2023

THE LIVED EXPERIENCES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' IMPLEMENTATION OF SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL LEARNING: TRANSITIONS FROM IN-PERSON AND REMOTE SETTINGS

Clyde A. Braswell

THE LIVED EXPERIENCES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' IMPLEMENTATION OF SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL LEARNING: TRANSITIONS FROM IN-PERSON AND REMOTE SETTINGS

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

to the faculty of the

DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATIVE AND INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

of

THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

at

ST. JOHN'S UNIVERSITY
New York
by
Clyde A. Braswell

Date Submitted November 7, 2022 Date Approved January 31, 2023

Clyde A. Braswell	Dr. Joan Birringer-Haig

ABSTRACT

THE LIVED EXPERIENCES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' IMPLEMENTATION OF SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL LEARNING: TRANSITIONS FROM IN-PERSON AND REMOTE SETTINGS

Clyde A. Braswell

This qualitative study examined elementary school teachers' transitions from in-person to remote social-emotional learning during the COVID-19 pandemic in a northeastern US public school district. This study addressed the following central research question using Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory and CASEL's Framework (2021) for social and emotional learning: What were teachers' lived experiences while teaching social-emotional learning (SEL) during both remote and in-person instruction in elementary school throughout the Covid-19 pandemic? Eight teachers from one suburban elementary school shared their experiences meeting students' social-emotional needs during the pandemic. This study examined teacher perspectives on social-emotional learning in in-person and remote settings during the COVID-19 pandemic. Interview questions provided narrative inquiry study answers. According to interviews, teachers implemented social and emotional learning with uncertainty, anxiety, and fear. Teachers believed they could teach social and emotional learning remotely and in person despite the pandemic because of their perseverance, awareness, and social interactions. They did

this by relying on their colleagues for support and encouragement, realizing the importance of their work with students, and allowing students to express their emotions and feelings while learning remotely and in person.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation, this labor of love and triumph, to the memory of my mother Nellie Gray Braswell. My mother was a strong woman who believed in me and kept the faith when I lacked faith in myself. I watched you raise your children, grandchildren, and great-grandchildren, but when God decided to call you home that was the lowest point in my life. I knew I had to exhibit those qualities you expected to see in me although I did not live up to your expectations as a youth. Thank you for pouring in me. I hope you are proud of me "mommy." I also want to thank my father Clyde. Despite those things that happened in our life, you are my father and I love you.

I also want to dedicate this dissertation to my wife Michelle and my son Adrian. Michelle you pushed me to be great and to persevere through this journey. Your belief gave me the strength and fortitude that I needed and I could not have completed this dissertation without your endless support and sacrifice. Adrian, you are my shining light in the middle of darkness. When I started this journey, I wanted you to see the struggles, challenges and the rewards that come with hard work and commitment. If you believe in yourself and work hard to be the best version of you, then great things will happen. Live your dream!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I want to acknowledge the vision our Heavenly Father allowed me to see when I was in fifth grade that I would earn a doctoral degree from St. John's University. Only You, Father God, knew what was meant for me before I knew.

I want to thank those individuals who supported me during this journey. Your support has been instrumental and goes without question. I would like to thank my chair, Dr. Birringer-Haig, for encouraging me, challenging me, and helping me stay focused throughout this journey toward obtaining this prestigious degree. Our virtual meetings provided knowledge, guidance, inspiration, and motivation. I am here because of you.

I want to thank the participants who agreed to participate in this study. Your responses provided the framework and outcomes that could change and practice and be the information all teachers need to meet the social and emotional learning needs of all students.

Finally, I want to thank my committee Dr. Parnther and Dr. Aquino for agreeing to serve as committee members for my defense. Your feedback has been invaluable, and for that I want to thank you so much.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The worldwide educational systems have been impacted by the closure of educational institutions as a preventive measure against the spread of COVID-19. While many educational institutions worldwide have begun to shift their learning to an online format, several factors were thought to influence the quality of remote or online learning, such as teacher performance, students' knowledge, and skills (Duraku & Hoxha, 2020). More than one billion students were affected by the closure of schools and universities worldwide due to countries' preventive measures against the spread of COVID-19 (UNESCO, 2020). COVID-19's spread has also caused fear, anxiety, and other concerns among citizens in various parts of the world, including educational groups such as students, teachers, and parents (NCIRD, 2020).

In the 2020 report, *Education in a Pandemic: The Disparate Impacts of COVID-19 on America's Students* (OCR, 2021), eleven observations were conducted on how widely and inequitably the pandemic appears to have impacted America's students during this time. This report tells a part of a developing story by offering a series of snapshots from mid-March 2020, when many schools shifted abruptly to remote learning, to mid-April 2020 (NYSED, 2020). The observations and their impact are shown in Table 1. These disparities are especially staggering for students of color who experience inequities with fewer opportunities and poorer outcomes. Throughout the 2020-2021 school year, educators, parents, and administrators across the country continued to cite social and emotional well-being as significant challenges facing their students (Brundin, 2021), especially those learning from home (Verlenden, 2021).

Table 1

Pandemic Impact on American Students (2020)

Observations	Pandemic impact
Observation 1 (K-12)	The pandemic appears to have hampered academic progress and widened existing disparities.
Observation 2 (K-12)	For many students of color in public schools, COVID-19 appears to have exacerbated access and opportunity disparities.
Observation 3 (K-12)	Even before the pandemic, many ESL students struggled to participate equally in class while simultaneously mastering grade-level content.
Observation 4 (K-12)	COVID-19 has significantly disrupted many elementary and secondary school students with disabilities' education and related aids and services needed to support academic progress and prevent regression.
Observation 5 (K-12)	During the pandemic, LGBT+ students in elementary and secondary schools were at risk for anxiety and stress.
Observation 6 (K-12 and postsecondary)	Nearly all students faced mental health issues during the pandemic, and many lost access to school-based services and support.
Observation 7 (K-12 and postsecondary)	Increased risks of sexual harassment, abuse, and violence.
Observation 8 (K-12 and postsecondary)	Students and communities have long suffered from identity-based harassment and violence.
Observation 9 (postsecondary)	In particular, students of color, students with disabilities, and caregivers face new challenges due to COVID-19.
Observation 10 (postsecondary)	Since the pandemic began, many colleges and universities that disproportionately serve students of color and low-income students have seen enrollment declines.
Observation 11 (postsecondary)	COVID-19 causes significant hardships and other barriers for disabled students in higher education.

Rural and high-poverty school districts faced especially stark challenges early in the pandemic to maintain one-on-one contact with specific students and regular check-ins

between teachers and students in a virtual setting (Hodgman, 2021). School districts had to make many difficult decisions on how to deliver instruction during the 2020-2021 school year amid the ongoing pandemic (Hamilton, Diliberti, and Kaufman, 2020), including the development of all-remote synchronous or asynchronous learning, partial hybrid in-person and remote school attendance, and reduced class sizes. Despite best efforts, each model represents an interruption of the regular in-person year-round school, including eliminating many opportunities for normal social interaction and social activities.

Researchers have discussed the adverse effects on student academic learning during this period. The impact of school closures magnified the effects on students' social-emotional learning (SEL). Schools are the de facto mental health system for many children and adolescents, providing mental health services to 57% of adolescents who need care (Terada, 2020). Research conducted by Dorn, Hancock, Sarakatsannis, and Viruleg (2020) estimated a dramatic effect on the existing achievement gaps due to the shutdowns caused by COVID-19. Dorn et al. (2020) illustrated students' potential significant learning loss based on an average of 3 – 4 months of learning loss with remote learning, 7 – 11 months with low-quality remote learning, and 12 -14 months with no instruction. The authors emphasized that Black and Hispanic students are at a greater risk for learning loss due to a shortage of resources at home and additional responsibilities based on economic needs that interfere with attention to schoolwork.

Despite the fact that all types of students suffered from learning loss, some groups were disproportionately harmed. Students of color and students from low-income

families suffered the most (Booker et al., 2021). In math and reading, students in the majority of Black schools finished the school year six months behind their peers, whereas students in majority-White schools finished the school year four months behind in math and three months behind in reading, respectively (Same et al., 2018). According to the most recent National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), Black and Latinx students nationwide continued to lag behind their White peers on the eighth-grade math assessment by 32 points (on a 500-point scale) for Black students (260 to 292) and 24 points (on a 500-point scale) for Latinx students (268 to 292), respectively. Fifty-nine fourth-grade reading scores show a similar pattern, with Black students scoring 26 points lower than White students (204 to 230) and Latinx students (209 to 230) scoring 21 points lower than White students (Southern Education Foundation. 2020).

According to the McKinsey and Company report, students in predominantly low-income schools and urban areas also suffered greater learning losses during the pandemic than their peers in high-income rural and suburban schools (Hancock, Sarakatsannis, and Viruleg, 2021). A published Pew Research Center examination of 2015 U.S. Census Bureau data shows that 15% of U.S. homes with school-age children lack access to a high-speed internet connection. Only 6% of households with children ages 6 to 17 and an annual income of less than $30,000 have a high-speed internet connection at home, compared to 35% of homes with school-age children ages 6 to 17 and an annual income of $75,000 or more (Auxier & Anderson, 2020). Broadband gaps are especially noticeable in Black and Hispanic families with school-aged children, especially those with low incomes. In a survey by Pew Research Center (2018), about one-in-five

teenagers aged 13 to 17 (17%) said they could not complete homework assignments on a regular or irregular basis due to an absence of reliable access to a computer or internet connection.

For this reason, Black teens and those from lower-income families are more likely to say they cannot complete homework assignments (Auxier & Anderson, 2020). According to the same Pew Research Center survey, one-quarter of Black teens said they cannot complete homework assignments regularly or irregularly due to a lack of reliable access to a computer or internet connection, compared to 13 percent of white and 17 percent of Hispanic teens. Teens with a family income of less than $30,000 were also more likely to say this (24 percent vs. 9%) than teens with a family income of more than $75,000 yearly (Auxier & Anderson, 2020). Furthermore, one out of every ten teenagers (12%) said they use public Wi-Fi to do schoolwork regularly or irregularly because they do not have access to the internet at home (Auxier & Anderson, 2020).

In a study conducted by Agostinelli et al. (2020), as a baseline, measured the effects of the pandemic on ninth graders' learning across the socioeconomic spectrum and simulated how these effects will affect educational progress as the children progress through high school. For ninth-graders in the poorest neighborhoods, the loss of skills due to remote learning resulted in a half-point drop in the standard four-point grade point average. A child who had received straight Bs before the pandemic would now receive Cs in half of their subjects (Agostinelli et al., 2020). The researchers also discovered no learning losses in affluent neighborhoods. In a study published in 2021 by Dominque et al., they looked at oral reading fluency in grades 1-3 and discovered that in the spring of

2020, the development of reading fluency slowed significantly. By the fall, students' reading fluency had returned to normal levels, but the near-average gains were insufficient to make up for the spring's losses. Because there was no growth in the spring and summer, students in second and third grades were about a third of a year behind where they should be in terms of expected reading development in the fall of 2020. According to the researchers, students in historically low-performing districts are also falling behind at a faster rate.

Students of all ages have suffered socially and emotionally due to these demands and pressures. In a recent survey of 16,370 parents from every state in the United States, McKinsey and Company (2021) found that 35 percent of parents were very or highly alarmed about their child's mental health, with a similar percentage concerned about their child's social and emotional well-being. Since the pandemic outbreak began, approximately 80 percent of parents have expressed some level of concern about their child's mental health, social and emotional health, and development (Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights, 2020). Parents' concerns about their children's mental health span grade levels, though they are slightly lower for parents of students in the early elementary school years.

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, schools have fundamentally altered how staff, students, families, and communities interact. Schools quickly embraced distance learning and equitable academic, social, and emotional teaching and learning delivery. As schools began planning for school opening in the fall of September 2020, states developed guidance and support to assist districts and schools in navigating students' and adults'

academic, social, emotional, and physical health, with a particular emphasis on the most vulnerable and disenfranchised members of society. The task assigned to the Board of Regents and Department of Health was to develop a framework to assist schools and school districts in planning for the return of school in the fall, whether instruction occurs in person, remotely, or through a combination of the two.

To provide a framework for schools and districts to reopen, the Board of Regents and Department of Health afforded districts the flexibility they needed to develop and implement creative solutions to their unique, local circumstances, as well as a description of reopening actions that schools must take and those that are recommended best practices to consider (NYS Department of Health & NYS, the Reimagine. Education Advisory Council, 2020). Between June 15 and June 24, 2020, the Board of Regents convened four regional Task Force meetings, all of which were held virtually. More than 350 experts and stakeholders from the health and education fields attended each regional meeting. In addition, more than 1,650 parents, students, teachers, administrators, school board members, and stakeholders from across New York State attended and gave valuable feedback. The summary of the guidance document's provisions included Health and Safety, Nutrition, Attendance, Chronic Absenteeism, Technology and Connectivity, Teaching and Learning, Special Education, Bilingual and World Languages, and Social-Emotional Learning. This guidance was intended for all public and private (both secular and non-secular) elementary, middle, and high schools that are authorized to provide in-person instruction. In addition, school districts, boards of cooperative educational

services (BOCES), charter schools, and private schools were to develop and submit plans for reopening and operating to the department of health and NYSED.

District superintendents were responsible for staying current with any changes to local, state, and federal requirements related to Pre-K to Grade 12 education and activities during the COVID-19 public health emergency and incorporating those changes into their operations (NY.gov. 2020).

With an increased focus on social-emotional learning (SEL), New York State is one of 14 states to have developed Pre-kindergarten to grade 12 SEL benchmarks (Children's Institute, n.d.). In 2018, the School Climate and Student Engagement Workgroup of the New York State Safe Schools Task Force identified the following goals to guide SEL benchmarks for New York State schools to enable students to take full advantage of educational opportunities throughout their school experience in grades K-12 and, equally important, to prepare them for college and career:

1. Develop self-awareness and self-management skills essential to success in school and in life.
2. Use social awareness and interpersonal skills to establish and maintain positive relationships.
3. Demonstrate ethical decision-making skills and responsible behaviors in personal, school, and community contexts.

Research suggests that the use of these benchmarks may increase the likelihood that students will receive better instruction in SEL, experience improved school

connectedness, and become better learners (Osher & Kendziora, 2008; Jones & Bouffard, 2012).

Numerous programs support students who require social and emotional support in and out of the school setting. Teachers are the most crucial factor in embedding social and emotional learning into their daily practice. Parents may rely on teachers to implement strategies that support their child's social and emotional development.

These teacher-led social and emotional learning (SEL) programs have similar goals. They teach students to demonstrate an awareness of the perspectives of others and apply decision-making skills and make appropriate decisions with daily academics and social responsibilities. Ozudogru (2021) conducted a study to look into the difficulties faced by pre-service teachers in the distance education process, which was implemented during the Covid-19 pandemic. The study group consisted of pre-service teachers enrolled in a Turkish state university's faculty of education during the spring semester of the 2019-2020 school year. The case study method was used in this study, which is a qualitative approach that describes a case and reveals the case's themes by combining multiple sources of information and meticulously collecting data in order to produce a deep understanding of a situation in real life, the current system, or a specific time period (Creswell, 2013). The researcher created an interview form with open-ended questions to collect data, and the data were analyzed using the content analysis method. During the Covid-19 pandemic, Fauzi (2020) discovered that teachers faced various issues, including a lack of opportunities in online learning applications, network and internet use, teacher planning, implementation and evaluation, and collaboration with parents. Pre-service

teachers also reported issues such as a lack of time set aside for live courses, an excessive workload due to homework, inadequacy of implementation for significant area courses, an ambiguous evaluation system, a lack of time set aside for homework, limited access to registered courses, and lower interaction, according to the study. Kaplan-Rakowski (2020) discovered that having a 30-minute live course once a week during distance education may have left incomplete feedback, interaction, and question-answer processes. Video implementation is vital for communication and feedback in terms of addressing students' emotional needs during Covid-19. According to the study, pre-service teachers also reported a lack of communication, an inability to receive feedback, a lack of knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and a lack of familiarity with the system. Borup and Evmenova (2019) provided a 6-7-week vocational development course to prepare lecturers for online courses as part of their research. They emphasized that the course effectively overcame change barriers, as Ertmer (1999) identified in his identification of first-order, external, and second-order internal barriers to technological integration.

Students' social and emotional skills, habits, and mindsets can set them up for academic and life success in various situations (Melnick and Martinez, 2019). Elementary teachers in the Clayton County School District revealed in an 11-alive news report (2021) that students were coming to school homesick and that they were bombarded with children who were not feeling well, coughing, sneezing, diarrhea, stomach aches, and other ailments every day. According to the report, teachers shifted to hybrid learning one day after a student tested positive for COVID-19. According to the report, teachers must change how they teach and wear many hats. In the 11-alive

interview (2021), teachers wanted to express the extreme difficulty and stress they were going through.

Teachers recognize that social-emotional learning (SEL) should be integrated into every aspect of the school, from explicit classroom instruction to infusion into the academic subject matter. Collaboration, learning from one another, and using SEL data to make instructional decisions helps teachers continue to improve their practices with the ultimate goal of nurturing students' social, emotional, and academic learning through the integration of SEL programs (Melnick and Martinez, 2019). Collaboration allows those responsible for a student's learning and well-being to share their diverse expertise and perspectives on the student (McLeskey et al., 2017). Teachers collaborate with others using respectful and practical communication skills, considering the backgrounds, socioeconomic status, culture, and language of the families, students, and professionals with whom they work (Barringer et al., 2017). The New York Early Childhood Professional Development Institute recently completed a survey in collaboration with Bank Street College of Education to understand better the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on New York's early childhood workforce (2020). Early childhood program directors, teachers, and family child care providers were polled. Over 3,000 people who are members of the Aspire Registry in the state responded. The goal of the survey was to provide a descriptive picture of the workforce during the pandemic to spark discussion and help the field navigate this crisis. The survey responses revealed the successes and challenges of attempting to collaborate during the pandemic. According to the survey findings, teachers had to expand their various forms of communication, collaboration has

become even more inclusive of family goals and needs, and many teachers became overwhelmed and depended on each other in new ways. Teachers said they came together as activists and innovators to maintain and improve services for children and families while leveraging their strengths. According to the survey, leaders emerged as teams adjusted to the many changes in the field. Professional development sessions, where colleagues became the leaders and shared knowledge of new technologies and content specialties, are examples of this.

Students, educators, and parents have faced numerous challenges due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Educators have been overwhelmed with stress, trauma, and burnout during this time, from quickly adapting to remote learning to balancing the effects of the pandemic on their personal lives (Steiner & Woo, 2021). Although those in the education field have debated the best way to provide social and emotional support to students during and after the pandemic, teachers' social and emotional needs must also be addressed (Ferren, 2021). According to the Learning Policy Institute, about two-thirds of teachers who leave each year do so for reasons other than retirement, such as dissatisfaction with their career and working conditions (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017). The transition to virtual instruction was a new experience for most educators, which caused much stress (Ferren, 2021). Teachers had no warning, no adequate preparation or training, and little support from underprepared schools and districts (Schwartz, 2020). Educators were dealing with the stress of relearning how to teach while being threatened with layoffs and budget cuts (Ferren, 2021). Many teachers felt a double whammy of pressure to return to the classroom before they felt safe doing so

(EdSurge, 2020). Teachers were affected by pandemic stressors, with nearly half of public school teachers leaving their jobs after February 2020 due to the pandemic citing longer hours and working an average of 52 hours per week, having to navigate a remote environment, and experiencing technical issues as reasons (Diliberti, Schwartz, and Grant, 2021).

COVID-19 has claimed the lives of educators and their loved ones, and BIPOC communities have been disproportionately affected, as they are more likely to be exposed to, contract, and die from the Coronavirus (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2019). To respond to future developments in the fight for racial justice, Black educators require SEL training and support to process racial injustice's effects, which is a systemic, race-related, repetitive stress injury (Adams, 2020). Similarly, Asian and Pacific Islander (AAPI) educators have seen an increase in anti-AAPI hate crimes throughout the pandemic. According to a report analyzing hate crime data from 15 major U.S. cities in the first quarter of 2021, hate crimes increased by 169 percent in the first quarter of 2021 compared to the same period in 2020. (Yam, 2021). Educators from Latinx, American Indian and Alaska Native, and other communities faced their own set of challenges during the pandemic, including the disproportionate effects of the digital divide (Alliance for Excellent Educators, 2020), pandemic-induced economic recession (Mineo, 2020), and virus-related health outcomes (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2021). Educators from various racial and ethnic backgrounds have been affected differently by the pandemic and racial justice events, necessitating specialized support (Ferren, 2021).

It is important to hear the real-life experiences of the teachers present during the pandemic. The knowledge gained through the narrative approach of the current qualitative inquiry can provide a more in-depth understanding of the challenges and successes that the teachers experienced while implementing SEL instruction.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this narrative study was to understand the lived experiences of elementary school teachers who taught SEL while transitioning to fully remote instruction and back to in-person learning during the COVID-19 pandemic in a suburban school district. At this stage in the research, the central phenomenon will be generally defined as the teachers' stories of individual experiences and the events, actions, and feelings that took place while teaching SEL during the pandemic.

This narrative study will investigate how elementary teachers' experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic influenced their support for students' social-emotional learning needs. Narrative research is gathering and analyzing people's stories to describe their experiences and provide interpretation (Overcash, 2003). Narrative research aims to investigate and conceptualize human experience as expressed in text, focusing on storied experiences (Salkind, 2010). In this study, narrative research will be used to explore personal experience beyond the confines of the classroom, providing insight into how to implement social-emotional learning to meet the needs of students as they transition through the stages of the COVID-19 pandemic (Overcash, 2003).

Theoretical Framework

Bandura's Theory of Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy theory, developed by Bandura and the CASEL Framework for social and emotional learning, comprises the theoretical framework that will guide the current research. According to Bandura (1994), people's beliefs about their abilities to produce specified levels of performance to exert influence over actions that affect their lives are defined as perceived self-efficacy. Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs impact their feelings, thoughts, motivations, and actions, all of which are influenced by self-efficacy. Four significant processes, namely cognitive, motivational and affective processes, and selection processes are responsible for the various effects of self-efficacy beliefs. Within the context of this research study, Bandura's self-efficacy theory will examine the role of teachers' self-beliefs in motivating them to implement SEL instruction through online learning. The current research will also explore teachers' lived experiences' influence on students' social and emotional learning needs during the COVID-19 pandemic.

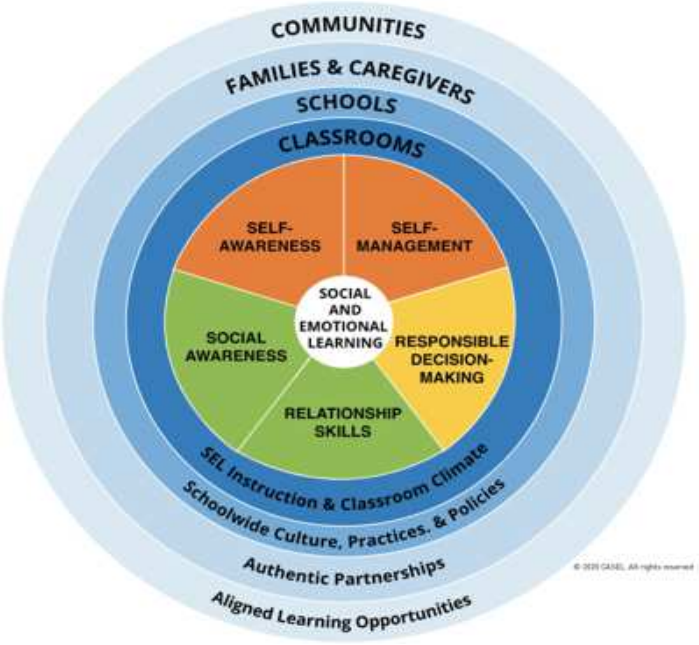
People have always attempted to exert control over events that have a negative impact on their lives (Bandura, 2000). Due to schools closing during the COVID-19 pandemic, teachers were forced to shift from in-person learning to remote instruction. Teachers experienced considerable stress from the COVID-19 pandemic, which affected mental health, coping, and teaching (Baker et al., 2021). The current study will investigate how people adapt and adjust to life's infinite challenges and the individual's capacity to adaptively respond to environmental changes based on the challenges experienced during the pandemic.

CASEL's Social and Emotional Learning Framework

The second framework guiding this study is the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Leaning (CASEL) framework. CASEL is a national research and advisory group that provides a framework to support the development of research in the field of special education. In its definition of social and emotional learning, the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) defined SEL as the process by which children and adults learn to understand, manage their emotions, set positive goals, feel and show empathy for others, form and preserve positive relationships, and make responsible decisions. The five interrelated core competencies of SEL identified by CASEL (2019) are self-management, self-awareness, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making. CASEL aims to promote social and emotional learning in pre-K through 12th-grade classrooms. CASEL also promotes an educational program combining fundamental academic subjects with a curriculum focusing on students' social-emotional competency (SEC), character, health, and civic responsibility (CASEL, 2012). CASEL was created to provide districts, schools, and communities with tools and resources to help them implement and sustain integrated, evidence-based SEL programs (CASEL, 2016).

Figure 1

The CASEL Wheel. Describing the Five Interrelated Core Competencies of SEL.



Note. The Interactive CASEL Wheel. From "CASEL" adapted from the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning and used with permission. https://casel.org/sel-framework/

A representation of the CASEL Wheel and Competencies is shown in the graphic in Figure 1. The Wheel of Competencies demonstrates that the five core competencies, which serve as a foundation for implementing evidence-based student well-being strategies in various settings, help cultivate skills and environments that promote students' learning and development in various settings.

The current research will discuss the importance of self-efficacy in determining how much effort people will put forth in a given activity, how long they will persevere

when faced with obstacles, and how resilient they will be when confronted with adverse circumstances. Social-emotional learning will identify the factors that influenced teachers' willingness to implement SEL during remote and in-person learning sessions.

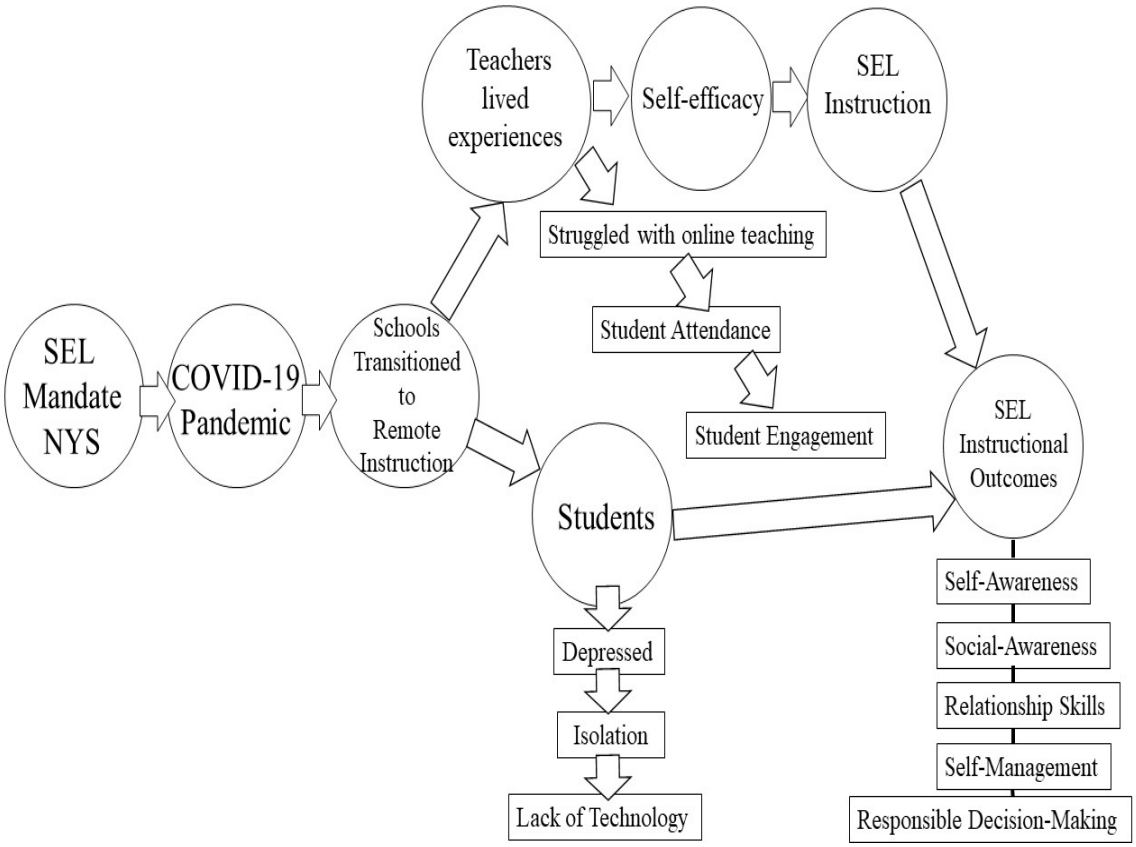
Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework, as shown in Figure 2, illustrates how the theoretical framework will help guide the current narrative study. In March of 2018, New York State mandated that SEL be implemented in all public schools throughout the state. The Covid-19 pandemic, which began in March 2020, forced the closure of schools and the transition to remote instruction. The majority of parents (60%) and teachers (86%) were concerned about their children's performance during remote learning (USA TODAY & Ipsos, 2020). Teachers said it was more challenging to do their jobs remotely (83 percent) and that students were experiencing learning loss due to distance/remote learning (76 percent). There is significant concern about the foundation set for Fall 2020, with only 12% of teachers reporting covering their entire curriculum during remote teaching in Spring 2020 (Hamilton, Kaufman, & Diliberti, 2020).

Teachers identified the challenge of maintaining student motivation in remote learning. Student motivation is an essential predictor of learning and achievement (Hulleman and Hulleman, 2018). During the pandemic, motivational issues became even more pressing: how to get students to participate in remote learning at all and then how to keep them focused remotely despite the distractions of home (Reich et al., 2020).

Figure 2

Conceptual Framework



Online teaching and learning environments have presented challenges for teachers, who have also reported difficulties maintaining student motivation and keeping track of student attendance records. After the outbreak, teachers' personal experiences with the pandemic prompted them to recognize the importance of integrating SEL into their instructional practices (Reich et al., 2020). SEL instructional outcomes were found to be predictors of teacher self-efficacy, regardless of whether the teacher had high or low levels of self-efficacy.

Significance of the Study

More research is needed to comprehend and address teachers' lived experiences teaching SEL via remote and in-person learning during the COVID-19 pandemic. Teachers' difficulties during the pandemic were far greater than any single person or school district. We need to address disproportionality in education and better pathways to success, which requires recognizing that students' SEL is just as critical as their academic growth, according to Cardona (2021), the United States Secretary of Education. In the United States, federal policy is critical in creating conditions that support statewide and district-wide SEL implementation to benefit all students (CASEL, 2021). The American Rescue Plan (ARP) Act of 2021 provided a $123 billion infusion to K-12 education as an unprecedented opportunity to invest in SEL. Students' learning and development, educator well-being, family and community partnerships, and more inclusive and equitable learning environments are all part of the ARP (Ballotpedia, 2021).

Many studies have been done on teachers' self-efficacy, namely teachers' beliefs in their ability to effectively handle the tasks, obligations, and challenges related to their professional activity, which influences important academic outcomes and implementation of SEL (Barni, Danioni, Benevene, 2019). The importance of teachers' self-efficacy in school psychology research has grown over time due to the implications of teacher efficacy on instructional practices and the implications of instructional practices on student academic achievement (Klassen et al., 2009; Klassen and Tze, 2014). Many studies have found that teachers with high levels of self-efficacy report higher levels of

job satisfaction, lower levels of job-related stress, and fewer difficulties dealing with students' misbehavior than their counterparts (Caprara et al., 2003).

There were many challenges the COVID-19 pandemic added to teachers and their jobs and the need to consider teachers' expertise and judgment. Teachers face other challenges beyond the current and other crises. Discovering new insights into overcoming these challenges for the teachers working amid a pandemic is vital in addressing self-efficacy and supporting students' SEL. Arguably, the current state of the world does not address teachers' self-efficacy in teaching SEL and how effectively the needs of students are addressed.

Connection with Social Justice

COVID-19 has exacerbated the already disparate mental health needs of many Black, Indigenous, and non-Black people of color (BIPOC). As a result of concentrated job losses and financial insecurity, disproportionate rates of contacting and becoming seriously ill from COVID-19, and nationwide protests in response to centuries of racial injustice and anti-Black racism (Quirk, 2020). BIPOC students, in particular, are subjected to all these traumatic events on top of the isolation that comes with social distancing and remote learning. Children and teenagers have been more affected by the isolation of a nationwide lockdown than adults, although they are less likely to experience severe COVID-19 symptoms (Quirk, 2020).

Students are encouraged to take an active role in their education through social justice education, and teachers are supported in creating empowering, democratic, and critical learning environments.

Central Research Question

What were teachers' lived experiences while teaching social-emotional learning (SEL) during both remote and in-person instruction in elementary school throughout the Covid-19 pandemic?

Research Sub-Question 1

How were the five competencies of social-emotional learning (self-awareness, self-management, responsible decision-making, relationship skills, and social skills) taught during remote and in-person instruction during the pandemic?

Research Sub-Question 2

What were teachers' feelings about their own social-emotional instructional competencies, self-efficacy, and experiences throughout remote and in-person instruction during the pandemic?

Research Sub-Question 3

How did teachers' lived experiences differ during remote and in-person instruction while implementing social-emotional instruction?

Research Sub-Question 4

How did the teachers' lived experiences, self-efficacy, and SEL training help them with social and emotional instruction?

Definition of Terms

Black, Indigenous, People of Color – BIPOC

Black, Indigenous, People of Color (BIPOC) is an acronym that acknowledges that not all people face equal levels of injustice (Clarke, 2020).

Center for Disease Control (CDC)

The CDC is a United States federal agency responsible for protecting and disseminating information about public health (Kowitt et al., 2017)

Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19)

COVID-19 is a disease that emerged in 2019 caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (El Zowalaty & Jarhult, 2020).

English as a New Language (ENL)

English as a new language was formerly known as English as a second language. It is a research-based program comprised of a stand-alone model and an integrated ENL (Gangemi, 2016-2017).

Epoché

Epoché is an ancient Greek term in Hellenistic philosophy typically translated as "suspension of judgment" but also as "withholding of assent, the expression of approval or agreement (Oxford Languages, 2022).

Lived Experiences

Lived experiences are personal knowledge about the world gained through direct, first-hand involvement in everyday events rather than through representations constructed by others (Chandler and Munday, 2011).

Pandemic

A pandemic is an event that represents a public health risk to other states through the international spread of disease, potentially requiring a coordinated international response (Maher & Bellizzi, 2020).

Re-Story

Re-storying is the process of reconstructing new meaning from old narratives (Beyond Human Stories, 2021).

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief in their capacity to execute behaviors necessary to produce specific performance outcomes (Bandura, 1977).

Social-Emotional Learning (SEL)

Social-Emotional Learning is the process of learning, practicing, and building competencies such as self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making (Osher & Berg, 2017).

Teacher Perceptions

Teacher perceptions are the thoughts or mental images teachers have about their students that are shaped by their background knowledge and life experiences (Iris Center, 2021).

Virtual Classroom

A virtual classroom is an online teaching and learning environment where teachers and students can present course materials, engage and interact, and work in groups (Barron, 2020).

World Health Organization (WHO)

The World Health Organization is a recognized specialized agency of the United Nations concerned with the public health of the international community (Tanno et al., 2020).

Conclusion

Frontline workers' occupational stress increased as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic (Du et al., 2020; Teo et al., 2021; Y. Wang et al., 2021a), and work-related stress is a major contributing factor to low teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout (Gonzalez et al., 2017; Herman et al., 2018; Roberts et al., 2020). (Prasojo et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2018). Frontline workers are people who perform work-related tasks on-site and whose duties require them to be within six feet of either the general public or their coworkers (Center for Disease Control, 2020b). Teachers who are instructing students in a classroom during the pandemic are frontline workers, according to the CDC vaccine plan (Mclean, 2021; Beames et al., 2021; Levinson et al., 2020; Mason, 2020; Nabe-Nielsen et al., 2021; Sim, 2020; Sokal et al., 2020; Will, 2020). Although there are studies on the experiences of frontline healthcare workers during the pandemic (Hu et al., 2020; Lu et al., 2020; Trumello et al., 2020; Vagni et al., 2020; Villar et al., 2021), studies on the experiences of educators during the pandemic are lacking. Because teachers' sustained actions are crucial to a successful educational response to the pandemic, more research is required on teachers' experiences with self-efficacy when providing face-to-face instruction during the pandemic (Pressley, 2021b) (Sokal et al., 2020).

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The chapter will begin with the theoretical framework comprised of Bandura's theory of self-efficacy and the SEL framework. The literature review will examine the relevant research connected to social motional learning and teachers' lived experiences while teaching social-emotional learning (SEL) during both remote and in-person instruction. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the research on teachers' experiences with self-efficacy teaching in-person and remotely during the COVID-19 pandemic. The current literature on the COVID-19 pandemic and the educational system is summarized in this chapter, along with information on teacher efficacy during school closure, teacher efficacy concerning virtual instruction, teacher efficacy concerning teaching elementary school students, and teacher efficacy following school reopening during the pandemic. This chapter's summary identifies a gap in the literature and explains why the current study is necessary.

Theoretical Framework

Self-Efficacy Theory

Perceived self-efficacy is defined as people's perceptions of their abilities to achieve specific levels of performance that influence events in their lives (Bandura, 1994). People's self-efficacy beliefs influence how they feel, think, motivate themselves, and act. According to Bandura (1994), such beliefs have various effects due to four major processes: cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection. Students' aspirations, levels of motivation, and academic achievements are all influenced by their belief in their ability to control their own learning and master academic activities (Bandura, 1993).

Furthermore, according to Bandura (1993), teachers' beliefs in motivating and promoting learning influence the types of learning environments they produce and their students' academic progress. The theory of self-efficacy functioned as the theoretical framework for this study's research questions and a lens through which to view teachers' experiences of self-efficacy in face-to-face instruction during the pandemic. The theory of self-efficacy was used to describe teachers' lived experiences with self-efficacy teaching face-to-face instruction during the COVID19 pandemic because personal efficacy influences coping behavior when faced with obstacles and because individual belief in ability determines how much emotion a person experiences in a threatening situation (Bandura & Adams, 1977). Teachers' commitment and coping skills in educational settings have been found to be significantly influenced by their self-efficacy beliefs (Yin et al., 2020). An efficacy expectation is a conviction that a person can carry out particular behaviors to achieve particular results (Bandura, 1977). Perceived self-efficacy affects a person's decision of what to do, how much effort they will put forth, and their level of perseverance in the face of difficulty (Bandura, 1982; Bandura & Adams, 1977).

A strong sense of efficacy enriches human accomplishment and personal well-being. People who are confident in their abilities view complex tasks as challenges to overcome rather than threats to avoid (Bandura, 1994). People with high efficacy set challenging goals and stick to them with a strong commitment (Bandura, 1994). They blame failure on a lack of effort or learnable knowledge and skills and approach potentially dangerous situations with confidence that they can control them. Through personal agency mechanisms, people make causal contributions to their own functioning.

People's beliefs about their aptitudes to exercise control over their own level of functioning and events that affect their lives are one of the agency mechanisms (Bandura, 1993). Self-efficacy perceptions in individuals stimulate and shape personal objectives, behaviors, and coping mechanisms influenced by environmental factors (Bandura, 1989), as well as the types of anticipatory scenarios that people create and then regurgitate (Aldridge & Fraser, 2016). Self-efficacy levels are a prerequisite for the capacity to carry out and sustain behaviors that position a person as a successful negotiator in their environment (Chesnut & Burley, 2015). Teachers' perseverance, enthusiasm, commitment, and classroom behavior are all related to their level of self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). People with a high sense of self-efficacy imagine positive experiences and mentally practice solutions to deal with emerging problems successfully. In contrast, people with a low sense of self-efficacy see themselves as incompetent and imagine negative scenarios centered on disaster (Bandura, 1989).

People who doubt their abilities avoid challenging situations they perceive as personal threats. They also have low aspirations and a lack of commitment to their set objectives (Bandura, 1994). When confronted with complex tasks, they focus on their personal flaws, the obstacles they will face, and various adverse outcomes rather than how to complete the task successfully. When people mistake subpar performance for lack of aptitude, according to Bandura (1994), it does not take many failures for them to lose faith in their abilities. People's expectations for outcomes are based on their perceptions of how well they can perform in specific situations (Locke, 2000).

People tend to avoid activities that they feel are beyond their capacity for coping but engage in activities they feel are within their capacity to handle (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009), so teachers' beliefs in their abilities to handle situations are related to their effort and perseverance when things do not go as planned in the face of obstacles (Bandura, 1982). The four informational sources of mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal are used to develop self-efficacy, as shown in figure 3 (Bandura, 1977). Successes instill a strong belief in one's ability. Failures can derail it if they occur before a strong sense of efficacy has been established. If people only have easy successes, they will expect quick results and easily be discouraged if they fail (Bandura, 1994). Some setbacks and difficulties in human endeavors help teach that success usually requires sustained effort and that once people believe they have what it takes to succeed, they persevere in the face of adversity and recover from barriers (Bandura, 1993).

Mastery Experience. Purposive performance yields the interpreted result of mastery experience (Pajares, 2002). Individuals assess the effects of their actions, and their interpretations of these effects aid in forming efficacy beliefs, and success increases self-efficacy while failure decreases it (Parjares, 2002). The implications for the self-enhancement model of academic achievement, according to Bandura (1986), are that one's mastery experiences are the most persuasive source of self-efficacy.

Vicarious Experience. The second source of efficacy information is the vicarious experience of the effects shaped by others' actions. Modeling is a component of vicarious experience, and it can make observers believe that by learning from what they have seen,

they will be able to improve their own performance. According to Pajares (2020), people become more sensitive when they are unsure of their individual abilities or have limited prior experience.

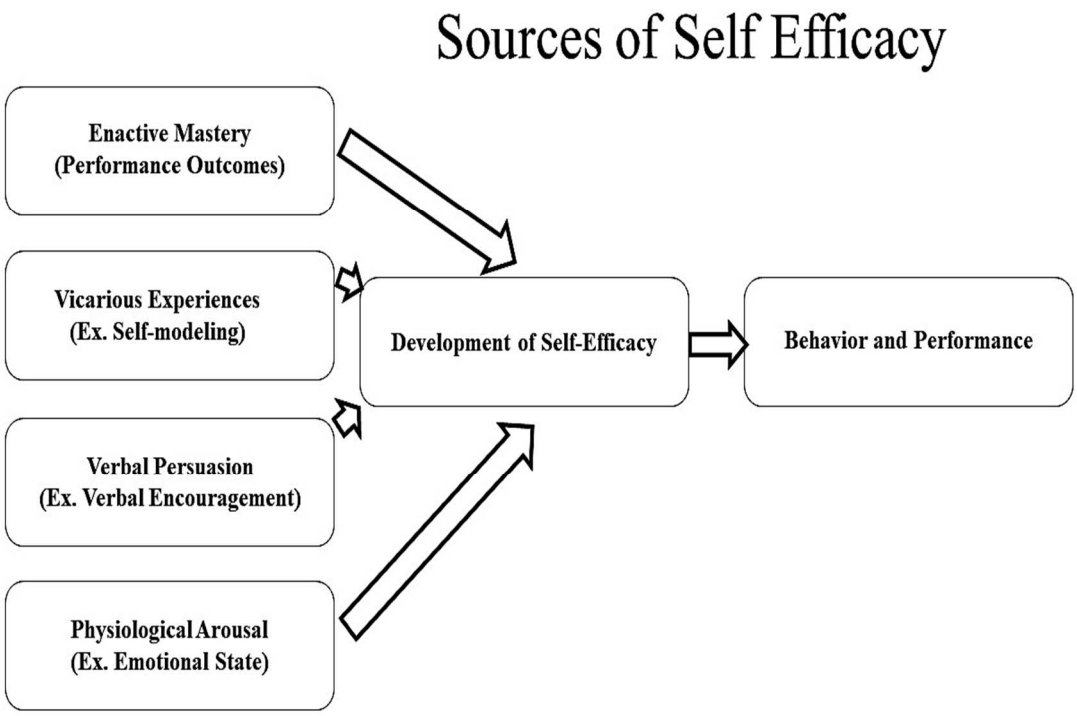
Social Persuasion. As a result of the social messages received from others, people form and develop self-efficacy beliefs (Pajares, 2002). These persuasions can include activities in which people believe they can complete specific tasks successfully through suggestions (Pajares, 2002). Coaching and providing performance feedback are two common forms of social persuasion. Encouragement and discouragement about an individual's performance or ability to perform can influence self-efficacy (Redmond, 2010).

Physiological and Emotional States. Self-efficacy judgments about specific tasks are influenced by an individual's physiological or emotional state, changing their thinking (Pajares, 2002). Anxiety, stress, fatigue, and mood states are all physiological states that provide information about efficacy beliefs. Negative assessments of one's ability to complete such tasks can result from emotional reactions to such tasks. Individuals can improve their sense of self-efficacy by learning how to manage anxiety and improve their mood under challenging situations in this way (Pajares, 2020). Kolbe (2009) stated that believing in one's own abilities can be vital in measuring cognitive strength. Because it helps one overcome obstacles that would otherwise prevent them from utilizing their innate abilities to achieve goals, Kolbe (2009) stated that self-efficacy also entails determination and perseverance. However, according to Bandura (1977), what is essential is not the sheer intensity of emotional and physical reactions but

rather how they are perceived and interpreted by the individual. Arousal is perceived as an energizing facilitator of performance by people who have a high sense of efficacy. In contrast, those plagued by self-doubt perceive arousal as debilitating to those with low self-efficacy.

Figure 3

Albert Bandura's Sources of Self-Efficacy (1996)



Psychologist, volume 28(2), p. 117-148. https://www.iedunote.com/self-efficacy-theory

CASEL Framework

Students must learn about managing their emotions for education and human development. All young people and adults can acquire and apply the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to develop healthy identities, manage emotions, and achieve personal and collective goals (CASEL, 2021). They can also feel and show empathy for

others, establish and maintain supportive relationships, and make decisions with consideration for others and the environment.

SEL is an acronym that stands for Social and Emotional Learning. Social and emotional learning (SEL) can assist in addressing various forms of inequity while empowering young people and adults to co-create thriving schools and contribute to developing safe, healthy, and just communities (CASEL, 2021). Through authentic school-family-community partnerships, SEL promotes educational equity and excellence by creating learning environments and experiences marked by trusting and collaborative relationships, rigorous and meaningful curriculum and instruction, and ongoing evaluation.

Specifically, CASEL 5 addresses five broad and interconnected competence areas, with specific examples for each. These areas are self-awareness and self-management, social awareness; relationship skills; and decision-making with responsibility. According to CASEL (2021), various developmental stages, from childhood to adulthood and across a wide range of cultural contexts, can be taught and applied using CASEL 5. Students should know and be able to do certain things to achieve academic success, school and civic engagement, health and wellness, and fulfilling careers. Many school districts, states, and countries have used CASEL 5 to establish preschool to high school learning standards and competencies that articulate what students should know and be able to do to achieve academic success, school and civic engagement, health and wellness, and fulfilling careers (CASEL, 2021).

In social and emotional learning (SEL), a developmental perspective considers how social and emotional competencies can be expressed and enhanced at different ages, ranging from preschool to adulthood. CASEL (2021) asserts that it is essential to consider students' social, emotional, and cognitive developmental levels and age-appropriate tasks and challenges when developing social, emotional, and cognitive standards, instruction, and assessment. As a result, stakeholders should determine the most effective methods for prioritizing, teaching, and assessing the progression and development of the CASEL 5 in their respective schools and neighborhoods.

CASEL has identified ten strategies that schools and educators can use to nurture students' social and emotional development through the end of the 2020-2021 school year.

Build Community. By nurturing the whole child and infusing social-emotional learning (SEL) into every aspect of students' daily lives—across all of their classrooms, during all of the school day, and when they are in their homes and communities—educators and families can help to promote a more systemic and connected approach to learning. Students are well-known and valued in a caring, culturally responsive learning community where they are well-known and valued. A supportive environment also includes structures that allow for continuity in relationships, consistency in practices, predictability in routines, and relational trust between and among staff, students, and their parents.

Assess Social and Emotional Needs. Conducting a needs assessment for social and emotional learning (SEL) for students and educators and understanding families'

home environments during remote and hybrid learning can assist schools in determining the best resources to provide to address the challenges students may have encountered. It is critical to recognize and build on one's strengths while also identifying and nurturing the areas that require improvement. Educators should prioritize students' well-being, and educators should demonstrate this to their students.

Engage in Self-Reflection. Making it possible for individuals to reflect on their experiences and accurately identify their feelings through journaling or group conferencing is critical to their success. It enables them to identify, label, and communicate their emotions during these uncertain times. While watching out for students and community members, educators and families should follow the airline's recommendation and put on their own masks first. Considering this, it means that all of you who care for others must also take time to care for yourself and reflect on how you are feeling.

Reinforce Self-Regulation Skills. Due to the collective trauma experienced by students due to the pandemic, misbehaviors and a lack of self-regulation due to prolonged physical isolation may become more noticeable. As an alternative to immediately punishing the students for their misbehavior, students may benefit from understanding and identifying the underlying cause of their emotions. When students feel cared for rather than judged, they are more likely to develop a stronger bond with the educator.

Promote Stress Management. Invest time in teaching students operative stress management techniques, and provide physical activities or spaces within the classroom where students can practice deep breathing and/or yoga stretches to help them cope with

their workload. Stress management is essential for students, educators, school administrators, and community members. Practicing self-care and maintaining one's own positive well-being is vital for educators, who must serve as role models for their students and children.

Nurture Diversity and Empathy. Taking into account multiple view points and appreciating those from a variety of backgrounds and cultures are essential SEL skills. Racial disparity, social justice, and equity are all issues that need to be addressed, and addressing them can help bring communities together rather than divide them. According to the Center for Academic and Social Excellence (CASEL), SEL includes the ability to feel empathy for others, the capability to understand social and ethical norms for behavior, and the ability to show respect for others Listen to one another's experiences and demonstrating empathy towards others is significant during these difficult times of anxiety and uncertainty, as it helps to bring communities closer together. It is essential to recognize that one's experience may differ vastly from another's. This acknowledgment demonstrates that we each have our own unique stories to tell while collectively experiencing a shared trauma. Promoting respect for all rather than the retention of discriminatory thoughts and behaviors is essential for educators to model and for students to practice in their daily interactions.

Serve as a Confidante to Promote Responsible Decision-Making. In everyday life, according to CASEL (2021), responsible decision-making is centered on an individual's ability to make respectful and constructive decisions about issues that are personal to them and decisions made in social situations. In situations where students

must make difficult decisions, act as a confidante for them. This not only helps to build a trusting relationship but also helps to develop the students' problem-solving and analytical abilities.

Establish a Sense of Belonging. Students' feelings of ease and readiness to learn are greatly enhanced when they feel like they belong in their school and classroom (Alexander and Endo, 2021). Building relationships with peers, teachers, and other members of the school community and developing a sense of belonging to the school are critical in preventing misconduct. Promoting a sense of belonging and connection, whether online, in person or a combination of the two, results in happier and more engaged students and teachers. Starting the day or class by asking a question of the day or week, for example, encourages students to share facts about their personal and family interests and community values. The collaborative efforts of educators and leaders create an environment in which all students feel welcome, are safe, and have the opportunity to continue their growth and learning.

Build Relationships. Building and strengthening students' relationships with their educators is critical in face-to-face and remote learning environments. It is vital in the classroom (Alexander and Endo, 2021). Students' emotional well-being, confident sense of self, and social and academic skills are all enhanced when they are involved in positive relationships based on mutual feelings of care, trust, and security.

Partner with Mental Health Professionals. Developing and deepening relationships with mental health professionals inside and outside the school is essential. Schools and districts should prioritize investments in social workers, guidance

counselors, and psychologists when possible. In order to identify students who may require additional follow-up counseling support, educators can act as a liaison between them and health care professionals.

Review of Related Literature

Historical Background of SEL

The Comer School Development Program (CSDP) was established in the 1960s as a pilot project (Edutopia, 2011). The CSDP was founded on the belief that children's relationships as they grow up, particularly the bonds they form with adults, contain extreme values (Comer, 2013). According to the CSDP's theoretical framework, children require positive interactions with adults to develop appropriately (Comer & Ben-Avie, 1996). Comer (2013) describes how the CSDP involved multiple community members in the educational process and the usual teachers and administrators in fostering this type of interaction.

From 1987 to 1992, Weissberg, Shriver, and other educators worked together to establish the K-12 New Haven Social Development program (New Haven Public Schools, n.d.; Weissberg, Shriver, Bose, & DeFalco, 1997). Weissberg and Elias served as the co-chairs of the W.T. Grant Consortium on the School-Based Promotion of Social Competence (1992). This group of school-based prevention and youth development experts released an outline for incorporating social competence into schools during the same period (Cummings & Haggerty, 1997; Edutopia, 2011). Students must be able to assess the intensity of their feelings, control impulses, delay gratification, express, identify, label, and manage emotions, as well as reduce stress, according to the outline.

Students must also be able to identify, label, and manage emotions (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 1998).

In 1994, the Fetzer Institute convened a meeting of educators, researchers, and child activists to develop ideas for assisting children in becoming productive members of their communities (CASEL, 2018). It was as a result of this meeting that the term "social and emotional learning" came to be, as did the name of the leading organization in the United States dedicated to promoting social and emotional learning, which is known as the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL). Since 1994, CASEL has been at the forefront of the movement to promote "integrated academic, social, and emotional learning for all children in preschool through high school," as the organization's mission statement states (CASEL, 2017). The ambitious goal of CASEL is to establish Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) as a critical component of education, supported by evidence-based research and implemented through school-based programs.

Affirmative youth improvement programs (CASEL, 2018) such as drug (Scheier & Grenard, 2010) and violence prevention (Allison, Edmonds, Wilson, Pope, and Farrell, 2011), sex (Piotrowski & Hedeker, 2016), civil and moral (Proios & Gianitsopoulou, 2009) education, to name a few, were introduced during this period. Together with CASEL, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) developed a framework focused on children's needs in 1997 and presented it to the public. As a result of this collaboration, educators now have access to a comprehensive list of strategies in a book titled Promoting Social and Emotional Learning: Guidelines for Educators, published in 2011. (Elias et al., 1997). This ground-breaking book, the first

of its kind in the country, laid the groundwork for the nation to address the missing piece in education (CASEL, 2017).

With backing from the Fetzer Institute and the Surdna Foundation, the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) was established in 1994 to further research surrounding the social and emotional competencies that add to student success in school and life (CASEL, 2018). California Association for Social and Emotional Learning's mission is to make evidence-based social and emotional learning a vital part of preschool and high school education (CASEL, 2003).

The standards for social and emotional learning serve as a blueprint for instruction in SEL; they characterize specific goals and benchmarks for students by grade level and express what students should be able to know and do to succeed (Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning, 2018). Standards can also be used to guide the selection of evidence-based programs and develop professional learning opportunities related to self-esteem and emotional well-being (Weissberg, Durlak, Domitrovich, & Gullotta, 2015). Standards for social and emotional learning differ from academic standards in that they do not imply evaluation measures or suggest accountability. Instead of considering them as standards, it can be beneficial to consider them as learning objectives or competencies (Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning, 2018).

CASEL comprises an international network of educators, scientists, and concerned citizens. Its purpose is to encourage and support the creation of safe, caring

learning environments that build social, cognitive, and emotional skills (Elias et al., 1997). CASEL has the following primary goals:

1. To increase educators' awareness, trainers of school-based professionals, the scientific community, policymakers, and the public about the need for, and the effects of, systematic efforts to promote children and adolescents' social and emotional learning (SEL).

2. To facilitate the implementation, ongoing evaluation, and refinement of comprehensive social and emotional education programs, preschool through high school.

CASEL aims to effectively implement theoretically based and scientifically sound social and emotional education programs and strategies through research, scholarship, networking, and sharing of current information (CASEL, 2021). CASEL helps identify and coordinate the best school, family, and community practices across diverse prevention, health promotion, and positive youth development efforts. CASEL was founded on the belief that a collaborative model benefiting from the collective wisdom, experience, and contributions of scientists and educators is the most effective and promising path to developing beneficial programs (Elias et al., 2017).

CASEL promotes the development of SEL standards to ensure that well-designed programs are implemented effectively and ethically by qualified educators who have been carefully selected and trained (Elias et al., 2017). CASEL aims to increase opportunities for educators at all levels of their careers to learn about programs and receive training in scientifically proven social and emotional development practices. It informs public policymakers and government administrators about SEL-friendly

approaches. CASEL believes that the most effective SEL initiatives are created through school-family partnerships in which teachers and parents actively participate in program selection, design, implementation, evaluation, and improvement (CASEL, 2021).

Defining Social Emotional Learning (SEL)

The California Association for Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL, 2021) defines social and emotional learning (SEL) as a fundamental part of education and human development. All young people and adults can learn and apply the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to cultivate healthy identities, manage emotions, and achieve personal and collective goals. They can also empathize with others, establish and maintain supportive relationships, and make decisions considering others and the environment. As defined by Zins and Elias (2006), members of the CASEL, social and emotional learning is defined as the ability to recognize and manage emotions, constructively solve problems, and cultivate favorable interpersonal relations with other people. TXCEDS (2010) defines social and emotional learning as how people develop core skills, knowledge, and values that will serve as the necessary foundation for success in school and life. Durlak and Weissberg (2011) define social-emotional learning as the process of acquiring the skills to recognize and manage emotions, set and achieve positive goals, appreciate the perspectives of others, establish and maintain positive relationships, make responsible decisions, and handle interpersonal situations effectively. Schonert-Reichl (2017) defines SEL as the process of acquiring applied knowledge, attitudes, and skills that enable students to understand and manage their emotions, feel

and demonstrate empathy for others, set realistic goals for themselves and their peers, develop and maintain positive relationships, and make responsible decisions

COVID-19 and the Impact on the Educational System

The COVID-19 pandemic has caused unprecedented harm to the educational system on a global scale. In addition to the enormous economic impact, the pandemic also created an unconventional environment within all levels of education. This is even though the teaching profession has long been plagued by high rates of teacher burnout, attrition, stress, and excessive workloads (Cataudella et al., 2021). (Anderson et al., 2020; Aucejo et al., 2020; Vu et al., 2020). Due to the closure of at least 124,000 public and private schools as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic (Pattison et al., 2021) and the forced transition of school systems from in-person instruction to online learning (Osman, 2020), which isolated teachers from more than 220 million students, the COVID-19 pandemic caused the most significant disruption of educational systems in human history (Pokhrel & Chhetri, 2021). (Ma et al., 2021). The Chinese government started new preventative measures to limit face-to-face exposure (Osman, 2020), also known as "Suspending Classes without Stopping of Learning" (W. Zhang et al., 2020, p. 2), and K–12 institutions in the United States have adopted them. The challenges presented by the school may motivate teachers to foster their perseverance, which boosts their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) and lessens burnout (Pressley, 2021b; Sokal et al., 2020). Although the COVID-19 pandemic allowed educational systems to implement new teaching methods, many teachers reported feeling stressed and anxious due to using those radically different methods (Middleton, 2020). Stress also causes emotional arousal,

which affects self-efficacy and coping mechanisms in threatening situations (Bandura, 1977). In light of previous research showing a link between teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout, supporting teacher self-efficacy is crucial for schools (Chesnut & Burley, 2015; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2016; Zee & Koomen, 2016).

Teachers had little time to prepare for continuing instruction after school closures due to the COVID-19 pandemic, and many began to doubt their teaching ability (Assuncao Flores & Cago, 2020). This increased stress and decreased ability to cope with stress led to burnout (Richards et al., 2018). Reopening schools will be expensive because smaller class sizes will be necessary to comply with social distancing requirements to stop the spread of the coronavirus, necessitating classroom modifications (Baker et al., 2020), adding to the stress and anxiety of teachers (Delgado-Gallegos et al., 2021; Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2021). Frontline teachers during the pandemic are susceptible to the same psychological symptoms as frontline healthcare workers (Nabe-Nielsen et al., 2021; Pellerone et al.; Santamaria et al., 2021), but research on their stress, anxiety, and depression symptoms is lacking (Pressley, 2021a) (Savolainen et al., 2021; Villar et al., 2020).

Frontline teachers' lives are in danger due to the spread of coronavirus. It was an epidemic that was accompanied by the spread of fear, anxiety, and uncertainty, which also posed difficulties for their psychological well-being (J. Zhou et al., 2021). Stress can lower self-efficacy, which can cause teacher burnout (Chesnut & Burley, 2015; Pressley, 2021b; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017b) and turnover in the public educational system. During the pandemic, teachers experience stress, anxiety, and depression (Al Lily et al.,

2020). (Herman et al., 2018). Many states were concerned about an increase in teacher retirements or resignations (Kim et al., 2021). Teachers may doubt their ability to teach due to the pandemic's increased demand for classroom time (Nabe-Nielsen et al., 2021), as major societal disruptions negatively impact teacher self-efficacy and coping skills (Malinen et al., 2019). Already a stressful profession, teaching (Herman et al., 2018). The COVID-19 pandemic appears to have increased stress, perceptions of contracting the coronavirus, and anxiety in teachers, which may have decreased their self-efficacy and put them at higher risk for burnout (Sokal et al., 2020). However, many emotional difficulties imply consequences for teachers in terms of their psychological well-being (Pressley, 2021b).

Teacher Sense of Efficacy

Teacher self-efficacy is characterized as a teacher's confidence in managing assignments, commitments, and difficulties related to their professional responsibilities (Barni, Benevene, and Danioni, 2019). Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2001) characterized teacher effectiveness as a judgment of a teacher's ability to achieve desired student engagement and learning outcomes, even among difficult or unmotivated students.

The importance of teachers in the implementation of SEL cannot be overstated. According to Schonert-Reichl (2017), teachers are the driving force behind social and emotional learning (SEL) programs and activities in schools and classrooms. According to Schonert-Reichl, their social-emotional competence and well-being significantly impact their students. Schonert-Reichl also discovered that warm teacher-child relationships promote deep learning and healthy social and emotional growth in students.

When teachers fail to balance the social and emotional demands of teaching, both academic performance and behavior suffer. In a career that is considered one of the most demanding, the author also discovered that teachers are at risk for low social and emotional wellbeing when classrooms have stressed-out students. The demands of teaching and unsatisfactory relationships with school culture influence the number of stress teachers experience at work, which directly affects students.

The way teachers interact with students, how students interact with one another, and how conflict and punishment are handled are all essential aspects of a school's culture and classroom. A healthy, compassionate, participatory, and well-managed learning environment, according to Schonert-Reichl (2017), is an essential but insufficient condition for fostering social and emotional competence. According to research, a warm classroom climate and positive teacher-student relationships have been shown to encourage both academic learning and SEL. Schonert-Reichl (2017) emphasizes the need for teachers to have the expertise, dispositions, and skills necessary to create healthy, compassionate, supportive, and sensitive school and classroom communities.

Schonert-Reichl stresses the importance of teachers' own social and emotional competence and wellbeing in effectively supporting SEL. Expecting students to self-regulate when watching teachers become upset and angry, according to Porter-Magee (2020), teaches students that children can self-regulate and that emotional outbursts are reserved for adults. Children will obey school rules that require honesty from students, but if adults in the building behave dishonestly, children may follow suit.

According to researchers Jennings and Greenberg, consistent teacher-student interactions, teachers and classroom management, and successful social and emotional learning program implementation mediate classroom and student outcomes (2017). The authors discovered that students are more likely to grapple with challenging material and persist in complex learning tasks when they feel at ease with their teacher and peers in classrooms with warm teacher-child relationships. The authors also found that students show more unsatisfactory performance and on-task activity when teachers fail to balance the social and emotional demands of teaching.

Coladarci (1992) investigated the extent to which teachers' sense of efficacy and other hypothesized influences on the commitment to teaching influenced their commitment to teaching. The Maine Department of Education drew a random sample of 364 elementary school teachers for this study. This sample represented geographic region, teacher experience, sex, school size, and grade (K-8). "Suppose you had it to do over again: Would you become a teacher in light of your current knowledge?" was the question used to access the dependent variable, commitment to teaching (Coladarci, 1992). The Gibson and Dembo (1984) instrument, slightly modified to correct for several semantic awkwardness's (e.g., they), was used to assess teacher efficacy, the primary independent variable.

The researchers sent a questionnaire with the teacher efficacy and school climate scales to 364 teachers. They took into account existing literature on the commitment to teaching and gathered additional data on the teacher-student ratio, which is the total enrollment in a respondent's school divided by the number of teachers in that school;

salary, which is the mean teacher salary in the respondent's school (provided by the state department of education); and teaching experience, which is the number of years the respondent has been teaching either in public or private schools; and a teacher-student ratio, which is the total enrollment in a respondent' A follow-up mailing was sent out, with a total of 252 teachers responding.

The researchers looked at descriptive statistics first, focusing on (a) the distribution of teaching commitment and (b) the simple correlations between teaching commitment and efficacy measures. Second, the independent effects of personal and general efficacy and the other independent variables on the commitment to teaching were assessed using ordinary least squares multiple regression.

If they had to choose again, roughly two-thirds (65%) of these Maine teachers said they would "certainly" or "probably" choose to teach. Although this figure is unquestionably high in and of itself, it is also more than twice as high as the comparable percentage (30%) derived from teachers across the country, as reported above. On the other hand, only one-fifth of Maine teachers said they were unlikely to choose this profession again, a figure that is lower than a comparable figure based on a national sample of teachers. (The Maine figures were the same whether they were based on the initial sample of 252 teachers or the final sample of 170 teachers for whom complete data on all independent variables were available.)

The study's findings suggested that school-level variables will continue to be important in promoting teachers' professional commitment. Both the teacher-student ratio and the conduct of the principal emerged as significant and independent, if minor,

predictors of commitment to teaching: Teachers' commitment to teaching was higher (a) in schools with smaller classes and (b) in schools where the principal was viewed favorably in areas such as instructional leadership, school advocacy, decision-making, and relations with students and staff. These aspects of one's workplace undoubtedly contribute to a more enjoyable and rewarding work experience. The connection between these two characteristics and subsequent commitment to teaching is both plausible and consistent with other observations (e.g., Bird & Little, 1986; Chapman & Hutcheson, 1982; Darling-Hammond, 1984, 1990; Lortie, 1975; McLaughlin et al., 1986; Metropolitan Life, 1985; Rosen Holtz, 1989; Sizer, 1985).

Teacher Self-Efficacy amid School Closures during the COVID-19 Pandemic

According to Tabernero et al. (2020), the COVID-19 pandemic's rapid global spread and the emergence of regulations based on social confinement forced all nations to close schools, displacing teachers from their usual setting and causing disruptions in relationships between teachers and parents (Kim & Ashbury, 2020). Many teachers reported receiving unfavorable feedback from parents, which damaged their relationships with them (Kim & Ashbury, 2020). When receiving positive oral or written feedback, verbal persuasion—which is a source of self-efficacy—can increase perceptions of self-efficacy and coping ability (Regier, 2021; Webb & LoFaro, 2020), but it can also reduce perceptions of self-efficacy (Haverback, 2020; Watson & Marschall, 2019; Yada et al., 2019; (Bandura, 1977). Among Iranian teachers (N=213), verbal persuasion was discovered to be the most significant source of self-efficacy by Moradkhani and Haghi

(2017), and teacher self-efficacy is a significant predictor of teacher burnout (Fathi & Saeedian, 2020).

The confinement negatively impacted teachers' psychological states during the school closure due to the COVID-19 pandemic (Amri et al., 2020). These upsetting events caused emotional distress and anxiety symptoms in them (Marelli et al., 2020), which lowers self-efficacy (Chesnut & Burley, 2015) and increases burnout (H. Chen et al., 2020). Although Talidong and Toquero (2020) found that many Filipino teachers had a positive outlook during school closure, they were still vulnerable to the anxieties brought on by the pandemic. Amri et al. (2020) reported increased burnout during school closure among Moroccan teachers. Furthermore, Marelli et al. (2020) discovered that 93 Italian teachers' psychological and emotional well-being suffered significantly from the lockdown during the school's closure.

Teachers' actions are influenced by their self-efficacy beliefs when faced with potential threats that may arise during a pandemic (Tabernero et al., 2020). The impact of isolation on feelings of loneliness, vulnerability, and worry may cause teachers to feel less capable of performing, exacerbating their already present fears (Marelli et al., 2020). The decision to engage in certain behaviors and expectations of future success, as well as the introduction of coping mechanisms, are all influenced by perceived self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). According to Fernandez et al. (2020), there is a strong correlation between lockdown and emotional distress. Distressing circumstances frequently result in emotional arousal, a self-efficacy source that affects people's perceptions of their competence and, ultimately, their capacity to deal with dangerous circumstances

(Bandura, 1977). Teachers may experience similar feelings of uncertainty while providing face-to-face instruction because they are not immune to the emotional effects, vulnerabilities, and uncertainties surrounding school closure (Wakui et al., 2021; Wong et al., 2020). This vulnerability could harm their self-efficacy and coping skills and exacerbate burnout (Cheng & Lam, 2021; Copkova, 2021; SánchezPujalte et al., 2021).

Teacher Self-Efficacy and Virtual Instruction

Teachers at all levels were affected by the COVID-19 pandemic because it put them in a technological environment where they had to react quickly to the switch from in-person instruction to virtual instruction (Carrillo & Flores, 2020), which increased their workload (MacIntyre et al., 2020) and caused self-efficacy and coping issues. After all, they were unprepared (Dolighan et al., 2021; Toto & Limone, 2021). Since self-efficacy is crucial for managing COVID-19 stressors, the challenges of the pandemic increased the importance of teacher self-efficacy (Toto & Limone, 2021). They created new environmental demands on classroom teaching (Pozo-Rico et al., 2020). (Bidzan et al., 2020). Because many teachers lacked prior technology experience, the abrupt shift to virtual instruction caused stress and anxiety, which decreased self-efficacy levels (Kim & Ashbury, 2020) due to the lack of mastery experience (Haverback, 2020). Because many teachers were unfamiliar with technology (Dolighan & Owen, 2021; Pellerone et al., 2021), the increased demands placed on them as they learned to teach students virtually served as a primary stressor (Sokal et al., 2020), this can lower their level of self-efficacy and increase burnout (Cardullo et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2021; Truzoli et al., 2021). Although switching from traditional learning and teaching practices to virtual teaching

caused significant shifts, many teachers reported increased anxiety (Q. Li et al., 2020a). However, once teachers successfully navigate online teaching through mastery experience, their self-efficacy level may rise (Haverback, 2020).

Due to the lack of verbal persuasion, many teachers reported that the lack of support for new technology affected their coping ability (Carrillo & Flores, 2020). This decreased self-efficacy (Haverback, 2020). When it comes to controlling their emotional states, people's perceptions of their coping skills are extremely important (Bandura, 2012). When 20 teachers in Bangalore, India, switched to virtual classrooms, Shenoy et al. (2020) discovered higher levels of fear and anxiety among them. Bottiani et al. (2019) proposed that job-related anxiety increases teacher anxiety burnout. Although there is a correlation between the pandemic and frontline workers' elevated fears (Barzilay et al., 2020; Rooij et al., 2019), what makes it frightening is people's perceptions of their inability to handle the stress (Bandura, 1983).

Teacher self-efficacy is the most critical construct in teacher competence because of the numerous stressors that virtual instruction has brought about for teachers (MacIntyre et al., 2020), which necessitate practical coping skills to prevent burnout (Bayani & Baghery, 2020; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017a). However, their perception of self-efficacy directly supports teachers continuing virtual instruction, although virtual instruction is a significant stress factor for teachers (Ansley et al., 2021), and prolonged stress increases teacher burnout (Roberts et al., 2020). (Panisoara et al., 2020). According to Bandura (1977), teachers' perceived self-efficacy refers to their beliefs about their potential to succeed under particular circumstances. This perception affects their

behavior, effort, and persistence under those circumstances (Granziera & Perera, 2019; König et al., 2020). Therefore, teacher self-efficacy is essential for coping with psychological factors linked to coping skills and teacher burnout during the pandemic (König et al., 2020). (Lee & Shin, 2017; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017).

Risk Perceptions of Essential Workers during the COVID-19 Pandemic

Due to the virus's high risk of contamination compared to other illnesses that frontline workers encounter regularly (Shahzad et al., 2020), perceptions of fear are heightened (Allen & Cug, 2020; Thakur & Jain, 2020). Like frontline teachers (Ampofo et al., 2020; NabeNielsen et al., 2021), many frontline workers (Lin, 2020; Zheng et al., 2020) worry about contracting COVID-19 and spreading it to their family members (Gautam et al., 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic caused frontline workers to perceive emotional threats, which are psychological cognitions characterized by irrational fears, extreme hostility, or persistent anxiety (Kumar & Nayar, 2021; Shahzad et al., 2020), which resulted in burnout (Barello et al., 2020; Ismail et al., 2021). Lower self-efficacy has been associated with maintaining such phobic behavior in frontline workers if they conjure up fear-inspiring thoughts about their incapacity, which can cause elevated levels of anxiety that exceed the actual threatening situation of the pandemic (Bandura, 1977). (Raeder et al., 2019). According to Guidetti et al. (2018), teachers with low levels of self-efficacy frequently view their workplace as dangerous and emphasize the adverse effects of any perceived threats, which causes stress and teacher burnout (Chesnut & Burley, 2015; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017).

Due to the current pandemic, the concept of fear is an adaptive behavioral response to perceived dangerous situations and threats. These responses can result in chronically anxious thoughts that can be taxing (Mertens et al., 2020), which can not only make frontline workers doubt their ability to perform but also lead to burnout (Tan et al., 2020) and the fear of contamination (Alnazly et al., 2021). Frontline healthcare workers may approach a potentially dangerous situation with anxiety if they believe they are ineffective at managing potential threats, similar to frontline teachers. This lowers their sense of efficacy in their ability to function in that potentially dangerous situation (Bandura, 1983).

Experiences of Anxiety among Essential Workers during the COVID-19 Pandemic

According to studies by Lai et al., 2020; Menon et al., 2021; Serro et al., 2021; and Serro et al., 2021, COVID-19 increases mental health conditions like anxiety and depression in essential workers, which lowers self-efficacy and heightens burnout (Sumner & Kinsella, 2021). According to a recent comprehensive survey, an alarming 44.7% of essential workers who are highly susceptible to coronavirus infection were found to have generalized anxiety (R. Li et al., 2020). This prevalence rate is comparable to the anxiety levels experienced by frontline teachers during the COVID-19 pandemic (Pressley, 2021b) (Bruyneel et al., 2021). In the UK, anxiety related to COVID-19 is ranked higher than physical health (Groarke et al., 2020). An Indian psychiatric society survey discovered a 20% increase in anxiety-related cases among frontline workers during COIVD-19 (Joshi & Sharma, 2020).

The self-efficacy theory contends that stress elicits emotional arousal, which affects perceived self-efficacy and coping mechanisms, even though individual characteristics and past experiences influence work stressors and environmental factors (Troesch & Bauer, 2017). (Bandura, 1977). Generalized expectations for control and the perceived ability to carry out particular behaviors impact an individual's behavior (Zee & Koomen, 2016). Although a lot of frontline employees had anxiety (Labrague & de Los Santos, 2020; Shen et al., 2021; Simonetti et al., 2021), some managed those feelings by acknowledging the seriousness of the circumstance (R. Li et al., 2020), which raises the possibility that perceived self-efficacy, diminished anxiety (Tabernero et al., 2020), and teacher burnout are related (Shoji et al., 2016).

Self-Efficacy of Teachers during the COVID-19 Pandemic

Across the country, the COVID-19 pandemic has affected people's mental health (Passavanti et al., 2021). Public-school teachers who are dealing with increased workloads and scarce resources are not immune to these stressful repercussions (Anderson et al., 2021; Kim & Asbury, 2020). Teachers may be affected by essential workers' increased susceptibility to psychological risks like stress, anxiety, and risk perception (Di Giuseppe et al., 2021; Duncan et al., 2021), including those working in infrastructure-related activities (Kane & Tomer, 2021). (Kim et al., 2021). Like frontline healthcare workers, the COVID-19 pandemic may lower teachers' perceptions of their efficacy and lead to more significant burnout (Pressley & Ha, 2021).

Teachers who have been forced to adapt due to the pandemic may experience burnout, resilience, self-preservation, and other psychological states (Shanafelt et al.,

2020). Face-to-face instruction is crucial to student development and has a long history of support (Sharfstein & Morphew, 2020). (Pattison et al., 2021). However, due to frequent contact with students and exposure to contaminants or other potentially hazardous conditions, teachers who must report for work face immediate health risks (Ampofo et al., 2020; Kane & Tomer, 2021). Teachers on the front lines of face-to-face instruction run the same risks of infection and infection transmission as front-line healthcare workers (Manger et al., 2021), which may harm self-efficacy and burnout (Nabe-Nielsen et al., 2021; Pressley, 2021).

Because teacher self-efficacy is inversely correlated with burnout and inversely correlated with teacher commitment to teaching, it is crucial to consider how the school environment interacts with the four primary constructs of self-efficacy: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017c; Zee & Koomen, 2016). A conducive learning environment in the classroom has been linked to mastery experience (Fackler et al., 2021). When teachers observe their coworkers teaching under the same pandemic-related conditions, they may have a vicarious experience (Fackler et al., 2021). Teachers can assess their performance based on what other teachers have accomplished in comparable circumstances (Bandura, 1997), which can affect how effective they feel about themselves (Clark & Newberry, 2019; El-Abd & Chaaban, 2020).

Verbal persuasion was discovered to be a potent source of self-efficacy among teachers and can be related to oral feedback from administration or fellow teachers (Fackler et al., 2021). (Moradkhani & Haghi, 2017). The job's emotional, physical, and

psychological demands can be linked to emotional arousal, adding to teachers' workloads and making their teaching tasks more complex and challenging (Huang et al., 2019). Teachers who interacted more with their coworkers when confronted with challenging work situations reported less stress, which is a sign of vicarious experience and verbal persuasion, according to Moradkhani and Haghi (2017) and Oplatka and Iglan (2020).

Although having students in the class may be necessary (Caffo et al., 2020), the stressful circumstances teachers have had to deal with in the classroom during the pandemic have not been entirely satisfactory (Santamaria et al., 2021), and they have caused stress, fear, and anxiety in teachers (Nabe-Nielsen et al., 2021; Pittinsky, 2020). Many teachers have reported feeling unappreciated as professionals and experiencing increased stress and anxiety due to the pandemic's increased demands, uncertainty, and negative perceptions of the teaching profession (Kim et al., 2021). The increased stress and anxiety may also lead to burnout (Copková, 2021; Machado de Assis et al., 2021) and lower teacher self-efficacy (Cataudella et al., 2021). In earlier research (Boujut et al., 2017; Lauermann et al., 2016; van der Want et al., 2019), a link between teacher self-efficacy and burnout was found to exist across a range of grade levels.

Public school reopening during the COVID-19 pandemic is a complex problem that necessitates school districts to implement unconventional safety measures like mask-wearing and social seclusion (Anderson et al., 2021), which ironically may increase teacher apprehension about new rules and behaviors (Fedorenko et al., 2021). Frontline workers, such as teachers, are exposed on the job to the risk of infection that could become traumatic if personal protective measures are insufficient (J. Zhou et al., 2020),

which could lower self-efficacy and encourage burnout (Beames et al., 2021). (Pellerone, 2021).

The COVID-19 pandemic's new demands on teachers may lead to new stressors (Collie, 2021; Delgado-Gallegos et al., 2021; Nabe Nielsen et al., 2021), but they may also make teachers doubt their ability to teach, which could lower self-efficacy (Sokal et al., 2020) and lead to burnout (El, 2021). Helou et al. (2016) Returning to work during the pandemic may improve self-esteem and prevent burnout, but it is perceived self-inefficacy in coping with potentially threatening events that make them fearsome (Modini et al., 2016; W. Tan et al., 2020). (Sokal et al., 2020). Therefore, teachers may have plenty of opportunities for mastery experience despite the uncertainty of teaching on the frontline (Ozamiz-Etxebarria, 2021), which may strengthen self-efficacy and coping skills (Haverback, 2020) and prevent burnout (El Helou et al., 2016); Pressley, 2021).

Teachers who engage in face-to-face instruction, unlike frontline medical staff, are unaware of the medical conditions of the students in their classroom, which can also cause stress (Santamaria et al., 2021), anxiety (Pittinsky, 2020), and fear of exposure (Pittinsky, 2020). (Ampofo et al., 2020). Adolescents are in close contact with environments like schools, which exacerbates teacher stress, fear, and anxiety (Federkeil et al., 2020; Nabe-Nielsen et al., 2021), which can lower self-efficacy (Tang et al., 2021), cause burnout, and makes them more likely to be asymptomatic and have the potential to play a role in community transmission (Machado de Assis et al., 2021).

Therefore, teachers who engage in face-to-face instruction must deal with this issue in a setting where teaching spaces do not permit people to maintain a six-foot

distance from students who do not seem to be less contagious than adults. Allen et al. (Hyde, 2020). There are many studies on the psychological experiences of frontline healthcare workers (Allen & Cug, 2020; Shaukat et al., 2020; Moore & Kolencik, 2020; Serrao et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020b), but research on teachers is needed to better understand their experiences with self-efficacy as frontline workers teaching face-to-face instruction during the pandemic (Cataudella et al., 2021; Pressley & Ha, 2021; Rabaglietti et al., 2021).

Experiences of Stress among Teachers during the COVID-19 Pandemic

Public school teachers are not exempt from the burdensome effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, and many have dealt with high-stress levels (Santamaria et al., 2021). (Delgado-Gallegos et al., 2021). Initial research on teacher self-efficacy during the pandemic indicates that many teachers experienced a decline in self-efficacy levels due to increased teacher stress and burnout (Gobbi et al., 2021; Rabaglietti et al., 2021; Pressley, 2021b), but these studies are limited because they concentrate on pre-pandemic stressors that may be exacerbated rather than the new experience of teachers in a classroom during the pandemic (Lambert et al., 2020; Ziauddeen et al., 2020).

The issue of teacher stress manifests in all areas of education, particularly in times of uncertainty like the COVID19 pandemic (Koutsimani et al., 2019), and frequently leads to exhaustion and lower job satisfaction, which increases the risk of adverse psychological effects, such as decreased self-efficacy (Machado de Assis, 2021; Pellerone, 2021; Tang et al., 2021), increased burnout (Copková, 2021; Gobbi et al., 2021; Sánchez-Pujalte, 2021; Zadok-Gurman et al., 2021). Because reduced self-efficacy

and burnout are the final stages in a chain reaction brought on by chronic occupational stress, the pandemic created an educational environment where teachers must consciously manage their stress (Ansley et al., 2021); (Droogenbroeck et al., 2021). Many teachers have experienced psychological difficulties like declining mental health, high-stress levels, longer work hours, and a lack of consideration for their suggestions for coping with teaching during the pandemic (Ramrathan, 2020), which can lower self-efficacy and heighten burnout (De Klerk et al., 2021). Teachers may need to adapt and self-regulate mentally, physically, and emotionally (Jandri et al., 2020), given that pandemic-related teacher stressors are linked to worse mental health, coping skills, and teaching ability (Baker et al., 2020).

According to earlier research, a stressful school environment increases teacher burnout (Lambersky, 2016; Sliskovic et al., 2020; Yin et al., 2020). Stress also harms teachers' self-efficacy (Molero Jurado et al., 2019; Richards et al., 2018). Many teachers reported experiencing high levels of pandemic-related stress due to their demanding workloads, new safety precautions, and difficulty meeting their students' needs (Herman et al., 2020). Since people rely on their level of physiological arousal to assess their susceptibility to stress, stressful situations typically cause emotional arousal and can affect perceived self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). As a result, the pandemic has increased the stress at work for frontline healthcare workers (Babore et al., 2020; Moore & Kolencik, 2020; Taylor, 2020); it has also significantly increased the stress at work for frontline teachers (Nabe-Neilson et al., 2021). Public school teachers have to manage their teaching responsibilities and abide by new preventative measures to prevent the

spread of infection in their classrooms (Honigsfeld & Nordmeyer, 2020; Nabe-Neilson et al., 2021), which adds additional stress for teachers. In particular, pandemic-related public health measures have negatively accelerated individual stress levels (Matiz et al., 2020). (Myung et al., 2021).

Teachers must accommodate new, unconventional social distancing classroom demands (Pressley, 2021; Wakui et al., 2021). The teaching profession is susceptible to decreased self-efficacy and burnout due to stressful working conditions like demands for student achievement, an excessive workload, and crowded classes (Machado de Assis et al., 2021). (Hermen et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2021). According to Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al. (2021), among 1,633 Spanish teachers from mandatory and optional schools during the COVID-19 pandemic, 50.6% reported experiencing stress, and 14.5% reported experiencing severe stress. Ramberg et al., 2021; Cervantes-Guevarra et al., 2021; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2018); stress is intensified in high-demand environments with limited resources (Antoniou et al., 2020; Bottiani et al., 2019; Cervantes-Guevarra et al., 2021; Ramberg et al., 2021; Skaalvik & Ska (Taylor et al., 2021). For lessons like they did before, teachers must teach the pandemic to their students (Pressley & Ha, 2021; Santamaria et al., 2021). To meet the demanding requirements of preventative classroom restrictions while instructing students face-to-face during the pandemic, teachers are expected to unrealistically alter their instruction, which may result in lower self-efficacy levels (Hu et al., 2020) and burnout from increased workloads (Pressley, 2021). (Nordhall et al., 2020).

Classroom management is shaped by the environment in which teachers work (Hajovsky et al., 2020). Teachers who feel more effective in their ability to control classroom behavior are more likely to teach more effectively (Herman et al., 2017). According to Wilson et al. (2020), the teaching environment was essential for sustaining teacher self-efficacy. Furthermore, the relationships that teachers develop within that environment may also impact self-efficacy levels (Siciliano, 2016), which is a sign of the value of verbal persuasion and vicarious experience as persuasive tools (Haverback, 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic has led to the implementation of socially distanced classrooms by many school districts (Pressley, 2021a), which may limit the opportunities for face-to-face teachers to gain vicarious experience and boost their self-efficacy.

Although the pandemic has increased teacher stress (Wang et al., 2021b) and made classrooms stressful (Mirzaie et al., 2021; Lizhi et al., 2021), it is teachers' perceptions of these overly stressful demands that may be stifling their self-efficacy (Lazarides et al., 2020). In light of this, there is no shortage of stressors for teachers who returned to the classroom during the COVID-19 pandemic (Weinert et al., 2021). Public school district leaders must not ignore those pandemic-related stressors faced by teachers (Baker et al., 2020). Public school district leaders ignoring these stressors are essential because stress affects teacher self-efficacy, and self-efficacy affects burnout (Cappe et al., 2021); (Herman et al., 2018).

Risk Perceptions of Teachers during the COVID-19 Pandemic

Many different types of workers, such as public school teachers who provide face-to-face instruction to students in a physical setting (Beames et al., 2021), are at an

increased risk of contracting COVID-19 infection in addition to frontline healthcare workers (Burdorf et al., 2020; Nicholas et al., 2021). Because they cared for students and were in charge of maintaining infection control in schools while also being at risk of contracting diseases, public school teachers were put in a position similar to that of frontline healthcare workers while being at risk of infection by those students (Ampofo et al., 2020; Weinert et al., 2021; Yoo et al., 2021).

The reopening of schools for complete face-to-face instruction caused many teachers to express concerns about their health and safety. Although teachers with a higher risk perception showed a more substantial adoption of disease prevention measures, they also reflected lower levels of self-efficacy (Tang et al., 2021). According to 184 Irish teachers studied by Chadwick and McLoughlin (2021), 95% of them avoided eye contact, 98% wore masks, and 93% rearranged their classrooms to avoid eye contact. 94% of students said their confidence in their ability to teach had decreased as a result of the precautions taken to stop the coronavirus from spreading. Increased psychological distress was linked to increased fear of COVID-19 (Chakraborty, 2020; Labrague & de Los Santos, 2020; Nica et al., 2020), which may result in a decline in self-efficacy (Birhanu et al., 2021).

Teachers, like front-line healthcare workers, interact with a variety of people daily, including being in close proximity to students (Ampofo et al., 2020; Lizhi et al., 2021; Nabe-Nielsen et al., 2021). However, many teachers are unsure whether they will feel safe providing face-to-face instruction to students on campus (Kim et al., 2021; Weinert et al., 2021). Teachers may have higher risk perceptions about contracting the

coronavirus or dealing with an outbreak in the classroom (Wakui et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021b), which can lower self-efficacy and lead to burnout (Dabrowski, 2020). According to a recent National Public Radio poll, 77% of teachers are concerned about endangering their health by returning to the classroom to deliver face-to-face instruction (Kamenetz, 2020). While this was happening, a study from Arab nations revealed that the pandemic had severely impaired teachers' ability to instruct while escalating their fears of catching the coronavirus and infecting their families (Al Lily et al., 2020). (Nicholas et al., 2021).

According to statistics, teachers have more social interactions and daily interactions with many students than frontline employees in other professions, which increases their risk of coronavirus infection (Ampofo et al., 2020). Teachers who work in frontline environments are more likely to be exposed (Ampofo et al., 2020; Nabe-Nielsen et al., 2021), and many frontline employees worry about their safety (Tayyib & Alsolami, 2020). As a result, they are more likely to have problems with self-efficacy, coping difficulties, and burnout (Guidetti et al., 2018; Zhang et al. Many teachers argue that vaccinations alone are insufficient to reduce teacher risk as schools switch from virtual instruction to hybrid instruction. They want guarantees that schools will not object to requiring mask use, social withdrawal, and other safety precautions (Racey et al., 2021). Teachers' assurances are based on their concern about contracting an infection, infecting their family members, and disrupting their social and professional lives (Brooks et al., 2020; Thombs et al., 2020).

Teachers are vulnerable front-line workers who perceive in-person teaching as having a significant risk (Koir et al., 2021; Nabe-Nielsen et al.; Pressley et al., 2021a). During the pandemic, teaching in a brick-and-mortar setting places them in unfamiliar and uncertain conditions (Ziauddeen et al., 2020), which may increase their risk perception. For instance, hundreds of teachers in Chicago skipped the first day of classes, and many appeared to be more afraid of imparting face-to-face instruction than of being fired (Abuleo, 2021). Others were concerned about how they would handle those who were nearby or tested positive for COVID-19 (Schemer, 2020). The Coalition of Concerned Teachers, the Teachers and Educational Workers Union, the Ghana National Association of Teachers, and the National Association of Graduate Teachers all vehemently opposed the reopening of schools due to the potential risk to teachers (Ampofo et al., 2020).

Many teachers perceive providing face-to-face instruction as a health risk to their own lives and the lives of their families (Ampofo et al., 2020), which is similar to the risk perceptions experienced by frontline healthcare workers (Hu et al., 2020; Labrague & de Los Santos, 2021; Villar et al., 2021). As more students return to the classroom for in-person instruction, it becomes nearly impossible to maintain a six-foot distance between them (Vouriot et al., 2020; Vouriot et al., 2021). (Tupper & Colijn, 2021). However, unlike frontline healthcare professionals who are aware of medical certainties, teachers in a traditional setting are faced with a crowded environment rife with uncertainties regarding the health of their students (Ampofo et al., 2020). These uncertainties could induce an infection-related fear similar to that felt by frontline medical personnel (Cheng

& Lam, 2021; Tang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021b) (Chersich et al., 2020; Khattak et al., 2021; Kirkman, 2021). Lower levels of self-efficacy have been linked to more severe COVID-19 infection fears (Yildirim & Guler, 2020) and elevated frontline worker burnout (Allen & Cug, 2020; S. Li et al., 2020). Teacher burnout may result from ongoing emotional work stressors like fear that have a negative impact on self-efficacy and coping skills (Li, 2020; Zhu et al., 2018).

Teachers who provide face-to-face instruction may therefore perceive a significant risk of contracting an infection at work and spreading it to their homes (NabeNielsen et al., 2021), and simply informing teachers of the shifting federal and state guidelines may not be sufficient to reduce this risk perception (Wakui et al., 2021). Because their self-efficacy may be influenced by perceptions of their environment, which could make coping more difficult (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2016), teachers must be fully prepared and psychologically ready to combat cognitive risk perceptions of teaching during the pandemic (Ampofo et al., 2020). The idea of teachers being prepared and ready to combat risk perceptions increases the likelihood of burnout (Zhu et al., 2018) due to prolonged exposure to COVID-related stress (Sánchez-Pujalt et al., 2021).

Experiences of Anxiety among Teachers during the COVID-19 Pandemic

Despite the development of COVID-19 vaccines (Brooks et al., 2020), 185,291,530 confirmed cases and 4,010,834 fatalities had been reported globally (Yoo et al., 2021). Public school systems continue to be disrupted (Stachteas & Stachteas, 2021), leading to high levels of anxiety and burnout among many teachers (Ozamiz -Etxebarria et al., 2021). Teachers who deliver instruction in person may experience anxiety (Q. Li et

al., 2020a; Q. Li et al., 2021b; Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2021), which may affect students' perceptions of their own efficacy (Huang et al., 2021) and encourage burnout. Anxiety is common among frontline workers (Tasnim et al., 2021). (Cho et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021; Sokal et al., 2020).

Many emotional issues, such as frustration, anxiety, uncertainty, and depression, which seem to have increased during the COVID-19 epidemic (Duan & Zhu, 2020; Pressley & Ha, 2021), imply consequences for teachers in terms of their psychological well-being, and some teachers required emotional and psychological support (Collie, 2021). However, teachers with highly effective convictions report greater job satisfaction, boosting their sense of well-being (Baluyos et al., 2019; Cataudella et al., 2021). Forcing face-to-face instruction back into the classroom has caused anxiety in many teachers (Pittinsky, 2020; Pressley, 2021). Anxiety among teachers was the most frequently mentioned emotion concerning in-person instruction. (Wakui et al., 2021).

Teachers had the additional duties of taking students' temperatures, identifying their suspected symptoms, instructing students to wear masks, and ensuring social seclusion when schools reopened for face-to-face instruction, despite not having received training in infection control (Yoo et al., 2021). These additional professional responsibilities undoubtedly placed a heavy psychological burden on many teachers who provided face-to-face instruction and exacerbated their anxiety symptoms, which can lower self-efficacy and heighten burnout (Amri et al., 2020; Pressley, 2021). The psychological effects of COVID-19 have been extensively documented (Lu et al., 2020; Verma & Mishra, 2020; Vindegaard & Benros, 2020; Y. Wang et al., 2021b), and

teaching face-to-face instruction during the COVID-19 pandemic has raised anxiety levels in many teachers (Q. Li et al., 2020), which may affect their capacity to make wise decisions (Asmundson & Taylor, 2020).

According to Wakui et al. (2021), among 263 primary and middle school teachers in Japan, many teachers had experienced anxiety related to infection regarding face-to-face instruction. Anxiety impairs performance at work and causes psychological problems (Zhou et al., 2018), which could have a negative impact on self-efficacy and coping, resulting in burnout symptoms in teachers (Cao et al., 2018: Maslach & Leiter, 2016). However, higher engagement and less burnout are predicted by teacher self-efficacy (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017) because it affects how people assess their abilities at work, and teachers who are more confident in their abilities are more committed to completing professional tasks (Guidetti et al., 2018). Teachers' anxiety about face-to-face instruction was exacerbated by their uncertainty about how students would socially distance themselves, what kind of protective equipment would be available, and how to communicate with parents and administrators. Even though teachers expressed COVID-19-related anxiety regarding new teaching demands, parent communication, and administrative support (Santamaria et al., 2021), schools would be cleaned up (Pittinsky, 2020; Weinert et al., 2021).

Ironically, 74% of Illinois teachers preferred hybrid instruction over complete face-to-face instruction because they were anxious about in-person instruction (Cullotta & Sherry, 2020). Previous research (Akhter et al., 2016, De Clercq et al., 2018, Fitzpatrick et al., 2020) found a negative correlation but a positive relationship between

teacher self-efficacy and anxiety and the relation between COVID-19 and worry (Nikcevic et al., 2021; Warren et al., 2021). Frontline teachers may experience lower efficacy and coping capacity due to the new challenges of teaching face-to-face instruction, which could result in teacher burnout (Hoang, 2020; Martnez-Ramón et al., 2021; Sánchez-Pujalte et al., 2021; Zadok-Gurman et al., 2021). COVID-19 can increase anxiety levels (Peteet, 2021), leading to teacher burnout.

Social Emotional Learning in Childhood

Friendships are a way that children learn to establish social and emotional relationships. Children as toddlers may prefer certain playmates (Ross & Lollis, 1989). However, peer interactions are more likely to consist of parallel play at this age than intentional social interactions (Pettit, Clawson, Dodge, & Bates, 1996). Many children use the term friend when referring to certain children by the age of four, and they do so with a fair amount of consistency (Hartup, 1983). However, friendship among young children is frequently based on proximity, such as living next door, attending the same school, or referring to whomever they happen to be playing with at the time (Rubin, 1980).

In middle and late childhood, friendships take on new significance as judges of one's worth, competence, and attractiveness. Friendships allow people to learn social skills such as communicating with others and resolving conflicts. Children exchange ideas about completing tasks, gaining popularity, wearing or saying, and acting with one another. This children's society represents a shift from a family-centered life to one centered on peers. Peers play an increasingly important role in middle and late childhood.

As a parent who has tried to console a rejected child knows, peers play an essential part in a child's self-esteem at this age. Friendship rejection can only be remedied by renewed acceptance, no matter how complimentary and encouraging the parent is—children's understanding of what makes someone a friend shifts from egocentric to mutual trust and commitment-based understanding. According to Bigelow (1977) and Selman (1980), these changes correlate to advances in cognitive development.

Bigelow and La Gaipa (1975) identified three development stages in children's friendship. Friendship focuses on joint activities in the first stage, reward-cost. Similar interests are emphasized as a good friend's main characteristics in early, middle, and late childhood. The second stage, normative expectation, emphasizes conventional morality; a friend is seen as kind and generous. Fifth graders highlighted this in a friend more than third or eighth-graders, according to Clark and Bittle (1992). Friends are loyal, committed to the relationship, and share personal information in the final stage, which is empathy and understanding. According to Clark and Bittle (1992), eighth graders emphasize empathy and understanding in a friend more. The researchers also discovered that girls began to share secrets as early as fifth grade and to not betray confidence as an essential quality in a friend.

Selman (1980) describes five stages of friendship from early childhood to adulthood. A friend in stage 0, with little physical interaction, is someone with whom you are currently playing. According to Selman, this is symbolic of children between the ages of three and six. These early friendships are formed more due to circumstances (for example, a neighbor) than genuine similarities. A friend is someone who does pleasant

things for you in stage 1, one-way assistance, such as saving a seat on the school bus or sharing a toy with you.

On the other hand, children at this age do not always consider how they contribute to their relationships. However, having a friend is important, and children will sometimes put up with a less-than-ideal friend just to have one. This stage can affect children as young as five and as old as nine. In stage 2, fair-weather cooperation, children place a high value on fairness and reciprocity, and a friend is someone who repays a favor. If a child does something pleasant for a friend at this age, the expectation is that the friend will do something nice for them as soon as possible. If this does not happen, a child may decide to end the friendship. Selman discovered that this stage affects children as young as seven and as old as twelve. A friend is a person you can share things you wouldn't share with anyone else in stage 3, intimate and mutual sharing, which occurs between the ages of eight and fifteen. In this childhood and adolescence stage, they no longer "keep score" and instead do things for a friend because they genuinely care about them. When a friendship breaks down during the stage, it is usually due to a breach of trust.

On the other hand, children in this stage expect their friends to share similar interests and viewpoints and may consider it a betrayal if a friend likes someone they do not. A friend in stage 4, autonomous interdependence, is someone who accepts you and accepts you as you are. Children, teenagers, and adults at this stage accept and even appreciate differences between themselves and their peers. They are also less possessive, so they are less likely to feel threatened if their friends have other interests or relationships. In this stage, children are usually twelve years old or older.

Maunder and Monks (2018) surveyed 314 seven-to eleven-year-old children about their friendships, best friendships, friendship quality, and indices of self-worth, as well as identification with peers and school. The sample was made of 52.5 percent of whom were female, from thirteen classes in five primary schools in England. The schools were chosen by chance sampling from the researchers' personal contacts. All the schools were state-funded primary schools in low- to middle-income neighborhoods.

Both university research ethics committees gave their approval to the study. The head teacher's consent was obtained, as was 'opt out' consent from parents/caretakers of children and assent from children. The research was carried out during the class time. A researcher read each question to the class, and the children wrote their answers independently, without discussing them with others. Children were told they were not obligated to answer any questions they did not want to. It was stressed how important it was for them to keep their answers and friendship nominations private. The questionnaire took about 20 minutes to complete.

Individual item scores were totaled for each sub-scale on the *About Me and Friendship Quality Scale* (FQS). According to the means and standard deviations, children reported high levels of identification with peers and school, high self-worth, and good quality relationships with their best friends. Because some of the data contradicted parametric assumptions, subsequent analyses used bootstrapping.

The findings supported the importance of examining various aspects of children's peer relationships, such as nominations for friendship, best friendships, reciprocity of friendships, and friendship quality, as well as the interactions between these variables, to

better understand children's peer relationships and adjustment (Erath et al., 2008; Hoza, Bukowski, & Beery, 2000). The study focused on peer relationships in middle childhood. It builds on previous research highlighting the importance of tightly knit reciprocal friendships, children's feelings about themselves, school, and their peer group in general during this time (Boulton et al., 2011; Gifford-Smith & Brownell, 2003; Hamm & Faircloth, 2005; Pederson et al., 2007).

A separate study conducted by Sakyi, Surkan, Fombonne, Chollet, and Melchoir (2014), Sakyi, Surkan, Fombonne, Chollet, and Melchoir (2014), the researchers investigated the prospective relationship between childhood friendships and psychological difficulties in young adulthood. The data came from 1103 French 22–35-year-olds who are part of the Trajectoires Épidémiologiques en Population (TEMPO) study and whose parents are part of the GAZEL Cohort Study, which began in 1989 Goldberg et al., 2007. In 1991, when the participants were 4–16 years old, they were asked about their childhood friendships.

In childhood, 5% of study participants had no friends, while 80% had two or more friends. Sixty-five percent of the participants in the study came from families with intermediate/high parental income, and thirty percent had a parent with a history of depression. In 15% and 13% of the participants, internalizing and externalizing symptoms were present. Even after controlling for socio-demographic factors, childhood psychological difficulties, and parental characteristics, the researchers found that individuals with no friends were twice as likely to experience internalizing symptoms as

those with at least one childhood friend, even after controlling for socio-demographic factors, childhood psychological difficulties, and parental characteristics.

Social Emotional Challenges in Childhood

The majority of kids want to be liked and accepted by their peers. Some well-known children are pleasant to be around and have excellent social skills. Popular and prosocial children do well in school and are cooperative and friendly. Children who are popular-antisocial may do so by acting tough or spreading rumors about others (Cillessen & Mayeux, 2004). Children who have been rejected and are withdrawn are sometimes excluded. These kids are shy and withdrawn, making them easy prey for bullies because they are unlikely to retaliate if they are teased (Boulton, 1999). Other rejected children are rejected-aggressive and shunned for being aggressive, loud, and confrontational. The aggressively rejected children may be acting out of insecurity. Unfortunately, their fear of rejection causes them to act in ways that cause other children to reject them. Children whose peers do not accept are more likely to have conflicts, lack confidence, and have difficulty adjusting to their surroundings (Klima & Repetti, 2008; Schwartz, Lansford, Dodge, Pettit, & Bates, 2014).

Bullying is a social and emotional challenge that many children face in their later years. Bullying is defined as unwanted, aggressive behavior among school-aged children that involves a real or perceived power imbalance, according to Stopbullying.gov (2021), a federal government website managed by the United States Department of Health and Human Services. Furthermore, the aggressive behavior has occurred or has the potential to occur again. Bullying can assume many forms, including verbal bullying, which

involves saying or writing hurtful things, teasing, name-calling, taunting, threatening, or making sexually inappropriate comments. Spreading rumors, purposefully excluding persons from a group, or purposefully embarrassing someone are all examples of social bullying, also known as relational bullying. Bullying that involves physical harm to a person's body or property is known as physical bullying.

Bullying is defined as unwanted, antagonistic behavior among school-aged children that involves a real or perceived imbalance of power, according to Stopbullying.gov (2016), a federal government website managed by the United States Department of Health and Human Services. Furthermore, the aggressive behavior has occurred or has the potential to occur again. Verbal bullying is a form of harassment that involves saying or writing hurtful things, teasing, name-calling, taunting, threatening, or making sexually inappropriate comments. Spreading rumors, persistently excluding someone from a group, or purposefully embarrassing someone are all examples of social bullying, also known as relational bullying. Bullying that involves physical harm to a person's body or property is known as physical bullying.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics and the Bureau of Justice Statistics, 28 percent of students in grades 6-12 experienced bullying in 2010-2011, and 7% experienced cyberbullying. According to the 2013 Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System, the National Center for Education Statistics, and the Bureau of Justice Statistics, 28 percent of students in grades 6-12 were bullied in 2010-2011, and 7% were cyberbullied. According to the 2013 Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System,

which tracks six types of health risk behaviors, 20% of students in grades 9-12 have been bullied, and 15% have been cyberbullied (Stopbullying.gov, 2016).

Bohlin and HageKull's longitudinal study (2009), which began in 1985, summarizes longitudinal data from infancy to middle childhood. Mothers of all infants born at the Academic Hospital in Uppsala during 11 specific weeks in 1985 were contacted. Sixty-two percent of the mothers agreed to participate in the study, and 104 fathers were included from the age of 10 months onwards (due to increased funding). Ninety-six families remained in the study at the age of nine. Parents with no education or only a 2-year education beyond the mandatory nine school years also participated. The study site is a university township and surrounding areas, and parents were generally highly educated.

At the age of six weeks, the first home visit was made. During the first four years, there were many interactions. Following that, three data collections were conducted between the ages of 8 and 9. Video-recorded lab visits, paper-and-pencil observations in homes, preschools, and schools, questionnaires, and interviews with parents, preschool and school teachers, and schoolchildren themselves were used to gather data.

The findings of the Uppsala Longitudinal Study (ULS) on the role of temperament, attachment, and social factors in advance of socio-emotional functioning from infancy to early school age can be summarized as follows: temperament characteristics were predictive of problem behaviors, personality, and social competence, whereas attachment security was only predictive of social competence and personality.

In a separate study, Larson and Richards (1991) looked at age differences in the quantity and quality of children's and young adolescents' daily experiences with their families, friends, and alone. Participants (ages 9-15) were given electronic pagers to wear for a week and were asked to report their companionship, location, and affect at random times when the pagers rang. 483 fifth to ninth graders (ages 9-15) from four suburban Chicago school neighborhoods were randomly selected for this study. Two were in a working-class suburb, while the other was in the middle- and upper-middle-class suburbs. All four were almost entirely made up of people of European ancestry.

In a separate study, Reed and Richards (1991) looked at age differences in the quantity and quality of children's and young adolescents' daily experiences with their families, friends, and alone. Participants (ages 9-15) were given electronic pagers to wear for a week and were asked to report their companionship, location, and affect at random times when the pagers rang. 483 fifth to ninth graders (ages 9-15) from four suburban Chicago school neighborhoods were randomly selected for this study. Two were in a working-class suburb, while the other was in the middle- and upper-middle-class suburbs. All four were almost entirely made up of people of European ancestry.

Each student was given an electronic pager and a booklet of self-report forms at the start of the participation week. After receiving each pager signal, they were told to keep the pager and booklet with them for a week and fill out one self-report form. Each day, seven signals were sent randomly between 7:30 a.m. and 9:30 p.m., one at a random time within every 2-hour block. The study began on a Tuesday or Wednesday for nearly all of the participants. The pagers and booklets were collected at the end of the seven

days, and the students were asked to contribute to an interview and fill out a series of questionnaires, for which they were paid $8. The students responded to a total of 18,022 signals, averaging 37.3 self-reports per person.

The outcomes of this study back up the theory that the family fades away as a significant context of daily interactions as children increase in age. Ninth graders reported spending half as much time with family members as fifth graders. Older students spent less time with their families at home and away from home. A study of older adolescents that used the same methodology found that time spent with family decreases during senior high school (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1984). The family has been discovered to be a context that reinforces adult values, promotes academic success, supports self-esteem, and even increases security in peer relationships (Hoffman, Ushpiz, & Levy-Shiff, 1988; Larson, 1983; Ryan & Lynch, 1989).

Students of Color and SEL

The coronavirus disease pandemic of 2019 (COVID-19) has ushered in a period of unprecedented isolation, despair, and suffering. Although COVID-19 does not discriminate based on race, gender, or socioeconomic status, the pandemic's effects appear more harmful to students of color (Ambrose, 2020). There is a hidden pandemic beneath the COVID-19 infections that affect children of color directly and indirectly, with long-term consequences.

Education is a prerequisite for socioeconomic advancement and poverty reduction (Ambrose, 2020). Children of color in primary and secondary schools will have less access to education as teaching shifts to virtual platforms. Affluent neighborhoods'

schools and the families whose children attend them are more likely to have the resources to establish remote learning infrastructures quickly. On the other hand, Marginalized households are much less equipped to adapt to virtual instructions because they tend to live in less-resourced neighborhoods and attend high-poverty schools. Hispanic and African-American families are much less likely to have home broadband, making doing remote homework, researching new information, or even using online educational tools nearly impossible (Pew Research Center, 2020). For many children of color, schoolyards may be their only safe haven in the face of rising violence, homelessness, and crime rates in their own communities.

A better understanding of the scope of inequities is needed to address issues with equity. All children's well-being depends on equitable access to health care, nutritious food, safe drinking water, stable housing, competent education, and extracurricular enrichment opportunities (Ambrose, 2020). More children (many of whom are from underrepresented backgrounds) will go hungry, homeless, and uneducated due to COVID-19 (Ambrose, 2020). In 2018, 38 million people, including nearly 12 million children, lived in poverty, according to the United States Census Bureau (2020). Every day, more than 11 million children go to bed hungry because their parents cannot afford exorbitant child care costs (Ambrose, 2020). Many people cannot obtain a high-quality education that includes reliable internet access. During the 2017-2018 school year, 1.5 million school-aged children were homeless (NCHE, 2020). According to the Federal Reserve, 40% of adults could not cover a $400 emergency in 2019.

Bhogal et al., 2021, examined the impact of the pandemic, including mental health symptoms and COVID-19-related fears and behaviors, in a sample of majority Black American (72%) children from an urban area with high infection rates. Participants included 7-10-year-old children (grades 2-4) from three Detroit-area schools, two public and one private. The schools were in close proximity to the city of Detroit, and their demographics mirrored those of the surrounding neighborhoods, which were 57-69 percent African-American, 23-37 percent Caucasian, and had a median household income of $52,000. (US Census Bureau, 2020). The schools were chosen from an 8-mile radius and included a mix of public and private schools to reflect the sociodemographic makeup of the households.

Students and their parents received an electronic invitation to complete surveys. During the COVID-19 pandemic, follow-up surveys on mental health were conducted. The researchers included two-time points in 2020: May and August. Students who had completed survey data in May 2020 were also included in the report. The sample's children were mainly Black Americans, which matched the demographics of the participating schools and the surrounding neighborhoods.

The researchers used dependent samples *t-tests or Pearson r* correlations to see if children's Fear of Illness and Virus Evaluation (FIVE) scores were linked to demographic data (i.e., child gender, race, parent marital status, parent employment status) and Coronavirus exposure. The results revealed that the FIVE scores of the children were unaffected by the child's gender, parent marital status, or parent employment status. The researchers discovered differences between Black American and

non-Black American children, with Black American children reporting more fears about Social Distancing than non-Black children between May and August 2020.

These findings suggest that children's fears of illness grew over time and that these effects were independent of race and socioeconomic status. Since symptoms of fear-based disorders (e.g., anxiety, posttraumatic stress disorder) typically begin during the first two decades of life (Kessler et al., 2005), an increase in fears over time has mental health implications. On the other hand, lower-income children expressed more fear of social isolation during the pandemic than their higher-income peers. Lower-income children also reported more internalizing symptoms before the pandemic's onset, and internalizing symptoms in this group decreased after the stay-at-home orders were issued. Contrary to what adults have reported, children's fears did not drive their behavior. Instead, exposure to the coronavirus was linked to children's safety behaviors during the pandemic. According to the researchers, these findings highlight the need for more research into COVID-19's mental health effects on particularly vulnerable pediatric populations (e.g., younger, minority, lower SES). Future research should identify factors that can protect at-risk youth from negative mental health consequences before and after the pandemic to prevent the lasting effects of fear (Bhogal et al., 2021).

Allbright et al., 2019, looked at SEL practices in ten middle schools with robust student-reported data on SEL outcomes, specifically for African American and Latinx students in grades 4-8 who had demonstrated higher-than-average performance in student-reported SEL. The researchers wanted to look into a group of positive outliers or

schools that exhibit behaviors or strategies that have resulted in better solutions and outcomes (Pascale et al., 2010; Marsh et al., 2004).

Case study methods were used in the research, which included interviews, observations, and document analysis. The research team conducted semi-structured interviews with one and three central office administrators responsible for SEL-related work (n=12) in each of the five participating CORE districts, including administrators overseeing measurement and evaluation and SEL. In the spring of 2017, two research teams visited each school (March–June). Researchers interviewed school leaders (n=15), other adults responsible for social-emotional support (n=13), and teachers (n=26) in each school. They also collected documents and other artifacts (e.g., program descriptions, data reports, and school and classroom posters with SEL material). They observed school activities and classrooms (a total of 28 observations of classes, passing periods, lunch periods, and other events) to better understand how SEL opportunities were implemented on campus during and after school. The researchers also interviewed three CORE office leaders and two CORE non-profit partners. All interviews were conducted using semi-structured protocols and were audio-recorded and transcribed. To protect respondents' anonymity, we did not include the names of any organizations or individuals involved in the study and changed details where necessary to protect their identities.

Researchers used an inductive, exploratory approach to understand how educators attempted to promote SEL in the study (Stake, 2005). They dissected the data for each district and its schools separately, resulting in detailed case memos. These initially embedded case study memos helped specify local SEL strategies and practices and vital

contextual elements in each district and school. The researchers also conducted a cross-case analysis, using the case study memos and all transcripts to see how definitions and implementation differed between cases (Miles et al., 2013). The research team met for two days to identify critical findings and better understand patterns across districts and schools. To strengthen the validity of the findings, they triangulated findings across multiple respondents and data sources whenever possible. Finally, after receiving extensive feedback from two external reviewers, they revised the report.

The researchers identified six SEL practices: strategies for promoting a positive school climate and relationships, supporting positive behavior, using elective courses and extracurricular activities, SEL-specific classroom practices and curricula, personnel strategies, and data collection and analysis. The respondents mentioned two challenges were the lack of a standard definition of SEL and the lack of alignment among SEL practices, which the researchers discovered. The researchers wanted to learn more about policies and practices that could help students' mental and emotional well-being, quality relationships between students and staff, and safe and inclusive school environments.

Teachers' Roles in Social Emotional Learning (SEL)

Teachers' social-emotional competence and well-being significantly influence the learning environment and the introduction of SEL into classrooms and schools (Jones et al., 2013). Researchers Jennings and Greenberg (2009) found that the quality of teacher-student connections, student and classroom management, and the implementation of effective social and emotional learning programs all played a role in the outcomes of the classroom and the students involved in the program in 2009. Deep learning occurs in

classrooms where the teacher and students have warm relationships. Children who feel confident with their teachers and peers are more willing to contend with challenging material and persevere through complex learning tasks (2012).

According to Jennings and Greenberg (2015), high social and emotional competence teachers are aware of their feelings. They can recognize their own emotions, use their emotions to motivate others to learn, and have a thorough understanding of their capacities and their emotional strengths and weaknesses, in particular. Socially aware, they recognize and understand the emotions of others, including those of their students and colleagues. They strive to build strong, supportive relationships with them and with their students and colleagues. Furthermore, they are culturally aware, and their awareness that other people's perspectives may differ from their own helps them negotiate positive solutions to conflict situations.

Teachers who have high social and emotional competence also demonstrate prosocial values: they have a great deal of respect for their colleagues and students (as well as for their students' families), and they are concerned about how their own decisions affect the well-being of others (Schonert-Reichl, 2017). Teachers are also well-versed in the art of self-management. Their emotions and behaviors can be managed healthily, even in emotionally charged situations, which helps them construct a positive learning environment for their students (Schonert-Reichl, 2017).

Teachers who successfully navigate social and emotional challenges report feeling more effective, and that teaching is more enjoyable and rewarding (Goddard, Hoy, and Hoy, 2004). Teachers' ability to provide emotional and instructional support to

their students is impaired when they are experiencing emotional distress themselves. It is evident in their classroom behavior and interactions with students, which serve as a primary mechanism for socialization that their social and emotional competence and well-being are high (Schonert-Reichel, 2017). A high-quality classroom climate is associated with teachers with higher levels of social-emotional competence, who organize their classrooms and provide emotional and instructional support in ways associated with a high-quality classroom climate (Hamre, Pianta, 2001). According to Jennings and Greenberg, SEL interventions should consider teachers' own SEL competence and well-being to help them implement SEL effectively (2015).

Although research has shown that both individual and organizational factors can affect the fidelity with which school-based curricula are implemented in classrooms (Kam et al., 2003; Lochman et al., 2008; Rohrbach et al., 2006), few studies have measured work-related psychological experiences, such as burnout, and how they influence curricula implementation in schools—in particular, how multiple factors interact with one another (Domitrovich et al., 2008).

The current study looked at how teachers' psychological experiences and perceptions of curriculum supports were linked to their self-reported PATHS (Greenberg & Kusche', 1994) implementation dosage and quality. PATHS is a universal social-emotional intervention designed for use in kindergarten through Grade 5.

The researchers of this study investigated two research questions. The first was to see if teachers' psychological experiences (such as burnout and sense of efficacy) and perceived curriculum supports were linked to their self-reported dosage levels and

implementation quality. The study took place in a school district in a midsized urban setting in Pennsylvania that serves primarily disadvantaged students (e.g., 90% of students are eligible for free and reduced lunch). The superintendent had been with the district for several years at the time of the study.

The study was open to all 156 teachers in the district who teach kindergarten through fifth grade. A total of 133 teachers were included in the study. Most teachers (91.7 percent) were female, with an average age of 40. Teachers had worked in the district for an average of 14.7 years, with similar lengths of time reported for time spent in the teaching profession.

The researchers distributed a teacher demographic survey, which asked teachers to answer questions about their backgrounds, professional backgrounds, years in districts, years trained in *Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies* (PATHS), and overall teaching experience. These demographic variables were used to describe the sample, and when they were significantly associated with the outcome variables, they were used as control variables in substantive analyses.

In October 2005, data were gathered through a Web-based survey. The data collection was announced to principals via a letter from the superintendent's office that explained the study's purpose and the district's support for the research. A follow-up letter was also sent to each teacher's school mailbox, inviting them to participate in the survey. The survey was available for one week on the Internet. Before continuing with the 20-minute survey, teachers were asked to log onto the Internet and provide their informed

consent. An independent third-party survey research center assigned each teacher an identification number to confidently share their information with the research team.

Both sets of factors were found to be necessary, but they were linked to different aspects of teacher self-reported implementation. Teachers' psychological experiences were only linked to the amount of PATHS supplemental activities they self-reported taking. Teachers with higher levels of burnout were less likely to deliver these extra curriculum components, whereas those with higher levels of efficacy were more likely to do so. This finding is consistent with previous research on the impact of burnout on worker productivity (Freudenberger, 1974; Cherniss, 1980; Maslach & Jackson, 1981, 1984; Perlman & Hartman, 1982).

Teachers' Beliefs and SEL Program Implementation. Teachers across the country recognize that social and emotional learning (SEL) is critical to students' success in school, at work, and in their private and professional lives (Bridgeland, Bruce, and Hariharan, 2013). Social and emotional learning encompasses the processes of developing competencies such as self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and the ability to make responsible decisions. Educators are aware that these abilities can be taught; they want schools to place a greater emphasis on integrating such development into the curriculum, instruction, and school culture; and they believe that student learning standards should reflect this emphasis on student development (Bridgeland, Bruce, and Hariharan, 2013). On the other hand, teachers want such opportunities to be available to all students. It was discovered in a national teacher survey sponsored by CASEL (2012) that teachers understand, value, and endorse social and

emotional learning for all students; (2) teachers believe that social and emotional learning helps students achieve in school and their personal lives; and (3) teachers identify critical accelerators for social and emotional learning (Bridgeland, Bruce, and Hariharan, 2013). Additionally, discussions with students, case studies of successful schools, and conversations with school leaders all support these conclusions. According to the results of a nationally representative survey of prekindergarten through twelfth-grade teachers, the role and significance of social and emotional learning in America's schools were assessed (Bridgeland, Bruce, and Hariharan, 2013).

According to Durlak and DuPre, (2008), teacher-related factors can influence the implementation of SEL programs in ways that can affect the program's quality and performance and impact the implementation of SEL programs in ways that can have an impact on the program's quality and effectiveness. SEL programs are more successful when teachers approach them with a positive attitude, are motivated to deliver them consistently, and are confident in their ability to do so successfully (Durlak and DuPre, 2008). Teacher beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions have also been found to be associated with the fidelity with which they implement SEL programs, including beliefs about whether the SEL program's activities are aligned with their teaching approach; beliefs about their teaching efficacy; level of comfort with delivering an SEL curriculum; beliefs about behavior management practices; dedication to developing students' SEL skills; and beliefs about whether they receive adequate support from administrators (Domitrovich et al., 2009, 2012).

Even when schools implement SEL programs, the effectiveness of the programs depends on the teachers' dedication to the subject and their level of comfort with the content, as well as their perception of support from the school (Brackett, Reyes, Rivers, Elbertson & Salovey, 2012). Unfortunately, even though social and emotional learning (SEL) is being implemented in schools, teachers frequently receive insufficient preparation and support (Jones & Bouffard, 2012), both of which are required for successful implementation (Durlak, 2015). Despite the importance of teachers' beliefs about social and emotional learning (SEL) and their readiness to teach these programs, few studies have looked at teachers' experiences in adopting and implementing SEL programs in the classroom, according to the authors (Durlak et al., 2011). Unfortunately, evidence shows that as a phase progresses, the diffusion of successful measures usually produces diminishing returns. Many communities do not receive accurate knowledge about successful approaches for various reasons. When this happens, only a few people in the group are inspired to try something different. Many innovations run into implementation issues, which reduce the program's effectiveness. Finally, despite their effectiveness during a demonstration phase, only a few interventions are maintained over time (Rogers, 2003).

According to the findings of a study conducted by Buchanan, Gueldner, Tran, and Merrell (2009), school and personal success are intertwined in the eyes of teachers. They found that teachers unanimously believe that social-emotional learning is essential for students' success in both school and their private lives. Teacher participants in the survey also concluded that having social-emotional learning skills assisted students in achieving

better academic performance. Although almost all of the teachers polled agreed that social-emotional learning is essential for students, only about half of those polled admitted to having implemented a social-emotional learning program in their classrooms, according to the results of the survey. The survey was designed to examine teachers' knowledge, perceptions, and practices related to social and emotional learning (SEL) in the classroom (Buchanan et al., 2009). Teachers from two states provided a diverse range of responses on promoting social and emotional learning (SEL) in their classrooms, increasing SEL effectiveness, and reducing barriers to implementation. The findings revealed that many teachers believe that social and emotional learning (SEL) is essential, that schools should take an active role, that receiving training/support from a variety of professionals would be beneficial, and that current academic demands reduce the opportunity for SEL (Buchanan et al., 2009).

Teachers are essential in implementing social and emotional learning (SEL) programs in schools. Their attitudes toward SEL are likely to impact program delivery, evaluation, and outcomes (Brackett et al., 2011). Because teachers are the primary providers of social-emotional learning (SEL) programming, their attitudes toward and support for SEL can have an impact on the adoption, sustainability, and impact of such programs (Bowden, Lanning, Pippin, and Tanner, 2003; Gingiss, Gottlieb, and Brink, 1994; Parcel, O'Hara-Tompkins, Harrist, and Basen-Engquist, 1995; Gingiss, Gottlieb, and Brink, 1994). Teachers need to have strong beliefs to form accurate perceptions and judgments, which influence their teaching practices (Pajares, 1992).

Teachers' beliefs about social and emotional learning (SEL) appear to impact their role in implementing SEL. Teachers who believe that social and emotional learning (SEL) is an essential component of education incorporate it into their formal SEL curriculum and their regular interactions with students through modeling, coaching, and scaffolding (Zinsser et al., 2014). A positive self-efficacy belief is also associated with higher confidence levels in implementing SEL, greater openness to SEL programs, higher levels of teacher perceptions of program effectiveness, and more effective implementation of SEL content and supplementary activities (Brackett et al., 2012). (Ransford, Greenberg, Domitrovich, Small, & Jacobson, 2009). According to the findings of this study, SEL beliefs held by teachers are associated with their perceptions of SEL, their implementation of SEL, and other critical work-related experiences. Teachers' beliefs about SEL may differ depending on their support, training, and experience level. Teachers who work in schools where social-emotional learning (SEL) is well-supported may, in fact, have a more positive attitude toward it than teachers who work in schools where SEL is less well-supported. Teachers who have had prior experience with social-emotional learning (SEL) or who buy into the importance of SEL may feel differently than teachers who are less confident or not convinced of the importance of SEL.

According to the findings of a study conducted by Collie, Shapka, Perry, and Martin (2015), three SEL belief profiles of teachers were identified and classified. As indicated by the profiles, teachers have varying degrees of comfort with and perceived support for SEL but do not have varying degrees of commitment to SEL. Teacher outcomes (stress and satisfaction) are associated with these differences, which are known

to impact teaching effectiveness and student outcomes. In addition, the findings indicated that male teachers may not be as confident in supporting SEL as female teachers and that as students progress through the school system, they may encounter teachers who are less confident in supporting SEL and less supported in this area of their practice. As a result, the significance of teachers' SEL beliefs appears to have implications for teachers and, in the long run, may be associated with essential student outcomes and students.

Poulou (2017) investigated how teachers' perceptions of Emotional Intelligence (EI), Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) skills, and teacher-student relationships relate to students' emotional and behavioral difficulties in a study she conducted. The study's first goal was to see how teachers' perceptions of their own emotional intelligence (EI) and competence in implementing SEL relate to their perceptions of teacher-student relationships and students' emotional and behavioral difficulties.

In Poulou's study (2017), 98 state elementary teachers from 43 schools in central Greece took part. Elementary school teachers teach students aged 6 to 11 (students with emotional and behavioral difficulties attend mainstream schools). The questionnaires were filled out voluntarily by the participants. The average length of experience as a teacher was 5- 9 years, and there were 28 male participants (28.6%) and 70 female participants (71.4%). (22.9 percent). Teachers were asked to respond to questionnaires about themselves and their students (2–5 students from their class, due to time constraints), randomly chosen from a group of 18–25. In total, 617 questionnaires were completed for 304 male (48.8%) and 313 female (51.2%) students, primarily from the fourth (128, 23.7%) and sixth (134, 24.8%) grades of elementary school, respectively,

aged 9 and 11. A smaller sample of 35 teachers (18 males, 51.4 percent, and 17 females, 48.6 percent) teaching the sixth grade (47.9%) were randomly selected from the initial pool of teachers. Students were asked to respond to questionnaires about their behavior by these teachers (this choice was made because the self-report behavior measure could be completed by children 11-17 years old). Within school hours, 318 students (approximately 8 or 10 students drawn from each class, 154 males, 50%, and 154 females, 50%, aged 11 years old) completed a questionnaire about their emotional and behavioral difficulties.

Students, parents, and teachers gave their consent after being informed about teachers' and students' research goals. The tests were administered during class time with no time constraints. Teachers were required to give students pseudonyms, used in teacher and student questionnaires about students' emotional and behavioral difficulties, to ensure that any information they provided was kept confidential and anonymous. The findings suggest that teachers' perceptions of their own EI and SEL beliefs and their associations with teacher-student relationships indirectly link students' emotional and behavioral difficulties.

Esen-Aygun and Sahin-Taskin (2017) conducted a study to understand better primary teachers' perspectives on social-emotional learning and social-emotional learning programs in Turkey. For this study, the researchers used qualitative research methods. The researchers used maximum variation sampling, which allowed them to capture and identify central themes representing a wide range of topics (Patton, 2002). The researchers wanted to include teachers with a variety of experiences to gain in-depth and

detailed information on social-emotional learning. Primary school teachers from the city center and other districts and villages responded to the survey.

In this study, data was gathered through semi-structured interviews. The researchers used a flexible interview guide consisting of open-ended questions in semi-structured interviews (Büyüköztürk et al., 2012). Researchers conducted consciously, ordered, and partially structured interviews with participants (Büyüköztürk et al., 2012; Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Lodico et al., 2010). The researcher prepared the interview questions, which were then sent to four other experts in educational sciences to assess their validity. Four primary school teachers were asked to read and evaluate the questions following the expert reviews. The interview form was finalized after the questions were modified in response to the teachers' feedback. Permission has been obtained from both the teachers and the Ministry of National Education. Participants needed to be volunteers, and teachers were made aware of the study's objectives. Then they were told that a voice recorder would be used during the interviews but that their identities would be kept hidden. The information was gathered during the academic year 2014-2015. Two participants had to review their transcriptions and submit them to the researchers after transcribing the data.

The researcher found that the importance of Social-Emotional Learning in the Learning-Teaching Process revealed that most of the primary teachers who took part in the study could not explain the concept of social-emotional learning. The interviews revealed that even those teachers who are aware of the concept lack adequate knowledge of SEL. Teachers' responses to the interviews revealed that the social environment in

which students live impacts their social-emotional development and the family's social and cultural structure. The teachers who participated in the study revealed that students living in city centers have more vital social-emotional skills than those living in towns and villages.

Teachers' Roles in Supporting SEL. Teachers in the classroom have a long list of responsibilities. Still, when it comes to social and emotional learning, it is crucial that they build a healthy learning atmosphere, provide appropriate and relatable instruction, and nurture student development (DeNisco, 2015; Elias et al., 1997; Taylor and Larson, 1999; Zins and Elias, 2007). Schools have become the best place to enforce behavior standards and surround children with positive and encouraging adults as they learn critical social and emotional skills, according to Elias et al. (1997). Students need significant adults and peers in their lives to collaborate with them as a member of a group of learners, the writers continue. Teachers must nurture and build personal relationships with their students to maximize the amount of learning in the classroom (Elias et al., 1997).

When introducing an SEL program, it is critical to create a healthy and respectful learning atmosphere, and teachers must demonstrate to students what is expected of them and that they are safe to learn and develop in school (Elias et al., 1997; Taylor and Larson, 1999; Zins and Elias, 2007). Teachers must present knowledge in a relevant and exciting manner. Students are more likely to learn and develop academically and socially when presented with relatable and trustworthy content (Elias and Arnold, 2006). According to research, more academic and social development is seen when academics

and SEL programs are combined (DeNisco, 2015; Elias et al., 1997; Taylor and Larson, 1999; Zins and Elias, 2007).

It is critical to stress that effective social and emotional learning for students begins with the teachers (Schonert-Reichl, 2017). Teachers and school professionals are not invulnerable to the effects of the COVID-19 crisis. Still, they are expected to provide a sense of stability to their students despite their own lack of stability. When teachers take care of their social and emotional needs, their teacher-student relationships improve, and their classroom management skills improve, resulting in children feeling more at ease in the learning community and learning more deeply (Schonert-Reichl, 2017).

Teachers are the driving force behind SEL services and activities in schools and classrooms, and their social-emotional competence and well-being significantly impact their students Schonert-Reichl (2017). Since "students today usually do not come to school with the same pro-social values once common; they are not as polite, compassionate, supportive, or cooperative as they were twenty years ago," teachers must concentrate on social and emotional learning (Taylor and Larson, 1999, p.2). Students need assistance in these fields from pre-school through adulthood, and teachers play an essential role in this process (Zinsser, 2015).

Schonert-Reichl (2017) states that classrooms with warm teacher-child relationships encourage deep learning and positive student social and emotional growth. Students' academic performance and attitudes suffer when teachers fail to balance teaching's social and emotional demands. According to Schonert-Reichl, understanding how to foster SEL in the classrooms truly requires correctly understanding teachers'

social and emotional health and how they affect students' SEL. Schonert-Reichel also demonstrates how teachers' beliefs—for example, regarding their teaching effectiveness or whether they receive sufficient support—influence the fidelity to implement SEL initiatives in the classroom. Schonert-Reichl states that SEL programs are less successful when fidelity is poor.

Some teachers may need coaching, encouragement, and guidance to adjust to these standards because formal social and emotional learning is still relatively new (Elias et al., 1997). Administrators should have continuing professional development to improve the SEL curriculum, according to DeNisco (2015). Ongoing teacher preparation is one way to help steer teachers in a positive direction in implementing the SEL program. Teachers' work must be reinforced and promoted in other environments, such as the home. Elias and Arnold (2006) emphasize the importance of parental participation, stating that program effects are more lasting and widespread when applied at home (p.10). The most successful strategy is a group effort.

Jones, Bouffard, and Weissbourd (2013) state the learning background and the infusion of SEL into classrooms and schools are heavily influenced by teachers' social-emotional competence and wellbeing. The quality of teacher-student relationships, student and classroom management, and effective social and emotional learning program implementation all mediate classroom and student outcomes, according to researchers Patricia Jennings of the University of Virginia and Mark Greenberg of Pennsylvania State University (2009). Warm teacher-child relationships foster deep learning in students: children who feel at ease with their teachers and peers are more likely to grapple with

challenging content and persevere through complex learning tasks, according to Merritt (2012).

Teachers carry on the task of assisting students in achieving academic, emotional, and social success. The beneficial and abundant social and emotional learning results can be experienced when the right resources and encouragement from the administration and parents are used.

According to a review of studies on competency-based programs, there is a dearth of research on teachers' perceptions or understandings of developing or implementing social and emotional skills programming in schools (Triliva & Poulou, 2006). As a result, teachers' attitudes toward the educational trend of implementing SEL in schools, as with any program implementation attempted within school limits, become critical. The current study promotes educators' active involvement in SEL processes and investigates their attitudes toward SEL integration into a comprehensive curriculum. Teachers' constructions and conceptual frameworks of:

1. What constitutes SEL
2. How they construe the relationship between academic achievement, classroom management, and social and emotional development and incorporate SEL into the curriculum
3. How they perceive their role in teaching SEL was investigated in detail

The study enlisted the participation of 24 elementary school teachers from two different parts of Greece (Northern Greece and Crete), with eight being female and 16 males and a combined teaching experience of 5 to 26 years. Seventeen teachers

participated in in-service programs, while the remaining seven did not. As the previous study demonstrated teachers' limited understanding of social and emotional learning, the qualitative study by Triliva and Poulou (2006) confirms this also. Triliva and Poulou (2006) conducted twenty-four semi-structured interviews to achieve the study's goals. The interviewers were two academic researchers who worked in a university setting. The interviews lasted one to one-and-a-half hours, were tape-recorded, and took place in a quiet and familiar setting for the participants. The interviews were transcribed verbatim and then analyzed by the two researchers, who agreed on the categorization and analysis of the contents. Teachers' perspectives on: (1) what skills, competencies, or characteristics a child who performs well in social and emotional situations possess; (2) the social and emotional competencies that schools should reinforce or help students develop; (3) the relationship and influence of social and emotional skills on academic achievement and behavior in the classroom; and (4) their role in promoting social and emotional competencies were all explored during the interviews. The teachers interviewed had never heard of the term 'Social and Emotional Learning. Since the study's goal was to uncover their implicit theories and understandings, they were not given a definition.

The study's main goal was to investigate Greek teachers' constructions and understandings of SEL. Teachers described a complex and interactive model of abilities, competencies, and 'psychic virtues,' and (2) they placed a strong emphasis on the dynamic interaction of the child and their context, reflecting the thorny issue of

definitional ambiguity and complexity that exists in literature, considering EI as an ability (C) (Topping et al., 2000; Zirkel, 2000).

Remote Learning and SEL

Due to the COVID-19 outbreak, schools in the United States shut down in-person learning in mid-March 2020. As a result of this unprecedented situation, school education has shifted to a heavy reliance on various forms of remote learning, forcing teachers and students to experiment with entirely new teaching and learning methods (Kamei & Harriott, 2020). Students must use a different skill set for virtual learning than they would for face-to-face learning, such as self-regulation for navigating online learning or balancing learning and life at home. New and challenging experiences come with fewer opportunities for social interaction and a higher risk of isolation. As a sense of normalcy is lost from their lives and students are bombarded with new expectations and responsibilities, these new challenges are contributing to children experiencing high stress levels (Kamei and Harriott, 2020). More than ever, children require social and emotional support.

Children and their families may have been directly affected by the COVID-19 epidemic or the economic downturn (Kamei and Harriott, 2020). This unusual way of life has been going on for much longer than we anticipated; children's lives have been disrupted, and their regular lives of physical interaction with friends and teachers have been taken away from them (Kamei and Harriott, 2020). Furthermore, remote learning has forced students to learn in very different environments from those in which they would learn if they were in school. Students must develop new skills to navigate online

learning, such as self-regulation, balancing learning and caring for self and siblings, sharing physical space with family during class, limited opportunities for social engagement, and an increased risk of isolation (Education Elements, n.d.). Children require more social and emotional support than ever before to learn.

After society reopens, our children and we may experience PTSD-like symptoms, and the benefits of SEL will continue to benefit both teachers and students (Kamei and Harriott, 2020). The key to continued persistence and perseverance during this crisis is ongoing SEL support and instruction, so our integration of SEL programs must be well thought out and research-based (Kamei and Harriott, 2020).

In a recent study, Marshall, Shannon, and Love (2020) examined how teachers felt about the COVID-19 transition to remote learning. Researchers polled teachers about their experiences transitioning to remote instruction from mid-March to early April 2020. Teachers were asked which aspects of teaching they found most challenging during this time and how prepared they felt for delivering instruction remotely. The researchers used teachers' personal networks to distribute anonymous survey links. The goal was not to point fingers or assign blame but to learn from this historical moment.

A total of 328 teachers took part in the study, with an average age of 39.9 years, and most identified as white (89.4%) and female (83.7%). The average participant had been in the profession for 11.6 years and taught for 7.1 years at their current school. Over half of the respondents (56.6%) said they work in a Title I school. More than a third of teachers (36.6 percent) work in a suburban school; about a quarter work in rural (24.1

percent) and urban (25.7 percent) settings; and about one in seven (13.5 percent) work in a small town.

Before the emergency transition, most teachers (92.4 percent) said they had never taught online, and only a few had received any meaningful training from their school or district. They said that most of the teachers' learning came from each other and their research. As the previous study demonstrated teachers limited understanding of social and emotional learning, the quantitative study by Cavanaugh and DeWeese (2020) confirms this also. They discovered that between February and March 2020, views for online educator support sites for the chat and video platform Microsoft Teams increased by more than six fold. Despite their lack of experience and formal training, nearly half of the teachers we polled (49 percent) felt at least somewhat prepared to deliver instruction remotely.

The survey respondents' most common suggestion was that schools regularly incorporate "digital learning days" into the school year to help them prepare for any sudden shift to remote instruction. A common theme among the teachers who participated in the survey was the need to be prepared for emergencies. They suggested that schools develop clear grading guidelines and procedures, check-in with staff and parents regularly, provide food, support, and computer access to low-income families, effectively deliver remote instruction to elementary-age children and students with special needs, and assist any student who has trouble setting up and using online services.

As the previous study demonstrated challenges transitioning to distance learning, the qualitative study by Williams and Corwith (2021) confirms this also. Williams and

Corwith (2021) conducted a separate qualitative study. The purpose of the qualitative study was to examine College Park Academy (CPA), a public charter middle and high school in Prince George's County, MD, transitioning to fully online distance learning during emergency remote teaching. CPA typically uses a hybrid approach to in-person and online instruction. Before evaluating the perceived viability of the online model and its effects on students, teachers, parents, and educational administrators, the study took a snapshot of the school's underlying structure and disaster preparedness strategies.

The research team conducted semi-structured interviews with school community members, document analysis, and online classroom observations with the participants' perceptions and lived experiences as the focus of the interviews. Live and archived classroom instruction and virtual Parent Teacher Association and Townhall meetings were all part of the observations. The research team reviewed the faculty and staff handbook, the parent and student handbook, and the CPA Academy website. In English and Spanish, CPA leadership, administrators, teachers, parents, students, and support personnel were invited to participate in the case study. Participants must have begun their involvement with the school as early as August 2019 and intend to continue their involvement until June 12, 2020.

Despite robust infrastructure and communications during the transition, the findings revealed that there were still issues with school readiness, including academic rigor and social and emotional wellbeing. According to the findings, CPA's unique hybrid learning approach lent itself to both successes and failures in its transition to fully online delivery. During the COVID-19 physical school closure, the school's mix of in-person

and online classes, including the school's use of Pearson Connexus, now known as the Pearson Online Classroom, provided a baseline level of distance learning readiness that other schools did not necessarily match. Although CPA administrators excelled at communicating with parents, staff, and teachers during this time, student wellbeing would have been bolstered by a more proactive approach to involving them in the disaster response and recovery, as well as ensuring direct communication with students, particularly in terms of increased motivational messaging, grading policy updates, and information on counseling and other support services.

When there are no in-person school alternatives, the importance of effective distance learning strategies has been highlighted by the COVID-19 school closures. Li et al. (2021) discussed the results of an efficacy study funded by the Institute of Education Sciences that looked at the effects of a game-based online SEL training program developed to enhance social and academic outcomes for elementary school students. Before COVID-19, this study began with in-person school implementation and progressed to distance learning during stay-at-home orders. The researchers used a multi-site cluster-randomized experimental design in which third-grade classrooms were randomly assigned to a treatment or control group. The study included 37 third-grade classrooms from 19 schools in three California public school districts. Each school in the study had anywhere from one to four classrooms. Researchers randomly assigned classrooms to one of two groups in schools with an even number of participating classrooms: a treatment group that used Adventures or a control group that used the school's business-as-usual SEL activities within each school. The researchers used

optimal Mahalanobis distance, a measure of the distance between a point P and a distribution D, introduced by P. C. Mahalanobis in 1936, matching to pair schools with an odd number of participating teachers, where we first calculated the Mahalanobis distance between schools with an odd number of participating teachers based on four matching variables (percent of students who received free and reduced lunch program, percent of English Learners, percent of Latinx students, and percent of White students). The researchers chose the pairing configuration with the lowest average Mahalanobis distance across pairs out of 2000 random pairing configurations between schools. The teachers in each pair were then randomly assigned to the treatment or control groups. Eighteen classrooms (with a total of 395 students) were randomly assigned to treatment, while 19 classrooms (with a total of 428 students) were assigned to control.

In December 2019, the study began with in-person school implementation. The research team provided teachers with an informational letter outlining the study's activities, risks and benefits, confidentiality, and participants' ability to withdraw at any time as part of the recruitment process. Teachers agreed to participate in the study by signing a consent form included with the letter. Teachers sent letters to their student's parents and guardians explaining the study's activities and instructing parents and guardians to sign an opt-out form if they did not want their child's data included in the study. English, Spanish, Chinese, and Vietnamese were used to communicate with the family. Given that most students in each class were eligible to participate, WestEd's IRB waived the requirement for informed consent, allowing for the use of an opt-out process to ease the burden on families and teachers.

The Adventures development and research teams provided systematic training and support to treatment teachers to prepare them to implement Adventures effectively and fidelity. The treatment training covered

1. background information about Adventures' development and use;
2. teacher facilitation of post-episode discussions to help students understand and apply social-emotional skills in real-life situations;
3. instructions for successfully implementing Adventures in the classroom, including behavior management and technology use; and
4. preparing teachers to promote the transfer of students' use of Adventures.

The research team also instructed both treatment and control teachers on how to fill out the teacher rating scales and collect data from students (see Measures for detailed descriptions of the data collection tools). The research team advised treatment teachers to use Adventures for nine weeks, one episode per week, with each episode lasting 30–45 minutes. Two weeks were added to the implementation period to allow teachers to make up episodes with students as needed. This resulted in an 11-week implementation period. The research team used weekly digital newsletters, weekly online teacher implementation logs, phone calls, texts, and emails to keep in touch with the participating teachers and provide timely study implementation information. Teachers received a weekly newsletter that included a reminder of the week's assigned episode, implementation tips, and study updates. Teachers were asked to report on their Adventures implementation format (e.g., whole class, small group, synchronous, asynchronous), session attendance, content/episode covered that week, other intervention services students received, and

whether they had questions or concerns about the implementation in the weekly log. The research team used a shared study email address to communicate with teachers, carefully monitoring incoming messages and responding to teachers' questions as soon as possible. The research team communicated via shared email, phone, and text, to learn about the factors affecting program implementation and provide support as needed for classes that were falling behind schedule with teachers who participated in the study. The research team maintained frequent and up-to-date communication with teachers in this manner and gathered information on schools' instructional priorities, technology capacities to support students' access to distance learning, and the feasibility of implementing Adventures in distance-learning when schools were closed due to COVID-19. Before school closed in early March, most treatment classrooms could finish about six out of nine episodes. The study was extended in distance-learning environments until May 2020 due to the demand and willingness of teachers and families to continue Adventures.

Before implementing Adventures, students completed online measures of social-emotional skills under their teachers' supervision before school closures. Teachers completed additional behavioral rating scales on a subset of sixteen students per class, eight of whom had the lowest SEL screener scores (see Devereux Student Strengths Assessment-Mini in Measures section below). The other eight were chosen at random. Students completed the same online social-emotional measures administered at the start of the study. Teachers filled out the same behavior rating scales on the subsample of sixteen students after implementation was completed. After the transition to distance learning, all post-study measures were collected, with teachers supervising most students

as they completed the social-emotional measures from home. The research team worked tirelessly to assist participating teachers with program implementation and data collection throughout distance learning.

The original study sample included 823 third-graders from 37 California classrooms. Despite the challenges of implementing Adventures in distance learning environments due to the abrupt transition from in-school to distance learning due to COVID-19, 17 out of 18 treatment classrooms were able to continue the program. Eighteen of the 19 control teachers could stay in the study and contribute valuable information about their "normal" remote instruction experiences and practices.

At least one direct SEL outcome measure was completed by 543 students (242 treatment students vs. 301 control students). For 480 students, teachers provided SEL ratings (228 treatment students vs. 252 control students). Understandably, student completion of the post-assessment was low, given the sudden and rapid transition to remote learning circumstances. According to the student demographic data, more than half of the final analytic sample was eligible for the Free/Reduced-Price Lunch program, and 46.8% are Latinx. There were no statistical differences in ethnicity, Free/Reduced-Price Lunch status, English language learner status, or gender between the treatment and control groups.

Despite successfully transitioning the Adventures program to a distance learning environment, the pandemic and unexpected school closures posed several challenges. While the first sample of students implementing the program pre-COVID included 823 students in 37 classrooms, the sample size was reduced to 543 students in 35 classrooms

after the school closures (66 percent of the students remained in the study). Not only did two classrooms decline to continue with the program, but there was also variation in distance learning participation within each of the remaining classrooms. Students withdrew from the study after COVID-19 due to instructional changes (from in-school to distance learning) and accessibility of devices and the internet, rather than features related to the program itself, according to the baseline equivalence test findings and teacher reports during interviews. Second, the study focuses on the program's overall impact on students without taking into account differences in school infrastructure and technology capacity to support remote student learning; teachers' experience, tools, and strategies to address student needs; and students' needs for devices, internet, and adult supervision in person.

While all of the study's participating classes faced difficulties, there were differences in the types of difficulties faced and how teachers overcame them. Each implementation was different after it was converted to a distance learning program. The flexibility of game-based online SEL program implementation in a distance learning environment was highlighted in this study.

Conclusion

Despite the significant health risk posed by the COVID-19 pandemic, frontline workers were required to continue their work-related activities (Allen et al., 2020). Public school teachers were initially tasked with an unfamiliar concept of virtual teaching due to school closures, similar to frontline healthcare workers (Allen et al., 2020). However, they were put on the frontline as more schools reopened for face-to-face instruction.

Teachers and frontline healthcare providers looked after people who were at risk of COVID-19 and helped stop the virus from spreading. They also dealt with symptoms of stress and anxiety and had to avoid getting sick to avoid infecting their families and coworkers (Yoo et al., 2021). The issue is that severe psychological stressors experienced by frontline workers during the pandemic have been shown to lower self-efficacy and increase burnout (Cataudella et al., 2021; Martnez-Ramón et al., 2021). However, little is known about how frontline teachers experienced self-efficacy while providing face-to-face instruction during the pandemic. According to Guidetti et al. (2018), Skaalvik & Skaalvik (2017), and Smetackova (2017), self-efficacy is crucial for teachers' ability to cope and prevent burnout. Recent research also suggests a connection between the pandemic and perceived self-efficacy (Barzilay et al., 2020; Machado de Assis et al., 2021; Rabaglietti et al., 2021; Talidong & Toquero, 2020).

Most recent research studies on the pandemic (Carrillo & Flores, 2020; König et al., 2020; Shenoy et al., 2020) focus on the experiences of frontline healthcare workers and teacher experiences with virtual instruction. There is a significant gap in the literature regarding the teachers' actual experiences with self-efficacy when providing face-to-face instruction in a traditional learning environment. Research on teachers' actual experiences with self-efficacy while teaching face-to-face instruction during the pandemic is required to find effective coping mechanisms that promote teacher commitment during the pandemic.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this narrative study was to describe the implementation of social and emotional learning in remote and face-to-face settings by teachers in a suburban school district in the northeastern United States. Although there are numerous studies on the experience of frontline healthcare workers during the COVID-19 pandemic (Labrague & de Los Santos, 2021; Manzano & Ayala, 2021; Nie et al., 2020; Tomar et al., 2020; Veeraraghavan & Srinivasan, 2020), there is a dearth of research on teachers teaching in a classroom during the pandemic (Pressley, 2021b) (Levinson et al., 2020; Nabe Nielsen et al., 2021; Sim, 2020; Sokal et al., 2020; Will, 2020). This study will allow teachers to communicate challenges and stressors experienced during the COVID-19 pandemic, Cipriano et al., 2020)). This chapter provides an in-depth analysis of the research design, research questions, setting, participants, research procedures, the researcher's role, data collection methods, and data analysis measures. The chapter concludes with a discussion of this research study's reliability and ethical implications, followed by a summary of the entire chapter.

Methods and Procedures

Research Design

Qualitative research places the observer in the world. It brings the research to life by transforming it into a series of representations through a set of interpretive and material practices (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011) to comprehend the meaning individuals or groups attribute to a human problem (Creswell & Poth, 2018). A qualitative design is framed because it begins with assumptions and employs a particular procedure to guide

the study of research problems (Creswell & Poth, 2018) that seeks to comprehend how individuals or groups construct meaning (Patton, 2015). Qualitative research is also personal because what attracts a researcher to a particular study matter, and qualitative researchers serve as the primary research instrument (Patton, 2015), collecting data in the natural setting where participants experience the problem of the study (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This study was best suited for a qualitative design because it investigated how teachers construct meaning (Patton, 2015) of their experiences implementing social-emotional learning in remote to face-to-face settings during the COVID-19 pandemic. The researcher selected this design to comprehend the meanings teachers attribute to their experience with self-efficacy in teaching face-to-face instruction during the pandemic (Creswell & Poth, 2018) and how they make sense of their world (Patton, 2015) and implement social-emotional learning as educators.

The philosophical nature of the inquiry defines qualitative research, that is, the ontologies, epistemologies, and methodologies that researchers adopt during the design of research projects, as well as the associated assumptions they make when collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data (Khagram et al., 2010). Increasing recognition of qualitative research's value in seeking to define and understand complexity as opposed to reducing it (Creswell, 2009); expanding the range of research questions that can be asked (Prokopy, 2011); providing an in-depth understanding of phenomena, including the role of politics and power relations (Belsky, 2004; Creswell, 2009); understanding human behavior in support of decision making and policy processes (Cowling, 2014), and

illuminating the human experience in support of decision making and policy processes (Cow & Creswell, 2009; Moon & Blackman, 2014).

For this study, a narrative approach was selected because it focuses on teachers' lived experiences teaching remote learning and the struggles balancing the mental health and academic needs of their students in an online environment (Minkos & Gelbar, 2021). Additionally, a narrative study was selected to highlight the experiences of teachers who work with traumatized students and frequently feel unprepared to meet the needs of their students. As a result, they report struggling with the emotional strain of their work, including vicarious trauma during the COVID-19 pandemic (Alisic, 2012).

Research Questions

Central Research Question. What were teachers' lived experiences while teaching social-emotional learning (SEL) during both remote and in-person instruction in elementary school throughout the Covid-19 pandemic?

Research Sub Questions.

Research Sub-Question 1. How were the five competencies of social-emotional learning (self-awareness, self-management, responsible decision-making, relationship skills, and social skills) taught during remote and in-person instruction during the pandemic?

Research Sub-Question 2. What were teachers' feelings about their own social-emotional instructional competencies, self-efficacy, and experiences throughout remote and in-person instruction during the pandemic?

Research Sub-Question 3. How did teachers' lived experiences differ during remote and in-person instruction while implementing social-emotional instruction?

Research Sub-Question 4. How did the teachers' lived experiences and SEL training help them with social and emotional instruction?

Setting and Participants

Although there are no sophisticated criteria for identifying and choosing potential research participants, the research design frequently dictates site selection (Creswell & Poth, 2018). It was essential to find participants who were open to sharing their knowledge of social and emotional learning during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Setting. This study was conducted at a single public elementary school in a large suburb in the northeastern United States. Northeastern Elementary School (pseudonym) is a part of the Northeastern School district (pseudonym) and is home to approximately 40 teachers and 495 students. The school serves Pre-kindergarten through sixth-grade students from diverse backgrounds, with 79% of the population economically disadvantaged. The campus population is composed of 212 African Americans (45%), 262 Hispanic or Latinos (55%), and one White student (0%). 30 percent of the 498 students are classified as English Language Learners (ELL), 13 percent as Students with Disabilities (SWD), 81 percent as Economically Disadvantaged, and 18 percent as homeless (NYSED, 2020). The district's leadership structure revolves around the district and building management. The superintendent oversees three elementary, middle, and high schools at the district level. Each school has a leadership hierarchy consisting of a principal, assistant principals, lead teachers, department heads, and grade level leads.

Although participants may be located at a single location (Creswell & Poth, 2018), one school was chosen to gain a deeper understanding of teachers' lived experiences implementing social and emotional learning. During the pandemic, teachers experienced the common phenomenon of teaching transitioning from remote to in-person settings. Northeastern Elementary School partially resumed in-person instruction in fall 2020 and will continue to offer hybrid instruction through the 2021-2022 school year. Due to state mandates, the school was required to comply with the Northeastern district's mask policy and social distancing mandate. Northeastern Elementary School was selected because it had the most students returning from virtual learning since the Northeastern School District partially reopened, compared to the other two elementary schools, one middle school, and one high school in the district that continued to have a disproportionate number of students enrolled in virtual learning, significantly reducing their in-person student population. Northeastern Elementary School was chosen to gain a deeper understanding of teachers' experiences implementing SEL during the pandemic because their teacher-student ratio accurately reflects traditional in-person instruction.

Participants. The criteria for selecting participants in a qualitative study are influenced by several factors, including the researcher's goals, the research paradigm, the type of study, the context, the data collection method, and the level of generalization required (Creswell, 2003; Hatch, 2002; Merriam & Associates, 2002). Purposeful sampling was used in this research study. According to Creswell and Plano (2011), purposeful sampling is the process of identifying and selecting individuals or groups of individuals who are highly knowledgeable or experienced about a phenomenon of

interest. The importance of availability and willingness to participate and the ability to communicate experiences and opinions in an articulate, expressive, and reflective manner is emphasized by Bernard (2002) and Spradley (1979). This study focused on elementary school teachers who transitioned from in-person to remote learning while supporting students' social-emotional learning needs during the COVID-19 pandemic. Criterion sampling was the selected method of purposeful sampling for the selected participants.

Criterion sampling is a non-probability, purposive sampling technique that involves selecting participants who meet a set of essential criteria (Patton, 2001). According to Creswell (2007), the researcher selects individuals and sites for a study in qualitative research because they can purposefully inform the researcher's understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study. Eight participants were chosen by the researcher based on the following criteria:

1. The participants must be in a suburban elementary school outside a large metropolitan city in the northeastern United States.
2. The participants taught during the COVID-19 pandemic and transitioned from in-person to remote learning while supporting students' social-emotional learning.
3. The school had an SEL program in place during the transition from in-person to remote instruction.

This selection strategy was used to find participants who met the criteria and provided the most credible answers to the research questions (Creswell, 2007).

A demographic survey was given to participants to help the researcher identify the selected teachers. According to Allen (2017), demographic questions in a survey allow

the researcher to learn more about their participants' backgrounds. The questions provide context for the survey data collected, allowing researchers to describe their participants more accurately and analyze their data.

According to Maxwell (2013), a qualitative study's design consists of four elements: a research relationship between the researcher and those studied, participant selection, data collection, and data analysis. To maximize the experience and obtain meaningful data, the researcher must be strategic when developing a relationship with the research participants (Stoner, 2010). According to Glensne (2017), building a rapport with participants is critical to qualitative research success.

The researcher chose eight teachers to participate in this study. Researchers recommended sample sizes of six to eight participants to achieve information-rich descriptions of the participants' experiences (Creswell, 2003; Maxwell, 1996). Similarly, according to Sandelowski (2000), the qualitative researcher should collect data until data saturation, theoretical saturation, or informational redundancy is reached. Furthermore, the sample size should not be so large that data management becomes difficult due to the extensive details about the participants' lived experiences.

Recruitment

After receiving approval from the Institutional Review Board (see Appendix A) and permission from the Superintendent of Schools (see Appendix B), a meeting with the elementary principal of the research site was scheduled. After meeting with the research site principal, the researcher sent a recruitment email along with the interest letter (see Appendix C) to solicit participants for this study. Participants in this study were selected

using purposeful criterion sampling to inform an understanding of the research problem (Creswell & Poth, 2018) because the outcomes of the research are directly tied to the lived experiences of the participants and how they engage with the research process (Dennis, 2004). Participants met the criteria of being full-time public school teachers instructing grades 2 through 5 via remote and in-person instruction. As soon as the participants responded, the researcher contacted the principal for assistance in identifying each respondent's teaching schedule to ensure they met the criteria. Once the teaching schedules of each respondent were analyzed and validated, the researcher sent an informed consent form (see Appendix D) to teachers selected to participate in this study to inform them of the following: the purpose of this study, the right to withdraw at any time, the benefits and risks of participation, and the measures to protect their confidentiality (Creswell & Poth, 2018) because the protection of human subjects requires informed consent (Patton, 2015). After obtaining the informed consent, each participant completed a demographic teacher questionnaire that provided background information on each participant to the researcher and was assigned pseudonyms, as found in table 2, to de-identify the participants mentioned in interviews and other textual data collected by the researcher (Heaton, 2021).

During the COVID-19 pandemic, the sample pool for this qualitative study consisted of 40 teachers who taught in remote and in-person settings in grades 2 through 6 at a suburban public school in the northeastern United States (Creswell & Poth, 2018) to gain extensive information about the research site and individuals. However, there are no guidelines for sample size in qualitative research because the size is contingent on

what the researcher wants to know, the purpose of the study, the risks, the usefulness, the credibility, and what can be accomplished with the time and resources available (Patton, 2015). According to Hennink et al. (2019), qualitative sampling aims to collect sufficient data from enough participants to understand the phenomenon being studied in depth. The depth of the study implies that the sample size can be adjusted as themes emerge and inquiry deepens because sample size can increase or decrease based on thematic saturation (Patton, 2015). Therefore, thematic saturation determined this qualitative study's sample size (Patton, 2015).

Table 2

Description of Participants

Name	Gender	Age	Current Title	Grade Level	Years in Education
Lisa	F	51	Elementary Teacher	4	20+
Stacy	F	25	P.E. Teacher	K-6	1
Paulette	F	53	Sp. Ed. Teacher	4	15
Janice	F	30	Elementary Teacher	1	7
Sadia	F	58	Sp. Ed. Teacher	K	20+
Millie	F	56	Sp. Ed. Teacher	6	20+
Casey	F	41	ENL Teacher	K/1	1
Rene	F	56	Gen. Ed. Teacher	6	20+

The ethical considerations for selecting participants for a qualitative study include contacting the participants and informing them of the general purpose of the study,

assuring the participants that their participation is voluntary, respecting the participants' cultural, religious, gender, and other differences, and obtaining appropriate consent to participate in the study.

Participants selected for this study met the following criteria: 1. Elementary school teachers from a suburban elementary school district located outside a large metropolitan city in the northeastern part of the United States. 2. Taught at the same school during the COVID-19 pandemic where the research will occur. 3. Responsible for teaching social-emotional learning in their classroom. 4. Teachers of grades second through sixth grade. General education, a teacher of students with disabilities, and a music teacher. All students were at least 18 years of age or older.

After receiving IRB approval from St. John's University, the researcher recruited participants for this study by following the steps outlined below.

1. To obtain permission to conduct the research, the researcher contacted the Superintendent of Schools in the district where the research occurred.

2. The researcher contacted the elementary school principal to share a recruitment flyer after receiving approval from the Superintendent of Schools.

3. By email, the researcher identified the participants who met the study's criteria. In response to the emails, the researcher requested the opportunity to speak with participants over the phone.

4. The phone conference was set up at a convenient time and date for all parties involved. During the phone call with the participants, the researcher explained the study in detail and informed them that no information could be collected without their written

consent. The researcher clarified (a) the study's purpose, (b) the information on the consent form regarding their rights as participants, the researcher's responsibility, the systems in place for confidentiality and anonymity, (c) data collection requirements and commitment, and (d) their right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

5. Before signing the consent form, the participants were allowed to ask the researcher questions.

6. The researcher sent the consent form via email detailing the participants' rights to anonymity, confidentiality, and protection from harm, as well as their ability to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

7. Email addresses were collected solely for the purpose of contact and identification.

8. Those who completed and returned their consent forms were divided into groups based on their grade level. The synchronous individual interviews were announced to the participant groups.

9. In attending to ethical considerations, the researcher ensured that all data collected was stored on an external hard drive, password-protected, and locked in a closet.

Data Collection Procedures

Qualitative research is interpretive and seeks to reveal the world to others through studying things in their natural environment by deciphering the meanings that people attribute to a central phenomenon (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). During the COVID-19 pandemic, this qualitative study used narrative inquiry to document the teachers' lived

experiences implementing social and emotional learning in remote and in-person settings. Various data collection techniques, including interviews, focus groups, surveys, observations, and document analysis, are employed in qualitative research (Patton, 2015). Three 45-minute in-depth interviews, journaling (see Appendix H), and an audit trail (see Appendix G), as found in Table 3, were used to document the steps of data collection to gain a comprehensive understanding of the participant's experiences with the phenomenon and to achieve triangulation (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Table 3

Data Collection Methods

In-depth Interviews	Documents
- Three forty-five minute to an hour virtual, semi-structured interviews with each participant.	- Field notes from interviews - Reflexive journaling transcripts - Audit trail

Individual Interviews

Qualitative interviewing presupposes that other people's perceptions are meaningful, comprehensible, and transparent (Patton, 2015). A qualitative research technique known as an interview depends on gathering data by asking questions (Teagan, 2022). Each participant was interviewed (Creswell & Poth, 2018), allowing the researcher to gain insight into each participant's point of view (Patton, 2015). The researcher created an interview guide that included the question's intent before conducting interviews with each participant and developed a rapport with participants to

increase their comfort level of each during the interview (Rev, 2019). Each teacher participated in semi-structured in-depth interviews to collect qualitative, open-ended data, explore participant thoughts, feelings and beliefs about a particular topic, and to delve deeply into personal and sometimes sensitive issues (Dejonckheere & Vaughn, 2018) of implementing SEL in remote and face-to-face settings during the COVID-19 pandemic. Using the WebEx account of St. John's University, interviews were conducted.

The researcher sets the framework for the topics to be covered in a semi-structured interview, but the interviewee's responses determine how the interview is directed (Stuckey, 2018). Therefore, interview questions were open-ended, allowing participants to respond in their own words (Patton, 2015). Questions were posed as open-ended demanding more of the participants requiring them to come up with their own words, phrases, or sentences to respond (Esterberg, (2002). As required, follow-up questions (probing) were posed to elicit greater depth and detail (Patton, 2015) and to improve coding and theme identification (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The interviews were audio-recorded using two devices, an iPhone 13 Pro Max and the St. John's WebEx account, to ensure the accuracy of the recordings.

During the interviews, notes were taken to encourage a more in-depth response, provide cues to keep participants on track, and permit probing as the interview progressed (Patton, 2015). After each interview, the researcher verified that the recording functioned properly (Patton, 2015) and transcribed them using Rev.com software. In addition to taking notes while reading the transcriptions, the researcher also used an audit trail to record the data collection, kept a reflective journal (see Appendix H) to look for bias, and

reviewed the interview notes to consider the caliber of the information gleaned from the interviews (Patton, 2015). The researcher ensured that each participant understood their responses were taken seriously by following up with them and employing the interview technique outlined by Moustakas (1994). The researcher sent a transcription of each participant's interview to them for member feedback to help ensure validity (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Patton, 2015). After getting participant feedback on member-checking, the researcher read the interview transcripts and made notes for coding and thematic development in the margins. Teacher interviews were saved as an encrypted file on a Chromebook and double-backed up on an external hard drive to ensure the security and confidentiality of the data. The open-ended interview questions (see Appendix E) that were posed to each participant. Before asking the first interview question, the researcher needed to establish trust with each participant. The researcher reassured each participant that their responses to the interview questions would not be shared with anyone and that their identities would remain strictly confidential.

The purpose of interview question one was to create a relaxed atmosphere by asking participants about their SEL teaching experiences before the pandemic (Moustakas, 1994). Interview question two addressed research sub-question three and sought to understand participants' feelings, emotions, and perceptions regarding being asked to teach remotely and SEL overnight after schools were ordered closed. The third interview question addressed the fourth research sub-question by exploring teachers' professional development experiences in relation to mastery experience. The fourth interview question addressed the first research sub-research question by investigating

teachers' understanding of the five competencies of remote SEL instruction during the pandemic. The researcher had to revise interview question four after discovering that participant responses did not correspond with the question. The researcher altered the interview question to incorporate a definition of the five competencies: self-awareness, self-management, responsible decision-making, social awareness, and relationship skills. This modification enabled participants to provide detailed responses to comprehend teachers' experiences with the five competencies and mastery experience. Interview question five addressed research sub-question two by examining teachers' SEL when teaching remotely and attempting to meet students' SEL needs. Interview question six examined teachers' self-efficacy in relation to mastery experience to address research sub-questions two and three. The seventh interview question addressed research sub-question seven, which inquired about their experiences teaching remotely for several months after the outbreak of COVID-19. Interview question eight addressed research sub-question four by exploring teachers' actual experiences returning to face-to-face settings despite the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic. See table 4 for the open codes, themes, and subthemes in relation to sub research questions.

Table 4

Open Codes, Themes, and Subthemes in Relation to Sub-Research Questions

Interview Question	Open Codes	Themes	Subthemes
Tell me about your experiences teaching SEL before the pandemic broke out. Tell me about your experiences implementing the five competencies of SEL teaching remotely during the COVID-19 pandemic. Tell me how you felt when you were told almost overnight to begin teaching remotely, and you knew you still had to teach SEL. Tell me about your own self-efficacy implementing SEL and managing the challenges teaching remotely. Tell me how you felt about your own SEL when you had to teach remotely and meet the social and emotional needs of your students. Tell me how you felt after teaching remote for several months. Tell me how you felt when you were told that you would be going back to in-person teaching, even though the pandemic was still taking place. Tell me about the professional development You received to teach SEL during Remote learning.	Teacher Attitude Self-Efficacy Caring Student Safety	Awareness Challenges	Teacher Resilience Student Resilience Coping Caregiver

Individual Interview Data Analysis

The plan for analyzing individual interview data followed the procedures outlined by Esterberg (2002). The interviews were transcribed using Rev.com software, and individual transcriptions were distributed to teachers for verification. Before analyzing the transcriptions and reviewing the interview field notes, the researcher suspended any presumptions by recording them in a reflective journal to identify biases (Moustakas, 1994). The researcher used the bracketing technique to protect the cumulative effects of looking at what might be emotionally tricky material given the sometimes close relationship between the researcher and the research topic that may both precede and develop during the qualitative research process (Tufford & Newman, 2010). The researcher used qualitative analysis to interpret the data and identify recurring themes that would help people better understand the participants' lived experiences (Sargeant, 2012). An audit trail was developed to record the information gathered from the participants' stories.

Reflective Journal

Journaling is the second method of data collection for this study. Journaling is a method of data collection that has been validated to yield rich qualitative data (Hayman et al., 2012) and is suitable for the current study. A journal combines a diary and a log because it contains personal reflections, individual accounts of events, and individual descriptions of lived experiences (Chabon & Lee-Wilkerson, 2006). The researcher's personal experiences, thoughts, opinions, and emotions were acknowledged as part of the data analysis and interpretation procedures (Jasper, 2005)

Data Synthesis

The researcher analyzed data and used an audit trail to record the steps of data collection and analysis using the techniques described by Esterberg (2002) and (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The following methods for data analysis were used: By assisting in the efforts to reveal the participants' motivations for their actions and the causes of the findings, clustering analysis was applied to coded qualitative data to clarify the participants' lived experiences (Henry et al., 2015).

The researcher kept a reflective journal throughout every stage of this study to avoid letting personal experiences taint the gathering, analysis, and synthesis of data. The researcher was helped by keeping a reflective journal to capture the lived experiences shared by the participants in the semi-structured interviews. The use of reflexivity alerted the researcher to any potential biases that might have affected the study. To put aside any judgment and focus on the participants' experiences, the researcher started the process of describing and disclosing any personal experience with the events (see Appendix G) (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The researcher then read the transcripts and journal entries several times, looking for noteworthy passages while triangulating the data to establish the study's validity (Guion, 2002). The researcher made notes in the margins and read and reread the transcriptions to help with coding and thematic clustering (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The distribution of transcriptions to participants for member-checking enabled them to evaluate the accuracy of the transcription (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Using ATLAS.ti, statements were coded, and their meanings were grouped into themes (Patton, 2015). A code is a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a

summative, salient, essence-capturing, and evocative attribute to a portion of language-based or visual data (Saldana, 2013). After statements were coded, they were grouped into themes, organized, and then used to generate a textual description of each teacher's experience. Each textural description was a "comprehensive description of its essential constituents, perceptions, thoughts, feelings, colors, and shapes" (Moustakas, 1994). Next, the researcher analyzed and merged the textual descriptions of all teachers to create a universal textual description of the lived experiences of teachers during the COVID-19 pandemic (Moustakas, 1994).

Trustworthiness of the Design

Establishing credibility is necessary for the credibility of research findings and interpretations (Patton, 2015). Triangulation to record and report multiple interpretations from various data sources to be credible (Patton, 2015). Additionally, biases were acknowledged, reflection was practiced, a sustained presence was maintained during the research, working with participants, and member feedback through member checking (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This study adopted the methods of Lincoln and Guba (1985) to establish credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability, and ethical considerations to achieve trustworthiness.

Credibility

Member-checking, prolonged engagement, and triangulation were the techniques chosen to guarantee the study's validity. Triangulation from interviews and journals was used to assess the consistency of evidence from various data sources and validate emerging themes in the data (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton,

2015). Participants provided feedback on the interview transcriptions to judge the "accuracy and credibility of the account" (Creswell & Poth, 2018), which allowed participants to give additional information previously not mentioned during the interview process. Prolonged engagement allowed the researcher to "invest sufficient time with participants and build trust while eliminating any distortions that might creep into the data" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). (Lincoln & Guba). Member-checking is the "most important technique for establishing credibility," according to Lincoln and Guba (1985). Reflexivity was used in all measures to keep presumptions in the context of data analysis (Patton, 2015). Reflexivity was maintained throughout this qualitative research study to maintain credibility, which is related to credibility (Sundler et al., 2019).

Transferability

Transferability refers to the applicability and relevance of the research findings and is comparable to external validity (Patton, 2015). (Sundler et al., 2019). The researcher gave readers a "rich, thick description" of the participants and the research site's lived experiences so they could judge the transferability (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 263; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To understand the participant's lived experience during the event, this study provided a rich description of participant verbalizations and expressions. It provided the "widest possible range of information for inclusion in the thick description" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 316). (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Dependability

Like reliability, dependability focuses on the research study's methodology, and the researcher's responsibility for ensuring the study was logical, traceable, and well-

documented (Patton, 2015). By having a researcher not involved in the research process examine both the process and the research study's output, the researcher increased dependability through an inquiry audit (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). An external audit was conducted to determine the accuracy and whether the data supported the findings, interpretations, and conclusions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Confirmability

Similar to objectivity, confirmability emphasizes linking conclusions and interpretations to observable data analysis (Patton, 2015). To increase the verifiability of this research study, the researcher set up an audit trail and recorded the steps in the data collection procedure (Creswell & Poth, 2018). An audit trail, which includes records of what was done during the investigation, is a detailed description of the research steps from the start of a research study to the development and reporting of findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). (Amankwaa, 2016). Journals, written field notes, interview transcriptions, coding, themes, reflective notes, and the findings made up the audit trail (Amankwaa, 2016). Additionally, the researcher created a reflexive journal to eliminate biases and improve confirmability (Amankwaa, 2016).

Role of the Researcher

The research topic for this study was selected based on the researcher's experiences throughout his professional life. When implementing federal and state regulations of his district's program, the researcher was up against a mountain of obstacles based on guidance documents. According to the researcher, the guidance documents appeared to have been issued after a plan was already implemented.

Participants in this study were asked to participate in interviews where they discussed their personal experiences. As an administrator in the district, the researcher is in a position of influence. The researcher recognizes his possible influence on the participants during data collection, called reactivity. During data collection, the researcher was aware of possibly affecting the participants, which is referred to as reactivity. The concept of reflexivity will be applied to control for researcher reactivity.

Because qualitative research is a data collection instrument, the data in qualitative research is a human instrument rather than inventories, surveys, or questionnaires (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). Because it is a human instrument, researchers' biases, assumptions, expectations, and experiences may have influenced the research (Greenbank, 2003).

Being a school-level administrator during the COVID-19 pandemic, the researcher was familiar with the daily struggle of teachers instructing students while maintaining social distancing, donning facial coverings, frequently using hand sanitizers, and wiping down student desks in between classes. However, before looking at the lived experiences of the potential study participants, the researcher bound off his own experience (Creswell & Poth, 2018). When conducting qualitative research, the researcher serves as the primary inquiry tool (Patton, 2015). The classroom teachers were the test subjects for this qualitative investigation, and they needed to understand their stories and experiences to avoid personal bias through multiple data sources, participant feedback, and checking for representatives.

The researcher embraced this idea by using personal anecdotes from the pandemic to frame those anecdotes (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Therefore, personal experiences were left out of the description of the researcher's experience during the pandemic to concentrate on the experiences of the participants (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Ethical Considerations

Researchers are guided by ethical principles regarding human participants in research (Moustakas, 1994). Before collecting data, the researcher obtained approval from the Institutional Review Board at St. John's University and permission letters from the Superintendent of Schools and the principal at the research site (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The researcher selected a site that did not raise power issues with the participants, informed them of the general purpose of the study, and obtained their informed consent (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Throughout this study, participants and the research site were given pseudonyms to protect their identities (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The researcher avoided asking leading questions, prevented disclosing sensitive information, and safeguarded all information obtained from participants (Cypress, 2018). (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Electronic data were saved as password-protected files, stored on an external hard drive, and secured in a safe alongside hard copies of research data (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Conclusions

This chapter discusses the methods utilized in this qualitative investigation. Northeastern school district teachers' experiences implementing social and emotional learning in remote and in-person settings during the COVID-19 pandemic were explored

through a narrative study. This investigation was guided by one primary research question and four subsidiary research questions. The research was conducted at a single school with participants selected through purposeful sampling and sample size determined by thematic saturation. The researcher's responsibility to acknowledge existing presuppositions and bracket them to revisit matters within the realm of openness was examined in depth (Tufford & Newman, 2010). Individual interviews and a reflective journal comprised the methods of data collection. They were analyzed utilizing the techniques outlined by Esterberg (2002). This study employed the strategies of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability to ensure reliability. Ethical considerations were taken into account to protect the rights of participants.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine the lived experiences of elementary school teachers throughout the transitions from in-person to fully remote to partially remote while trying to meet students' social-emotional learning needs during the COVID-19 pandemic. A narrative inquiry enabled the researcher to focus on several teachers who experienced a unique and shared perspective and to gain a deeper understanding of a situation by giving a voice to those whose perspectives are frequently overlooked (Liamputtong, 2009). The central research question that guided this qualitative study was: During the Covid-19 pandemic, what were elementary school teachers' lived experiences while teaching social-emotional learning (SEL) via remote and in-person instruction? This chapter describes eight selected participants based on specific criteria, the study's findings, outlier data, thematic and sub-thematic development, participant responses to the research questions, and a chapter summary.

Participants

The eight participants in this study were recruited from a single elementary school using a criterion-based sampling technique. All participants were full-time public school teachers, taught grades two through five, and shifted from remote to face-to-face instruction. A recruitment email was sent to all participants, and after receiving their responses, their teaching schedules were reviewed to confirm they met the requirements. This qualitative study employed pseudonyms to protect the confidentiality of the participants and the schools involved. See table 5 for each participant's demographic information.

Table 5

Description of Participants

Name*	Gender	Age	Current Title	Grade Level	Years in Education
Lisa	F	51	Elementary Teacher	4	20+
Stacy	F	25	P.E. Teacher	K-6	1
Paulette	F	53	Sp. Ed. Teacher	4	15
Janice	F	30	Elementary Teacher	1	7
Sadia	F	58	Sp. Ed. Teacher	K	20+
Millie	F	56	Sp. Ed. Teacher	6	20+
Casey	F	41	ENL Teacher	K/1	1
Rene	F	56	Gen. Ed. Teacher	6	20+

Note: *Pseudonyms

Description of Participants

Lisa. Lisa is a 51-year-old teacher currently teaching fourth grade at Northeastern Elementary School. She has 22 years of experience as a teacher and taught first and fourth grades during her tenure. Lisa holds a master's degree and elementary education certification (N-6). Lisa responded, "I became a teacher because I enjoy working with children," when asked about herself."

Stacy. Stacy is a 25-year-old physical education teacher with one year of experience at Northeastern Elementary School. One year before the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, Stacy began her teaching career at Northeastern Elementary School. Former educators inspired Stacy to become a teacher at a young age. When asked about

herself, Stacy responded, "I believe I became a teacher because so many of my incredible teachers had a genuine passion for what they taught, which influenced my life." Regarding this motivation, Stacy stated, "I want to do the same for my students."

Paulette. Paulette teaches special education at Northeastern Elementary School and is 53 years old. Paulette teaches fourth-grade autistic students and has fifteen years of teaching experience. She has a master's degree, is certified in Applied Behavioral Analysis (ABA), and enjoys working with special needs students. When asked about herself, she stated, "I began teaching to follow in the footsteps of my older brother." Paulette first considered pursuing a career in education while enrolled in college because she "wanted to be there" and thought this might be what she desired to do. Paulette enjoyed teaching and stated, "I have been successful at it and have enjoyed doing it because I consider it my niche."

Janice. Janice teaches first grade at Northeastern Elementary School and is 30 years old. She has seven years of experience as a teacher. When asked about herself, Janice responded, "My mother was a teacher, and when she retired, I decided I wanted to become a teacher as well." Janice states that teaching first grade is her first love because it was her first passion.

Sadia. Sadia teaches kindergarten at Northeastern Elementary School and is 58 years old. She has 28 years of teaching experience and has taught various grade levels throughout her career. When asked about herself, she responded, "I became a teacher because I come from a long line of teachers, but the main reason is that I wanted to make a difference in the lives of future generations because several teachers impacted my life

as a student." Sadia stated that she desired to have the same impact on students as she had.

Millie. Millie is a 56-year-old sixth-grade special education teacher with 22 years of experience at Northeastern Elementary School. She taught self-contained special education at Northeastern School and oversaw the middle school's alternative school program. Millie responded, "I have always worked with children, so I knew that was what I wanted to do," when asked about herself. Ten years ago, Millie directed a middle school youth group that her children attended.

Casey. Casey teaches English as a New Language (ENL) at Northeastern Elementary School. He is 41 years old. She has one year of experience as a teacher. She holds a bachelor's degree and certifications in teaching language arts and social sciences. Before becoming a teacher, Casey substitute taught for five years and taught preschool before having children. When asked about herself, she stated, "I am new to the field, but I enjoy teaching tremendously." Casey stated, "I became a teacher because I enjoy educating others, and I value education."

Rene. Rene is a 56-year-old special education teacher with 25 years of experience at Northeastern Elementary School. When asked to describe herself, Rene stated, "When I was in school, my teachers had us in rows, and I do not learn that way, so I did not want anyone else to experience that." She stated, "My approach to teaching is very different from what I experienced because I like interacting with people, and we do more activities as opposed to sitting in a chair and completing 40 problems repeatedly."

Findings

During the COVID-19 pandemic, this qualitative study aimed to describe teachers' actual experiences implementing social and emotional learning in remote to face-to-face settings. This investigation was guided by one primary research question and four subsidiary research questions. Individual virtual interviews were conducted using a WebEx account at St. John's University and a reflective journal, which provided a wealth of information for data analysis. No participant withdrew from this research study, and all participants participated in the interview process. Because she did not meet with students during the pandemic, one participant was disqualified.

Throughout data collection, analysis, and synthesis, the researcher used reflective journaling to let go of preconceived notions, distorted thoughts, or feelings to keep the researcher's consciousness open and free (Moustakas, 1994). The interviews and reflective journals were meticulously transcribed and double-checked for accuracy. The researcher, throughout the study, attempted to access the thoughts and feelings of the research participants (Sutton & Austin 2015). The researcher maintained a fold of field notes to complement audio recorded interviews from WebEx. Following the analysis of the participant interviews and the reflective journal, initial codes (see Appendix I**)** were developed into open codes. Through open coding, four primary theme and nine subthemes emerged. Table 6 displays the themes and subthemes for all triangulated data sources.

Table 6

Themes and Subthemes for all Triangulated Data Sources

Theme	Subtheme
Perseverance	Coping Caregiver
Need to Socialize	Cues from Students Verbal Persuasion from Colleagues
Challenges During Covid-19 Pandemic	Emotional Challenges Academic Challenges Remote/In-person classroom challenges
Awareness	Student Resilience Teacher Resilience

First, the research questions and findings will be supported, and then, after that, the themes that emerged from the research will be supported.

Research Question Responses

This qualitative study was guided by one central research question and four sub-research questions. The research questions sought to describe teachers' lived experiences implementing social and emotional learning transitioning from remote to in-person settings during the COVID-19 pandemic. The four themes identified during data analysis: (a) perseverance, (b) need to socialize, (c) challenges during the COVID-19 pandemic, and (d) awareness supported participants' responses to each of the research questions below.

Central Research Question

What were teachers' lived experiences while teaching social-emotional learning (SEL) during both remote and in-person instruction in elementary school throughout the

Covid-19 pandemic? Teachers described their experience teaching SEL transitioning from remote to in-person settings as a fluctuating process that revolved around their learning experiences and their perceptions of those experiences. According to Stacy:

> It was not easy to teach social and emotional learning via remote instruction. I was still attempting to establish a rapport with my students. I had no idea what to do or how to approach teaching SEL. I always tried to find lessons and tasks students could complete without regard to available space. Although I tried hard to keep the students interested, I was hindered by some of them not having access to Wi-Fi. My perspective on the subject changed as I continued to teach SEL remotely. With my colleague's help, I started creating activities related to students' social and emotional learning. I was happy to hear from the district that we would return to school. I was confident that I could better connect with my students compared to remote instruction. Being there, interacting with people, and seeing the kids in person were all enjoyable.

Sadia stated:

> I was not prepared to instruct SEL remotely. I was not sure how I would handle the remote teaching process. Everyone seemed to be feeling apprehensive at first, and the fact that I had no idea where we were going, how this would appear, or how it would feel made me feel incredibly anxious and uneasy. I was fortunate to have a colleague to assist me because it made the process easier. Although I was aware of the mechanical aspect, it soon became clear to me that everyone was having the same issues with the remote teaching process. I was only able to say

that our coworkers were fortunate and that while you do not need everyone, you do need someone to lend a hand. Our coworkers and I relied on one another to survive this pandemic until we returned to in-person learning. In collaboration sessions, my grade level team and I planned social-emotional learning-related activities for students at the principal's request. When we went back to in-person learning, there was still that anxiety and fear of contracting the virus, making teaching SEL difficult. I appreciated that the district protected student and teacher desks with barriers. Although it gave us a sense of security, we were hesitant to approach the students any closer than six feet away.

Janice said:

I was losing sleep over remote learning and teaching SEL. There was very limited interactive teaching, with lessons consisting mostly of prerecorded videos and independent assignments. When I saw my students, those who decided to show up, they were not engaged, making remote teaching challenging. I knew my students needed more than just what we had to teach from the textbooks, so there were days we would just talk. I wanted to know how they were feeling. Many of my students' parents lost their jobs and could not provide for their children. I felt helpless. I would see my students who joined the class during remote learning crying and unable to participate. They would express how sad they could not see their friends. When we were told we were coming back to school, many of my colleagues did not show up. I did not blame them as we were all afraid of the coronavirus. However, the more we learned about the virus during our remote

learning, I became more comfortable and believed I would be safe in school. However, many of my colleagues were still afraid. When we were told we were returning to remote learning, I knew it would be challenging. I did not know where to start or how I would get students to open up and become a part of the learning environment after they have been a way for months. So each day, we would just play games and talk, share, and share some more. That is how I had to start each day just to prepare students for learning.

Lisa said:

At the beginning of the pandemic, I found it extremely difficult to teach remotely, especially SEL. Because I taught younger students and not all of them knew how to use the district-issued devices, I was worried. I had anticipated having more time to prepare my lessons, but instead I was preoccupied with adjusting to the stress and trauma of experiencing a pandemic. It was a chore getting ready and showing students how to access the materials in the Google Classroom. The biggest challenge was clearly outlining the activities. I would google strategies for teaching SEL remotely and incorporate some of the activities I found. While attempting to follow remote instructions, I was a complete mess. Returning to in-person instruction made me happy, but I still found it difficult to teach SEL. Our school attempted to collaborate with teachers, but what we discovered hardly offered genuine support. I was genuinely afraid that teachers and students would need to interact while donning face masks and keeping a six-foot distance apart to prevent the virus from spreading. Despite everything I did to help my students

> when we returned to school, I still could not be the same teacher I was before the pandemic, which frustrated me.

Participants found it complex to teach social and emotional learning in remote settings. Some expressed uncertainty about how they would manage the remote teaching procedure. The prevalence of anxiousness and sleeplessness was high. Even though the pandemic was still ongoing, participants were pleased when schools resumed in-person instruction.

Sub-Question One

How were the five competencies of social-emotional learning (self-awareness, self-management, responsible decision-making, relationship skills, and social skills) taught during remote and in-person instruction during the pandemic? This sub-research question was designed to explore how vicarious experience may influence teachers' perceived self-efficacy in teaching in-person instruction during the pandemic. According to Paulette:

> I believe self-awareness is a vital skill for students especially during the pandemic. I would encourage the students to express their feelings about their unique situations and how their social environments made them feel. I also nudged students to express their emotions and teach them how to expand their minds. Each day during remote learning, I would have students identify their feelings and share if they felt frustrated or anger because they needed to be free to express themselves. I would have students play a game called honestly me. In this game, I would have my students look at themselves honestly and support them

responding to compliments and feedback openly and honestly. I wanted them to acknowledge both the positive and negative things in the world, and the pandemic was at the forefront of acknowledgement. Many of my students did not know why they were home and could not understand why they could not be with their friends. I struggled in the beginning of the pandemic because I did not know what tomorrow would look like. I was told that this would only last for two weeks, but then two weeks became another two weeks and suddenly we were told we were to teach fully remote. I questioned myself daily and worried about my students. If it were not for my colleagues supporting me while we supported each other, I just do not know.

Casey said:

I had a lot of daily tasks to complete while remote learning. One of the tasks I assigned my students to complete while participating in remote instruction was to take the initiative and self-manage. I tried to remember that I was virtually in someone's house, but I had to make it clear that the students' new classroom was on a computer for the time being. I want to help my students develop a growth mindset and learn how to control their impulsivity and stress. This task presented a challenge to me, and I frequently failed. To restore order in the classroom, I had to move some students to the waiting area on the Google Meet platform because I could not reach some of them. I wanted to encourage my students to be brave and take charge of their academic work, but I was aware of the constraints I would inevitably encounter. I wanted the students to understand that they were using

computers to learn and that it would be difficult. For my students, I wanted to provide the best care possible. I was aware that it would be challenging to establish new behavioral expectations when we were informed that we would be going back to in-person instruction. Since I was aware of my students' poor academic and behavioral performance during remote instruction, I knew I had my work cut out for me in terms of getting my students to the desired results. Because I wanted them to feel like this classroom was their second home, I wanted students to participate in the process of adjusting to our learning environment and have the chance to set expectations.

Sadia said:

I was particularly concerned with how students would handle their social skills while participating in remote learning. I wanted to maintain a sense of normalcy in student interactions even though we were apart. I frequently allowed students to converse and tell stories, especially on Mondays when I wanted to address any issues that might have been problematic for them over the weekend. Since everything is hands-on and based on social interactions, I believe one of the most challenging aspects of being an elementary school teacher trying to teach social skills during remote instruction is that. I was aware that students would find this challenging. I missed getting daily hugs from my students. That, in my opinion, was one of the greatest gifts a student could give me while we were in-person learning together. Since that option cannot be used remotely, younger students benefited from my interaction. I had to figure out how to provide emotional

support for my students while apart. Although verbal communication was difficult for my students, physical interaction was impossible when learning remotely. I felt helpless even to consider being away from my students.

Rene said:

I felt it was more crucial than ever before to help more students develop the capacity for sound decision-making during the pandemic. My students had to exercise responsibility while receiving remote instruction. Students were not participating in remote instruction, they were not completing their assignments, and I was at a loss for what to do. The building principal informed us that SEL is a crucial element of remote teaching. I would instruct my students to log on using the updated schedule the administration provided. I would start the day by discussing with the teachers how they can be involved in all the decisions they must make throughout the day. I conducted student check-ins and gave them the option to do so by using Google Meet. According to Rene:

I created breakout spaces for the students to congregate and interact. Although I was not certain of my actions, I had to try for the sake of my students. I was overjoyed when we were informed that we would go back to in-person instruction in the fall. It was difficult because of my anxiety and worry that I might contract the virus from one of my students or coworkers. The first few weeks were chaotic because my students were not paying attention and were just happy to be in class with their friends. I had to start putting structures in place immediately, and I needed to keep honing my ability to make responsible decisions. The six feet

> apart rule was not understood by my students, and they were unconcerned about it. I did not know if I could make it through this process, so I had to rely on my teammates. I neglected my health because I was so preoccupied with teaching SEL to my students, and I often lay awake at night wondering why I was torturing myself.

The five social and emotional learning abilities were unknown to the participants. The play was a significant component of several tactics utilized during remote teaching. Teachers would urge students to share their emotions regarding their particular circumstances and how they felt in their social contexts. Participants said they helped pupils curb their impulsivity and foster a growth mindset. As they collaborated to establish goals for their students' development, teachers worked to create a remote learning environment with input from the students.

Sub-Question Two

What were teachers' feelings about their own social-emotional instructional competencies, self-efficacy, and experiences throughout remote and in-person instruction during the pandemic? This sub-research question was designed to explore teachers' feelings about their self-efficacy in teaching remotely and in person during the pandemic. According to Stacy:

> I really wanted to do a good job for my students. I took control of my own SEL. I started enjoying myself and including games in my lessons with the students. I was generally in good shape so I felt able to do my job productively. My three children were also on lockdown at first, which added to my initial feeling of being

overwhelmed, but it also help me reasonable manage my life. The standout moment for me was a bit of normalcy or what seemed normal at the time. I noticed all my students wearing their masks without telling them to. I feel like I am making strides with them. I did not have to stop teaching to find a mask. I guess my daily reminders are paying off and my students can decide to wear a mask for themselves.

Janice stated:

My experiences teaching SEL were very limited, and I have no formal training teaching remote and in-person. I was employing tactics that were at odds with SEL. I was doing the best I could with the little knowledge that I had teaching SEL or what SEL was for that matter. I was worried throughout the pandemic. I did not feel as though I was having success teaching SEL during remote learning. I knew that I had to get by somehow, so I relied on my colleagues for support and encouragement. I was so nervous and there was a period during the pandemic that I had no idea of what was next.

Lisa said:

I work with autistic children and their biggest problem is socialization, not just with their teachers, but also with people outside of the classroom. I knew some of my students were having a difficult time navigating the remote learning. Getting students to turn on their cameras was one of my biggest challenges. I learned quickly that I had to pick and choose my battles. I knew some of my students were not eating properly, so some of the teachers got together and bought food for

some of our families. Although we were in the middle of a pandemic, I delivered food to the doorsteps of my students. I wanted them to be okay. I knew if they were okay, a small part of me would be okay too.

Rene stated:

Switching back to in-person learning was undoubtedly one of those times where I was extra cautious. I felt nervous when I got to work because I did not want to become ill and bring it home to my family. I was so nervous because we did not know who could be a carrier of the virus and no one wanted to be around other colleagues. I was just not sure and being afraid was an understatement. With this new variant I heard about, the quarantines, and the rising numbers, I did not know if the virus would ever go away.

The teachers sincerely desired to encourage their pupils throughout remote learning. They acknowledged that they were responsible for their SEL and endeavored to support students with the limited knowledge they possessed regarding SEL instruction. Choosing which battles to engage in was essential for teachers to manage their SEL effectively. Teachers feared falling ill and maybe transmitting the virus to their families.

Sub-Question Three

How did teachers' lived experiences differ during remote and in-person instruction while implementing social-emotional instruction?

Teachers across the United States faced new challenges when K–12 schools switched to remote instruction in the spring of 2020 due to the coronavirus pandemic (COVID–19). Getting students to engage in class, adapting the curriculum to the remote

format, and losing the personal connection of teaching are all common problems. There were differences by grade level as well, with secondary teachers more frequently citing student engagement and a general sense of being lost or unsupported in their teaching as challenges. In contrast, elementary teachers struggled more with parents' varying attitudes toward remote learning and adapting their curriculum to an online format (Leech, Gullett, and Haug, 2022). These difficulties offer a crucial context for the experience of remote instruction and the kind of assistance teachers need to keep up with remote instruction. According to Millie:

> During remote instruction, I stayed in my room and no one bothered me. I was able to see my students on the screen, those who chose to turn their cameras on and try my best to make them feel comfortable. With rising numbers of COVID cases in the community, I have no idea how we are going to manage when we received word students were returning back to the classroom. Especially when students had long weekend, those were the times I was most nervous. I noticed students present one day and then absent the next day and the next day. I did not receive any updates as to who had the virus. I, along with my colleagues, did not receive information as to why students were absent. I felt like everything was a big secret. Many days I was overcome with anxiety with not know what was going on. The one distinct difference between teaching remotely and having students return to in-person learning, in spite of the anxiety was the ability to have my students in class each day.

Casey said:

> I was happy when my students returned to back to school. I did realize how much I missed them. My class was very close and I am still very close to all of those students. When my students returned to school, every morning we would enjoy circle time and sharing stories about our day. While on remote learning, I felt disconnected from my students. Many of my students turned did not turn their computers on, which made it very difficult to connect with them. I taught SEL by just asking them about their feelings and having them speak to their classmates at the start of our day. I was trying to figure it all out, but when students returned, I was so happy.

The circumstances that teachers encountered during remote and in-person learning varied. Some teachers remained in their classrooms, apart from their peers. Upon the return of the pupils, some teachers showed elation. Teachers were left to work out distant instruction but flourished during in-person instruction.

Sub-Question Four

How did the teachers' lived experiences and SEL training help them with social and emotional instruction? This sub-research question was created to investigate how the SEL training provided during the pandemic helped teachers implement social and emotional learning.

The development of teachers' abilities to successfully implement social and emotional learning in a classroom setting centers on teacher training. The purpose of professional development was to increase teachers' knowledge of the approaches and skills necessary to meet the needs of every student. In order to address the pandemic's

disproportionate effects and support students and teachers as they move from online to in-person learning environments, educators are implementing SEL strategies. According to Casey:

> Professional development! The district gave me ideas for various online activities we could do with our students, but that's where it ended. I did not really receive the support needed for someone unfamiliar with implementing social and emotional learning standards. I had no idea about the concept because it had not yet been something that had been a part of a real professional development at that point.

Lisa stated:

> I received support resources, but most of the social and emotional learning lessons that I used, posted, or tried to work with my students on were just a combination of being a mom of three at home learning, going through the pandemic, and just be a teacher of twenty years. I worked with other teachers to develop activities for students when, but that still was not sufficient. I just had to figure it out.

Paulette said:

> Remote instruction allowed me and my colleagues to interact and support each other during in-person learning. The professional development opportunities, although separate, but together helped me realize how important my job was and that my students needed me. I learned to control my emotions because there were many instances where the fear of the unknown was traumatizing.

Teachers reported that there needed to be more opportunities for professional development regarding implementing SEL. The district provided suggestions for online activities, but that was all. Some teachers relied on their maternal experiences, while others collaborated with colleagues to construct SEL activities to match the student's learning needs.

Salient Themes

Perseverance

Perseverance was the primary theme found during data analysis, and coping and caregiving were the two subthemes that appeared. Interviews with participants revealed that teachers' persistence in offering online and in-person instruction throughout the pandemic helped them build self-efficacy in implementing social and emotional learning. All eight participants specifically mentioned their capacity to endure or prevail when speaking about their in-person and remote teaching experiences. According to Rene:

> I suppose the more you do it, the more accustomed you become to it. I have gotten used to being inside; it has gotten easier as the days have passed, and the masks and everything have become almost normal. I have become more confident in my ability to implement social and emotional learning during the pandemic. I am beginning to feel a sense of normalcy.

Paulette said:

> I am trying to learn how to engage in interacting with the students with the in-person daily schedule. I learned to persevere teaching in-person again which made the work I was doing better in the classroom.

Rene and Paulette referred to their ongoing experience with the everyday routine of remote training. As they persisted in that atmosphere, they grew accustomed to the routine and attained a kind of normalcy. Their perseverance in distant settings increased their confidence in teaching remotely during the pandemic.

Coping

The first subtheme under perseverance was the desire of teachers to engage in coping. According to Sadia, I believed that we were all in this together to support one another because nobody had experience with what we are about to undertake. I learned to figure it out. Millie stated, "I would merely unwind and consider various events from our students' day. Rene said, “I believed that students needed to see their teacher present and willing to go to any lengths to ensure their safety and the best education possible under the COVID circumstances in a world where face-to-face communication was no longer encouraged” Stacy said, "I didn't have much experience, so I wanted to do well. I desired for my managers to review my work and appreciate my efforts". Paulette said, besides my anxiety and trepidation about the pandemic it was a peaceful time for me, and I was able to take things at a slower pace."

Teachers described using coping mechanisms to get through face-to-face instruction. Paulette said, “I needed coping mechanisms.”

Janice said:

> I needed to locate my happy place and spend my planning block there. I merely turned off my light and turned on my lamp before cleaning my classroom. It kept me from thinking about COVID”. I felt that remembering your purpose is always

essential to maintain as much activity as possible while doing everything with the belief that you can accomplish it. To escape what is happening right now, I shift to a different location in my mind to escape what was happening at that moment.

Self-efficacy was an integral element of teachers' daily experience with coping, which enabled them to continue teaching during the pandemic. Teachers acquired coping methods to manage face-to-face and remote instruction during the epidemic due to their greater self-efficacy attained through effort.

Caregiving

Caregiving was the second subtheme under perseverance that was found. Assuring the safety of the students helped some teachers feel more confident about their ability to instruct in both in-person and remote settings during the COVID-19 pandemic. According to Casey:

I purchased food for families whose parents lost their jobs due to the pandemic. I made grocery lists, went grocery shopping for families, and delivered food to my students' homes. I felt productive when I was able to support my struggling students' and their families. I have benefited from looking out for them

According to Millie:

I wanted to establish a secure and encouraging setting for learning. My students enjoyed doing it, being here, making my students feel at ease, and letting the students know I was available to help with anything they needed. I felt it is crucial to help my students feel more at ease and to take care of them.

Casey and Millie both felt a sense of satisfaction from caring for their students. Casey provided food for families whose parents lost their jobs due to the pandemic, while others purchased devices for students who lacked access. Teachers believed that caring for their students was crucial.

Need to Socialize

The need to interact with others was the third overarching theme, and verbal cues from students and verbal persuasion from coworkers emerged as its two subthemes. All eight participants explicitly mentioned the need to socialize when discussing how they implemented social and emotional learning in in-person and remote instruction. When it was revealed that they would be returning to in-person instruction, the participants felt a great sense of relief. According to Paulette:

> I was kind of relieved that we were going back to in-person instruction. I was glad to see my coworkers and the students again. I was tired of being in my living room. I was glad to be able to socialize again, but I hoped I would not get sick,

Rene said:

> I was thrilled because I knew the students needed to return with their friends and to the classroom, particularly if they were healthy and their parents had agreed to send them to school.

Janice said:

> I was excited to see the students and socialize, but I was extremely worried for my own well-being. I felt even though students were in different cohorts, socializing

with students who were virtual and in-person provided students with an opportunity to bond.

Sadia said:

I voiced opposition to the return of in-person instruction and the desire to interact with people in large groups. We discussed coming back together, and I felt when they decided on the barriers in the classrooms, that sealed the deal for me.

Lisa said:

I was ecstatic to resume receiving instruction in person. Although we were apart, I felt being in person provided teachers with a chance to interact in person and I wanted to return and be with my students because they needed to be together. I felt like I did not care that we were in a pandemic.

Most participants said they had to socialize to teach social and emotional learning both in-person and remotely during the pandemic. Teachers' interactions with coworkers at work helped them feel self-sufficient. Through socializing, teachers could share their classroom experiences with one another and get support from their peers.

Verbal Cues from Students

Verbal cues from students were the first subtheme discovered under the heading of a need to socialize. Verbal cues from students helped teachers feel more effective. They said that hearing encouraging verbal cues from students increased their confidence in their ability to continue teaching SEL despite the pandemic. According to Paulette:

My colleagues felt students' statements about returning to in-person learning gave us confidence in our ability to deliver in-person and remote instruction. I think

just talking with students is the biggest thing. I felt the students' comments make me believe in myself when they say they like my class and are happy to have me as their teacher during COVID. I believed the emotional stability is the main factor that has helped me believe I can do this.

Janice said:

I believed that dealing with children this age; they do not comprehend the seriousness of COVID. I am sorry for them; it is terrible. When they say things like, they want to stay in here all day, it made me feel good. I feel like I am succeeding because of it.

Lisa said:

When students tell me that I explain things more clearly than the computer did, it makes me happy. I get the impression that my students want to be here, when we talk about virtual, which makes me want to be here as well. I always preferred to be here with my children and have that interaction. I felt saying little things like "stay safe" and "see you tomorrow" make me want to return the following day.

Rene said:

I feel like the kids have been supportive of me with the good things they have said, so that's been helpful for me. I felt like that feeling supports me and is beneficial for my teaching.

The verbal cues that Janice, Lisa, and Renee got from their students in the classroom led to an improvement in self-efficacy, and each of them felt more confident in their capacity to educate in person.

Verbal Persuasion from Colleagues

Verbal persuasion from coworkers was the second subtheme under the need to socialize. The participants reported that verbal interactions with other teachers and administrators helped them believe they could instruct SEL during remote and in-person instruction, which increased self-efficacy. According to Stacy:

> I felt we encourage one another and tell each other about our days. I know being in this setting benefits me as a teacher, and I eagerly anticipate our daily beneficial discussions.

Sadia said:

> I particularly need to have those conversations with the other teachers. I go to someone else's classroom to talk because I need to get through my day and my classes.

Lisa said:

> I feel like it is a shot in the arm when my coworkers stop by and say, we can do this. I felt this was very beneficial to me. I really need to be around people and I appreciate it when the principal comes by to see how I am doing and tells me to keep going because we are going to be okay. I like those visits as they boosted my confidence.

Paulette said:

> I felt like talking with my peers makes things easier for me; they support me as a teacher, and I really think we support each other throughout the day.

Teachers said that verbal interactions with other teachers and administrators made them believe they were qualified to deliver in-person education, which increased their sense of self-efficacy. Teachers' verbal persuasion experiences during the pandemic boosted their confidence to teach in-person and remotely.

Challenges during COVID-19 Pandemic

Challenges during the COVID-19 pandemic were the fourth theme found, and three subthemes emerged: emotional challenges, academic challenges, and challenges associated with online and in-person learning. All eight participants mentioned challenges specifically when talking about their experiences teaching both in-person and remotely. When they thought of teaching remote and in-person instruction as challenging, which led to anxiety, fear, and self-doubt about the learning environment, many teachers who had previously experienced increased self-efficacy through perseverance, awareness, and social interaction teaching SEL experienced decreased self-efficacy. According to Casey:

> When we were told overnight to transition to remote learning, my first thought was this is not going to work. I had some training teaching remotely, and it was said that it would only last two weeks.

Millie said:

> I must say that we had coworkers who constantly helped one another. Our coworkers support one another and are open to sharing information. It took me a while to realize that this was going to take longer than any of us had anticipated. We were under the impression this would only last a few days.

Stacy said:

> As a new teacher, I did not know half the people I worked with, so I had no idea how I was going to do any remote teaching. I felt very uncertain during the transition. I knew there were so many factors to consider and I struggled just to wrap my mind around the idea we were not going to be together as a school community.

Due to teachers' impressions of the difficulties involved with remote instruction, teachers perceived diminished self-efficacy. Their impressions of these obstacles prompted feelings of self-doubt.

Emotional Challenges

Emotional challenges were the first subtheme under challenge during the COVID-19 pandemic. Teachers claimed that providing in-person instruction during the pandemic was emotionally taxing and mentioned experiencing fear, anxiety, stress, and self-doubt, all of which reduced their confidence in their ability to teach SEL. According to Paulette:

> We were surrounded by a lot of death at the time, and that it made me feel uneasy I often wondered, will it be over today? Are we ever going to reunite? I had a great deal of anxiety during this time.

Janice said:

> I would experience insomnia and be unable to sleep due to my pregnancy. I frequently experienced anxiety and sadness. I felt alone and the pregnancy only complicated things for me. I had many questions, but like my colleagues, I was left wondering.

Lisa said:

> Teaching during the pandemic was very stressful because I was unsure when we would resume in-person instruction. I also anxiously awaiting the Governor's decision, which made the situation very challenging to handle. I felt teaching during the pandemic was very stressful because we were unsure when we would resume in-person instruction. I was scared of the whole pandemic talk. I was like, oh my God is this real? Is this really happening?

The teachers surveyed reported feeling exhausted and overworked. Attendance among instructors declined, and many educators also reported feelings of exhaustion and melancholy. Because of the widespread concern of catching the COVID-19 pandemic, the SEL of instructors was also called into doubt.

Academic Challenges

The second subtheme under challenging was academic challenges. Teachers experienced diminished self-efficacy in teaching SEL because of their perceptions of their academic challenges. Many teachers doubted their ability to teach SEL and were stressed about student achievement, student absences, and increased accountability for teaching SEL during remote and in-person instruction. According to Rene:

> There is a lot of missed instructional time. I have students out all the time because of quarantine, being sick, or something with COVID and catching those students up on instruction was demoralizing and very frustrating; sometimes. I want to give up. I mean, is this ever going to end; now we have the new variant? It is exhausting.

Lisa said:

I felt the expectations on teachers, this is not against our administration, but it is exhausting how many students are out for quarantine right now, and we're going to have to make up for it in class when they return. I don't think I can accomplish that.

Janice said:

I believe the attitude is that if a student is out of class, but some families and some students have the attitude that if they are out of class, it is a vacation, and I am stressed because I am responsible for their grades whether students are here or not.

Sadia said:

There were times I felt less capable to teaching social-emotional learning because of how the academic difficulties some students experienced. I felt like many kids are missing because of COVID and staying awake is difficult. I knew student scores still fall under my jurisdiction and it makes me feel like a bad teacher to see them struggle. I did not know how I was going to be able to keep up with test students' test results stresses me out.

Janice said:

I have students who are starting to get sick and are missing a lot of school. I now average three to four students per class. I have to put in extra effort to catch up, which is frustrating. I was discouraged and frustrated by the news that numbers were steadily increasing when students returned to school. I had COVID-exempt

students who did not even glance at their Google classroom when they were absent and I was unsure of what to do about it.

According to teachers, students who are frequently absent because of COVID-related quarantine, illness, or other factors, miss a great deal of class time. Teachers felt overwhelmed attempting to make up for lost learning with these students. The fact that some students chose to quit highlighted the academic hurdles teachers faced.

Remote/In-person Classroom Challenges

Remote and in-person classroom challenges were the second subtheme under challenge. The participants discussed the difficulties in SEL instruction in both in-person and remote settings. According to Lisa:

> Many students did not have devices at home and could not get to the high school where devices were distributed. I remembered that it was very difficult to assist parents in helping their first-graders log on to the device. I would assist parents after school hours by giving them clear instructions on how to use the laptops they were given. I remember that many parents lacked access to Wi-Fi and it posed the biggest obstacle to remote learning. Although a phone company provided my students' with hotspots, many parents still had trouble connecting to the internet.

Rene said:

> Some teachers used their personal funds to buy devices for their students because many students could not afford them. I lent my student's personally owned devices or outdated equipment just so they can do their classwork.

Remote and in-person learning demonstrated the disproportionality between the district's students and those of surrounding districts. At the onset of the epidemic, the district lacked the funds necessary to acquire new gadgets for kids. The district repurposed devices that were set for disposal to satisfy the needs of every student who required a device. When pupils received their devices, they did not have access to WIFI, which put them at a disadvantage. Some teachers purchased devices for their students who could not buy them with their own money. Others allow kids to borrow their devices until the district purchases enough to provide a one-to-one for every student.

Awareness

The two subthemes that emerged from the data analysis for the fourth theme, awareness, were student resilience and teacher resilience. The participants' awareness of others at school helped them teach SEL with more self-efficacy. Eight participants talked about their in-person teaching experiences and specifically mentioned their awareness of others. Several participants stated that it was easier to teach SEL when they watched other people go through similar experiences. According to Millie:

> Watching students arrive at school in this risky setting, donning masks, being here, and seeing them succeed every day makes me feel slightly better about being here. Some of my friends and family members are teachers; they come here every day. It makes it simpler for me because, as you may know, there are times when I feel somewhat guilty about wanting to stay home

Rene said:

> Observing my coworkers' perseverance helped me feel more capable of handling my own situations. I would see my friends across the hall clean desks, hand out hand sanitizer to students, and occasionally hear their voices instructing and that made me feel like I can do it too.

Teachers' awareness of others at school resulted in enhanced self-efficacy. As they shared their in-person teaching experiences, all eight participants immediately referred to their awareness of others. Several instructors stated that witnessing their students' experiences assisted them in delivering in-person education.

Conclusion

This chapter illustrated the findings of this qualitative study concerning the teachers' lived experience implementing social and emotional learning in remote to face-to-face settings during the COVID-19 pandemic. The findings were organized according to five themes, ten subthemes, one central research question, and four sub-research questions. They reflected the experiences of eight participants with the implementation of social and emotional learning. Data analysis revealed five themes: (a) perseverance, (b) the need to socialize, (c) challenge, (d) awareness, and (e) technical. Numerous participant quotations were used to support the themes mentioned above. The interviews revealed that teachers' implementation of social and emotional learning was constantly in flux, with uncertainty, anxiety, and fear. It was influenced by their classroom experiences and perceptions of the remote and face-to-face classroom environment. Teachers' experiences with perseverance, awareness and social interactions with others increased their confidence in implementing social and emotional learning, leading them to believe

they could successfully teach remotely and in-person instruction despite the pandemic. Due to the pandemic, however, many of these same teachers perceived their classrooms to be emotionally, academically, and environmentally challenging. These perceptions resulted in increased stress and self-doubt regarding their teaching ability, which diminished their teaching self-efficacy during the transition to remote instruction.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this qualitative study was to describe teachers' lived experiences implementing social and emotional learning transitioning from remote to in-person settings during the COVID-19 pandemic in a suburban school district in the northeastern part of the United States. This chapter includes a discussion of the interpretations of the findings, the implications for policy and practice, theoretical and methodological implications, the limitations, and delimitations, and includes recommendations for future research. The chapter concludes with an overall summary.

This study explored teachers' lived experiences implementing social and emotional learning transitioning from remote to in-person settings during the COVID-19 pandemic. Through the triangulated data sources mentioned in the previous chapter, the shared experiences of eight participants were categorized into the following four themes: (a) perseverance, (b) need to socialize, (c) challenges, and (d) awareness. This section discusses the study's findings in relation to the above themes. It supports the interpretation of those findings with empirical and theoretical literature and narrative evidence from the participants. The discussion includes the following subsections: implications of findings, relationship to prior research, limitations, delimitations, recommendations for future practice, and recommendations for future research.

Implications of Findings

This study's results have helped clarify teachers' perceptions of their efficacy in implementing social-emotional learning in face-to-face and online settings during the COVID-19 pandemic. The results of this study outline how participants' lived

experiences manifest in their teacher self-efficacy. The findings align with previous research and offer theoretical and practical implications for everyone working in the field of education in general and educators in particular. The following are the implications:

For those in the field of education, this study has demonstrated that the support teachers need to teach SEL both in-person and remotely can be used to identify teacher self-efficacy. Underpinned by Bandura's (1977) Theory of Self-Efficacy, teachers, who play a crucial role in students' education, can obtain the support they need. Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory served as the primary theoretical framework for this qualitative research study. Individuals acquire self-efficacy through mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. Self-efficacy is explained as the belief in one's ability to perform behaviors necessary for success in a given situation (Bandura, 1977). The results of this study validate Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory, support prior research on teacher self-efficacy, and validate Bandura's theory in the context of a familiar population facing a novel threat to teacher self-efficacy.

The study discovered that teachers' self-efficacy experiences aligned with Bandura's four sources of self-efficacy: mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. Specifically, teachers' self-efficacy increased due to mastery experience, vicarious experience, and verbal persuasion but decreased significantly due to emotional arousal. Teachers gained mastery experience through repeated exposure to in-person instruction with no adverse effects. Elevated self-efficacy expectations are developed through repeated success or exposure to adverse

environmental stimuli, which reduces the negative connotations of that exposure (Bandura, 1977).

As caregivers for their students, teachers experienced a sense of professional fulfillment. These findings supported Bandura's (1983) theory that the successful accomplishment of individual performance establishes a healthy belief in one's personal self-efficacy. Mastery experience increases teachers' self-efficacy in remote and face-to-face settings, and teacher self-efficacy is associated with teacher commitment (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Prior research (Myyry et al., 2022; Narayanan et al., 2021; Perkins Coppola, 2019; Rooij et al., 2019; Wilson et al., 2020) has confirmed the significance of mastery experiences for the development of teacher self-efficacy.

The study validated Bandura's theory that vicarious experience increases self-efficacy. The teachers' vicarious experiences involved observing other teachers and students perform without consequence in the classroom. Vicarious experience is associated with teacher observation of colleagues teaching in the same pandemic-related circumstances (Fackler et al., 2021). Through vicarious experience, teachers' perceptions of their own efficacy can be influenced by the accomplishments of other teachers in similar situations (Bandura, 1997). (Clark & Newberry, 2019; El-Abd & Chaaban, 2020). The findings supported Bandura's theory that observing others engage in challenging environments without negative consequences can lead observers to believe that they, too, can persevere in a similar situation if they persist in their efforts (Bandura, 1977).

The study demonstrated that verbal persuasion increases self-efficacy, as proposed by Bandura. Teachers primarily encountered verbal persuasion through their

relationships with other educators. Teachers used their relationships with other teachers as a coping mechanism in addition to planning time. Verbal persuasion is referred to as appraisal or evaluative feedback from others (Haverback, 2020; Watson & Marschall, 2019; Yada et al., 2019) and can increase perceptions of self-efficacy and coping ability when positive oral or written feedback is received (Haverback, 2020; Watson & Marschall, 2019; Yada et al., 2019). (Regier, 2021; Webb & LoFaro, 2020). Through their relationships, teachers received and gave positive verbal feedback, which increased their self-efficacy and dedication to teaching. The findings supported Bandura's theory that when people are persuaded to believe in themselves, they are more likely to persevere when confronted with adversity because their determination increases their likelihood of success (Bandura, 2012).

This study suggests that teachers' experiences with performance achievement, verbal persuasion, and vicarious experience align with autonomous motivation and controlled motivation, which are concepts of the self-determination theory. Teachers, for instance, exorcised self-doubt and gained self-efficacy through classroom exposure, observing other teachers they deemed successful, and the desire to develop relationships with students and teachers. Therefore, teachers obtained self-endorsement by eliminating self-doubt through mastery experience, vicarious experience, and verbal persuasion, which inspired them to continue providing remote and in-person instruction throughout the pandemic. These findings have implications for the theory of self-determination, which proposes that people persist through autonomous motivation because they feel desire and self-approval of their actions (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Similar to controlled

motivation, most teachers in this study experienced increased self-efficacy due to positive verbalizations from students and coworkers. According to the theory of self-determination, controlled motivation consists of external regulation, in which one's behavior is rewarded, and introjected regulation, in which an individual's behavior is reinforced by approval motive and self-esteem (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Teachers obtained controlled motivation through verbal persuasion, which rewarded their behavior with verbalizations they interpreted as approval of their teaching, thereby boosting their self-esteem and self-efficacy.

The second theoretical framework that guided this qualitative research study was the CASEL framework (2021) which helps cultivate skills and environments that advance students' learning and development. In the CASEL framework, all young people and adults can acquire and apply the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to create and develop healthy identities, manage emotions, and achieve personal and collective goals (CASEL, 2021). The findings of this study confirm CASEL's social and emotional framework through the implementation of the five core competencies of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, responsible decision-making, and relationship skills, supporting previous research on the implementation of social and emotional learning. The findings of this study also confirm CASEL's theory of establishing equitable learning environments and coordinating practices across the four key settings that support students' social, emotional, and academic development (CASEL, 2021).

The study found that teachers' experiences implementing social and emotional learning aligned with the five CASEL competencies of self-awareness, self-management,

social awareness, responsible decision-making, and relationship skills. Specifically, teachers' fidelity increased due to repeated exposure to addressing students' social and emotional needs and the negative experiences of students and parents during the COVID-19 pandemic. Enhanced implementation of the five competencies is fostered by age-appropriate tasks and challenges that inform the instructional and evaluative design (CASEL 2021). Teachers determined how to prioritize, teach, and assess CASEL 5 growth and development in remote and in-person settings. Prior research (Elias et al., 1997; Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 1998; Weissberg, Durlak, Domitrovich, & Gullotta, 2015) has confirmed the significance of assessing social and emotional needs for the effective implementation of SEL.

During both in-person and remote instruction, teachers felt a sense of community growing as they nurtured the whole child and infused social-emotional learning (CASEL, 2021). These results are consistent with the theory offered by CASEL that creating a nurturing environment with structures that allow for continuity in relationships, uniformity in procedures, and predictability in routines (CASEL, 2018; Elias et al., 1997; Weissberg, Durlak, Domitrovich, & Gullotta, 2015). Teachers who have a stronger sense of community encourage students to learn in more connected and systemic ways.

Relationship to Prior Research

A study by Marshall, Shannon, and Love (2020) discovered that few teachers had received significant training from their schools or districts, and most teachers had never taught online. These findings are consistent with the current study's findings that teachers struggled to adapt to remote instruction and that many lacked access to the district- or

school-sponsored professional development to support SEL implementation. Teachers reported that while the district provided ideas for different online activities that could be used with the students that was it. Another teacher claimed that SEL was not yet a component of actual professional development at the beginning of the pandemic. She was not receiving the assistance required for someone unfamiliar with implementing it and had no understanding of the concept. It was also mentioned that teachers collaborated with their peers to create activities, but that was not enough to meet the students' SEL needs.

In a different study, Assuncao and Cago (2020) discovered that teachers had little time to prepare for carrying on with instruction after schools were closed because of the COVID-19 pandemic, and many of them started to question their ability to teach. Nevertheless, the current study found that teachers had time to plan for continuing instruction after switching to remote learning. Teachers claimed to have discovered lessons and tasks that students could complete regardless of space availability. According to another discovery made, teachers' support of one another makes the work more tolerable.

Many teachers were concerned about catching COVID-19 and passing it on to their family members, according to studies by Gautam et al. (2020), Lin (2020), and Zhen et al. (2020). These results were in line with the current study's findings, which revealed that teachers had similar worries about getting sick and infecting their families. Throughout the pandemic, teachers reported feeling fear. One teacher admitted feeling anxious every day before going to work because she did not want to become ill and

spread the virus to family members. Another educator acknowledged feeling uneasy about working with other educators and not knowing who was infected with the virus.

However, in the current research, teachers' social-emotional competence and well-being did not influence the learning environment even though they were teaching remotely after the school closure to in-person learning during the COVID-19 pandemic. Jones et al. (2013) study found that teachers' social-emotional competence and well-being significantly influence the learning environment and the introduction of SEL into classrooms and schools. Teachers said they had to take charge of their own SEL if they truly wanted to do well for their students. The results of the current study also showed, as reported by teachers, that they cared about their student's well-being and that they were joyful to see them. The results also showed that teachers prodded and encouraged their pupils to express their emotions about their particular circumstances and how their environments made them feel. Teachers also mentioned teaching students how to express their emotions and how to broaden their horizons—skills that the CASEL Framework defines as self-awareness and self-management.

According to a study by Esen-Aygun and Sahin-Taskin (2017), most primary teachers cannot explain social-emotional learning. Through conversations with study participants, these results were verified. Teachers in the current study stated that they were unsure how to implement social and emotional learning standards. Due to the unfamiliarity, another educator claimed to be clueless about the idea.

By understanding the findings of this study, schools will be able to develop programs for ongoing professional development and make resources for teachers that will

allow them to implement social and emotional learning while receiving adequate support. The researcher was able to find sympathetic teachers concerned about their student's well-being but unsure of what action to take as a result of the findings of this study.

Limitations of the Study

No research study is perfect, and every study has restrictions and limitations (Peoples, 2021). There are several limitations in this study, which are uncontrollable factors that have an impact on research studies. For example, the geographical location of this study was limited because it focused on one elementary school in a suburban community in the northeastern United States. The study had to be performed in the northeast because it is the same district where the researcher works and provided easier access to the participants. The study's small sample size of eight participants presented another limitation, as it may not be generalizable to a larger group of K–12 teachers. The COVID-19 pandemic-related precautions also placed restrictions on the study.

Consequently, interviews were conducted via the researcher's St. John's University WebEx account, limiting the participants' engagement level. The preference would have been in-person interviews because they offer a higher level of engagement, and the researcher can read body language better and better understand the participant's interpersonal skills. The study had restrictions on both gender and race. The eight participants were all women. Four participants were Caucasian, one was Latinx, and three were African Americans. Because there was no contact with students during the COVID-19 pandemic, one participant who had been chosen to participate in the study was eliminated. This participant gave out work packets to the students but did not interact

with them or their parents directly, and the men who were solicited declined to participate in the study.

Delimitations define the parameters of a study through exclusionary and exclusionary decisions (Simon & Goes, 2013). The scope and boundaries of this study needed to be delimited in several ways. This study centered on teachers' standard implementation of social and emotional learning during the COVID-19 pandemic. When choosing participants, the researcher used deliberate criterion sampling. To ensure they met the age requirements, participants had to be 18 or older, be certified full-time public school teachers, and teach in grades one through six.

This study needed to be qualitative to understand the meaning teachers attributed to their experiences implementing social and emotional learning for students and how they constructed meaning from those experiences. A quantitative study would not have provided a detailed understanding of their experience and its meaning because it was not easily measured. A narrative study was appropriate for this study because it focused on teachers' lived experiences and what they experienced in relation to a shared implementation experience during the COVID-19 pandemic. Other qualitative designs were not feasible to explore the purpose and problem of this research study. For instance, an ethnography focuses on culture (Creswell & Poth, 2018), which is inconsequential and would not provide an in-depth understanding of lived experience with a central phenomenon. A case study is a bounded system that is incongruent with exploring participants' shared experiences with a central phenomenon because such experiences are lived descriptions without set boundaries (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Recommendations for Future Practice

The research study offered educators and administrators valuable takeaways. According to this study, teachers gained self-efficacy through their dedication and interpersonal relationships but lost it due to stress. During the pandemic, teachers want to be effective in online and in-person instruction. However, due to self-doubting thoughts fueled by stress and based on perceptions of their classroom environment, teachers with low self-efficacy may not believe they are effective in their roles as educators. The practical ramifications aim to encourage actions that boost classroom teacher self-efficacy and lessen the crippling effects of stress.

The first application is to promote teachers' use of coping mechanisms. According to the study's findings, teachers used their planning block as a coping mechanism, increasing their sense of self-efficacy and dedication to providing in-person instruction. Because coping strengthens commitment, which may be strengthened by mastery experience, coping may increase self-efficacy through mastery experience. Teachers' commitment and coping skills in educational settings have been found to be significantly influenced by their self-efficacy beliefs (Yin et al., 2020). Teachers appeared to value and look forward to their planning time each day. This coping mechanism reduced their anxiety about the classroom setting and improved their confidence in their ability to instruct students face-to-face during the pandemic. Teachers can adapt to their specific demands if they choose effective coping mechanisms that help them overcome stressful classroom conditions and see them as opportunities for growth rather than obstacles (Gustems-Carnicer et al., 2020). For instance, to deal with the stress

of providing in-person instruction, teachers in this study used coping strategies like meditation, thinking of family members, cleaning their classrooms, and reading a book while planning. Another coping mechanism teachers used to lessen the strain of both in-person and remote instruction in the event of another pandemic was relationship building.

Teachers should emulate successful teachers as another practical implication. Through vicarious experience, such observations may boost one's sense of self-efficacy. Teachers reported that witnessing other educators succeed in the classroom during the pandemic gave them more confidence in their own abilities. Many teachers thought that the teachers in their respective halls were resilient, which increased their sense of self-efficacy.

Another practical implication is that teachers engage in self-reflection and reinforce self-regulation skills. Making it possible for teachers to reflect on their experiences and accurately identify feelings through journaling or group conferences is critical to success. In relation to students, an alternative to immediately punishing students for their misbehavior is to help them understand and identify the underlying causes of their emotions. The CASEL framework (2021) speaks to promoting SEL for students to ensure all students benefit from SEL.

Creating equitable learning environments and coordinating practices across the four primary settings—classrooms, schools, homes, and communities—represents another practical implication for teachers (CASEL, 2022). The implications of teaching the five interconnected SEL competencies—self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making—must be understood by

teachers. The five SEL competencies are essential for social and emotional learning to be taught and understood in the classroom.

Implications for Policy

For public school districts, this research study has several policy ramifications. This study showed that all teachers had lower self-efficacy due to emotional arousal brought on by stress. Stressors abound for teachers providing in-person and remote instruction during the pandemic (Delgado-Gallegos et al., 2021; Pressley, 2021; Santamaria et al., 2021). School districts must implement policies that give teachers access to emotional support and stress management techniques. The following is a list of the policy ramifications of emotional support and stress management techniques.

In order to lessen teacher stress and promote teacher relationship building, school districts should create regulations protecting teachers' planning time. Because most of the teachers in this study used their planning block as a coping mechanism and a chance to get to know their coworkers, it was stressful for them to lose that time when they had to cover classes as teacher absences rose after the pandemic. Districts offer a crucial coping mechanism to lessen teacher stress throughout the course of the school year by securing teacher planning time. Teachers' better job commitment and job satisfaction come from higher self-efficacy (Mokhtar et al., 2021).

The systemic implementation of SEL by public school districts to increase the positive impact is another policy implication of this research study. Districts can start with district-wide implementation in the four areas listed in CASEL's theory of action (CASEL, 2021). Districts can start by creating a foundational support plan that is

embedded with a foundation of SEL and carried throughout the year with essential activities like creating and communicating an SEL vision, creating a multi-year plan for implementation, encouraging collaboration among central office departments, expressing the district's commitment to SEL, and budgeting resources and staffing to support full implementation.

According to the policy implication, school districts should improve adult SEL competencies and capacity. A crucial first step is encouraging and supporting adults to practice, model, and implement SEL (CASEL, 2022). By ensuring that central office staff is knowledgeable about SEL research and best practices and providing professional development and a work environment that supports adult SEL, cultural competence, and collective efficacy, districts should provide the tools and framework to accomplish this.

Another policy implication for school districts is strengthening adult SEL competencies and capacity. Supporting adults to practice, model, and implement SEL is a critical foundational step. Districts will need to provide resources and a framework ensuring central office staff is well versed in SEL best practices (CASEL, 2022). In addition, districts will need to reflect on data for continuous improvement with continued support from top district leadership.

Developing adult SEL competencies and capacity is another policy implication for school districts. A crucial first step is to assist adults in using, modeling, and implementing SEL. Districts must provide the tools and guidelines to guarantee that the central office staff is knowledgeable about SEL best practices (CASEL, 2022).

Additionally, districts will require ongoing support from top district leadership as they analyze data for continuous improvement.

Recommendation for Future Research

The knowledge of the support needed by teachers to implement social and emotional learning during shifts from face-to-face to remote settings has been aided by this study. As the study went on, several areas emerged as potential areas for further research.

This study focused on eight participants' implementing social and emotional learning and teacher efficacy. The underpinning Theory of Self-Efficacy by Bandura (1977) and the CASEL Framework was the foundation for analyzing the difficulties and successes of the participant's ability to implement SEL (2021). It is advised to carry out a similar investigation into the experiences mentioned in this study in several districts with various demographics to see if they still reflect the ones described in the study.

The results revealed that as opposed to the face-to-face sessions teachers were used to, the majority of the difficulties teachers encountered during the school closure related to in-person learning. The study found that there was a lack of participation from students in remote learning, as well as a general lack of student access to technology and Wi-Fi. To encourage more student interaction, the teachers could take on a more prominent role in guiding the online learning sessions and enlist the help of the parents. A study with more parent participation might result in higher engagement, and other successes might become apparent.

The presence of teachers' challenges emerged through the articulation of their experiences. However, this study is limited to one elementary school in a suburban school district in the Northeastern part of the United States. As such, only the experiences of one distinct set of teachers were examined in this study. It would be worthwhile to examine a study on participants from a rural school district in another part of the United States, for it might generate a more wholesome view of teachers' self-efficacy and implementation of SEL.

Conclusion

The conclusions of the findings for the central research question and the four sub-research questions on the examination of the lived experiences of elementary teachers' implementation of social-emotional learning: Transitions from in-person to remote settings during the COVID-19 pandemic are based on teachers' self-efficacy and understanding of the five competencies within the CASEL Framework. Teachers' experiences reveal challenges and successes with the implementation of SEL and the development of self-efficacy. This study highlighted the challenges teachers experienced implementing social and emotional learning in remote and in-person settings. These challenges were exacerbated when schools were closed to in-person learning and magnified when students returned to in-person learning. Teachers' self-efficacy suffered due to their perception of their remote and in-person learning environments as complex, overshadowed by fear and anxiety. However, teachers' self-efficacy increased, and they could support their students' SEL. This research outlines the support teachers require when implementing SEL and lays the groundwork for future research in this field.

APPENDIX A IRB APPROVAL

PI: Clyde Braswell
CO-PI: Joan Birringer-Haig
The School of Education, Ed Admin & Instructional Leadership

Re: Expedited Review - Initial - **IRB-FY2022-223** *THE LIVED EXPERIENCES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' IMPLEMENTATION OF SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL LEARNING: TRANSITIONS FROM IN-PERSON AND REMOTE SETTINGS*

Dear Clyde Braswell:

The St John's University Institutional Review Board has rendered the decision below for *THE LIVED EXPERIENCES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' IMPLEMENTATION OF SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL LEARNING: TRANSITIONS FROM IN-PERSON AND REMOTE SETTINGS*. The approval is effective from April 21, 2022, through April 20, 2023.

Decision: Approved

PLEASE NOTE: If you have collected any data prior to this approval date, the data must be discarded.

Selected Category: 7. Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Sincerely,

Raymond DiGiuseppe, PhD, ABPP
Chair, Institutional Review Board
Professor of Psychology

Marie Nitopi, Ed.D.
IRB Coordinator

APPENDIX B INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

Informed Consent Form - School District Superintendent

***Research Topic*: The Lived Experiences of Elementary School Teachers' Implementation of Social-Emotional Learning: Transitions from In-Person and Remote Settings.**

Researcher - The following person is involved in this research project and may be contacted at any time:

Clyde A. Braswell
369 Montgomery Ave.
West Babylon, NY 11704
clyde.braswell04@my.stjohns.edu

Purpose - The elementary-level teachers in your school district are invited to participate in a research study being conducted for a dissertation for St. John's University. The purpose of this qualitative study is to examine the lived experiences of elementary school teachers throughout the transitions from in-person to fully remote to partially remote while trying to meet the social-emotional learning needs of students during the COVID-19 pandemic. This study will provide information on the self-efficacy that teachers need to develop in order to successfully support students' social-emotional needs and manage the instructional shifts in modalities.

Participation Requirements - The elementary level teachers (Grades2 through 5) in your district will be asked to complete a teacher demographic questionnaire and participate in an individual interview via St. John's University WebEx account. The first interview will be one-to-one with the investigator through WebEx and will last approximately 45 minutes to one hour. The second interview will be approximately one week later and conducted via telephone for about 20 minutes. The third and final interview will occur through email to address any follow-up questions from the first two interviews. Questions will lead

to a conversation about lived experiences before the pandemic, transition to full remote, partially remote, and pivoting back to in-person learning.

Potential Risk - There are no known risks in this study. Participation in the study is voluntary, and participants are free to withdraw without penalty. At no time will a name or identifying school information be included in the study.

Potential Benefit - There are no direct benefits to your school district for participating in this research project. No incentives are offered. However, the results may have informational benefits for educators and policy makers regarding possible ways to improve the effectiveness of teachers' implementation of social-emotional learning standards, which will help teachers grow professionally in their instructional practices and indirectly benefit student achievement.

Anonymity / Confidentiality - The data collected in this study are confidential. All data are coded such that your school district and teachers will not be associated with them. In addition, the coded data will be only available to the researcher associated with this project. No names will be collected.

Right to Withdraw - Your school district and teachers have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. Participants may omit any questions on the questionnaire they do not wish to answer.

Signatures

I have read the above description of the proposed study and understand the conditions of the district personnel's participation. I understand the data will be coded and will not be used in any way to later identify the school district or me personally. My signature indicates that I agree for myself and the district personnel (elementary level teachers) to participate in this study.

Superintendent's Signature: _____Date: _____

Superintendent's Name: Dr. Deborah L. Wortham

Researcher's Signature: _____Date: _____

Researcher's Name: Clyde A. Braswell

APPENDIX C LETTER OF INTEREST

Letter of Interest

Dear Educator,

You are invited to participate in a study on the lived experiences of elementary school teachers' implementation of social-emotional learning. My name is Clyde A. Braswell, and I am a doctoral candidate in The School of Education, Department of Administrative and Instructional Leadership at St. John's University, Queens, N.Y. I am conducting a study for my dissertation titled: *The Lived Experiences of Elementary School Teachers' Implementation of Social-Emotional Learning: Transitions from In-Person and Remote Settings.*

The purpose of the qualitative narrative study will be to unveil the lived experiences of elementary school teachers throughout the transitions from in-person to fully remote to partially remote instruction while trying to meet the social-emotional learning needs of students during the COVID-19 pandemic. You will be sent a preliminary screener survey to determine if you meet the requirements of the study. The selection criteria for this study will be that potential candidates are elementary school teachers who work in a suburban school district located outside a large metropolitan city in the northeastern part of the United States. The rationale for selecting these participants is that they give a voice to other teachers' feelings and challenges and provide insight into how they navigated the transitions throughout the COVID-19 pandemic.

The participation requirements for this study include interviewing elementary school teachers about their experiences navigating through the pandemic while trying to support the social-emotional learning needs of students. If you agree to contribute, you will be asked to participate in a series of three interviews. The first interview will be on-to-one with the investigator through a St. John's University WebEx account and will last approximately 45 minutes to

one hour. The second interview will be about one week later and conducted via telephone for about 20 minutes. The third and final interview will occur through email to address and follow-up questions from the first two interviews. The recorded interviews will be transcribed and used for the study. You may review these recordings and request that all or any portion of the recordings be destroyed. Participation in this study will involve an hour and a half of your time.

There is no known potential risk associated with your participation in this research. Pseudonyms will be used in the study to protect your identity, your name or any identifying information will be included in the study, and your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Confidentiality of the interview and other records provided will be secured and maintained on a locked and password-protected laptop in a locked file cabinet, and the researcher will have sole access to any information provided. You may decline to participate or withdraw from the study at any time, and you have the right to skip or not answer any questions you choose not to answer during the interviews.

You will not receive any direct benefits for participating, but this research may help the investigator gain insight into the experiences of elementary teachers during the COVID-19 pandemic. The study findings may have informational benefits for educators and policymakers regarding possible ways to better support elementary school teachers in identifying resources to support their ability to meet the social and emotional learning of students in the schools they work.

If you have questions about the purpose of this investigation, you may contact the Principal Investigator, Clyde Braswell at clyde.braswell04@my.stjohns.edu. If you have questions concerning your rights as a human participant, you may contact my mentor, Dr. Joan Birringer-Haig, birringj@stjohns.edu, or the University's Human Subjects Review Board at St. John's University, specifically Dr. Raymond DiGiuseppe, 718.990.1955, or digiuser@stjohns.edu. I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

_____ _____

Signature of Investigator Date

Clyde Braswell,
Principal Investigator

Doctoral Candidate, Administrative and Instructional Leadership
St. John's University

APPENDIX D INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

Introduction: You are invited to participate in a research study on how the lived experiences of elementary school teachers have allowed them to overcome challenges associated with teaching social-emotional learning to their students. I am Clyde Braswell, and I am conducting a study for my dissertation study titled, *The Lived Experiences of Elementary School Teachers' Implementation of Social-Emotional Learning: Transitions from In-Person and Remote Settings.*

Purpose of this Research/Project: The purpose of this study will be to examine the lived experiences of elementary school teachers throughout the transitions from in-person, to fully remote, to partially remote instruction while trying to meet the social-emotional learning needs of students during the COVID-19 pandemic. Elementary teachers who are willing, able, and comfortable implementing social-emotional learning will be asked to participate in this qualitative study.

***Procedures*:** If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to participate in an individual interview via St. John's University WebEx account. The first interview will be one-to-one with the investigator through Zoom and will last approximately 45 minutes to one hours. The second interview will be around one week later and conducted via telephone for about 20 minutes. The third and final interview will occur through email to address any follow-up questions from the first two interviews. Questions will lead to a conversation of about lived experiences before the pandemic, transition to full remote, partially remote, and pivoting back to in-person learning.

***Possible Risks and benefits*:** There are no known potential risks associated with your participation in this research beyond those of everyday life. While there is no direct benefit for your participation in the study, it is reasonable to expect that a result of your participation will provide researchers and practitioners with information about how elementary school teachers navigated transitions through the COVID-19 pandemic. Your participation in this interview is voluntary, if you prefer not to answer a question, or if you want to end an interview at any time, you are free to withdraw without penalty.

A benefit of participating in the study is that your participation will inform other school administrators of what experiences the teachers had transitioning from in-person to online learning and then back to in-person while trying to address the social-emotional learning for students. This study will provide information on the self-efficacy that teachers need to develop in order to successfully support students' social-emotional needs and manage the instructional shifts in modalities.

Confidentiality: Your identity as a participant will remain confidential. Your name or the name of your school will not be included in any forms, transcription, data analysis, or summary reports. Pseudonyms will be used in the study. This consent form is the only document identifying you as a participant and it will be stored securely in the office of the Principal Investigator available only to the Principal Investigator in a locked cabinet. If you are interested in securing a copy of the results, you may contact the Principal Investigator.

***Contact Information*:** If you have questions about the purpose of this investigation, you may contact the Principal Investigator, Clyde Braswell at clyde.braswell04@my.stjohns.edu. If you feel you have any questions or concerns about the study, please contact the dissertation chair and Co-Investigator, Dr. Joan Birringer-Haig, at birringj@stjohns.edu. If you have questions concerning your rights as a human participant, you may contact the University's Human Subjects Review Board at St. John's University, specifically Dr. Raymond DiGiuseppe, 718.990.1955, or digiuser@stjohns.edu.

I have read the Informed Consent Form and the conditions for this study. I explicitly give my consent to the audio and video recorded during the interview. I have had all my questions answered, and by completing and returning this letter, it is implied that I have acknowledged the above and give my voluntary consent.

Your signature acknowledges your consent to be audio and video recorded via Zoom for the interview.

_____ I agree to be audio recorded during the interview.

_____ I agree to be video recorded during the interview.

_____

Printed Name of Participant

_____

Signature of Participant Date

APPENDIX E INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. The overarching questions for this study are: (1) What were teachers' lived experiences while teaching social-emotional learning (SEL) during both remote and in-person instruction in elementary school throughout the Covid-19 pandemic? (2) What were teachers' feelings about their own social-emotional instructional competencies, self-efficacy, and experiences throughout remote and in-person instruction during the pandemic? As previously stated and as part of the informed consent that you signed, I will be recording our interview to accurately transcribe and analyze the results and the outcomes of other interviews that I will be conducting. Your identity and responses will be kept private. Please try to avoid using any identifying information, such as other people's names. For confidentiality reasons, if you use another person's name, it will be removed from the transcription. Please be cognizant that if you decide not to participate in this study at any point during the interview, you may do so, and the results will not be used in the study. Do you have any questions or concerns before we begin?

1) Tell me about your experiences teaching SEL before the pandemic broke out.
2) Tell me how you felt when you were told almost overnight to begin teaching remotely, and you knew you had to still teach SEL.
3) Tell me about the professional development you received to teach SEL during remote learning.

4) Tell me about your experiences implementing the five competencies of SEL teaching remotely during the COVID-19 pandemic.
5) Tell me how you felt about your own SEL when you had to teach remotely and meet the social and emotional needs of your students.
6) Tell me about your own self-efficacy implementing SEL and managing the challenges teaching remotely.
7) Tell me how you felt after teaching remotely for several months.
8) Tell me how you felt when you were told that you would be going back to in-person teaching, even though the pandemic was still taking place.

APPENDIX F TEACHER DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Questionnaire

1. What is your age?

- ☐ 21 – 30 years old
- ☐ 31 – 40 years old
- ☐ 41 – 50 years old
- ☐ 51 – 60 years old

2. What is your gender?

- ☐ Female
- ☐ Male

3. How many years have you worked as a school teacher?

☐ 1 – 6 years ☐ 7 – 12 years ☐ 13 – 19 years ☐ 20 + years

4. What grade do you currently teach?

☐ Pre-Kindergarten ☐ Kindergarten ☐ Grade 1 ☐ Grade 2

☐ Grade 3 ☐ Grade 4 ☐ Grade 5 ☐ Grade 6

5. What is your current position?

- ☐ Full-time classroom teacher
- ☐ Part-time teacher (Substitute teacher)
- ☐ Resource Room Teacher
- ☐ Special Education Teacher
- ☐ Library Media Specialist
- ☐ Music teacher
- ☐ Art teacher
- ☐ P.E. teacher

APPENDIX G AUDIT TRAIL

Date	Entry
April 20, 2022	Approval to conduct study approved by IRB
April 21, 2022	Sent informed consent to district Superintendent of Schools for approval
April 26, 2022	Approval to conduct study granted by Superintendent of Schools
April 27, 2022	Recruitment email sent to building principal of the research site
May 4, 2022	Meeting held with building principal where the candidates would be solicited to participate in the research study
May 5, 2022	Sent letter of interest via email to potential candidates
May 6, 2022	Sent letter of consent to participants
May 10, 2022	Received signed consent letters from participants
May 13, 2022	Send teacher demographic questionnaire to participants who agreed to participate in the research study
May 16, 2022	Received responses to the teacher demographic questionnaire from participants who will be a part of the research study
May 23, 2022	Recorded virtual interviews began with selected participants using the researchers St. John's University WebEx account
June 13, 2022	At the conclusion of virtual interviews, the researcher began transcribing each using Temi.com transcribing software to each corresponding participant for member checking
June 17, 2022	Concluded virtual interviews with all selected participants
June, 19, 2022	Sent selected participant a copy of the transcript for review and editing using the researcher's St. John's University email account
June 23, 2022	Conducted final phone interview will all participants in the research study

APPENDIX H REFLEXIVE JOURNAL

Date	Entry
May 23, 2022	All presuppositions and biases about COVID-19 and teachers were suspended before each slated interview
June 13, 2022	All presuppositions and biases about COVID-19 and teachers were suspended before transcribing and coding interviews
June 15, 2022	Suspended all presuppositions and biases about COVID-19 and teachers as a before and during initial code development from interviews
June 17, 2022	Suspended all presuppositions and biases about COVID-19 and teachers as a before and during initial code development from interviews

APPENDIX I INITIAL CODES

1. **Family**
2. **Stress**
3. **Apprehension**
4. **Anxiety**
5. **Fear**
6. **Masks**
7. **Social distancing**
8. **Sanitizing**
9. **Risk perception**
10. **Worry**
11. **Family concerns**
12. **Death**
13. **Student achievement**
14. **Professional development**
15. **Collaboration**
16. **Friendship**
17. **Accountability**
18. **Relationships**
19. **Belonging**
20. **Children**
21. **Family concerns**

22. Hand sanitizer

23. Wiping desks

24. Students missing assignments

25. Students missing class

26. Student absences

27. Administrative support

28. Social-emotional learning

29. Faculty meetings

30. Virtual meetings

31. Teachers

32. Pandemic

33. Classroom (in-person)

34. Teaching experiences

35. Hybrid instruction

36. Mask mandate

37. Student performance

38. Thoughts

39. Emotions

40. Frightened

41. Observing remote instruction

42. Safety

43. Contact tracing

44. School nurse

45. Quarantined teachers

46. Quarantined students

47. COVID-19 signs

48. Teaching remote instruction

49. Technology

50. Vaccinated

51. Understanding

52. Successful

53. Face-to-face instruction

54. Feelings of uncertainty

55. Awareness

56. Building community

57. Supporting each other

58. Compassion

59. Changing protocols

60. Physically draining

61. Encouragement

62. COVID-19 guidelines

63. Questions

64. HIPPA Laws

65. Disappointment

REFERENCES

Adler, P., & Adler, P. (2002). Handbook of interview research: Context & method. *Choice Reviews Online*, *39*(06), 39–3454. https://doi.org/10.5860/choice.39-3454

Agostinelli, F., Doepke, M., Sorrenti, G. and Zilibotti, F. (2020). When the great equalizer shuts down: Schools, peers, and parents in pandemic times. NBER Working Paper 28264.

Alexander, F., & Endo, A. (2021, March 26). *10 social and emotional learning strategies for responding to COVID-19*. HMH. https://www.hmhco.com/blog/10-social-and-emotional-learning-strategies-for-responding-to-covid-19

Allbright, T., Marsh, J., Kennedy, K., Hough, H., & McKibben, S. (2019). Social-emotional learning practices: Insights from outlier schools. *Journal of Research in Innovative Teaching & Learning*, *12*(1), 35–52. https://doi.org/10.1108/jrit-02-2019-0020

Allen, M. (2017). *The Sage Encyclopedia of Communication Research Methods* (Vols. 1-4). SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781483381411

Altheide, D., & Schneider, C. (2013). *Qualitative media analysis* (2nd Ed.). Sage Publications. https://www.doi.org/10.4135/9781452270043

Altrichter, H., and Mary L. (2005). Research diaries. In Somekh, B., & Lewin, C. (Eds.) *Research Methods in the Social Sciences* (pp. 24–32). Sage Publications.

Ambrose, A. (2020). Inequities during COVID-19. *Pediatrics*, *146*(2). https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2020-1501

Annink, A. (2017). Using the research journal during qualitative data collection in a cross-cultural context. *Entrepreneurship Research Journal*, *7*(1). https://doi.org/10.1515/erj-2015-0063

Arora, S., Thornton, K., Komaromy, M., Kalishman, S., Katzman, J., & Duhigg, D. (2014). Demonopolizing medical knowledge. *Academic Medicine, 89*, 30-32. https://doi.org/10.1097/ACM.0000000000000051

Ashton, P. T., & Webb, R. B. (1986). *Making a difference: Teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement.* Longman.

Asimov, I. (1983). *The roving mind* (81st ed., Vol. 4). Promethius Books. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031530

Assuncao, M., & Gago, M. (2020). Teacher education in times of COVID-19 pandemic in Portugal: National, institutional and pedagogical responses. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 46*(4), 507-516. https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2020.1799709

Auxier, B., & Anderson, M. (2020). *As schools close due to the coronavirus, some U.S. students face a digital 'homework gap.'* Pew Research Center. Retrieved January 7, 2022, from https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2020/03/16/as-schools-close-due-to-the-coronavirus-some-u-s-students-face-a-digital-homework-gap/

Baker, C., Peele, H., Daniels, M., Saybe, M., Whalen, K., Overstreet, S. & Trauma-Informed Schools Learning Collaborative, The New Orleans. (2021). The experience of COVID-19 and its impact on teachers' mental health, coping, and teaching. *School Psychology Review.* DOI: 10.1080/2372966X.2020.1855473

Ballotpedia. (2021). *American Rescue Plan Act of 2021*. https://ballotpedia.org/American_Rescue_Plan_Act_of_2021

Bandura. A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84*, 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory.* Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning, *Educational Psychologist, 28*(2), 117-148, DOI: 10.1207/s15326985ep2802_3

Barni D, Danioni F and Benevene P (2019) Teachers' self-efficacy: The role of personal values and motivations for teaching. *Front. Psychol.* 10:1645. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01645

Barron, S. (2020, May 5). *What is a virtual classroom?* Owl Labs. https://resources.owllabs.com/blog/virtual-classroom

Beaty, J. (2018). History of social and emotional learning. *International Arab Journal of English for Specific Purposes*, *1*(2), 67–72. https://revues.imist.ma/index.php?journal=IAJESP

Becker, M. (2021, February 21). *Educators are key in protecting student mental health during the COVID- 19 pandemic.* Brookings. https://www.brookings.edu/blog/brown-center-chalkboard/2021/02/24/educators-are-key-in-protectingstudent-mental-health-during-the-covid-19-pandemic/

Berg, J., Osher D., Moroney, D., & Yoder, N. (2017). *The intersection of school climate and social and emotional development.* American Institute for Research (AIR). https://www.air.org/resource/intersection-school-climate-and-social-and-emotional-development

Bernard, H. (2002). *Research methods in anthropology: Qualitative and quantitative approaches.* 3rd ed. Alta Mira Press.

Bhogal, A., Borg, B., Jovanovic, T., & Marusak, H. (2021). Are the kids really alright? Impact of COVID-19 on mental health in a majority Black American sample of schoolchildren. *Psychiatry Research*, *304*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2021.114146

Bigelow, B. (1977). Children's friendship expectation: A cognitive-developmental study. *Child Development, 48*(1), 246-253. https://doi.org/10.2307/1128905

Birks, M. & Mills, J. (2011). *Grounded theory: A practical guide.* SAGE Publications

Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S., (1982). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods.* Allyn and Bacon.

Bogdan, R. & Biklen, S. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods*, 5th Ed. Allyn & Bacon.

Bohlin, G. & Hagekull, B. (2009). Socio-emotional development: From infancy to young adulthood. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 50*, 592–601.

Bolderston, A. (2012). Conducting a research interview. *Journal of Medical Imaging and Radiation Sciences*, *43*(1), 66–76. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmir.2011.12.002

Borman K., LeCompte M., Goetz J. (1986). Ethnographic and qualitative research design and why it doesn't work. *American Behavioral Scientist, 30*(1), 42-57. doi:10.1177/000276486030001006

Borup, J., & Evmenova, A. S. (2019). The effectiveness of professional development in overcoming obstacles to effective online instruction in a college of education. *Online Learning, 23*(2), 1-20.

Boulton, M. J. (1999). Concurrent and longitudinal relations between children's playground behavior and social preference, victimization, and bullying. *Child Development, 70*(4), 944–954. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00068

Boulton, M., Don, J., & Boulton, L. (2011). Predicting children's liking of school from their peer relationships. *Social Psychology of Education, 14*, 489– 501. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-011-9156-0

Boutilier, M., and Mason, R. (2012). The reflexive practitioner in health promotion: From reflection to reflexivity. In Rootman, I., Dupéré, S, Pederson, A., & O'Neill, M. (Eds.) *Health Promotion in Canada: Critical Perspective on Practice* (pp. 196-207). Canadian Scholars' Press Inc.

Boyles, D., Carusi, T., & Attick, D. (2009). Historical and critical interpretations of social justice. In W. Ayers, T. Quinn, & D. Stoval (Eds.), *Handbook of Social Justice in education* (pp. 30-42). Routledge.

Brackett, M., Reyes, C., Rivers, S., Elbertson, N., Salovey, P. (2012). Assessing teachers' beliefs about social and emotional learning. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment, 30*(3), 219-236. 10.1177/0734282811424879.

Bridgeland, J., Bruce, J., and Hariharan, A. (2013). The missing piece: A national survey on how social and emotional learning can empower children and transform schools. A report for CASEL. *Civic Enterprises.* https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED558068.pdf

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design.* Harvard University Press.

Brundin, J. (2021, Apr. 5). *'All kinds of rrauma': Students are returning to school, but are we ready to help them cope?* CPR NEWS. https://www.cpr.org/2021/04/05/all-kinds-of-trauma-students-arereturning-to-school-but-are-we-ready-to-help-them-cope/

Burgess, R.G. (1991). Keeping field notes. In Burgess, R. G. (Ed.), *Field Research: A Sourcebook and Field Manual* (pp. 191-194). Routledge.

Burgess, S., & Sievertsen, H. H. (2020, April 1). *The impact of Covid-19 on education*. VOX, CEPR Policy Portal. https://voxeu.org/article/impact-covid-19-education

Cabraal, A. (n.d.). *Keep a research journal: It is important*. Anujacabraal.Com. Retrieved December 5, 2021, from https://anujacabraal.com/2013/07/03/keep-a-research-journal-it-is-important/

Campbell, D., & Stanley, J. (1966, January). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Cengage Learning.

Canary, A. (2021). *How to analyze interview transcripts in qualitative research.* Rev. https://www.rev.com/blog/analyze-interviews-transcripts-in-qualitative-research

Carter, N., Bryant-Lukosius, D., DiCenso, A., Blythe, J., & Neville, A. (2014). The use of triangulation in qualitative research. *Oncology Nursing Forum*, *41*(5), 545–547. https://doi.org/10.1188/14.onf.545-547

Carver-Thomas, D., & Darling-Hammond, L., (2017). *Teacher turnover: Why it matters and what can we do about it?* Learning Institute. https://learningpolicyinstitute.org/sites/default/files/productfiles/Teacher_Turnover_REP ORT.pdf.

CASEL (n.d.). *What is SEL?* http://www.casel.org/what-is-SEL/

CASEL (2018). *History.* http://www.casel.org/history/

Cataudella, S., Carta, S.M., Mascia, M.L., Masala, C., Petretto, D.R., Agus, M., & Penna, M.P. (2021). Teaching in times of the COVID-19 pandemic: A pilot study on teachers' self- esteem and self-efficacy in an Italian sample. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health*, *18*, 8211. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18158211

Cavanaugh, C., DeWeese, A. (2020). Understanding the professional learning and support needs of educators during the initial weeks of pandemic school closures through search terms and content use. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education, 28*(2), 233–238.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructed grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis.* Sage Publications.

Cennimo, D., Bergman, S., & Olsen, K. (2021, June 25). *How did the coronavirus outbreak start?* Medscape. https://www.medscape.com/answers/2500114-

197402/how-did-the-coronavirus-outbreak-start#:~:text=On%20March%2011%2C%202020,a%20pandemic%20in%202009.

Chandler, D., & Munday, R. (2011). *A dictionary of media and communications* (1st ed., Vol. 1). Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/acref/9780199568758.001.0001

Chandra, S., Chang, A., Day, L., Fazlullah, A., Liu, J., McBride, L., Mudalige, T., & Weiss, D. (2020). *Closing the K-12 digital divide in the age of distance learning*. Common Sense Media and Boston Consulting Group. Retrieved from https://www.commonsensemedia.org/sites/default/files/uploads/pdfs/common_sense_ media_report_final_6_26_7.38am_web_updated.pdf

Children's Institute. (n.d.). *NYS releases SEL benchmarks! | Children's Institute.* Retrieved September 14, 2021, from https://www.childrensinstitute.net/about-us/blog/nys-releases-sel-benchmarks

Cillessen, A., and Mayeux, L., (2004). From censure to reinforcement: Developmental changes in association between aggression and social status. *Child Development, 75*, 147-163. Doi:10.1111/j.1467-8624.2004.00660.x

Clandinin, D. J., & Rosiek, J. (2007). Mapping a landscape of narrative inquiry: Borderland spaces and tensions. In D. J. Clandinin (Ed.), *Handbook of Narrative Inquiry: Mapping a Methodology* (pp. 35–75). Sage Publications.

Clarke, C. (2020, July 2). *BIPOC meaning*. CBS News. https://www.cbsnews.com/news/bipoc-meaning-where-does-it-come-from-2020-04-02/

Cohen, J. & Sandy, S. (2003). Perspectives in social-emotional education: Theoretical foundations and new evidence-based developments in current practice. *Perspectives in Education, 21*(4), 41-54.

Cohen, J. (2001). Social emotional education: Core principles and practices. In J. Cohen (Ed.), *Caring Classrooms/Intelligent Schools: The Social Emotional Education of Young Children* (pp. 3–29). Teachers College Press.

Cohen D, & Crabtree B. (2006). Qualitative research guidelines project. http://www.qualres.org/HomeCrit-3814.html

Coladarci, T. (1992). Teachers' sense of efficacy and commitment to teaching. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, *60*(4), 323–337. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220973.1992.9943869

Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning. (2018). *Standards.* Retrieved January 19, 2018, from https://drc.casel.org/standards/

Collie, R., Shapka, J., Perry, N. Martin, A. (2015). Teachers' beliefs about social-emotional learning: Identifying teacher profiles and their relations with job stress and satisfaction. *Journal of Learning and Instruction, 39*(1), 148-157.

Comer, J. P. (2013, June 1). School and moral justice: The school development program as a case study. *Journal of Research in Character Education, 9*(2), 91-106.

Comer, J. P., & Ben-Avie, M. (1996). *Rallying the whole village: The Comer process for reforming education.* Teachers College Press.

Committee for Children. (2021). The case for a holistic approach to social-emotional learning [White paper]. https://apastyle.apa.org/style-grammar-guidelines/references/examples/white-paper-references

Connelly, F. M., & Clandinin, D. J. (1990). Stories of experience and narrative inquiry. *Educational Researcher, 19*(5), 2–14. https://doi.org/10.1080/03323315.2018.1465839

CPS Keeping Students Connected | School for Creative and Performing Arts. (n.d.). https://scpa.cps-k12.org/news/whats-new/cps-keeping-students-connected

Creswell, J., and Poth, C. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches,* 4th Ed. Sage Publications.

Creswell, J., Plano, C., (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed method research*, 2nd Ed. Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* Sage Publications.

Crethar, H. C., Rivera, E.T., & Nash, S. (2008). In search of common threads: Linking Multicultural feminist, and social justice counseling paradigms. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 86*(3), 269-278. doi:10.1002/j.1556-6678.2008.tb00509.x

Csikszentmihalyi, M., & Larson, R. (1987). Validity and reliability of the experience-sampling method. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 175*(9), 526-536.

Cummings, C., & Haggerty, K. P. (1997). Raising healthy children. *Social and Emotional Learning, 54*(8), 28-30.

Cummings, M. (2021). *COVID school closures most harm students from poorest neighborhoods*. YaleNews. Retrieved January 7, 2022, from https://news.yale.edu/2021/01/05/covid-school-closures-most-harm-students-poorest-neighborhoods

Czarniawska, B. (2004). *Narratives in social science research: Introducing qualitative methods.* Sage Publications.

DeJonckheere, M., & Vaughn, L. (2019). Semi structured interviewing in primary care research: A balance of relationship and rigor. *Family Medicine and Community Health, 7***,** e000057. doi: 10.1136/fmch-2018-000057

Denham, S. A. (2006). Social-emotional competence as support for school readiness: What is it and how do we assess it? *Early Education and Development, Special Issue: Measurement of School Readiness, 17*, 57-89.

Dennis, B. (2014). Understanding participant experiences: Reflections of a novice research participant. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 13*(1), 395–410. https://doi.org/10.1177/160940691401300121

Denzin, N., & Lincoln. Y. (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research.* Sage Publications.

Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2005). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 1-32). Sage Publications.

Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (Eds.). (2011). *Handbook of qualitative research* (4th ed.). Sage Publications.

Dominque, B., Hough, H., Lang, D., & Yeatman, J. (2021). *PACE - Changing patterns of growth in oral reading fluency during the COVID-19 pandemic*. Policy Analysis for California Education. Retrieved January 7, 2022, from https://edpolicyinca.org/publications/changing-patterns-growth-oral-reading-fluency-during-covid-19-pandemic

Domitrovich, C., Bradshaw, C., Berg, J., et al. (2016). How do school-based prevention programs impact teachers? Findings from a randomized trial of an integrated classroom management and social-emotional program. *Prev Sci, 17,* 325–337. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-015-0618-z

Domitrovich, C.E.; Durlak, J.A.; Staley, K.C.; Weissberg, R.P. (2017). Social-emotional competence: An essential factor for promoting positive adjustment and reducing risk in school children. *Child Dev.*, *88*, 408–441.

Dorn, E., Hancock, B., Sarakatsannis, J., Viruleg, E. (2020). *COVID-19 and student learning in the United States: The hurt could last a lifetime.* McKinsey & Company. https://www.mckinsey.com/industries/public-and-social-sector/our-insights/covid-19-and-student-learning-in-the-united-states-the-hurt-could-last-a-lifetime

Dorn, E., Hancock, B., Sarakatsannis, J., & Viruleg, E. (2021). *Unfinished learning is real—and inequitable*. McKinsey & Company. https://www.mckinsey.com/industries/public-and-social-sector/our-insights/covid-19-and-education-the-lingering-effects-of-unfinished-learning

DuBois, W. E. B. (1999). *The souls of Black folk*. Norton & Company.

Duraku, Z., & Hoxha, L. (2020, April). *The impact of COVID-19 on education and on the well-being of teachers, parents, and students: Challenges related to remote (online) learning and opportunities for advancing the quality of education*. Retrieved November 8, 2021, from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/341297812

Durlak, J., and DuPre, E. (2008). Implementation matters: A review of research on the influence of implementation on program outcomes and the factors affecting implementation. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 41*(3-4), 327-50. DOI: 10.1007/s10464-008-9165-0.

Durlak J., Weissberg R., & Pachan M. (2010). A meta-analysis of after-school programs that seek to promote personal and social skills in children and adolescents. *Am J Community Psychol., 45*(3-4), 294-309. doi: 10.1007/s10464-010-9300-6. PMID: 20300825.

Durlak, J., Dymnicki, A., Taylor, R., Weissberg, R., & Schellinger, K. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions. *Child Development, 82*(1), 405-432. Retrieved February 17, 2021, from http://www.jstor.org.jerome.stjohns.edu:81/stable/29782838 (APA)

Ecker-Lyster, M. (2018). Mortality. In B. Frey (Ed.), *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Measurement, and Evaluation* (pp. 1094-1094). SAGE Publications. https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781506326139.n445

Edutopia. (2011, October 6). *Social and emotional learning: A short history.* Edutopia. https://www.edutopia.org/social-emotional-learning-history

Elias, M. & Weissberg, R. (2000). The role of the Collaborative to Advance Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL) in supporting the implementation of quality school-based prevention programs. *Journal of Education and Psychological Consultation, 11*(1), 3-6. DOI: 10.1207/s1532768Xjepc1101.02

Elias, M., & Arnold, H. (2006). *The educator's guide to emotional intelligence and Academic achievement.* Corwin Press.

Elias, M., Zins, J., Weissberg, R., Frey, K., Greenberg, M., Haynes, N., Kessler, R., Schwab-Stone, M., & Shriver, T. (1997). *Promoting social and emotional learning: Guidelines for educators*. ASCD.

Elliott, J. (2005). *Using narrative in social research: Qualitative and quantitative approaches.* Sage Publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9780857020246

Ely, M., Anzul, M., Friedman, T., Garner, D., & Steinmetz, A. M. (1991). *Doing qualitative research: Circles within circles.* Falmer.

Emerson, R., Fretz, R., & Shaw, L. (2011). *Writing ethnographic fieldnotes* (2nd Ed., Vol. 2). The University of Chicago Press.

Erath, S., Flanagan, K., & Bierman, K. (2008). Early adolescent school adjustment: Associations with friendship and peer victimization. *Social Development, 17,* 853– 870. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9507.2008.00458.x

Ertmer, P. A. (1999). Addressing first- and second-order barriers to change: Strategies for

technology integration. *Educational Technology Research and Development, 47*(4), 47-61.

Esen-Aygun, H., & Sahin-Taskin, C. (2017). Teachers' views of social-emotional skills and their perspectives on social-emotional learning programs. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *8*(7).

Esterberg, K. G. (2002). *Qualitative methods in social research*. McGraw-Hill.

Farrington, C., Roderick, M., Allensworth, E., Nagaoka, J., Keyes, T., Johnson, D., & Beechum, N., (2012). *Teaching adolescents to become learners: The role of noncognitive factors in shaping school performance: A critical literature review*. Consortium on Chicago School Research.

Fauzi, I., & Khusuma, I., (2020). Teachers' elementary school in online learning of Covid-19 pandemic conditions. *Jurnal Iqra': Kajian Ilmu Pendidikan, 5*(1), 58-70.

Fegert J., Vitiello B., Plener P., (2020). Clemens V. Challenges and burden of the coronavirus 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic for child and adolescent mental health: A narrative review to highlight clinical and research needs in the acute phase and the long return to normality. *Child Adolesc Psychiatry Ment Health,* 14:20.

Ferren, M. (2021). *Social and emotional supports for educators during and after the pandemic*. Center for American Progress. Retrieved August 1, 2021, from https://www.americanprogress.org/article/social-emotional-supports-educators-pandemic/

Fielding N., (2012). Triangulation and mixed methods designs: Data integration with new

research technologies. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 6*(2), 124-136. doi:10.1177/1558689812437101

Freire, P. (2000). *Pedagogy of the oppressed.* Continuum.

Frey, B. (2018). *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Measurement, and Evaluation* (Vols. 1-4). Sage Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781506326139

Friend, M. (2007). The coteaching partnership. *Educational Leadership, 64*(9), 48-52.

Gangemi, A., Editor. (n.d.). *English language learner demographics report for 2016 -17 school year* (Vol. 10). NYC Department of Education, 1 – 76.

Gifford-Smith, M. E., & Brownell, C. A. (2003). Childhood peer relationships: Social acceptance, friendships and peer networks. *Journal of School Psychology, 41*, 235– 284. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4405(03)00048-7

Glesne, C. (2011). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction* (4th Ed.). Pearson.

Goddard, R., Hoy, K., & Hoy, A. (2004). Collective efficacy beliefs: Theoretical developments, empirical evidence, and future directions, *Educational Researcher, 33*, 3-13. doi:10.3102/0013189X033003003.

Goldberg, M., Leclerc, A., Bonenfant, S., Chastang, J., Schmaus, A., Kaniewski, N., & Zins, M. (2007). Cohort profile: The Gazel study cohort. *Int J Epidemiol., 36*(1), 32–39.

Governor's Press Office. (2020, March 16). *Governor Cuomo signs executive order closing schools statewide for two weeks*. New York State. https://www.governor.ny.gov/news/governor-cuomo-signs-executive-order-closing-schools-statewide-two-weeks

Greenberg, M. T., Domitrovich, C., & Bumbarger, B. (2001). The prevention of mental disorders in school-aged children: Current state of the field. *Prevention & Treatment, 4*(1), Article 1a. https://doi.org/10.1037/1522-3736.4.1.41a

Guion, L., Diehl, D., & McDonald, D. (2011). *Conducting an in-depth interview.* http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/fy393

Hackman, H., (2005). Five essential components for social justice education. *Equity & Excellence in Education, 38*, 103 – 109.

Hamilton, L. S., Kaufman, J. H., & Diliberti, M. (2020). *Teaching and leading through a pandemic: Key findings from the American Educator Panels Spring 2020 COVID-19 Surveys.* Rand Corporation. https://www.rand.org/pubs/research_reports/RRA168-2.html

Hamm, J. V., & Faircloth, B. S. (2005). The role of friendship in adolescents' sense of school belonging. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, *107*, 61– 78. https://doi.org/10.1177/0272431693013001002

Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2001). Early teacher-child relationships and the trajectory of children's school outcomes through eighth grade. *Child Development*, *72*(2), 625–638. http://www.jstor.org/stable/1132418

Hatch, J. A. (2002). *Doing qualitative research in education settings.* State University of New York Press.

Hartup, W. W. (1983). Peer relations. In P. H. Mussen & E. M. Hetherington (Eds.), *Handbook of Child Psychology Vol. 4, Socialization, Personality, and Social Development* (pp. 103–196). Wiley.

Hawkins, J., Kosterman, R., Catalano, R., Hill, K., & Abbott, R., (2008). Effects of social development intervention in childhood 15 years later. *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine, 162*(12), 1133-1141.

Health Resources and Services Administration (HRSA). (2021). Stop bullying home page. https://www.stopbullying.gov/.

Heaton, J. (2021). "*Pseudonyms are used throughout": A footnote, unpacked. *Qualitative Inquiry*. https://doi.org/10.1177/10778004211048379

Henry, D., Dymnicki, A., Mohatt, N., Allen, J., Kelly, J. (2015). Clustering methods with qualitative data: A mixed-methods approach for prevention research with small samples. *Prev Sci., 16*(7), 1007-16. doi: 10.1007/s11121-015-0561-z.

Heyink, J.W., & Tymstra, T. (1993). The function of qualitative research. *Social Indicators Research*, *29*(3), 291-305. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01079517

Hesse-Biber, S., Dupuis, P. & Kinder, T. (1991). HyperRESEARCH: A computer program for the analysis of qualitative data with an emphasis on hypothesis testing and multimedia analysis. *Qual Sociol, 14,* 289–306. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00989642

Hodgman, S. (2021). Teacher interactions with students and families. *AM. INSTS. FOR RESEARCH, 2*(Feb. 2021). https://www.air.org/sites/default/files/Teacher-Interactions-with-Students-and-Families-COVID-19-Survey-Feb2021rev.pdf

Hoffman, M. A., Ushpiz, V., & Levy-Shiff, R. (1988). Social support and self-esteem in adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 17*, 307-316.

Hoza, B., Bukowski, W. M., & Beery, S. (2000). Assessing peer network and dyadic loneliness. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 29*, 119– 128. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15374424jccp2901_12

Hulleman, C., & Hulleman, T. (2018). *An important piece of the student motivation puzzle*. FutureEd. https://www.future-ed.org/reversing-the-decline-in-student-motivation/

iEduNote. (2021). *Self-efficacy theory by Albert Bandura*. https://www.iedunote.com/self-efficacy-theory

IMPOFF. (2020). *Importance of lesson plan for teachers and students*. Impoff.Com. Retrieved December 5, 2021, from https://impoff.com/importance-of-lesson-plan/

Iris Center. (2021). *Influence of teacher perceptions*. Iris Center. Vanderbilt University. https://iris.peabody.vanderbilt.edu/module/div/cresource/q1/p02/

Israel, M., and Iain, H. (2006). *Research Ethics for Social Scientists*. London: Sage Publications.

IvyPanda. (2020, January 19). *Interviews, Questionnaires and Observations.* Retrieved from https://ivypanda.com/essays/interviews-questionnaires-and-observations/

Jasper, M. (2005). Using reflective writing within research. *Journal of Research in Nursing*, *10*(3), 247-260.

Jennings, P., and Greenberg M. (2009). The prosocial classroom: Teacher social and emotional competence in relation to student and classroom outcomes. *Review of Educational Research*, *79*(1), 491-525. doi:10.3102/0034654308325693

Jennings, P., & Frank, J. (2015). In-service preparation for educators. In J. A. Durlak, C. E. Domitrovich, R. P. Weissberg, & T. P. Gullotta (Eds.), *Handbook of Social and Emotional Learning: Research Practice* (pp. 422-437). The Guilford Press.

Jennings, P. (2015). *Mindfulness for teachers: Simple skills for peace and productivity in the classroom*. W.W. Norton & Co.

Jones, K., & Cater, M. (2020). An investigation of principals' social and emotional learning beliefs and attitudes. *The Qualitative Report*, *25*(9), 3204-3223. https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2020.3575

Jones J., & Donmoyer R., (2021). Improving the trustworthiness/validity of interview data in qualitative nonprofit sector research: The Formative Influences Timeline. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 50*(4), 889-904. doi:10.1177/0899764020977657

Jones, D., Greenberg, M., & Crowley, M. (2015). Early social-emotional functioning and public health: The relationship between kindergarten social competence and future wellness. *American Journal of Public Health, 105*(11), 2283-2290.

Jones, M. & Bouffard, S. (2012). Social and emotional learning in schools: From programs to strategies and commentaries. *Social Policy Report, 26*(4). https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2379-3988.2012.tb00073.x

Jones, S., Bouffard, M., & Weissbourd, R. (2013). Educators' social and emotional skills vital to learning. *Phi Delta Kappan, 94*(8), 62-5.

Josselson, R. (2007). The ethical attitude in narrative research: Principles and practicalities. In D. J. Clandinin (Ed.), *Handbook of Narrative Inquiry: Mapping a*

Methodology (pp. 537–566). Sage Publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781452226552.n21

Kalra, S., Pathak, V., & Jena, B. (2013). Qualitative research. *Perspectives in Clinical Research*, *4*(3), 192. https://doi.org/10.4103/2229-3485.115389

Kaplan-Rakowski, R. (2020). *Addressing students' emotional needs during the COVID-19 pandemic: A perspective on text versus video feedback in online environments.* Education Tech Research Dev. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11423-020-09897-9

Klima, T., & Repetti, R. L. (2008). Children's peer relations and their psychological adjustment: Differences between close friendships and the larger peer group. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 54*(2), 151–178. https://doi.org/10.1353/mpq.2008.0016

Kolbe, K. (2009). *Self-efficacy results from exercising control over personal conative Strengths. Wisdom of the ages.* doi: https://e.kolbe.com/knol/index.html

Koenig, D. (2018). *How to select Research participants for qualitative research*. Classroom by Leaf Group. Retrieved January 9, 2022, from https://classroom.synonym.com/research-sample-population-2660.html

Krefting, L. (1991). Rigor in Qualitative Research: The Assessment of Trustworthiness. *The American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, *45*(3), 214–222. https://doi.org/10.5014/ajot.45.3.214

Kuhfeld, M., Soland, J., Tarasawa, B., Johnson, A., Ruzek, E., Liu, J. (2020). Projecting the potential impact of COVID-19 school closures on academic achievement. *Educational Researcher, 49*(8), 549-565. doi: 10.3102/0013189X20965918

Kvale, S. (1996). *InterViews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing.* Sage Publications.

Lane, M. (2013). *A platonic perspective on inertia, imagination, and initiative.* Retrieved from Insite: http://www.insiteproject.org/article/a-platonic-perspective-on-inertia-Imaginationand-initiative/

Larson, R. (1983). Adolescents' daily experience with family and friends: Contrasting opportunity systems. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 45*, 739-75

Larson, R., & Richards, M. H. (1991). Daily companionship in late childhood and early adolescence: Changing developmental contexts. *Child Development*, *62*(2), 284–300.
https://doi.org/10.2307/1131003

Laslett, B., & Rapoport, R. (1975). Collaborative interviewing and interactive research. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 37*, 968-977.

Leech, N., Gullet, S., Cummings, M. H., & Haug, C. (2022). The challenges of remote K-12 education during the COVID-19 pandemic: Differences by grade level. *Online Learning, 26*(1), 245-267. DOI: 10.24059/olj.v26i1.2609

Leithwood, K., & McAdie, P. (2007). Teacher working conditions that matter. *Education Canada, 47*(2), 42-45.

Li, L., Flynn, K., DeRosier, M., Weiser, G., & Austin-King, K. (2021). Social-emotional learning amidst COVID-19 school closures: Positive findings from an efficacy study of adventures aboard the S.S. GRIN Program. *Frontiers in Education*, *6*. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2021.683142

Lofland, J., & Lofland, L. (2008). *Analyzing social settings: A guide to qualitative observation and analysis* (3rd, illustrated, reprint ed. ed.). Wadsworth.

Lopez-Garrido, G (2020, Aug 09). *Self-efficacy*. Simply Psychology. https://www.simplypsychology.org/self-efficacy.html

Lumsden, K. (2018). *Narratives and storytelling in qualitative research*. Social Research Association. Retrieved November 14, 2021, from https://www.ncrm.ac.uk/training/show.php?article=8252

Maddux J.E. (1995) Self-efficacy theory. In: Maddux J.E. (eds) *Self-Efficacy, Adaptation, and Adjustment. The Plenum Series in Social/Clinical Psychology.* Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-6868-5_1

Maddux, J. E. (Ed.). (2013). *Self-efficacy, adaptation, and adjustment: Theory, research, and application*. Springer Science & Business Media.

Maddux, J. E., & Meier, L. J. (1995). Self-efficacy and depression. *In Self-Efficacy, Adaptation, and Adjustment* (pp. 143-169). Springer.

Madhushree, L. M., Bhuvana, R., & Aithal, S. (2020, October 30). *Impact of COVID-19 on redefining the services of educational institutions using ubiquitous technology.* Retrieved September 14, 2021, from https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/103998/1/MPRA_paper_103998.pdf.

Marshall D., Shannon D., & Love S. (2020). How teachers experienced the COVID-19 transition to remote instruction. *Phi Delta Kappan, 102*(3), 46-50. doi:10.1177/0031721720970702

Maxwell, J., (1996). *Qualitative research design. An interactive approach.* Sage Publications.

McCracken, G. (1988). *The long interview.* Sage Publications.

McCurdy, B. L., Mannella, M. C., & Eldridge, N. (2003). Positive behavior support in urban schools: Can we prevent the escalation of antisocial behavior? *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 5*(3), 158-170. doi: 10.1177/10983007030050030501

McLeod, S. (2019). *Qualitative vs. quantitative research.* Simply Psychology. https://www.simplypsychology.org/qualitative-quantitative.html.

McLeskey, J., Billingsley, B., Brownwell, M., Jackson, D., Kennedy, M., Lewis, T., Maheady, L., Rodriguez, J., Wynn, J., & Ziegler, D. (2017). *High-leverage practices in special education*. Council for Exceptional Children & Ceeder Center. Retrieved January 8, 2022, from https://ceedar.education.ufl.edu/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/CEC-HLP-Web.pdf

Merriam, S. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation.* Jossey-Bass.

MENA Report. (2021, Mar.). *United States : Booker, Cornyn, Murphy, Collins introduce bipartisan legislation to expand access to tutoring for underserved students.* Albawaba (London) Ltd.

Merritt et al. (2012). The contribution of teachers' emotional support to children's social behaviors and self-regulatory skills in first grade. *School Psychology Review, 41*, 141-159.

Metcalfe, Y. (2020, July 14). *SEL in online and blended classrooms: Biggest challenges according to teachers.* Retrieved July 14, 2020, from https://www.digitallearningcollab.com/blog/2020/7/14/sel-in-online-and-blended-classrooms-biggest-challenges-according-to-teachers

Minkos, M., & Gelbar, N., (2021). Considerations for educators in supporting student learning in the midst of COVID-19. *Psychology in the Schools, 58*(2), 416–426. https://doi.org/10.1002/ pits.22454

Mishler, E., (1986). *Research interviewing: Context and narrative.* Harvard University Press.

Mojica, I. (2021). THE LIVED EXPERIENCES OF TEACHER AND STUDENTS IN PE AMIDST THE PANDEMIC. *EPRA International Journal of Research & Development (IJRD)*, 365–372. https://doi.org/10.36713/epra7342

Montero, M. (2007). The political psychology of liberation: From politics to ethics and back. *Political Psychology, 28*(5), 517-533. doi:10.1111/j.1467 9221.2007.00588.x

Morris, S., & Stone, E. (2020). *Voices from the virtual classroom: A Survey of America's Teachers on COVID-19-Related Education Issues*. Educators for Excellence. Retrieved February 12, 2021, from https://e4e.org/sites/default/files/voices_from_the_virtual_classroom_2020.pdf

Muylaert, C., Sarubbi, V., Gallo, P., Neto, M., (2014). *Narrative interviews: an important resource in qualitative research.* Revista da Escola de Enfermagem da U S P. 48 Spec No. 2. 184-9. 10.1590/S0080-623420140000800027

National Alliance on Mental Illness (NAMI). (2020). *School during the pandemic: Mental health impacts on students.* https://namica.org/blog/impact-on-the-mental-health-of-students-during-covid-19/

National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) Home Page, part of the U.S. Department of Education. (2020). https://nces.ed.gov/.

National Center for Homeless Education. (2020). *FEDERAL DATA SUMMARY SCHOOL YEARS 2015–16 THROUGH 2017–18*. Https://Nche.Ed.Gov/. Retrieved December 29, 2021, from https://nche.ed.gov/

National University. (2021). *Social Emotional Learning (SEL) & why it matters for educators*. https://www.nu.edu/resources/social-emotional-learning-sel-why-it-matters-for-educators/

New Haven Public Schools. (n.d.). *About NHPS.* Retrieved from New Haven Public Schools: http://www.nhps.net

Newington, L., & Metcalfe, A. (2014). Factors influencing recruitment to research: qualitative study of the experiences and perceptions of research teams. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, *14*, 10. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2288-14-10

New York State Board of Regents. (2020, July 13). *RECOVERING, REBUILDING, AND RENEWING: THE SPIRIT OF NEW YORK'S SCHOOLS REOPENING GUIDANCE*. http://www.nysed.gov/common/nysed/files/programs/reopening-schools/nys-p12-school-reopening-guidance.pdf. Retrieved September 14, 2021, from www.nysed.gov.

NYSED.gov. (2018). *New York State social emotional learning benchmarks*. NYSED. http://www.p12.nysed.gov/sss/selbenchmarks.html

Office for Civil Rights. (2021). *Education in a pandemic: The disparate impacts of COVID-19 on America's students.* https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/20210608-impacts-of-covid19.pdf?utm_content=&utm_medium=email&utm_name=&utm_source=govdelivery&utm_term=

Osher, E., and Berg, J. (2017). *School climate and social and emotional learning: The integration of two approaches.* Edna Bennet Pierce Prevention Research Center, Pennsylvania State University.

Overcash, A. (2003). Narrative research: a review of methodology and relevance to clinical practice. *Critical Review in Oncology/Hematology, 48*(2), 179-184.doi.org/10.1016/j.critrevonc.2003.04.006

Pajares, F. (2002). *Self-efficacy beliefs in academic contexts: An outline.* Retrieved 11/29/2021 from http:des.emory.edu/mfp/efftalk.html.

Patino, C.M., & Ferreira, J.C. (2018). Internal and external validity: can you apply research study results to your patients? *J Bras Pneumol. 44*(3),183. doi: 10.1590/S1806-37562018000000164. PMID: 30043882; PMCID: PMC6188693.

Patton, M. (1999). Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. *Health Sciences Research, 34*, 1189–1208.

Patton, M., (2001). Qualitative research and evaluation methods (2nd Edition). Sage Publications.

Patton, M. (2015). Qualitative evaluation and research methods. Sage Publications.

Peace Learning Center. (2021). *Tribes Learning Community. A new way of learning and being together.* Tribes.Com. https://tribes.com/about/

Pederson, S., Vitaro, F., Barker, E. D., & Borge, A. I. H. (2007). The timing of middle-childhood peer rejection and friendship: Linking early behavior to early-adolescent adjustment. *Child Development*, *78,* 1037– 1051. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2007.01051.x

Pettit, G., Clawson, M., Dodge, K. & Bates, J. (1996). Stability and change in peer-rejected status: The role of child behavior, parenting, and family ecology. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 42*(2), 267-294.

Pew Research Center. (2019). *Internet/ broadband fact sheet.* Available at: https://www.pewresearch.org/ internet/fact-sheet/internet-broadband/. Accessed April 10, 2020

Phillips, L., Cain, M., Ritchie, J., Campbell, C., Davis, S., Brock, C., Burke, G., Coleman, K., & Joosa, E. (2021). Surveying and resonating with teacher concerns during COVID-19 pandemic. *Teachers and Teaching*, 1–18. https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2021.1982691

Piotrowski, Z. H., & Hedeker, D. (2016, Supplement 1). Evaluation of the be the exception sixth-grade program in rural communities to delay the onset of sexual behavior. *American Journal of Public Health, 106*, S132-S139. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2016.303438

Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (1995). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and*

applications. Prentice Hall.

Plato. (2016, June 22). *The republic.* (B. Jowett, Trans.) Project Gutenberg.

Polkinghorne, D. E. (1994). Reaction to special section on qualitative research in counseling process and outcome. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 41*, 510-512.

Porter-Magee, K. (2020). *Why school culture is crucial to social and emotional learning.* https://www.aei.org/research-products/report/why-school-culture-is-crucial-to-social-and-emotional-learning.

Poulou, M. (2017). Students' emotional and behavioral difficulties: The role of teachers' social and emotional learning and teacher-student relationships. *International Journal of Emotional Education*, *9*(2), 72–89. https://www.um.edu.mt/library/oar/bitstream/123456789/24344/1/v9i2p6.pdf

Proios, M., & Gianitsopoulou, E. (2009, May). Moral education of youths: An aspect of the teacher's role in modern school. *Inquiries in Sport & Physical Education, 7*(2), 149-160.

Qu, S., & Dumay, J. (2011). The qualitative research interview. *ResearchGate*. Published. https://doi.org/10.1108/11766091111162070

Quirk, A. (2020, July 28). *Mental health support for students of color during and after the Coronavirus pandemic*. Center for American Progress. https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/education-k-12/news/2020/07/28/488044/mental-health-support-students-color-coronavirus-pandemic/

Ransford, C., Greenberg, M., Domitrovich, C., Small, M., & Jacobson, L. (2009). The role of teachers' psychological experiences and perceptions of curriculum supports on the implementation of a social and emotional learning curriculum. *School Psychology Review*, *38*(4), 510–532.

Raver, C., (2002). Emotions matter: Making the case for the role of young children's emotional development for early school readiness. *Social Policy Report. Giving Child and Youth Development Knowledge Away*. Vol. XVI, No. 3.

Raver, C. C., & Knitzer, J. (2002). *Ready to enter: What research tells policy makers about strategies to promote social and emotional school readiness among three and four-year-olds.* National Center for Children in Poverty.

Rawls, J. (1999). *A theory of justice* (Revised ed.). Harvard University Press. https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctvjf9z6v

Rawls, J. (1999). *A theory of justice.* Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.

Rawls, J. (2001). *Justice as fairness: A restatement.* Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.

Recovering, Rebuilding, and Renewing: The Spirit of New. (n.d.) http://www.nysed.gov/common/nysed/files/programs/reopening-schools/nys-p12-school-reopening-guidance.pdf

Redmond, B. F. (2010). Self-efficacy theory: Do I think that I can succeed in my work? *Work Attitudes and Motivation*. The Pennsylvania: State University, World Campus.

Reich, J., Buttimer, C. J., Coleman, D., Colwell, R., Faruqi, F., & Larke, L. R. (2020, July). *What's lost, what's left, what's next: Lessons learned from the lived experiences of teachers during the pandemic.* Retrieved from https://edarxiv.org/8exp9

Reopening New York - Government of New York. (n.d.). https://www.governor.ny.gov/sites/default/files/atoms/files/P12_EDU_Summary_Guidelines.pdf

Riessman, C. (1993). *Narrative analysis.* Sage Publications.

Riessman, C. (2008). *Narrative methods for the human sciences.* Sage Publications, Inc.

Ross, H., & Lollis, S. (1989). A social relations analysis of toddler peer relationships. *Child Development,* 60(5), 1082-1091. https://doi.org/102307/1130782

Rubin, H. & Rubin, I., (2005). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.

Rubin, K. (1980). Children's play. *New Directions for Child Development.* Jossey-Bass.

Ryan, R., & Lynch, J. (1989). Emotional autonomy versus detachment: Revisiting the vicissitudes of adolescence and young adulthood. *Child Development, 60*, 340-356.

Saarni, C. (1997). Emotional competence and self-regulation in children. *Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence,* 35-66. Basic Books.

Saldaña, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers.* Sage Publications.

Salkind, N. J. (2010). *Encyclopedia of research design* (Vols. 1-0). Sage Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781412961288

Same, M., Guarino, N., Pardo, M., Benson, D., Fagan, K., & Lindsay, J. (2018). *Evidence-supported interventions associated with Black students' educational outcomes Findings from a systematic review of research*. Institute of Educational Services. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED581117.pdf

Sameroff, A., & MacKenzie, M. (1975). *A quarter-century of the transactional model: How have things changed?* Center for Human Growth and Development, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Sanders, B. (2020). *The power of social and emotional learning: Why SEL is more important than ever*. Forbes.Com. Retrieved November 22, 2021, from https://www.forbes.com/sites/forbesnonprofitcouncil/2020/12/07/the-power-of-social-and-emotional-learning-why-sel-is-more-important-than-ever/?sh=625a8a4c7a29

Sandelowski, M. (2000). Combining qualitative and quantitative sampling, data collection, and analysis techniques in mixed-method studies. *Research in Nursing & Health*, *23*(3), 246-255.

Santi, E. Gorghiu, A., & Pribeanu, C. (2020). *Teachers' perceived self-efficacy for mobile teaching and learning.* EBSCO.

Santibanez, L, & Guarino, C. (2021). The effects of absenteeism on academic and social-emotional outcomes. Lessons for COVID-29. *Educational Researcher.* Doi:10.3102/0013189x21994488

Sargeant, J. (2012). Qualitative research part II: Participants, analysis, and quality assurance. *J Grad Med Educ, 4*(1), 1-3. doi: 10.4300/JGME-D-11-00307.1.

Saunders, B., Sim, J., Kingstone, T., Baker, S., Waterfield, J., Bartlam, B., Burroughs, H., & Jinks, C. (2018). Saturation in qualitative research: exploring its conceptualization and operationalization. *Quality & Quantity*, *52*(4), 1893–1907. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-017-0574-8

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2012). *Research methods for business students* (6th Ed.) Pearson Education Limited.

Sawchuk, S., (2020). *Grading students during the coronavirus crisis: What's the right call?* Education Week.

Sawchuck, S., and Samuels, C. (2020). *Where are they? Students go missing in shift to remote classes.* Education Week. https://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2020/04/10/where-are-they-students-go-missing-in.html

Scheier, L. M., & Grenard, J. L. (2010, April/May). Influence of a nationwide social marketing campaign on adolescent drug use. *Journal of Health Communication, 15*(3), 240-271.

Schonert-Reichl, K. (2017). Social and emotional learning and teachers. *The Future of Children, 27*(1), 137-155. http://www.jstor.org.jerome.stjohns.edu:81/stable/44219025

Schwartz, D., Lansford, J., Dodge, K., Petit, G. and Bates, J. (2014). Peer victimization during middle childhood as a lead indicator of internalizing problems and

diagnostic outcomes in late adolescence. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology, 44*(3). DOI: 10.1080/15374416.2014.881293.

Seidman, I., (1991). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences.* Teachers College Press.

Selman, R., (1980). *The growth of interpersonal understanding: Developmental and clinical analyses.* Academy Press.

Sherren, S. (2020). *How students are handling pandemic learning: Best colleges.* Bestcolleges.com. https://bestcolleges.com/blog/how-college-students-handle-pandemic-learning.

Simon, M.K. & Goes, J. (2013). *Dissertation and scholarly research: Recipe for success.* Dissertations Success LLC.

Sklad, M., Diekstra, R., Ritter, M.D., Ben, J., & Gravesteijn, C. (2012). "Effectiveness of school-based universal social, emotional, and behavioral programs: Do they enhance students' development in the area of skill, behavior, and adjustment?" *Psychology in the Schools, 49*(9), pp.892-909.

Spradley, J. (1979). *The ethnographic interview.* Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Stoner, J., Obiakor, F., Bakken, J., and Rotatori, N. (2010). *Current issues and trends in special education: Research, technology, and teacher preparation* (*Advances in Special Education, Vol. 20*). Emerald Group Publishing Limited. https://doi.org/10.1108/S0270-4013(2010)0000020005

Squire, C., Davis, M., Esin, C., Andrews, M., Harrison, B., Hydén, L., & Hydén, M. (2014). What is narrative research? Starting out. In *What is Narrative*

Research? (pp. 1–22). Bloomsbury Academic. http://dx.doi.org/10.5040/9781472545220.ch-001

Stake, R. E. (2010). *Qualitative research: Studying how things work.* Guilford Press.

Staples, S, and Hulland, J., & Higgins, C. (1998). *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 3*(4).

Steiner, E., & Woo, A., (2021). *Job-related stress threatens the teacher supply: Key findings from the 2021 State of the U.S. Teacher Survey*. RAND Corporation. https://www.rand.org/pubs/research_reports/RRA1108-1.html.

Sternberg, R. J., & Kolligan, J., Jr. (Eds.). (1990). *Competence considered*. Yale University Press.

Strauss, V. (2020). A veteran teacher has 'a mini Covid-19 educator meltdown'–and realizes less is more with online learning. *Washington Post*. https://www.washingtonpost.com/education/2020/04/08/veteran-teacher-has-mini-covid-19-educator-meltdown-realizes-that-less-is-more-with-online-learning/ (accessed May 20, 2020).

Sutton, J., & Austin, Z. (2015). Qualitative research: Data collection, analysis, and management. *The Canadian Journal of Hospital Pharmacy*, *68*(3). https://doi.org/10.4212/cjhp.v68i3.1456

Tam, G., and El-Azar, D. (2020). *3 ways the coronavirus pandemic could reshape education.* World Economic Forum. https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2020/03/3-ways-coronavirus-is-reshaping-education-and-what-changes-might-be-here-to-stay

Terada, Y. (2020). *COVID-19's impact on students' academic and mental well-being.* Edutopia. https://www.edutopia.org/article/covid-19's-impact-students-academic-and-mental-well-being.

Texas Association of School Administrators (2010). *Social-emotional wellness in Texas schools: A guide for schools, agencies, organizations, parents and communities.* Houston, TX: Region 4 Education Service Center.

The National Research Council. (2012*). Education for life and work: Guide for practitioners.* National Academies Press.

Trach, J., Lee, M., & Hymel, S. (2018). A social-ecological approach to addressing emotional and behavioral problems in schools: Focusing on group processes and social dynamics. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 26*(1), 11-20. DOI: 10.1177/1063426611742346

Triliva, S., & Poulou, M. (2006). Greek teachers' understandings and constructions of what constitutes social and emotional learning. *School Psychology International*, *27*(3), 315–338. https://doi.org/10.1177/0143034306067303

Tufford, L. & Newman, P. (2010). Bracketing in qualitative research. *Qualitative Social Work, 11*, 80-96. 10.1177/1473325010368316.

UNESCO (2021). COVID-19 educational disruption and response. Retrieved from https://en.unesco.org/covid19/educationresponse. [Data from April 4, 2021].

Upshur, C., Heyman, M., & Wenz-Gross, M. (2017). Efficacy trial of the Second Step Early Learning (SSEL) curriculum: preliminary outcomes. *J. Appl. Dev. Psychol. 50*, 15–25. doi: 10.1016/j.appdev.2017.03.004

Urquhart, C., & Fernandez, W. (2013). Using grounded theory method in information systems: The research as blank slate and other myths. *Journal of Information Technology*, 28(3), 224-236. DOI: 10.1057/jit.2012.34

USA TODAY & Ipsos. (2020). *Online polls of 505 K-12 teachers and 403 parents with at least one child in K-12 taken May 18-21*. USA Today. https://www.usatoday.com/story/news/education/2020/05/26/ coronavirus-schools-teachers-poll-ipsos-parents-fall-online/5254729002/

Verlenden, J. (2021, Mar 19). *U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Association of children's mode of school instruction with child and parent experiences and well-being during the COVID-19 pandemic — COVID Experiences Survey, United States, October 8–November 13, 2020.* 70 MORBIDITY AND MORTALITY WEEKLY REP. 369, 371.

Walker, T., (2020). *Social-emotional learning should be priority during COVID-19 crisis.* NEA.https://www.nea.org/advocating-for-change/new-from-nea/social-emotional-learning-should-be-priority-during-covid-19

Wanless, S., & Barnes, T. (2020). *THE MISSING LINK IN SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING. Why social justice and equity are essential to social and emotional learning.* https://Confidentparentsconfidentkids.Org/2020/06/04/the-Missing-Link-in-Social-and-Emotional-Learning/. https://confidentparentsconfidentkids.org/2020/06/04/the-missing-link-in-social-and-emotional-learning/

Weaver, Jr., T. (2020, June 16). *Antiracism in social-emotional learning: Why it's not enough to talk the talk.* Ed Surge. https://www.edsurge.com/news/2020-06-16-antiracism-in-social-emotional-learning-why-it-s-not-enough-to-talk-the-talk

Webb, E., Campbell, D., Schwartz, R., & Sechrest, L. (1966). *Unobtrusive measures: Nonreactive research in the social sciences.* Rand Mcnally.

Weissberg, R. P., Shriver, T. P., Bose, S., & DeFalco, K. (1997). Creating a districtwide social development project. *Social and Emotional Learning, 54*(8), 37-39.

Weissberg, R. P., Durlak, J. A., Domitrovich, C. E., & Gullotta, T. P. (2015). Social and emotional learning: Past, present, and future. In R. P. Weissberg, J. A. Durlak, C. E. Domitrovich, & T. P. Gullotta, *Handbook for Social and Emotional Learning: Research and Practice* (pp. 3- 19). The Guildford Press.

Wenz-Gross, M., Yoo, Y., Upshur, C. C., & Gambino, A. J. (2018, October). Pathways to Kindergarten readiness: The roles of Second Step Early Learning curriculum and social emotional, executive functioning, preschool academic and task behavior skills. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *9*, 1886. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01886

White, R. W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. *Psychological Review, 66*, 297–333.

Whitted, K. (2011). Understanding how social and emotional skill deficits contribute to school failure, preventing school failure. *Alternative Education for Children and Youth, 55*(1), 10-16. DOI: 10.1080/10459880903286755

Williams, K., & Corwith, A., (2021). Beyond Bricks and Mortar: The efficacy of online learning and community-building at College Park Academy during the COVID-

19 pandemic. *Educ Inf Technol, 26*, 5055–5076. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-021-10516-0

W.T. Grant Consortium on the School-Based Promotion of Social Competence. (1992). Drug and alcohol prevention curricula. In J. Hawkins, & R. C. Associates (Eds.), *Communities That Care* (pp. 129-148). Jossey-Bass.

Yardy, E. (2020). *Collaborating as a teaching team during the pandemic*. The Institute Blog. Retrieved January 8, 2022, from https://earlychildhoodny.org/blog/collaborating-as-a-teaching-team-during-the-pandemic/

Yoder, J. (2014). Teacher the whole child: Instructional practices that support social-emotional learning in three teacher evaluation frameworks. *Center on Great Teachers & Leaders.* Research-to-Practice Brief. https://gtlcenter.org/sites/default/files/TeachingtheWholeChild.pdf

Zins, J., Weissberg, R., Wang, M., and Walberg, H. (2004). *Building academic success on social and emotional learning: What does the research say?* Teachers College Press.

Zins, J., and Elias, M. (2007). Social and emotional learning: Promoting the development of all students. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 17*(2-3), 233-255 DOI: 10.1080/10474410701413152

Zins, J. E., & Elias, M. J. (2006). Social and emotional learning. In G. G. Bear & K. M. Minke (Eds.), *Children's Needs III: Development, Prevention, and Intervention* (pp. 1–13). National Association of School Psychologists.

Zinsser, K., Shewark, E., Denham, S., & Curby, T. (2014). *A mixed-method examination of preschool teacher beliefs about social-emotional learning and relations to observed emotional support.* Infant and Child Development. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/icd.1843.

Zinsser, K. (2015, July 24). *How social-emotional learning standards differ by state.* Retrieved January 20, 2018, from Noodle: https://www.noodle.com/articles/how-social-Emotionallearning-standards-differ-by-state

Zitter, I., & Hoeve, A. (2012). *Hybrid learning environments: Merging learning and work processes to facilitate knowledge integration and transitions.* OECD Education Working Papers, No. 81, OECD Publishing. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5k97785xwdvf-en

VITA

Name	*Clyde A. Braswell*
Baccalaureate Degree	*Bachelor of Science, SUNY College at Old Westbury Old Westbury, NY Major: Elementary Education (N-6)*
Date Graduated	*May, 1993*
Other Degrees and Certificates	*Master of Science, CUNY Brooklyn College, Brooklyn, New York Major: Math Education*
	Master of Science, The College of New Rochelle, New Rochelle New York Major: School Leadership and Administration
Date Graduated	*June 2001*