administration may not have the power to change institutional linguicist practices, teachers can view their instruction of EL students through a socio-political lens to understand the ways in which linguicism manifests itself within their schools and classrooms (Liggett, 2014).

One such manifestation of linguicism within the educational system involves the communication gap between EL parents and schools. Collaboration between home and school settings via communication and relationship building are essential in promoting social-emotional success in school-age children (Garbacz et al., 2018). For EL students, parental involvement has shown to have a significant impact on children’s academic success, L2 development, school motivation, and social-emotional development (Niehaus & Adelson, 2014; Walker, 2012). However, EL students’ parents face barriers in communication and involvement within their children’s schools. Numerous qualitative studies have gathered perspectives from both EL

parents and teachers about barriers and proposed solutions to improve home-school collaboration (e.g., Good et al., 2010; Shim, 2013). Common themes in parental perception of barriers to communication include feeling judged, discriminated against, disrespected, and unheard by school personnel (Good et al., 2010; Shim, 2013). EL parents also express concerns about loss of cultural identity, loss of L1, and cultural deprivation as their children enter school and begin to adopt more mainstream cultural values (Good et al., 2010). Other barriers that limit EL parental involvement include a mismatch between teacher and parent expectations for school, parents' English proficiency levels, lack of pathways for effective communication between parents and teachers, limited time or resources for parents to attend school events, and schools failing to send important information home in children's L1 (Shim et al., 2013). Teachers, on the other hand, have expressed frustration with a lack and underappreciation of bilingual educators, a need for interpreters and translators, and the need for coordinated and comprehensive plans for EL instruction (Good et al., 2010). Aside from teachers' perception of limited resources and bilingual instructors, implicit beliefs may also impact their communication and relationships with EL parents. For example, teachers may assume EL parents are incapable of gaining English proficiency, that EL parents are less involved than non-EL parents, and EL parents would prefer for their child to learn English rather than maintain their L1 (Karabenick & Noda, 2004). While I will explore teacher beliefs in more detail later, it is essential to note that teacher beliefs about EL parents may serve as a barrier to an effective home-school collaboration.

As noted in both parental and teacher perspectives, there is a need for services and resources to close the home-school communication gap (i.e., translation, interpreters, bilingual teachers). Fortunately, Title III was added to the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) of 2015 which offers federal grants to ensure EL students attain English proficiency and meet academic

standards. Under Title IV of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, public schools are under legal obligation to ensure EL students and families can meaningfully participate in educational services. The Equal Educational Opportunities Act (EEOA) confirms that public schools must work to overcome language barriers that impede equitable access to education. Under law, schools are required to offer translated materials and a competent language interpreter in the family's native language (U.S. Department of Education, 2020). However, despite federal laws and regulations governing the use of translation services, there continues to remain a communication barrier between EL parents and schools. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2020), all EL students also have the right to ESOL services; however, parents may choose to opt children out of such programs. While schools cannot segregate students based on EL status, certain EL programs require that EL students receive separate instruction for a portion of the day (U.S. Department of Education, 2020). Due to potential stigma and discrimination based on EL status, parents may choose to opt their children out of ESOL services to protect their child from such prejudice (Winstead & Wang, 2017). Therefore, while EL students have the right to receive ESOL services, many may not, due to linguistic messages perpetuated within the educational setting.

Unfortunately, most bilingual education services in the United States are meant to teach English instead of fostering bilingualism or biliteracy in students L1 (Gandara & Escamilla, 2017). The emphasis on increasing English proficiency and fostering academic success in English for EL students is heavily influenced by the Common Core State Standards (CCSS), which was meant to prepare students for life after high school. However, neither CCSS nor high stakes testing programs include standards about cultural competence, biliteracy, or bilingualism (Gandara & Escamilla, 2017). The emphasis on English language acquisition and meeting

academic standards has resulted in a shortage of bilingual certified or ESOL teachers. In 2016, the U.S. Department of Education reported a shortage of teachers qualified to work with EL students in 32 states; moreover, those who do work with EL students are underprepared or under certified for the position (Mitchell, 2018). The Office of English Language Acquisition (OELA; 2020) released data indicating that between the 2015-2016 school year, there was an 8.9% increase in the number of teachers working in Title III supported language instruction educational programs (LIEPs). However, during this same school year, the estimated number of additional teachers needed over the next 5 years increased by 29.4% (or 88,160 teachers) from the previous school year. This gap between the number of EL students and the number of teachers participating in Title III LIEPs has remained relatively constant between the years 2005 to 2016 (OELA, 2020). To address the shortage of qualified teachers, the Reaching English Learners Act was introduced to the House of Representatives in 2019. This act hoped to create teacher preparation programs by requiring colleges and universities to partner with local educational agencies to create or strengthen teaching programs to provide teacher candidates with skills meant to ensure the language, academic, and social-emotional development of EL students. The act proposes to ensure that teachers are prepared to help EL students achieve high academic levels, attain English proficiency, address social-emotional needs, instruct EL students with disabilities, and promote parental and community engagement in EL programs. Unfortunately, this bill did not receive a vote by the end of the 116th Congress and was therefore never placed into law (GovTrack.us, 2021). The introduction of this bill demonstrates the need and efforts toward ensuring teachers are knowledgeable and qualified to meet the social-emotional needs of EL students.

EL students stand to benefit greatly from social-emotional instruction. However, issues at various levels (i.e., institutionalized linguisticism, home-school miscommunication, lack of qualified teachers) create barriers to linguistically and culturally responsive SEL for this population. While dismantling linguisticism and addressing systemic issues is necessary work, the current study focuses on a more proximal level of change: the classroom teacher. Each EL student has direct contact with a teacher whose experiences, cognition, and practices influence availability, quality, and relevance of SEL within the classroom.

Teacher Experience, Cognition, and Practices

To create broader, system-level change within the educational setting, there must be buy-in from school staff and classroom teachers. Teachers are important change agents in creating educational reform, therefore, understanding teacher beliefs allows researchers to predict change in teacher behavior (Ballone & Czerniak, 2001). In this study I aimed to identify teacher experiences and cognition that may best predict specific teaching practices (i.e., implementing CLS SEL practices for EL students). Teachers' experiences may differ depending on demographic characteristics, training experience, behavioral attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (PBC; Ajzen, 2002). In the field of educational psychology, there has been difficulty distinguishing between teacher knowledge and beliefs, resulting in confusion between each construct (Pajares, 1992). Teachers have both personal and professional cognition that likely influence their classroom behavior. An example of relevant teacher cognition is personal practical knowledge, or teachers' knowledge of student learning styles, interests, challenges, strengths, and needs along with their personal repertoire of classroom management and instructional techniques (Beattie, 1995). Another example of relevant teacher cognition is beliefs. Teachers' beliefs may be based on their personal practical knowledge which influences

expectations of students' ability and performance or teachers' personal theories about learning and teaching certain subject areas (e.g., SEL).

Nespor (1987) attempted to create a distinction between these concepts by identifying four features that characterize beliefs. First, beliefs are indisputable, personal truths that are often unaffected by persuasion and form via past experiences and often include schemas about the self and others. Therefore, beliefs often exist beyond an individual's conscious knowledge or control and are integral to the perception of reality. Secondly, individuals' behaviors may be based on beliefs about ideal or alternative situations or contexts that differ from objective reality; this is an example of how knowledge and beliefs may differ. For example, a teacher may attempt to create an idealistic classroom environment based on their belief of what that looks like, despite using strategies that do not align with effective classroom management practices. Thirdly, beliefs have a stronger emotional and evaluative component than knowledge and proposed that beliefs are a both a form of, and have the capacity to influence, cognitive knowledge. Human perception is influenced by beliefs in the sense that objective, cognitive knowledge that is gained through personal experiences is integrated through the lens of an individual's established beliefs about said topic (Nespor, 1987). For example, while a teacher may have cognitive knowledge about what SEL instruction entails, their beliefs about whether such instruction is important or valuable will likely influence their teaching practices. Finally, beliefs are episodic in nature; they form through previous experiences that influence the understanding of subsequent experiences and serve to influence future teaching practices. Pre-service teachers have pre-established beliefs about the nature of teaching based on their own experiences as a student; such deep-seating beliefs likely influence the lens through which new cognitive knowledge is gained and future teaching practices (Nespor, 1987; Richardson, 1996). Therefore, teacher's beliefs can shape their

knowledge about subject matter content (e.g., basic concepts and principle of teaching), pedagogical content (e.g., best practice to present and make content comprehensible), and curricular content (e.g., knowledge of curriculum materials in any given subject or topic; Shulman, 1986). Professional beliefs often unconsciously interact with personal beliefs, and the two belief systems may not necessarily align. A teacher may hold two incompatible belief systems, but because they are held in different “belief clusters” (e.g., professional, personal) both conflicting beliefs are maintained (Green, 1971). As an example, a teacher may have the personal belief that children need to have frequent movement in their day; however, their professional belief that children must always stay in their seats during instruction does not necessarily align. It is difficult to determine whether teaching practices are influenced by explicit knowledge, personal beliefs, professional beliefs, or a combination of these constructs. For the purposes of this study, when referring to teacher personal or professional knowledge, assumptions, and beliefs, I will utilize the term teacher cognition (Borg, 2003). Nonetheless, it is important to understand that teacher cognition is formed through both personal and professional experiences which, in turn, influence teacher behavior.

Experience

Teacher cognition is formed through personal experiences (e.g., world view, understanding of relationship between schooling and society, and personal or cultural understandings), personal experiences with school (e.g., the nature of teaching based on experience as a student), and experiences with formal knowledge (e.g., knowledge of subject matter and how students learn; Richardson, 1996). Teacher experiences relevant to the current study include teachers who identified as EL students themselves, formal pre-service instruction focused on EL students or SEL, professional development training about EL students or SEL,

and general on the job experience teaching EL students or providing SEL within the classroom. Winstead and Wang (2017) conducted a qualitative survey directed toward bilingual teachers who had grown up as EL students within the United States. These bilingual teachers shared firsthand experiences of language shame, decreased self-esteem, and loss of L1. The teachers struggled with their own identity as “bilingual” when pursuing a career as a bilingual teacher due to lack of development of their native language and overreliance on English (Winstead & Wang, 2017). The bilingual teachers’ individual experiences as an EL student within the American educational system provided them a unique insight into which practices foster or deter EL students’ academic and social-emotional growth.

Teacher pre-service training and professional development is another important experience which may influence teachers’ cognition and practices; however, teachers may vary in the quantity and quality of training they received. A national survey conducted by the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition (NCELA) found that one sixth of colleges offered pre-service education focused on working with EL students (NCELA, 2008). The federal law states, “school districts must provide research-based professional development to any teachers, administrators, and staff who work with ELLs. The training must focus on methods for working with ELLs and be long enough and offered frequently enough to have a positive and lasting impact (ECS, 2014).” While research suggests that it is beneficial for all classroom teachers to have some form of EL training, over 30 states do not require EL training for classroom teachers above federal requirements (ECS, 2014). States such as Arizona provide additional requirements such as, “All classroom teachers, supervisors, and administrators must have a bilingual, ESL, or structured English immersion endorsement” while Nevada clearly states, “ELL training is not required for mainstream teachers but may be selected by a pre-

service teacher as one of his/her course subjects (ECS, 2014).” Furthermore, the quality and usefulness of teacher trainings may impact teachers’ competence and self-efficacy for working with EL students. O’Brien (2011) conducted a qualitative survey to gather high school teachers’ perspectives toward district-mandated or university training they received to instruct EL students within the mainstream classroom. Results suggested more than half of teachers felt they did not receive enough training in college coursework to effectively teach EL students. The teachers felt that the greatest challenge they faced was difficulty communicating with their EL students and uncertainty about how to effectively modify instruction to suit these students. The quality of district mandated professional development training was perceived as poorly funded, ineffective, and severely lacking in transferrable skills (O’Brien, 2011). With very vague federal guidelines and such wide variance in the requirements and quality of teacher training for working with EL students, it is likely that teachers’ cognition and experiences vary greatly from state to state and teacher to teacher.

Teachers also vary in their personal and professional experience with social-emotional development. Teachers differ in their personal social-emotional upbringing and skills as well as in their pre-service and professional development opportunities associated with SEL. Teachers’ own social-emotional skills are related to important outcomes such as student emotion and motivation; therefore, teachers’ ability to regulate their own emotions may influence their SEL practices (Taxer & Gross, 2018). Obviously, all teachers have their own personal social-emotional development prior to becoming future teachers, so how does the educational system ensure teachers have the necessary social-emotional skills? CASEL conducted a national scan of teacher preparation programs to identify integration of SEL components across colleges of education in the United States. Findings suggest many pre-service teaching programs address at

least three of the five core SEL dimensions (Schonert-Reichl et al., 2017). In other words, most preparation programs require pre-service teachers to enhance their social awareness, decision making, and relationships skills as part of their pre-service training. However, very few states address teachers' self-awareness and self-management; this suggests teachers may not learn how to identify their feelings, control or appropriately express emotions, manage stress, or monitor progress toward their goals (Schonert-Reichl et al., 2017). This finding is concerning, because teachers are tasked with teaching their students how to relieve stress, manage strong emotions, and work toward social-emotional and academic goals (Poulou, 2017). Perhaps the underlying assumption that teachers have social-emotional competencies themselves must be challenged before we task them with providing CLS SEL instruction within their classrooms. To combat potential gaps in teacher competencies, teachers may receive professional development training to enhance their social-emotional skills and SEL instruction techniques. There are numerous interventions created to improve teacher social-emotional competence and stress management within the classroom (e.g., Cultivating Awareness and Resilience in Education [CARE], Stress Management and Resiliency Training [SMART] in Education; Schonert-Reichl, 2017). Such programs are based on mindfulness and aim to increase teacher compassion and empathy toward students, reduce stress, regulate emotions, and increase job satisfaction (Jennings et al., 2011). Results of a large, randomized control trial indicated that teachers who participated in the CARE training program showed improvements in adaptive ER, reduction in psychological distress, and sustained levels of emotional support within the classroom (Jennings et al., 2017).

Teachers must have the prerequisite skills to create a welcoming classroom environment, develop positive relationships with students, and have the knowledge to explicitly teach social-emotional skills required to implement effective SEL practices (Schonert-Reichl, 2017; Zinsser

et al., 2014). Having personal social-emotional skills is insufficient; teachers must also possess background knowledge and strategies to foster social-emotional development in their students. The CASEL national scan reported that while many pre-service programs address teachers own SEL skills, most teacher education programs in the United States do not address any of the core student SEL dimensions (Schonert-Reichl et al., 2017). In other words, most pre-service programs do not specifically instruct teachers in methods of developing student self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, or responsible decision making. While teachers may not learn specific SEL instruction competencies during their pre-service training, there has been a recent increase in school or district wide SEL practices. CASEL also conducted a state scan to identify the development of standards, guidelines, and competencies for SEL in schools across the country. Results of the scan indicate that all 50 states had preschool SEL competency or standards, and 11 states have extended these competencies to early elementary education. In 2018, 18 states had SEL standards in grades K-12, an increase from only one state in 2011. Finally, 21 states had SEL related online resources and guidance (CASEL, 2018). Schools and districts that implement school-wide social-emotional curriculum are more likely to have teachers that attend to and perceive student emotions within the classroom (Zinsser et al., 2014). The amount of support teachers receive from administration likely impacts teachers' perception of the importance and value of SEL for the students in their classroom (Collie et al., 2015). Therefore, the school administration must place an emphasis on integrating SEL into schoolwide practices, evaluate effectiveness, and strive toward continued improvement by all school personnel (CASEL, 2020). By weaving SEL practices and goals into all levels of behavioral and academic supports, schools can create a culture that places an emphasis on the social-emotional development of all students.

Cognition

I have explained the relationship between teacher experience and teacher cognition, but it is also important to understand specific cognition which may directly impact SEL instruction for EL students. Relevant cognition includes knowledge, assumptions, and beliefs about inclusion, language acquisition, academic motivation and engagement, and the importance of SEL for EL students. Teacher cognition may influence expectations of students' performance as well as their pedagogical decisions related to teaching certain subject matter (Fang, 1996). While teacher cognition is influenced by personal and professional experiences, cognition is also impacted by broader societal and institutional norms and expectations. For example, the dominant culture in the United States has the power to define appropriate norms and standards; therefore, students who want to be successful within the dominant culture must adopt or assimilate to those standards (Kozlowski, 2015). EL students may be at a disadvantage due to the numerous cultural and linguistic identities that may not align with the norms or expectations of the monolingual English-only classroom. Teacher cognition about EL students may vary depending on current policies or sociopolitical climate which may influence teaching practices consciously or unconsciously (Walker et al., 2004). Teachers may also be influenced by the norms and expectations put in place by the school administration. The school culture has major implications in determining the perceived importance of culturally responsive teaching and fostering social-emotional development, which may serve to influence teachers' cognition and practices within the classroom (e.g., Carley Rizzuto, 2017; Collie et al., 2015; Zinsser et al., 2014).

Teachers may view students differently depending on their race (McGrady & Reynolds, 2013), socioeconomic status (SES; Dee, 2005), academic performance (Egalite et al., 2015), or English language proficiency (Carley Rizzuto, 2017; Harrison & Lakin, 2018a, 2018b; Pettit,

2011; Reeves, 2006). As previously mentioned, a teacher's subjective interpretation of reality, as perceived through beliefs, is subject to bias. Cultural bias refers to the interpretation and judgment of others based on the values, beliefs, and characteristics of the broader society to which an individual belongs (VandenBos, 2013). The common belief that one's own cultural background is superior to that of other cultural groups (Jones et al., 2013) can result in the formation of opinions or decisions about others without any actual experience or interaction with someone in an "out group" (VandenBos, 2013). Cultural bias may develop via assumptions about another culture's language, practices, or beliefs that are taken as truth or law instead of subjective perception (Jones et al., 2013). Teachers may be unaware of their own cultural biases and therefore may inadvertently engage in ineffective pedagogical practices that can have a detrimental impact on culturally and linguistically minoritized students within their classroom (Shim, 2017).

Several studies have focused on understanding teachers' beliefs about EL students and the implications for academic instruction. Some researchers have argued that teacher cognition toward EL students is just as, if not more important, than the skills needed to effectively work with this population (Flores, 2001; Huerta, 2011). Prior studies have shown that both pre-service and in service teachers may have misconceptions about and deficit views toward EL students that may result in unconscious linguistic or cultural microaggressions (Carley Rizzuto, 2017; Harrison & Lakin, 2018a, 2018b; Pettit, 2011; Reeves, 2006; Shim, 2017). Linguistic microaggressions are subtle verbal or non-verbal assaults directed toward those who speak languages other than English (Shim, 2017). Such unconscious or implicit attitudes may be based on teachers own discomfort or frustration, their judgments toward EL students, their perceptions on English dominance, and underlying stereotypes (Shim, 2017). Harrison and Lakin (2018a;

2018b) conducted two studies focused on identifying implicit and explicit beliefs about EL students. A study with pre-service teachers suggested that teachers with more accurate beliefs about language acquisition had more accurate pedagogical beliefs; therefore, it is possible that teachers who understand L2 acquisition may implement more linguistically responsive practices within their classroom (Harrison & Lakin, 2018a). Interestingly, each study demonstrated that while teachers endorsed accepting explicit attitudes toward EL students, their implicit beliefs were slightly more negative toward EL students versus non-EL students (Harrison & Lakin, 2018a; 2018b). It is possible that the difference in implicit and explicit beliefs may correlate with teachers' professional versus personal "belief clusters." Carley Rizzuto (2017) also conducted a study to assess how teachers' perceptions and attitudes shape instruction of EL students. Results showed that 70% of teachers held negative perceptions about EL students and most teachers felt unequipped to teach literacy to EL students. The study exposed teachers' misconceptions that L1 use at home interferes with English acquisition within the school (Carley Rizzuto, 2017). Pettit (2011) conducted a literature review about teacher beliefs about EL students and concluded that gaps in pre-service teacher education result in misconceptions of L2 acquisition, a lack of training in ESOL pedagogy, and multicultural education practices in general. In fact, the strongest predictor of teacher beliefs toward EL students was the amount of L2 acquisition training teachers had received (Pettit, 2011). Similarly, Reeves (2006) gathered specific misconceptions about L2 acquisition held by teachers that may influence beliefs about EL students. Teachers believed EL students should be able to acquire English within two years and that ELs should avoid using their L1 as they learn English; these misconceptions may result in faulty conclusions about the language abilities, motivation, and intelligence of EL students (Reeves, 2006). Therefore, teachers' cognition related to language acquisition may influence

deficit views toward EL students and have implications for holding EL students to the same expectations as their non-EL peers.

Aside from misconceptions about language acquisition, teachers may hold concerns about the time and effort required to teach EL students within the mainstream classroom. Prior research exposed teacher concerns about the lack of time to address the needs of EL students (Youngs, 1999), the increased workload placed on teachers (Gitlin et al., 2003), inadequacy or inability to work with EL students (Verplaetse, 1998), and EL students slowing the progress for all students (Platt et al., 2003; Reeves, 2004, 2006). Karabenick and Noda (2004) also gathered teacher cognition related to EL students and found that half of the teachers in their study stated they would rather not have EL students in the classroom. This study identified teacher concerns related to EL students taking up more instructional time (Karabenick & Noda, 2004). Teachers may have beliefs about their own responsibility for instructing EL students. Reeves (2006) found about half of the teachers in the study were uninterested in receiving professional development training about teaching EL students. It is possible that teachers perceive ESOL or bilingual teachers as responsible for teaching EL students (Valdes, 2001), that no training is required to work effectively with ELs (Clair, 1995), or perhaps negative prior experience with professional development has decreased interest in continuing such training (O'Brien, 2011). Whether teachers' cognitions about EL students are based on past experiences, dominant cultural norms and expectations, or professional concerns about time and resources, it is important to understand how such cognitions may impact the social-emotional development of EL students.

Teacher cognition about EL students' motivation and engagement for academic material is also likely to impact implementation of practices that aim to include EL students within classroom instruction. Teachers tend to be very confident in their ability to estimate and rate

students' motivation and engagement (Bangert-Drowns & Pyke, 2002); however, their ratings are typically only poor to modest compared to student report (Lee & Reeve, 2012). This discrepancy in teacher report and students' actual performance or motivation may be due to teachers basing ratings on students' classroom performance and specific abilities, which is therefore used as a base to infer motivation and engagement (Bangert-Drowns & Pyke, 2002). However, it is possible that implicit bias toward EL students may influence their perceptions of students' classroom performance or academic abilities. Extant research has demonstrated an association between teacher implicit bias and student achievement caused by expectancy effects, or different expectations for students based on race (Scott et al., 2018). As teachers tend to base their judgments on observable behavior within the classroom, it may result in perceptions based on inaccurate information (Givvin et al., 2001). Furthermore, teachers' perspective about the motivation and engagement of EL students is likely to impact their cognition about their own ability or duty to implement strategies that enhance EL student motivation and engagement (D'Elisa, 2015). Therefore, if teachers hold implicit biases toward EL students or base their judgments solely on observable behavior and academic performance, they may be less likely to believe they can make an impact EL students' engagement or motivation. Teachers' perceptions of their own self-efficacy on impacting the motivation and engagement of EL students may influence teachers' beliefs about their own responsibility or the efficacy of implementing CLS SEL practices within their classroom.

The implementation of SEL practices in general is also influenced by teacher experiences and cognitions. Prior research has solely focused on general SEL and has not addressed the importance of implementing CLS SEL practices to diverse groups of students. Therefore, it is important to understand teacher cognition relevant to implementing SEL practices with EL

students. A study conducted by Cho and colleagues (2019) assess elementary teachers' perceptions about the SEL of refugee EL students. While not all EL students are immigrants or refugees, the study provides relevant insight into teachers' cognition related to the importance and implementation of SEL with EL students. The qualitative study asked teachers to share their perspectives on EL students' social-emotional development based on CASEL's five core competencies. Most teachers' concerns fell within the importance of social awareness and relationship skills development for EL students. Teachers felt that EL students were unaware of the school social norms and rules (e.g., lining up, raising hand), which resulted in frequent class disruptions. Teachers also shared that EL students' manner of speaking, behaving, and playing did not align with teacher and peer expectations. Teachers expressed concerns with EL students' ability to get along with peers due to either aggressive behavior (e.g., rough play, being in personal space) or not engaging with peers but rather playing alongside them. While teachers appeared to focus on EL students' social competencies, they also provided insight into the other CASEL domains. Teachers felt that EL students' self-awareness included difficulties with negative or depressive attitudes that made it difficult for them to try within the classroom. Furthermore, teachers felt EL student's self-management skills needed further development, sharing that EL students have trouble regulating their emotions, attention, and behavior within the classroom which leads to emotional meltdowns, boredom, and anger outbursts. Teachers emphasized that EL students lack the vocabulary or tools to successfully self-manage, but that routines appear to help. Finally, teachers felt that EL students had trouble engaging in responsible decision making as they would engage in unethical behavior such as sneaking food or taking supplies (Cho et al., 2019).

Cho and colleagues (2019) also analyzed teachers perspectives based on strengths- or deficits-based cognitions. Results showed that 14% of teachers mentioned EL students' strengths in SEL; such teachers focused on the students' eagerness to learn and quick improvement of social-emotional behaviors within the classroom. Alternatively, 86% of teachers focused on the skills that EL students lacked, or the areas in which they needed to improve. Teachers appeared to view EL students' emergent bilingualism as a barrier to overcome or fix instead of as a strength. Only one teacher in this study recognized EL students' funds of knowledge (e.g., their immigration experience, cultural practices). While teachers expressed a willingness to work with the parents of EL students, it appeared to be in a more unidirectional instead of collaborative approach. It appears teachers viewed themselves as the authority figure, tasked with providing resources, teaching families, and reminding them of school expectations instead of using parents as a resource for advice or knowledge about their children. Finally, teachers expressed a willingness to offer individualized or differentiated SEL instruction for EL students, but such methods were not aimed at including EL students in class wide activities (Cho et al., 2019). The study conducted by Cho and colleagues (2019) is one of the few studies which has focused on teacher cognition related to SEL for EL students and provides qualitative information about how teachers view EL student's social-emotional development as well as how they perceive their role as SEL instructors.

Another relevant study conducted Jacoby and Lesaux (2019) also evaluated teacher beliefs about the social-emotional development of EL students but focused on Spanish speaking EL students within a Head Start classroom. Over half of the teachers reported social-emotional skills as the most important part of Head Start for EL students. Teachers felt that SEL helped EL students learn English, attain success within the classroom, enhance social skills and peer

relationships, and decrease learning difficulties. Both monolingual English-speaking and bilingual teachers felt that using Spanish was useful in supporting the social-emotional development of EL students. From the teachers' perspectives, using Spanish appeared to students feel more comfortable and allowed EL students to form relationships within the classroom. Many of the monolingual English-speaking teachers felt they had difficulty forming close relationships with their EL students due to a lack of Spanish language ability; however, some teachers used co-teaching to compensate for language gaps. Eighty eight percent of the Spanish speaking teachers shared they had translated SEL materials for EL students which supported comfort with SEL instruction (Jacoby & Lesaux, 2019). The study is unique in that it gathered the perspectives of both monolingual English-speaking and bilingual teachers that work with EL students. The Head Start program in the study may be unique in its ability to provide bilingual co-teaching that may further support EL students within the classroom. However, while teachers supported using Spanish in the classroom to foster SEL development, teachers did not specifically state that they felt using children's L1 contributed to further language development (Jacoby & Lesaux, 2019). The findings again underline the misconceptions teachers may have about successful L2 development and the implications for EL students social-emotional, language, and academic success.

Finally, a literature review conducted by Kim (2021) examined 25 research studies published from 1985 to 2015 to identify teachers' beliefs about EL students and their academic ability. The findings suggested that a) teachers tend to hold negative beliefs about ELs which appear to differ based on race and English proficiency; b) discrepancies between teacher and EL student cultural identity negatively affect teachers' attitudes and understanding of EL students;

and c) teachers' limited knowledge and lack of preparedness to teach EL students can result in misunderstanding and negative attitudes (Kim, 2021).

Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining SEL Practices for EL Students

There are major gaps in the literature related to teachers' cognition about the social-emotional development of EL students as well as a lack of research dedicated to successful SEL outcomes for this population (Melani et al., 2020). While there are numerous explicit SEL curricula (e.g., Second Step, Positive Action, PATHS), many studies fail to include or disaggregate findings for EL students. One study conducted by Brown and colleagues (2012) evaluated the effectiveness of Second Step with a sample in which 75% of participants between 4K and fourth grade were EL students. Second Step provides SEL lessons which are implemented between 22 to 28 weeks of the school year, but skills are also meant to be integrated into daily classroom practices (Upshur et al., 2017). This curriculum also includes "Home Links" which are activities meant to be completed at home with caregivers. Second Step is meant to be a culturally and linguistically diverse SEL curriculum as materials and lessons incorporate a variety of cultures, ethnicities, and backgrounds and "Home Links" are available in both English and Spanish (Upshur et al., 2017). Brown and colleagues (2012) found an increase in EL students' social-emotional knowledge but failed to demonstrate an increase in behavioral and emotional functioning within the classroom setting. It is important to note that this study did not alter the Second Step curricula specifically for EL students, rather the curricula was created to provide more CLS materials to all students. Furthermore, a recent meta-analysis conducted by Moy & Hazen (2018) systematically reviewed outcome research about the effectiveness of Second Step in terms of student prosocial outcomes, antisocial outcomes, and knowledge. The results suggested small increases in prosocial outcomes and decreases in antisocial outcomes but

significant increases in students' content knowledge (Moy & Hazen, 2018). Overall, findings suggest that while Second Step may be incorporate diverse cultures and identities, it may not result in improvements in social-emotional functioning.

Preparing Pequeños is a small-group cognitive instruction program specifically modified for Spanish-speaking EL students (Landry et al., 2019). This program is derived from a comprehensive literacy program called Literacy Express (Lonigan et al., 2005). The Preparing Pequeños program is designed to promote additive forms of bilingualism and enhance the cognitive and social-emotional development of EL students (Landry et al. 2019). The EL students included in this study were those identified as the farthest behind in Spanish language and literacy at the start of 4K. Landry and colleagues (2019) trained teachers to encourage EL students to express ideas and share individual experiences with teachers and peers while teaching literacy skills. Due to the small group setting, EL students were able to receive individualized attention from teachers, which has been shown to be negatively related to externalizing behaviors (McCartney et al., 2010). Results from the Preparing Pequeños study demonstrated a decrease in EL student school avoidance and a significant decrease in anger and aggression (Landry et al. 2019).

Due to the lack of current research demonstrating the effectiveness of SEL interventions for EL students, it is important to consider best practices for SEL instruction for all students while accounting for established best practices for teaching EL students. CASEL's SEL Framework emphasizes the importance of establishing equitable classroom environments to increase the social, emotional, and academic learning of all students by fostering student voice and engagement, establishing supportive classroom environments, and creating authentic family and community partnerships (CASEL, 2020). SEL instruction is the most effective in classrooms

with teachers who demonstrate caring relationships with students and create a safe and nurturing environment. Teachers should strive to understand and appreciate the strengths and needs of each student by supporting students' identity formation. For example, teachers that incorporate students' cultural backgrounds and personal experiences establish a classroom environment that fosters inclusivity and involves students as partners in their education (CASEL, 2020).

CASEL also emphasizes the importance of collaboration with families and caregivers as partners in the social-emotional development of their children. Families contribute expertise about their child's development, learning needs, as well as their cultural and linguistic background. Research suggests evidence based SEL programs are the most effective when they are generalized into the home; furthermore, parents are more likely to partner with schools when they feel the school recognizes the norms, values, and culture of the family (CASEL, 2020). It is important that teachers acknowledge parents as experts in their child and avoid perpetuating power inequities in which teachers view their role as "educating" parents. Past research suggests EL parents may feel unable to communicate with teachers about their child's needs because teachers failed to recognize families' diverse backgrounds and controlled the conversation (Cho et al., 2019). CASEL suggests schools include parents in the planning, implementation, and improvement of SEL instruction through establishing ongoing two-way communication with parents and caregivers. A home-school partnership may serve to increase parents' understanding of child development, help teachers understand family backgrounds and cultural values, allow families to become more present in the school (i.e., volunteering), and generalize SEL practices into the home (CASEL, 2020). Teachers must listen to the family's needs and unique perspectives to learn the best ways to foster cultural and linguistic pluralism, utilize culturally sustaining practices, and use parental and student funds of knowledge (Cho et al., 2019). While

CASEL provides effective strategies to enhance the social-emotional development of diverse groups of students, it is essential to understand important instructional techniques that may need to be utilized with EL students.

A vast majority of research with EL students focuses on either language development or academic performance. While there is a lack of research focused on implementing CLS SEL practices, there are linguistic and academic adaptations that are also relevant for the social-emotional development of EL students. In general, a student's language proficiency should not impede them from learning content that is developmentally appropriate. Teachers need to adapt instruction to ensure that SEL content is accessible and differentiated based on the student's knowledge, interests, language, and ability (Lucas et al., 2008). To adapt instruction for EL students, teachers may need prerequisite knowledge in the student's linguistic and social-emotional background, an understanding of the language demands inherent in a SEL task, and appropriate methods of scaffolding SEL instruction so that EL students can participate successfully in independent and class wide activities (Lucas et al., 2008). Teachers can scaffold activities by utilizing extra-linguistic supports (e.g., visual tools), supplementing and modifying both written and oral language in the classroom (e.g., pausing to allow for language processing, repeating key ideas), and giving clear and explicit instructions both visually and orally (Lucas et al., 2008). Cultural pluralism refers to a condition in which marginalized groups can fully access and participate within the dominant culture while still maintaining cultural differences (Paris, 2012). Teachers can integrate cultural pluralism into SEL instruction by utilizing culturally and linguistically relevant books during discussion about social-emotional norms. Teachers can acknowledge different culturally norms and values by offering books with culturally and linguistically diverse characters and topics (Cho et al., 2019). Teachers can encourage EL

students to use their L1 in the classroom by allowing them to complete assignments in their L1 before writing in English, asking them to share their language and culture with the class, and by labeling classroom objects in multiple languages (Colorin Colorado, 2019; Lucas et al., 2008). Finally, teachers can include EL students in a non-threatening manner to decrease anxiety associated with English proficiency. Teachers can find ways to involve EL students in large group activities without requiring them to respond in English by utilizing strategies such as class wide physical responses during SEL lessons (Colorin Colorado, 2019). Furthermore, teachers can establish a classroom environment which respects all student efforts, encourages cooperation, and minimizes competition between students (Lucas et al., 2008).

Summary

The aim of the literature review was to discuss research on EL students, SEL, and teacher characteristics that influence the implementation of CLS SEL practices within the classroom. The EL student population within the United States has increased 2% in the last two decades; however, the academic proficiency gap between EL students and their non-EL peers has remained relatively constant (U.S. Department of Education, 2020). Academic performance is inextricably linked to social-emotional competencies; therefore, this study highlights the importance of social-emotional development for EL students.

SEL is the process through which students develop self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision making (CASEL, 2020). EL students may especially gain to benefit from CLS SEL due to stressors such as English proficiency expectancies, acculturation, trauma of immigration, discrimination or bullying, and poverty. CLS SEL has the potential to foster L2 development, maintain positive cultural and

linguistic identity, improve social communication skills, develop resilience, and improve academic outcomes for EL students.

Unfortunately, EL students face numerous barriers to receiving CLS SEL in the typical general education classroom. EL students tend to be enrolled in low-income and under resourced schools, resulting in outdated academic materials and higher teacher turnover. Subtractive schooling practices (Valenzuela, 1997) and a societal value on English dominance has resulted in limited access to bilingual/bicultural teachers and programs for these students (ECS, 2014; O'Brien, 2011). A historically and systemically linguistic educational system serves to impede home-school communication via language barriers (due to limited bilingual resources) and perpetuation of stereotypes and discrimination toward EL students and their families (Good et al., 2010; Liggett, 2014; Shim, 2013).

Teachers, most of whom are monolingual in English, are the educational professionals with the most direct impact on the social-emotional development of EL students. Therefore, it is important to understand the role that teachers play in implementing CLS SEL practices which will foster social-emotional development of EL students. Teacher practices are influenced by both personal and professional experiences, as well as their cognition (i.e., knowledge, assumptions, and beliefs; Fang, 1996; Pajares, 1992). Specific cognitions about teaching such as attitudes or beliefs about the outcome of a practice, their beliefs about behavioral norms or expectations, and beliefs about self-efficacy or controllability of the teaching practice all influence pedagogical decisions (Ajzen 2002; Ajzen & Cote, 2008). Furthermore, teachers vary in their attitudes about the inclusion of EL students within the general education classroom, their beliefs about language use and L2 acquisition, and their perceptions about the academic motivation and engagement of EL students (Carley Rizzuto, 2017; Pettit, 2011; Reeves, 2006).

Each of these experiences and cognitions serve to influence teachers' implementation of CLS SEL practices. While it may be becoming more common for teachers to implement SEL into their classroom routine, it is important that SEL instruction is CLS to the social-emotional development of EL students. Such practices may include establishing equitable classrooms that foster cultural pluralism, creating relationships with families and bilingual co-workers, and providing bilingual materials or lessons for all students (CASEL, 2020; Colorín Colorado, 2019; Lucas et al., 2008).

Research Questions & Hypotheses

To accomplish the study aims, I aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. What are a) teachers' perceptions about the SEL competencies of EL students and b) their implementation of culturally and linguistically sustaining (CLS) social-emotional learning (SEL) practices? Do teacher perceptions and/or implementation vary depending on teacher characteristics, teacher experiences, or school factors?
 - a. I will address this question descriptively without a hypothesis.
2. Which of teachers' beliefs (i.e., attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control) about teaching SEL to EL students are most strongly associated with implementation of CLS SEL practices?
 - a. H_1 = Teachers' perceived behavioral control will have the strongest association with implementation of CLS SEL practices (Wilson et al., 2016).
3. Is the association between teachers' beliefs about teaching SEL to EL students and their implementation of CLS SEL practices moderated by teachers' beliefs about the inclusion of EL students within their classroom?

- a. H_1 = The association between teachers' beliefs about teaching SEL to EL students and implementation of CLS SEL practices will be stronger for teachers who have more positive beliefs about the inclusion of EL students in the classroom.
- 4. Is the association between teachers' beliefs about teaching SEL to EL students and their implementation of CLS SEL practices moderated by teachers' beliefs about the language use and L2 acquisition of EL students?
 - a. H_1 = The association between teacher beliefs about the specific behavior and their implementation of CLS SEL practices will be stronger for teachers who have more positive beliefs about language use and L2 acquisition of EL students.
- 5. Is the association between teachers' beliefs about teaching SEL to EL students and their implementation of CLS SEL practices moderated by teachers' beliefs about the educational motivation and engagement of EL students?
 - a. H_1 = The association between teacher beliefs about the specific behavior and their implementation of CLS SEL practices will be significantly stronger for teachers who have more positive beliefs about the motivation and engagement of EL students.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Procedures

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee (#22.046) approved my study in September 2021 (see Appendix A). I conducted a power analysis to determine the sample size and conducted a preliminary focus group interview to refine the study instruments. I recruited participants through professional listserv... and participants completed an online survey.

Power Analysis. I conducted a power analysis for a multiple regression with four total predictor variables using the program G*Power to determine a sufficient sample size using a Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.05$, a power of 0.80, and a medium effect size ($f^2 = 0.15$, Faul et al., 2013). The resulting sample size of 131 teachers is likely a conservative estimate due to the multiple measures being used to assess variables of interest. Previous research does not indicate an obvious effect size of teacher beliefs about EL students and culturally and linguistically sustaining (CLS) teaching practices; therefore, I utilized effect size estimate. As a conservative approach, I used a power analysis to find a moderate effect size for teacher beliefs.

Preliminary Focus Group. Prior to survey administration, I solicited feedback from current teachers to refine the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) items to improve face validity. I recruited four early elementary general education teachers and two ESL teachers from three rural school districts in southern Wisconsin who participated in a virtual focus group. Based on recommendations from Ajzen (2006), the focus group allowed for open-ended responses based on the three TPB belief areas to gather teacher beliefs that I may not have considered during initial item creation. Teachers completed the survey and participated in an open discussion about individual items and constructs. Teachers provided feedback about wording of items to improve

social validity of the survey, making items more understandable and relevant based on teachers' perspectives and experiences.

Recruitment and Survey Administration. I recruited participants by contacting administration at school districts and/or emailing teachers directly. Teachers participated in the survey using Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com). Teachers viewed an online survey consent form which briefly explained the purpose of the study, nature of the survey, and any foreseen risks or benefits to participation. The consent form included information about steps taken to ensure confidentiality and security of data as well as an explanation of expected compensation following survey completion. At the start of the survey, teachers read a brief introduction with definitions of SEL and EL students. Teachers completed a brief study eligibility screener prior to obtaining access to the survey via items assessing grade level and experience with EL students; teachers who had not taught in the general education classroom, taught grades K4-fifth, or had at least one EL student in their classroom, within the last five years were deemed ineligible to complete the full survey (see Appendix B). The survey consisted of items meant to gather information about teacher demographic characteristics and professional experience. The survey also contained validity items meant to examine whether participants are providing careful and valid responses throughout the entire survey; all respondents answered both validity check questions correctly. The total survey consisted of 60 items and took approximately 10 minutes to complete. Regardless of whether teachers met eligibility criteria or chose to withdraw from the study, they were still offered the option to submit and email to participate in the prize drawing. A total of 25 participants were randomly selected to receive the \$10 gift card as compensation. I notified selected teachers with an email (see Appendix C) and informed them of the electronic gift card that they had received.

Participants

Participants included 139 general education teachers from elementary schools located across the state of Wisconsin. They were from rural ($n = 15$), suburban ($n = 52$), and urban ($n = 67$) school districts. Regarding teacher demographic characteristics, 92.8% of teachers identified as women and 93% identified as White (i.e., racial majority). Of the White teacher participants, 89% identified as monolingual and 11% as bilingual in various languages (e.g., American sign language, Danish, French, Italian, and Spanish). Ninety nine percent of teachers spoke English as their primary language and 16% identified themselves as bi- or multilingual. Teachers reported an average of 13.53 years ($SD = 8.90$) of teaching experience. Teachers reported an average of 4.64 ($SD = 4.79$) EL students in their most recent class and 36.87 ($SD = 31.16$) of EL students in their classes throughout their teaching career. Most of the EL students spoke Spanish (41%), Hmong (21%), and Arabic (18%) as their home languages. Ninety percent of teachers reported that their schools included ESL services while 71% reported that their school implemented a school wide SEL curriculum.

Measures

Teacher Beliefs about SEL Competencies of EL Students: Independent Variable

I developed this scale to assess teachers' beliefs about the social-emotional competencies/difficulties of EL students based on the five core aspects of SEL competencies identified by CASEL (2020). The survey asked teachers to report their perception of the social-emotional competencies and needs of EL students with whom they have worked. The measure created for this study asked teachers to rate EL students, in general, in the areas of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision making (CASEL, 2020). Items for this measure were based on a qualitative study conducted by

Cho and colleagues (2019) in which teachers participated in in-depth interviews about the social-emotional skills, behaviors, and needs of refugee EL students. Researchers categorized teacher responses into the five core SEL competencies (Cho et al., 2019). I used common themes and teacher responses generated from this qualitative study (e.g., EL students are unaware of school social norms, EL students speak or play differently from teacher expectations) to create a quantitative survey about teacher beliefs about SEL for EL students. The measure used in the current study consisted of 15 items that assessed teachers' beliefs about EL students in each core SEL competency (e.g., "EL students tend to have difficulty staying focused and maintaining attention", "EL students are generally able to express their thoughts and feelings"). Teachers reported the extent to which they agree with each statement on a five-point rating scale (1 = *do not agree at all*, 5 = *agree entirely*). Each subscale contained three items which measured a different aspect of SEL competency: social awareness, relationship skills, self-awareness, self-management, and responsible decision making. I combined the 15 items that measured each of the five SEL competencies to create an overall mean SEL competency score ($\alpha = .87$).

Theory of Planned Behavior Beliefs: Independent Variable

I utilized Fishbein and Ajzen's (2011) recommendations for developing a questionnaire based on the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) to assess teachers' beliefs related to teaching emotional vocabulary, skills, and content to EL students. Researchers develop their own TPB scales by defining the behavior, specifying the research population, developing items to evaluate behavioral attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (PBC) associated with the specific behavior of interest. Traditionally, the next step is to conduct a pilot study in which a small sample is used to identify relevant demographic characteristics, experiences, behavioral outcomes, normative pressures, and control factors via open-ended

questions (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011). Following the pilot study, researchers often conduct confirmatory factor analyses to evaluate the utility and reliability of the scales utilized in the final study. However, for the purposes of my study, I conducted a focus group to gather feedback about the TPB items used in the final survey. I also utilized the two-component TPB to develop items that capture instrumental and affective attitudes, injunctive and descriptive norms, and controllability and self-efficacy (Wilson et al., 2016). Due to limited sample size and a desire for stronger reliability of scales, I chose to combine each subscale to create a composite scale based on the original three factor TPB belief model which consisted of behavioral attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (PBC).

Behavioral Attitudes. The first scale, Behavioral Attitudes consisted of subscales which measured Instrumental and Affective Attitudes (Ajzen, 2002; Wilson et al., 2016). Wilson and colleagues (2016) utilized instrumental attitudes that required teachers to report their beliefs about the outcome of inclusive educational practices on a bipolar scale (e.g., negative versus positive, unimportant versus important) and found high reliability when they averaged scores across three sets of behaviors ($\alpha = .94$). The study also required teachers to rate their affective attitudes on a bipolar scale (e.g., unpleasant versus pleasant, boring versus interesting; $\alpha = .93$)

The Instrumental Attitudes subscale in my study contained four items meant to assesses teachers' perceived consequences involved in performing a behavior (e.g., "Teaching SEL to EL students would decrease problem behaviors of EL students in the classroom"; Ajzen, 2002; Wilson et al., 2016). Teachers rated the perceived likelihood that each of the outcomes would result from the behavior by rating responses on a five-point rating scale (1 = not at all likely, 5 = extremely likely). The Affective Attitudes subscale consisted of four items that measured the emotions teachers experience when performing the behavior (e.g., "Teaching SEL to EL students

is overwhelming”; Ajzen, 2002). Teachers indicated how strongly they agree that the behavior results in various emotions by completing a five-point rating scale (1 = *do not agree at all*, 5 = *agree entirely*) with the following emotion adjectives: enjoyable, overwhelming, satisfying, and stressful. I combined the two subscales to generate a mean score ($\alpha = .79$) for teachers Behavioral Attitudes associated with teaching SEL to EL students.

Subjective Norms. The second scale measures teachers’ Subjective Norms through two subscales which assess Injunctive Norms and Descriptive Norms (Ajzen, 2002; Wilson et al., 2016). Wilson and colleagues (2016) examined injunctive norms by asking teachers to identify the strength to which they agreed with stems such as “most people who are important to me would want me to...” ($\alpha = .93$). Teachers also reported the frequency with which they believed other teachers were performing a behavior (e.g., “of the teachers you know, how many do you think...” [$\alpha = .89$], Wilson et al., 2016).

The Injunctive Norms subscale in my study contained four items which measure teachers’ perceptions that significant others would approve/disapprove of a behavior. Items also assessed teachers’ beliefs about social support for the behavior (e.g., “How likely is it that the following people/groups think you should teach SEL to EL students?”). Teachers indicated the likelihood that various people or groups would approve or encourage the behavior on a five-point rating scale (1 = *not at all likely*, 5 = *extremely likely*). The Descriptive Norms subscale consists of four items that assess teachers’ beliefs that others are performing the behavior (e.g., “Most general education teachers teach social-emotional vocabulary, skills, and content to EL students”; Ajzen, 2002; Wilson et al., 2016). Teachers will report the extent to which they agree with each item on a five-point rating scale (1 = *do not agree at all*, 5 = *agree entirely*). I

combined the two subscales to generate a mean score ($\alpha = .78$) for teachers' Subjective Norms associated with teaching SEL to EL students.

Perceived Behavioral Control. The final scale measured Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) through two subscales that assessed controllability and self-efficacy associated with the behavior (Ajzen, 2002; Wilson et al., 2016). The study conducted by Wilson and colleagues (2016) examined PBC by asking teachers to rate the extent to which they agreed with statements such as, "it is completely up to me whether or not I modify content" and averaged across three sets of behavior ($\alpha = .66$). The researchers measured teacher self-efficacy with items such as, "I have the ability to modify content when working with students" and found adequate reliability ($\alpha = .89$).

The Controllability scale in my study consisted of four items which measured the degree to which teachers believe they have control over performing a behavior, often based on external factors which may facilitate or impede a behavior (e.g., "I believe I will have instructional time to dedicate to teaching SEL to EL students"; Ajzen, 2002; Wilson et al., 2016). Teachers reported the extent to which they agree with each item on a five-point rating scale (1 = do not agree at all, 5 = agree entirely). The Self-Efficacy scale consisted of four items that assessed how capable teachers felt they were of performing a behavior (e.g., "I can decide on the most effective way to teach SEL to EL students"; Ajzen, 2002; Wilson et al., 2016). Teachers reported the extent to which they agreed with each item on a five-point rating scale (1 = *do not agree at all*, 5 = *agree entirely*). I combined the two subscales to generate a mean PBC score ($\alpha = .80$) associated with teaching SEL to EL students.

Teacher Beliefs about EL Students: Moderators

I utilized measures that assessed teachers' attitude toward inclusion (ATI), beliefs about language use and second language (L2) acquisition, and beliefs about the academic motivation and engagement of EL students.

Attitudes Toward Inclusion. The Attitudes Toward Inclusion (ATI) scale consisted of three items, developed based on the Reeves' Survey, which was originally established through a sample of 279 high school teachers from a school district in the southeastern United States (Reeves, 2006). The survey gathered demographic data on teacher experience with EL students, years of teaching experiences, gender, native language, L2 proficiency, and EL student training. The Reeves' Survey also assessed teachers' attitudes toward inclusion of EL students, attitudes toward modification of coursework for EL students, attitudes toward professional development, and attitudes toward language and language learning; the researcher did not report reliability coefficients (Reeves, 2006). For the purposes of this study, I used three items to assess teachers' attitudes toward the inclusion of EL students in the general education classroom (e.g., "The inclusion of EL students in the general education classroom creates a positive educational environment", "EL students require too much of my time and attention"). Teachers reported the extent to which they agree with each item on a five-point rating scale (1 = *do not agree at all*, 5 = *agree entirely*) which resulted in a mean Attitudes Toward Inclusion score ($\alpha = .69$).

Beliefs about Language Use/L2 Acquisition. The Beliefs about Language Use/L2 Acquisition scale contained three items developed based on items taken from both the Reeves' Survey (Reeves, 2006) and the Language and Culture Questionnaire (LCQ) created by Paez and Tabors (2000). The LCQ asks teachers to respond to statements about the process of L2 acquisition and factors they believe influence the process. Teachers then answered questions

about classroom practices utilized with EL students (Paez & Tabors, 2000). An initial pilot study for the original measure resulted in a Cronbach's α of .62 for teacher beliefs and .81 for teacher practices (Paez & Tabors, 2000). For the purposes of my study, I utilized select items from the Reeves' Survey (2006) and LCQ that measured teachers' beliefs about language use and promoting cultural diversity (e.g., "EL students should avoid using their native language while at school"). Teachers reported the extent to which they agree with each item on a five-point rating scale (1 = *do not agree at all*, 5 = *agree entirely*) to generate a mean Beliefs about Language Use/L2 Acquisition score ($\alpha = .69$).

Beliefs about Academic Motivation and Engagement. The scale consisted of four items adopted from the Perceptions of Student Motivation (PSM; Hardre et al., 2008) and a teacher scale developed by Lee & Reeve (2012), to assess teachers' beliefs about the educational engagement motivation of EL students. The original PSM consisted of two main scales and a total of 20 items using a seven-point rating scale. The Motivation subscale contains seven items meant to assess teachers' perceptions of student motivation (e.g., "The students in this class really try to learn," "My students generally pay attention and focus on what I am teaching," "In general, my students are genuinely interested in what they are asked to learn in my class"). The other 13 items loaded onto factors that teachers may perceive as reasons for, or causes of, students' lack of motivation: home factors, current relevance/values, aspirations/future utility, peer factors, and personal factors (D'Elisa, 2015; Hardre et al., 2008). This measure has been validated on American and East Asian high school students (Hardre et al., 2008) and a K-12 sample (D'Elisa, 2015), demonstrating good external convergent reliability as well as internal and subscale consistency. The total Motivation subscale demonstrated high reliability ($\alpha = .90$; Hardre et al., 2008). The teacher rating scale developed by Lee & Reeve (2012) drew from

theoretical concepts association with various aspects of motivation and engagement such as psychological need satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2000), self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997), mastery goals (Elliot & Murayama, 2008), behavioral engagement and emotional engagement (Skinner et al., 2009), and agentic engagement (Lee & Reeve, 2012). For the purposes of this study, I utilized items from the PSM within the conceptual framework of EL student motivation and engagement.

The scale in the current study consisted of four items that assessed teachers' beliefs about EL students' academic motivation and engagement (e.g., "EL students show interest in learning academic content," "EL students are likely to give up when struggling with difficult educational material"). Teachers reported the extent to which they agree with each item on a five-point rating scale (1 = *do not agree at all*, 5 = *agree entirely*) to create a Beliefs about Academic Motivation and Engagement mean score ($\alpha = .76$).

Teacher Reported Implementation of Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining SEL Practices: Dependent Variable

The scale measured teacher reported practices considered culturally and linguistically sustaining for EL students. I was unable to identify an existing measure developed to examine this construct, therefore, I utilized existing guidelines and recommendations. I developed items for this scale based on SEL guidelines established by CASEL (2020), recommendations on how to create a welcoming environment for EL students (Colorín Colorado, 2019), and best practice recommendations on CLS practices from previous research (e.g., Adams & Richie, 2017; Banse & Palacios, 2018; Cho et al., 2019; Lucas et al., 2008; Neihaus & Adelson, 2014). This scale assessed teachers' use of CLS materials and lessons (e.g., "I have children's books in multiple languages in my classroom"), welcoming or celebration of cultural and linguistic pluralism (e.g.,

“I encourage students to use their native language within the classroom”), collaboration with parents and bilingual staff (e.g., “I ask parents discipline and social-emotional expectations within the home), and teachers’ own efforts to learn about the culture and language of all students within the classroom (e.g., “I use words in EL students’ native language when teaching social-emotional vocabulary”). Teachers reported the frequency with which they engage in each practice on a five-point Likert scale (1 = *never*, 5 = *always*). I combined the 12 items used in this study to create a mean score ($\alpha = .83$). A summary of each scale and reliability coefficient is in Table 1.

Table 1

Summary of Measures by Research Questions

Research Question		Study Variables	Scale	Reliability
Question 1	Descriptive analyses	Teacher Beliefs about Social-Emotional		$\alpha = .87$
		Learning (SEL) Competencies of English		
		Learner (EL) Students		
		Teacher Reported Implementation of		$\alpha = .83$
		Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining		
		(CLS) SEL Practices		
Question 2	Dependent variable	CLS SEL Practices		
	Independent variable	Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) Beliefs	Behavioral Attitudes	$\alpha = .79$
			Subjective Norms	$\alpha = .78$
			Perceived Behavioral Control	$\alpha = .80$
			(PBC)	
	Covariates	Teacher Bilingualism; Total SEL and EL		
		Training		

Question 3 - 5	Dependent variable	CLS SEL Practices	
	Independent variable	TPB Beliefs	
	Covariates	Teacher Bilingualism; Total SEL and EL Training	
	Moderator	Q3: Attitude Toward Inclusion (ATI)	$\alpha = .69$
		Q4: Language Use/L2 Acquisition Beliefs	$\alpha = .69$
		Q5: Motivation and Engagement Beliefs	$\alpha = .76$

Data Preparation

Within the Qualtrics program, I altered the scoring algorithm for reverse coded items within the survey. Prior to data analysis, I exported raw data from Qualtrics into an Excel spreadsheet. I then cleaned survey responses to remove unnecessary data (e.g., data, time, etc.); I also removed submissions that did not have any demographic information prior to importing raw data. I separated items that had a multiple response item (e.g., amount of training) into individual dichotomous variables and coded as yes or no to indicate whether the teacher had checked that option. I used the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS 28.0 for Windows) to conduct the statistical analyses for this study. I ran frequency data analyses to ensure the data did not contain data entry errors and analyzed validity check responses to confirm that all responses were valid. There were not any data entry errors and teachers answered all validity checks (e.g., $4 + 4 = \dots$) accurately. I ran descriptive statistics analyses which included frequency tables for each variable to identify inconsistencies, invalid values, and any errors which may result from transferring data from the Qualtrics software. When creating scales, I took an average scale score of items that had 50% of items completed to generate overall mean scores.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

I organized results as follows: (1) preliminary analyses (descriptive statistics, correlations); (2) descriptive analyses for research question one; (3) hierarchical multiple regression for research questions two through five.

Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary data analysis included descriptive and correlational analyses. I calculated descriptive statistics for all variables while I used correlational analyses to examine the relationships between predictors and outcome variables (e.g., teacher beliefs about EL students' SEL competencies and CLS SEL practices). I utilized correlational data and *t*-tests to identify predictor variables that were significantly associated with outcome measures, and therefore, needed to be used as covariates in multiple regression models. I grouped variables to analyze the percentage of missingness of data. For demographic information, the percentage of missingness of data was .00%. The missingness of school characteristic data was .01% and .04% of teacher experience data was missing. Twenty percent of data for the Beliefs About EL SEL Competency was missing. The missingness of regression analysis variables included 11.5% of data for Behavioral Attitudes and Subjective Norms, 13.7% for Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC), 15% for Attitudes Toward Inclusion (ATI), 16% for Beliefs About Language Use/L2 Acquisition, and 17% for Beliefs about Academic Motivation and Engagement. Finally, the missingness of Teacher Reported Implementation of CLS SEL Practices was 18%. To analyze patterns of missing data I conducted chi-square and independent *t*-tests. I conducted chi-square tests to examine whether teacher race, bilingualism, school location (e.g., urban, suburban, rural) or type (e.g., public, private) were associated with missing data; none of these were significantly associated with the pattern of missingness. Independent *t*-tests with results suggest that years of

experience and amount of training may have been significantly associated with patterns of missing data. In detail, teachers with fewer years of experience were more likely to have missing data than teachers with more experience. Teachers with fewer training to work with EL students or implement SEL were also more likely to have missing data than teachers with more training.

Preliminary data analysis included examination of distributional properties of variables and correlations among study variables. I also conducted descriptive analysis to evaluate regression assumptions. Initial analyses confirmed no violation of the assumptions of multicollinearity, normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity. The results are in Appendix D.

Main Analyses

Research Question One

What are a) teachers' perceptions about the SEL competencies of EL students and b) their implementation of culturally and linguistically sustaining (CLS) social-emotional learning (SEL) practices? Do teacher perceptions vary depending on teacher characteristics, teacher experiences, or school factors?

Table 2 displays the means and standard deviations for each SEL competency (i.e., social awareness, relationship skills, self-awareness, self-management, and decision making). On average, teachers rated EL students' competencies as high ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .48$, 4 = agree very much) across the five domains. Teachers have the lowest perception of EL students' competency in self-awareness ($M = 2.89$, $SD = .75$, between 1 (do not agree at all) and 5 (agree completely)). That is, teachers believed EL students had the lowest competency in the ability to understand one's own thoughts, values, and emotions (CASEL, 2020). In the next section, I further analyzed SEL competencies by teacher personal, professional, or school characteristics.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of SEL Competencies for EL Students

SEL Competency	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Social Awareness	4.24	.65
Relationship Skills	4.51	.60
Self-Awareness	2.89	.75
Self-Management	4.43	.62
Decision Making	4.44	.47
Overall Competency	4.10	.48

Note. Range (1 = *do not agree at all*, 5 = *agree completely*)

Teacher Beliefs About EL Students' SEL Competencies. To investigate whether there was a significant relationship between teacher personal characteristics (e.g., race, gender, bilingualism), professional characteristics (e.g., EL training, SEL training, number of EL students, years of teaching), and school characteristics (e.g., programs, SEL curriculum), and beliefs about the overall SEL competency of EL students, I conducted independent sample *t*-tests.

Personal Characteristics. I conducted independent *t*-tests to examine whether teacher beliefs about EL students' overall SEL competencies differ by teacher gender, race, and bilingualism (i.e., teachers themselves are bilingual). The results are in Table 3. Teachers who identify as being in the non-majority race (i.e., non-white; $M = 4.43$) reported higher beliefs of EL SEL competency than teachers of the majority race ($M = 4.10$, $p = .04$) These results suggest teachers of the non-majority race perceive more SEL competencies in EL students than White

teachers. Teacher perceptions of SEL competency of EL students did not differ by teacher gender or bilingualism.

Table 3

Independent *T*-Test of EL SEL Competency Beliefs Based on Teacher Personal Characteristics

	<i>M(SD)</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Gender	Woman	Man		
	4.10 (.49)	4.27 (.34)	$t(112) = -.91$	$p = .37$
	$n = 107$	$n = 7$		
Race	Majority	Non-majority		
	4.10 (.48)	4.43 (.32)	$t(114) = -2.04$	$p = .04$
	$n = 108$	$n = 8$		
Bilingualism	No	Yes		
	4.07 (.50)	4.30 (.32)	$t(114) = -1.91$	$p = .06$
	$n = 98$	$n = 18$		

Professional Characteristics. I examined whether teacher beliefs about EL students' overall SEL competencies differ by years of experience, numbers of EL students, grade level, and amount of SEL and EL training. There was a significant positive correlation between teachers' beliefs about EL students' SEL competency and the number of EL students in previous and current classes ($r = .23, p < .05$). That is, teachers who taught more EL students throughout their career and those who have a higher number of EL students in their current class perceived EL students as having more SEL competencies. Teacher perceptions of SEL competency were

not significantly correlated with years of experience ($r = .05, p = .60$) or grade level ($r = .18, p = .07$).

I also examined whether teacher beliefs of EL students SEL competency differed based on the type and amount of training received using an independent t -test. That is, I examined differences in beliefs based on whether teachers sought out information independently (personal training/education), received preservice training, engaged in professional development training, or received certification in two areas of teacher training: EL training and SEL training. The results are in Table 4. Two types of EL training were related to teacher beliefs of EL SEL competency. Teachers who have received professional development to work with EL students ($M = 4.17$) reported higher EL SEL competency beliefs than those who had not ($M = 3.95; p = .02$). Additionally, teachers who are certified to teach EL students ($M = 4.30$) perceive EL students as having higher SEL competencies than those who are not ($M = 4.06; p = .04$). Personal and preservice training to work with EL students did not result in significant mean differences. Comparingly, teacher beliefs about EL students' SEL competency did not differ based on any types of training on SEL implementation.

Table 4Independent *T*-Test of EL SEL Competency Beliefs Based on Teacher Training

Training	English Language				Social-Emotional Learning				
	<i>M(SD)</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value	<i>M(SD)</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value	
	No	Yes			No	Yes			
Personal	4.18(.42) <i>n</i> = 49	4.05(.52) <i>n</i> = 67	<i>t</i> (114) = 1.34	<i>p</i> = .18	Personal	4.09(.51) <i>n</i> = 45	4.11(.46) <i>n</i> = 71	<i>t</i> (114) = -.22	<i>p</i> = .83
Preservice	4.03(.55) <i>n</i> = 59	4.17(.39) <i>n</i> = 57	<i>t</i> (114) = -1.58	<i>p</i> = .12	Preservice	4.14(.44) <i>n</i> = 74	4.04(.54) <i>n</i> = 42	<i>t</i> (114) = .99	<i>p</i> = .33
Professional	3.95(.61) <i>n</i> = 34	4.17(.40) <i>n</i> = 82	<i>t</i> (114) = -2.29	<i>p</i> = .02	Professional	3.99(.78) <i>n</i> = 13	4.12(.43) <i>n</i> = 103	<i>t</i> (114) = -.86	<i>p</i> = .39
Certified	4.06(.49) <i>n</i> = 94	4.30(.37) <i>n</i> = 22	<i>t</i> (114) = -2.14	<i>p</i> = .04	Certified	4.11(.49) <i>n</i> = 104	4.08(6.94) <i>n</i> = 12	<i>t</i> (114) = .15	<i>p</i> = .88

School Characteristics. I examined whether teacher beliefs about EL students' SEL competencies differed based on the school offering dual language/bilingual, ESL/ESOL, and PBIS programs as well as whether schools utilized an RtI approach. Results are in Table 5. Teachers that worked in a school with a dual language or bilingual program ($M = 4.28$) perceived EL students as having more SEL competencies than those who did not ($M = 4.04$; $p = .02$). There were no significant mean differences in teacher beliefs between schools that offered ESL/ESOL, RtI, or PBIS and those that did not.

Table 5

Independent *T*-Test of EL SEL Competency Beliefs Based on School Program

Program	<i>M(SD)</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
	No	Yes		
Dual language/Bilingual	4.04(.52) <i>n</i> = 87	4.28(.25) <i>n</i> = 29	$t(114) = -2.31$	$p = .02$
ESL/ESOL	3.83(.50) <i>n</i> = 9	4.13(.47) <i>n</i> = 107	$t(114) = -1.79$	$p = .08$
RtI	3.89(.49) <i>n</i> = 12	4.13(.48) <i>n</i> = 104	$t(114) = -1.64$	$p = .10$
PBIS	4.04(.46) <i>n</i> = 17	4.11(.49) <i>n</i> = 99	$t(114) = -.63$	$p = .53$

Note. ESL/ESOL = English as Second Language/English to Speakers of Other Languages; RtI = Response to Intervention; PBIS = Positive Behavior Intervention and Supports

Teacher Reported Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining SEL Practices.

Regarding teachers' implementation of CLS SEL practices, on average, teachers reported implementing CLS SEL practices about half the time, with an overall mean score of 3.39($SD = .73$). That is, teachers reported that they implement CLS SEL practices (e.g., celebrating cultural traditions of students, learning words in native language of EL students) sometimes to most of the time in their general education classroom.

To investigate whether there was a significant relationship between teacher personal characteristics (e.g., race, gender, bilingualism), experience (e.g., EL training, SEL training, number of EL students, years of teaching), and school characteristics (e.g., programs, SEL curriculum), and implementation of culturally and linguistically sustaining SEL practices, I conducted independent sample t -tests and correlation analyses.

Personal Characteristics. I conducted independent t -tests to examine whether teacher reported implementation of CLS SEL practices differed based on teacher race, gender, or bilingualism. Results are in Table 6. Findings indicated that bilingual teachers reported higher implementation of CLS SEL practices ($M = 3.92$) than monolingual English-speaking teachers ($M = 3.30$; $p = .001$). Teacher race and gender did not result in significant mean differences in implementation of practices.

Table 6

Independent T-Test of CLS SEL Practices Based on Teacher Personal Characteristics

$M(SD)$		t	p -value
Gender	Woman	Man	
	3.01(.72)	3.12(.97)	$t(112) = 1.01$
	$n = 107$	$n = 7$	$p = .31$

Race	Majority	Non-majority		
	3.35(.72)	3.88(.84)	$t(113) = -1.97$	$p = .05$
	$n = 107$	$n = 8$		
Bilingualism	No	Yes		
	3.30(.71)	3.92(.67)	$t(113) = -3.36$	$p = .001$
	$n = 98$	$n = 17$		

Professional Characteristics. I used Pearson r correlation and an independent t -test to examine whether teacher reported implementation of CLS SEL practices differed by years of experiences, number of EL students, grade level, and amount of SEL and EL training. There was not a significant association between implementation of CLS SEL practices and years of experience ($r = -.14, p = .13$) or grade level ($r = -.06, p = .54$). Correlation results indicated significant and positive correlations between number of previous and current EL students taught ($r = .21, p < .05$) and CLS SEL practices.

I also examined whether teacher reported CLS SEL practices differed based on the type and amount of training received. That is, I examined differences in beliefs based on whether teachers sought out information independently (personal training/education), received preservice training, engaged in professional development training, or received certification in two areas of teacher training: EL training and SEL training. Results are in Table 7. EL certification was related to implementation of CLS SEL practices. An independent t -test demonstrated that teachers who were certified to teach EL students ($M = 3.70$) reported greater implementation than teachers who were not certified ($M = 3.31; p = .03$). Finally, teachers who received

preservice training to implement SEL practices ($M = 3.56$) reported greater implementation than teachers who did not ($M = 3.29$; $p = .05$).

Table 7Independent *T*-Test of CLS SEL Practices Based on Teacher Training

Training	English Language				Social-Emotional Learning			
	<i>M(SD)</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value	<i>M(SD)</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
	No	Yes			No	Yes		
Personal	3.29(.73) <i>n</i> = 49	3.46(.73) <i>n</i> = 66	<i>t</i> (113) = -1.20	<i>p</i> = .23	Personal	3.26(.80) <i>n</i> = 44	3.47(.68) <i>n</i> = 71	<i>t</i> (113) = -1.52 <i>p</i> = .13
Preservice	3.30(.74) <i>n</i> = 59	3.48(.72) <i>n</i> = 56	<i>t</i> (113) = -1.39	<i>p</i> = .17	Preservice	3.29(.77) <i>n</i> = 73	3.56(.65) <i>n</i> = 42	<i>t</i> (113) = -1.99 <i>p</i> = .05
Professional	3.28(.76) <i>n</i> = 34	3.43(.73) <i>n</i> = 81	<i>t</i> (113) = -2.29	<i>p</i> = .33	Professional	3.31(.77) <i>n</i> = 13	3.40(.73) <i>n</i> = 102	<i>t</i> (113) = -.41 <i>p</i> = .68
Certified	3.31(.74) <i>n</i> = 93	3.70(.63) <i>n</i> = 22	<i>t</i> (113) = -2.26	<i>p</i> = .03	Certified	3.37(.74) <i>n</i> = 103	3.51(.71) <i>n</i> = 12	<i>t</i> (113) = -.63 <i>p</i> = .53

School Characteristics. I used independent *t*-tests to examine whether teacher beliefs about EL students' SEL competencies differ by schools that offered dual language/bilingual, ESL/ESOL, and PBIS program as well as whether schools utilized a RtI approach. Results are in Table 8.

Teachers who taught in a school with an ESL/ESOL reported lower implementation of CLS SEL practices ($M = 3.34$) compared to those who did not have an ESL/ESOL program ($M = 3.85$; $p = .05$). No other school characteristics were significantly associated with implementation of practices.

Table 8

Independent *T*-Test of CLS SEL Practices Based on School Program

Program	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> -value
	No	Yes		
Dual language/Bilingual	3.32(.74) <i>n</i> = 86	3.60(.69) <i>n</i> = 29	$t(113) = -1.79$	$p = .07$
ESL/ESOL	3.85(.67) <i>n</i> = 9	3.34(.73) <i>n</i> = 106	$t(113) = 2.00$	$p = .05$
RtI	3.49(1.01) <i>n</i> = 12	3.38(.70) <i>n</i> = 103	$t(113) = .53$	$p = .60$
PBIS	3.45(.81) <i>n</i> = 17	3.38(.72) <i>n</i> = 98	$t(119) = .36$	$p = .72$

Note. ESL/ESOL = English as Second Language/English to Speakers of Other Languages; RtI = Response to Intervention; PBIS = Positive Behavior Intervention and Supports

Research Question Two

Which of teachers' beliefs about teaching SEL to EL students based on TPB (i.e., behavioral attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control) are the strongest predictors of implementation of CLS SEL practices?

To answer this question, I conducted a hierarchical linear regression analysis to evaluate the prediction of CLS Practices from the TPB beliefs. To recap, behavioral attitudes refer to the perceived consequences of a behavior, subjective norms refer to the belief that others would approve or engage in a behavior, and perceived behavioral control (PBC) refers to the degree to which a person feels they have control over a behavior (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen & Cote, 2008). Descriptive statistics of the study variables used in the regression analysis are in Table 9. Due to the missingness of data, the total sample for each regression analysis was 114 teachers. Results of a Pearson r correlation showed that behavioral attitudes and PBC about teaching SEL to EL students were positively and significantly correlated with implementation of CLS SEL practices. Furthermore, teachers' beliefs about EL students' academic motivation and engagement were positively and significantly correlated with implementation of CLS SEL practices. Overall, teachers who held more positive beliefs about the outcomes of teaching SEL practices to EL students (i.e., behavioral attitudes), felt that they had control and self-efficacy over teaching SEL to EL students (i.e., perceived behavioral control), and believed that EL students were more motivated (i.e., EL motivation beliefs) were more likely to implement CLS SEL practices.

Table 9

Correlation of Regression Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Covariates												
1. Bilingual	.15	.36	0, 1 ^a									
2. Total Training	3.97	1.50	0-7	.04								
TPB (Independent Variables)												
3. Behavioral Attitudes	4.04	.61	1-5	.09	.01							
4. Subjective Norms	3.86	.63	1-5	.02	.00	.23*						
5. PBC	3.35	.72	1-5	.18	.17	.52**	.30**					
Moderators												
6. ATI	4.43	.61	1-5	.11	.16	.44**	.12	.40**				
7. Language Use	4.68	.48	1-5	-.09	.13	.08	-.15	.00	.37**			
8. Motivation	3.56	.77	1-5	.18	.10	.34**	.13	.43**	.41**	-.03		
Dependent Variable												
9. CLS SEL Practices	3.40	.73	1-5	.30**	.29**	.20*	.01	.23*	.17	.04	.29**	

^a 0 = no and 1 = yes.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Note. PBC = Perceived Behavioral Control; ATI = Attitude Toward Inclusion; CLS SEL Practices = Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining Social-Emotional Learning Practice

Covariates. Based on the results from preliminary analyses and research question one, I utilized two control variables in each of the subsequent regression analyses: total training and teacher bilingualism. I created the total training variable by combining teachers reported personal, preservice, professional development, or certification training in working with EL students and implementing SEL practices to create a mean total training score.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis. Results presented in Table 10 consisted of model comparisons and a model interpretation based on a Cronbach's alpha of .05. All continuous predictor variables were mean centered by subtracting the mean from all observations of that variable, making the new mean zero. I compared each step in the hierarchical regression to the previous step using F-tests. For the first step, I analyzed the covariates as predictor variables which explained 18% of the variance in CLS SEL practices. After entry of the TPB predictors (behavioral attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control) at step two, the total variance explained by the model was 21%, $F(5, 108) = 5.82, p < .001$. The three TPB predictors explained an additional 4% of the variance in CLS SEL practices after controlling for bilingualism and total training $\Delta R^2 = .04, \Delta F(3, 108) = 1.69, p = .17$. Adding the three TPB beliefs about teaching SEL to EL students did not account for a significant amount of additional variance in CLS SEL practices. In addition, none of the TPB predictors were significantly associated with CLS SEL practices.

Table 10

Predicting CLS SEL Practices with Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) Beliefs

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>p</i>
	Step 1				Step 2			
Covariates								
Bilingualism	6.94	2.08	.29	.001	6.25	2.10	.26	.004
Training	1.48	.44	.29	<.001	1.41	.44	.28	.002
TPB								
Behavioral Attitudes					2.17	1.49	.15	.15
Subjective Norms					-.53	1.23	-.04	.67
PBC					1.04	1.31	.08	.43

Note. PBC = Perceived Behavioral Control

Research Question Three

Is the association between teachers' beliefs about teaching SEL to EL students based on TPB (i.e., behavioral, normative, control) and implementation of CLS SEL practices moderated by teachers' attitudes toward inclusion (ATI) of EL students within their classroom?

To answer this question, I conducted a hierarchical linear regression moderation analysis to evaluate whether teachers' ATI moderates the relationship between TPB beliefs and implementation of CLS practices. To review, ATI refers to teachers' attitudes toward inclusion of EL students in the mainstream classroom and toward modification of coursework for EL students (Reeves, 2006). Results presented in Table 11 consisted of model comparisons and a model interpretation based on a Cronbach's alpha of .05. All continuous predictor variables were

mean centered by subtracting the mean from all observations of that variable, making the new mean zero. I compared each step in the hierarchical regression to the previous step using F-tests. Step one involved entering covariates, TPB beliefs, and the moderator variable (i.e., ATI) into the regression. The variables in model one explained 21% of the variance in CLS SEL practices. After entry of the interaction terms of TPB beliefs and ATI to the model in step two, the total variance explained by the model was 26%, $F(9, 104) = 4.03, p < .001$. The addition of the interaction terms explained an additional 5% of the variance in CLS SEL practices after controlling for bilingualism and total training, $\Delta R^2 = .05, \Delta F(3, 104) = 2.15, p = .10$. Adding the interaction model did not explain a significant amount of variance beyond the main effect model based on an alpha of .05. However, the interaction between subjective norms and ATI was a significant predictor of CLS SEL practices. Figure 2 demonstrates the interaction effect. For teachers who felt low levels of social pressure to teach SEL to EL students (i.e., low subjective norms), teachers with elevated levels of ATI implemented more CLS SEL practices as compared to those with low levels of ATI. However, for teachers who felt elevated levels of social pressure to teach SEL to EL students (i.e., high subjective norms), teachers with low levels of ATI implemented more CLS SEL practices as compared to those with elevated levels of ATI.

Table 11

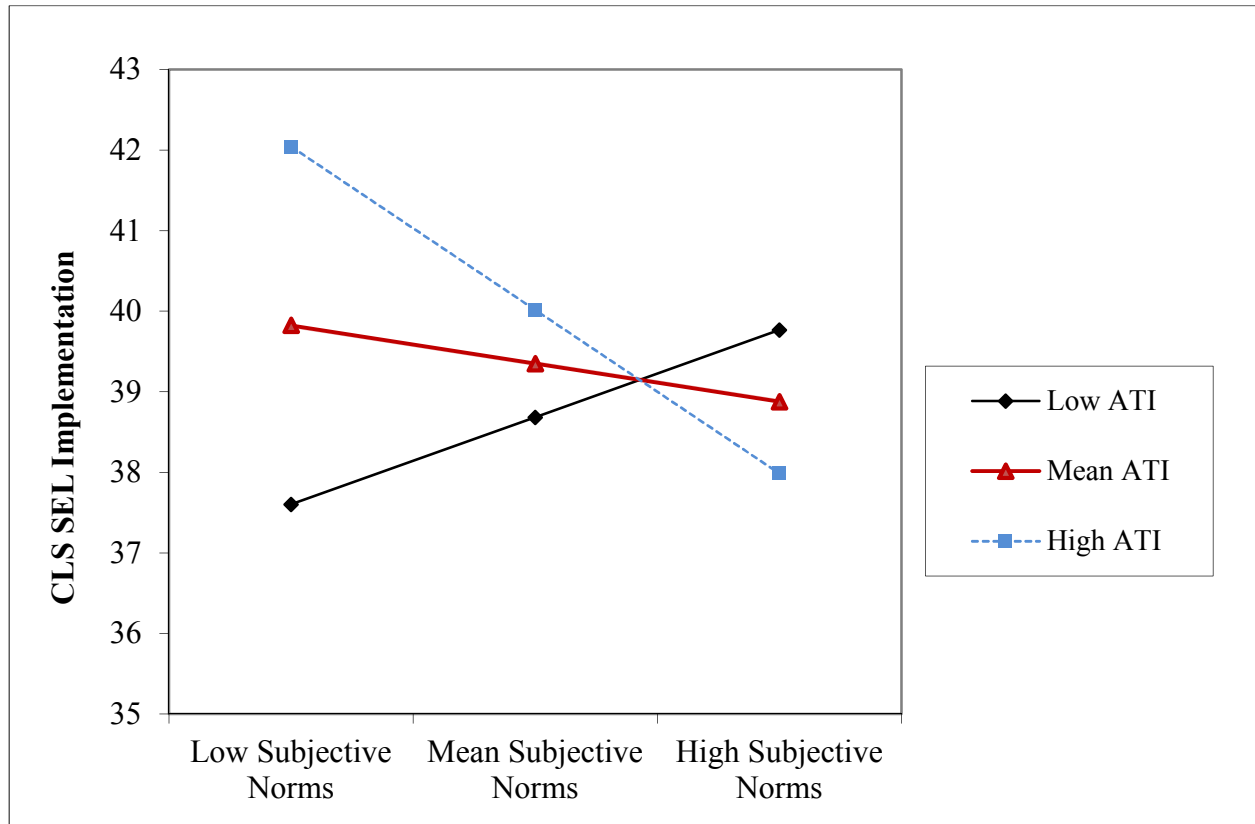
Moderation of Attitude toward Inclusion (ATI) Between TPB Beliefs and Implementation of
CLS SEL Practices

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>p</i>
	Step 1				Step 2			
Covariates								
Bilingualism	6.25	2.11	.26	.004	6.34	2.08	.26	.003
Training	1.42	.45	.28	.002	1.57	.45	.31	<.001
TPB								
Behavioral Attitudes	2.18	1.58	.15	.17	2.16	1.58	.15	.18
Subjective Norms	-.53	1.24	-.04	.67	-.74	1.22	-.05	.54
PBC	1.05	1.34	.08	.43	1.15	1.33	.09	.39
Moderator								
ATI	-.03	1.46	-.00	.98	1.11	1.52	.08	.47
Interaction								
Beh x ATI					.21	2.19	.01	.92
Norm x ATI					-4.05	1.96	-.18	.04
PBC x ATI					2.84	2.22	.16	.20

Note. PBC = Perceived Behavioral Control; ATI = Attitude Toward Inclusion

Figure 2

Moderation of Attitude Toward Inclusion (ATI) Between Subjective Norms and Implementation of CLS SEL Practices



Research Question Four

Is the association between teachers' beliefs about teaching SEL to EL students based on TPB (i.e., behavioral attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control) and implementation of CLS SEL practices moderated by teachers' beliefs about the language use and L2 acquisition of EL students?

To answer this question, I conducted a hierarchical linear regression moderation analysis to evaluate whether teachers' beliefs about language use (e.g., use of native language at school, L2 acquisition development) moderates the relationship between TPB beliefs and

implementation of CLS practices. Results presented in Table 12 consisted of model comparisons and a model interpretation based on a Cronbach's alpha of .05. All continuous predictor variables were mean centered by subtracting the overall variable mean from all observations of that variable, making the new mean zero. I compared each step in the hierarchical regression to the previous step using F-tests. Step one involved entering covariates, TPB beliefs, and the moderator variable (language use/L2 acquisition beliefs) into the regression which explained 21% of the variance in CLS SEL practices. After entry of the interaction terms of TPB beliefs and Language Use to the model in step two, the total variance explained by the model was 22%, $F(9, 104) = 3.31, p = .001$. The addition of the interaction terms explained an additional 1% of the variance in CLS SEL practices after controlling for teacher bilingualism and total training, $\Delta R^2 = .01, \Delta F(3, 104) = .45, p = .72$. Adding the interaction model did not explain significantly more variance than the non-interaction model based on an alpha of .05. In addition, none of the beta coefficients were significant for the interaction terms. Therefore, I did not interpret simple effects.

Table 12

Moderation of Language Use Between TPB Beliefs and Implementation of CLS SEL Practices

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>p</i>
	Step 1				Step 2			
Covariates								
Bilingualism	6.27	2.12	.26	.004	6.32	2.17	.26	.004
Training	1.41	.45	.28	.002	1.36	.46	.27	.004
TPB								

Behavioral Attitudes	2.14	1.51	.14	.16	2.28	1.55	.15	.15
Subjective Norms	-.50	1.26	-.04	.69	-.48	1.28	-.04	.71
PBC	1.05	1.31	.08	.43	1.18	1.33	.10	.38
Moderator								
Language Use	.20	1.65	.01	.90	.54	1.86	.03	.77
Interaction								
Beh x Lang					-.35	2.76	-.02	.90
Norm x Lang					.23	2.61	.01	.93
PBC x Lang					2.93	2.95	.11	.32

Note. PBC = Perceived Behavioral Control; Lang = Language use/L2 Acquisition

Research Question Five

Is the association between teachers' beliefs about teaching SEL to EL students and their implementation of CLS SEL practices moderated by teachers' beliefs about the educational motivation and engagement of EL students? To review, beliefs about EL students' motivation and engagement include beliefs about whether EL students show an interest in learning and persevere through difficult academic material.

To answer this question, I conducted a hierarchical linear regression moderation analysis to evaluate whether teachers' beliefs about EL students' motivation moderates the relationship between TPB beliefs and implementation of CLS practices. Results presented in Table 13 consisted of model comparisons and a model interpretation based on a Cronbach's alpha of .05. All continuous predictor variables were mean centered by subtracting the overall variable mean from all observations of that variable, making the new mean zero. I compared each step in the

hierarchical regression to the previous step using F-tests. Step one involved entering covariates, TPB beliefs, and the moderator variable (motivation beliefs) into the regression which explained 24% of the variance in CLS SEL practices. After entry of the interaction terms of TPB beliefs and Motivation to the model in step two, the total variance explained by the model was 26%, $F(9, 104) = 3.95, p < .001$. The addition of the interaction terms explained an additional 2% of the variance in CLS SEL practices after controlling for teacher bilingualism and total training, $\Delta R^2 = .02, \Delta F(3, 104) = .74, p = .53$. Adding the interaction model did not explain significantly more variance than the non-interaction model based on an alpha of .05. However, in the final model teachers' motivation beliefs were a significant predictor of implementation of CLS SEL practices. That is, teachers who believe that EL students are more motivated and engaged academically, were more likely to implement CLS SEL practices within their classroom.

Table 13

Moderation of Motivation Beliefs Between TPB Beliefs and Implementation of CLS SEL Practices

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>p</i>
	Step 1				Step 2			
Covariates								
Bilingualism	5.82	2.08	.24	.006	5.87	2.10	.24	.006
Training	1.37	.44	.27	.002	1.39	.45	.27	.003
TPB								
Behavioral Attitudes	1.71	1.49	.12	.25	1.93	1.54	.13	.21
Subjective Norms	-.55	1.22	-.04	.65	-.41	1.24	-.03	.74

PBC	.32	1.34	.03	.81	.39	1.35	.03	.78
Moderator								
Motivation	2.15	1.11	.18	.06	2.22	1.12	.19	.05
Interaction								
Beh x Mot					2.89	2.05	.17	.16
Norm x Mot					-.28	2.10	-.01	.90
PBC x Mot					-1.21	1.91	-.08	.53

Note. PBC = Perceived Behavioral Control; Mot = Motivation and Engagement

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

This chapter provides a summary discussion of the results from each of the five research questions. The overarching purpose of the current study was to examine the association between teacher beliefs and the implementation of CLS SEL practices within the classroom setting. Research question one involved a descriptive analysis of teachers' perceptions about a) EL students' SEL competencies and b) implementation of CLS SEL practices based on teacher personal characteristics, experience, and school factors. These descriptive analyses were important because previous literature has solely looked at teachers' perception of EL students' SEL competencies qualitatively based on interviews of a small number of teachers about the SEL competence of refugee EL students (e.g., Cho et al., 2019). Using a quantitative approach, I offered a comprehensive and nuanced picture regarding the characteristics that may be associated with implementation of CLS SEL practices. Research question two examined how teachers' behavioral, normative, or control beliefs (i.e., Theory of Planned Behavior; TPB beliefs) about teaching SEL to EL students are associated with teacher implementation of CLS SEL practices. Research questions three to five focused on three moderating effects. Specifically, I analyzed whether teachers' beliefs about teaching SEL to EL students and implementation of CLS SEL practices was moderated by a) teacher beliefs about the inclusion of EL students within the classroom, b) first language (L1) use of EL students, and c) motivation or engagement of EL students.

In this section, I will discuss the results of the analyses to develop a meaningful explanation and interpretation based on the findings of the study. First, I will discuss the results of the analysis of association between TPB beliefs and implementation of CLS SEL practices. Then, I will speak to the descriptive analyses of teachers' perception of EL students' SEL

competencies and implementation of CLS SEL practices. Finally, I will discuss limitations of the current study, future directions, and implications for practice.

Teacher Beliefs and Implementation of CLS SEL Practices

I utilized Ajzen's (1985) TPB model to analyze whether teachers' behavioral, normative, and control beliefs about teaching SEL to EL students significantly predicts implementation of CLS SEL practices. Teachers' behavioral beliefs refer to attitude toward the behavior (e.g., teaching SEL would decrease problem behaviors), normative beliefs refer to subjective norms (e.g., most general education teachers teach SEL), and control beliefs refer to perceived behavioral control (e.g., teacher feels they can make decision on most effective SEL practices). I hypothesized that each belief would be significantly associated with teachers' reported implementation of CLS SEL practices. I also hypothesized that teachers' perceived behavioral control would be most strongly associated with teachers' implementation because previous educational research has suggested a teachers' self-efficacy (part of perceived behavioral control) is significantly associated with teacher behavior (Wilson et al., 2016). Results from this study did not support the hypothesis that teacher perceived behavioral control was the strongest TPB predictor of implementation of CLS SEL practices. The results suggested that after controlling for teacher bilingualism and total training, TPB beliefs are not significant predictors of utilizing CLS SEL practices within the classroom.

It is possible that behavioral, normative, and control beliefs may be influenced by teachers' own values, identities, and experiences. The TPB posits that the association between background factors (e.g., teacher training and bilingualism) and a specific behavior (e.g., teaching SEL to EL students) may in fact be mediated by behavioral attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 2020; Ajzen & Cote, 2008). Furthermore, Ajzen (2020)

proports that background factors may provide useful information as to potential antecedents to behavioral, normative, and control beliefs that is not explained by the theory on its own.

Therefore, the two control variables (i.e., bilingualism and total training) may have accounted for teacher characteristics that are related to individual and social background factors that influence behavioral, normative, and control beliefs (Ajzen 2020). In fact, teachers' behavioral attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control were not uniquely associated with the dependent variables beyond the control variables.

Another possible explanation for a non-significant finding in the regression analyses may be due to scaling of the measure. Whereas I utilized a five-point unipolar scale (e.g., 1 = *do not agree at all*, 5 = *agree entirely*), others used a bipolar scale (i.e., both agreement and disagreement). For example, Fishbein and Ajzen (2011) used a seven-point bipolar scale from (1 = *disagree*, 7 = *agree*), and some argue that a bipolar scale increases the validity of the measure (Gagné & Godin, 2000). Furthermore, the current study solely measured self-reported behavior, however, studies that utilize TPB often measure the influence of behavioral attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control on intention to perform a specific behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011). That is, I did not measure teacher intention, which is believed to be the immediate antecedent of behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011). It is possible that the TPB beliefs in the current study may have been significant predictors if intention to implement CLS SEL practices was the dependent variable instead of reported behavior. Finally, while I attempted to utilize a focus group to improve the validity of the TPB scales used in the current study. A true pilot study involves sending out a pilot questionnaire and completing a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the validity and quality of the scales used in the final study (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011). A pilot questionnaire is also meant to measure any background factors or variables that may

influences the results of the final study. Therefore, a thorough piloting procedure for measure development might have improved the measurement of the constructs and detection of the associations between constructs measured.

While the results of the regression analyses were non-significant, both behavioral attitudes and perceived behavioral control were positively and significantly correlated with teachers' reported implementation of CLS SEL practices. That is, teachers who believed teaching SEL to EL students would lead to more positive outcomes, and those who felt they had higher control and self-efficacy to teach SEL to EL students, were more likely to implement CLS SEL practices in their classroom. Subjective norms were not significantly associated with teacher reported implementation. This finding is contradictory with a study conducted by McFarlane and Woolfson (2013) that used the TPB to measure teachers' attitudes and behavior toward children with social, emotional, and behavioral difficulties. Their study demonstrated that teachers' subjective norms (particularly their perception of the principal's expectations) were a significant predictor of teacher behavior but not behavioral intention. Previous education literature utilizing TPB has demonstrated inconsistent findings regarding which TPB belief is the strongest predictor of teacher behavior. Some studies demonstrate that behavioral attitudes are the strongest predictor of behavior (e.g., Balloone & Czerniak, 2001) while others have found perceived behavioral control, especially self-efficacy, to be a significant predictor (e.g., Wilson et al., 2016). There is a need for more educational research utilizing the TPB to fully understand the nuanced association between TPB beliefs, teacher behavioral intention, and teacher behavior.

This study also aimed to identify whether the associations between TPB beliefs and implementation of CLS SEL practices was moderated by a) attitudes toward inclusion (ATI), b) beliefs about language use/acquisition, or c) beliefs about EL student motivation and

engagement. The results indicated that there was not a significant interaction between TPB beliefs and each moderation variable except between teachers' normative beliefs and ATI. Results indicated that teachers who endorsed weaker subjective norms (i.e., perceived social pressure) were more likely to implement CLS SEL practices if they had more positive ATI. However, when teachers perceive strong subjective norms, ATI does not play as strong of a role in implementation. This finding suggests that when teachers do not perceive pressure to teach SEL to EL students, having more positive attitudes about including EL students in the general education classroom encourages them to implement CLS SEL practices.

Despite non-significant moderating effect, teacher beliefs about EL students' academic motivation and engagement were a unique and significant predictor of implementation of CLS SEL practices after controlling for teacher bilingualism and total training. Teachers tend to be confident in their ability to estimate and rate a students' motivation and engagement (Bangert-Drowns & Pyke, 2002). Previous research has demonstrated that 96% of teachers factor a student's "effort" into their evaluation, and 70% of teachers consider "effort" to be the most important skill for a student to learn and develop in school (Kelly, 2008). However, these ratings are typically poor to modest when compared to students' reported motivation or observable behavior (Lee & Reeve, 2012). This discrepancy between teacher and student report may be due to teachers basing ratings on their students' performance and specific academic ability to infer motivation and engagement (Bangert-Drowns & Pike, 2002). Teachers' perception of students' motivation may then influence their pedagogical decision making and teaching practices.

The Labeling Theory (Link & Phelan, 2013) posits that being labeled as an EL student is often associated with a deficit-oriented perspective and may result in teachers interpreting EL students' lower English proficiency as an indication of lower academic skill or potential

(Blanchard & Muller, 2015; Flores et al., 2015; Garcia et al., 2019; Martinez, 2018). Teachers who view students' intelligence or academic ability as fixed, are more likely to believe that improving student motivation and engagement is out of their control (Dweck, 2000). If teachers hold such beliefs about EL students, they may be less likely to believe that they can make an impact on EL students' motivation and engagement, resulting in lower self-efficacy. Teachers' perceptions of their own self-efficacy on improving students' motivation and engagement likely influences their beliefs about personal responsibility or the importance of implementing CLS practices within their classroom (Guyer & Fabrigar, 2015). In fact, the results of this study demonstrated a significant and positive correlation between teacher perceived behavioral control (including self-efficacy) and beliefs about the motivation and engagement of EL students. It is likely that teachers who experience lower self-efficacy in teaching SEL to EL students may feel less responsibility to adjust or make accommodations in the classroom that would improve the social-emotional development of these students (Ross & Bruce, 2007; Bruce et al., 2010).

Teacher Beliefs about EL Students' SEL Competencies

Overall, teachers reported relatively elevated levels of social-emotional learning (SEL) competencies for EL students. Among the five CASEL (2020) domains of SEL competencies (i.e., social awareness, relationship skills, self-awareness, self-management, and decision making) teachers reported the lowest perception of EL students' competency in self-awareness, or the ability to understand one's own thoughts, values, and emotions (CASEL, 2020). Teacher perceptions further varied by teacher characteristics, teacher experience, and school factors.

Teacher Personal Characteristics

Among teacher race, teacher bilingualism, and teacher gender, teachers' perceptions of EL students' SEL competencies differ based on teacher race only. Results indicated that teachers

who identify with non-majority race believe that EL students have higher SEL competencies. Previous research has demonstrated that teachers view students differently depending on student race (McGrady & Reynolds, 2013) and have differential expectations for students of different ethnic origins (Berg et al., 2010). Furthermore, student race may have more of an impact on teacher perception than actual English language skills when teachers are making judgements about students (Lippi-Green, 2012; Shim, 2017). Implicit and explicit biases may partially account for the results of this study. For majority (i.e., White) teachers, their biases may negatively influence their perception of the SEL competencies of EL students in their classrooms, whether that is based on students' English proficiency, ethnic background, or race. Teachers' perceptions of students' skills tend to be relatively accurate; however, accuracy is lower, and bias is higher, when they do not share similar background characteristics (Farkas, 2003) and when students come from a highly stigmatized group (McKown & Weinstein, 2008; Ready & Wright, 2011). Therefore, compared to majority-race teachers, non-majority (i.e., non-White) teachers may have more positive implicit or explicit biases toward marginalized groups, such as EL students, resulting in more positive perceptions of their SEL competencies.

Teacher Experience

Teachers who had more experience and training working with EL students were more likely to believe EL students have more SEL competencies. More specifically, teachers with more professional development training and certification to teach EL students appeared to report higher perceived SEL competencies in EL students. Results are consistent with prior research indicating that teachers' beliefs and attitudes toward EL students may be influenced by the amount of exposure to ELs in their personal or professional life, number of languages they have studied, exposure to diversity in general, and number of ESL courses they had taken (Polat,

2010). It is likely that teachers who have more exposure and experience instructing EL students in the mainstream classroom increase in their competence, confidence, and understanding of EL students.

Polat and colleagues (2019) conducted a study in which pre-service teachers engaged in a semester-long online letter exchange with EL student pen pals (i.e., E-Pal project). Teachers were asked to draw connections between the reading and EL students' real lives; teachers were also expected to modify their writing to match their pen pals' English proficiency level. Results demonstrated that teachers who participated in the E-Pal project more strongly supported inclusion of EL students in the mainstream classroom, were more enthusiastic about working with diverse students, and agreed that incorporating EL students' cultural background into instruction can enhance learning (Polat et al., 2019). These preservice teachers may have become aware that EL students are not a homogenous group, but instead, have differing cultural backgrounds, language abilities, families, interests, and academic strengths (Harklau, 2000; Polat et al., 2019). Furthermore, this intervention appeared to increase pre-service teachers' sense of responsibility for the education of EL students by increasing empathy and emphasizing the needs, motivations, and struggles of EL students (Polat et al., 2019). This study appears to demonstrate the positive implications for teachers who have more exposure and receive more support in working with EL students. It is likely that by increasing an awareness of individual experiences of EL students and understanding the diversity within this population that teachers are more likely to have more empathy and understanding of their SEL abilities and needs.

School Characteristics

In terms of school-level characteristics, the results of this study indicated that teachers who worked in a school with a dual language or bilingual program believed that EL students had

more SEL competencies. This result is consistent with findings that within bilingual settings, teachers often do not have differing perceptions of EL students compared to their non-EL peers. In fact, the bilingual environment may counteract any negative effect of EL classification on teachers' perceptions of a students' academic skill level (Umanksy & Dumont, 2021). The results of the current study suggested that the same may be true about teachers' perceptions about the SEL skills of EL students. It is also likely that the overall culture of a school with a dual language or bilingual program may influence teachers' beliefs about EL students. Walker and colleagues (2004) suggested beliefs about EL students change based on local or national policies which may be internalized and brought into the classroom either consciously or unconsciously. It is possible that having a school climate that values multilingualism, equity, and inclusion may positively influence teachers' perceptions of EL students SEL competencies.

Teacher Reported Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining (CLS) SEL Practices

On average, teachers reported implementing CLS SEL practices within the general education classroom “about half the time.” Teachers' reported implementation further varied by teacher characteristics, teacher experience, and school factors.

Teacher Personal Characteristics

Among teacher race, teacher bilingualism, and teacher gender, teachers' reported implementation of CLS SEL practices differ based on teacher bilingualism only, with bilingual teachers reporting higher frequency of implementation. Bilingual teachers may be more likely to share EL students' linguistic and cultural roots which may lead them to make more beneficial instructional choices (Umansky & Dumont, 2021). Evidence indicates that bilingual teachers, especially those who were EL students themselves, tend to have personal experience with loss of their L1, shame around using their first language, and lower self-esteem (Winstead & Wang,

2017). This personal experience and enhanced understanding of second language (L2) development may provide bilingual teachers with unique insight into which SEL practices may foster social-emotional growth in the EL students within their classroom.

Another possibility for the association between teacher bilingualism and higher implementation of CLS SEL practices is that bilingual teachers may have more specialized training and education to work with EL students, resulting in less biased pedagogical choices (Lopez, 2017). Bilingual teachers who speak the same language as their EL students likely have the skillset to better communicate with students and families to offset systemic barriers and increase EL students' opportunities to learn (Matthews & Lopez, 2019). Finally, it may be that bilingual teachers are more likely to be recruited to or apply to work in a school setting that caters to bilingual and EL students due to an underlying value of multilingualism and diversity (Umansky & Dumont, 2021), making it more likely for them to implement CLS SEL practices to all students.

Teacher Experience

In addition to exposure to EL students, the amount of training, specifically professional development and certification to work with this population, was significantly related to higher implementation of CLS SEL practices. It is likely that teachers who have received more specialized training have more knowledge about L2 acquisition, English as a Second Language (ESL/ESOL) instructional practices, and multicultural education (Pettit, 2011). It is possible that teachers who receive, or seek out, certification or professional development trainings are more likely to adapt and change their beliefs about language acquisition and EL students. These teachers may also receive the chance to engage in self-reflection to identify their own racial or linguistic biases (Pettit, 2011). Teachers who have more accurate beliefs about language

acquisition are more likely to have more accurate pedagogical beliefs, and therefore, more likely to implement practices that support the linguistic and academic development of EL students (Harrison & Lakin, 2018a). This study appears to demonstrate that more extensive EL training also applies to practices that support the social and emotional development of EL students.

The results of this study also demonstrated that teachers who received more pre-service SEL training reported greater implementation of CLS SEL practices. Teachers who have received extensive training in the implementation of SEL practices within the mainstream classroom may feel more confident in their ability to adapt and teach SEL to all students (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). It is difficult to determine whether teachers who believe that SEL is a valuable part of education may be more likely to seek out additional training or whether additional training may alter teachers' beliefs about SEL. Regardless of directionality, teachers who value SEL are more likely to embed formal SEL curriculum and integrate SEL practices into their daily interactions with students via modeling, teaching, and scaffolding (Zins et al., 2014). Teachers with more experience and confidence with SEL instruction are also likely to be emotionally supportive, creating a positive and inclusive classroom environment in which all students learn to regulate emotions and respond to others' feelings (Hamre & Pianta, 2007).

School Characteristics

Among school characteristics including dual language/bilingual programs, ESL/ESOL services, Response to Intervention (RtI), and Positive Behavior Intervention and Supports (PBIS), implementation of CLS SEL practices solely varied depending on ESL/ESOL services. Results indicated that teachers who worked within a school that has an ESL/ESOL program reported lower implementation of CLS SEL practices. While this finding may appear counterintuitive, it is consistent with findings that suggest general education teachers may

believe that the responsibility of teaching EL teachers falls on the ESL/ESOL staff (Polat et al., 2019; Valdes, 2001). That is, general education teachers may be less likely to feel personally responsible for the explicit SEL instruction for EL students within their classroom and place this expectation on the ESL/ESOL teacher. Research suggests that general education teachers require three types of pedagogical expertise to engage in CLS practices: 1) familiarity with EL students' academic and linguistic background; 2) an understanding of language demands required in learning; and 3) skills to use scaffolding so EL students can participate successfully (Lucas et al., 2008). One way that general education teachers may establish such expertise is through collaborating with bilingual teachers and/or ESL/ESOL teachers within their school to learn more about their EL students' linguistic and academic needs. ESL/ESOL teachers may also be able to provide appropriate scaffolding or accommodations strategies to increase general education teachers' self-efficacy in implementing CLS SEL practices within their classrooms.

Limitations & Future Directions

There were many areas of limitation in this study and suggestions for future research. One major methodological limitation of this study was the sample size and lack of diversity in the teacher population. Although I gathered more than the recommended sample size to obtain sufficient power, there were many survey responses that were incomplete, resulting in fewer observations of main variables in the regression analyses. This may have contributed to the lack of significant findings in regression and moderation analyses. The sample also lacked diversity; all responses were from teachers in a midwestern state and over 90% of teacher respondents identified as White and women, making it difficult to truly identify racial and gender differences in beliefs and implementation of CLS SEL practices. In the state of Wisconsin, 70% of teachers are White women, 24% are white men, and only 6% of Wisconsin teachers are people of color

(Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 2022). As such, the sample slightly overrepresented teachers who identify as White and women. Generalizability of the findings needs to be considered in light of the limited sample size, overrepresentation of white and women teachers, and restriction of geographic location. Future research would benefit from a larger and more diverse sample size in terms of race, gender, and geographic location.

In terms of measuring teacher training, I was limited in the extent to which I was able to determine the quality and specific quantity of training teachers received to teach EL students or implement SEL practices. As previously mentioned, teacher pre-service training requirements and quality of professional development training can vary greatly (NCELA, 2008; O'Brien, 2011). I asked teachers to report whether they had sought additional information personally, received pre-service or professional development training, or become certified to teach EL students or SEL practices; however, future research should examine whether frequency and total hours of training may significantly impact teacher's implementation of CLS SEL practices for EL students.

Another major limitation of this study that is inherent in survey research, is the reliance on teachers' self-reported beliefs and behaviors. This meant that the survey could only measure teachers' explicit beliefs, or those that are in their conscious awareness. Social desirability may have impacted teachers either in their report of their TPB beliefs or in reporting that they are engaging in more CLS SEL practices than is objectively accurate. Furthermore, cultural norms or perceived values of the study may have made it difficult for teachers to express or access their own personal beliefs and report accurately and openly (Harrison & Lakin, 2018b).

Previous research has suggested that explicit beliefs toward EL students do not always correlate with implicit attitudes (Harrison & Lakin, 2018b). Future research would benefit from

measures of implicit beliefs that can capture potential biases that may be out of teachers' conscious awareness. For example, Harrison and Lakin (2018a; 2018b) conducted two studies using an Implicit Association Test (IAT) to compare teachers' implicit beliefs about EL students to their explicit, self-reported, beliefs. The study found that implicit beliefs were slightly more negative while explicit beliefs were more positive (Harrison & Lakin, 2018b). It is suggested that implicit biases should be controlled for in future studies to get a more accurate representation of teacher beliefs that may be associated with teaching practices. Furthermore, additional methods (e.g., observations) and other sources of information (e.g., student, parent) may also decrease social desirability by allowing researchers to objectively capture the number of CLS SEL practices teachers are using within their classroom.

Implications for School Psychology Practice & Research

The findings from the current study suggest many important considerations for teachers, school administrators, and mental health professionals. In this section, I provide implications for practices and research based on several major findings. First, I will discuss the importance of teacher training to work with EL students. Second, I will provide implications for increasing teachers' training to implement SEL practices within the classroom. Third, I will discuss why it is important to consider teacher cognition in working toward more systemic implementation of CLS SEL practices. Finally, I will discuss opportunities to increase teacher cultural competence and improve CLS SEL practices within the general education classroom.

One major finding of this study was the association between amount of teacher training to work with EL students and the use of culturally and linguistically sustaining (CLS) social-emotional learning (SEL) strategies within the classroom. School administrators should develop and require classroom teachers attend more frequent and high-quality training on working with

EL students in the general education classroom to best support both academic and social-emotional development. Babinski and colleagues (2018) examined one such program called Developing Collaboration and Consultation Skills (DCCS), a professional development program to support the collaboration between general education and ESL/ESOL teachers by utilizing students' cultural knowledge. DCCS involves five days of professional development that covers the following domains: collaboration framework and skills, high impact instructional strategies, and approaches for incorporating families' cultural wealth. Teachers also completed ongoing instructional support that involved on-site instructional coaching from the research team every six weeks and school-based team meetings (with ESL and classroom teachers) every week (Babinski et al., 2018). Results demonstrated a positive impact of the professional development training on teachers' use of instructional strategies for EL students and an improvement in EL students' literacy when compared to control groups. Finally, an exploratory analysis demonstrated that students with the lowest English proficiency were more likely to benefit from the intervention (Babinski et al., 2018). This study demonstrates that by providing explicit teacher training that incorporates students' culture and collaboration between general education and ESL/ESOL teachers, EL students may experience improvement in academics and language proficiency.

The second major finding of the current study was the association between amount of teacher training to implement SEL practices and reported implementation of CLS SEL practices within the general education classroom. While it is important to increase the pre-service SEL training opportunities for future teachers, it is also necessary that schools utilize effective professional development training to improve teachers' knowledge of and self-efficacy in implementing SEL practices. Furthermore, teachers would benefit from enhanced knowledge about student social-

emotional development, ways to establish supportive classroom environments, and methods to incorporate SEL throughout classroom instruction (Murano et al., 2019). One example of teacher SEL training was demonstrated in a study conducted by Moazami-Goodarzi and colleagues (2021) who provided teacher training to implement an SEL program within the school. The Roundies program was developed in Finland and based on the CASEL (2020) SEL framework, to increase social-emotional competency and prevent behavioral difficulties in children three to six years old. Importantly, teachers in the program received training to implement it through eight online workshop sessions and regular face-to-face sessions to maintain training quality and fidelity of implementation. Overall, 97% of teachers were satisfied with the program and reported improvements in student social-emotional development and teacher-child relationships (Moazami-Goodarzi et al., 2021). The study demonstrates the importance of more explicit, comprehensive, and supported teacher SEL training versus a one-time workshop approach, which is typical for SEL training (Jennings & Frank, 2015). Teachers' benefit from continued support, progress monitoring, goal setting, and collaborative opportunities to practice SEL approaches (Murano et al., 2019). Finally, teacher SEL professional development may be enhanced through online training opportunities, partnerships between universities and districts, use of professional learning communities for SEL, and teacher peer coaching (Murano et al., 2019).

A third major finding of the current study was that teacher cognition appears to be associated with implementation of CLS SEL practices. More specifically, teachers with higher behavioral attitudes, higher perceived behavioral control (PBC), and higher beliefs about the motivation and engagement of EL students were associated with higher implementation. Previous research has demonstrated the link between teacher beliefs about SEL, EL students, and behavior, suggesting

that beliefs inform the decisions teachers make about which tools or practices to implement within the classroom (e.g., Collie et al., 2015; Fang, 1996; Pajares, 1992; Pettit, 2011). This study also found associations between teacher demographic characteristics (i.e., bilingualism, race) and beliefs about EL students and implementation of CLS SEL practices. Throughout the COVID-19 pandemic, there have been many concerns with teacher shortages due to teachers leaving the field earlier than anticipated. One study conducted by the National Education Association (2022) found that 55% of educators anticipated leaving or retiring earlier than anticipated due to burnout caused by the pandemic with Black and Hispanic educators being even more likely to leave. The exodus of teachers of color would leave the population of teachers even less diverse and representative of the student population, as over 80% of teachers currently identify as White (Redding, 2019). Based on the results of this study, it is important that students of color and EL students have access to teachers who have similar backgrounds to them. School psychologists can advocate for administrators to prioritize recruiting more racially and ethnically diverse teachers while simultaneously implementing policies to retain teachers of color (Redding, 2019). Schools can also preferentially hire teachers that are more equity-oriented by incorporating questions about diversity, equity, and inclusivity into the interviewing process. Finally, school psychologists can initiate trainings meant to preparing White teachers to work within culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms.

Beliefs can be shaped and reshaped by many factors, including a specific subculture (e.g., school culture), quality of preservice experience within a classroom, and the opportunity to reflect on teaching experience (Fang, 1996). Civitillo and colleagues (2018) conducted a meta-analysis to examine the effects of teacher training on pre-service teachers' beliefs on cultural diversity in education. Results suggested that to alter teacher beliefs, trainings should utilize

psychological theories (e.g., social cognitive theory; Bandura, 1997) in conjunction with theories based on multicultural education (e.g., culturally responsive teaching; Gay, 2010). The results of the meta-analysis conducted by Civitillo and colleagues (2018) indicated that experiential learning (i.e., field experience, service learning) is especially beneficial for teacher training. The findings of their study also demonstrated the importance of encouraging teachers to engage in self-reflection on cultural issues during pre-service learning and in their daily teaching practices (Civitillo et al., 2018). School psychologists are especially qualified to develop teacher professional development trainings that combine psychological and educational concepts. They can develop teacher trainings that incorporate information about of EL students, including information about inclusion within the general education classroom, L2 development, and academic motivation and engagement and encourage teachers to engage in self-reflection about potential biases they may hold.

Finally, a major implication for the current study is the implementation and use of culturally and linguistically sustaining (CLS) social-emotional learning (SEL) practices for EL students. The results of this study noted that teacher characteristics (i.e., bilingualism), teacher experience (i.e., training), and school characteristics (i.e., ESL/ESOL program) may influence CLS SEL implementation. While it is important to consider which factors influence likelihood of implementation, it is arguably more important to ensure that CLS SEL practices are implemented in all classrooms and with all students. Systemic SEL is a comprehensive approach to establish equitable learning and practice of social, emotional, and academic competencies (Mahoney et al., 2020). The process of developing systemic SEL practices involve the following steps: a) building support and plans through SEL teams, engaging stakeholders, generating awareness, and developing a shared goal; b) improving teacher SEL capacity and competency; c) promoting

SEL for students by coordinating across classrooms, schools, homes, and communities; and d) continuous improvement by collecting and utilizing implementation fidelity data (Mahoney et al., 2020).

Wisconsin has implemented an example of systemic SEL through the development of a comprehensive SEL framework that aligns with academics/career readiness, school climate, mental health, and positive behavioral interventions and supports (PBIS). Wisconsin has begun offering teacher professional learning with statewide meetings, trainings, and CASEL webinars. Furthermore, the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction (WDPI) is aligning SEL with the Model to Inform Culturally Responsible Practice to emphasize the importance of SEL for all students and engaging families and communities in culturally sustaining ways (Mahoney et al., 2020). The model encourages educators to incorporate the following practices: a) enhance awareness of one's own culture; b) examine the systemic impacts on students and families (e.g., disproportionality); c) examine personal biases toward groups of students; d) value diverse identities and worldviews; e) identify strengths within the community; f) advocate for equitable practices; g) recognize historical policies and practices that have disadvantaged certain populations; h) use practices and curriculum that allow every student to see themselves and their culture represented (Evers, 2017). Through the methods utilized in CASEL's systemic SEL, districts can work toward supporting and monitoring the use of CLS SEL practices within every general education classroom. School psychologists can advocate for, and actively work to create a school environment in which the identities of all children are respected and represented in curriculum, classroom materials, and activities. Teachers can create a classroom culture of cultural pluralism in which they integrate age-appropriate and culturally relevant SEL material and conversations into daily instruction. Finally, school psychologists can encourage

administrators and staff to create a school culture in which all caregivers are welcome and listened to. By asking about and respecting families' cultural perspectives and needs, schools can integrate culturally and linguistically sustaining pedagogies (both academic and social-emotional) and build a community of cultural pluralism (e.g., Adams & Richie, 2017; Cho et al., 2019).

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Appendix A: Institutional Review Board Exemption Notification



Institutional Review Board

uwm.edu/irb
irbinfo@uwm.edu
414-662-3544

Date: September 14, 2021

To: Kyongboon Kwon

Dept: Educational Psychology

CC: Madeline Bliske - Co-Inv (Full Access w/Notify)

IRB #: 22.046

Title: Teacher Beliefs and the Implementation of Social Emotional Learning Practices for English Learner Students

The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Institutional Review Board has granted your protocol Exempt Status under Category 2 as governed by 45 CFR 46.104(d).

This exemption determination is valid for three years and will expire on **September 13, 2024**. Before the expiration date, you will receive an email explaining how to either keep the study open or close it. If the study is completed before the expiration date, you may notify the IRB by sending an email to irbinfo@uwm.edu.

Any proposed changes to the protocol must be reviewed by the IRB before implementation, unless the change is specifically necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects.

It is your responsibility to:

- promptly report unanticipated problems to the IRB
- maintain proper documentation of study records
- ensure that all study staff receive appropriate training as outlined in the protocol
- adhere to the policies and guidelines set forth by the IRB, UWM, and the UW System, and to all applicable state and federal laws

Contact the IRB office if you have any further questions. Thank you for your cooperation and best wishes for a successful project.

Appendix B: Study Survey

If you have not done so already, please review the consent form here:

Do you consent to participate in this study?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Would you like to enter the raffle to win a prize? Your response will remain anonymous.

- a. Yes
- b. No

Welcome to a survey for my doctoral research at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee. The survey will ask you questions about your thoughts, beliefs, and knowledge associated with social emotional learning (SEL) and English Learner (EL) students. You will also be asked to report the frequency with which you implement different SEL practices within your classroom. It also includes brief questions about demographic information (gender, race) and professional experiences and training associated with SEL and EL students.

The survey will take about 8-10 minutes. Your responses are anonymous, and you can skip any questions you are not comfortable answering.

At the end of the survey, you will be provided a link that will prompt you to enter an email address. This is completely optional, will be stored independently from your survey responses, and will be used to enter you into a drawing for a \$10 Amazon gift card.

Thank you for your participation!

Social- emotional learning (SEL) refers to instruction in which students learn and apply skills and knowledge related to identity, understanding/managing emotions, and maintaining supportive relationships. SEL instruction may be implemented through a specific curriculum (e.g., Second Step, PATHS) or through less structured activities (e.g., reading about emotions, teaching children relaxation strategies, discussing how to handle conflict with peers, instruction on cultural identity and acceptance).

English learner (EL)* refers to students whose primary (home) language is not English. EL students may or may not receive language services based on the results of an English proficiency assessment.

*When answering questions about EL students, please answer based on your experience with EL students in your own classroom

1. Have you been a general education teacher within the last 5 years?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
2. Have you taught students between grades K4-5th in the last 5 years?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
3. Have you had at least one English Learner (EL) student in your class in the last 5 years?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
4. Please describe your gender identity

- a. Man
 - b. Woman
 - c. Another gender identity not listed here (please specify _____)
5. Which of the following best describes your racial/ethnic identity?
- a. Asian
 - b. Black or African American
 - c. Hispanic or Latino
 - d. Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
 - e. White
 - f. Biracial or Multiracial
 - g. Not listed
 - h. Prefer not to answer
6. What is your dominant (primary) language?
- a. English
 - b. Spanish
 - c. Chinese (Cantonese, Mandarin, etc.)
 - d. Somali
 - e. Vietnamese
 - f. Arabic
 - g. Hmong
 - h. Other
7. Are you fluent in another language?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
- If yes, which other language(s) are you fluent in?
-
8. Counting this school year, how many years have you been a teacher (including part-time teaching)? *slide or enter in textbox
Years of Experience 0 – 5 – 10 – 15 – 20 – 25 – 30 – 35 – 40
9. Which best describes your current/most recent school?
- a. Rural
 - b. Urban
 - c. Suburban
10. Which best describes your current/most recent school?
- a. Public
 - b. Private
 - c. Charter School
 - d. Other
11. Please select your current/most recent grade taught:
- a. K4/PreK
 - b. K5/Kindergarten

- c. 1st grade
- d. 2nd grade
- e. 3rd grade
- f. 4th grade
- g. 5th grade

12. Please indicate which of the following are offered or implemented at your current/most recent school (select all that apply):

- a. Dual Language/Bilingual Program
- b. ESL/ESOL Services
- c. Response to Intervention (RtI) or Multitiered Systems of Support (MTSS)
- d. Positive Behavior Intervention and Supports (PBIS)
- e. School-Wide SEL Curriculum/Program

13. Which, if any, of the following describe your training experience in working with EL students? (select all that apply):

- a. Personal research (i.e., done on own time, independent research, reading)
- b. Pre-service training (i.e., during college coursework, student teaching)
- c. Professional development (i.e., training modules, classes, workshops, conferences)
- d. Certification or formal training (i.e., ESL endorsement, TESOL certification)

14. Which, if any, of the following describe your training experience in implementing SEL practices? (select all that apply):

- a. Personal research (i.e., done on own time, independent research, reading)
- b. Pre-service training (i.e., during college coursework, student teaching)
- c. Professional development (i.e., training modules, classes, workshops, conferences)
- d. Certification or formal training (i.e., SEL certificate, SEL specialist)

15. In your school, are the classroom teachers responsible for teaching a specific SEL curriculum (e.g., SecondStep, PATHS)

- a. Yes
- b. No
- c. Unsure

16. How many EL students are/were enrolled in your most recent class? *slide or enter in textbox

of ELs* 0 – 5 – 10 – 15 – 20 – 25 – 30

17. Approximately how many EL students have you had in your classes throughout your teaching career? *slide to approximate #

of ELs* 0 – 10 – 20 – 30 – 40 – 50 – 60 – 70 – 80 – 90 – 100

18. Please indicate the native languages of EL students whom you have taught during your teaching career (select all that apply):

- a. Spanish
- b. Chinese (Cantonese, Mandarin, etc.)
- c. Somali
- d. Vietnamese

- e. Arabic
- f. Hmong
- g. Other

For the following statements, teaching SEL to EL students refers to SEL practices that are used with the entire class, but that are adapted/modified for EL students:

19. Teaching SEL to EL students is enjoyable

- a. Do not agree at all
- b. Agree slightly
- c. Agree moderately
- d. Agree very much
- e. Agree entirely

20. Teaching SEL to EL students is overwhelming

- a. Do not agree at all
- b. Agree slightly
- c. Agree moderately
- d. Agree very much
- e. Agree entirely

21. Teaching SEL to EL students is satisfying

- a. Do not agree at all
- b. Agree slightly
- c. Agree moderately
- d. Agree very much
- e. Agree entirely

22. Teaching SEL to EL students is stressful

- a. Do not agree at all
- b. Agree slightly
- c. Agree moderately
- d. Agree very much
- e. Agree entirely

23. Teaching SEL to EL students would decrease problem behaviors of EL students in the classroom

- a. Not at all likely
- b. Slightly likely
- c. Moderately likely
- d. Very likely
- e. Extremely likely

24. Teaching SEL to EL students would positively impact the academic performance of EL students

- a. Not at all likely
- b. Slightly likely

- c. Moderately likely
- d. Very likely
- e. Extremely likely

25. Teaching SEL to EL students would take time away from importance academic instruction

- a. Not at all likely
- b. Slightly likely
- c. Moderately likely
- d. Very likely
- e. Extremely likely

26. Teaching SEL to EL students would improve EL students' sense of belonging

- a. Not at all likely
- b. Slightly likely
- c. Moderately likely
- d. Very likely
- e. Extremely likely

27. Validity Check #1: $4 + 4 = ?$ Although you are a teacher who knows basic addition, please select 8 so we know that you are paying attention

- a. 8
- b. 22

28. How likely is it that the following people/groups think you should teach SEL to EL students?

	Not at all likely	Slightly likely	Moderately likely	Very likely	Extremely likely
School administrators (Principal, Superintendent, etc.)					
Support Staff/Pupil Services (School psychologist, Social worker, Counselor, ESL teacher)					
School Board of Education					
Parents					

29. Most classroom teachers teach SEL to EL students

- a. Do not agree at all
- b. Agree slightly
- c. Agree moderately
- d. Agree very much

- e. Agree entirely
30. Most classroom teachers in my school teach SEL to EL students
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
- 31.
32. How often do you think other classroom teachers in your school teach SEL to EL students?
- a. Never
 - b. Once a month or less
 - c. Once a week
 - d. A few days a week
 - e. Everyday
33. In general, how many classroom teachers (in the United States) do you think teach SEL to EL students
- a. None
 - b. Less than half
 - c. About half
 - d. More than half
 - e. Almost all
34. I can easily adapt my lesson plans to teach SEL to EL students
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
35. I can communicate effectively to teach SEL to EL students
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
36. I can decide on the most effective way to teach SEL to EL students
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely

37. I can provide appropriate support when EL students are struggling with SEL content/competencies
- Do not agree at all
 - Agree slightly
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree very much
 - Agree entirely
38. What teaching SEL to EL students, I believe I will have access to resources in the students' native language(s)
- Do not agree at all
 - Agree slightly
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree very much
 - Agree entirely
39. I believe I will have instructional time to dedicate to teaching SEL to EL students
- Do not agree at all
 - Agree slightly
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree very much
 - Agree entirely
40. I have too many students in my classroom to effectively teach SEL to EL students
- Do not agree at all
 - Agree slightly
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree very much
 - Agree entirely
41. I believe I will have access to a bilingual staff member (e.g., ESL teacher, paraprofessional, pupil services/support) who can help me teach SEL to EL students
- Do not agree at all
 - Agree slightly
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree very much
 - Agree entirely
42. The inclusion of EL students in the general education classroom creates a positive educational atmosphere
- Do not agree at all
 - Agree slightly
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree very much
 - Agree entirely

43. EL students require too much of my time and attention
- Do not agree at all
 - Agree slightly
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree very much
 - Agree entirely
44. It is feasible to meet the need of EL students and non-EL students within the same classroom
- Do not agree at all
 - Agree slightly
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree very much
 - Agree entirely
45. EL students should avoid using their native language while at school
- Do not agree at all
 - Agree slightly
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree very much
 - Agree entirely
46. EL students should be encouraged to use only English outside of school to enhance English proficiency
- Do not agree at all
 - Agree slightly
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree very much
 - Agree entirely
47. EL students learn best when they are discouraged from using their native language in the classroom
- Do not agree at all
 - Agree slightly
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree very much
 - Agree entirely
48. EL students are likely to pay attention to what I am teaching
- Do not agree at all
 - Agree slightly
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree very much
 - Agree entirely
49. EL students show interest in learning academic content
- Do not agree at all

- b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
50. EL students are likely to ask questions during class
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
51. EL students are likely to give up when struggling with difficult educational material
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
52. EL students have a hard time adapting to social/behavioral expectations of the classroom (e.g., raising hand, lining up)
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
53. EL students show empathy and compassion for their classmates
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
54. EL students have a hard time with perspective taking (i.e., taking another's point of view)
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
55. EL students have a hard time getting along with their peers
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely

56. Validity Check #2: Roses are red, violets are... For the purposes of this attention check, please select blue
- a. Purple
 - b. Blue
57. EL students are likely to be socially isolated or withdrawn
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
58. EL students tend to have many peer conflicts
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
59. EL students are likely to use words to express their thoughts and feelings
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
60. EL students have a lot of self-confidence
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
61. EL students are good at identifying their emotions
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
62. EL students are likely to have anger outbursts within the classroom
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much

- e. Agree entirely
63. EL students have difficulty controlling negative emotions (e.g., anger, sadness, anxiety)
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
64. EL students have difficulty staying focused and maintaining attention
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
65. EL students are likely to engage in risky or unsafe behavior
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
66. EL students are likely to take responsibility for their actions
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
67. EL students are likely to damage or take classroom supplies/materials
- a. Do not agree at all
 - b. Agree slightly
 - c. Agree moderately
 - d. Agree very much
 - e. Agree entirely
68. I encourage EL students to incorporate their culture, language, and personal experiences in SEL lessons/activities
- a. Never
 - b. Sometimes
 - c. About half the time
 - d. Most of the time
 - e. Always
69. I encourage EL students to use social and emotional vocabulary in their native language

- a. Never
- b. Sometimes
- c. About half the time
- d. Most of the time
- e. Always

70. I plan SEL activities in my classroom so that EL students can participate fully

- a. Never
- b. Sometimes
- c. About half the time
- d. Most of the time
- e. Always

71. I post labels or posters in my classroom in multiple languages

- a. Never
- b. Sometimes
- c. About half the time
- d. Most of the time
- e. Always

72. I utilize materials (e.g., books, pictures, toys, videos) that reflect the cultures and languages of all of the students in my classroom

- a. Never
- b. Sometimes
- c. About half the time
- d. Most of the time
- e. Always

73. I use visual supports (e.g., pictures, videos, graphic organizers) and hand gestures to ensure EL students understand SEL instruction

- a. Never
- b. Sometimes
- c. About half the time
- d. Most of the time
- e. Always

74. I send home SEL family resources/homework in the student's native language

- a. Never
- b. Sometimes
- c. About half the time
- d. Most of the time
- e. Always

75. I ask EL parents about discipline and social/emotional expectations within their home

- a. Never
- b. Sometimes

- c. About half the time
 - d. Most of the time
 - e. Always
76. I reach out to the ESL/ESOL teacher for support or ideas on how to best promote social and emotional development for EL students
- a. Never
 - b. Sometimes
 - c. About half the time
 - d. Most of the time
 - e. Always
77. I learn words or phrases in the native language of EL students within my classroom
- a. Never
 - b. Sometimes
 - c. About half the time
 - d. Most of the time
 - e. Always
78. I acknowledge or celebrate the cultural traditions or holidays of the students within my classroom
- a. Never
 - b. Sometimes
 - c. About half the time
 - d. Most of the time
 - e. Always
79. I make an effort to communicate with EL students' parents in their native language
- a. Never
 - b. Sometimes
 - c. About half the time
 - d. Most of the time
 - e. Always
80. Would you like to enter the raffle to win a prize? Your response will still remain anonymous
- a. Yes
 - b. No

Appendix C: Compensation Notification Email

Congratulations!

You were selected as one of the 25 teachers to receive a \$10 Amazon gift card for participating in my research study titled “Teacher Beliefs and the Implementation of Social Emotional Learning Practices for English Learner Students”.

Please keep an eye out for an email directly from Amazon which will include your \$10 eGift card and will state that it is from Madeline Bliske. It will also include a message thanking you for participating in the survey. This is to make sure you know that it is a real eGift card and not a phishing scam.

Thank you for your participation and enjoy your prize!

Madeline Bliske, MS
Educational Psychology
School Psychology Doctoral Student
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
mnbliske@uwm.edu

Appendix D: Statistical Plots

Figure F1

Distribution of Behavioral Beliefs (i.e., Behavioral Attitudes)

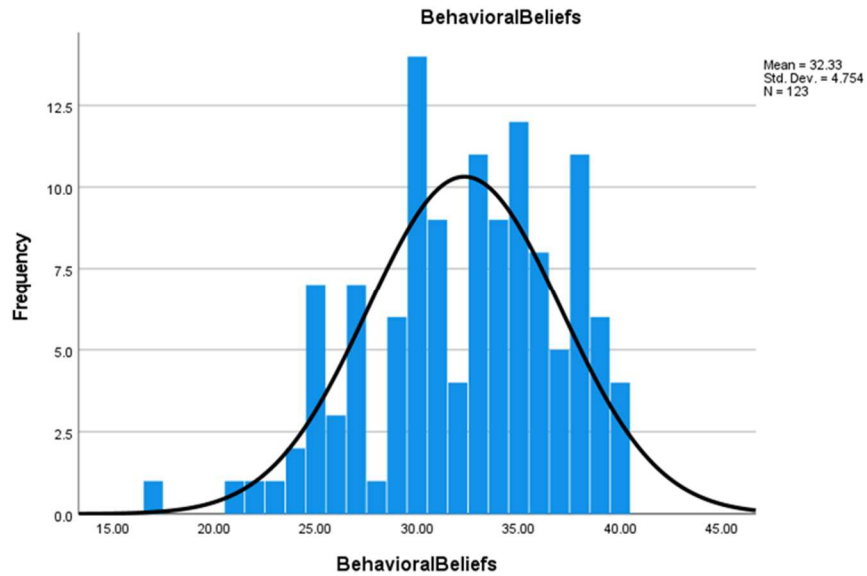


Figure F2

Distribution of Normative Beliefs (i.e., Subjective Norms)

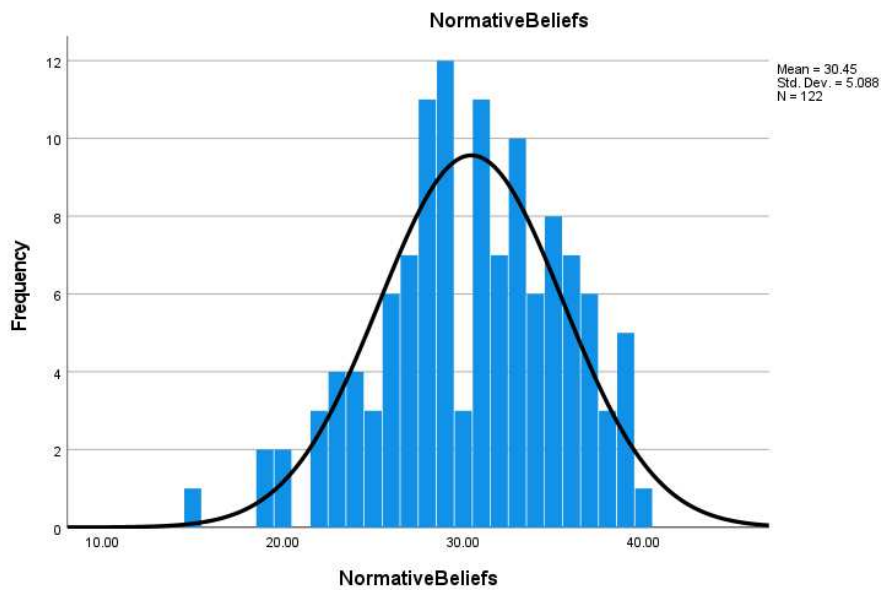


Figure F3

Distribution of Control Beliefs (i.e., Perceived Behavioral Control)

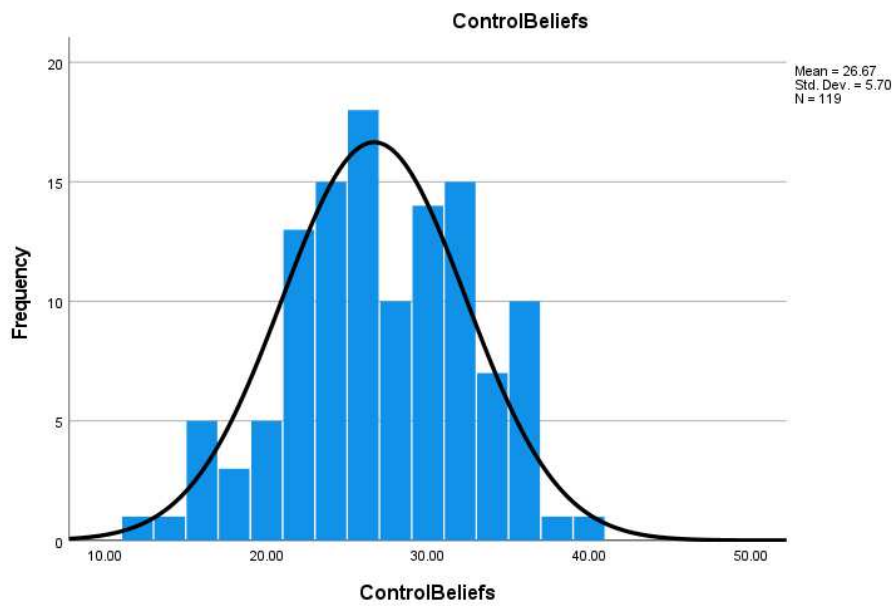


Figure F4

Distribution of Attitudes Toward Inclusion (ATI)

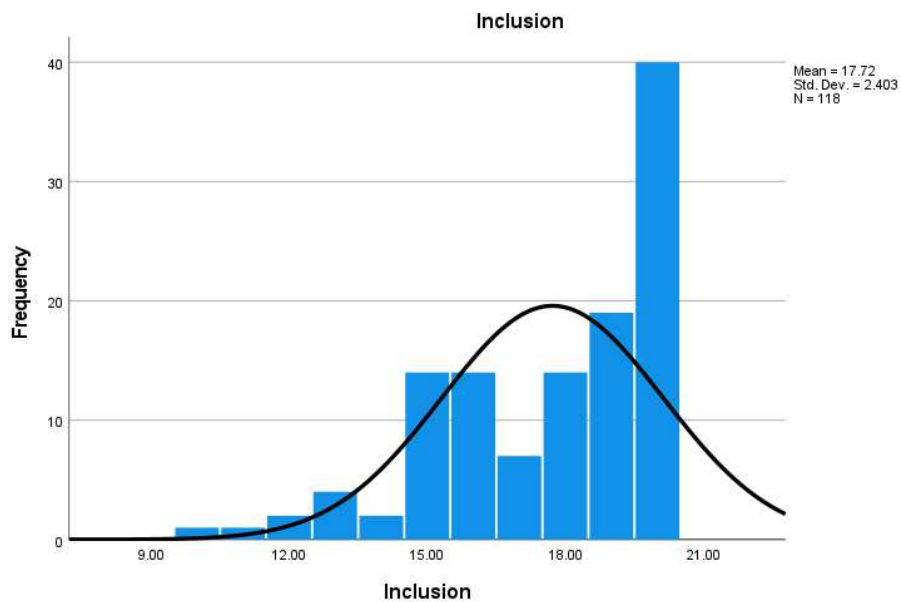


Figure F5
Distribution of Language Use/L2 Acquisition Beliefs

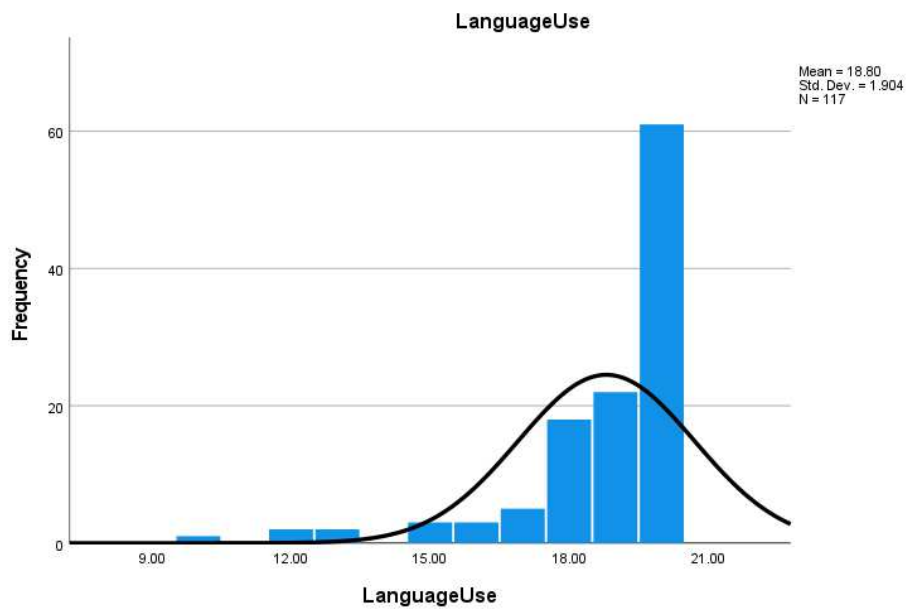


Figure F6
Distribution of Motivation and Engagement Beliefs

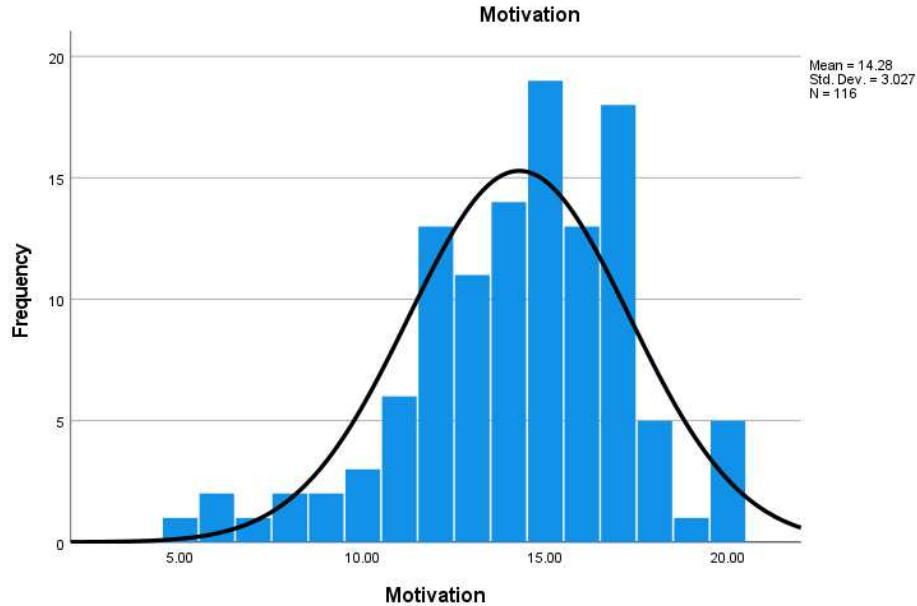


Table F1

Collinearity Statistics for Research Questions Two

	Partial Correlation	Tolerance	VIF
Behavioral Attitudes	.20	.99	1.00
Subjective Norms	.02	1.00	1.00
PBC	.16	.93	1.07

Figure F7

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residuals for Research Question Two with

Dependent Variable – Total CLS SEL Practices

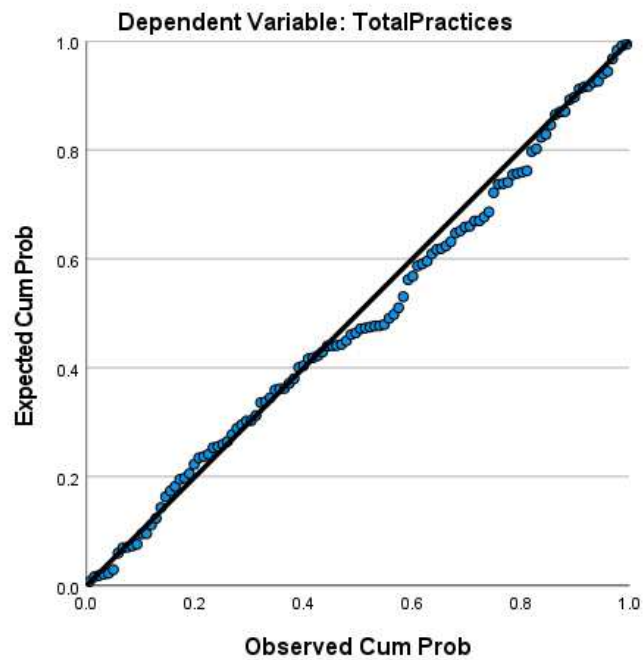


Figure F8

Scatterplot of Regression Standardized Residuals and Predicted Value for Research Question

Two with Dependent Variable – Total CLS SEL Practices

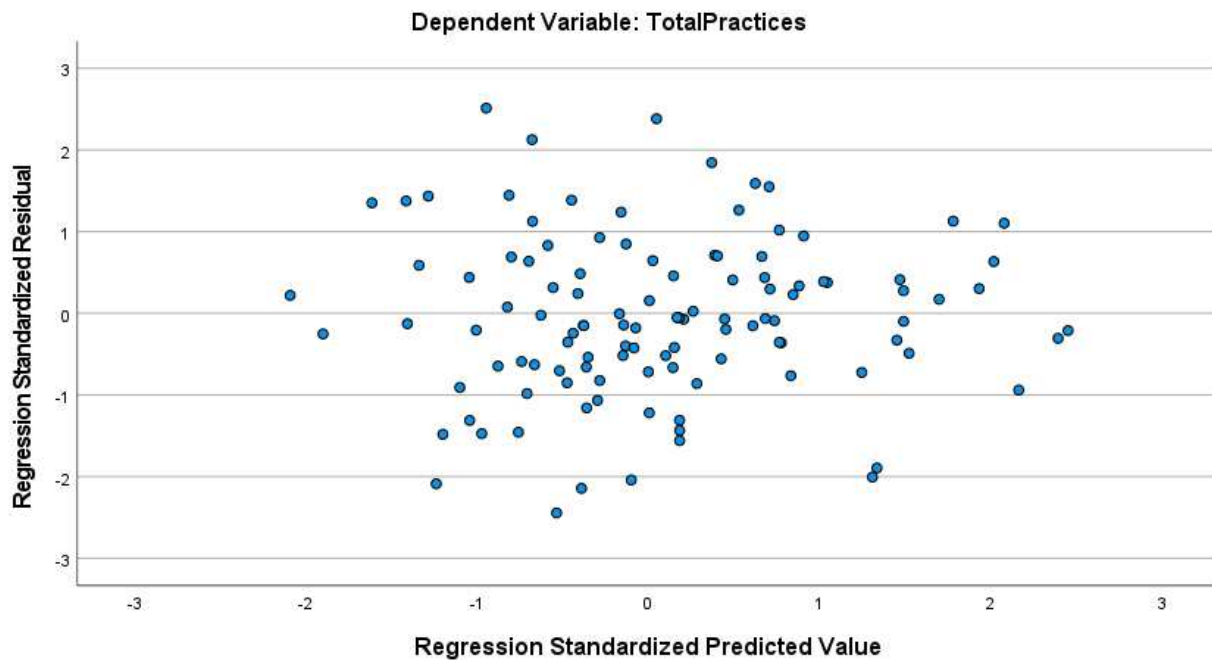


Table F2

Collinearity Statistics for Research Questions Three

	Partial Correlation	Tolerance	VIF
Beh x ATI	.100	.89	1.13
Norm x ATI	-.17	.95	1.05
PBC x ATI	.14	.87	1.15

Note. PCB = Perceived Behavioral Control; ATI = Attitudes Toward Inclusion

Figure F9

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residuals for Research Question Three with
Dependent Variable – Total CLS SEL Practices

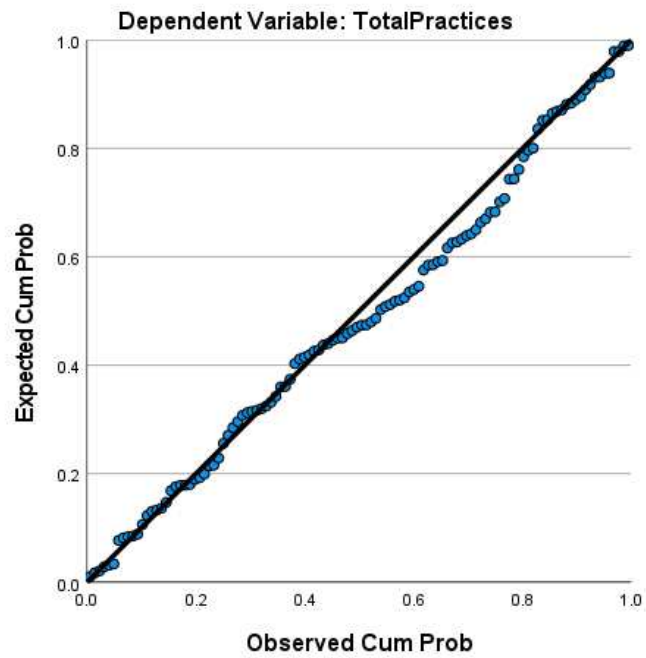


Figure F10

Scatterplot of Regression Standardized Residuals and Predicted Value for Research Question

Two with Dependent Variable – Total CLS SEL Practices

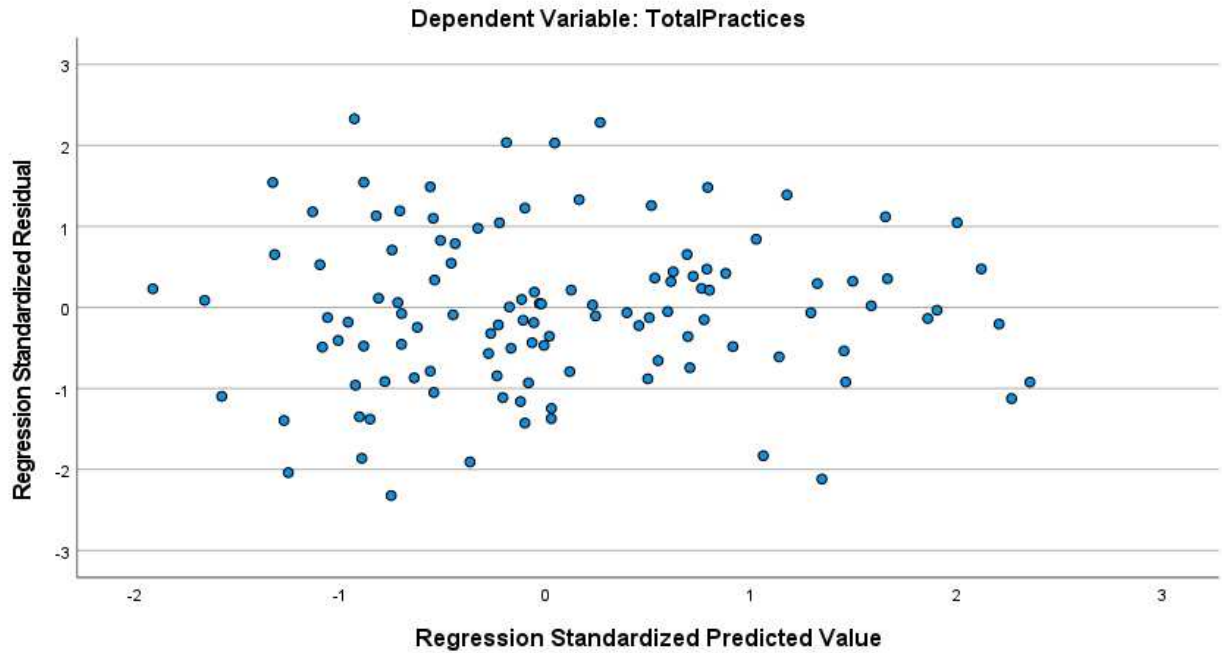


Table F3

Collinearity Statistics for Research Questions Four

	Partial Correlation	Tolerance	VIF
Beh x Lang	.06	.93	1.08
Norm x Lang	.02	.81	1.24
PBC x Lang	.11	.92	1.09

Note. PCB = Perceived Behavioral Control; Lang = Language Use/L2 Acquisition

Figure F11

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residuals for Research Question Four with
Dependent Variable – Total CLS SEL Practices

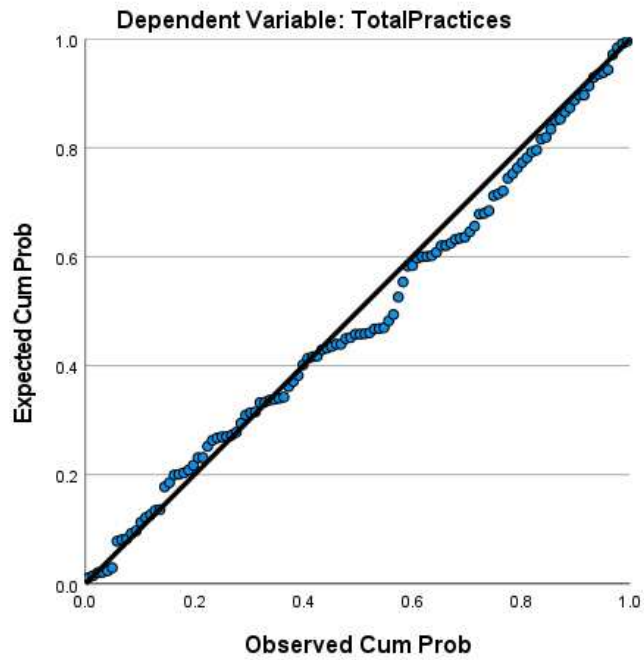


Figure F12

Scatterplot of Regression Standardized Residuals and Predicted Value for Research Question

Four with Dependent Variable – Total CLS SEL Practices

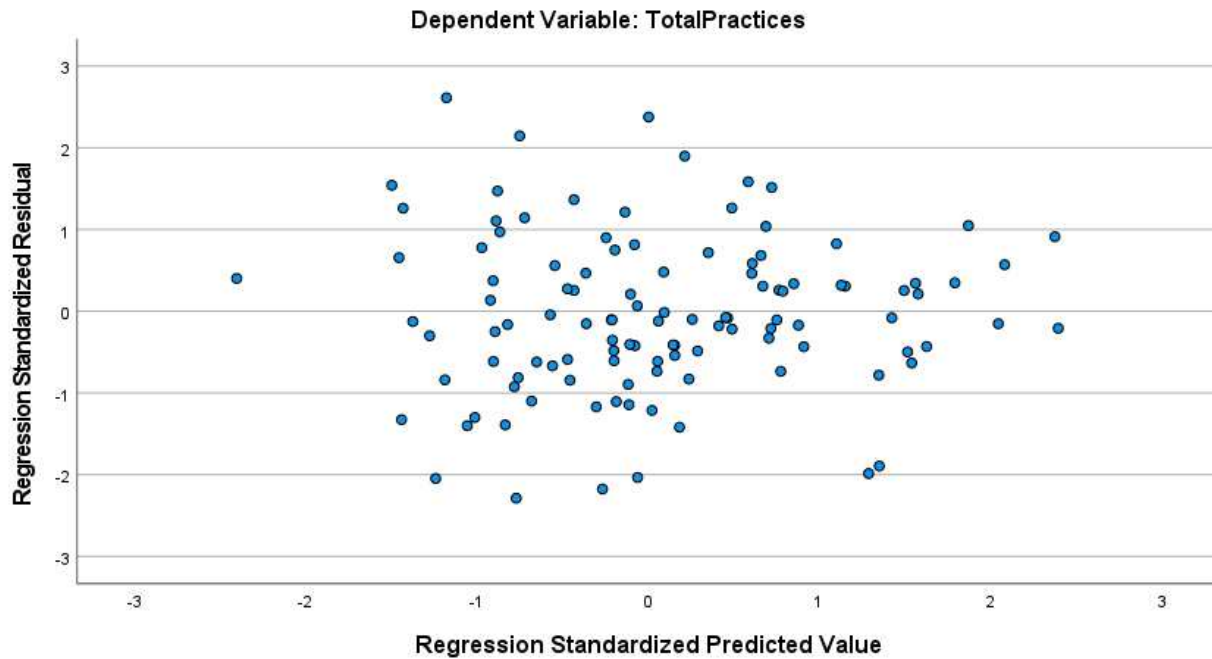


Table F4

Collinearity Statistics for Research Questions Five

	Partial Correlation	Tolerance	VIF
Beh x Mot	.13	.93	1.08
Norm x Mot	-.03	.94	1.06
PBC x Mot	.04	.91	1.09

Note. PCB = Perceived Behavioral Control; Mot = Motivation and Engagement

Figure F13

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residuals for Research Question Five with
Dependent Variable – Total CLS SEL Practices

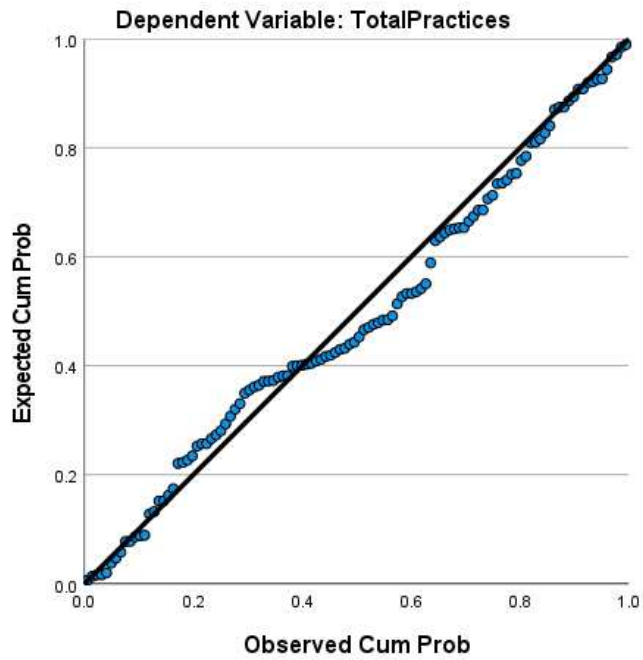


Figure F14

Scatterplot of Regression Standardized Residuals and Predicted Value for Research Question

Five with Dependent Variable – Total CLS SEL Practices

