2019

EFFECTS OF PRACTICE-BASED COACHING INTERVENTION ON PRESCHOOL TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO BLACK BOYS' NEGATIVE EMOTION EXPRESSION

Evandra Catherine

Virginia Commonwealth University

EFFECTS OF PRACTICE-BASED COACHING INTERVENTION ON PRESCHOOL
TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO BLACK BOYS' NEGATIVE EMOTION EXPRESSION

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy at Virginia Commonwealth University.

by

Evandra Catherine
Bachelor of Arts, Virginia Commonwealth University, 2008
Master of Public Administration, Strayer University, 2012

Director: Yaoying Xu, Ph.D.
Professor, Counseling and Special Education

Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia
July 20

Acknowledgement

There have been so many individuals that have supported my Ph.D. journey. I first would like to thank Collen Thoma for the opportunity to begin this journey. I also want to thank Yaoying Xu, my dissertation chair and advisor for your support and believing in me and my research. You pushed and encouraged me even when I did not think I could go on. Thank you Kevin Sutherland for holding me accountable throughout the entire process. Your support and guidance gave me what I needed to successfully complete this journey. Thank you LaRon Scott for always making sure I stayed focus and kept me away from rabbit holes. Also, thank you for always having an open door. Thank you Fantasy Lozada for your knowledge and expertise related to emotional development and culturally diverse children and families due to the interdisciplinary nature of my research topic. Thank you Michelle Thompson for your support, flexibility, and ability to view my research through a cultural lens; you provided me with insight that I feel only an occupational therapist could bring. Also, you were the best secondary observer. Lastly, I want to think our doc posse for all of your encouragement and for believing in me from day one. I could not have made it through without your support. Thank you Reggie Brown and Kelly Winn for ensuring I crossed every "T" and dotted every "I" related to all my administrative responsibilities.

I also want to thank my friends, family, and my social media friends. Whenever I had a general question or needed insight to what Black boys experiences were, you all were just a post away. Thank you to my fiancé William Nicholson. You were there every step of the way. I began this journey just nine days before I met you and you jumped on that roller coaster with me with no problem. I will forever love you for how you supported me and the many lilies I would come home to on my frustrating days. I am also forever grateful for the Hudson family. Thank you!!

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my son Prince-Albert William Hudson IV, every Black boy with or without a disability, and the ancestors.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Abstract

EFFECTS OF A PRACTICE-BASED COACHING INTERVENTION ON PRESCHOOL TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO BLACK BOYS' NEGATIVE EMOTION EXPRESSION

By Evandra Catherine, Ph.D.

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Virginia Commonwealth University.

Virginia Commonwealth University
2019

Director: Yaoying Xu, Ph.D.
Professor, Counseling and Special Education

Current research indicates that caregivers' responses and behaviors to young children's emotion expressions communicate messages that teach young children how to understand, label, recognize and modify emotions in socially desirable ways. This process is referred to as emotion socialization. This topic is timely and relevant due to the large numbers of preschoolers suspended and expelled each year. Several reports indicate that 50,000 preschoolers are suspended each year and that Black boys are the largest recipients of such actions. Black boys comprise just 19% of preschool enrollment, but 45% of male suspensions. In addition, data show that preschool teachers expect challenging behavior to occur when Black boys are present, even

when there is no challenging behavior. Cultural and contextual factors such as child's

race/ethnicity, gender, social status, are also influencing differences in preschool caregiver's

emotion socialization behaviors.

The goal of this study was to examine whether a professional development (PD) model

increases preschool teachers' use of emotionally supportive responses to the negative emotion

expressions of Black boys with low levels of emotional competence. The research design was a

multiple-baseline across participants design. There were two Black female teacher participants

and the model was implemented in a private not-for profit center and a non-profit center that

targeted families and children at risk for developmental delays. Findings from the study showed

a functional relation between the PD model and teachers' use of emotionally supportive

instructional practices. Implications for the future include examining the impact of setting on

implementation of the PD model using a multiple baseline across settings design and examining

the role of teachers' thoughts and beliefs about negative emotion expressions on teachers' use of

emotionally supportive responses.

Chapter 1

Introduction

Statement of Problem

Racialized and gendered data of preschool-aged children attending public early childhood education (ECE) programs have guided the direction of the early childhood education field since Walter Gilliam's seminal study on expulsion rates in state preschool programs (Gilliam, 2005). Findings indicated that expulsion rates were three or more times higher in early childhood settings than in K-12 settings, with boys expelled at 4.5 times the rate of girls and Black preschoolers expelled at twice the rate of others (Meek & Gilliam, 2016). Black preschool-aged children were found to be 3.6 times as likely to receive one or more suspensions as white preschool-aged children. Black boys represent 19% of the male preschool enrollment, but 45% of male preschool children receive one or more out-of-school suspensions (Gilliam, 2005; Meek & Gilliam, 2016; Office of Civil Rights, 2014).

As a result of the above disparities and rates of suspension and expulsion in the early childhood setting, federal policy restricted the use of suspension and limited the use of expulsion in federal preschool programs (Administration for Children and Families, 2016a). Additionally, the Departments of Health and Human Services (HHS) and Education (DOE) released a joint policy statement to all state and local programs with recommendations for preventing and severely limiting the use of exclusionary discipline practices in early childhood settings (HHS &

DOE, 2014). Further, in order to address the disparate use of exclusionary discipline from a practical stand point, the joint statement states:

> The most important steps programs, schools, and States can take in preventing, severely limiting, and ultimately eliminating expulsion and suspension practices in early childhood settings are combining developmentally appropriate and nondiscriminatory discipline procedures and policies, with targeted workforce professional development focused on promoting the social-emotional and behavioral health of all children and enhancing teacher and provider self-reflective capacity to prevent and eliminate biases in practice. (HHS & DOE, 2014, p. 5)

Rationale for Study of Problem

Federal policy recommendations call for early childhood programs to invest in targeted PD that focus on emotional, social, and behavioral skills that address the disparate use of exclusionary discipline (ACF, 2016a; HHS & DOE, 2014). It is essential for preschool teachers to have the knowledge and skills to meet the needs of preschool aged children of color, particularly Black boys from disadvantaged backgrounds and/or at-risk for developmental delays and disability. Most importantly is developing and implementing PD models that are culturally sensitive and that target emotion related skills. This is particularly important due to the factors related to the effects of poverty and trauma on the healthy development of emotional competence in Black boys. A better understanding of the effects of PD models that include action planning, focused observations, and reflection and feedback, on preschool teachers' responses to negative emotion expressions of Black boys from disadvantaged backgrounds with low levels of emotional competence provides researchers and policy makers with evidence of effective models for addressing racial/ethnic, gender, and disability disparities.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of a professional development (PD) model using a practice-based coaching protocol (Snyder, 2007; Snyder et al., 2015) on preschool teachers' use of emotionally supportive instructional practices with preschool-aged Black boys with low levels of emotional competence. The goal of the intervention was to enhance teachers' use of supportive responses to negative emotion expressions of Black boys, specifically due to the links between emotional competence and school readiness (Denham, Bassett, & Zinsser, 2012a; Miller et al., 2005; Shields et al., 2001; Torres, Domitrovich, & Bierman, 2015).

Brief Review of the Literature

Existing research indicates that several factors may be responsible for the disproportionate rates of suspension and expulsion of children of color, specifically Black boys. Factors such as teacher' self-reflective capacity, explicit and implicit bias, lack of cultural awareness training, and effects of poverty and trauma have been listed (ACF, 2016a; Government Accountability Office, 2018; Gilliam et al., 2016; HHS & DOE, 2014). To properly address these issues with professional development models research is needed to understand the complex nature between emotional competence and school readiness and how adults contribute to differences in young children's emotional competence. Particularly important are the processes and mechanisms involved in developing emotional competence in preschool aged children.

Emotion Socialization

Emotion socialization is the process that young children undergo through adults' responses to their negative emotion expressions, particularly caregivers and teachers (Denham, 1994; Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinrad, 1998). Researchers concluded that caregivers and

teachers respond to negative emotion expressions of young children in three ways referred to as emotion socialization behaviors (ESBs); modeling negative expressivity, discussing or teaching about emotions, and contingent responses (Ashiabi, 2000; Denham et al., 2012a; Eisenberg et al., 1998). Theses ESBs have been linked to young children's emotion understanding or emotion knowledge (EK) and emotion regulation (Denham, 1994; Eisenberg et al., 1998). In addition, researchers described these behaviors as supportive and unsupportive to the development of emotional competence in preschool-aged children (Fabes, Poulin, Eisenberg, & Madden-Derdich, 2002; Gottman, Katz, & Hooven, 1996, Halberstadt, Thompson, Parker, & Dunsmore, 2008; Katz, Maliken, & Stettler, 2012; Lozada, Halberstadt, Craig, Dennis, & Dunsmore, 2016). Supportive responses were those that facilitated the growth of emotion understanding, while the converse was true of unsupportive responses.

Although emotion socialization has been associated with emotional competence needed for school readiness, examination across cultures and contexts has been limited. The existing body of literature provided an understanding of emotion socialization of middle-class European American caregivers and children and in the family context (Denham, 1994; Eisenberg et al., 1998). Also, emotion socialization has mainly been examined with caregiver-child dyads in laboratory settings, limiting the generalizability to the early childhood setting (Eisenberg et al., 1998). One set of researchers, however, have examined how early childhood educators act as socializers in the early learning setting and found teachers responded to negative emotion expressions in both supportive and unsupportive ways and that teachers needed further professional development and training to enhance these responses (Ahn, 2005; Ahn & Stifter, 2006).

Preschool teachers as socializers. The process of emotion socialization is understudied in the early childhood setting. Denham and colleagues (2012a) offered a theoretical model for understanding preschool teachers as socializers. Further, Ahn and Stifter (2006), conducted several studies to examine how preschool teachers respond to and teach about negative emotion expressions in the early learning classroom. These researchers found that preschool teachers often responded with teaching alternate means for expressing negative emotion or by assisting with problem-solving skills for managing negative emotion expressions (Ahn, 2005; Anh & Stifter, 2006). Other types of responses included teaching children constructive ways for regulating negative emotion, physical comfort, minimizing or dismissing, and ignoring negative emotion expressions (Ahn & Stifter, 2006). The researchers also concluded that the highest form of emotion socialization occurred when teachers taught alternate means for expressing negative emotion (Ahn, 2005). Teaching alternate means was consistent with the primary ESB discussions about negative emotion.

In addition to types of responses, studies that examined universal preschool emotion-focused programming and curricula have found that preschool teachers use several types of instructional approaches to emotion socialization in the classroom setting (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich, Cortes, & Greenberg, 2007; Upshur, Heyman, & Wenz-Gross, 2017). These instructional approaches often occurred independent of responses and were part of emotion-focused programming. However, teachers' instructional approaches to teaching about negative emotion expressions were often proactive and helped create nurturing environments for expressing negative emotion. Examples of instructional approaches were teaching about negative emotion through books, puppets, DVDs, and other extension activities (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007). Current research indicated that preschool teachers' use of books to

teach and discuss about negative emotions and expressions was highly supportive and effective for the development of emotional competence (Ahn, 2005; Domitrovich et al., 2007).

Emotional Competence

Emotion socialization plays a central role in the development of preschool-aged children's emotional competence. Existing data indicated that strong associations exist between young children's emotional competence and early school outcomes (Denham, Bassett, Brown, Way, & Steed, 2015; Denham et al., 2012b; Garner & Waajid, 2008; Izard, Trentacosta, King, & Mostow, 2004; Miller et al., 2005; Shields et al., 2001; Voltmer & von Salisch, 2017). Further, gains in EK were correlated with interpersonal skills (Garner & Waajid, 2008; Miller et al., 2005; Torres et al., 2015), regulation of emotions and classroom adjustment (Blankson et al., 2017; Denham et al., 2012b; Denham et al., 2015; Miller et al., 2006; Shields et al., 2001). Deficiencies in EK were correlated with families' and children's social status (income and education) rather than child's race/ethnicity or gender (Arsenio, Cooperman, & Lover, 2000; Bulotsky-Shearer, Bell, Romero & Carter, 2012; Denham et al., 2003; Duncan et al., 2007; Izard, Trentacosta, Schultz, 2008; McClelland, Morrison, & Holmes, 2000; Rhoades, Warren, Domitrovich, & Greenberg, 2011; Torres et al., 2015).

Race/Ethnicity, Gender, Disability, and Emotional Competence

Preschool-aged Black boys from disadvantaged backgrounds or at risk for delays or disabilities are faced with many challenges that impact their emotional, social, behavioral, and academic competencies (McCoy & Raver, 2011; Raver, 2004;). Addressing emotional competence in the context of exclusionary discipline practices is important, due to the negative association between Black boys' emotional competence and social and behavioral skills, which further affects their later school success (American Psychological Association, 2008; Graves &

Howes, 2011). Existing research shows persistent trends in the disparate implementation of exclusionary discipline practices in the early childhood setting (Gilliam, 2005; OCR, 2014, 2016, 2018). The research also showed that the majority of suspensions and expulsions were based on subjective behaviors such as defiance and disruption (Skiba, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002).

Further the association between the effects of poverty and mental health issues on the healthy development of emotional competence points to possible explanations for the high rates of suspension and expulsion of Black boys in targeted (federal and state) early learning programs. Also of importance is understanding the effect of child's race/ethnicity, gender, and/or disability on teachers' explicit and implicit biases and how theses biases influence teachers' responses to negative emotion expressions. Lastly, little to no research has examined how negative emotion expressions of Black boys are perceived in the early childhood setting (Gottman et al., 1996; Katz et al., 2012). This lack of understanding ignores the potential links between negative emotion expressions, externalized behaviors, and challenging behaviors in the early learning setting and presents a challenge for preschool teachers' role as socializer.

Models for Enhancing Emotional Competence

The existing research demonstrated that through emotion socialization, adults promote or hinder the development of emotional competence in young children. Several evidence-based PD and universal preschool emotion and social leaning models have demonstrated effectiveness for enhancing preschool teachers' use of emotional and social learning instructional practices and children's emotional competence (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007; Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011; Fox, Hemmeter, Snyder, Binder, & Clarke, 2011; Hemmeter, Snyder, Fox, & Algina, 2016; Snyder et al., 2015; Sutherland, Conroy, Vo, & Ludwig, 2015). Each of these models were found to include components such as on-going

coaching support, mentorship, focused observations, performance feedback, and opportunities for reflection and feedback. Further, emotion-focused programming such as Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS; Domitrovich et al., 2007) and Head Start REDI (Research-based, Developmentally Informed; Bierman et al., 2008) showed causal relationships between teachers' implementation of interventions and gains in children's EK and ER. These findings influenced the development of the PD model used in this study.

Theoretical Basis

The main theoretical frameworks that guided this study were emotion socialization theory (Denham et al., 1994; Eisenberg et al., 1998) and meta-emotion theory (Gottman et al., 1996, 1997). Due to the influence that preschool teachers have as emotion socializers, examining teachers' responses through frameworks that explain differences in emotion expression based on gender, race/ethnicity, and group dynamics has significant implications for coaching, mentorship, and PD in the early learning setting. While currently, emotion socialization has been viewed from the dominant perspective, there is a significant amount of research that supports understanding this process through culturally sensitive frameworks and theories (Dunbar et al., 2017; Lozada et al., 2016).

Emotion socialization theory. The theory of emotion socialization posits that adults communicate important messages to young children related to the understanding, expression, and regulation of emotions (Denham, 1994; Eisenberg et al., 1998). These messages have been found to be communicated through three primary emotion socialization behaviors. These three behaviors have been linked to the development of emotion-related skills in preschool aged children (Denham, 1994; Eisenberg et al., 1998). Multiple factors such as caregiver characteristics, child characteristics, cultural, and contextual have been theorized to influence

7

adults' responses to preschool-aged children's negative emotion expressions (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Further, Denham and colleagues (2012a) provided a framework that supports preschool teachers' role as emotion socializer. Their framework was developed based on existing emotion socialization literature and posed similar assumptions about the processes and mechanisms of emotion socialization.

  Meta-Emotion Philosophy. Gottman and colleagues (1996, 1997) introduced the theory of meta-emotion philosophy which explained how adults' beliefs and thoughts about emotions influenced their responses to negative emotion. For example, they found that some primary caregivers believed emotion expressions provided opportunities for teaching about emotions and encouraged emotional emotion expressions (emotion coaching), whereas, others believed negative emotions were harmful and dismissed their children's negative emotions (emotion dismissing). Caregivers' meta-emotion philosophy has been associated with various child outcomes. In a longitudinal study from preschool to middle childhood, caregivers' meta-emotion philosophy predicted greater inhibitory control, lower levels of behavior problems, higher levels of academic achievement, and better physical health (Gottman et al., 1996). Additionally, children whose caregivers were emotion coaching tended to be more emotionally adept, have high levels of emotional competence, and have better peer relationships than children whose parents were emotion dismissing (Denham, Mitchell-Copeland, Strandberg, Auerbach, & Blair, 1997; Gottman et al., 1996). Meta emotion theory has not been explored in the early learning setting with teachers yet has the potential for explaining differences in teachers' responses to negative emotions.

Research Question

Based on the above literature and overview of the study I hypothesized that a PD intervention would increase teachers' use of emotionally supportive responses to the negative emotion expressions of preschool aged Black boys in the early learning setting. To test this hypothesis this study asked the following research question:

What is the effect of a PD model on preschool teachers' use of emotionally supportive responses?

responses to negative emotion expressions of Black boys?

Research Design

A single-subject multiple baseline (MB; Gast, 2010; Kazdin, 1982) across participants design was used to examine the effect of a PD model on preschool teachers' emotionally supportive responses to Black boys' negative emotion expressions in the early learning setting. A maintenance phase was implemented to evaluate teachers' responses without support. Components were identified and refined during a pilot study. Data were analyzed visually using graphs. Reliability was established through interobserver agreement (IOA). Implementation fidelity and coaching integrity was assessed via checklist. Lastly, the model was meaningful to teachers as determined through social validity interviews.

Findings and Conclusions

This study examined the effects of a PD model using the practice-based coaching protocol (Snyder, 2007; Snyder et al., 2015;) on preschool teachers' use of emotionally supportive responses to negative emotion expressions of preschool-aged Black boys from economically disadvantaged backgrounds. This study found a functional relation between preschool teachers' implementation of emotionally supportive instructional practices to negative

emotion expressions of Black boys and showed how teachers' instructional styles and approaches work together during the process of emotion socialization in the early learning setting.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of a PD model, using a practice-based coaching protocol (Snyder, 2007; Snyder et al., 2015) on preschool teachers' use of emotionally supportive instructional practices to negative emotion expressions of Black boys with low levels of emotional competence. Findings from the study showed a functional relation between the PD model and teachers' use of emotionally supportive instructional practices. Findings showed when preschool teachers receive support on the implementation of emotionally supportive responses in their natural environment they developed the capacity to respond supportively to negative emotion expressions of Black boys with low levels of emotional competence. Implications for the future include examining the impact of setting on implementation of the PD model using a multiple baseline across settings design and examining the role of teachers' thoughts and beliefs about negative emotion expressions on teachers' use of emotionally supportive responses.

Definition of Terms

Black: Refers to all people across the African Diaspora (mainly Black Americans, Africans, and Caribbean peoples).

Continental African: Refers to Africans who live in America.

Emotion Socialization: The process that young children undergo through close interactions with adult caregivers. Through this process young children become aware of emotions in self and others.

Emotion Socialization Behaviors: There are three emotion socialization behaviors: modeling emotion expressiveness, discussion of emotions, and contingent responses.

Emotional Competence: The abilities to understand, label, recognize, appropriately express and regulate emotions

Emotion Knowledge: Young child's abilities to understand and label emotion expressions.

Emotion Regulation: Young child's ability to recognize and modify emotions in socially appropriate and desirable ways.

Instructional style: Teachers' meta-emotion philosophy; emotion coaching and emotion dismissing

Instructional approach: Teachers' implementation of existing emotion focused curricula or programming**.**

Chapter II

Literature Review

The purpose of this literature review is to discuss the existing literature related to preschool teachers' emotion socialization practices and responses to negative emotion. The aims of this section is to describe the mechanisms of emotion socialization and factors that influence each and to understand how preschool teachers respond to negative emotion/expressions of preschool-aged Black boys. Due to the interdisciplinary nature of emotional development, the review focused on the developmental psychology, parenting, and the early childhood literature. Also, for generalizability parent and caregiver were used interchangeably. The review was not systematic and was guided by the seminal review of the emotion socialization literature by Eisenberg and colleagues (1998).

Thus, research included in this review was from 1998 to 2018. The review was conducted through searches of electronic databases such as ProQuest, EBSCO, and Google Scholar. Reviews of references were also used in this review. Example searched keywords were "emotion socialization," "emotional competence," "emotion knowledge," "emotion understanding," "preschool," "Black boys," "social emotional," and "intervention." Research that was conducted outside the United States and with populations older than age eight were excluded. Studies that did not include a measure of emotional competence were also excluded.

Emotion Socialization

The literature defined emotion socialization as a process and set of behaviors for facilitating emotion understanding in young children, particularly preschool-aged children (Denham, 1994; Eisenberg et al., 1998). The process of emotion socialization has been examined with caregivers and young children and mainly in the context of typical negative emotion expression (Eisenberg et al., 1998). Little research exist on young children's intense negative emotion. In an illustrative review, Eisenberg and colleagues (1998) summarized the emotion socialization literature and found little to no data on caregivers' reactions to negative emotions in young children and insufficient data to conduct a meta-analytic review (Eisenberg et al., 1998). The researchers summarized the findings into a heuristic model that explained the relationship between each mechanism of the emotion socialization process. The model suggested that emotion socialization occurred through three behaviors and that these behaviors were influenced by four factors.

The three emotion socialization behaviors were: modeling emotion expressions, contingently responding to emotion expression, and discussions about emotions (see Table 1) Ashiabi, 2000, Denham et al., 2012a; Eisenberg et al., 1998). Through these behaviors caregivers teach young children how to recognize, understand, label, and express negative emotion in socially desirable ways. Factors that influenced caregivers' behaviors were caregiver characteristics (race/ethnicity, gender, beliefs); child characteristics (race/ethnicity, gender, age); context (home and school) and culture (family of origin, family expressiveness, and norms and stereotypes of emotion expression). The model also described the relationship between caregivers' responses and children's emotional and social competence. These outcomes were directly related to the context in which the negative emotion occurred (Eisenberg et al., 1998).

The model introduced by Eisenberg and colleagues (1998) prompted other researchers in the early childhood field to examine these mechanism in the preschool context. Denham and colleagues (2012a) offered a framework for understanding preschool teachers as socializers. The researchers extended the findings from the Eisenberg review and posited that preschool teachers' role as emotion socializer is just as important as caregivers' roles and that preschool teachers engaged in the same behaviors. However, due to the lack of research that has examined these behaviors with preschool teachers, the researchers concluded that it is unknown how mechanisms of emotion socialization occurred in the preschool setting (Ashiabi, 2000; Denham et al., 2012a).

The current body of research on emotion socialization further described the influence of caregiver/teacher and child characteristics, context, and culture on behaviors to negative emotion. These factors were associated with how supportive caregivers were of young children's negative emotion. For example, research that has examined caregivers' family of origin and beliefs and thoughts about emotion showed that these factors explained whether caregivers viewed negative emotion as opportunities for teaching or as harmful and needing to be stopped (Fabes et al., 2002; Gottman et al., 1996; Katz et al., 2012; Lozada et al., 2016). Also, many racial/ethnic children entering preschool, have been socialized in contexts and cultures much different than the preschool setting which may create additional barriers for children who may be at risk for developing delays in emotional competence (McCoy & Raver, 2011; Shields et al., 2001). The following sections will describe the three behaviors in more detail and the relationship between emotion socialization and emotional competence.

Emotion socialization behaviors (ESBs). The literature indicated that caregivers/teachers teach children about their negative emotion and enhance their emotional

competence through three behaviors (Ashiabi, 2000; Denham et al., 2012a; Eisenberg et al., 1998). See Table 1 for brief descriptions of these behaviors. First, by modeling emotion caregivers teach children which emotions are acceptable, how to express them in context, and the behaviors associated with expressions (Ashiabi, 2000; Denham et al., 2012a, Eisenberg et al., 1998). Caregivers who modeled high levels of negative emotion tended to have children that showed negative emotion (Halberstadt, et al. 2008). Secondly, caregivers' contingent responses were shown to assist children with differentiating among emotions. These behaviors were found to be either supportive or unsupportive for the development of emotion understanding (Fabes et al., 2002).

Optimal behaviors associated with caregiver's contingent responses were those that assisted children with understanding emotion and expressing emotion in socially desirable ways. Behaviors that demonstrated tolerance and acceptance were found to be supportive and those that ignored, dismissed, or minimized negative emotion, failed to teach about emotions (Ashiabi, 2000; Denham et al., 2012a; Fabes et al., 2002). Lastly, the third behavior was discussions about emotions. Caregivers taught children about their negative emotion and experiences through discussions about emotions. Caregivers who encouraged and validated negative emotion used direct commands and provided instructions about emotions when discussing emotion (Ashiabi, 2000; Eisenberg et al., 1998). Through discussions caregivers also labeled emotions, assisted with identifying emotion vocabulary, and provided with constructive means for expressing emotions.

In addition to caregivers' behaviors, research related to parenting styles indicated that caregivers' thoughts and feelings about their own emotions contributed to how they responded to their own child's affect (Gottman & DeClaire, 1997; Katz, Maliken, & Stettler, 2012; Katz, &

Hooven, 1996; Katz & Gottman, 1986). This dimension of parenting was referred to as parental meta-emotion philosophy. Researchers concluded that caregivers were either emotion coaching or emotion dismissing. Emotion coaching caregivers viewed children's negative emotion as an opportunity for intimacy or teaching, validated and labeled children's emotion, and taught constructive ways for handling emotion. Caregivers who dismissed emotion tended to deny or ignore emotion, viewed their role as helping make the emotion go away, and communicated that emotions were unimportant (Katz et al., 2012).

Although, much is known about caregivers' behaviors to young children's negative emotion, there is little to no evidence that explained how these behaviors influenced young children's emotional competence. The next section will detail results from findings that have examined aspects of emotional competence, specifically emotion knowledge and its relationship to school readiness outcomes for preschool-aged children. Due to the influence of emotion socialization on young children's emotion knowledge, it is important to understand preschool teachers' supportive responses support the growth of emotional competence.

Table 1

Types of Behaviors, Responses, and Beliefs

Authors		Definitions	Child Outcomes
Ashiabi (2000)	Behaviors	Modeling: emotional reactions to children's negative emotion	EK, EE, ER
Denham et al. (2012)		Discussions about emotions: provide children with skills for expressing and regulation	
Eisenberg et al. (1998)		Contingent Responding: see responses, can be supportive or unsupportive	
Ahn (2005)	Responses	Supportive: physical comfort, teaching constructive or alternate means to express emotion, empathy, intervening in the cause of emotion	EK, EE, ER
Ahn & Stifter (2006)		Unsupportive: distract, ignore, dismiss, punish, minimize	
Gottman et al. (1996)	Beliefs	Emotion coaching: view negative emotion as an opportunity for intimacy or teaching, validate and label children's emotion, and discuss goals and strategies for dealing with the situation that led to the emotion.	EK
Katz et al. (2012)		Emotion dismissive: tend to deny or ignore emotion, view role as helping to change negative emotions or make them go away quickly.	

Emotional Competence and School Readiness

This current section will discuss the aspects of emotional competence influenced by caregivers' and teachers' emotion socialization behaviors and responses and discuss the link between emotional competence and school readiness outcomes. The primary aspect of emotional competence influenced by emotion socialization was EK. The focus on EK and its association with school-related competence derives from the view that understanding one's own and others' emotions is among the most important of the social and emotional learning skills (Ross, Powell, & Elias, 2002) and an important contributor to the academic learning that occurs in school (Pianta, 1999). Further, deficiencies in emotion knowledge may function to isolate children from peers and teachers, thereby reducing their opportunities for engaging in important educational exchanges and potentially affecting their motivation to learn (Izard et al., 2004).

Emotion knowledge, a multidimensional construct, refers to the ability to understand, recognize, and label emotions in self and others (Denham, 1986; Ross et al., 2002). Gains in EK were correlated with interpersonal skills (Garner & Waajid, 2008; Miller et al., 2005; Torres, Domitrovich, & Bierman, 2015) regulation of emotions, executive functioning, classroom adjustment, verbal ability, and kindergarten adjustment in preschool-aged children (Blankson et al., 2017; Denham et al., 2012b; Denham, Brown, Way, & Steed, 2015; Miller et al., 2006; Shields et al., 2001). Deficiencies in EK were correlated with families and children's social status (income and education) rather than child's race/ethnicity or gender (Arsenio et al., 2000; Bulotsky-Shearer, Bell, Romero & Carter, 2012; Denham et al., 2003; Duncan et al., 2007; Izard, et al., 2008; McClelland, Morrison, & Holmes, 2000; Rhoades, Warren, Domitrovich, & Greenberg, 2011; Torres et al., 2015).

Several researchers have examined the role of emotional competence in young children's early school success (see Table 2). Although current data were correlational, assumptions can be made to suggest that emotional competence was just as, if not more important, as social, behavioral, and academic skills, particularly in Boys of color. Torres, Domitrovich and Bierman (2015), using longitudinal data of two cohorts of 164 majority white four-year olds (56% girls) in Head Start, conducted a path analysis to examine whether preschool gains in emotion knowledge mediated the association between preschool interpersonal skills and kindergarten achievement. Findings showed positive interpersonal relationships predicted gains in emotion knowledge during preschool and kindergarten achievement. The researchers also found a direct association between interpersonal relationships with teachers and peers and gains in emotion knowledge, and that positive peer interactions also fostered emotion knowledge.

In a similar study, Garner and Waajid (2008) conducted a regression analysis of 74 majority Black participants from a university preschool program (59% Black) with mostly middle-income students, and a community preschool program (97% Black) serving low income students. The mean age of participants was 48.93 months and included mostly boys (40 boys, 34 girls). The researchers investigated the contribution of emotion knowledge and quality of teacher-child relationships and preschoolers' school competence. School competence was assessed both indirectly (teacher report) and directly (standardized instrument) and emotion situation knowledge was assessed by emotion vignettes (Michalson & Lewis, 1985). Based on direct assessment data, analysis of a three-step hierarchical regression showed emotion situation knowledge positively predicted school competence. Emotion situation knowledge was included on the third step. The model for teacher report of school competence and emotion situation knowledge found that age, income level, and gender accounted for 34% of the variance.

Teachers rated older and higher income girls as more competent. Including emotion situation knowledge in the second step of the model did not produce a significant result.

Further, Miller and colleagues (2005) studied the relations between emotion knowledge and social status and peer experiences consisting of low income participants in kindergarten and first grade in an urban area. The sample included 141 kindergarten and first grade children who were majority Latino (70%; 42% boys). The researchers examined relations between emotion knowledge and social and peer interactions. Direct assessments were used to measure emotion knowledge and social interactions, and results suggested that emotion knowledge increased over time and predicted social functioning. Emotion knowledge was also associated with positive peer nomination and fewer instances of peer victimization. Findings also support the assumption that emotion knowledge is related to more effective social functioning in low income populations.

Blankson and colleagues (2017) used a sample of 263 children from middle income background from a larger study. Data were collected from participants initially at age three and again at ages four and five. Participants attended preschool or child care centers and were majority white (58%) and female (52%). The researchers examined the relation between cognitive and emotional processes as predictors of school success using multiple measures to assess emotion and cognition variables. They also sought to simultaneously examine four emotion processes: (1) emotion regulation; (2) executive functioning; (3) emotion knowledge; (4) metacognition, for the first time longitudinally. This was accomplished by identifying proximal and distal predictors of achievement and school adjustment along with mediational pathways.

Findings suggested five mediational pathways that lead to school success. Three pathways (3-year parent-report emotion regulation to 4-year executive functioning, 3-year emotion knowledge to 4-year executive functioning, and 3-year metacognition to 4-year executive functioning) significantly predicted school performance and two pathways significantly predicted social skills (3-year executive functioning to 4-year metacognition and 3-year emotion knowledge to 4-year metacognition). Findings also indicated that emotion knowledge at four years old was a proximal predictor of kindergarten school success based on teacher rated school performance. The study's findings also suggest that based on teacher perceptions, emotion knowledge may matter more than other processes, such as emotion regulation, when reporting on social skills. The researchers also found executive functioning played a major role as a proximal predictor of reading achievement, including teacher reported school performance and classroom work habits.

Denham and colleagues (2015) extended previous research on the association of emotion knowledge with executive control. The researchers conducted a quasi-experimental study with a large sample (n=293) of preschoolers attending Head Start or private childcare centers. Participants were mostly white and 50% male, and approximately 50% of the mothers had a high school diploma or less. Emotion knowledge and executive control were measured using direct assessments; Affect Knowledge Test – Shortened (AKT-S; Denham & Couchoud, 1990a, 1990b; Denham et al., 2003) and Preschool Self-Regulation Assessment (PSRA; Smith-Donald et al., 2007). Results from the regression analyses, after controlling for maternal education, age, and gender, found that executive control did make a significant positive contribution to variance in emotion knowledge and is an important support for developing emotion knowledge. Emotion knowledge mediated the link between executive control and social competence. Researchers

suggest that beyond links with social competence and classroom adjustment executive control's support of emotion knowledge is an opportunity for policy and practice implications (Denham et al., 2015). Additionally, emotion knowledge predicted teachers' views of preschoolers' social competence and classroom adjustment.

Shields and colleagues (2001) conducted a short term longitudinal study investigating emotion regulation and emotion knowledge contributions to school adjustment in a predominantly white sample of Head Start preschool girls. The sample included a total of 49 children (27 girls), with a mean age of four years old. Data were collected at three different time points (first two months of school, winter months, and last month of school). At Time 1 teachers' ratings of children's emotion regulation and behavior problems were assessed to determine whether emotion regulation contributed to classroom adjustment. At Time 2 Children's emotion knowledge was assessed to determine whether it influenced classroom adjustment and verbal ability to control for influence of verbal fluency. Lastly, at Time 3 teacher ratings of school adjustment and emotion regulation were assessed. Findings indicate that emotion regulation and emotion knowledge were significantly related to classroom adjustment after controlling for age, verbal ability, and disruptive behaviors.

Researchers concluded that children with age appropriate emotion knowledge were better able to navigate school and that emotion regulation and emotion knowledge are distinct constructs that have implications for young children's classroom adjustment. Miller and colleagues (2006) examined the connection between different components of emotional competence (emotion knowledge, emotion expression, and emotion regulation) and how these different components related to classroom adjustment using a quasi-experimental study with a sample of 60 Head Start children with a mean age of 4.34 years old. The sample was majority

white and lower income; information on gender was not included. Emotion regulation, social skills, aggression, and anxiety were assessed by teacher ratings, expressed emotion and emotion knowledge, through interviews and emotion regulation through direct assessment; (ERC; Shields & Cicchetti, 1997).

Findings were similar to the findings of Blankson et al. (2017) and Denham et al (2015), as these researchers found emotion knowledge predicted positive regulation after covarying for verbal ability. Additional findings showed that displays of negative emotion were related to teachers' ratings of emotion regulation; children who expressed more negative emotion were perceived to be less regulated. There was also no association found between emotion knowledge and observed emotional expression, leading researchers to conclude that emotion knowledge is a static set of sociocognitive skills a child possesses and emotional expressions are more dynamic. Lastly, Denham and colleagues (2012c) examined emotion knowledge development and its relation to both emotion regulation and school success, using a sample similar to the previous studies (*n*=322, majority white (43.5%) and Black (38.5%); 50% girls). Participants attended Head Start and private child care and were from low and middle income families. The mean age of participants at Time 1 was 49.4 months.

There was a significant difference between median maternal education in Head Start and private child care. Emotion knowledge and emotion regulation were measured by direct assessment (AKT - S and PSRA) and school adjustment by teacher rating. Data were collected at two time points: (1) Time 1, late fall to early spring and (2) Time 2, school year end. Study findings were similar to the prior studies that examined the association between emotion knowledge and emotion regulation and their relation to school success. At Time 1 emotion knowledge was related to school adjustment. Kindergarten school success was predicted by a

component of emotion knowledge (situation knowledge). Researchers concluded that children at risk had lower emotion knowledge than children with age appropriate understanding of emotion and benefit the most from their ability to self-regulate.

The regulation of emotions has also been investigated in preschool-aged children and correlated with positive school outcomes. The ability to regulate emotions include the awareness of one's feelings and how to monitor and modify them (Denham et al., 2012). This skill was related to young children's social adjustment (relationships with peers, attentiveness, school adjustment; Miller et al., 2006; Shields et al., 2001). Both emotion knowledge and the regulation of emotions were linked to emotion expressions in young children, however, the relationship is unknown (Denham et al., 2012a; Eisenberg et al., 1998). The results from the above review indicated a close relationship between aspects of young children's emotional competence and skills needed for school success. Further, the results indicated that children's socioeconomic status predicted their emotion knowledge more than race/ethnicity and results related to gender were inconclusive. The next section will describe the literature related to how preschool teachers' act as emotion socializers of the above components.

Table 2

Practice-Based Coaching Components of Emotion-based SEL Programs

Author	Participants	Setting	Intervention	Support	Instructional Practices
Bierman et al. (2008)	Child N=356 25% Black 17% Latino 54% girls	Head Start (rural/urban)	Head Start REDI	3-d PD 1-d booster Weekly mentorship (4-h; modeling, coaching, feedback) Weekly & monthly fidelity checks	reading, telling stories, puppetry, turtle technique, emotion faces chart
Domitrovich et al. (2007)	Child N=246 47% Black 38% white 10% Latino	Head Start (urban)	PATHS	2-d training 1-d booster Monthly classroom visits by coordinators (fidelity) Individual/small group mentorship	reading, telling stories, puppetry, turtle technique, emotion faces chart
Izard et al. (2004, 2008)	Child N=116 44% white 31% Black 10% Latino 55% boys	Head Start (rural/urban)	Emotion-Based Curriculum	2-h seminar 2 manuals Bi-weekly mentorship Bi-weekly fidelity checks	puppets, interactive games, and books
Upshur et al. (2017)	Child N=113/96 51.5% Latinx 25.4% Black 12.3% white 64% male	Community (urban)	Second Step	2-d training 7 monthly 2-h trainings Y1 5 bi-monthly sessions Y2 Monthly fidelity checks	posters, puppets, and books

Preschool Teachers' Responses and Instructional Approaches

The current literature on the types of preschool teachers' responses was limited. In addition to a lack of findings, current findings were not generalizable to racial/ethnic children, specifically Black boys, served by programs that target children and families from economically disadvantaged backgrounds nor children with at risk for delays or with intense negative emotion expressions. While research indicated that preschool teachers engaged in the same ESBs as caregivers, it is unknown what types of responses were associated with the three ESBs in the preschool setting (Denham et al., 2012a). Ahn and Stifter (2005, 2006) conducted an observational study that examined preschool teachers' responses to young children's negative emotion in the early childhood education setting. The researchers used both qualitative and quantitative methods to analyze the findings (see Table 2). The quantitative study used an event recording method and the qualitative study used axial coding. The participants were the same for both studies. The participants included six lead toddler and six lead preschool teachers in private centers. Teachers were majority white and female.

Using a researcher developed coding scheme, the researchers coded seven different responses to negative emotion: ignore, physical comfort, negative response, teaching constructive or alternative means for expressing emotion, intervening in the source of negative emotion, showing empathy and validating, distraction, and other (see Table 2; Ahn & Stifter, 2006). They also found that that preschool teachers seldom responded with supportive responses such as teaching constructive or alternate means for expressing emotion (15.0%). Preschool teachers' primary responses included intervening in the cause of the emotion (38%) and negative responses (9%) such as dismissing, ignoring, and minimizing (Ahn & Stifter, 2006). The

researchers also concluded that teachers who intervened, often offered problem-solving solutions and missed opportunities to label and/or validate emotion expression.

Results from the qualitative findings indicated that teaching constructive means for expressing emotions was supportive of the growth of emotional competence (Ahn, 2005). Findings also showed that teachers engaged in emotion socialization when teaching and discussing emotions. The researchers also concluded that although most teachers responded positively to young children's negative emotion, several teachers seldom taught constructive ways for expressing emotion and often minimized or ignored children's expressions (Ahn, 2005; Ahn & Stifter, 2006). Findings from the two above studies indicated that teachers responded to negative emotion expression in various ways, engaged in emotion socialization when teaching constructive means, and that teachers' responses need to be improved (Ahn, 2005; Ahn & Stifter, 2006).

More recently, in a correlational study researchers examined the relationships between preschool teachers' responses and children's emotional and social competence with peers (Bassett et al., 2017). Based on findings from the above studies, researchers examined whether preschool teachers' responses to negative emotion predicted children's emotional and social behaviors with peers. The study included 80 teachers and 337 children. The teachers were majority white and female. The children were majority white. The settings were private centers and Head Start. Observations of teachers' modeling and contingent responses were coded using the FOCAL-T (Denham & Bassett, 2013). The two types of coded responses were behavioral and emotional. Behavioral responses included punitive responses, problem-focused responses, emotion-focused, validating, and minimizing. There was one emotional response: distress responses. Observed child negative emotions were sad and angry (Bassett et al., 2017). This

study did not examine preschool teachers' responses that supported the growth of emotion knowledge.

The researchers narrowed down the types of responses to supportive, unsupportive, and validating. Results indicated that preschool teachers were more likely to respond with supportive responses (assisting a child or trying to make them feel better). Results also showed that teachers who responded unsupportively tended to have children that display more negative behaviors, the same is true for the converse (Bassett et al., 2017). An additional finding showed that teachers' positive responses did not predict children's emotional and social behaviors. This is consistent with findings from Ahn (2005) that indicated that positive responses such as providing physical comfort, expressing empathy, and distracting were not related to the growth of emotion understanding. Findings from this study also showed children displayed positive behaviors when they had teachers who displayed fewer negative responses, children demonstrated less negative behavior when teachers validated emotions, and children displayed more regulated behaviors when teachers displayed more positive responses (Bassett et al., 2017).

Instructional approaches. Preschool teachers also engaged in emotion socialization when teaching about emotions through curricula, programming, and/or lesson plans (see Table 2; Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 20007; Izard et al., 2008). In order to understand the effect of preschool teachers' instructional approaches on young children's emotional competence, a review of universal preschool emotion-focused interventions was conducted. A complete review of these programs was beyond the scope of this review but examples of prevention interventions for preschool children with demonstrated efficacy were Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS; Domitrovich et al., 2007), Head Start REDI (Bierman et al., 2008), Emotions Course (Izard et al., 2004) and Second Step (Upshur et al., 2017). The

focus of these intervention studies were to examine the types of instructional approaches preschool teachers used to create environments that were responsive to negative emotion expression (see Table 2; Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007; Izard et al., 2008; Izard, Trentacosta, King, & Mostow, 2004; Nix, Bierman, Domitrovich, & Gill, 2013; Upshur et al., 2017; Webster-Stratton, Reid, & Hammond, 2004).

Two of the studies used the same preschool curricula, PATHS (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007). In the Bierman study, the researchers implemented the PATHS curriculum with the existing Head Start curriculum. Each study was conducted with Head Start children. The primary objectives of the PATHS curriculum were to develop children's awareness and communication of emotion and to develop children's self-regulation skills. Teachers used lessons, extension activities, and scaffolded children's learning during natural situations (Domitrovich et al., 2007). Children who had teachers who received the intervention were found to have higher emotion knowledge and were rated as more emotional and socially competent by caregivers and teachers (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007). A second intervention was the Emotion Course (Izard et al., 2008). This study was also conducted with Head Start children. The primary goal was to increase preschool children' emotion knowledge and skills for regulating emotions. The intervention used lessons focused on sadness, anger, and fear. Teachers used puppets, interactive games, and books relating to aspects of emotions (Izard et al., 2008). During lessons children were given opportunities to label or name expressions on a poster. Teachers also decoded emotion expressions with children. The teacher also used activities that helped children learn about emotion, learn differences in emotion, and develop empathy.

Results from the study showed that the intervention did not have an effect on children's emotion knowledge as a whole but did find significance in 4-year-old children. Additionally, the

researchers found a significant effect on both children's internalizing and externalizing behaviors and negative emotion expression (Izard et al, 2008). A third curriculum was Second Step (Committee for Children, 2011; Upshur et al., 2017). This intervention was used with Head Start and Community-based settings. This curriculum included aspects of emotional and social learning and executive functioning. The curriculum focused on preschool children's emotion knowledge, regulation, and empathy and only included two of five units on aspects of emotion expression (Upshur et al., 2017). One unit focused on empathy and the other focused on emotion knowledge, regulation, and problem solving skills. Teachers used whole classroom or small group activities that used posters, puppets, and books.

Intervention teachers were asked to add the SSEL curriculum activities to their daily routines and to integrate SSEL activities with other curriculum requirements. Most of the classrooms used Creative Curriculum (Dodge, Colker, & Heroman, 2002). Results from an efficacy study showed marginal significance for the effect of the intervention on children's emotional competence (Upshur et al., 2017). Results from the above studies indicate that teachers who create environments that are responsive to negative emotion tended to have children with higher emotional competence and less negative behaviors. These findings are relevant to this review because of the relationship between caregivers' beliefs and thoughts about emotions. Research indicate that teachers who engage in emotion dismissing behaviors did not have environments that supportive the growth of emotion (Ahn, 2005).

Lastly, a common component amongst all programs was the on-going coaching and support teachers received as part of the prevention program (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007; Izard et al., 2008). Teachers demonstrated higher implementation fidelity of socialization practices with on-going support compared to control groups. The primary teacher

emotion socialization behaviors targeted in these prevention programs were emotion coaching and behaviors that taught about emotions. Findings showed that teachers in the intervention groups had children with greater emotion vocabulary, emotion knowledge, social problem-solving, and rated as more socially competent by caregivers and teachers than control groups (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007).

In addition to instructional approaches, teachers also implemented environmental and instructional supports to negative emotion expressions. These supports are highlighted in the Division for Early Childhood's (DEC) Recommended Practices (2014) and encompassed the physical environment, social environment, and temporal environment (DEC, 2014). Practices were described as aspects of space, materials, equipment, routines, and activities. Limited research has examined the relationship between these practices and preschool-aged children's emotional competence.

Why Black Boys?

The previous sections described the process of emotion socialization and its overall influence on emotion understanding in preschool-aged children. Due to the focus of this review on preschool-aged Black boys from economically disadvantaged backgrounds, this current section described why early childhood education research, policy, and practice should target the emotional development of Boys of color, specifically Black boys. The existing literature points to several factors that influence the healthy growth of emotional competence in Black boys from economically disadvantaged backgrounds: educational, cultural, and contextual. Educational factors such as disproportionate discipline practices and special education referrals indicate gaps in research, policy, and practice related to preschool-aged Black boys. Due to the lack of early childhood research that has examined the display of negative emotion expressions with

racial/ethnic populations, it is unknown how these displays are perceived. Emerging research has demonstrated that preschool teachers suspect behavior problems with preschool-aged Black boys even when no problem behavior is present, indicating the presence of implicit bias (Gilliam et al., 2016; Meek & Gilliam, 2016). Other research has also posited that implicit bias plays a role in the disproportionate suspensions and expulsions of Black boys (Gilliam et al., 2016; Girvan, Gion, McIntosh, & Smolkowski, 2017; Meek & Gilliam, 2016).

Findings also indicated that Black boys are perceived as older, less innocent, more culpable, more defiant, disruptive, and disrespectful (Girvan, et al., 2017; Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002). However, the literature concludes that Black boys were no more likely to exhibit different emotional and social behaviors than other groups of children, contrary to some recent research (Gilliam et al., 2005; Graves & Howes, 2011). Findings also concluded that implicit bias may be responsible for disproportionate use of exclusionary discipline and referrals to special education with Black boys (Blanchett, 2006; Skiba et al., 2002). These educational factors introduce additional barriers to the healthy development of emotional competence with Black boys due to negative educational experiences, missed instructional time, and missed opportunities for referrals to early intervention services.

Moreover, teacher-child relationships have been found to significantly influence the development of emotional competence. Research indicates that teachers reported less quality relationships with boys than girls and although inconclusive, data on racial/ethnic mismatch show Black boys benefit from teachers of the same race and gender. This has significant implications for practice, particularly related to culturally responsive teaching practices and congruence across contexts. Research shows that nurturing and supportive environments are the optimal setting for developing emotional competence (Hamre & Pianta, 2006; Hemmeter et al.,

2016; Pianta et al., 2005). Findings indicated that teachers' perceptions of children's behavior had a significant impact on how they treat young children and that teacher-child interactions were affected by the child's racial/ethnic background (Howes & Shivers, 2006). Data indicate that teachers whose race/ethnicity matched child's, reported better quality relationships and were emotionally supported (Murray, Wass, & Murray, 2008). Close and supportive relationships have been found to benefit children of color and found to decrease teacher ratings of aggression (Meehan, Hughes, & Cavell, 2003). Moreover, Black boys are overrepresented on a national level in the category of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, thus additional research in this area is needed in order to examine if there is such a relationship.

Furthermore, cultural and contextual factors have impacted the emotional competence of preschool-aged Black boys from economically disadvantaged backgrounds. Research indicates that factors related to living in economically distressed communities and cultural incongruence between home and school place young children of color at risk for delays that impact emotional and social skills (Raver, 2004; Raver 2003; Shields et al., 2001). In the preschool setting these delays may interfere with young children's ability to form positive peer relationships (Garner & Waajid, 2008; Torres, Domitrovich, & Bierman, 2015; Miller et al., 2005) and ability to adjust to the structured daily routine of the preschool setting (Blankson et al., 2017; Denham et al., 2012; Denham et al., 2015; Miller et al., 2006; Shields et al., 2001).

Additionally, children and families from economically disadvantaged backgrounds have been shown to have lower emotional competence and a harder time adjusting to school than their middle-income peers (Ackerman, Brown, & Izard, 2004; Denham et al., 2003). Because children of color are more likely to be poor, face a higher number of poverty-related risks, and are disproportionately identified as having emotional and behavioral difficulties, it is first important

33

to understand the impact of cultural and contextual factors on preschool aged Black boys'

emotional competence (Pew Research Center, 2015; Raver, 2004). Nationally 38% of Black

children live in poverty (Patten & Krogstad, 2015). Several other reports have also found that the

national poverty rate of Black Americans is doubled the rate of whites (DeSilver, 2014;

Fontenot, Semega, & Kollar, 2017). The national poverty rates for working age adult Black men

and women are 21% and 26%, respectively (Bureau of Labor Statistics; BLS, 2018). While many

Black children and families live in poverty, Head Start was created with a goal of ameliorating

deep poverty in Black families, particularly single-mother headed households (Health and

Human Services, 2010; Moynihan, 1965). Unfortunately, over 50 years later, many young Black

children still live in poverty and face educational inequities, discrimination, and bias as a result

of their economic status and cultural differences (Blanchett, 2006; Gilliam et al., 2016; Losen &

Skiba, 2010).

Lastly, although limited data exist on the process of emotion socialization with

racially/ethnically diverse families, emerging research indicates differences in emotion

socialization based on family origin (Dunbar et al., 2017; Gottman et al., 1997; Lozada et al.,

2016). Understanding these differences has implications for teachers of preschool-aged Black

boys. Preliminary findings indicated that Black families prepared their children for racial bias

and for how others view their emotion expressions (Dunbar et al., 2017; Lozada et al., 2016).

Particularly, research indicates that the expressions, mannerisms, and styles of Black boys have

been misunderstood and inhibited in educational settings (Belgrave & Allison, 2018). For

example, parents may use suppression strategies such as telling child to take a neutral stance

when dealing with negative emotion. Black parents also have been shown to teach their sons to

comply with police and show no emotion (Thomas & Blackmon, 2005).

The educational, cultural, and contextual factors that influence preschool-aged Black boys emotional competence and the lack of examination of emotion socialization in the preschool setting gives cause for evaluating the role of preschool teachers as socializers that serve Black boys from economically disadvantaged backgrounds. In addition to evaluating the role of preschool teachers, understanding how to enhance preschool teachers' behaviors and responses to young children's negative emotion is just as important. Due to the effect of coaching on teachers use of effective instructional practices as demonstrated in the prevention programs, the practice-based coaching model (PBC) has demonstrated efficacy with improving teachers implementation fidelity (Snyder et al., 2015; Snyder, 2007). Further, due to the design of the PBC model (Snyder et al., 2015), it can be targeted and culturally sensitive. Current federal policy highly recommends that early childhood education programs implement professional development and training models that are targeted, contextual and culturally sensitive (ACF, 2016a). For Black boys this examination would contribute significantly to the literature.

Practice-Based Coaching Model

The practice-based coaching model is a professional development framework defined as a cyclical process in which coach and teacher work together in an ongoing process for supporting preschool teachers' implementation of effective practices. Enhancing preschool teachers' ESBs using a PBC protocol may improve their use and improve emotional outcomes in young children (Sutherland et al., 2015). The PBC model (Snyder et al., 2015) is embedded within the daily preschool routine and has demonstrated efficacy and teacher satisfaction (Fox et al., 2011; Snyder, 2007; Snyder et al., 2015; Sutherland et al., 2015). Using the PBC model (1) allowed coach and preschool caregiver to work together to develop an action plan and goals for the target

behavior, (2) allowed for direct observations of behaviors and provides the data for coach and caregiver to discuss, (3) and allowed for shared feedback and reflections on ease of use, feasibility, and satisfaction. Also, through this model, the collaborative nature between coach and caregiver ensured practices were tailored to teacher, child, and context. Empirical data also showed that PBC models (Snyder et al., 2015) had significant effects on teachers' fidelity of implementation of targeted teaching practices.

Discussion and Implications

The purpose of this review was to discuss the existing literature related to how preschool teachers respond to negative emotion/expression and facilitate the growth of emotion knowledge in preschool-aged Black boys. Results from the parenting literature indicated that there were three primary ESBs that caregivers implement when responding to young children's negative emotion (modeling, contingently responding, and discussions of emotions; Eisenberg et al., 1998). Through these behaviors caregivers modeled, validated, encouraged, and taught about negative emotion with preschool-aged children. Additionally, the research further indicated that these behaviors were associated with differences in young children's emotional competence (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Fabes et al., 2002; Denham, 1998). Caregivers who were responsive to their young children's negative emotion and engaged in emotion coaching behaviors tended to have children with higher levels of emotional competence (Fabes et al., 2002; Gottman et al., 1998; Havighurst, Wilson, Harley, & Prior, 2009; Halberstadt et al., 2008). Conversely, caregivers who were unsupportive and dismissed emotion, tended to have children who displayed more negative emotion and lower emotional competence (Fabes et al., 2002; Gottman et al., 1998)

In addition to caregivers as socializers, the literature also indicated that preschool teachers played a central role in socializing young children (Bassett et al., 2017; Denham et al., 2012b). In a theoretical review of the parenting literature, Denham and colleagues (2012a) explored whether the three primary caregiver ESBs were applicable to the preschool setting (Ashiabi, 2000). The researchers concluded that preschool teachers engaged in the same ESBs as caregivers and have the same influence on emotional competence (Denham et al., 2012a). However, the researchers called for further examination of these behaviors with preschool teachers (Ahn, 2005; Denham et al., 2012a). Although, there is little to no data on teacher's ESBs, there was data that indicated how teacher's responded to young children's negative emotion (Ahn & Stifter, 2006; Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007). Existing literature indicated that teachers engaged in ESBs with young children during opportunities to teach alternate or constructive means for expressing negative emotion. For example, in scenarios where teachers instructed preschoolers to use their words when expressing negative emotion, teachers often engaged in modeling and discussions about causes and consequences of emotion. Teachers also contingently responded with empathy and physical comfort. Through curricula and programming teachers also engaged in the three primary ESBs found in the parenting literature (Denham et al., 2012a).

Additionally, teachers also intervened in the source of the problem during negative emotion and assisted with problem-solving solutions, validate emotion through empathy, and provide physical comfort. The research also indicated that some teachers were emotion-dismissing and responded negatively or unsupportively to young children's negative emotion (Ahn, 2005; Gottman et al., 1998). Teachers that discouraged negative emotion expression missed opportunities to teach about and enhance emotion knowledge (Ahn, 2005). Further,

teachers also used proactive strategies for responding to negative emotion such as lesson plans and environmental and instructional supports to meet the developmental needs of all children (DEC, 2014).

The research also showed that teacher's behaviors and responses were associated with differences in young children's emotional competence (Bassett et al., 2017; Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007). Teachers that responded supportively when teaching about emotions tended to have children with higher levels of emotional competence. This was demonstrated in efficacy studies of emotion focused prevention programs, particularly programs that teachers received ongoing support and training on the implementation of ESBs. For example, in an efficacy study of the PATHS curriculum, teachers received ongoing support for planning and teaching about emotions (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007). Children in the intervention groups were directly and indirectly assessed and were found to have higher emotion knowledge and rated as more socially competent (Domitrovich et al., 2007). Other researchers concluded that teachers modeling of and contingent responses to negative emotion were related to young children's likability by peers (Bassett et al., 2017).

Lastly, in addition to the lack of data on teachers as socializers, there also was a lack of data on emotion socialization of children of color and their families. While data has indicated that caregivers' and teachers' ESBs and responses influence young children's emotional competence, these data are not generalizable across racial/ethnic populations. Much of the known research on the process of emotion socialization has been conducted with middle-class European American children, caregivers, and teachers. Current educational data showed that Black boys were disproportionately suspended/expelled, referred for special education services, and overrepresented in the special education disability category of Emotional Behavior Disorder

38

(Blanchett et al., 2016; OCR, 2018; DOE, 2017). Gaps in data and the educational outcomes of preschool-aged Black boys give cause for further examining the process by which preschool teachers who work with Black boys act as socializers. This is particularly important for preschool programs that serve Black boys from economically disadvantaged backgrounds with emotional and social delays.

Many preschool-aged Black boys from economically disadvantaged backgrounds present to preschool at-risk for developmental delays and disabilities that impact their emotional and social skills (Serpell, Hayling, Stevenson, & Kern, 2009). Multiple factors were found to impact these children's ability to adjust to school such as teacher's implicit bias, preschool culture, and family and home life (McCoy & Raver, 2011; Shields et al., 2001). Further, understanding the process of emotion socialization, how teachers respond to negative emotion expression of Black boys, and the influence of teacher emotion socialization on Black boys' emotional competence provides support for the current study.

Limitations

This current review was not a systematic literature review; therefore, it is not exhaustive of the emotion socialization literature. Additionally, emotion socialization has only been examined in the developmental and parenting literature creating difficulty with generalizability to the early childhood setting. Over the past two decades the dominant perspective on emotion socialization had come from the developmental and psychological literature (Denham, 1986; Eisenberg et al., 1998; Gottman et al., 1997, 1996). This limitation made it difficult to understand the process of emotion socialization in early childhood education specifically with preschool-aged children of color. Furthermore, researchers that have examined aspects of emotional competence, particularly emotion knowledge, have linked emotion socialization

39

behaviors with deficits in preschool children's school readiness (Denham et al., 2013; Denham & Holt, 1993; Denham, McKinley, Couchoud, & Holt, 1990; Domitrovich et al., 2007).

This review was completed by one researcher which limits the interpretation of the quality and content of the studies. Also, other limitations of the current review mainly exist in the fact that there was little to no research that has examined preschool teachers' responses to negative emotion expression. Most of the studies related to ESBs were correlational and descriptive and included majority middle-class European American samples for children, teachers, and caregivers. There were not any studies that have examined emotion socialization in the preschool context with teachers of color. Although, samples were homogenous in the parenting literature, samples in examinations of universal preschool interventions were mostly conducted with Head Start populations. Also, one group of researchers have examined emotion socialization in the early childhood setting, limiting the scope of their findings (Bassett et al., 2017; Denham et al., 2012).

Research Gap

Research reviewed detailed the types of responses to preschool-aged children's normal negative emotion in the preschool setting, however there is little to no research that has examined emotion socialization with children who display intense negative emotion. Results indicated that preschool teachers' responses can be supportive or unsupportive of the development of emotion knowledge. Further, the current research indicated that preschool teachers' used a variety of instructional supports to proactively teach young children about negative emotion. Also, the current research suggested that preschool teachers that received on-going training and support on the implementation of supportive emotion socialization practices demonstrated high fidelity of implementation of practices

However, there was no research that had examined preschool teachers' role as socializer in center-based settings that target children of color from economically disadvantaged backgrounds. The extant literature also did not indicate how to enhance preschool teachers' responses particularly unsupportive and negative responses with children of color, particularly Black boys. Therefore, this dissertation study attempted to demonstrate that supported preschool teachers could increase their use of supportive emotion related responses to negative emotion expressions of Black boys from economically disadvantaged background.

Chapter III

Methodology

The purpose of this dissertation study was to examine the effect of a PD model using the practice-based coaching protocol (Snyder et al., 2015) on preschool teachers' use of emotionally supportive instructional practices designed to enhance emotional competence in preschool-age Black boys. The aim of the study was to increase preschool teachers' use of emotionally supportive responses to negative emotion expression of preschool-aged Black boys. Emotionally supportive responses teach young children skills for identifying, recognizing, managing, and labeling negative emotion Denham, 1994; Eisenberger et al., 1998). Facilitating these skills has potential for enhancing emotion knowledge (EK) and skills for regulating emotions with preschool-aged Black boys from disadvantaged backgrounds (Denham et al., 2012b; Raver, 2004; McCoy & Raver, 2011). The research question that guided this study was: What is the effect of a PD model on preschool teachers' use of emotionally supportive responses to the negative emotion expression of Black boys?

Pilot Study

Setting, participant, and materials. A pilot study associated with this dissertation study was completed during the spring of 2019 with one teacher and one co-teacher in a National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAECY) accredited university-based lab school setting in a mid-sized urban city. The program used the Creative Curriculum (Dodge et

al., 2002) for emotional development. The lead teacher held a master's degree in early childhood education and had three years of teaching experience. The co-teacher had a bachelor's degree in an unrelated field and met minimum state standards for preschool teacher. State standards stated that program leaders shall be at least 18 years of age, have fulfilled a high school program completion or the equivalent, bachelor's degree in a child-related field such as, but not limited to, elementary education, a child development credential. The lead teacher's overall instructional style included high demands with low warmth and responsiveness based on Baumrind's parenting styles (Baumrind, 1971). There were two Black boys in the classroom each of whom had suspected delays in speech and language. In addition to suspected delays in speech and language, both boys responded positively to structure, routines, and visual prompts. During negative emotion expressions both Black boys often responded to environmental and instructional supports in place by teacher. The high use of these practices and recommendations from literature with children with autism led to the inclusion of these practices in the intervention. Observations took place during the morning three times per week for six weeks. During outside time and lunch the researcher and lead teacher would meet on average a total of two hours per week. Also, the lead teacher and the researcher met with an occupational therapist (OT) to refine the environmental and instructional practices. Teachers use of other practices such as physical comfort and expressing empathy, were consistent with established research (Ahn & Stifter, 2006).

Goal of pilot study. The goal of the pilot study was to define and refine components of a PD model (Snyder et al., 2015). During the pilot study I conducted focused observations of both lead and co-teacher's responses to negative emotion expressions of Black boys. I collected field notes and coded for all types of responses found in the existing literature (Ahn & Stifter, 2006). I

used the field notes to operationalize instructional practices and to develop examples and non-examples of practices. I also wrote field notes during observations on both teachers natural instructional style to emotion socialization. Data collected on instructional style supported data from existing literature related to parenting styles and beliefs about emotions. Data from the field notes were used to develop the teacher and coach manuals.

Included in the teacher and coach manuals were the procedures, theory of change, examples and non-examples of dependent variables, needs assessment and action plan forms, coaching integrity checklist, and the components of the PD model. During the pilot study the intervention procedures and coaching components were refined. The dependent variables were also operationalized during the pilot study. In addition to refining the model, the pilot study was also used to develop inclusion criteria for focal children. Because of a lack of data that has examined emotion socialization with Black boys, I developed criteria that screened for Black boys with lower emotional competence than their peers.

Lastly, during the pilot study I consulted with an occupational therapist who was also enrolled in the same graduate program as me. The occupational therapist was currently employed by the local school district, had early childhood education experience, and over thirty years of experience. The OT also consulted with the lead teacher and researcher on several occasions to refine environmental and instructional practices. In addition, the OT also served as a trained observer during the pilot study and dissertation study.

Dissertation Study

Research design. A single-subject multiple baseline (MB; Gast, 2010; Kazdin, 1982) across participants design was conducted to examine the effect of a PD model on preschool teachers' use of emotionally supportive responses to negative emotion of Black boys. The MB

design was chosen because it allowed for replication and because it would be unacceptable for teachers to revert to previous behaviors (Horner et al., 2005). Further, from a practical perspective it would be unethical to withdraw an intervention if the treatment is effective. Threats to internal validity such as history and maturation were addressed in the MB design due to randomization of sessions across participants and phases (Gast, 2010). Moreover, this study adhered to the single-subject quality recommendations recommended by Gast (2010): (1) a clear description of the participants, settings, intervention and training procedures; (2) measurable, observable, operational dependent variables; (3) a measure of treatment fidelity and interobserver agreement; and (4) a measure of social validity.

Participants

After I obtained university internal review board (IRB) approval the recruitment process began. I contacted directors of community-, private-, faith- and university-based preschool programs in a Mid-Atlantic city that served economically distressed communities and an enrollment that included three to four year old Black boys. The recruitment period lasted two weeks. Directors at each site selected the teacher and classroom based on the study's rationale, purpose, and teacher's expressed interest to participate. I sought three participants; however two participants were recruited, both from community-based programs. During the study a focal child stopped attending their program due to family and location reasons. As a result, a participant withdrew from the study. I recruited a third teacher from another community-based center. Once teachers agreed to participate and were consented, they participated in the orientation.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria. To be included in the study teachers had to work in preschool programs that served children and families from economically distressed communities. The teachers also had to meet state minimum qualifications to teach preschool-aged children.

45

Focal children were boys who were identified as Black with limited emotional competence. Limited emotional competence was described as limited emotion vocabulary, frequent negative emotion expression, and difficulty with interpersonal interactions during teacher and child-led activities. Further, inclusion criteria for focal children was based solely on directors' and teachers' report of child's emotional competence. There were no direct assessments of selected children's emotional competence. (Denham, 1986; Denham & Burton, 1996; Bassett, Brown, Way, & Steed, 2015; Denham et al., 2012b; Garner & Waajid, 2008; Izard et al., 2001; Miller et al., 2005; Saarni, 1999; Shields et al., 2001; Voltmer & von Salisch, 2017). Federal, state, and private for profit programs were excluded based on the finding that expulsion rates were lowest in public programs and highest in other early learning settings (Gilliam, 2005).

  Participant one: Ms. Valerie. Ms. Valerie was a lead preschool teacher in a private not-for-profit community-based center that was owned by a Black mother and daughter. Ms. Valerie self-identified as both Black and as a bi-racial (Black and white) female. She had ten years of teaching experience, with 7½ years as lead teacher. She met state minimum requirements for teaching preschool-aged children and held a professional certificate (see Table 3). Ms. Valerie's preintervention emotion socialization practices with both focal children and other children consisted of behaviors and responses identified in the literature as negative and unsupportive of the growth of emotional competence (Denham, 1994; Eisenberg et al., 1998; Gottman et al., 1997). Ms. Valerie described multiple factors that influenced her responses to focal children's negative emotion such as race/ethnicity, sociocultural factors, and program capacity. Example unsupportive responses ignored, dismissed, and/or minimized negative emotion expressions (Fabes et al., 2002; Gottman et al, 1996; Halberstadt et al., 2008).

Ms. Valerie's responses were related to her instructional style to emotional development and learning. Ms. Valerie's instructional style could be described as emotion dismissing (Gottman et al, 1996) or consistent with beliefs that negative emotion is harmful. In contrast, Ms. Valerie's academic pedagogy could be described as culturally responsive teaching, specifically the practice of warm demander (Gay, 2002; Ware, 2006). (This was noted due to the use of a teacher-led/academic curriculum). Warm demanders are described as teachers who are successful with children of color due to their no-nonsense style of teaching and structured and disciplined classroom environments for children exposed to psychological challenges (Ware, 2006).

Lastly, Ms. Valerie's instructional approach to emotion socialization and emotional learning was a lesson that she taught at the beginning of the year and was influenced by the existing learn through play curriculum, Learn Everyday®. Ms. Valerie often enforced the rules and expectations, followed a strict daily routine, and proactively planned for challenging emotions and transitions. Ms. Valerie focused on behavioral and academic skills rather than emotion-related skills. For example, most activities targeted learning letters, numbers, shapes, colors, and seasonal topics. There was little to no time planned for socially challenging events that included peers such as learning centers or free choice time. Ms. Valerie also had constant dialogue around prosocial behaviors for "big school" or elementary school. She used high levels of control and practices such as time-out and removal from the classroom for challenging behavior. In addition the center director mentioned she did not tolerate misbehavior due to staff capacity for handling such behavior.

Participant two: Ms. Jessica "Jay." Ms. Jay was a lead preschool teacher in a non-profit community-based setting. Ms. Jay self-identified as both Black and as an Eastern

Caribbean woman. Ms. Jay held a bachelor's degree in early childhood education and had over 19 years of teaching experience (see Table 3). Ms. Jay's instructional style was emotion coaching (Gottman et al., 1996) and was influenced mainly by the existing emotion focused program and program's mission. She validated, acknowledged, modeled, and taught about emotions at a high frequency with all children except the focal child (Eric). This was due to a temporary protocol in place until Eric was evaluated for a suspected delay or disability. As a result, the assistant teacher was his primary emotion socializer. Ms. Jay's response to Eric's negative emotion expressions was typically to ignore, characterized by making contact to ensure his safety and allowing assistant teacher to respond.

Ms. Jay's instructional approach when teaching or facilitating emotional competence was influenced by her use of the Creative Curriculum (Dodge et al., 2002) and PK PATHS program (Domitrovich et al., 2007). When responding to negative emotion expressions she used highly supportive practices such as teaching child to use their words or intervening in the source of the problem and teaching constructive means for managing emotions (Ahn, 2005). She was observed using academic approaches found in the culturally responsive teaching literature (warm demander) and the special education literature, specifically for children with emotional/behavioral disorders. (Conroy et al., 2009; Ware, 2006). Ms. Jay often used behavior specific praise, provided opportunities to respond, and regularly stated rules and expectations with the focal child (Conroy, Sutherland, Vo, Carr, & Ogston, 2014; Sutherland, Conroy, Abrams, & Vo, 2010). The teacher indicated that her instructional approach was largely influenced by the program's mission and professional training. The program's mission targets child and families with or at risk for developmental disabilities or delays.

Table 3

Teacher Demographics

	Race/Ethnicity	Age	Education	Years Teaching	Setting	Curriculum
Participant 1	Bi-racial	30	Professional certificate	10	Private (not for profit)	Learn Every Day
Participant 2	Eastern Caribbean	46	B.A. Early Child Education	19	Non-profit	Creative Curriculum Dodge et al. (2002)

Settings

The study was conducted in a private (not-for-profit) and a non-profit community-based center that served children of families from low socioeconomic backgrounds and/or at-risk for developmental delays and disability. The private center was owned by a Black mother and daughter. Both centers were located in a large independent urban city in a mid-Atlantic state. The private center had one preschool classroom and the non-profit center had three preschool classrooms. Each classroom was staffed with at least one lead teacher and met state teacher-child ratio guidelines. Both programs participated in the state's preschool quality improvement program; the private center had a rating of 1 out of 5 stars and the non-profit center had a rating of 3 out of 5 stars. Also, both preschool programs included mostly Black (70 – 100%) children with more Black boys than girls (60 to 69%) and more children aged four, although this could be attributed to the time of year the intervention was implemented (Spring).

Programs. The private community-based program mostly served neighborhood families that received child care subsidies. The one preschool classroom had a total enrollment of nine children aged three to four. All of the children identified as Black and one of the focal children was African. There were five Black boys and four Black girls enrolled in the program. Three of the five boys (Ture, John-Carlos, Riley-Freeman) met inclusion criteria of low emotional

competence. None of the focal children were receiving early intervention services, however, one of the focal children had a suspected disability. The program used a learn through play curriculum, Learn Every Day®. Although the curriculum emphasized play, most of the lesson and activities were teacher-led (small/large group). Due to limited resources and space children did engage in free choice time such as learning centers, most of the play occurred during outside time. There was also an assistant present most of the time. The overall emotional climate of the center was unsupportive of negative emotion expressions, characterized by high behavior control and high use of dismissing and minimizing of negative emotion expression.

The non-profit community-based program specifically targeted children from economically disadvantaged backgrounds and at-risk for developmental delays and disability. There were five total classrooms; two 2-year old; two 3-year old: one 4-year old. The study occurred in one of the three year old classrooms and had a total enrollment of 13 children aged three to four. Ten of the children identified as Black. There were eight Black boys, two Black girls, one bi-racial and one white girl enrolled in the program. There was only one Black boy, Eric, who met inclusion criteria for the study and he also identified as continental African. The program implemented the Creative Curriculum (Dodge et al., 2002) and PATHS (Domitrovich et al., 2007). There was little time spent on teacher-led activities which occurred mainly during morning circle. Children spent most time in learning centers of free choice. Overall, the program placed a high emphasis on emotional and social development through play and encouraged and supported negative emotion expressions.

Classrooms. The preschool classroom in the private center had little space designated for learning centers or free choice activities. Much of the content on the walls were words rather than pictures and were commercially developed. The learning centers ran along the periphery of

the room and included the typical centers (block area, house area, dramatic play, library, etc.). Classroom furniture such as tables and chairs were not child sized. There was a designated area for time-out but not for calming down such as a cozy corner or sensory area.

The classroom in the non-profit center was designed mostly for child-led activities. The room was very large with typical learning centers. The classroom had a problem-solving/solutions area, for example they had posted charts and labels about feelings (PATHS; Domitrovich et al., 2007). There was also a calming tent located in the rear of the classroom that included pillows, blankets, fidgets, and stuff animals. Much of the content on walls and cubbies were in picture format (teacher and child designed), there was very little use of written word. For example, the children used small cut outs of their faces to indicate their work rather than writing their name.

Materials

The private programs implemented the Learn Every Day® curriculum and the non-profit program implemented the Creative Curriculum (Dodge et al., 2002). The Learn Every Day® curriculum included 36 units, each with five lessons that focused on both academic and emotional and social skills. Learning occurred through books, songs, and learning centers. Unit two focused on identifying emotions and expressing feelings. The Creative Curriculum (Dodge et al., 2002) is aligned with the Head Start Early Learning Outcomes and includes 38 objectives. The three social and emotional learning objectives include sense of self, responsibility for self and others, and prosocial behavior. Instruction occurs through teaching cards, books, and DVDs used in a computer. The non-profit program also used the Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS; Domitrovich et al., 2007) program. PATHS is an emotion focused program designed to be implemented with existing preschool curricula and targets the growth of

emotional and social competencies. The goals are to develop better self-control, self-esteem, emotional awareness, basic problem-solving skills, social skills, and friendships with preschool-aged children.

In addition to the existing curriculum, materials used during the study were a researcher developed event-recording form, coach's and teacher's manuals, and teacher's reflection checklists. The coach's manual included an implementation fidelity checklist, coaching integrity checklist, and components of the PD model. The teacher's manual included the theory of change, examples and non-examples of each practice, and components of the PD model. I was present for all sessions and sat in an inconspicuous place in the classroom and had little to minimal interactions with focal children except during direct modeling. During face to face coaching sessions, me and teacher met in areas that allowed for privacy.

PD Model (practice-based coaching protocol)

The overall focus of the model was to increase preschool teacher's use of emotionally supportive instructional practices to the negative emotion of Black boys with low levels of emotional competence. The intervention was adapted from previous PBC models such as BEST in CLASS and the Pyramid Model (Hemmeter et al., 2016; Snyder et al., 2015; Sutherland et al., 2015). The length of the model varied based on the teacher's needs assessment and lasted three to five weeks. Teachers received on-going coaching and support and daily and weekly performance feedback. The PD model used in this study included four independent instructional practices, a teacher's and coach's manual, and five components (orientation, goal setting and action planning, focused observations, reflection and feedback and maintenance). The model's four instructional practices or responses have been shown by research to facilitate growth in emotional competence (Ahn & Stifter, 2006). Since each of the instructional practices required

the teacher to instruct about emotion or facilitate dialogue with the focal child, the practices were termed *instructional practices*.

Instructional practices. The model included four independent evidence-informed emotionally supportive instructional practices identified in the developmental psychology and early childhood education literature (Ahn & Stifter, 2006, Denham et al., 2012; Gottman et al., 1996). Due to the nature of negative emotion, environmental and instructional supports were included as an emotionally supportive response to negative emotion expression. These practices were adapted from DEC's Recommended practices (DEC, 2014). Each of the practices were refined during the pilot study: teaching alternate means for expressing emotion (TAM), intervening in the cause of negative emotion (INT), emotion coaching (EC), and environmental and instructional supports (EIS).

1. *Teaching alternative means for expressing emotions* – the teacher guides child to use words or provides constructive means to express negative emotions. For example, teacher says to focal child, "use words instead of yelling at your friend."

2. *Intervening in the cause of a negative emotion* – the teacher assists child with solving the source of the problem. For example, teacher prompts child, "tell your friend you don't like that."

3. *Emotion coaching* – teacher validates and acknowledges child's negative emotion or expressions and/or demonstrates acceptance by viewing negative emotions as a time to teach about emotions. For example, teacher says to child "it's okay to feel sad…what can we do to make you feel better?"

4. *Environmental and instructional supports* – refers to practices that address aspects of the physical (space, equipment), social (play), and temporal environments (routines).

Measures and Data Collection

I served as the primary data collector and observer. Two research assistants were trained to serve as secondary observers. Secondary observers were trained using the teacher and coach's manuals and videos. Second observers were trained separately. Each observer attended three training sessions that lasted approximately 30 minutes each. IOA was collected during 20% of the baseline sessions with an average score of 88.47% agreement (range 83.25-100%), 25.37% of the intervention sessions with an average score of 96.70% agreement (range 94.80-97%), and 60% of the maintenance sessions with an average score of 95.70% agreement (range 89.85-100%). This was calculated by dividing agreements by agreements plus disagreements then multiplying by 100 (Gast, 2010). One observer conducted IOA at both sites. During all phases and across all participants, I developed and used an event-recording frequency count data form (see Appendix A) to code teachers' frequency of target practice. Data were gathered on the label of the negative emotion expression (indicated by both verbalizations and gestures), the context in which the expression occurred, and the teachers' responses.

In addition, I also developed and used implementation and coaching integrity checklists to assess fidelity. The implementation fidelity measure included a five point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1-very poor to 5-very good (see Appendix B). The coaching integrity checklist was dichotomous (yes or no) (see Appendix C). Also, I developed and used an *instructional style* checklist (see Appendix D) to collect data on teachers' instructional styles. The checklist was developed based on Gottman and colleagues' (1996, 1997) meta-emotion philosophy. Data from the instructional style checklist were used to determine coaching dosage.

Procedures

      Data were collected weekly in the naturalistic environment without manipulation, during morning circle, teacher-led activities (small/large group), and child-led activities (free choice) across all participants and phases. All observation sessions were conducted in-vivo by me. Across participants and phases, observations lasted approximately 90 minutes and were conducted three to four times per week. During each 90 minute observation, 30 minutes of observation and 30 - 60 minutes of recording time occurred. An occurrence was coded when a child exhibited gestures or verbalized a negative emotion. Negative emotions coded were angry, mad, sad, lonely, and frustrated. Both verbalizations (child states "I'm mad") and/or physical gestures (crying, frowning) were used to code negative emotions or expressions. Each of the above procedures were used with all participants.

Baseline Phase

      The purpose of the baseline phase was to establish a stable trend of teacher's emotion-related responses to focal child/ren's negative emotion expression and to conduct a needs assessment. The processes for component one of the model were followed during the baseline phase. A stable baseline was established after three to five data points. Due to a participant withdrawing from the study, the baseline phase was not concurrent. A frequency count of teacher's use of emotion-related practices was collected using the event recording data form (see Appendix A)

      Component one: orientation and needs assessment. The purpose of orientation and the needs assessment was to gather data about the teacher's current emotion-related practices and to determine the level of support for enhancement. Information was gathered over the phone, face

to face and through focused observations using the event recording form (see Appendix A) and instructional style checklist (see Appendix D). Direct observation data were collected on teacher's responses to focal child/ren's negative emotion expressions. Additional information was gathered on teacher's beliefs and thoughts about emotions (instructional style) and instructional approach to emotional development and learning.

Based on existing research, Gottman and Colleagues (1996, 1997) concluded that adults beliefs and thoughts about negative emotion also influence their responses to young children's negative emotion expression. As a result, information that was gathered on teacher's beliefs and thoughts about negative emotion was used to determine how the PD model was implemented. For example, Ms. Jay held beliefs about negative emotion expression consistent with an emotion coaching philosophy, thus her instructional style was emotion coaching. Ms. Valerie held beliefs consistent with an emotion dismissing philosophy, thus her instructional style was emotion dismissing. Further, instructional approach referred to teacher's use of and design of lesson plans that guide emotional development and learning. Based on the needs assessment information, goals and action steps were written to guide the action plan and intervention phase.

Intervention Phase

Using a PD model that followed the PBC protocol (Snyder et al., 2015), the purpose of the intervention phase was to support teachers' implementation of emotionally supportive instructional practices with focal child/ren in their natural environment. Based on the cyclical nature of the PBC model (Snyder et al., 2015), for each practice across participants, action plans were developed, direct observations were conducted, and performance feedback was provided. The processes for components two through four were followed across participants.

Component two: action plans and goal setting. Based on information from the needs assessment, me and teachers met via phone to agree on clearly defined and measurable goals to develop the action plans (see Appendix E). The first action plan was developed during the initial coaching across participants. Subsequent action plans were created during weekly coaching. An example action plan for the TAM practice included the action steps a) I will instruct focal child/ren to use their words to express how they are feeling with peers and adults and b) I will embed activities that will encourage conversation about feelings and emotions (see Appendix E).

A goal was "I will teach focal children to use their words instead of crying or yelling." The goal for mastery was determined by data collected during focused observations. If goals were met, a new action plan was created for the next target instructional practice during the following weekly coaching. Additionally, due to Ms. Valerie's instructional style and approach she received support on the implementation of three emotionally supportive practices. Action plans were developed for each practice. Ms. Jay received support on the implementation of two emotionally supportive practices, however practices were implemented concurrently thus only one action plan was developed.

Component three: focused observations. The goal of focused observations was to gather specific and targeted information related to implementation fidelity and frequency of use of target practice. Focused observations occurred on average three to four times per week for 60 to 90 minutes each session. During data collection, I sat in an inconspicuous place and used the event recording form to record the frequency of teachers' use of the target instructional practice. Prior to direct observations, me and teacher met for a brief coaching session to review action steps and goals. The teacher's manual was used to review examples and non-examples of target practice. Further, during the first 30 minutes of focused observations I used direct modeling to

demonstrate examples and non-examples of target practice. Also, the action plans guided

observations. For example, during implementation of the TAM practice, Ms. Valerie's goal was

to increase the frequency that she responded by teaching focal children to use their words during

a negative emotion expression. She responded with statements such as "I can see you're upset,

why don't you use your words instead of yelling at your friend." An occurrence was coded,

using the event recording data collection form, when teachers responded to focal child/ren's

negative emotion such as sad, mad, angry, lonely using the TAM practice. If the teacher

unintentionally or intentionally did not respond to the child after 15 seconds, the occurrence was

coded as ignored. Other example codes were positive response (physical comfort or expressed

empathy), unsupportive responses (dismissing, minimizing, ignoring), and supportive (teaching

to use words or constructive means for managing negative emotion).

     Component four: reflection and feedback. After focused observations, I provided

teachers with performance feedback on fidelity of practice implementation. Three types of

performance feedback were provided: initial - after the baseline phase; ongoing - after each

focused observation session; and weekly – after the last week's observation. Initial and weekly

performance feedback was provided via phone and ongoing feedback via email. Both ongoing

and weekly feedback followed a template (see Appendix F). Feedback was both supportive and

constructive. Supportive feedback was positive and connected information from focused

observations with the goals and action steps. Constructive feedback was provided to help

recognize opportunities for improvement and refinement of the instructional practice.

Constructive feedback was specific and used to identify steps for strengthening fidelity of

practice implementation (Snyder et al., 2015)

Both teachers received initial and weekly performance feedback back, however teachers' instructional styles determined whether teacher received ongoing performance feedback. Ms. Valerie received ongoing performance feedback on practice implementation. Ms. Jay did not receive ongoing performance feedback due to her high frequency implementation of emotionally supportive practices during baseline phase. Further, me and teacher engaged in reflective discussions to identify success and challenges related to refinement of the instructional practices. These reflective discussions occurred at various times across participants. For example, Ms. Valerie provided written reflections daily (see Appendix G), whereas, Ms. Jay's moments of reflection typically occurred during casual conversations with researcher before or after focused observations. Other reflective discussions occurred during weekly performance feedback.

Also, teachers were provided with relevant resources to encourage emotion-related discussions such as videos, an emotion faces chart, and activities focused on emotions/feelings. Teachers also completed a reflections checklist (see Appendix G) after each session (Do you feel comfortable with the practice; Did practice fit your teaching style and routine and/or is the practice adaptable to your teaching style and routine; Do you feel the practice is acceptable for use with preschool-aged Black boys with an open space for feedback and/or reflections).

Maintenance Phase

Component five: maintenance. The maintenance phase was a period without researcher support and occurred at least one week after the last intervention session. I returned to the teachers' classrooms and conducted three focused observations for 30 to 60 minutes each and coded teachers' use of all model practices. The baseline procedures were used and data were collected on each of the target practices from the intervention phase.

Coaching Sessions

During the initial coaching session me and teacher discussed the needs assessment, agreed on goals and action steps and developed the action plan for the first week's practice. The initial coaching sessions took place via phone during which I used examples and non-examples from the teacher's manual and example scenarios from the baseline phase to coach the teacher on the effective use of the initial target practice. Prior to the first observation session, me and teacher met for a brief coaching and reviewed the goals and examples of the target practice and teachers were provided with the teacher's manual which included the theory of change, operationalized practices, and examples and non-examples of each practice. All other brief coaching sessions took place prior to the morning circle while children were out of the classroom with the teacher assistant (e.g., restroom break) or in the afternoon before outside time.

The third type of coaching was ongoing and daily. On-going coaching included performance feedback and researcher's reflections. Lastly, the weekly coaching typically occurred on a Friday before the next week's observation sessions. In the weekly coaching, I provided the participant with performance feedback, progress towards goals, scenarios from the week that included focal children, teacher's reflections, and updated current action plan or developed a new action plan for subsequent practice.

To ensure coaching integrity across participants and sessions, a trained graduate student coded initial, ongoing, and weekly sessions for each participant using a coaching integrity checklist (see Appendix C). Coded sessions that occurred over the phone were recorded. For Ms. Valerie, the trained graduate student coded her initial coaching and on-going and weekly sessions for each practice for a total of seven sessions. For Ms. Jay, only her initial coaching and two weekly sessions were coded for a total of three sessions. Ms. Jay did not receive on-going

coaching due to her high level of implementation of emotionally supportive practices prior to model implementation. See Table 4.

Table 4

Mean Coaching Integrity

	Ms. Valerie	Ms. Jay
Initial Coaching	100	100
Ongoing Coaching	97.43	-
Weekly Coaching	94.86	96.15
Overall Fidelity	96.70	97.43

Threats to Validity

External threats due to history, maturation, and testing were controlled for due to the staggered nature of the intervention (Gast, 2010). However due to a participant withdrawing from the study, implementation was not concurrent. Threats to internal validity were assessed via IOA, a treatment fidelity checklist, and a coaching integrity checklist.

Social Validity

Social validity in single-subject designs documents whether the intervention was functionally related to change in the dependent variable and that those outcomes are socially important (Wolf, 1978). In addition to IOA checks and treatment integrity, social validity was assessed to determine the ease of use of practices in the natural setting. I evaluated how teachers felt about the procedures, feasibility of intervention, effectiveness, and the willingness to continue using the strategies included in the intervention (Horner et al., 2005) using detailed field notes, teacher reflection checklists, a satisfaction survey developed from the literature and pilot data and follow up semi-structured interview with teachers.

Data Collection and Analysis

I served as the primary data collector during teachers' implementation of the practices. I collected data using an event-recording frequency count method. The data was recorded and analyzed visually using line graphs. I inspected the graphs for immediacy of effect, trend, Percentage of Non-overlapping Data (PND), and stability (Gast, 2010). Inspection of graphed data was ongoing and continuous throughout the study across participants, sessions, and phases, in order to produce reliable and valid statements about the data. Trend analysis on the independent variable was calculated to evaluate the direction of behavior, predict future behavior, and effect of intervention on target behavior. Trend lines were graphed using the quarter intersect method. First, the graph was divided into 2 halves, then through the middle day of each half, then the median level of behavior for each half, and lastly marked quarter intersects to draw a trend line. Second, I determined the level (variability and stability) of the data points. Stability was determined by calculating 15% of the mean and adding and subtracting 15% above and below the trend line. Thirdly, PND was calculated to demonstrate the power of the independent variable. This step examined the number of independent variable data points that fell within range of baseline data.

Chapter IV

Results

A single-subject multiple baseline (MB) across participants design (Gast, 2010; Kazdin, 1982) was conducted to examine the effect of a professional development (PD) model (Snyder et al., 2015) on preschool teachers' use of emotionally supportive responses to negative emotion expression of Black boys with low levels of emotional competence. The goal of the study was to increase preschool teachers' use of emotionally supportive responses to negative emotion expression of preschool-aged Black boys with low emotional competence. The existing literature indicated that emotionally supportive responses were associated with higher levels of emotional competence, specifically emotion knowledge in preschool-aged children (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Fabes et al., 2002).

Effects of the PD model

Results show a functional relation between the PD model and teachers' increased use of emotionally supportive responses. Both participants showed an immediacy of effect between the last data point of the baseline and first data point of the intervention phase. Both participants' preintervention use of emotionally supportive practices was zero. Ms. Valerie's responses were negative and unsupportive for the growth of emotional competence with all children. Ms. Jay's use of emotionally supportive practice at baseline with focal children was zero; however with all

other children in the classroom, Ms. Jay used a high frequency of emotionally supportive

practices. The single-subject MB graph (Figure 1) displays the data for Ms. Valerie's and Ms.

Jay's use of emotionally supportive instructional practices. Further, since the model was

designed to meet individual teacher's needs, participating teachers did not implement all of the

same practices. Based on data from the instructional style checklist, Ms. Valerie required more

coaching and support in creating an environment that supported the growth of emotional

competence, therefore she received support for three practices. On the other hand, Ms. Jay only

required support in responding with environmental and instructional practices and teaching

alternate or constructive means for expressing negative emotion
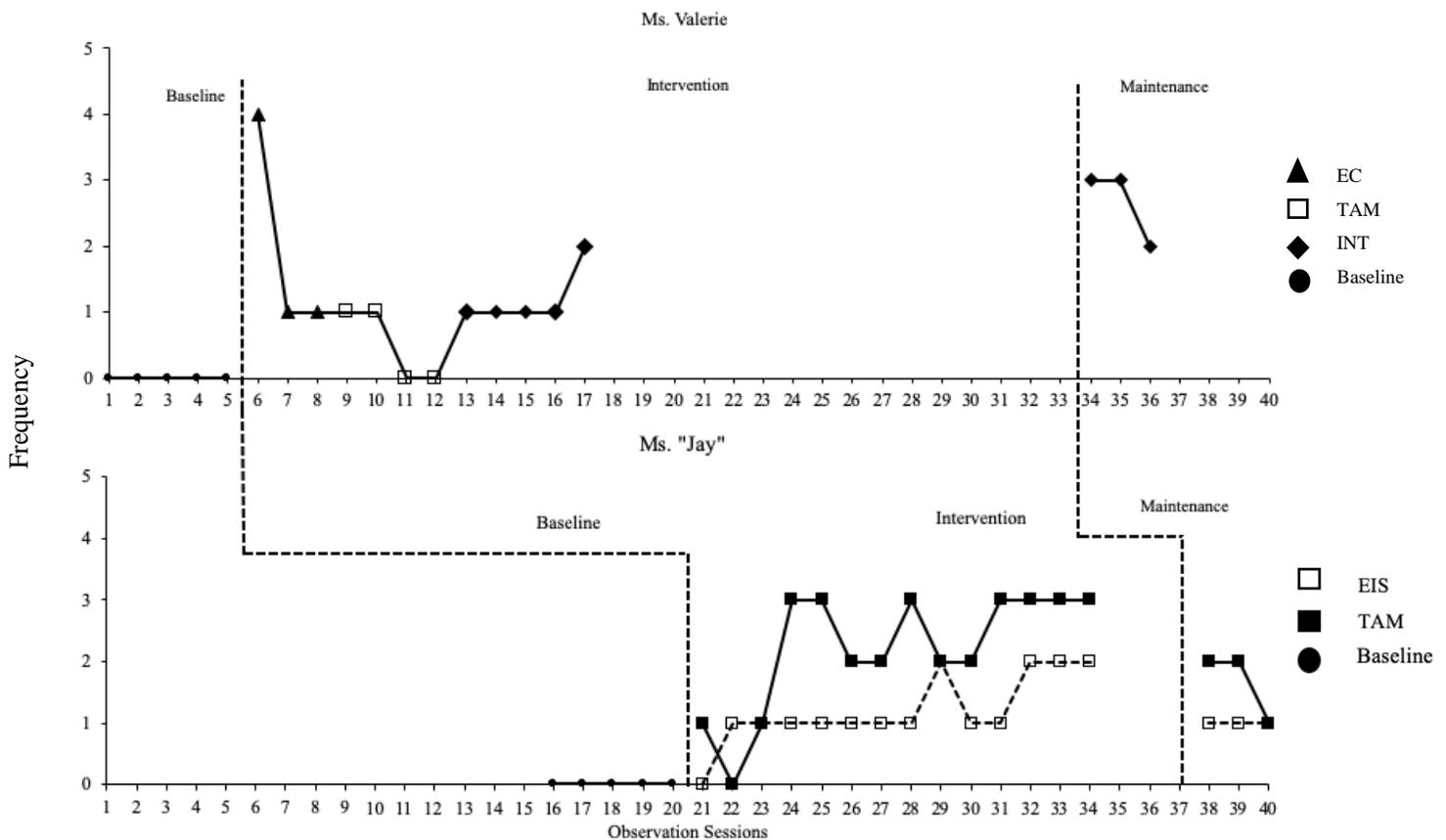

Figure 1. Ms. Valerie and Ms. Jay use of practices

Ms. Valerie's use of emotion coaching practice. Ms. Valerie showed an immediacy of

effect when implementing the emotion coaching (EC) instructional practice. The trend was also

flat and stable after coaching support for EC ended. Additionally, the percentage of non-overlapping data (PND) between the baseline and intervention phase showed 100% non-overlapping data (see figure 2). As the teacher continued to use the practice throughout the intervention phase the total PND was 93% non-overlapping data. Observed emotion coaching practices included viewing focal children's negative emotions as an opportunity for intimacy or teaching, validating (expressed empathy) and labeling emotion, and teaching constructive or alternate ways for expressing emotion. For example, when the focal child lost a game and became sad, Ms. Valerie labeled the emotion and used it as an opportunity for teaching. She talked with the child and let him know it was okay to feel sad when you are disappointed, there will be more opportunities to win games and provided physical comfort. The overall trend of the EC practice was flat and stable while receiving coaching and support. Ms. Valerie continued to use emotion coaching practices after coaching sessions stopped.

Ms. Valerie's use of teaching alternate means (TAM) practice. Ms. Valerie also showed an immediacy of effect when using the TAM practice; however, her use of the TAM practice decreased back to baseline levels towards of the end of focused observations. This decrease was most likely due to children's increased use of practice. During the third intervention session (data point 11) children began using the practice and continued using it throughout remainder of intervention. For example, the teacher was instructed to teach focal children to use their words to express negative emotion. Children with higher levels of emotional competence were observed responding to focal children's negative emotion expressions and telling them to use their words or would label child's negative emotion expression, this therefore inhibited the teacher from responding. The trend was decelerating and

the PND calculation was 78% non-overlapping data. The total PND calculation for the TAM practice was 66% non-overlapping data (see figure 2).

Ms. Valerie reported that implementation of the TAM practice was challenging due to the limited communication and lower levels of emotional competence with focal children. Focal children did not have the vocabulary necessary to use their words without support and prompting from the teacher. In order to address children's limited emotion vocabulary, I provided the participating teacher with an emotion faces chart that included both facial expressions and emotion labels. The emotion faces chart was similar to the chart used in the PATHS program. The implementation of the chart was to teach emotion vocabulary and words for expressing negative emotion. I suggested that the teacher use the emotion faces chart as part of the morning circle. As a result, each morning children would select a facial expression to describe how they were feeling. Interestingly, only one specific focal child chose a negative emotion each morning. Therefore, each morning during implementation of the TAM practice, Ms. Valerie was able to label and teach about negative emotion with the focal child. This also assisted the teacher with continued use of the EC practice. During the fifth session after implementation of the emotion faces chart the focal child began to match how he was feeling with the appropriate emotion face.

Ms. Valerie's use of intervening in the source (INT) practice. Ms. Valerie's use of INT showed an effect to intervention; however, opportunities to implement this practice were limited. There was only one occurrence when Ms. Valerie was able to intervene with a focal child outside of a planned activity and this was during a transition to another activity. The trend was flat and stable and the PND calculation was 100% non-overlapping data (see figure 2). Due to the lack of child-led activities and opportunities when teacher was not nearby, Ms. Valerie had to plan activities that required focal children to have to work with a peer and problem solve.

When these moments occurred, Ms. Valerie intervened and was able to teach the focal child to communicate with his peer to resolve their negative emotion.
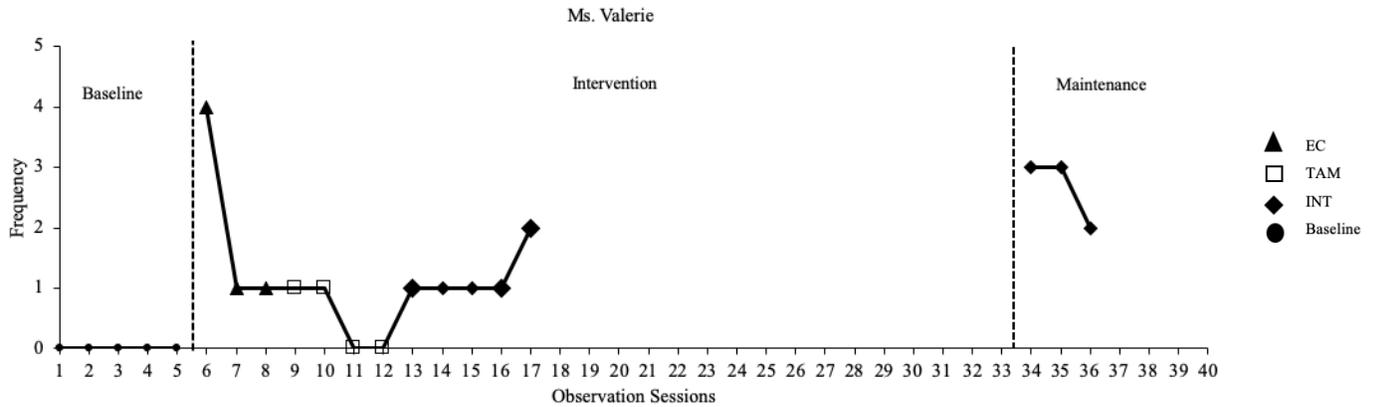

Figure 2. Ms. Valerie's use of practices

Ms. Jay's use of environmental and instructional supports (EIS) practice. Ms. Jay showed an immediacy of effect to the intervention and had a stable accelerating trend. The PND calculation was 92% non-overlapping data (see figure 3). Due to the focal child's (Eric) individual needs and suspected disability, Ms. Jay received coaching support to increase her use of EIS practices with Eric. Also, this programming plan was made for Eric until he received an evaluation for his suspected disability. Eric was often unaware of his body and space which led to a high occurrences of negative emotion.

Ms. Jay's use of teaching alternate means (TAM) practice. In addition to supporting the focal child's environmental and instructional needs, Ms. Jay also received coaching support for the TAM practice. This decision was also based on the focal child's suspected disability, temporary protocol, and difficulty with communication. Further, the teacher's assistant primary role until evaluation was to support and respond to the focal child. However, Ms. Jay did not show an immediacy of effect from baseline phase to intervention phase. The trend was flat and

stable throughout intervention phase. The PND calculation was 92% non-overlapping data (see figure 3).
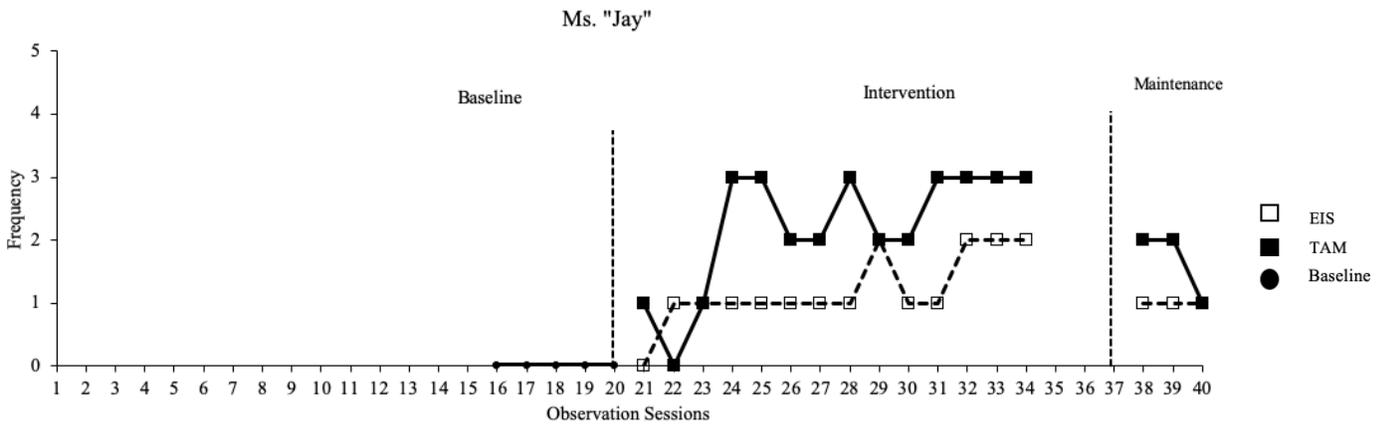
Figure 3. Ms. Jay's use of practices

Maintenance Phase

The maintenance phase for each teacher occurred during summer programming therefore reducing the frequency of negative emotion expressions. The maintenance phase took place two-weeks after intervention for Ms. Valerie and one week after intervention for Ms. Jay. During maintenance phase, Ms. Valerie led large group activities that were focused on Father's Day. Ms. Valerie only implemented the EC and INT practice during maintenance phase, however she also used positive responses found in the literature to be positive (physical comfort). Unlike the intervention phase, Ms. Valerie's use of the INT practice was child initiated. Focal child entered classroom crying at drop off, caregiver dismissed child's negative emotion and walked away. Ms. Valerie immediately intervened by asking caregiver to come back to class and give child a hug. She also instructed the child to count to 10 to calm down and gave a hug. She also discussed with the whole group that child was crying because he was sad his caregiver was leaving. She further said, "don't you all get sad when your mommies leave."

Further, she did not use any negative responses during maintenance phase. One focal child communicated to his peer he did not like it when he got in his face. This was a phrase taught to child during TAM implementation. Ms. Jay was consistent during maintenance phase implementing environmental and instructional supports more than teaching child alternate ways for expressing negative emotion expressions. Her frequency was also lower during maintenance phase due to summer programming. Most activities were outside at the playground or sand park.

Dosage of Coaching

Four types of coaching sessions took place across participants and phases: initial coaching, brief coaching, on-going coaching, and weekly coaching sessions. The delivery format for each session varied. For example, the initial coaching and weekly coaching sessions occurred over the phone. The brief coaching sessions were face to face and occurred before or after observations, and the on-going coaching sessions were provided via email or as a handout. The duration of the coaching sessions also varied (see Table 5). The initial coaching and weekly coaching sessions were the longest, lasting approximately 35 minutes (range 34 – 39 minutes). Weekly coaching sessions toward the end of the intervention were shorter in duration. The brief coaching sessions typically lasted approximately five minutes. On-going coaching sessions and weekly coaching sessions followed a template (see Appendix F). Due to Ms. Jay's high use of practice with other children, the teacher received minimal coaching support. Participant two only received the initial coaching and four weekly coaching sessions.

Table 5

Mean Length of Coaching Sessions

Type of Coaching Session	Ms. Valerie Mean	Ms. Jay Mean
Initial Coaching	34.0	25.0
Weekly Coaching	29.25	17.20
Brief Coaching	5.80	5.25
Ongoing Coaching	Email	

Interobserver Agreement Results

IOA data were collected across all phases and participants. IOA assessed whether teacher implemented target practice based on examples and non-examples located in the teacher's and coach's manuals. IOA data were collected during 40% of the baseline phases, 20% of intervention phases, and 33% of maintenance phases. For Ms. Valerie, IOA for baseline phase on average were 80% (range 87-100%; 2 sessions); intervention phase on average of 87.5% (range 66 - 100%; 3 sessions), and the maintenance phases was 100% (one session). For Ms. Jay, IOA data for all phases were 100% (2 sessions; 4 sessions; and one session respectively). This was calculated by dividing agreements by agreements plus disagreements then multiplying by 100 (Gast, 2010).

Implementation Fidelity and Coaching Integrity

Implementation fidelity data for both participants were collected during each session across all phases (see Table 6). Reliability of fidelity assessments was not assessed. Ms. Valerie's implementation of all practices was 4.25 (range 3 – 5). Her implementation fidelity results for each practice was as follows: 4.66 (rang 4 – 5) for EC, 4.0 for TAM, and 4.2 (range 4

– 5) for INT. Ms. Jay's implementation of EIS was 4.15 (range 3 – 5) and for TAM was 3.69 (range 3 – 4). Her overall implementation was 3.92 (range 3 to 5). There were 13 dichotomous items on the coaching integrity checklist. I adhered to the items, across participants, on average during the initial coaching (100%), on-going coaching (97.4%) and weekly coaching sessions (95.3%) of the time (range 92.3 – 100%; see Table 4).

Table 6

Treatment Fidelity

	Ms. Valerie	Ms. Jay
EC	4.66 (4-5)	---
TAM	4.0 (4-5)	3.69 (3-4)
INT	4.2 (4-5)	---
EIS	---	4.15 (3-5)
Overall Fidelity	4.25 (3-5)	3.92 (3-5)

Social Validity Results

Ms. Valerie. Ms. Valerie's interview occurred during the maintenance phase. Ms. Valerie reported that the intervention was effective for focal children. She stated that looking back she didn't realize that focal children were unable to identify different emotions. She also reported the intervention was very useful, however there was an initial learning curve. She reported that the model was easy to implement, although she found it tough remembering to implement on a daily basis. She stated she was surprised how quickly focal children were able to learn emotion vocabulary and use it in their daily communications with peers. She also stated that focal children would routinely go to the emotion faces poster and point to how they were

71

feeling in the moment. She said this showed here that her children are much more attuned to their

own emotions. Further, she reported that before the intervention that focal children often lashed

out at one another or came to tell her about what was going on. However, after intervention the

children tell each other when they don't like something or express empathy with their peers. Ms.

Valerie also reported that the intervention allowed for significant growth in the children's

emotional and social competence and that other teachers who work with Black boys could

benefit from using these practices.

  Ms. Jay. Ms. Jay was also interviewed during maintenance phase. Ms. Jay reported that

the intervention was easy to implement and felt practices were beneficial for Eric and Black boys

in general, particularly with low levels of emotional competence and difficulty communicating.

Ms. Jay also stated that while practices were effective, she feel that she could have met Eric's

emotional needs if his caregivers were receptive to getting their child evaluated sooner.   The

temporary protocol that was put in place hindered both her and the child's abilities to engage in

supportive emotion socialization. Ms. Jay further stated that the model's practices were effective

for meeting the needs of developing children with suspected disabilities and/or at-risk for

developing delays. She also mentioned that receiving support in the naturalistic setting made it

easier to implement practices with fidelity compared to previous professional development on

emotion-related topics. Ms. Jay also stated that using an emotion-focused program as an

extension to the existing curriculum contributed to her successful adjustment and use of practices

with Eric and that her high use of practices was due to the center's mission and use of an

emotion-focused program. She also reported that she spent more time on emotion socialization

than all other preschool outcomes (social, behavioral, and academic). She stated that it was easy

to mistake Eric's low levels of emotional competence and frequent intense negative emotions as disruptive/defiant behaviors.

Chapter V

Discussion

The purpose of this dissertation study was to examine the effect of a professional

development (PD) model using a practice-based coaching protocol (Snyder et al., 2015) on

preschool teachers' use of emotionally supportive instructional practices that enhance the

development of emotional competence in preschool-age Black boys from disadvantaged

backgrounds with low levels of emotional competence. Due to the disproportionate suspension

and expulsion of preschool-aged Black boys (Gilliam, 2005; OCR, 2018) and the effects of

poverty on emotional and social development (APA, 2008), this study targeted teacher practices

that developed emotional competence. Additionally, emotionally supportive instructional

practices are those that facilitate the healthy development of skills for recognizing, identifying,

labeling, expressing, and regulating negative emotion in the early learning setting such as

emotion coaching, teaching alternate ways of expressing emotion, intervening in the source of

the problem, and providing environmental and instructional supports (Ahn, 2005; Ahn & Stifter,

2006; Denham, 1986, Eisenberg et al., 1998; Saarni, 1999).

Results from the current study showed that the model increased teachers' use of

emotionally supportive responses to negative emotion expression of preschool-aged Black boys.

Emotionally supportive responses acknowledge and validate negative emotions, teach

constructive and alternate ways for expressing emotion, and encourages negative emotion expression (Fabes et al., 2002; Lozada et al., 2016). The findings were consistent with prior studies that have examined the effects of practice-based coaching on teachers' fidelity of implementation of emotional and social learning practices (Conroy et al., 2014; Conroy et al., 2014; Fox et al., 2011; Hemmeter et al., 2015; Snyder, 2015). Using a single subject across participants design allowed me to establish a causal relationship. However due to the small number of occurrences of each behavior per 30 min observation, the clinical significance is unknown. Findings from the study showed a functional relation between the PD model and teachers' use of emotionally supportive instructional practices. Teachers increased their use of emotionally supportive responses and implemented the practices with fidelity. See Table 6. Major factors that influenced the implementation of the PD model were teachers' instructional style (meta-emotion philosophy) and instructional approach (existing programming or curricula).

Theoretical Framework

Emotion socialization. The theories that guided the study were emotion socialization and meta-emotion philosophy. Existing research concludes that adults promote or hinder the development of emotion understanding and regulation of emotions when responding to negative emotions of preschool-aged children (Denham, 1994; Eisenberg et al., 1998). Developmental research describes that this process occurs through three primary emotion socialization behaviors (ESBs, Eisenberg et al., 1998). To better understand emotion socialization behaviors in the context of the early childhood classroom, specifically how teachers respond to negative emotion expressions, this study first observed the presence of specific emotionally supportive teacher responses before implementing a PD model designed to support teachers use of emotionally supportive responses to Black boys' negative emotion. Findings from this study extended earlier

findings related to preschool teachers' responses during emotion socialization. Ahn and Stifter (2005, 2006) concluded when preschool teachers teach constructive ways for regulating emotions and alternate ways for expressing negative emotion, they engage in the highest level of emotion socialization. These responses facilitate the growth of emotional competence, particularly emotion understanding in preschool-aged children (Ahn & Stifter, 2006; Eisenberg et al., 1998). Findings from this study also support Denham and colleagues' (2012) framework for preschool teachers as emotion socializers and showed that emotional socialization in the early learning context is equally if not more influential than in the home/family context. The teachers in this study implemented evidence-informed emotionally supportive instructional practices designed to support the healthy development of preschool-aged Black boys during their negative emotion expressions after receiving the PD model. During opportunities for reflections, teachers' shared that the use of these practices, they noticed focal child/ren developed skills for recognizing, understanding, identifying, and labeling negative emotion with peers and adults. In addition, focal children also developed problem solving skills for resolving negative emotions experienced with peers.

   Meta-emotion philosophy. Furthermore, findings from this study showed that in the early learning classroom, teachers held two types of beliefs about negative emotion that influenced how the PD was implemented. These instructional styles, similar to caregivers' meta-emotion philosophies, were referred to as emotion coaching and emotion dismissing (see Appendix D; Gottman et al., 1996). Existing research found that caregivers meta-emotion philosophy predicted various child outcomes such as greater inhibitory control, lower levels of behavior problems, higher levels of academic achievement, and better physical health (Gottman et al., 1996).

Although, meta-emotion philosophy has not been examined in the early learning setting (Gottman et al., 1996); during reflections teachers' shared throughout the PD model how their beliefs and thoughts about negative emotion influenced how they responded. For example, Ms. Valerie shared that she felt negative emotion expressions were potentially harmful to Black boys which led to her emotion dismissing instructional style. Although, the current study did not directly measure teachers' instructional style, I developed an instructional style checklist (see Appendix D) which had the most influence on the implementation of the PD model. The following section will describe how teachers' instructional styles and approaches influenced implementation of the PD model.

Instructional Style and Approach

Findings from this study showed that a dimension of preschool teachers' pedagogy is similarly related to caregivers' meta-emotion philosophy (instructional style; Gottman et al., 1996; Katz et al., 2012). Based on existing literature, emotion coaching and emotion dismissing were the two types of instructional styles found in the parenting literature. Similar to the parenting literature, findings from this study showed that emotion coaching and emotion dismissing were valid emotion-related instructional styles held by teachers and were associated with the extent to which they engaged in emotionally supportive responses to negative emotion expressions. Further, the development of the needs assessment, across participants, was largely based on their instructional styles. Instructional approach referred to how teachers' use their existing emotional and social development curricula/programming and lesson plan designs to teach about emotion. Similar to instructional style, teachers' instructional approach also influenced the implementation of this study's PD model. The following sections will describe

how the implementation of the PD model was influenced by teachers' instructional style and approach.

Ms. Valerie's Instructional Style and Approach

As previously discussed, Ms. Valerie identified as a bi-racial (Black and white), Black female and taught in the small privately owned community-based center. Ms. Valerie viewed negative emotion expressions as potentially harmful to Black boys due to societal misperceptions of Black boys' negative emotion expressions and behaviors. During opportunities for reflection she mentioned other factors that have also been found in the existing literature, that impacted her instructional style towards focal children such as negative interactions between Black boys and white authority figures, particularly teachers and police (Thomas & Blackmon, 2015). Additionally, she felt her role as socializer was to prevent or stop focal children's negative emotion expressions. Prior to the PD model, Ms. Valerie ignored, dismissed, or minimized the negative emotion expressions of focal children. Her overall beliefs about negative emotions was related to the emotion dismissing instructional style (Gottman et al., 1996; Katz et al., 2012).

The parenting literature has defined the emotion dismissing instructional style as unsupportive based on middle-class European samples, however, an emerging body of research in developmental psychology showed that due to the adaptive function of emotions that racially/ethnically diverse caregivers' responses may serve as protective factors (Dunbar et al., 2017, 2016; Lozada et al., 2016; Nelson et al., 2013). Findings from this study indicated that although Ms. Valerie implemented unsupportive responses, through reflections she shared those responses were primarily to protect focal children and prepare them for mainstream education.

Further, during opportunities for reflection, Ms. Valerie shared that she tried to match caregivers' responses based on her observed caregiver-child interactions during drop off and pick

up times. For example, some mornings when caregivers dropped their child off, focal child would cry as expected when caregiver exited. During these interactions, Ms. Valerie observed caregivers dismiss or minimize their child's negative emotions. Caregivers made statements such as "boy, what are you crying for" or "stop crying and go to class" or "you're crying like a little baby" or ignored child. She indicated that focal children responded more favorably to responses that modeled their caregivers and as a result attributed to her instructional style.

In addition to her instructional style, Ms. Valerie approached emotional development as a weekly lesson as opposed to part of the everyday routine. This instructional approach was largely due to the existing Learn Every Day curriculum, which included one explicit lesson on skills that developed emotion understanding, identification, labeling, and recognizing emotions. In addition, there was overall little to no programming on emotion socialization and development throughout the center. Further, the director communicated that she did not have the staff capacity to manage challenging emotion expressions/behaviors. For example, if children were unable to manage their negative emotion expressions and/or behavior they were placed in time-out, sent out of the classroom to sit with the director or other staff, and threatened with removal from the classroom.

Moreover, during the baseline phase focal children's observed negative emotion expressions were mostly externalized expressions indicated by nonverbal expressions such as frowning, arm folding, or holding head down. There were few verbal expressions indicated by crying or yelling. The lack of externalized negative emotion expressions was possibly attributed to Ms. Valerie's high use of structure such as constantly prompting children to be quiet, sit still, calm down, or the use of the "shhh." This high level of structure prevented children from

externalizing because each time a child would make any type of verbal or physical gesture the teacher would stop it. Another possible factor was children's lack of emotion vocabulary.

As a result of Ms. Valerie's instructional approach to emotion socialization and development, during the implementation of the current PD model I provided the teacher with additional evidence-informed emotion-related supports found in the existing literature such as an emotion faces chart and emotion/feeling related activities (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007). I also encouraged the teacher to use books to teach about, discuss, and coach around negative emotions (Ahn, 2005; Domitrovich et al., 2007). These instructional approaches have been associated with increased gains in emotion knowledge with preschool children from disadvantaged backgrounds (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007). Moreover, adding the emotion faces chart to the daily routine taught one of Ms. Valerie's focal children (Touré) how to recognize and label his negative emotion expressions. Lastly, to enhance her instructional approach, Ms. Valerie designed lesson plans that included activities requiring children to work together to solve problems. These activities provided opportunities for the teacher to intervene and teach focal children alternate ways for expressing emotion. The next section will describe how Ms. Valerie's instructional style and approach to emotion socialization and development influenced the implementation of the model's practices.

Emotion coaching (EC). After the initial coaching session and discussion of baseline responses, Ms. Valerie shared that her awareness of her responses during baseline significantly shifted both her instructional style and approach and contributed to her immediate high use of the EC practice. This is consistent with the existing literature that found emotion coaching caregivers were often aware of emotions in self and child (Gottman et al., 1996; Katz et al., 2012). Not only did Ms. Valerie increase her implementation of the EC practice, she continued the use of this

practice at a relatively stable level throughout the intervention. During implementation of the EC practice, Ms. Valerie introduced the emotion faces activity to all future daily lessons and continued to plan lessons around emotional development. The most effective responses were validating and discussing emotions through books or other extension activities. This was indicated by focal children's increases in externalized negative emotion expressions such as crying or yelling and increased conversations about emotions. By creating an environment supportive of negative emotion expressions through the use of this practice, the next practice taught focal children how to express their negative emotions.

Teaching alternate means for expressing emotions (TAM). This practice seemed to be the most difficult for Ms. Valerie to implement due to focal children's limited emotion vocabulary. Existing literature indicated that this response is the highest level of emotion socialization because teachers often validated, accepted, and taught negative emotion when teaching alternate ways to express (Ahn & Stifter, 2006; Ahn, 2005). Further, this response taught children skills for identifying and labeling negative emotion. Also, other researchers found similar difficulties with this practice with caregivers (Havighurst et al., 2009). During the first couple of sessions Ms. Valerie was successful with teaching focal children to use their words, however, she did have to spend extra time encouraging and prompting focal children to communicate their negative emotion expressions due to limited emotion vocabulary, communication skills, or shyness. Additionally, this practice was often used with the EC practice. For example, Ms. Valerie would often validate focal children's negative emotion expressions and then teach an alternate way for expressing emotion. Shortly after implementation of TAM, the other children, mostly girls and children with higher emotional competence began encouraging the focal children to use their words and to talk about how they

were feeling. As a result, Ms. Valerie's ability to respond decreased, although in these moments the teacher still had to assist focal boys with vocabulary to discuss their feelings. This was consistently observed throughout the study.

Intervening in the source of the problem (INT). The last practice that Ms. Valerie received support was the INT practice. The first three weeks of the intervention were focused on creating a supportive environment by coaching Ms. Valerie to validate negative emotion and teach focal children alternate ways to express negative emotion (Ahn, 2005; Havighurst et al., 2009). Support for the INT practice was decided on during the needs assessment due to focal children's difficulty with working through problems with peers and constantly interrupting Ms. Valerie to "tattle-tell". However, Ms. Valerie's use of this practice reactively was difficult due to the lack of opportunities she had to intervene with children. The lack of learning centers and free choice time limited the opportunities that were socially challenging for focal children. In order to teach children problem solving skills, similar to existing literature, focal boys needed to engage in socially challenging situations (Ahn & Stifter, 2006; Ahn, 2005). Once Ms. Valerie implemented the INT practice, she became aware of focal children's limited skills for solving emotionally challenging problems. Her use of this practice was stable.

Ms. Jay's Instructional Style and Approach

As previously discussed, Ms. Jay identified as an Eastern Caribbean or Black female and was located in the medium-sized non-profit community-based setting that targeted children at risk or with developmental delays or disability. Many of the children who met these criteria displayed intense negative emotion expressions. Different from Ms. Valerie, Ms. Jay's instructional style and approach were closely related. In fact, Ms. Jay's instructional approach influenced her instructional style whereas, Ms. Valerie's instructional style and approach

82

operated independently. For example, Ms. Valerie's instructional style was influenced by her

own experiences of racism and discrimination and her instructional approach was based on

existing curriculum and programing related to emotional development. Ms. Jay's instructional

style was influenced by her access to evidence-based emotional development programming,

which was also related to her instructional approach. Further, Ms. Jay shared that both the

center's mission and implementation of an emotion-focused program (PATHS; Domitrovich et

al., 2007) influenced her instructional approach. Her view of negative emotion expressions was

influenced by her education and training related to emotional development (Gottman et al., 1996;

Katz et al., 2012).

Ms. Jay also acted as an emotion coach by routinely validating and acknowledging

children's negative emotion and/or by demonstrating acceptance of emotions. Ms. Jay also

encouraged children to use their words or other constructive ways for expressing negative

emotion. She also used books to discuss about emotions, a feeling sign in sheets, and the Turtle

Technique to teach about emotions (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007). In addition,

to her use of high emotionally supportive responses, she used several evidence-based practices

found in the special education literature as proactive practices to prevent negative emotion

expression such as opportunities to respond, rules and expectations, and behavior specific praise

(Sutherland, Wehby, & Copeland, 2000; Sutherland, Wehby, & Yoder, 2002).

However with focal child Eric, her instructional style was influenced by its own set of

factors, while her instructional approach was unchanged. Prior to intervention, Ms. Jay was not

Eric's primary socializer so she did not respond to his negative emotion expressions unless the

assistant teacher was not present. She would simply make eye contact with the child to ensure his

safety but ignored his negative emotion expressions. She did not believe that Eric's negative

emotions were harmful or that they needed to be stopped, however she did not engage in emotion coaching behaviors with him. Her views were however, associated with demographics of the child and his family (described below) and with the temporary protocol in place. Due to Ms. Jay's high implementation of emotionally supportive practices, the goal of the PD model was to build her self-reflective capacity.

Environmental and instructional supports (EIS). Although environmental and instructional supports do not directly support the growth of emotion knowledge, these practices taught Eric how to manage and regulate his intense negative emotions. These responses however did require a significant amount of the teacher's attention. Eric required frequent use of environmental and instructional supports to manage negative emotions such as instruction to be aware of his body/peers bodies, removal from the source, provided with alternate seating, prepared for transitions and change in routine, close proximity, and taken for a walk. During less intense negative emotion expressions, Ms. Jay was able to instruct Eric to use his words or other means for expressing negative emotion.

When the teacher implemented EIS practices, Eric was able to resolve his intense emotions in the classroom, preventing the teacher from having to leave the room. During instances where Eric needed to leave the room, the assistant teacher or other program staff responded. Ms. Jay's use of the instructional practices with Eric showed her ability to respond supportively, particularly during sessions when the assistant teacher was absent or unavailable. Ms. Jay's frequency and consistency of use was related to Eric's frequent negative emotion expressions. Eric's duration of intense emotion expressions were also shorter when Ms. Jay implemented the EIS practice rather than TAM practice

Teaching alternate means for expressing emotions. Ms. Jay's use of the TAM practice was also challenging with Eric for similar and different reasons as Ms. Valerie. This practice was used simultaneously with the EIS practice for Eric due to frequency, duration, and intensity of negative emotion expressions. Similar to focal children in Ms. Valerie's class, Eric had difficulty with communicating. He often experienced difficulty answering WH questions (who, what, why, when) and communicating with words. During intense negative emotion expressions it was more challenging for Eric to use his words. Despite this challenge, during less intense negative emotion expressions Eric was able to use his words or alternate ways for expressing negative emotion, indicating that the practice was also meaningful to the child.

Overall, both teachers' increased their use of emotionally supportive instructional practices with focal children. Across teachers and phases, their instructional style and approach influenced implementation of the PD model. For example, Ms. Valerie received support of three of the four instructional practices due to her emotion dismissing instructional style and little to no lesson plan designs for emotional development. The model began with the EC instructional practice which focused on validating and accepting negative emotion. Both the TAM and INT practice built on the EC practice by teaching children skills for problem-solving, identifying, labeling, and expressing negative emotion. On the other hand, Ms. Jay received support for the TAM and EIS practice due to her high use of emotionally supportive practices with other children, existing emotion-focused programming, and the individual needs of Eric. Ms. Jay largely benefited from the reflective capacity of the PD model versus support on implementation fidelity.

Influence of Culture and Context on Preschool Teachers' Responses

Findings from this study showed that cultural and contextual factors also influenced how teachers responded. This is consistent with existing literature that also found that factors such setting and family origin influenced adults responses (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Gottman et al., 1996). During the development of the needs assessment these factors played a role in the development of action plans and goals across participants. For example, Ms. Valerie mentioned often through the PD model, particularly during reflections, that her responses were largely influenced by her own race/ethnicity and by how Black boys are viewed when they experience and express negative emotion.

She also indicated that the intersections between race/ethnicity, gender, and ability influenced her responses. She mentioned that growing up she experienced hearing boys be told not to cry, or to be a man, or don't express negative emotion, particularly during encounters with white authority figures (Dunbar et al., 2017; Thomas & Stevenson, 2009). Due to these experiences she dismissed Black boys negative emotion expressions as a protective factor (Dunbar et al., 2017). Further, Ms. Valerie indicated that aspects of children family and home life entered into the center, resulting in responses that were tailored to match caregivers. However, once she began the intervention, the focal children were responsive to teachers implementation of emotionally supportive responses.

With respect to Ms. Jay, she indicated that her racial/ethnic background did not influence her beliefs about negative expressions, yet it did influence how she responded to Eric. As an Eastern Caribbean woman she mentioned most individuals from her island were public servants or educators and that her goal and purpose was to serve others. She shared that this philosophy guided her instructional style to emotional development (warm, emotion coaching, supportive).

However, she shared that difficulties in communication with Eric's family influenced how she responded to Eric. For example, she felt that Eric's family (Continental African) did not fully understand the dominant mainstream early learning culture, specifically related to developmental delays. She felt she could be more effective if Eric had been evaluated sooner because it is likely she would have access to additional supports and specialists such as occupational therapists, speech and language pathologists, and/or an early learning special education teacher.

Implementation Fidelity and Coaching integrity

The PD model in this study used the practice-based coaching protocol (Snyder et al., 2015) rather than an entire curriculum (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007) for enhancing teachers' implementation of emotion-related practices. I found that the PD model not only benefited the teachers but also showed promise for enhancing emotional competence of Black boys with lower emotional competence or developmental delays. Also, providing PD in the naturalistic environment proved beneficial for the teachers, particularly the flexibility of using multiple methods for coaching and/or performance feedback such as emails, handouts, phone, and face to face sessions.

Further, both teachers were able to implement the practices with fidelity. Ms. Valerie's highest fidelity score was with the EC practice and lowest with the TAM practice. Ms. Valerie was engaged in emotion coaching conversations with focal children after becoming aware of emotions in self and children. The TAM practice however was the most difficult to implement due to focal children's lack of emotion vocabulary. Also, Ms. Valerie did not respond as frequently with this practice due to children's use of alternate ways to express emotions. In all but one occurrence, the teacher created all of the opportunities to implement the INT practice through activities. Ms. Jay's implementation scores for both practices were lower on average.

This was particularly due to the supportive role that the teacher played and the temporary protocol in place.

Limitations and Implications

This study was meaningful to teachers and improved their use of emotionally supportive responses with Black boys from economically disadvantaged backgrounds. However, there were only two participants thus the intervention effects were not replicated six times and the design was non-concurrent. The study was also focused on Black boys with lower emotional competence and in community-based settings limiting the generalizability of the findings to other learning settings and children. Additionally, intraclass correlations (ICCs) were not calculated for implementation fidelity scores. Other limitations included IOA and coaching integrity. IOA was only calculated across teacher behaviors, not child behaviors and there was no measure of adherence or competence related to coaching integrity.

Further, I used convenience sampling, therefore, participant selection in this study could have been improved through representative sampling. Also, I only recruited two teachers which limited the validity of the study. In the future the recruitment of more teachers could strengthen the study. Also, due to the convenience sampling, there was not a teacher-child match between settings, therefore leading to the use of different instructional practices. For example, the model included three practices for Ms. Valerie and only two for Ms. Jay. Ms. Valerie did not receive coaching on the EIS practice yet Ms. Jay did. There was only one preschool classroom in the private community-based setting and three preschool classrooms in the community-based setting therefore limiting the teacher selection. After the directors agreed to the study, they selected the teacher and then the teacher agreed to participate. The teachers could have felt they had to participate because there was no other classroom. This was particularly the case in the private

community-based setting. In the community-based setting, although there were three preschool classrooms, the children who met inclusion criteria were only in one of the classrooms. Further, inclusion criteria for focal children was based solely on directors' and teachers' report of child's emotional competence. There were no direct assessments of selected children's emotional competence.

Recommendations for policy. Current federal policy recommendations (ACF, 2016) call for all preschool programs (federal, state, local) to invest in targeted workforce professional development focused on promoting emotional and social learning and to enhance preschool teachers self-reflective capacity. Findings from this study, aligned with the existing research, contribute to the early childhood professional development evidence-base and potential for addressing current policy recommendations. Secondly, current federal policy and some states' policy have prohibited and/or severely restricted the use of exclusionary discipline in the preschool setting (ACF, 2016; HHS & DOE, 2014). As a result, programs are tasked with developing and implementing professional development models for preventing and reducing racial/ethnic and gender disparities. The current PD model show promise for addressing potential bias in teachers' responses. Lastly, federal policy calls for professional development that increase preschool teachers' self-reflective capacity. Teachers' immediate use of the model's practices were largely related to opportunities to reflect on their role as emotion socializer. Both teachers' shared that becoming aware of negative emotions during reflections and feedback was valuable and contributed to their willingness to implement practice with focal children.

Recommendations for research. Future studies need to examine the effects of the PD model implemented universally in programs, possibly as a randomized controlled trial, that serve a majority children of color from disadvantaged backgrounds. Although current data has

persistently shown disparate implementation of exclusionary discipline practices with Black boys, emerging data indicates that Black girls are suspended and expelled at rates higher than boys (OCR, 2016). Findings from this study showed that girls responded to the intervention the same as focal children. In fact, girls in Ms. Valerie's class began to encourage focal children to communicate their negative emotions thus showing that the model's effectiveness with all children. This finding also supports social learning theory (Bandura, 1978), which may guide future studies.

Future studies also need to employ multiple baseline across settings to examine the impact of setting on implementation of PD model. The current study showed that teachers benefited differently from the model. Ms. Valerie (small private center) had access to very little emotion-related resources and was limited on how she could design lesson plans that targeted emotional development due structural factors (classroom size and resources). As a result the delivery, type, and frequency of coaching sessions were tailored to teachers' need and context. Conversely, Ms. Jay (non-profit center) was already implementing an emotion-focused program and worked in a center that supported children at-risk for developmental delays. Therefore, the coaching sessions were less frequent, required less direct modeling, and more opportunities for reflection.

Furthermore, due to cultural nuisances related to expressions and behaviors of racially/ethnically diverse children, particularly Black boys, a pressing need exists to continue efforts to unpack and define emotional competence. Unpacking emotional competence is important for understanding how and when racially/ethnically diverse children express negative emotion, particularly with racially/ethnically diverse teachers and when there is a teacher-child racial/ethnic mismatch. For example, existing literature refers to young children's abilities for

90

recognizing, identifying, labeling, expressing and regulation of emotions as emotional competence and children who demonstrate difficulties with these skills are reported to have low levels of emotional competence (Eisenberg et al., 1998; Garner & Waajid, 2012). Yet this current view does not take into consideration how cultural context and expectations for racially/ethnically diverse children are different from white children and that their abilities may be consistent with adaptive responses to bias and oppression. Additionally, these models do not account for the potential of there being other culturally relevant forms of emotional competence that extend beyond the above mentioned emotional competencies (e.g., culturally contextual-based emotion knowledge and understanding) that are not currently captured in models of emotional competence

Future studies must examine how preschool teachers respond to negative emotion expressions of Black boys when there is/not a teacher-child ethnic match. Emerging research suggests that racially/ethnically diverse caregivers' responses to their children's negative emotion may serve as a protective factor (Dunbar et al., 2017). Due to the adaptive nature of emotions, racially/ethnically diverse caregivers may teach their children to suppress negative emotions in context involving white authority figures such as teachers and police. As a result, the types of negative emotion expressions racially/ethnically diverse children display may vary based on context. This is important when examining how home and school congruence of emotion socialization may influence developing children's emotional competence. Also, up until preschool age most children have been socialized by their primary caregivers whose emotion socialization goals are related to the home context.

Also, existing research concludes that when there is a teacher-child ethnic match, children of color have better outcomes. For example, Egalite and Kisida (2016) found that students experienced positive benefits related to personal effort, happiness in class, feeling cared for and motivated by their teacher, and the quality of student–teacher communication when matched with a teacher from similar demographics. Further, future studies are needed to examine how interventions that target teachers implementation of evidence-based instructional practices are related to preschool-aged children's emotional outcomes. Findings from this study showed that the current model had an effect on both teachers and focal children. There is consensus in the early childhood field that PBC models effectively enhance preschool teachers' use of evidence-based instructional emotional and social learning practices, however there is little understanding of how the model influences child behaviors (Conroy et al., 2014; Conroy et al., 2014; Fox et al., 2011; Hemmeter et al., 2015; Snyder, 2015). Current research indicates when teachers implement universal preschool emotion-focused interventions that target child outcomes, children in control groups tended to have significant gains in emotion knowledge (Bierman et al., 2008; Domitrovich et al., 2007; Izard et al., 2008,2004). Included as part of these interventions were components found in the PBC model (coaching, focused observations, reflection and feedback). However, none of these studies assessed teachers' responses. Moreover, findings from the current study showed when teachers instructed focal children to use their words, children began to talk through their negative emotions with peers and adults as opposed to internalizing or externalizing emotion.

Additionally, future studies need to assess the emotion knowledge of Black boys pre and post implementation of the PBC model. Because of the influence of racial/ethnic socialization on emotion socialization (Dunbar et al., 2017), these assessments must be validated and show

reliability with racially/ethnically diverse children, particularly Black boys. Furthermore, future studies are needed to examine how interdisciplinary service delivery in the natural setting influence preschool teachers' role as socializers. During reflections, both teachers shared that they would feel better supported when responding to negative emotion expressions if they had access to related service providers (occupational therapists, speech/language pathologists, early childhood special education teachers). These thoughts were related to the frequency, intensity, and duration of focal children's negative emotion expressions and their impact in early learning settings.

In addition, future research needs to examine the effect of the emotional environment on the process of emotion socialization in the early childhood setting. For example, findings from the existing literature show that healthy emotional development occurs in nurturing and emotionally supportive environments (Hemmeter et al., 2016). Lastly, future studies need to examine how teachers' instructional styles (meta-emotion philosophy) and instructional approaches to emotion socialization and development influence their responses to negative emotion expressions, particularly with racially/ethnically diverse Boys from disadvantaged backgrounds. Currently, there have not been any studies that have examined meta-emotion philosophy with teachers (Katz et al., 2012). However with caregivers, existing literature posits that meta-emotion philosophy may have the greatest influence on adults responses to negative emotions.

Recommendations for practice. The current model was implemented in the natural environment along with the existing curricula/programming. Current research shows when teachers receive professional development on instructional practices in the natural setting they show high levels of implementation fidelity (Martinez-Beck & Zaslow, 2006; Snyder et al.,

2015; Snyder et al., 2015; Sutherland et al., 2015). Future research needs to examine the types of early childhood professional development models that contribute to the mastery of skills in the natural environment. Findings from this study showed that teachers implementation of instructional practices were immediate. In addition, future studies need to examine the effect of the PBC model within a social learning framework. Unlike the laboratory context, in the early learning context other children witness how teachers respond to focal children. Findings from this study showed that other children responded with the models practices evidenced by their increased use of words to express their negative emotions and their responses to peers emotion expressions. This unique finding showed that preschool-aged children model teachers emotion socialization responses.

Future studies need to explore the curriculum materials and professional development supports needed to foster supportive emotion socialization need to take into account the lower level of formal education and training that characterize the preschool teaching force and possibly resources in small private and non-profit community-based settings. With respect to Ms. Valerie, model implementation was influenced by lack of lesson planning and programming around emotional development. Furthermore, due to the implementation of the current model alongside the existing curriculum, future studies need to examine the roles of coach and consultant in the natural environment. During the current study I acted as both a coach and consultant. I collaborated with Ms. Valerie on lesson plan designs and activities and reinforced the implementation of instructional practices as a coach. Coaching in early learning settings has been described as including focused observations, action planning, self-reflection, and feedback (Hanft et al., 2004). This process included frequent interactions with Ms. Valerie over a short period of time. I served more as a consultant with Ms. Jay. Due to the implementation of an

existing evidence-based emotion program (PATHS; Domitrovich et al., 2007), Ms. Jay had prior training and support related the implementation of model's practices.

Consultation in early learning settings has been defined as indirect approach that focuses on assisting the "teacher" in their natural setting to obtain a goal (Sheridan, Edwards, Marvin, & Knoche, 2009). Similar to the consultant, a goal was to build the teachers capacity to support the emotional and social development of Eric, and to address his individual concerns (Hepburn, Perry, Shivers, & Gilliam, 2013). The flexibility in implementation of the model show promise for integration with the Early Childhood Mental Health Consultation (ECMHC; Hepburn et al., 2013) model. Also related to emerging research related to consultant models, future studies need to examine the effect of consultant's characteristics on teachers' self-reflective capacity.

Further, the current model meets the National Professional Development Center on Inclusion's (NPDCI) three practices that support early childhood inclusion: access, participation, and supports (NPDCI, 2011). The model is designed to meet the needs of all students, particularly students at risk for developmental disabilities and delays, supports the participation of all students, and provides teachers with collaborative professional development to meet the needs of all children. The model showed an impact not only on teachers' behaviors but also child behaviors. For example, in Ms. Valerie's class all children benefited from the model, indicated by the children's use of their words with their peers and encouragement from their peers when expressing negative emotion.

Conclusion

This study provided evidence that preschool teachers can increase their use of emotionally supportive responses to negative emotion expressions of Black boys with low levels of emotional competence with fidelity. Findings from this study uniquely contribute to the larger

body of research due to its focus on racially/ethnically diverse community-based settings with

Black boys from disadvantaged backgrounds. Using a single subject across participants design

allowed me to establish a causal relationship. Findings from the study showed a functional

relation between the intervention and observed teachers' responses. Additionally, when teachers

responded emotionally supportive to focal children's negative emotion expressions, focal

children developed skills for recognizing, identifying, labeling, and expressing emotion. Also,

this study is one of the first to examine how racially/ethnically diverse teachers act as emotion

socializers with Black boys in the early leaning context. This is particularly important due to the

current research that show Black teachers may be better equipped to understand the needs of

Black boys in early learning settings (Gilliam et al., 2016). Moreover, emerging research has

only made the assumption that preschool teachers acted as emotion socializers (Denham et al.,

2012), however, findings from this study showed that preschool teachers' responses can promote

or hinder the growth of emotional competence in young children. Lastly this study is one of the

first to examine emotion socialization and to apply the meta-emotion framework in the early

learning context

References

Ackerman, B. P., Brown, E. D., & Izard, C. E. (2004). The relations between persistent poverty and contextual risk and children's behavior in elementary school. Developmental psychology, 40(3), 367.

Administration for Children and Families (2016a). Expulsion and Suspension Policy Statement. Retrieved from: https://www.acf.hhs.gov/occ/resource/im-2016-03

Administration for Children and Families (2016b). Head Start program performance standards. Retrieved from: https://eclkc.ohs.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/pdf/hspps-final.pdf

Administration for Children and Families (2016b). Head Start Early Learning Outcomes Framework. Retrieved from: https://eclkc.ohs.acf.hhs.gov/school-readiness/article/head-start-early-learning-outcomes-framework

Ahn, H. J. (2005a). Child care teachers' strategies in children's socialization of emotion. Early Child Development and Care, 175(1), 49-61.

Ahn, H. J. (2005). Teachers' discussions of emotion in child care centers. Early Childhood Education Journal, 32(4), 237-242.

Ahn, H. J., & Stifter, C. (2006). Child care teachers' response to children's emotional expression. Early Education and Development, 17(2), 253-270.

America Psychological Association. (2008). Resilience in African American children and adolescents: A vision for optimal development. Washington, DC: Retrieved from http://www.apa.org/pi/cyf/resilience.html

Arsenio, W. F., Cooperman, S., & Lover, A. (2000). Affective predictors of preschoolers' aggression and peer acceptance: Direct and indirect effects. *Developmental psychology*, *36*(4), 438.

Ashiabi, G. S. (2000). Promoting the emotional development of preschoolers. Early Childhood Education Journal, 28(2), 79-84.

Bandura, A. (1978). Social learning theory of aggression. Journal of communication, 28(3), 12-29.

Bassett, H. H., Denham, S. A., Fettig, N. B., Curby, T. W., Mohtasham, M., & Austin, N. (2017). Temperament in the classroom: Children low in surgency are more sensitive to teachers' reactions to emotions. International Journal of Behavioral Development, 41(1), 4-14.

Belgrave, F. Z., & Allison, K. W. (2018). African American psychology: From Africa to America. Sage Publication

Bierman, K. L., Domitrovich, C. E., Nix, R. L., Gest, S. D., Welsh, J. A., Greenberg, M. T., ... & Gill, S. (2008). Promoting academic and social-emotional school readiness: The Head Start REDI program. Child development, 79(6), 1802-1817.

Blanchett, W. J. (2006). Disproportionate representation of African American students in special education: Acknowledging the role of white privilege and racism. Educational Researcher, 35(6), 24-28.

Blankson, A. N., Weaver, J. M., Leerkes, E. M., O'Brien, M., Calkins, S. D., & Marcovitch, S. (2017). Cognitive and emotional processes as predictors of a successful transition into school. Early education and development, 28(1), 1-20.

Bulotsky-Shearer, R. J., Bell, E. R., Romero, S. L., & Carter, T. M. (2012). Preschool interactive peer play mediates problem behavior and learning for low-income children. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 33(1), 53-65.

Bureau of Labor Statistics (2016). Black women in the labor force. Current Population Survey.

Bureau of Labor Statistics (2018). Measuring the value of education. Retrieved from: https://www.bls.gov/careeroutlook/2018/data-on-display/education-pays.htm

Boykin, A. W., & Toms, F. D. (1985). Black child socialization: A conceptual framework.

Center for Early Childhood Mental Health Consultation (CECMHC, 2018). Early Childhood Mental Health Consultation. Retrieved from https://www.ecmhc.org
talk: Age and gender differentiation. Developmental Psychology, 34, 88−98.

Cervantes, C., & Callahan, M. A. (1998). Labels and explanations in mother–child emotion talk: Age and gender differentiation. Developmental Psychology, 34, 88−98.

Children's Defense Fund (2014). Ending child poverty: A moral and economic necessity. Washington DC: Retrieved from https://www.childrensdefense.org/child-watch-columns/health/2016/ending-child-poverty-a-moral-and-economic-necessity/

Conroy, M. A., Sutherland, K. S., Snyder, A., Al-Hendawi, M., & Vo, A. (2009). Creating a

Positive Classroom Atmosphere: Teachers' Use of Effective Praise and Feedback. Beyond Behavior, 18(2), 18-26.

Conroy, M. A., Sutherland, K. S., Vo, A. K., Carr, S., & Ogston, P. L. (2014). Early childhood teachers' use of effective instructional practices and the collateral effects on young children's behavior. Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 16(2), 81-92.

Curby, T. W., Brock, L. L., & Hamre, B. K. (2013). Teachers' emotional support consistency predicts children's achievement gains and social skills. Early Education & Development, 24(3), 292-309.

Denham, S. A. (1986). Social cognition, prosocial behavior, and emotion in preschoolers: Contextual validation. Child development, 194-201.

Denham, S. A., & Burton, R. (1996). A social-emotional intervention for at-risk 4-year-olds. Journal of School psychology, 34(3), 225-245.

Denham, S. A., Zoller, D., & Couchoud, E. A. (1994). Socialization of preschoolers' emotion understanding. Developmental psychology, 30(6), 928.

Denham, S. A., Mitchell-Copeland, J., Strandberg, K., Auerbach, S., & Blair, K. (1997). Parental contributions to preschoolers' emotional competence: Direct and indirect effects. Motivation and Emotion, 21, 65–86.

Denham, S. A., Blair, K. A., DeMulder, E., Levitas, J., Sawyer, K., Auerbach-Major, S., & Queenan, P. (2003). Preschool emotional competence: Pathway to social competence? Child Development, 74, 238–256.

Denham, S. A., Bassett, H. H., & Zinsser, K. (2012a). Early childhood teachers as socializers of young children's emotional competence. Early Childhood Education Journal, 40(3), 137-143.

Denham, S. A., Bassett, H. H., Way, E., Mincic, M., Zinsser, K., & Graling, K. (2012b). Preschoolers' emotion knowledge: Self-regulatory foundations, and predictions of early school success. Cognition & emotion, 26(4), 667-679.

Denham, S. A., Bassett, H., Mincic, M., Kalb, S., Way, E., Wyatt, T., & Segal, Y. (2012c). Social–emotional learning profiles of preschoolers' early school success: A person-centered approach. Learning and individual differences, 22(2), 178-189

Denham, S. A., & Bassett, H. H. (2013). Focal-T: Focal observations of teachers' emotions and reactions to children's emotions. Fairfax, VA: George Mason University.

Denham, S. A., Bassett, H. H., Brown, C., Way, E., & Steed, J. (2015). "I Know How You Feel": Preschoolers' emotion knowledge contributes to early school success. Journal of Early Childhood Research, 13(3), 252-262.

DeSilver, D. (2014). Who's poor in America? 50 years into the 'War on Poverty, a data portrait. Pew Research Center, 13.

Division for Early Childhood. (2014). Recommended practices. Washington DC: Retrieved from https://www.dec-sped.org/dec-recommended-practices

Domitrovich, C. E., Cortes, R. C., & Greenberg, M. T. (2007). Improving young children's social and emotional competence: A randomized trial of the preschool "PATHS" curriculum. The Journal of primary prevention, 28(2), 67-91.

Dodge, D. T., Colker, L., & Heroman, C. (2002). The creative curriculum. New York, NY: Teaching Strategies.

Dunbar, A. S., Perry, N. B., Cavanaugh, A. M., & Leerkes, E. M. (2015). African American parents' racial and emotion socialization profiles and young adults' emotional adaptation. Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 21(3), 409.

Dunbar, A. S., Leerkes, E. M., Coard, S. I., Supple, A. J., & Calkins, S. (2017). An Integrative Conceptual Model of Parental Racial/Ethnic and Emotion Socialization and Links to Children's Social-Emotional Development Among African American Families. Child Development Perspectives, 11(1), 16-22.

Duncan, G. J., Dowsett, C. J., Claessens, A., Magnuson, K., Huston, A. C., Klebanov, P., et al. (2007). School readiness and later achievement. Developmental Psychology,43(6), 1428–1446.

Dunsmore, J. C., & Halberstadt, A. G. (1997). How does family emotional expressiveness affect children's schemas?. New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development, 1997(77), 45-68.

Dunsmore, J. C., Her, P., Halberstadt, A. G., & Perez-Rivera, M. B. (2009). Parents' beliefs about emotions and children's recognition of parents' emotions. Journal of nonverbal behavior, 33(2), 121-140.

Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P., Dymnicki, A. B., Taylor, R. D., & Schellinger, K. B. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions. Child development, 82(1), 405-432.

Ekman, P., Friesen, W. V., & Simons, R. C. (1985). Is the startle reaction an emotion?. Journal of personality and social psychology, 49(5), 1416.

Eisenberg, N., Cumberland, A., & Spinrad, T. L. (1998). Parental socialization of emotion. Psychological inquiry, 9(4), 241-273.

Eisenberg, N., Valiente, C., Morris, A. S., Fabes, R. A., Cumberland, A., Reiser, M., ... &

Losoya, S. (2003). Longitudinal relations among parental emotional expressivity, children's regulation, and quality of socioemotional functioning. Developmental psychology, 39(1), 3.

Ewing, A. R., & Taylor, A. R. (2009). The role of child gender and ethnicity in teacher–child relationship quality and children's behavioral adjustment in preschool. Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 24(1), 92-105.

Fabes, R. A., Poulin, R. E., Eisenberg, N., & Madden-Derdich, D. A. (2002). The Coping with Children's Negative Emotions Scale (CCNES): Psychometric properties and relations with children's emotional competence. Marriage & Family Review.

Fleming, J. E., & Bay, M. (2004). Social and emotional learning in teacher preparation standards. Building academic success on social and emotional learning: What does the research say, 94-110.

Fontenot, K., Semega, J., & Kollar, M. (2018). Income and poverty in the United States: 2017. U.S. Census Bureau. Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/library/publications/2018/demo/p60-263.html

Fox, L., Hemmeter, M. L., Snyder, P., Binder, D. P., & Clarke, S. (2011). Coaching early childhood special educators to implement a comprehensive model for promoting young children's social competence. Topics in early childhood special education, 31(3), 178-192.

Garner, P. W., & Waajid, B. (2008). The associations of emotion knowledge and teacher–child relationships to preschool children's school-related developmental competence. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 29(2), 89-100.

Gast, D.L. (2010). Single subject research methodology in behavioral sciences. Ne York, NY: Routledge.

Gay, G. (2002). Preparing for culturally responsive teaching. Journal of teacher education, 53(2), 106-116.

Gilliam, W. S. (2005). Prekindergarteners left behind: Expulsion rates in state prekindergarten systems. New York, NY: Foundation for Child Development.

Gilliam, W. S., Maupin, A. N., Reyes, C. R., Accavitti, M., & Shic, F. (2016). Do early educators' implicit biases regarding sex and race relate to behavior expectations and recommendations of preschool expulsions and suspensions. Research Study Brief. Yale University, Yale Child Study Center, New Haven, CT

Girvan, E. J., Gion, C., McIntosh, K., & Smolkowski, K. (2017). The relative contribution of subjective office referrals to racial disproportionality in school discipline. School psychology quarterly, 32(3), 392.

Gottman, J. M., Katz, L. F., & Hooven, C. (1996). Parental meta-emotion philosophy and the emotional life of families: Theoretical models and preliminary data. Journal of Family Psychology, 10(3), 243.

Gottman, J. M., Katz, L. F., & Hooven, C. (1997). Meta-emotion. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum. Kagitcibasi, C. (1970). Social norms and authoritarianism: A Turkish–American comparison. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 16, 444-451.

Gottman, J. M., & DeClaire, J. (1997). The heart of parenting: Raising an emotionally intelligent child. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Government Accountability Office. (2018). K-12 Education: Discipline disparities for Black students, boys, and students with disabilities. Retrieved from: https://www.gao.gov/products/GAO-18-258

Graves Jr, S. L., & Howes, C. (2011). Ethnic differences in social-emotional development in preschool: The impact of teacher child relationships and classroom quality. School Psychology Quarterly, 26(3), 202.

Greenberg, M. T., Kusche, C. A., Cook, E. T., & Quamma, J. P. (1995). Promoting emotional competence in school-aged children: The effects of the PATHS curriculum. Development and psychopathology, 7(1), 117-136.

Halberstadt, A. G. (1991). Toward an ecology of expressiveness: Family socialization in particular and a model in general.

Halberstadt, A. G., Thompson, J. A., Parker, A. E., & Dunsmore, J. C. (2008). Parents' emotion-related beliefs and behaviors in relation to children's coping with the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks. Infant and Child Development: An International Journal of Research and Practice, 17(6), 557-580.

Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2006). Student-Teacher Relationships.

Hanft, B., Rush, D., & Shelden, M. (2004). Coaching families and colleagues in early childhood. Baltimore: Brookes

Hargreaves, A. (1998). The emotional practice of teaching. Teaching and teacher education.

Havighurst, S. S., Wilson, K. R., Harley, A. E., & Prior, M. R. (2009). Tuning in to kids: an emotion-focused parenting program—initial findings from a community trial. Journal of Community Psychology, 37(8), 1008-1023.

Hemmeter, M. L., Snyder, P. A., Fox, L., & Algina, J. (2016). Evaluating the implementation of the Pyramid Model for promoting social-emotional competence in early childhood classrooms. Topics in Early Childhood Special Education, 36(3), 133-146.

Hepburn, K. S., Perry, D. F., Shivers, E. M., & Gilliam, W. S. (2013). Early childhood mental health consultation as an evidence-based practice: Where does it stand. Zero to Three, 33(5), 10-19.

Horner, R. H., Carr, E. G., Halle, J., McGee, G., Odom, S., & Wolery, M. (2005). The use of single-subject research to identify evidence-based practice in special education. Exceptional children, 71(2), 165-179.

Howes, C., & Shivers, E. M. (2006). New child–caregiver attachment relationships: Entering childcare when the caregiver is and is not an ethnic match. Social Development, 15(4), 574-590.

Humphries, M. L., Keenan, K., & Wakschlag, L. S. (2012). Teacher and observer ratings of young African American children's social and emotional competence. Psychology in the Schools, 49(4), 311-327.

Humphries, M. L., Williams, B. V., & May, T. (2018). Early Childhood Teachers' Perspectives on Social-Emotional Competence and Learning in Urban Classrooms. Journal of Applied School Psychology, 34(2), 157-179.

Izard, C. E., Fine, S., Schultz, D., Mostow, A., Ackerman, B., & Youngstrom, E. (2001). Emotion knowledge as a predictor of social behavior and academic competence in children at risk. Psychological Science, 12, 18–23.

Izard, C. E., Trentacosta, C. J., King, K. A., & Mostow, A. J. (2004). An emotion-based prevention program for Head Start children. Early Education & Development, 15(4), 407-422.

Izard, C., Stark, K., Trentacosta, C., & Schultz, D. (2008). Beyond emotion regulation: Emotion utilization and adaptive functioning. Child Development Perspectives, 2, 156–163.

Jennings, P. A., & Greenberg, M. T. (2009). The prosocial classroom: Teacher social and emotional competence in relation to student and classroom outcomes. Review of educational research, 79(1), 491-525.

Kazdin, A. E. (1982). Single-case experimental designs in clinical research and practice. New Directions for Methodology of Social & Behavioral Science.

Katz, L. F., & Gottman, J. M. (1986). The meta-emotion interview. Unpublished manual, University of Washington, Department of Psychology.

Katz, L. F., Wilson, B., & Gottman, J. M. (1999). Meta-emotion philosophy and family adjustment: Making an emotional connection. Conflict and cohesion in families: Causes and consequences, 131-165.

Katz, L. F., Maliken, A. C., & Stettler, N. M. (2012). Parental meta-emotion philosophy: A review of research and theoretical framework. Child Development Perspectives, 6(4), 417-422.

Ladson-Billings, G. (1995). Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy. American educational research journal, 32(3), 465-491.

Lagacé-Séguin, D. G., & Coplan, R. J. (2005). Maternal emotional styles and child social adjustment: Assessment, correlates, outcomes and goodness of fit in early childhood. Social Development, 14(4), 613-636.

Lee, C. H., Hakim-Larson, J., & Voelker, S. (2000). The Parenting Styles Self-Test: Psychometric properties. In Poster presented at the annual meeting of the Canadian Psychological Association, Ottawa, Ontario.

Lerner, R. (2017). The 10 richest counties in America 2017. Retrieved from: https://www.forbes.com/sites/rebeccalerner/2017/07/13/top-10-richest-counties-in-america-2017/#2c3297e92ef3

Losen, D. J., & Orfield, G. (2002). Racial inequity in special education. Harvard Education Publishing Group, 8 Story Street, 5th Floor, Cambridge, MA 02138.

Losen, D. J., & Skiba, R. J. (2010). Suspended education: Urban middle schools in crisis.

Losen, D. J., Hodson, C. L., Keith, I. I., Michael, A., Morrison, K., & Belway, S. (2015). Are we closing the school discipline gap?.

Lozada, F. T., Halberstadt, A. G., Craig, A. B., Dennis, P. A., & Dunsmore, J. C. (2016). Parents' beliefs about children's emotions and parents' emotion-related conversations with their children. Journal of child and Family Studies, 25(5), 1525-1538.

Lunkenheimer, E. S., Shields, A. M., & Cortina, K. S. (2007). Parental emotion coaching and dismissing in family interaction. Social Development, 16(2), 232-248.

Marlow, L., & Inman, D. (2002). Pro-Social Literacy: Are Educators Being Prepared to Teach Social and Emotional Competence?.

Mashburn, A. J., Pianta, R. C., Hamre, B. K., Downer, J. T., Barbarin, O. A., Bryant, D., ... & Howes, C. (2008). Measures of classroom quality in prekindergarten and children's development of academic, language, and social skills. Child development, 79(3), 732-749.

McClelland, M. M., Morrison, F. J., & Holmes, D. L. (2000). Children at risk for early academic problems: The role of learning-related social skills. Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 15(3), 307–329.

McCoy, D. C., & Raver, C. C. (2011). Caregiver emotional expressiveness, child emotion regulation, and child behavior problems among head start families. Social Development, 20(4), 741-761.

McLoyd, V. C. (1998). Socioeconomic disadvantage and child development. American psychologist, 53(2), 185.

Meek, S., & Gilliam, W. (2016). Expulsion and Suspension in Early Education as Matters of Social Justice and Health Equity.

Meehan, B. T., Hughes, J. N., & Cavell, T. A. (2003). Teacher–student relationships as compensatory resources for aggressive children. Child development, 74(4), 1145-1157.

Michalson, L., & Lewis, M. (1985). What do children know about emotions and when do they know it? In M. Lewis & C. Saarni (Eds.), The socialization of emotion (pp. 117-140). New York: Plenum Press.

Miller, A. L., Gouley, K. K., Seifer, R., Zakriski, A., Eguia, M., & Vergnani, M. (2005). Emotion Knowledge Skills in Low-income Elementary School Children: Associations with Social Status and Peer Experiences. Social Development, 14(4), 637-651.

Miller, A. L., Fine, S. E., Kiely Gouley, K., Seifer, R., Dickstein, S., & Shields, A. (2006). Showing and telling about emotions: Interrelations between facets of emotional competence and associations with classroom adjustment in Head Start preschoolers. Cognition and Emotion, 20(8), 1170-1192.

Moynihan, D. P. (1997). The Negro family: The case for national action (1965). African American Male Research, 1-35.

Murray, C., Waas, G. A., & Murray, K. M. (2008). Child race and gender as moderators of the association between teacher–child relationships and school adjustment. Psychology in the Schools, 45(6), 562-578.

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2018). The condition of education Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_cfa.asp

Nelson, J. A., Leerkes, E. M., Perry, N. B., O'brien, M., Calkins, S. D., & Marcovitch, S. (2013). European-American and African-American Mothers' Emotion Socialization Practices Relate Differently to Their Children's Academic and Social-emotional Competence. Social Development, 22(3), 485-498.

Nix, R. L., Bierman, K. L., Domitrovich, C. E., & Gill, S. (2013). Promoting children's social-emotional skills in preschool can enhance academic and behavioral functioning in kindergarten: Findings from Head Start REDI. Early Education & Development, 24(7), 1000-1019.

Office for Civil Rights (2014). Data Snapshot: Early childhood education. Washington DC: Retrieved from
https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/crdc-early-learning-snapshot.pdf

Office for Civil Rights (2016). Key data highlights on equity and opportunity gaps in our nation's public schools. Washington DC: Retrieved from
https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/2013-14-first-look.pdf

Office for Civil Rights. (2018). Data highlights on school climate and safety in our nation's public schools. Washington DC: Retrieved from
https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/school-climate-and-safety.pdf

Patten, E., & Krogstad, J. M. (2015). Black child poverty rate holds steady, even as other groups see declines. Pew Research Center, 14.

Pew Research Center. (2015). Black child poverty rate holds steady even as other groups see declines. Washington DC: Retrieved from http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2015/07/14/black-child-poverty-rate-holds-steady-even-as-other-groups-see-declines/

Pianta, R. C. (1999). Enhancing relationships between children and teachers. American Psychological Association.

Pianta, R., Howes, C., Burchinal, M., Bryant, D., Clifford, R., Early, D., & Barbarin, O. (2005). Features of pre-kindergarten programs, classrooms, and teachers: Do they predict observed classroom quality and child-teacher interactions?. Applied developmental science, 9(3), 144-159.

Pigott, R. L., & Cowen, E. L. (2000). Teacher race, child race, racial congruence, and teacher ratings of children's school adjustment. Journal of School Psychology, 38(2), 177-195.

Raver, C. (2003). Young children's emotional development and school readiness. Social policy report, 16(3), 3-19.

Raver, C. C. (2004). Placing emotional self-regulation in sociocultural and socioeconomic contexts. Child development, 75(2), 346-353

Rhoades, B. L., Warren, H. K., Domitrovich, C. E., & Greenberg, M. T. (2011). Examining the link between preschool social–emotional competence and first grade academic achievement: The role of attention skills. Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 26, 182–191.

Ross, M. R., Powell, S. R., & Elias, M. J. (2002). New roles for school psychologists: Addressing the social and emotional learning needs of students. School Psychology Review, 31(1), 43-52.

Saarni, C. (1999). The development of emotional competence. Guilford Press.

Serpell, Z., Hayling, C. C., Stevenson, H., & Kern, L. (2009). Cultural considerations in the development of school-based interventions for African American adolescent boys with emotional and behavioral disorders. The Journal of Negro Education, 321-332.

Sheridan, S. M., Edwards, C. P., Marvin, C. A., & Knoche, L. L. (2009). Professional development in early childhood programs: Process issues and research needs. Early education and development, 20(3), 377-401.

Shields, A., Dickstein, S., Seifer, R., Giusti, L., Dodge Magee, K., & Spritz, B. (2001). Emotional competence and early school adjustment: A study of preschoolers at risk. Early Education and Development, 12(1), 73-96.

Skiba, R. J., Michael, R. S., Nardo, A. C., & Peterson, R. L. (2002). The color of discipline: Sources of racial and gender disproportionality in school punishment. The urban review, 34(4), 317-342.

Smolkowski, K., Girvan, E. J., McIntosh, K., Nese, R. N., & Horner, R. H. (2016). Vulnerable decision points for disproportionate office discipline referrals: Comparisons of discipline for African American and White elementary school students. Behavioral Disorders, 41(4), 178-195.

Snyder, P. (2007). Impact of professional development on preschool teachers' use of embedded-instruction practices. Funded from the US Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, Washington DC (Grant No. R324A070008).

Snyder, P. A., Hemmeter, M. L., & Fox, L. (2015). Supporting implementation of evidence-based practices through practice-based coaching. Topics in Early Childhood Special Education, 35(3), 133-143.

Snyder, P., Hemmeter, M. L., McLean, M., Sandall, S., McLaughlin, T., & Algina, J. (2018). Effects of professional development on preschool teachers' use of embedded instruction practices. Exceptional Children, 84(2), 213-232.

Sutherland, K. S., Conroy, M. A., Vo, A., & Ladwig, C. (2015). Implementation integrity of practice-based coaching: Preliminary results from the BEST in CLASS efficacy trial. School Mental Health, 7(1), 21-33.

Thomas, A. J., & Blackmon, S. K. M. (2015). The influence of the Trayvon Martin shooting on racial socialization practices of African American parents. Journal of Black Psychology, 41(1), 75-89.

Torres, M. M., Domitrovich, C. E., & Bierman, K. L. (2015). Preschool interpersonal

relationships predict kindergarten achievement: Mediated by gains in emotion knowledge. Journal of applied developmental psychology, 39, 44-52.

Upshur, C. C., Heyman, M., & Wenz-Gross, M. (2017). Efficacy trial of the Second Step Early Learning (SSEL) curriculum: preliminary outcomes. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 50, 15-25.

U.S. Department of Labor (DOL, 2017) Twelve stats about working women. Retrieved from: https://blog.dol.gov/2017/03/01/12-stats-about-working-women

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families. (January 2010). Head Start impact study: Final report. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved from: https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/opre/hs_impact_study_final.pdf

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services and Education Policy Statement on Expulsion and Suspension Policies in Early Childhood Settings (2016). ODAS, ECD-ACF-PS-2016-01. https://www.acf.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/ecd/expulsion_ps_numbered.pdf

Voltmer, K., & von Salisch, M. (2017). Three meta-analyses of children's emotion knowledge and their school success. Learning and Individual Differences, 59, 107-118.

Waitoller, F. R., Artiles, A. J., & Cheney, D. A. (2010). The miner's canary: A review of overrepresentation research and explanations. The Journal of Special Education, 44(1), 29-49.

Ware, F. (2006). Warm demander pedagogy: Culturally responsive teaching that supports a culture of achievement for African American students. Urban education, 41(4), 427-456.

Webster-Stratton, C., Reid, M. J., & Hammond, M. (2004). Treating children with early-onset conduct problems: Intervention outcomes for parent, child, and teacher training. Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology, 33(1), 105-124.

Wolf, M. M. (1978). Social validity: The case for subjective measurement or how applied behavior analysis is finding its heart. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 11(2), 203-214.

Zinsser, K. M., Shewark, E. A., Denham, S. A., & Curby, T. W. (2014). A mixed-method examination of preschool teacher beliefs about social–emotional learning and relations to observed emotional support. Infant and Child Development, 23(5), 471-493.

Appendix A

Event Recording Form

Teacher: Date:

Class: Observer:

Teaching practice:

Instructions: Make a mark each time a response occurs. If no response after 15 seconds code as "ignore."

Time	N/E	Teacher's Response	Context	Type of Response	Total
Ex.: 8:30-9:00 am	sad	"Use your words"	"child bumps head"	minimize	12

Note: Event or frequency indicates how frequently a behavior occurs during a specified period of time.

Appendix B

Implementation Fidelity Checklist

Practice:		Skillfulness					
	Occurrence	Very Poor	Poor	Acceptable	Good	Very Good
Intervention Delivery • Very poor: The teacher delivers the intervention in an unacceptable manner	1					
• Poor: The teacher delivers intervention poorly • Acceptable: The teacher delivers the intervention in an acceptable manner	2					
• Good: The teacher delivers the intervention well and demonstrates skillfulness during implementation	3					
• Very good: The teacher demonstrates skill and expertise during implementation	4					

Appendix C

Coaching Integrity Checklist

Opening	Yes	No
• Discussed overall satisfaction and success of the intervention		
• Provided meeting objectives		
• Reviewed weekly action plan and goals		
Summary of Observations	Yes	No
• Provided examples and/or non-examples		
• Discussed occurrences		
• Fidelity of implementation/baseline implementation		
• Discussed types of negative emotion		
• Discussed focal child's response behavior		
Provided Feedback	Yes	No
• Progress towards goal/s		

Discussed Target Support • Direct modeling from coach (if applicable) • Additional resources	
Action Plan and Goals • Develop, update, or review action plan and goals	
Teacher Feedback • Provide opportunity for teacher to give feedback	
Closing: • Discussed goals for the next week	

Appendix D

Instructional Style Checklist

Based on existing literature, this checklist will determine teachers instructional style to emotion socialization. Terms are:

Emotion coaching teachers view children's negative emotion as an opportunity for intimacy or teaching, validate and label their children's emotion, and discussed goals and strategies for dealing with the situation that led to the emotion.

Emotion dismissing teachers tended to deny or ignore emotion, viewed their role as helping to change negative emotions or make them go away quickly, and conveyed to their children that emotions are unimportant.

Observed Behaviors	Yes	No	Teacher Reported Beliefs/Thoughts
teacher validates emotion (e.g. I can see that you are sad)			
teacher label child's emotion			
teacher express empathy			
teacher helps child problem solve			
███████████████████████			
teacher dismisses emotion ("what are you crying for!")			
teacher minimize emotion (e.g. "crying over stickers is silly")			
teacher ignores emotion (intentionally/unintentionally)			

teacher removes from source			
teacher doesn't respond			

Appendix E

Action Planning Form

Teacher ID:	Coach ID:	Date:	

Goal	Action steps	Goal is met when	

Notes:

Appendix F

Coaching Template

| Opening meeting: |
| Summary of observations: |
| Feedback: |
| Target support: |
| Discussed action plan and goals |
| Teachers feedback: |
| Closing |

Appendix G

Teacher Reflection Checklist

Teacher's Feedback/Reflections	Yes	No
Did you feel comfortable with practice?		
Did practice fit your teaching style and routine and/or is the practice adaptable to your teaching style and routine?		
Do you feel the practice is acceptable for use with preschool-aged Black boys?		

Evandra Catherine

Office: 1015 W Main Street
            Oliver Hall, Room 4069
            Richmond, VA 23284

Email: ecatherine@vcu.edu
Phone: (804) 874-4311

Education

Current	Doctoral Candidate	Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA Special Education and Disability Policy Research to Policy Advocacy
		Dissertation Title: Effects of Practice-Based Coaching Intervention on Preschool Teachers' Emotionally Supportive Responses to Black Boys' Negative Emotion Expression
2012	MPA	Strayer University, Henrico, VA Thesis: Mixed-income Housing Effect on African Americans
2008	B. A	Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA African American Studies Honors: Cum Laude

Military Service

2001-2005	United States Airforce Honorable discharge Rank: Staff Sergeant, E-5

Honors and Awards

2016	Progressive Christian Citizens Group Community Member of the Year
2015	Richmond's Style Weekly Top 40 Under 40
2007	Audrey Smedley Family Scholarship
2002	Air Force Commendation Medal

Recent Work History & Internships

Fall 2018	**State Policy Internship:** Internship Supervisor, Donna Gilles, Ph.D., Virginia Commonwealth University. Continued research and analysis from federal policy internship on exclusionary discipline in early childhood education settings. Reviewed Virginia's response to federal guidance on exclusionary discipline and other state initiatives to address racial inequities in discipline.
Summer 2018	**Federal Policy Internship:** Internship Supervisor, Shana Bellow, Ph.D., Georgetown University Center for Child and Human Development. Analyzed federal policy related to exclusionary discipline in early childhood education settings. Also reviewed facilitators guide for core content areas in Head Start professional development.
2016-current	**Graduate Assistant for Dr. Yaoying Xu:** Work directly with faculty members on current research projects in early childhood, early intervention services. Maintained department blog site, Department of Counseling and Special Education, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA
2015-2016	**Director Community Engagement:** Assisted the department chair in coordinating and planning activities, events and programs that involve Richmond City community participation and partnerships. Principle advisor to the African & African American Student Empowerment Project student organization and supervisor to African American Studies majors in community engaged research and service internships. Worked collaboratively with Division of Inclusive Excellence, Office of Multicultural Student Affairs and Office of the President to address students concerns regarding decline in retention and recruitment of underrepresented students and faculty, Department of African American Studies, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA
2014-2016	**Management Analyst and Grants Manager:** Provided managerial, administrative, and policy support to the Chief Administrative Officer (CAO). Performed multiple duties related to citywide programs, projects, and issues which crosses operational and administrative lines. Represented the CAO inside and outside the organization Performed as program administrator for CAO projects and programs. Worked in specific policy areas such as education, workforce development, city administration, fiscal management, and public works and utilities. Conducted ongoing policy research concerning innovative strategies. Managed approximately $1.1M non-departmental budget request for funding process and completion of grant contracts. Worked collaboratively with other City Departments including Department of Public Works and Utilities, Office of Budget and Strategic Development, Department of Economic and Community Development and Office of Minority Business and Development, City of Richmond, Richmond, VA

Fields or Areas of Special Interest Within Discipline or Profession

Research Interests: My primary research interests examine the emotion socialization behaviors of preschool teachers, specifically responses to the negative emotion expressions of preschool-aged Black boys and the relationship between emotion socialization and problem behaviors in the preschool environment.

Manuscripts & Publications

Scott, L.A., Morgan, J.J., Brendli, K., & **Catherine, E**. (under review). A review of state policies regulating special education alternative pathways to licensure requirements. Submitted to Teacher Education and Special Education.

Scott, L.A., ***Catherine, E.,** & Bettini, L. (in preparation). Gender and racial/ethnicity distributions of general and special education teachers.

Non-Refereed papers

Massaro, V., Taylor, N., **Catherine, E**., & Wallace, W. (2017). Armstrong Priorities Freshman Academy: A Case Study Report of Year Two. *Metropolitan Educational Research Consortium.* Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA.

Walther-Thomas, C., **Catherine, E**., Carter, P., Pelt, R., Taylor, J., Thompson, M., Wallace, W., Whittenburg, H., & Wright, J. (2017). Three Critical Areas for Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities Research and Related Recommendations for Early Career Researchers. *American Association on Intellectual Disabilities Student and Early Career Special Interest Group*, https://medium.com/aaidd-secp-sig/three-critical-areas-for-intellectual-and-developmental-disabilities-research-and-related-d70d62701108

Refereed Professional Presentations

Catherine, E. (2019). Examining Preschool Caregivers' Emotion Socialization Behaviors. Roundtable presentation, Holmes PreConference, AACTE 71st Annual Meeting, Louisville, KY.

Brendli, K., Scott, L., Morgan, J., & **Catherine, E.** (2019). A review of state policies regulating special education alternative routes to licensure requirements. National Association for Alternative Certification (NAAC) 29th Annual Conference, Washington, D.C.

Catherine, E. (2019). Emotion Socialization of Preschool-aged Black Boys. Poster Presentation, Council for Exceptional Children 2019 Special Education Convention & Expo, DDEL Student Research Forum, Indianapolis, IN.

Catherine, E. (2018). Lions Story: 50 Years of Black Student Activism at VCU. Presenter,

VCU's 50th Anniversary Symposium, Richmond, VA.

Catherine, E. (2018). Enhancing Emotion Knowledge in Preschool-aged Black Boys. Presenter, 41st Teacher Education Division Conference, Las Vegas, NV.

Catherine, E. (2018). Emotional Development of Preschool Aged Black Boys. Presenter, 15th Annual Metropolitan Education Research Consortium, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA.

Catherine, E. (2018). The Need for Emotional Learning in Public Urban Preschool Programs. Presenter, 6th Annual Black Doctoral Network Conference, Charlotte, NC.

Catherine, E. & Scott, L.A. (2018). Gender Composition of Special Education and General Education Teacher Workforce. Co-presenter for VACTE/ACTE-VA Conference, University of William & Mary, Williamsburg, VA.

Catherine, E. (2018). Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Strategies for Diverse Students. Poster presentation, Holmes PreConference, AACTE 70th Annual Meeting, Baltimore, MD.

Catherine, E. (2017). Culturally Relevant Pedagogy and Black Boys in Urban Education Settings. Presentation at 14th Annual Metropolitan Education Research Consortium, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA.

Catherine, E (2017). Neoliberalism Education & Students with Disabilities. Presentation at 10th Annual Equity and Social Justice Conference, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA.

Non-Refereed Presentations

Catherine, E. (2018). Using People First Language & Cultural Diversity. Session Leader. Norfolk Collegiate High School Annual Diversity Awareness Conference, Norfolk, VA.

Catherine, E. (2018). Black Boys in Public School. Keynote for VCU Department of African American Studies Community Series, Richmond, VA.

Catherine, E. (2017). Education & Healthcare Policy. Invited guest speaker Fairfield Baptist Church Vacation Bible School, Richmond, VA.

Catherine, E. (2017). Our Hair-tege. Presentation at VCU 2nd Annual Cultural Awareness Day. Office of Multicultural Student Affairs, Richmond, VA.

Catherine, E. (2017). Forgotten News. Forgotten Names: Art, Advocacy & Activation. Moderator at VCU School of the Arts Short Film Opening, Richmond, VA.

Catherine, E. (2017). Racial Disproportionality, School Discipline, & Future Directions: A Community Conversation. Moderator. VCU School of Education, Richmond, VA.

Catherine, E. (2017). Moving the Black Community Forward in the Trump Era. Keynote. Middlesex County NAACP Farewell Obama Gala, Middlesex, VA.

Catherine, E. (2017). Time for A Change. Keynote. Middlesex County NAACP Family Banquet, Middlesex, VA.

Catherine, E. (2016) Diversity & Inclusion. Keynote. Norfolk Collegiate High School Annual Diversity Awareness Conference, Norfolk, VA.

Catherine, E. (2016). Empowering Young Men of Color. Panelist at Newport News My Brother's Keeper Annual Event, Newport News, VA.

Research Experience

Current	**Metropolitan Educational Research Consortium (MERC) Study Team Member**, tabulating data on each of the 7 partnering school division on variables related to age, SES, urbanicity, and other population demographics
2018	**Student researcher** nominated to conduct university-level research of the archives related to Black student activism at VCU for the 50th Anniversary Symposium.
2018	**Study team co-author**, study to examine secondary data analysis of SASS data set to explore gender composition of special education and general education teacher workforce
2017	**Data Collector,** transcribed interviews, analyzed them for themes, and developed a case study report discussing the results for the second-year cohort of the Armstrong Priorities Freshman Academy.

Teaching Experience

Spr. 2019	**Guest Lecturer,** Race, Poverty, & Disability. SEDP 619, *Multicultural Perspectives in Education,* Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA
Fall 2018	**Instructor**, UNIV 291, Urban Education Experience. Virginia Commonwealth University (face to face) (Freshmen First Year Experience course)
Fall 2018	**Guest Lecturer,** Policy, Practice, Research in Early Childhood. SEDP 707, *Critical Issues in Special Education,* Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA.

Summer 2018   **Teaching Internship,** SEDP 619, *Multicultural Perspectives in Education*, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA.

Spr. 2018   **Guest Lecturer,** Students with Visual Impairments. SEDP 330, *Introduction into Special Education,* Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA.

Fall 2017   **Guest Lecturer,** Students with Visual Impairments. SEDP 330, *Introduction into Special Education,* Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA.

Spr. 2017   **Guest Lecturer,** Students with Visual Impairments. SEDP 330, *Introduction into Special Education,* Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA.

Service

Virginia Commonwealth University

2018-2019	President	VCU Holmes Scholar Program
2017-2018	Search Committee Member	Ruth Harris Professorship, School of Education, VCU
2017-2018	Chair	Community Engagement & Political Action Black Graduate Student Association at VCU
2016-2017	Co-Chair	Mentoring committee for doctoral students School of Education, VCU
2016-2017	Committee Member	President's Action Group for Diversity & Inclusion, President's Office, VCU

Professional Service

2018-2019	Journal Reviewer	The Teacher Educators' Journal (TTEJ)
2018-2019	Journal Reviewer	Journal of Child and Family Studies

Community Service

2015-2016	Committee Member	Education Council United Way Greater Richmond & Petersburg
2015-2016	Secretary	United Way Young Leaders Society United Way Greater Richmond & Petersburg
2015-2016	Treasurer	VCU African American Alumni Council

Professional Memberships

2018-current	National Council of Negro Women
2017-current	Council for Exceptional Children
2017-current	Division for Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Exceptional Learners (DDEL)
2017-current	Teacher Education Division (TED)
2008	Zeta Phi Beta Sorority Incorporated