Students have their Say: What can New Zealand Secondary School Students tell us about their Emotional Experiences in the Classroom?

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Abstract

Hargreaves (1998) argued that emotions are central to teaching. While some attention has been given to emotions in the primary school sector, little research has been undertaken to understand the role of emotion in the secondary school context. To address this gap, focus groups with secondary students were conducted to ascertain how different students experienced teachers' social-emotional interactions and the relationship these interactions had to their learning experiences. Obtained data were analysed qualitatively and themes fell under two categories, teachers' emotional behaviours that alter the emotional classroom climate, and the outcomes of these behaviours. A dynamic was found to operate between the two as students identified mirroring their teachers' emotions which affected their academic attitudes and outcomes. Highlighted in the research is that students' emotional needs are central to teaching practices and that teachers can utilise emotion in their teaching to enhance academic responsiveness. Emotionally driven anecdotes aim to develop teachers' use of emotion in teaching through illustrating the power of their role as more than educators of academic content.
Acknowledgements

Ehara taku toa, he takitahi, he toa takitini

*My success should not be bestowed onto me alone, as it was not individual success but success of a collective*

To the students who made this project possible, thank you! Your maturity and your insights blew me away. I am so happy to have been able to share in your experiences as secondary school students.

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<td>CES</td>
<td>Classroom Environment Scale</td>
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<td>CASEL</td>
<td>Collaborative for Academic Social and Emotional Learning</td>
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<td>ECC</td>
<td>Emotional Classroom Climate</td>
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<td>ETP</td>
<td>Effective Teaching Profile</td>
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<td>NCEA</td>
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Chapter One – Introduction

“The most basic of all human needs is the need to understand and be understood. The best way to understand people is to listen to them.”
- Ralph G. Nichols

Moos and Moos (1978) determined early on that the classroom context had three key components; discipline, learning and relationships. Harvey and Evans (2003) expanded on the relationships component to unpack Hargreaves’ (1998) argument that emotions are central to teaching. Through utilising teachers nominated by school personnel as maintaining a positive Emotional Classroom Climate (ECC), and students who had experienced a dramatic change in their emotional and behavioural issues from one year to the next, Harvey and Evans (2003) gained an insight into what made these particular primary school classroom environments positive. This led to the development of their ECC evidence-based model that displays what it is that New Zealand primary school students and teachers believe maintains a positive ECC. This same perspective is yet to be explored in the secondary school setting.

What has been established in the secondary school literature is that students become less engaged following their transition from intermediate school (Eccles et al., 1993), and students’ relationships with their teachers appear to decline (Hargreaves, 2000). Despite not having isolated the emotional component as did Harvey and Evans, research has documented factors relevant to discipline, learning and relationships all being valued by secondary school students, with relationships being the mediating factor (Anderson, Hamilton, & Hattie, 2004; Meyer, Weir, McClure, Walkey, & McKenzie, 2009; Moos & Moos, 1978). Internationally, adolescent students have reported their desire for teachers who listen to them and respect them as individuals, uphold balanced and fair classroom management, see their students as having potential to succeed, and undertake learning from a position of humour (Bempechat, Mirny, Li, Wenk, & Holloway, 2011; Bempechat, Ronfard, Jin, Mirny, & Holloway, 2013; Catterall, 1998; Cox & Kennedy, 2008; Irwin, 2007; Wentzel, 2002).
Locally, the situation is similar. Irwin (2007) conducted a New Zealand based study in three secondary schools, asking boys in Years 9, 11 and 13 to provide their perspective on what can hinder or enhance their learning. Overwhelmingly, more than 90% of the 127 boys involved in the interviews across the three diverse schools identified the teacher as the single most important factor that could improve academic attitudes and outcomes. Furthermore, factors that inhibited learning were identified as being due to the students’ own disruptive behaviour, yet these behaviours were discussed as stemming from the teacher having a poor teaching pedagogy and/or no relationship with the student. If, as suggested by Irwin, the student-teacher relationship is so critical to learning and has an overriding effect on many other classroom aspects, then the development and maintenance of this relationship needs to be further explored. Predominantly, research needs to understand what specific emotional skills are necessary in secondary school classrooms to enhance the school experience, and how this impacts on achievement attitudes, behaviours and outcomes.

To understand the role emotion plays in influencing academic behaviours and outcomes, the Baumeister, Vohs, DeWall, and Zhang (2007) model of emotion as a feedback system indirectly impacting behaviour is applied, this explains:

Conscious emotions provide feedback about behavior, stimulate cognitive analysis, and promote revisions of the programming on which people react to events. Conscious emotions can also be anticipated and so people behave in ways that will pursue desired emotional outcomes. (pp. 175-176)

Baumeister et al’s (2007) model highlights the relationship emotional elements of teaching can have to students’ behaviours and academic outcomes. If behaviours are adjusted in relation to emotion, then how teachers manage emotional reactions during their lessons is thought to be important for future classroom behaviour. The goal of the current research then is to determine how students perceive teachers’ emotional behaviours as affecting their own emotion, and consequently behaviour.
To understand students’ perspectives on their teachers’ emotional behaviours, students’ voice will be sought. Presently, two thirds of New Zealand’s students undertake thirteen years of schooling (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2013). This time is spent learning what is laid out in the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007), under conditions determined by the classroom teacher, school principal and Board of Trustees, within the confines of requirements set by the Ministry of Education. Irwin (2007) purported that students are typically positioned at the bottom of the education hierarchy and not included in the decision making process, despite students having powerful insights as to what they need within the school system. Thus Fagan (2012) argues for the voice of students to be heard:

Hearing the perspective of young adults is essential not only for those working alongside them, but also for those involved in developing programmes or policies that impact on them. Centrally positioning young adults’ perceptions, interpretations and shared meanings shifts the paradigm from young adults as passengers and victims, to a more empowerment and strength-based approach where they are active contributors to the world they participate in. (p. 17)

When it comes to articulating what they need from their education system, adolescent students have proven themselves to be both knowledgeable and articulate. On top of undergoing significant emotional development, students in the adolescent age bracket (aged between 10 and 20 years of age) are undergoing important identity development, and changes in their desire for autonomy (Steinberg, 2011). This coincides with changes in the importance adolescents place on their relationships with parents, teachers and peers (Brown & Larson, 2009). Additional to the social, emotional and physical changes that are in action during secondary school, students in this context, as opposed to students in the primary school context, have multiple teachers and a more independent experience in the school context (Riley, 2009). The above factors place adolescent students in a unique position to offer comparisons of multiple ECCs, at a time when their needs for greater support and more independence are at a crossroads. By obtaining student anecdotes of their secondary school experience and
interactions with their teachers, the current research aims to determine what the ECC looks like in secondary school. Documenting student perspectives will additionally have the potential to inform teachers of practical strategies for how they can meet their students’ identified needs through the emotional component of teaching.

The current study aims to address the aforementioned points and gaps in the literature by asking New Zealand secondary school students the following research questions: How are different classrooms experienced in relation to the teachers’ interaction style? How do students perceive their secondary school teachers as coaching them socially and emotionally? How do students perceive their teachers’ emotional competencies and the emotional classroom they create as helping or hindering their learning experiences? It is beyond the scope of the current study to physically observe teachers’ emotional skills, or to gain teachers’ perspectives on what they do, instead this research is focussed towards students’ subjective rather than objective realities.

This thesis is laid out in five chapters. Following the introduction, chapter two provides a review of further literature to determine the ECCs’ place in secondary education research. The importance of the ECC is explained through the outcomes of successfully meeting students’ social and emotional as well as academic needs. Chapter two concludes with a summary of the aims of the present study. Chapter three explains the methodology that will enable the research questions to be answered. Chapter four presents the results of the study, followed by a discussion of these results in relation to prior research in chapter five. Chapter five then concludes with a consideration of the practical and theoretical implications of the study.
Chapter Two - Literature Review

“To say that chemistry between a student and a teacher distracts from learning is like saying that color distracts from seeing. It does not distract; it enlivens, enhances, intensifies: it fixes the gaze”
- Cristina Nehring

Classroom Climate

Analogous to the nature-nurture debate, learning is now recognised as a complex interaction between an individual and their environment (Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). Considering this association, the physical classroom environment has been extensively studied in regard to how it can better meet the individual learning needs of students. The environment of discussion, the Classroom Climate, was first termed by Psychologist Rudolf Moos who applied his finding that atmosphere could affect patient wellbeing in the hospital setting, to the school and classroom setting (Evans & Harvey, 2012). As a result, the environment in which content is taught is now considered as important as the content being taught (Evans & Harvey, 2012).

The development of the Classroom Environment Scale (CES) confirmed the role that classroom atmosphere played in students’ behavioural and achievement outcomes (Moos & Moos, 1978; Trickett & Moos, 1973). Factors contributing to student outcomes, and included in the CES literature are discipline (organisational climate), learning (instructional environment), and relationships (emotional climate; Brackett, Reyes, Rivers, Elbertson, & Salovey, 2011; Evans & Harvey, 2012; Moos & Trickett, 1995). The classroom climate therefore encompasses not only the teaching material, but also the communication, instructional style, expectations, and the rules that the teacher upholds (Evans & Harvey, 2012).

A desire to create a warm atmosphere comes from literature that illustrates a cohesive classroom climate as contributing positively to motivation, behaviour and achievement (Anderson et al., 2004; Evans, Harvey, Buckley, & Yan, 2009; Moos & Moos, 1978; Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). However, not all classrooms are created equal. The classroom atmosphere is a direct reflection of the individuals who make up that environment, and specifically the teachers’ competencies in connecting the classroom as a whole via their interaction style (Jennings & Greenberg,
Considering the claim made by Brackett et al. (2011) that one cannot satisfy academic goals without addressing these in an environment that is socially and emotionally positive, teachers need to be more than just experts in the content they teach. Understanding the affective atmosphere of the classroom, specifically termed the Emotional Classroom Climate (Harvey & Evans, 2003) therefore, is a core component of a teacher’s role.

**Emotional Classroom Climate**

The Emotional Classroom Climate (ECC) does not just refer to how students and teachers feel in the classroom, it further examines how emotions are central to learning (Evans & Harvey, 2012). Like Brackett et al. (2011), the ECC literature aligns with the notion that to accommodate academic learning, one has to also accommodate social and emotional needs.

Harvey and Evans (2003) developed a model to capture the ECC as it was depicted by teachers and pupils in the primary and intermediate school context. To gain the perspective of those immersed in positive ECCs, participants were teachers nominated for their ability to positively develop and maintain an effective ECC, and students who showed a significant reduction of behavioural or emotional impairments from one year to the next. Thematically analysing the teachers’ and students’ experiences discussed in focus groups led to the development of a five factor model. Figure 1 displays this model.

![Figure 1.](image-url)
Emotional relationships sit at the centre of the model, operating as the central principle and main communication channel linking the other four dimensions. Positioned either on the personal or interpersonal axes, emotional awareness and management, and emotional intrapersonal beliefs and interpersonal guidelines interact through the relationship maintained between teacher and student. Although emotional awareness is the teachers’ personal understanding and recognition of their own and others’ emotions, the teachers’ awareness impacts students as it determines whether or not emotion is managed appropriately in the classroom. Similarly, teachers’ intrapersonal beliefs, attitude, and philosophy shape their interpersonal guidelines, such as their classroom standards and boundaries. Therefore, although the multidirectional ECC model sums up the emotional competencies and behaviours of the teacher, the effect of the ECC is equally relevant to students.

**Emotion contagion.** A sixth component, *emotion contagion* was later added to the original Harvey-Evans model, as displayed in Figure 2. Multidimensional scaling was conducted on the original focus groups, teacher interviews, educational expert focus groups and literature on the ECC to validate the original model. This deduced thirteen categories that shared a distinct overlap with the original five factor model, and the new concept of emotion contagion (Harvey et al., 2012).

*Figure 2. Harvey et al. (2012, p. 638) adapted model of the emotional classroom climate*
Emotion contagion works in social interactions as people automatically and continuously mimic others' behaviours, with feedback through this mimicry altering emotional experiences (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1992). The ability for students and teachers to ‘catch’ each other’s emotions therefore places the role of emotion as a significant help or hindrance to the running of the academic setting (Mottet & Beebe, 2000). Teachers not only have to regulate their own display of emotions, modelling adaptive emotions, they also have to inoculate themselves from the negative emotions of their students in order to not get caught in a self-perpetuating trap (Mottet & Beebe, 2000). In Figure 3 below, Osher et al. (2007) discuss the self-sustaining nature of a disruptive classroom as stemming from the teachers’ struggle to manage the social and emotional challenges prevalent in the classroom.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 3.** Cyclical effect stemming from an ineffective social and emotional classroom climate, adapted from Osher et al. (2007)

Ineffective management functions to disrupt students’ appropriate participation in class, which further impedes the teachers’ ability to appropriately manage classroom challenges. Consequently then, a teacher with the appropriate skills in managing the emotional and social
A common misconception is that maintaining classroom structure and rules, and developing a positive ECC are mutually exclusive tasks (de Jong et al., 2014). However when asking students for their perspective on the matter of discipline, students disclosed that classroom management, non-threatening discipline, structure and authority by the teacher enhanced their perceptions of that teacher (Woolfolk Hoy & Weinstein, 2006). Students reported that the reason for this was that it made them respect the teacher, which contributed to the formation of a strong bond between teacher and student. Figure 3 then could potentially be remodelled to show how appropriate classroom management has positive cyclical effects through developing respect and positive interactions between teacher and student. The increased likability and respect for the teacher who utilises sensitive discipline strategies (discussion, involvement in decision-making and reinforcement) enhances student compliance and prosocial behaviour through the relationship this respect develops and maintains (Lewis, 2001), further allowing the teacher to maintain appropriate classroom management. Discipline therefore has the potential to be an emotional skill when considering the effect it has on building the emotional relationship between the teacher-student dyad and maintaining appropriate behaviour.

**Cultural relevance of the model.** The ECC models in Figures 1 and 2 have been supported as reflecting bicultural New Zealand perspectives and realities. Although having being informed by westernised literature, 50% of the teachers who provided the insights from which the models presented in Figures 1 and 2 were developed identified themselves as Māori (Harvey et al., 2012; Harvey & Evans, 2003). This was a high proportion considering Māori only represented 12% of the teaching population at the time the study was conducted. Additionally, the fit between the ECC model and Māori perspectives was examined by Dr Averil Herbert (Ngāti Maniapoto, Ngāti Paretewa) who ran further focus groups with five Māori educational consultants. Seven themes were identified as being relevant for Māori
students and teachers and have been superimposed in italics on to the ECC model in Figure 4 below.

![Emotional Classroom Climate Model](image)

**Figure 4.** Emotional classroom climate model superimposed with Māori educational worldviews, from Evans and Harvey (2012, p. 151)

As depicted above, there is significant overlap between the two models. The difference lies at the superordinate level where Māori *kaupapa* (values and principles) are made explicit based on the teachers’ intrapersonal beliefs that influence their cultural competencies. Kaupapa embedded within the seven initial themes include knowledge of Māori cultural specific discourse, identity statements, environments and values. A full review in Evans and Harvey (2012) concludes that the ECC is applicable in Māori settings.

*Effective teaching profile.* Further supporting the ECCs’ relevance to Māori is the overlap between the Te Kotahitanga Effective Teaching Profile (ETP) explained by Bishop and Berryman (2006; 2009), and the superimposed models in Figure 4. The ETP was developed to determine what teacher and school behaviours and attitudes made a difference to Māori achievement. The five fundamental interactional needs defined in the ETP are listed below (Bishop & Berryman, 2009, p. 27):
• manaakitanga - caring for students as Māori and acknowledging their mana
• mana motuhake - having high expectations for Māori students
• ngā whakapiringatanga - managing the classroom to promote Māori learning
• wānanga and ako - using a range of dynamic, interactive teaching styles with Māori students
• kotahitanga - teachers and students reflecting together on Māori student achievement in order to move forward collaboratively

As the ECC model depicts teachers’ skills and behaviours that function to maintain a positive, emotional learning environment for students, there is understandably a considerable overlap between this and Bishop and Berrymans’ (2009) ETP. Emotional relationships and teachers knowing their students individually is reflected in the concept of manaakitanga. Emotional interpersonal guidelines that impact expectations and classroom standards and boundaries are likened to mana motuhake, wānanga and ako in the ETP literature. Managing student emotion in the classroom is reflected in the ETP concept of ngā whakapiringatanga. Lastly emotional intrapersonal beliefs can be seen in the concept of kotahitanga as teachers’ personal values impact how they evaluate others.

The ETP was developed as a means to reduce the educational disparity present for Māori students in New Zealand. It appears however that what Māori students perceive as needing from their educators is similar as to what students internationally have disclosed as requiring from their teachers. Teachers’ emotional awareness and cultural competencies may need to be different when educating culturally diverse students, however, the core principles for interacting with students appears consistent across cultural settings.

**Emotion’s Link to Behaviour**

When discussing the ECC and its ability to enhance students’ learning experiences, it is assumed that emotion plays a significant role in behaviour. This assumption follows a functionalist perspective of emotion where the role of emotion is understood as to regulate behaviour in ones environment to achieve personal goals (Campos, Mumme, Kermoian, & Campos, 1994).
This is further justified through the Baumeister et al. (2007) analysis of emotion as a feedback system indirectly causing behavioural responses. Important is the differentiation between emotion; an individuals’ conscious feelings of arousal, and affect; an individuals’ automatic positive or negative responses to stimuli.

In the feedback system, “instead of direct causation of behavior, the role of full-blown emotion seems mainly to act as input into the cognitive control of behavior. Full-blown emotions constitute feedback that facilitates cognition and learning rather than directly guiding behavior” (Baumeister et al., 2007, pp. 194-195). Where emotion links with behaviour is through anticipated emotion. Based on prior emotional outcomes from behaviour, individuals can anticipate the likely emotional consequence of future behaviour and therefore alter their behaviour based on whether or not they want to pursue this anticipated outcome (Baumeister et al., 2007; Mellers, Schwartz, & Ritov, 1999). Hence how reward systems that provide a student with positive affect have the potential to maintain future appropriate responses from that student. Hypothesised in the current research then is that teachers’ emotional competencies and reactions to students’ behaviour induce emotions in students that alter subsequent behaviour. The aim of the current study therefore is to investigate what specific teacher emotional behaviours lead to positive student outcomes in the secondary school context.

**Emotional intelligence.** Emotion in the classroom context serves two functions. Harvey et al. (2012) assert that the ECC is an environment where emotions are used in teaching practices as well as taught. The teaching of emotional competence functions to facilitate the development of students who are not only academically capable but also emotionally intelligent. This means they have the “capacity to both reason about emotions and use emotion to enhance thinking and problem solving” (Rivers et al., 2012, p. 345). Resonating with the Baumeister et al. (2007) explanation of emotion as a feedback system, emotional intelligence enables an individual to learn from emotional experiences, and use this knowledge to
guide future behaviour. In the school context then, teachers not only need to be aware of, and manage their own emotional behaviour in light of the impact of emotion contagion, they also have to be aware of and manage the emotions of their students in order to support the development of emotional intelligence.

Mayer and Salovey’s (1997) model of emotional intelligence includes four components; perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotion, which resonate with the ECC model. Perceiving and expressing emotion are concerned with the identification of emotions and the response that this perception induces (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), which influences a teachers’ awareness and management of emotions in the classroom (Harvey & Evans, 2003). Therefore by appropriately responding to their own and their students’ emotions, teachers can model and coach emotional competencies within the ECC. The main difference between the Mayer and Salovey emotional intelligence model and the Harvey-Evans ECC model is that the latter includes emotional relationships, providing a passage through which these skills can be passed on or taught (Harvey et al., 2012; Harvey & Evans, 2003). Thus, teachers’ own emotional competencies need to be managed in a way consistent with how they want their students to manage their own emotions.

**Emotion regulation.** Emotion regulation therefore is assumed under the emotional intelligence model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Callear defined emotional regulation as “the process by which people monitor, influence and adjust their emotions . . . to achieve their individual objectives in relation to their emotional context” (2014, p. 5). Compared to the definitions proposed by prior theorists, Callear’s definition adequately acknowledges the role of emotion in context. This is necessary as the purpose of emotional regulation is to select or avoid responses based on the possible consequence they will have upon the social group in that context (Baumeister et al., 2007; Campos et al., 1994).

Individuals competent in regulating emotion are able to act in accordance with an anticipated emotional outcome rather than purely on the automatic affect they are feeling in a situation (Baumeister et al., 2007). In
such incidences, the likelihood of a display of maladaptive responses would be reduced (Cole, Michel, & O'Donnel Teti, 1994; Lazarus & Launier, 1978), and therefore harmful or inappropriate social responding would be avoided (Hodgen, 2007). Rivers et al. (2012) supported the need to facilitate students’ regulation of their emotions as the authors review of an array of literature led them to conclude that students with high emotional competencies were more likely to be healthy and successful, both socially and academically. In contrast, students with low emotional intelligence have been shown to have disrupted psychological wellbeing, which affects their relationships and academic achievement (Rivers et al., 2012). Teachers educating students emotionally will therefore also potentially influence gains, academically and socially.

As well as to set an example, teachers need to regulate their own emotions and behaviours in order to not to succumb to expectancy effects, known in education research as the ‘teacher’s pet’ phenomenon (Babad, 1995; Babad, Bernieri, & Rosenthal, 1991; Babad & Taylor, 1992; Tal & Babad, 1990), ‘Golem effect’ (Babad, Inbar, & Rosenthal, 1982) or the ‘Pygmalion effect’ (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). In each of these scenarios, a teachers’ expectation of a students’ ability to succeed guides the level of support they give to that student, such that higher expectations result in teacher behaviours that promote high student achievement. Similarly, low expectations result in teacher behaviours associated with lower student achievement. This becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy with either positive or negative academic outcomes, as research has shown students to achieve in accordance with these expectations due to this altering the learning support they receive (Babad et al., 1982; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). The pattern of behaviour influenced by low expectations has been understood as partially responsible for widening the gap between Pakeha and Māori students success in the New Zealand context (Rubie-Davies, Hattie, & Hamilton, 2006). Thus, teachers also need to regulate their own emotion and behaviour to ensure they do not implicate a students’ opportunity to be successful.
**Parenting literature.** Parents are typically responsible for the social-emotional development of children. Distinguishing parents and teachers as exclusively responsible for social-emotional or academic development respectively however, overlooks learning as a holistic process and neglects the influences that all adults play in children’s lives. Considering the time students spend in school, teachers, after parents, are the other adult figures that predominantly interact with, and affect the development of children and students. Research by both Walker (2008) and Wentzel (2002) found the teacher-student dyad to closely parallel the parent-child dyad, hence factors that affect how parents influence their children’s emotional development can be applied to the classroom setting.

**Parental responsiveness and demandingness.** Baumrind (1971; 1978; 1991) evaluates parenting along two dimensions (parental responsiveness and parental demandingness), categorising parents as authoritative, authoritarian, permissive or indifferent. Authoritative parents who most significantly foster healthy adolescent development are high on both dimensions, balancing their children’s needs for autonomy with consistent behaviour management (Baumrind, 1978; Steinberg, 2011; Walker, 2008). These parents are responsive to their children’s emotions, yet they also maintain high expectations for behaviour, thus they assist children in problem solving emotional events (Steinberg, 2011). This becomes specifically important during the period of adolescence when adolescents desire independence, yet require close relationships to foster this in a healthy manner (McElhaney, Allen, Stephenson, & Hare, 2009).

Paralleling this to the school context, Walker (2008) observed teachers who matched Baumrind’s parenting styles and investigated the effect of these styles to students’ performance. Despite equal study repertoires at the beginning of the year, by the end of the first semester, students in the authoritative classroom had developed higher academic self-efficacy and academic gains than students taught by teachers following an authoritarian, permissive or indifferent teaching style. As with parenting, an authoritative teaching style appeared to foster emotional and academic
development.

Parents’ meta-emotion. An alternative theory more closely aligned with coaching emotional capabilities is Gottman and colleagues’ work on parents’ meta-emotional capabilities and the effect of these capabilities on child development. Gottman, Katz, and Hooven (1996) see children’s emotions as stemming from their parents’ emotional competencies. The components that make up parents’ meta-emotion are their awareness of their own, and their children’s emotions, and their role in coaching their children’s emotions (Gottman, Katz, & Hooven, 1997). The theory of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) and the ECC model (Harvey et al., 2012; Harvey & Evans, 2003) align with ideas of meta-emotion, similarly seeing an individuals’ own understanding of emotions influencing how they interact with others and their ability to impact others’ emotional development.

In contrast to Baumrind’s theory is the idea that parental warmth and limit setting are different parenting dimensions to meta-emotion and emotion-coaching. Exemplifying the difference between these dimensions, Gottman et al. (1996) found parents who were predominantly warm often did not validate or explain emotions in their children, rather such parents were considered emotion-dismissing, as they removed and dealt with their children’s negative emotion. Gottman et al. (1996) explained that parents could also be either emotion-coaching as they validated and educated their children on how to problem solve their feelings, or emotion-dysfunction when the parents themselves had issues with emotional regulation (Chen, Lin, & Li, 2012). To respond appropriately to emotion, students needed to learn the skills of dealing with emotion so they could regulate this in future. Taken together, the aforementioned research suggested coaching emotion to be an important role of caregivers.

To date, Evans and Harvey (2012) have based their interest in the ECC within the primary school context. Similar research has not been conducted in the secondary school context, presumably due to social and emotional skills being less of a focus than academic skills at this level (Eccles
et al., 1993). This could very well be the answer as to why students have reduced positive feelings towards these years of schooling (Cox & Kennedy, 2008). It is concerning that emotion has been somewhat overlooked in the secondary school context as “one’s emotional intelligence is an important factor in determining one’s ability to succeed in life” (Bar-On, 2000, p. 363), and this is irrespective of age. With the awareness that children internalise their caregivers’ emotional strategies (Cole et al., 1994), and learn via observation (Bandura, 1977), responsibility for the modelling of emotional competencies therefore falls on the adult responsible for students in their care, namely the teachers.

**Social and emotional learning.** Recognising the importance of developing emotionally competent students is reflected in recent developments of school-based Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) programmes. SEL programmes focus on creating emerging generations that are not only academically intelligent, but are able to interact in a respectful and skilled manner, contribute responsibly to society, and possess competencies that allow them to successfully navigate through their social environment (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Thus, skills targeted within the programme are recognising and managing emotions, positive goal setting and achievement, appreciation of others perspectives, positive relationship development and maintenance, and responsible decision making (Elias et al., 1997, cited in Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011). Paralleling the ideas contained within the models of emotional intelligence, meta-emotion and ECC literature (Gottman et al., 1996; Harvey & Evans, 2003; Mayer & Salovey, 1997), SEL advocates have provided a practical programme for achieving the aforementioned skills required to be both socially and emotionally competent.

Two key understandings upon which SEL is based, are that students’ maladaptive behaviours often stem from the same, or similar risk factors, and that the best learning for all students emerges from relationships that are supportive and balance challenge with meaningfulness (The Collaborative for Academic and Emotional Learning [CASEL], 2003). Students’ different levels of social and emotional competencies are
understood as a result of both their biological endowment and environmental upbringing (Elbertson, Brackett, & Weissberg, 2009), thus this programme utilises the school as a context in which all students have the opportunity to be exposed to positive social and emotional experiences. How these experiences are provided are described below by Jennings and Greenberg (2009):

Socially and emotionally competent teachers set the tone of the classroom by developing supportive and encouraging relationships with their students, designing lessons that build on student strengths and abilities, establishing and implementing behavioural guidelines in ways that promote intrinsic motivation, coaching students through conflict situations, encouraging cooperation among students, and acting as a role model for respectful and appropriate communication and exhibitions of prosocial behaviour. (p. 492)

When implemented with fidelity, SEL contributes to an environment that is positive for learning outcomes (Durlak et al., 2011; Elbertson et al., 2009). In a meta-analysis of more than 200 SEL programmes, significant positive academic achievement outcomes were found to be the result of the teacher-student relationship (Durlak et al., 2011). This was because the teacher-student relationship fostered high expectations, commitment to the school, engagement in learning, and safe learning environments. A limitation of SEL programmes however is that they are time and resource intensive, potentially reducing fidelity in implementation (Durlak et al., 2011). Additionally, SEL appears to rely heavily on the teachers’ own social and emotional competencies. The catch here is that like students, teachers also have different levels of emotional competencies (Elbertson et al., 2009). Knowing the effects that SEL can have, it is important to focus attention upon actual characteristics teachers have that build the positive environment within which these skills are developed for students.

*Holistic learning.* In the CASEL review of SEL literature, it was quoted that “learning is possible only after students’ social, emotional, and physical needs have been met. When those needs are met, students are more likely to succeed in school” (2003, p. 7). This holistic view of education is relevant in New Zealand as Māori perspectives of waiora (total welling) are
achieved through spiritual, psychological, physical and family health. Despite being a mental health model, Durie’s (1985) Te Whare Tapa Wha model that illustrates waiora has informed educational perspectives such as the Educultural Wheel (Macfarlane, Glynn, Cavanagh, & Bateman, 2007) and the Hikairo Rationale (Macfarlane, 1997) as physical, emotional and spiritual health are thought to be “vital to sustaining the high levels of wellbeing important to success at school” (Macfarlane, Webber, Cookson-Cox, & McRae, 2014, p. 142). Cross-culturally there is an increasing awareness that students’ personal and interpersonal needs require fulfilment in their learning context.

This resonates with the work of Maslow (1943), who devoted his research to understanding the individual needs that underlie motivation. Evaluating Maslow’s theory gives support for how students’ emotion, and factors that influence emotion can set the scene for learning. Maslow’s (1943) Hierarchy of Needs is displayed in Figure 5 below. Physiological needs are those basic necessities required for survival, safety is the need for a secure environment, love and belonging refers to the need for a sense of connection and/or intimacy, self-esteem is the need for confidence and a sense of achievement and self-actualisation is the need to attain a higher level process of morality, creativity and meaning.

![Figure 5. Maslow’s (1943) hierarchy of needs](image-url)

More recently, the five stage model depicted in Figure 5 has been developed to also include cognitive and aesthetic needs prior to reaching self actualisation (Maslow, 1970a) and self actualisation being followed by
transcendence needs (Maslow, 1970b). The general principle behind this model is that motivation at any one time is driven by current needs, and must be fulfilled consecutively to proceed to higher level needs. Hence for the purposes of this study, any one of Maslow’s models is relevant as consistent across the hierarchies is that safety, belonging and self-esteem come prior to higher level growth and learning needs.

If Maslow’s theory is accurate in explaining students’ motivation, for students to reach higher levels whereby they are working towards cognitive, aesthetic, self-actualisation and transcendence needs, the four underlying needs must first be fulfilled. Consequently this model would assume that students not connected to the school and to their teacher have underlying intrapersonal needs requiring to be met before their academic needs become their current motivation. Same goes for students that have not attained a sense of safety and belonging in the classroom context, and those who have not been provided support to be successful in the classroom.

Multiple researchers have provided support for safety, belonging and self-esteem as prerequisites for learning. Roeser, Eccles, and Sameroff (2000) determined that students’ willingness to engage in learning was a function of them feeling competent in that task, valuing the task, and feeling safe and cared for by others in their learning environment. Similarly, the Te Ara Ahu Whakamua model (Te Punī Kōkiri, 1994) explains a sense of identity, self-esteem, control over their own destiny and a voice that is heard as requirements for Māori to progress toward their goals. Likewise, Farrington et al. (2012) reviewed non-cognitive factors that have affected adolescent academic performance in school. Relevant to this discussion were four academic mindsets that enhance academic perseverance, which in turn improve academic behaviours and therefore outcomes. The four mindsets relate to students’ sense of belonging in the class and school, their belief about their intelligence being fluid rather than fixed, their feelings of confidence to complete set tasks, and the value they see in what they are learning.
These four mindsets parallel with students’ three basic needs for relatedness, competence and autonomy, as described in the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) literature (Ryan & Stiller, 1991). Specific to New Zealand, the absence of Rangatiratanga (self-determination) has been understood as contributing to the lower achievement of Māori students (Macfarlane et al., 2007). Whanaugatanga (relationships), Manaakitanga (ethos of care) and Kotahitanga (unity and bonding) are the other components of Macfarlane’s Educultural Wheel that when successfully embedded into the school are believed to enhance student success. All of the above similarly highlight, as does Maslow’s model, and more recently CASEL, that before students can focus on learning, they need to feel safe, accepted and able in their learning environment.

Emotion becomes relevant to this discussion as an adaptive function of emotion is to pursue needs (Baumeister et al., 2007; Campos et al., 1994). Anticipated emotional reactions to reaching or not reaching goals that fulfils these needs help motivate people to work harder in pursuing these (Bagozzi, Baumgartner, & Pieters, 1998; Baumeister et al., 2007). Furthermore, emotion directs attention toward stimuli relative to goals (Baumeister et al., 2007). Hence, if an individual is motivated toward their need for safety, attention will be directed to factors in the environment that fulfil this need. Consequently, learning material will not be emotionally salient and therefore may be missed by students.

Since “classroom conditions have powerful influences on students’ feelings of belonging, self-efficacy, and evaluation of schoolwork and can also reinforce or undermine a growth mindset” (Farrington et al., 2012, p. 32) teachers need to consider who they are teaching not just what they are teaching. Emotionally based behaviours are supported as having academic consequences, for example establishing trust fosters a sense of belonging, having high expectations raises self efficacy and supportively scaffolding students’ work allows them to fulfil academic challenges (Dweck, Walton, & Cohen, 2011). Therefore emotionally competent teachers who fulfil students’ emotional needs do not distract from learning, rather they enable the scene for it to be set.
Achievement goal theory. Motivation focussed towards academic achievement, according to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, occurs when lower level needs of safety, belonging and self-esteem have been fulfilled. Achievement goal theorists purport that students will develop differing motivation and goals at the academic level, and that the teacher continues to play a critical role in the motivation students develop (Dweck, 1986). Achievement goal theory segregates motivation profiles as either mastery or learning goals that aim to increase personal competence, and performance or ego goals that aim to gain favourable social judgement (Linnenbrink, 2002). Additionally, students adopt either an approach or avoidance technique which determines their motivation behind their need for mastery or performance achievement (Senko, Hulleman, & Harackiewicz, 2011).

The role of the educator in the development of mastery and performance goals has been said to be based on how they frame their teaching, emphasising either learning or grades, as the focus of the lesson (Sage, 2014). Additional to how learning is framed though, teachers can also impact the development of academic goals based on how they discuss students’ achievement. The teachers’ emotional attitude toward learning, success and failure, can alter the value students place on learning, the confidence they have in their own ability, and the perception they have on their intelligence being fluid or fixed (Farrington et al., 2012). As with the above discussion on emotion’s role in directing cognition toward current goals, it is hypothesised that the same applies for achievement goals (Covington, 2000). Thus, the current study can potentially highlight from the students’ perspectives, how teachers, and more specifically the teachers’ emotional behaviours, can impact student achievement goals and motivation.

Outcomes of a Positive Emotional Classroom Climate

The above arguments propose that the ECC compliments academic success by fostering student development, socially, emotionally, and behaviourally. This outcome is important as academic grades provide the benchmark for the evaluation of New Zealand secondary school students. The link between the ECC and achievement is supported as being mediated
via motivation and behaviour. Part of the rationale for developing motivation in the classroom is so that behaviour fits the context for learning. A significant role for teachers then is to maintain adaptive behaviours for academic learning; examples of such behaviours being engagement and participation.

The classroom environment as a whole has been identified as affecting achievement: Moos and Moos (1978) assessed the CES alongside records for student absenteeism and achievement in 19 secondary school classes and found higher grades were perceived as the result of highly involved and low controlling teachers. Conversely, absenteeism was highest under conditions of competition, teacher control and low teacher support. Of the nine dimensions assessed in the CES, factors associated with higher achievement were those that related closely to affective aspects; similar to those identified by primary school teachers and students as contributing to a positive ECC in Harvey and Evans (2003). Specifically then, the ECC was supported as a significant underlying factor in student achievement.

Motivation has been understood as a linking component between the classroom environment and achievement. Using Trickett and Moo's CES, self reported measures, teacher ratings and work output, Anderson et al. (2004) conducted a study that assessed this link. Motivation was included as prior research had alluded to motivation being the mediating factor between the classroom climate and academic outcomes (Moriarty, Douglas, Punch, & Hattie, 1995). Anderson et al. (2004) found support for the relationship between classroom climate, motivation and academic achievement in their New Zealand based study, in addition to determining that across the dimensions tested in the CES, affiliation (which is defined as supportive and co-operative relationships), was found to be the most important factor relevant to student motivation.

Additionally, in a four-year longitudinal study based in New Zealand, Meyer et al. (2009) triangulated grades, focus group data and survey responses and revealed that students identified as ‘doing their best’ were also the students who identified that their teachers showed an interest in
them and their work. Those who were ‘doing just enough’ reported their teachers had no personal interest in their achievement. Additionally, students felt most motivated by teachers who were competent in the subject they taught, made learning interesting, and treated them with respect. Teachers with negative or biased emotions in class were considered demotivating by their students (Meyer et al., 2009). Likewise, Patrick, Ryan, and Kaplan (2007) found the perceptions students held regarding the nature and quality of their relationships with their teachers, were strongly associated with engagement and motivation in the classroom.

Affiliation also appears to mediate the link between conduct and achievement. With the intended purpose of assessing how the ECC impacts on conduct, Brackett et al. (2011) conducted a multi-method approach with 63 teachers and 2000 students. Classroom observations and teacher-student ratings confirmed affiliation as mediating the positive relationship between the ECC and student conduct. Students reported that liking and respecting their teachers led to better behaviour, with less positive appraisals of teachers causing a cascading effect between teacher stress, poor classroom management and problematic student behaviour.

Similarly, Evans et al. (2009) synthesised research on how the ECC affects behaviour and found negative ECC’s to be associated with an increase in rates of bullying, aggression, social-emotional disturbances, and conflict between peers. Conversely, positive classroom climates led to greater peer co-operation and social competence. This resonated with Hirschi’s social bond theory (1969, cited in Crosnoe, Johnson, & Elder, 2004) which purported that strong connections to an institution such as a school can reduce problem behaviour. This holds true when controlling for socio-demographic factors and past achievement, as teacher-student bonds were found to enhance achievement and to lower discipline problems (Crosnoe et al., 2004). Research by Crosnoe and colleagues suggests that teacher-student bonding can act as a protective force for adolescents, therefore suggesting that teachers need to see interpersonal relationships as a foundation for their classroom ECC. The question still remains unanswered as to the specifics that build this ‘bond.’
In the New Zealand context, the ideals presented above have been embedded in the curriculum through the initiative Positive Behaviour for Learning (PB4L). This is based on the principle that “positive behaviour is a prerequisite to improving engagement and achievement” (Ministry of Education, 2013a, p. 4). In the secondary sector, three initiatives are implemented; PB4L School-Wide, My FRIENDS Youth and Check & Connect. As well as promoting safe, secure and connected school communities, these initiatives provide external mentoring or internal relationship building in schools, from which motivation, emotional skills and coping strategies are targeted. Results from embedding PB4L into secondary schools has shown a significant reduction in rates of stand downs, an increase in student retention rates, and improvements in students NCEA achievement relative to comparison schools not following the PB4L programme (Ministry of Education, 2013b). These results indicate positive behavioural and academic outcomes from meeting students’ basic needs for safety, belonging and self-esteem.

Research has evidenced support for the classroom climate as a determinant of behaviour, motivation and achievement, with affiliation with both peers (Anderson et al., 2004; Evans et al., 2009) and the teacher (Brackett et al., 2011; Meyer et al., 2009; Patrick et al., 2007) being dominant in this link. Research on the classroom climate now needs to turn to specific factors that develop and maintain a positive ECC and these teacher-student relationships.

**Secondary School Context**

Several reasons underlie why the secondary school context has received less attention than the primary school context in the ECC literature. Firstly, adolescent students are deemed more socially and emotionally competent than younger students (Sigelman & Rider, 2009). Secondly, no one teacher is responsible for students’ outcomes; therefore the strength of students’ relationships with teachers is likely to be reduced (Riley, 2009). However, similar reasons underscore why this context needs to investigate emotional competencies. Firstly, it is likely emotion underpins learning irrespective of age (Roorda, Koomen, Spilt, & Oort, 2011). Secondly, within
the context of a secondary school, employing multiple teachers and teaching styles (McGee, 2004) students are exposed to a variety of important ECCs, some which foster the development of emotional competencies and academic learning, and some that do not. The secondary context therefore is unique in that the students in this context can inform educators how and why they perceive these different environments as affecting their classroom responsiveness and learning.

Three key characteristics that underlie adolescence are as follows; Autonomy development: becoming less emotionally dependent on others (McElhaney et al., 2009), identity development: finding one’s true self through trialling different personalities (Steinberg, 2011) and intimacy development: re-defining and establishing what constitutes relationships with peers, parents and teachers (Brown & Larson, 2009). To explore these new identities and skills, secondary school students have an increased desire for independence, yet are faced with environments that become predominately restricted and teacher centred, focusing on discipline and control rather than self-management (Eccles et al., 1993; Farrington et al., 2012). These factors have been correlated with the reduction in intrinsic motivation and enjoyment witnessed in secondary school students (Eccles et al., 1993; Gottfried, Fleming, & Gottfried, 2001; Lepper, Corpus, & Iyengar, 2005). Roorda et al. explain “TSRs [Teacher Student Relationships] are more important for the academic adjustment of older children” (2011, p. 517), yet the design of the secondary school contradicts this. Teacher’s having only a limited time frame with their students fosters a business or management rather than personally oriented relationship.

Consequently, secondary school teachers admit to not knowing their students very well socially or emotionally, and not developing close emotional connections with them (Hargreaves, 2000). When emotion is presented in the classroom, the reality for many secondary school teachers is that the focus is predominantly on actions undertaken to manage negative emotion rather than develop positive emotion (Hargreaves, 2000). The effect of this being that students transitioning from intermediate to secondary school report that their overall positive attitudes towards schooling and
their teachers declined (Cox & Kennedy, 2008). Despite the above barriers, there are some teachers seemingly able to balance academic and social-emotional instruction (Andersen, Evans, & Harvey, 2012; Evans & Harvey, 2012; Harvey et al., 2012; Harvey & Evans, 2003). Obtaining the perspective of secondary school students will enable much needed insight into teachers’ emotional behaviours that get differing levels of engagement and output from their students.

**Current Research**

Research is consistent in identifying the emotional needs of students and the effects of successfully meeting these needs (Bempechat et al., 2011; Cox & Kennedy, 2008; Irwin, 2007; CASEL, 2003; Wentzel, 2002). However, little evidence actually informs teachers’ practice regarding how students can be socially and emotionally catered for through the normal course of teaching. By using the Harvey-Evans model as a base from which to investigate the secondary context, it is aimed to identify how students perceive the ECC as operating in the secondary school by analysing focus group data. The review of literature for the current study has argued that the teacher-student relationship is central to classroom functioning and student learning, hence the first objective is to study how teacher-student interactions in the secondary school context alter the emotional classroom experience. Another central argument is the importance of healthy emotional development; hence a second objective is to understand how emotion coaching is incorporated into the highly academically focussed secondary school setting. Finally, in acknowledgement of the focus of secondary school being towards achieving academically, the third objective is to understand how the teachers’ emotional skills potentially impact on learning.

**Study Rationale**

To understand the impact that teachers’ emotional behaviours and the ECC have on students, the current research seeks to draw on student voice. Just as market research ensures that products are manufactured to satisfy consumers’ needs, education research needs to ensure that schools are designed to satisfy students’ learning and developmental needs. Similar
to Bronfenbrenner (1979), I believe that an individuals’ subjective perception of reality strongly influences their actions. Individuals bring to an environment their histories and experiences that allow them to uniquely interpret events, hence “only individuals themselves can authentically describe their own experience of events” (Annan, Priestley, & Phillipson, 2006, p. 22). Therefore despite teachers having equally valid perspectives of their bidirectional relationships with students, this study is concerned with how students perceive teacher behaviour.

Focus groups were selected as being the most appropriate method with which to reveal the student voice. The benefit of attaining student voice through focus groups is that data obtained contains richer detail than solo interviews and questionnaires (Gibbs, 1997; Morgan, 1996). Morgan explained, “what makes the discussion in focus groups more than the sum of separate individual interviews is the fact that the participants both query each other and explain themselves to each other” (1996, p. 139). This method does not lose the specific examples that are attached to concepts discussed, determining more than the what, and accessing the how, in regard to the emotional strategies teachers utilise in the classroom. Therefore, the aims of the current study are to identify student anecdotes of how teachers interact with them emotionally, and how this interaction impacts students’ outcomes. The overarching goal of the current study is to empower teachers to see their role beyond the teaching of academic content.
Chapter Three - Methodology

“No one ever asks us our opinion. The truth is, we have the most to lose when our schools aren’t working right, and the most to gain when they are”

- High School Student

Participants

Students in their final, thirteenth year of schooling were invited to participate in the study during the second school term. Overall, the sample comprised 16 females and 16 males with an average age of 17.7 years. 20 of these students identified their ethnicity as New Zealand European, 7 as Māori, 2 as White South African, 1 as British, 1 as Bulgarian and 1 as German.

The participants were drawn from three schools in the upper North Island of New Zealand. Of the five schools approached, two were unwilling to participate for reasons undisclosed. School A was a decile 5, single sex, public state school with a roll of more than 1100 female students in years 7 to 13. School B was a decile 4, co-educational state school with a roll of more than 400 students in years 7 to 13. School C was a decile 8, co-educational state school with a roll of 1300 students in years 7 to 13. As displayed in Table 1 below, the previous two years academic achievement of the students, as self reported through their overall NCEA level one and two qualifications, reveals that the sample population varied across levels of achievement.

Table 1

Overall Grade Achieved by the Students in NCEA Level One and Two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not Specified</th>
<th>Achieved</th>
<th>Merit</th>
<th>Excellence</th>
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<tr>
<td>NCEA Level One</td>
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<td>12</td>
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<td>NCEA Level Two</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Process

**Recruitment.** The researcher approached Resource Teachers for Learning and Behaviour (RTLBs) in the Northland region of New Zealand in order to access secondary schools for participation. After being briefed on the study procedures and participation requirements, the RTLBs who had access to the school staff, provided school personnel with pre-printed school and student information packs and consent forms (see Appendices A and B). Interested school personnel then contacted the researcher directly via email if they were willing to participate.

**Criteria for selection.** School personnel were responsible for selecting Year 13 students to take part in one of two focus groups conducted at their school. Students included were in Year 13 and had been enrolled at their current secondary school since at least Year 11. The criteria excluded students who were not verbally communicative, had a diagnosed learning or social disorder, or were not fluent in English to reduce the risk of potential discomfort to vulnerable populations. In order to accommodate the higher proportion of female participants resulting from the inclusion of one single sex female school, and therefore to maintain more balanced numbers of female and male participants, School C was asked to select only male students. Research on gender differences in regard to male versus female interactional, behavioural and learning styles has a long history (see Beaman, Wheldall, & Kemp, 2006), hence to ensure this research attained an overall view of the secondary context, both male and female perspectives were equally valued and represented.

In keeping with the optimum number of four to eight students per focus group (Krueger & Casey, 2009), and the optimum number of focus groups between four and six (Morgan, 1996), each school randomly selected 12-16 students from their roll. This list was assessed and it was identified that no students met the exclusion criteria; hence all students were provided with the student information package and consent form. School personnel were responsible for collecting student consent forms, and at their discretion they put together groups of students who were available to take part in the pre-determined focus group. Priority was given to those who
returned their consent forms first. After selecting the student participants, school personnel were responsible for notifying the students of their participation and the arrangement details.

**Data collection.** Six focus groups were conducted with students on the site of each school in a meeting room. The focus groups have been detailed below in Table 2. Students were seated around a table with the researcher and were sound recorded using three dictaphones. When entering the room, the researcher introduced herself and conversed with the participants to start building a relationship with them. Once seated, the participants filled in a small form that enabled the gathering of their demographic information, such as ethnicity, age, and level of attainment in NCEA level one and two.

### Table 2

*Number of Participants and Gender of the Participants in each of the Six Focus Groups*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus group</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To begin, the researcher provided an opening statement introducing both herself and her study. Next, information regarding confidentiality, consent, sound recording, and the students’ rights was explained. The following statement then invited the students to introduce themselves:

Let’s begin. I will run a quick sound check to see if the recording is working. Can you please go around the group and say your names and what your plans are for next year after graduating secondary school.
The aim of this task was two-fold, it provided a sound check for the recordings, as well as gave the students an opening opportunity to practice speaking in front of the group. This strategy makes participants feel more comfortable sharing their perspectives in the group environment and establishes that their input is valued (Gibson, 2007).

To cue students into the topic of emotion in the classroom, students were asked to brainstorm characteristics they thought teachers of positive or negative ECCs possessed. The remainder of the focus group session was structured according to a series of questions specifically developed to answer the three research questions. These questions were anecdotally directed to retrieve specific examples of the behaviours and outcomes being discussed. Below in Figure 6 are the three categories under which questions were asked, the full schedule to complement this is attached in Appendix C.

**Figure 6.** Summary of the topics discussed during the focus groups to answer the three research questions

- How do students understand their secondary school experience as being shaped by their teachers’ emotional interactions?
- How have teachers built relationships with their students and how have these impacted the class environment?
- How have teachers managed and/or coached their own and their students’ emotion in the classroom?
- How have these previously mentioned interactions and environments altered students’ academic attitudes and output?
Open discussion was guided by the researcher providing prompting, querying or reinforcing comments. Having students discussing in small groups allowed each student the opportunity to speak openly about their classroom experiences and restricted the time they were absent from class. The focus groups lasted on average 50 minutes, exclusive of the beginning formalities. Finally, to conclude on a constructive note, the following question was asked:

If I was to go back and train new teachers, what advice would you want me to give them so that they would all create these positive classroom environments?

Students were then welcomed to ask questions or make statements at the end if they had anything to add about the concepts discussed or the process of the study.

**Ethical Considerations**

The Massey University Human Ethics Committee were notified of this project meeting the requirements for a low risk study, as determined through the Massey University (2014) ‘Screening Questionnaire.’ The process involved in this project did not flag any concerns for the participants, their schools, or the researcher as full written consent was obtained from students, vulnerable populations were not included, and no deception or compensation was utilised.

Questions were aimed at the group rather than individual students to ensure no discomfort or embarrassment was induced. Students had the freedom to only disclose information they felt comfortable in sharing. As for confidentiality, students signed a written agreement to maintain confidential any comments made during the focus group. Unfortunately with focus groups there is no way to fully guarantee that confidentiality will be upheld by participants (Carey & Asbury, 2012), therefore students were advised to refer to their teachers by the subject they teach rather than their name to ensure no comments were attached to certain teachers’ identities. Additionally, to further protect participants, no identifying features of the school were reported in the final write up.
Measurement

Rationale. In order to promote student voice, the data were analysed thematically. Braun and Clarke (2006) support this technique as the results retain detailed descriptions of the students’ realities. Following the essentialist and realist epistemology, it is assumed that through language, students can articulate their meanings and experiences as students. Following this, analysis at a semantic level provides a description of what participants have disclosed in the focus groups, in relation to previous literature (Braun & Clarke, 2006). As a result, through maintaining a rich and detailed account of what was reported, the results of this study aimed to provide actual practical examples of teaching strategies that could inform future educational practice.

Data analysis. As each focus group was completed the researcher transcribed the data from the sound recordings. Transcribing the data in close proximity to the focus group allowed the researcher to attach comments to the participants who made them. Participant identification was organised by allocation of a participant number based on the seating arrangement of participants in the room. Participant isolation allowed the valance of themes to be determined in regard to the repeated mention of a concept by an individual or multiple participants. Field notes taken during the course of the focus groups were added to the transcription to supply non-verbal information. The resulting transcription remained true to the process of thematic analysis as it maintained verbatim account of all verbal and non-verbal data, capturing the true meaning of what was said (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Accuracy of the transcriptions was checked through repeated readings using each of the three devices on which the data were recorded. The transcripts were then analysed thematically using an adaptation of Braun and Clarke’s (2006) ‘6-phase guide to doing thematic analysis’ displayed in Table 1 in Appendix D.

As the researcher was present during the focus groups, and transcribed her own data, she was familiar with the content and began phase one as focus groups were conducted. In phase two, concepts were gathered into themes and colour-coded to represent which aspect of the Harvey-
Evans model they aligned with. In phase three, themes and sub-themes were transferred to a spread sheet and assessed in regard to the frequency in which they were mentioned by a different, or the same participant. For concepts to be retained in the data set, items had to be mentioned by at least 25% of participants. Figures 1, 2 and 3 in Appendix E represent frequency of concepts by participants and by focus group. Included themes then formed the basis of a thematic map in phase four when concepts and overarching themes were located in relation to one another, and in relation to the overarching components of the Harvey-Evans model. The themes were reviewed in phase five as the transcriptions were re-read to ensure the themes accurately represented the ideas contained within the data set and names were then given to the themes. Finally, phase six began with the write up of the data which told the story represented by the identified themes. Vivid examples extracted from the original transcription were included as supporting evidence for each theme.
Chapter Four - Findings

“When educating the minds of our youth, we must not forget to educate their hearts”
- Dalai Lama

The themes derived from the current research accurately portray the views expressed by participants within and between the six focus groups. Figures 1, 2 and 3 in Appendix E depict the frequencies of concepts mentioned. Where there were discrepancies, these were analysed in relation to the reason for these diverse opinions or outcomes. Overall, the results fell under two categories: teachers’ emotional behaviours and outcomes. The dynamic between the two categories will be discussed.

Teachers’ Emotional Behaviours

In relation to teachers’ emotional behaviours, four main themes were identified by the students across the six focus groups; these were emotional relationships, emotional intrapersonal beliefs, emotional interpersonal guidelines, and emotion management. Table 3 below reduces these themes into concepts, inclusive of the smaller sub-concepts encompassed by these terms, and mentioned by the student participants.

**Emotional relationships.** Emotional relationships were discussed by participants in the way that teachers connected with, and related to, their students. To connect with students and develop a sense of “friendship”, teachers needed to acknowledge them as individuals: “he’s just constantly friendly and talking to you, and like he’s not talking to everybody, he’s talking to you!” [Focus group 1]. When teachers did not overemphasise the power difference present in the teacher-learner dyad, students felt this relationship was more conducive to their learning and enjoyment in school, as described below:

*It's nice if a teacher personally acknowledges you and you know, doesn’t lump you into that teenager/pupil category... Like it’s just so nice to have like a personal relationship and when you do have that you feel like you can contribute and the class in general is just a far more positive environment.* [Focus group 2]
Table 3

*Teachers’ Emotional Behaviours Tabulated by Theme, Inclusive of Ranked Concepts and Sub-concepts Subsumed under these Terms*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Concepts</th>
<th>Sub-Concepts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Relationships</td>
<td>Personally connecting with students</td>
<td>Sharing information, Getting to know students, Friendship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relatable</td>
<td>Relatable, Understanding, empathetic, supportive, Humour, Poor communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Intrapersonal Beliefs</td>
<td>Passion for teaching students</td>
<td>Passion, enthusiasm, inspiring, See student as a whole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>See student as a whole</td>
<td>Teacher competence, See student as a job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Interpersonal Guidelines</td>
<td>Emotional Standards</td>
<td>Fair, consistent, realistic, Respect, trust, belief in students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Favouritism, inequality</td>
<td>Threatening/punishing, Judgemental</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Honest advice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability</td>
<td>Approachable</td>
<td>Actively involved, Distant, authoritarian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Boundaries</td>
<td>Organised, logical, structured</td>
<td>Expectations*,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion Management</td>
<td>Student emotional awareness</td>
<td>Regulate emotion, Accommodate emotion, Coach emotion, Emotion dismissing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communicate expectations*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: italicised sub-concepts are related to negative behaviours
*sub-concepts are related to behaviours that can be both positive and negative*
Information sharing was a tool that could be used to develop a sense of friendship within the teacher-student relationship, as it removed the defining roles attached to each person:

*It’s good if they share a little bit of personal information so you can view them as a person rather than a teaching machine.* [Focus group 4]

The effect of this information sharing was bi-directional: “*When you know just little bits and pieces about your teachers’ lives it’s kind of nice because you spend so much time with them*” [Focus group 2], and consequently: “*If you know them then you are more likely to let them know you*” [Focus group 3].

*When they are relaxed and they are comfortable enough to share like stories and stuff... like when they don’t constantly have their guard up, I think it shows that they trust you, you know it’s nice to feel like teachers trust you and they like you.* [Focus group 2]

A common theme expressed was the importance of teachers knowing their students beyond their academic personality:

*Even just have like an idea about your out of school life, not even that much, just enough to know that you have a job or something, just to have a like an idea of what else you are doing.* [Focus group 1]

When disclosing the following comment, the students’ faces exposed the impact and positive emotion derived from this:

*She like knows your name and she asks about you and she you know makes it like comfortable. I dunno just by like almost making herself like a friend, but not really, like not in a weird way, like she’s still your teacher but you can talk to her ya know?*

*There’s that friendly connection!*

*Yeah exactly, she would be the kind of person that like would smile at you if you saw her on the street.* [Focus group 2]

To develop this relationship, and have a connection where information sharing led to getting to know one another, and forming this unique form of friendship, teachers needed to be “relatable.” A significant factor that made the teacher relatable was through their use of humour in the classroom. When describing what made a positive ECC, students were
quick to comment: “if you can laugh with the teacher” [Focus group 3] as they believed: “humour’s the best way to relate to kids” [Focus group 6]. The answer to why humour was important was given as:

It’s like having like a friend teaching the class instead of someone like you like hate and you’re not going to get along with. [Focus group 6]

In the teacher-student dyad, students expressed that caring and understanding were two key factors teachers utilised to develop friendship with their students. Students communicated this opinion through the following comments:

She knows that we are good people and like we make mistakes. [Focus group 3]

Even if it you don’t need support, just to know that, like oh yeah the teacher actually does care. [Focus group 1]

The empathy that teachers portray is what is most important. [Focus group 1]

Students reported that they appreciated being in the presence of teachers who were able to acknowledge the reality of being a student. Teachers could communicate this by how they spoke to their students. Students emphasised their frustration with teachers that: “don’t know how to talk to students very well” [Focus group 3], and positivity towards teachers that: “know how to speak our language” [Focus group 4]. As well as making them relatable, this made them respected:

She’s not that PC [Politically Correct] which is another reason that we respect her, she’s going to tell you how it is. [Focus group 3]

**Emotional intrapersonal beliefs.** The emotional attitude of the teacher was communicated to the students through the teachers’ passion, or “passionateness”, which despite not being a commonly used word, had a shared meaning across the students in the focus groups. Students overall found it hard to learn from teachers who were not able to convince them of the worth of their subject. If students were to show an interest, they needed their teacher to show this same interest and passion:
Yeah but with my history teacher she is real inspiring, like she’s so enthusiastic and it makes you sort of like ‘wow she’s got so much knowledge she really is so passionate about what she does.’ [Focus group 2]

Teachers’ passion was described in two domains; passion for their subject and passion for teaching students. As highlighted by students, neither was satisfactory on their own; the idea that the sum of the two is greater than its parts was captured in the following anecdotes:

*I think it’s good that teachers are convincing in what they’re teaching, and they are passionate about it and care about it. So you’re not just in that classroom to get the good grades and do well at your exams, you’re in that classroom to learn interesting and new cool stuff.* [Focus group 4]

*I think it gets to a point where you need to find a really good balance between having a respect for someone who has a greater knowledge than you, or at least something they can share with you, and having a relationship with a student. So there needs to be a level of respect or otherwise you lose the engagement all together, but at the same time that relationship needs to be there.* [Focus group 5]

Passion for content without passion for students was outlined in the following quote:

*I think our maths teacher likes the maths, that’s why she chose it, but she doesn’t like the teaching, she doesn’t have the passion for the kids I guess.* [Focus group 1]

This attitude led to students placing teachers in one of two categories as exemplified in this quote:

*I think it’s really obvious, you can tell when a teachers working for money or working for actually enhancing people’s lives.* [Focus group 1]

The former conceptualisation of teacher attitude was appraised less positively. One student put their advice for teachers quite simply:

*Actually enjoy teaching people about your subject, because you may have a love for science but if you can’t have a love for teaching, and like connecting with people then maybe go in a lab . . . by yourself!* [Focus group 1]
The converse was also found to be true: passion for students without passion for content led to appraisals of teachers as being incompetent. It was important for students to know that their teachers knew what they were teaching; they needed to trust the teachers’ content knowledge:

*I think as much as having a relationship with the students goes, if you are not interested in what you are learning or the ways you can teach it, or the ways your students are digesting what you are teaching them, then it’s not really going anywhere.* [Focus group 5]

Teachers’ content competence was also communicated by the way the teacher taught beyond the curriculum:

*She just has so much oral history that she can really help us, she knows her stuff, and she also has experiences.* [Focus group 4]

Students explained that they enjoyed and learnt more from teachers that contributed additional information, as this cemented the knowledge and developed their engagement and enthusiasm towards the learning, for example:

*If you have a bit of background on something you are doing it will be like ‘oh okay this is interesting’ rather than just ‘oh this is what we are doing.’*[Focus group 6]

**Emotional interpersonal guidelines.** Teachers’ emotional interpersonal guidelines fell under three categories, *emotional standards* which related to fairness, respect and honesty, *availability* which was two-fold, a teacher being actively involved made them seen as approachable, and vice versa, and *personal boundaries* which determined the teachers structure of the classroom, and the expectations the teacher held.

Teachers’ emotional standards were frequently brought up in terms of teachers being fair, consistent and reasonable, which contributed to students’ perceptions of the equality existing in the classroom. Students explained the skill of teachers who *“can still get the message through, they can be stern, but they don’t have to yell all the time”* [Focus group 6]. Students’ frustration with teachers who played on teacher authority was identified as exemplified below:
Teachers who demand respect and play on nothing but their authority; I have no time for what so ever. It's not a nice environment when you are put with someone like that who uses their position as their form of power. [Focus group 5]

That’s probably one of the worst things to like act like they know everything. And like use their authority to make you work and then you are like ‘well I don’t want to work because you’re being like a dick!’ [Focus group 6]

A more effective approach to discipline was through honest communication. Students understood there was a time and a place for discipline if they acted up, but how teachers approached discipline was key to getting students to take their teachers’ advice seriously. Being relatable flowed over to affect perceptions of discipline as students felt that teachers who could successfully discipline students understood and considered student realities and capabilities:

I find that I can work better under teachers that don’t talk down to you, like say treat you more, not so much as an equal, but someone who is perfectly competent, or as someone who is capable of like handling the work, or deciding whether or not they want to work. [Focus group 5]

Not running the class like a “dictatorship” had positive effects as it communicated to students their teachers respected, trusted and believed in them as people, and as learners. Students disclosed how important it was to know the teacher believed in them:

Even a couple of years ago, we did work better if they did give you respect first, and not just treat us like kids. [Focus group 6]

Teachers who sort of respect that by Year 13 that you are at school because you want to go to uni[versity] or you want to do something further on in education, so they like respect the fact that if you haven’t done homework it’s probably because you have been really busy not because you are just being lazy. [Focus group 5]

You are at a point when like it’s nice to know that your teachers have faith in you, and you are at a point in your life where you can judge what needs to happen, and like prioritise stuff. [Focus group 2]

Negative teacher emotional standards were strongly reported by students under the themes of favouritism, inequality and judgement.
Favouritism and inequality were closely linked as foremost in influencing students’ preferential treatment, for example:

I hate the teachers that have favourites too, ’cause they are blatantly so much nicer to them. [Focus group 6]

There was also the scenario where favouritism impacted equality in learning, as special treatment included additional help, for example:

It was really important to the teacher that that student could get the good mark, so she was going to put all her time and energy into getting that student that mark, which was really sucky. [Focus group 2]

Additionally, teachers who blamed students for issues they were having in the classroom were described by the students as “judgemental.” They found on many occasions that teachers, rather than identifying in their own teaching style or classroom structure what was going wrong, would blame the students. The following quote is just one of the many teacher responses described by the students when the students discussed with the teacher an issue they were having: “if you don’t want to be here then just leave” [Focus group 4]. In all cases the students were hurt by the teachers’ belief that they were: “just being a lazy and rude teenager” [Focus group 4].

My history teacher two years ago... terrible hand writing, and like I would tell her that ‘I can’t understand what you are writing up on the board, I can’t read it, I don’t understand, can you please help me?’ and she would tell me that I need glasses and she would tell me that if I don’t want to be here then I should just go, and she took it way out of proportion, and she really took it out on me. [Focus group 2]

The second category encompassed within teachers’ interpersonal guidelines was availability which was directly related to emotional standards. Teachers who demonstrated differential affect or a lack of respect to students were also those who were seen as distant, and whose teaching style was seen as authoritarian.

I don’t like the kind of dictatorship of some teachers in particular my science teacher. He just stands at the front like above everyone and like just kind of bellows and doesn’t let you get a single word in. [Focus group 2]
Students stated that they preferred active learning styles whereby the teacher was:

*Engaging with the whole class.* [Focus group 4]

*Engaging with you one-on-one.* [Focus group 1]

*Comes around the class and like checks in with every little group.* [Focus group 6]

These teaching approaches were evaluated positively by students as the teachers’ active approach to teaching made them seem available for help and support. For example:

*She will go through it with us, and she’s like helping us.* [Focus group 3]

*It’s nice knowing that your teacher has extended that arm of support, so you know you can go and talk to them if you want to.* [Focus group 2]

In comparison teachers were appraised negatively when they just:

*Sit at the front talking over and over.* [Focus group 1]

The students additionally identified the outcome of passive or inactive teaching styles, exemplified below:

*We are just taking it in and then it’s going back out and we are not really learning.* [Focus group 1]

Students also commented that teachers’ personal boundaries were a significant factor contributing to the classroom atmosphere because of the expectations that these established, and consequently the structure that was maintained in the classroom. As New Zealand’s education system examines students through the NCEA system where questions are organised by difficulty level (achieved, merit or excellence), students explained that they could “*definitely tell what different teachers expect of different students*” [Focus group 2] based on the questions they prepared them for. Teacher expectations for students achievement was communicated through such acts as:

*Sometimes I overhear in class teachers not going over excellence questions and merit with some students because they think ‘oh well they
haven’t been capable of it before so why would they be able to now’ and that’s like real unfair. [Focus group 1]

Teachers’ expectations had differential effects on students. High expectations could be either positive or negative, as compared below. How students responded to teacher expectations appeared to be moderated by the view the student had of themselves to be able to fulfil the teachers’ expectation:

*I reckon the best teachers just like aim for excellence, cause even if you don’t get excellence you will at least get achieved.* [Focus group 6]

*Everyone is being pushed and taught excellence without enough emphasis maybe on just passing like to start off with and I feel like that should be a higher priority.* [Focus group 5]

Low expectations however were predominantly viewed as demotivating by students as this did not push them to try harder. If the teacher was happy with them just passing, that was all they aimed to do:

*You are there just to like meet what she expects us to and that’s just pretty much it.* [Focus group 5]

This created a negative environment, as depicted in the following quote:

*I think it’s real depressing when the teacher says like ‘oh your going for achieved aren’t you’ and you are like ‘oh I thought I was better than that.’* [Focus group 5]

These expectations also affect boundaries through tolerance for behaviours, such as: “*sometimes teachers tend to pick on the good students more than they pick on the bad students*” [Focus group 3]. Students felt that: “*bad students always get rewarded for doing good things, but those good students that have always been doing those good things, don’t get rewarded*” [Focus group 3].

**Emotion management.** Emotion management related to teachers dealing with their own and their students’ emotional displays. Collapsed under this title was also *student emotional awareness*, which the students explained was being aware of emotion as a prerequisite to dealing with
emotion. Furthermore, beyond teacher management of student emotion, students were very intuitive about how their teachers managed their own emotion.

Teachers’ emotional awareness related to whether or not student emotion in the classroom was noticed or recognised. Students described emotional awareness in the classroom to be important because if a student is upset:

*Your mind’s definitely not going to be on learning, you will be thinking about what’s actually upsetting you.* [Focus group 5]

Hence teachers needed to be able to notice and respond to this emotion in order to get students to be responsive to learning. Part of being aware of emotion depended upon the relationship the teacher had with their students: “*she knows us well enough to know if something is wrong*” [Focus group 3].

It is one thing to be aware of emotion, but students felt that if a teacher was not going to actively manage the perceived emotion, then awareness was pointless:

*Yeah it’s not even like confronting or directly asking you, it’s about trying to engage you when they can see that something’s wrong. Like if there is someone who is a little bit reclusive in class, which is not how they usually are, maybe like trying to engage them a little bit more.* [Focus group 5]

In terms of personal emotion in the later years of secondary school, a majority of students felt emotions were dismissed by their teachers, communicated through these following actions:

*They just tell you to go outside.* [Focus group 1]

*Just remove the problem.* [Focus group 1]

*They might send your friend to comfort you.* [Focus group 4]

*They might recommend going to the school counsellor or something.* [Focus group 6]

When the teacher had a good relationship with their student though, students felt routine information sharing and teacher availability meant
actions to deal with student emotion did not have to be explicit. Informal conversations covered emotion before it became an issue in the classroom.

As for academic emotions, teachers rated more positively by students were those who utilised their emotional awareness to accommodate student emotions, for example, teachers that: “help you manage the stress” [Focus group 2].

_I was like freaking out about our health assessment, my first two teachers let me go to the library and finish it off because I was behind and I needed to decorate it and all that, so it was really nice of them to like understand how I was feeling._ [Focus group 2]

Additionally, teachers could manage students’ emotions by how they structured the class, for example: “she adapts it to everyone’s moods” [Focus group 4].

_When it comes to last period she will organise for the practical’s to be done because that is sort of engaging and fun so you don’t mind doing that in a period five and she organises the tests to be in first period, second period or third period when you are feeling pretty fresh._ [Focus group 5]

In regard to teacher displays of emotion, affirmation was important in the classroom setting as it emphasised the trust and belief the teacher had in the student, further emphasising their teacher-student relationship as a positive one. A comparison of how teacher positive and negative emotion was appraised is illustrated below:

_It’s so nice to know that your teacher is backing you like today in health, our teacher was like um ‘oh you guys should all be so proud of the assessment you did, like it’s like amazing, you guys put so much work into it and you should be really proud’ and even just to have that is just really nice that your teacher like believed in you and you know she thinks that what you did was good._ [Focus group 2]

_She will never be happy with you. I have a friend who is in her class this year and she got an excellence, she must have been one of the only people in the whole school to ever get a practice physics exam at excellence and she was like ‘oh are you happy with me now miss’ and the teacher was just like ‘well I’m not disappointed’ and that’s all._ [Focus group 3]
How teachers actually expressed their own emotional experiences was equally important. Students explained that a significant difference between teachers who maintain either a positive or negative ECC was their ability to regulate their emotions. Many students described their frustration at having teachers who expected students to come to class with a mindset conducive to learning, but did not practice this themselves.

I hate it when teachers actually come in and are like ‘I’m just not in a good mood, just do this’ and it’s kind of like ‘ugh I just came here to learn, it’s not a very nice learning environment if you’re in a bad mood for something I didn’t do’, it just seems unfair, and it’s not very helpful. [Focus group 2]

She’s really uugggh you could say like bipolar, she’s really temperamental. Like she will come in and she’ll just be mentally angry, just going psycho at you and then the next day she will come in and just be like smiley and happy. You would just sit in class and be like waiting for it to change again, like the bomb hasn’t gone off yet. [Focus group 1]

The students were not unrealistic in thinking that teachers’ emotions should not be displayed in the classroom; rather it was how the emotions were displayed that mattered. One student was quite frustrated when she reported: “it doesn’t really give you that much faith in the system when like my teachers haven’t even got it together” [Focus group 2] exemplifying the importance for the teacher to regulate and display the emotion they want their students to present.

I think if like a teacher is truly handling their emotions you don’t really notice that difference so much. It’s not like, you don’t want them to hide their emotions but it’s kind of just to regulate it in a way that they still are teaching you in the best possible way. [Focus group 2]

Appraisal of teacher emotion was quite heavily impacted by the relationship between the teacher-student pair, for example, one student explained: “you have to have a connection with your teacher to actually like first care”[Focus group 6]. Teachers who successfully exercised the positive relationship they had with their students could actually use the respect they had earned from their students to enhance the classroom productivity, as shown in the following quotes:
Like in classes where we all talk over the teacher it’s because all my teacher will do to stop us talking is bark over the top of us. [Focus group 2]

I think like when you have that personal relationship with a teacher, when you are not working you feel a bit more guilty. [Focus group 5]

Outcomes

In regard to outcomes of teacher emotional components (eg. emotional relationships, awareness and management, intrapersonal beliefs and interpersonal guidelines), three main themes were presented by the students across the six focus groups; these outcomes were in the domains of emotion, environment, and academic attitude. Table 4 below reduces these domains into the concepts discussed by the students and includes the smaller sub-concepts encompassed by these terms.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Concepts</th>
<th>Sub-concepts</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Positive</td>
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<td>Environment</td>
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<td>Implicit</td>
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<td>Attitude</td>
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<td>Explicit</td>
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<td>Prove yourself</td>
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<td>Scared of the teacher*</td>
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<td>Meet expectations*</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Purposefully fail or give up</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note: italicised sub-concepts are related to negative behaviours

*sub-concepts are related to behaviours that can be both positive and negative
**Emotion.** Students described their emotions being a direct reflection of their teachers’ emotions. Hence, positive teacher emotional behaviours influenced a positive response from students, and negative teacher emotional behaviours induced negative emotional responses from students.

Overall, emotion towards a subject was expressed as contagious. The passion discussed earlier being displayed by the teacher impacted how the students felt about the subject, for example:

*If they [teachers] are excited the students will be.* [Focus group 2]

*She will get all excited about it, so we are all like excited too.* [Focus group 3]

One student joyously disclosed: “my calculus teacher just thinks calculus is beautiful, and it’s actually rubbed off on me because now I actually enjoy calculus” [Focus group 3]. These teachers who “radiated good vibes” [Focus group 6] induced significantly more positive appraisals by their students.

*Like his passion for geography makes me want to share that as well and like yeah I do better just because he gets excited about it, and I like follow him.* [Focus group 5]

A consequence of transferring negative emotion was explained in the following when a student discussed the outcome of favouritism in a classroom:

*It doesn’t do much for your self-esteem either, you feel less capable, well I dunno you just don’t feel encouraged to succeed, and you are like what’s the point if she favours her over me. You compare yourself to them.* [Focus group 1]

Academic emotions were also transferred through the teachers’ emotional intrapersonal guidelines: “like I’m not stressed in some subjects because I know that the teacher I can go to them whenever” [Focus group 1]; and through their emotional displays: “cause she’s so like all frazzled all the time, it kind of makes you panic and then you get frazzled so you don’t enjoy being in that class” [Focus group 3].
**Environment.** The transfer of emotion described above also impacted the environment. Students overall believed that the “class's like mood and stuff is based on the teachers” [Focus group 6]. Negative teacher emotion had problematic outcomes for students' emotion and therefore the overall environment, for example:

*If a teacher's in a bad mood, I'd probably be in a bad mood too because you just don't want to be there like if they don't want to be there.* [Focus group 6]

The atmosphere, like emotion, was also described as being contagious, for example: “if they are on to it and organised, then the class is more on to it” [Focus group 3], compared to “the way she is makes us be chilled because she is not gonna make us stay back in class if we haven't done our work or whatever, so we just don't do any work” [Focus group 3]. The following quote exemplifies the idea that students felt their teachers emotional state was the decisive element in regard to enjoyment in a class due to their mood being caught by the class and impacting the atmosphere:

*We have some bright, like happy people in the class, like we have potential to have a real good class but he really does drag it down a bit. I think it goes back to not having that personal relationship with the teacher, like he seems pretty distant and stuff so it's harder to like get into the lessons as much.* [Focus group 5]

As a whole, students optimistically described classroom environments that were stimulating and fun, in comparison to those that were boring, and appraised positively environments that were comfortable due to their “open” nature. The following contrasting quotations exemplify the aforementioned scenarios: “we loved going to class, we enjoyed learning, it was just like a fun environment” [Focus group 1]; “when you were in his class you didn’t even really feel like you were like learning chemistry. You were there, had some yarns, like really connected with him” [Focus group 5], “we hated going to class because it was just, just her attitude was horrible” [Focus group 1]. Thus, further evidencing how the teachers' emotional components alter not only emotions in the classroom, but the overall feel of the classroom environment.
Stimulating and fun environments were created through humour: “he would tell jokes every morning and make a good atmosphere as you came in” [Focus group 4], teaching beyond the curriculum: “we do like chemistry puns and stuff, so it’s fun to have something to like keep it alive” [Focus group 2], and short quick fire activities: “tasks that were only ten seconds long, so you would just have to think, and it got your mind going. And it was also fun because you would compete against other class mates” [Focus group 4]. The environment could also therefore impact emotion, as for example, by setting up these fun environments students “would walk in real happy with that” [Focus group 4].

The teachers’ attitude and the relationship they had with their students also impacted the level of fun students perceived based on how this impacted their teaching style, for example:

*We had plenty of talking in the class, so it was like the balance between working, having a discussion and a bit of fun that made the lesson just go so much easier.* [Focus group 5]

Furthermore, the relationship element was crucial to stimulating environments as this connection made the learning more personal and therefore more enjoyable, as evidenced in the following:

*Just being able to have like a personal relationship or some sort of banter or anecdote or anything like that just to make the learning a little more digestible than just trolling through like a worksheet or series of notes.* [Focus group 5]

*Just like the understanding that comes between like, comes from a personal connection with the teacher, like if they kinda understand you and how you learn and how you work and stuff then it makes it a whole lot easier to kinda learn and enjoy it at the same time.* [Focus group 5]

*I think it makes a class more desirable if you know the teacher kind of like likes you as a student cause there are some teachers that kind of see you as a number, or just in an impersonal way, so it makes me really like ‘oh I have to go to this class now, I don’t really want to go’, cause I know that they don’t value me like being there.* [Focus group 2]

The classroom being described as comfortable was related to the “open” atmosphere that was developed. Comfortable and open
environments were created through positive teacher-student relationships: “like after class or before or whatever they like check up how you’re doing with everything and like making sure that you’re on the right track with everything, it like helps to like be more comfortable” [Focus group 2]; and through competent teachers: “when a teacher knows their stuff that makes it easier to learn because if they are comfortable then you are comfortable” [Focus group 3]; and through being available: “you would always feel comfortable asking for help” [Focus group 1].

Factors that negatively impacted on an environment, and made it less comfortable were negative teacher interpersonal guidelines. Predominantly it was their emotional standards and availability, which in some cases deterred students from feeling they could approach their teachers for help and led them to doubt that they would be responded to in a supportive manner. A comparison of this quote: “she is really accepting of everyone, so you can tell she values what everyone has to say and therefore you can feel more comfortable to say it because you know you’re not going to be rejected for your opinion or anything” [Focus group 2], with this quote: “with some teachers you are worried to ask for help cause they will be like ‘you should know this, you should have done this already’” [Focus group 4] shows how students have their attitudes altered in the classroom based on how they perceive the teacher will respond to them.

Both the environment and emotions had the potential to affect student academic outcomes through altering students’ attitudes towards teachers, classes and the learning content. For example the following two quotes contrast student motivation based on the perception the student holds in regard to their teachers' attitude and teaching style:

If you hate them then you’re like nah I don’t want to work in this class. [Focus group 6]

I am motivated to work harder in a subject like that, than where I am just copying down notes for an hour or something. [Focus group 5]
The following quote foreshadows the topic of the next section in the text by presenting the dynamic between teachers’ emotions and student outcomes:

*So like our English teacher, none of us are motivated anymore, because she’s not motivated, we are just like mirroring her emotions.* [Focus group 3]

**Academic outcomes.** As alluded to in the preceding quote, academic motivation was affected by emotions and the environment experienced by the students. Additionally however, five explicit patterns of behaviour were also described as being the result of teachers’ relationships and interactions with students. Negative relationships with teachers, characterised by judging, unequal and impersonal interactions led to “purposely failing” or “giving up”, and “proving yourself.” In contrast, positive relationships with teachers led to students wanting to “reward the teacher.” Being “scared of the teacher” and “meeting teacher expectations” were the other two patterns of behaviour that resulted from teachers communicating their expectations.

A few students described how they struggled to develop good relationships with their teachers due to the teachers’ conflicting or negative emotional beliefs, guidelines and behaviours. As a result, their achievement suffered:

*I found that I just didn’t want to go to that class anymore, so I didn’t, and I failed the entire class.* [Focus group 6]

Alarmingly, a third of the students disclosed that they had in the past purposely failed an assessment, or decided to give up on a subject due to factors related to negative teaching styles:

*In year 11 science, my teacher would always like make jokes about my physical appearance and stuff and because of this I purposely failed all of my science exams, because I just hated the teacher. So for me I like ruined my own education on behalf of my um distaste towards a teacher.* [Focus group 1]

Other students turned this ‘distaste’ towards a teacher into motivation to “prove them wrong”, for example:
It makes me want to work harder because it’s almost like I want to show her that I’m good enough, like and that I actually can do it. [Focus group 1]

It’s like there is nothing better than proving a teacher wrong about how good you are at something, like sometimes they just dismiss you and actually think you are not doing your work or don’t know what you are doing, and then you do something really well and they are like ‘oh’ and you are like ‘huh yeah that’s right.’ [Focus group 4]

Teachers who developed positive relationships with students and managed the emotional components of the classroom successfully gained a sense of empathy from their students in return: “[the teachers’ response] doesn’t matter to you if you haven’t made that connection” [Focus group 2]. When this connection was present it promoted academic attitudes aimed to succeed in order to “reward the teacher” for the effort they had put into the students.

I really, really like my art history teacher, like she’s just so cool and stuff, and so I feel like I really want to get good marks in that class and prove that I have actually been listening and that like her teaching has paid off. Like you almost want to like reward your teacher with a good mark, like ‘you are a good teacher and like this proves it.’ [Focus group 2]

More so than rewarding the teacher though was this sense of not wanting to let the teacher down, as explained here:

He’s putting a lot of time and effort into catching me up and helping me out so I really don’t want to let him down. [Focus group 2]

In the multiple anecdotes presented by the students during the focus groups, the common theme was having this ‘respect’ for the teacher in regard to both their attitude towards the students and their attitude towards teaching these students:

You don’t want to disappoint them, like you have that high respect for them and you don’t want to get a not achieved in that class. [Focus group 3]

She wants to impress her English teacher because she knows how much hard work and like how much it means to him because like you’ve got almost like a personal connection with him and you don’t want to let
that person down. It’s like if you’re just a number to them, there’s no motivation there to be like ‘oh well I want to do good for my teacher.’ [Focus group 2]

Another form of motivation to work harder came as a response to teachers who made students “scared to fail.” The difference between this and the prior attitude of wanting to reward the teacher, however is that this feeling of being scared to fail was not founded on positive emotional connections, and in many cases, although this fear enhanced learning, it reduced the positive interactions between teacher and student, for example:

It’s like you are not compelled to do better because you want to get good grades, you are compelled to do better because you are scared of what she’s gonna do. But I think she should make you want to work harder rather than like be scared to fail. [Focus group 4]

Well I had a history teacher once, she like had really high expectations of me because I had like had the year before merit endorsed or whatever, and it was kind of like a personal attack... She took it just too far and that more scared me than made me want to like do well in the class. [Focus group 1]

The expectations discussed earlier through the teachers' interpersonal guidelines had an impact upon students' expectations of themselves, both positively and negatively, which in turn also affected academic attitudes. Captured below is a powerful story from a young man who had a change of heart following one brief comment from a teacher:

Like last year in English, and before that, I was getting straight Achieved and Not Achieved just ‘cause I thought I was terrible at it, and I didn’t really like it. Then in year 12 I got a merit on one of my essays and it was marked by a teacher who wasn’t in my class, who didn’t teach me, and she wrote like up the top ‘oh this is really disappointing, it should’ve been like an excellence’, and that kinda confused me cause I always thought I was terrible at it. From then on I realised that I might actually be able to do good in it

Researcher: So that gave you faith in your own ability to actually do better?

Yeah ‘cause I had no idea that I was good at it, I thought I knew that I was shit in English and that I was going to drop it in level three, and
now I am doing it and I am doing pretty well at it so yeah. [Focus group 5]

An important feature of expectations was how well these were or were not supported. High expectations could be negative in the classroom if the teacher did not support the student to actually meet these high expectations, which flows on to affect student motivation as explained below:

*I feel like with chemistry if we were all taught the achieved level I think there would be the people that would push harder. I think that would motivate more people to push harder, to talk to her more, than if she just taught at a really high level. Because I think that causes a lot of people to lose hope for the subject. Sort of say ‘I don’t think there’s much I can do, like I’m not going anywhere, like this is really difficult’. But when you are getting taught the easy, and you start to nail the easy stuff, you feel like you can build on that, and yeah if you are not worrying about passing, you can start worrying about getting a better grade. I feel that’s better motivation.* [Focus group 5]

Dynamic

Teachers’ emotional behaviours and student outcomes appear then to be inseparably entwined, and their interrelationship potentially creates further synergies. The following anecdote was chosen to summarise this dynamic and reiterate the interconnected relationship between the emotional skills of the teacher, and how this impacts student emotion, the overall environment, and therefore academic output:

*The teacher means everything, like if you have a good relationship with the teacher, it doesn’t matter what they are teaching. It makes the class easier, even if you are struggling it’s not a drag to be there. And even if it’s a good subject, that like, I am actually quite keen on bio and really like the subject, but with the bad teacher it makes it a lot more difficult.* [Focus group 5]

In light of the current findings data could be used to inform the relationship between teachers’ emotional skills and the effects of these on student outcomes. A model has been presented in Figure 7 to depict the ECC model and how it appears to operate in the secondary school context, demonstrating specific inclusions and refinements to the existing ECC models in Figures 1 and 2.
Figure 7. Secondary school model based on students’ reports of the emotional classroom environment and their relative student outcomes
Teachers’ emotional behaviours are situated around emotional relationships as this was identified as the central and connecting factor between the personal and interpersonal dimensions. Students reported that their relationships with their teachers impacted how they evaluated their teachers’ attitude and behaviour, and they felt teachers altered their attitudes and behaviours dependent upon the student to whom these were directed.

Bidirectional arrows have additionally been included to represent how in the absence of an emotional relationship teachers’ personal emotional capabilities still impact their display of interpersonal emotional behaviours. These were predominantly identified through students’ descriptions of negative ECCs. When emotional relationships were not formed, students described how teachers’ attitudes and actions still impacted one another, yet this became an obstacle in the classroom.

Note that in Figure 7 emotional awareness is inserted with broken lines. This represents this concept not being completely distilled as a discrete concept, yet also not being absent from the focus group discussions. Awareness was referred to inseparably from emotional management as without the teacher being aware of emotion students did not believe their teachers could manage it. It is logical to assume however that teachers may notice student emotion yet choose not to respond to it. Temporarily then, emotional awareness has held its position as a personal emotional skill of the teacher, yet further research is necessary to validate or remove this as a standalone concept in the secondary school context.

Depicted in the lower circle are student outcomes. Students disclosed in response to their teachers’ emotional behaviours that they had their attitudes altered which in turn impacted on their behaviour and consequently their achievement output. Achievement outcomes did have the potential to reciprocally affect attitudes of students entering into new academic tasks, yet students explained this as being a result of teacher expectations and level of support changing, hence the one way flow presented in Figure 7.
Teachers’ emotional behaviours and student outcomes are linked by an internal circle encompassing contagion of emotion and the overall environment. Contagion was concluded as the core link between the dynamic as students disclosed it was these two factors that altered their attitude and engagement in a class which, as described above, altered their responses behaviourally and academically. Students expressed an augmented effect where emotion and environment worked cohesively together to exaggerate the impact that either component could have on its own, hence the two way arrow.

The interfaces of the circles in Figure 7 are italicised to identify the research hypothesis of how these three circles link. When analysing the emotion underlying students’ experiences, it was understood that students’ emotion, and their appraisal of the environment, were functions of having their needs fulfilled by the relationship their teacher had with them. As examples, bonding with the teacher through relationships, the teacher being available for support, and students attaining a sense of self-belief from perceived teachers’ belief in their ability, fulfilled students’ needs for belonging, safety and self-esteem. Hence the positive outcomes the fulfilment of needs had on students’ emotions and the overall atmosphere. The link between this fulfilment of needs impacting on emotion and the environment consequently alters student outcomes through driving student behaviour to maintain this fulfilment. Recall students disclosing they worked harder to not disappoint the teacher with whom they had a close relationship. Hypothetically, with reference to the hierarchical model of needs (Maslow, 1943), the fulfilment of social and emotional needs would additionally move students’ motivation toward higher level learning needs, hence their attitude and behaviour would be motivated toward attainment of achievement.

The feeding down of teachers’ emotional behaviours to student outcomes cements the nature of the process in which the one affects the other. Having the circles interconnected however does leave the model open for interpretation as to how teachers’ emotional behaviours, contagion, and student outcomes could function bi-directionally. Having not accessed teachers’ voice it is not possible for this to be discussed as a feedback loop
with any certainty, yet some assumptions can be alluded to. Students having disclosed the following: “she gives a lot more attention to people that work, which is fair enough” and “it’s kind of hard to [open up] to kids that are a little bit shitty towards you” [Focus group 6] paints the picture that students are aware that teachers’ emotional behaviours are impacted by their students’ behaviour, in much the same way they themselves are affected by their teachers’ behaviour. Additionally, students disclosed entering a classroom with a predetermined mind set, based on previous actions of the teacher, which informed their behaviour. Assuming this would in turn affect the teachers’ attitude and subsequent interactions with that student leads to the hypothesis that this model could function bi-directionally. Assessing teacher opinions would provide greater insight into this link back into the ECC model.
Chapter Five - Discussion

“I've come to the frightening conclusion that I am the decisive element in the classroom. It's my daily mood that makes the weather. As a teacher, I possess a tremendous power to make a child's life miserable or joyous. I can be a tool of torture or an instrument of inspiration. I can humiliate or humor, hurt or heal. In all situations, it is my response that decides whether a crisis will be escalated or de-escalated and a child humanized or de-humanized.”

- Dr Haim Ginott

The interaction between teachers’ relationships with students, and potentially successful academic outcomes was a prominent finding of the data. Likewise, it was strongly evident throughout that emotion continues to play a central role in the development of relationships in the secondary school context. Reflecting on their time at secondary school, students identified the salient features of teachers who maintained a positive ECC as: elements of friendship within the teacher-learner dyad; a passion for teaching their subject and their students; having an active approach to teaching; making themselves available; implementing fair and reasonable guidelines that considered student perspectives and limitations; and managing emotional displays in the classroom. Subsequently, when teachers emphasised a position of dominance over their students and undertook teaching from an impersonal view, students lost respect for their teachers, lost enjoyment for the subject, and lost engagement in learning. Both scenarios, positive and negative, supported Hargreaves (1998) argument that emotion is central to teaching. Furthermore, students disclosed the aforementioned teacher emotional characteristics as impacting their academic attitudes, behaviours and outcomes. Thus in expanding Hargreaves argument, it is proposed that emotions are also central to learning.

The current research findings resonate with prior studies that also reported teacher-student relationships as crucial to academic adjustment (Roorda et al., 2011), and the teacher to be the underlying factor altering the secondary school experience (Irwin, 2007). Also, as predicted, the ETP developed by Bishop and Berryman (2009) resonated with the students’ narratives in the current study, despite only 22% of the student participants
in this study identifying themselves as Māori. The desire for humour, collective learning environments, independence, consistent and fair boundaries and rules, flexible use of the curriculum and feedback were all consistently identified by the students in the current study. The reason for the similarities between the current study and prior research are understood due to, as mentioned in the literature review, these factors fulfil students’ needs for belonging, safety and self-esteem cross-culturally.

Comparatively however, data from student participants in the current study did not point to the conclusions drawn by Hargreaves (2000) that teacher-student relationships decline during secondary school due to older students desiring more independence and greater peer relationships. Although some students in the current study did disclose valuing independence and peer relationships, they reported that the teacher was vital in supporting these; for example teachers’ trust in students provided and scaffolded independent learning. Students disclosing that they in a sense utilised their teachers as a secure base from which to develop independence from unexpectedly resonates with attachment theory where individuals seek proximity to a intimate companion to achieve security and explore their surroundings (Bowlby, 2005). Although a well known theory in infancy, it appears to still function in adolescence as described by the students in this study when teachers developed a relationship with them that allowed them to trust the teacher to provide them simultaneously with support and trust. Thus, independence and peer relationships should not undermine the value student’s place on having relationships with their teachers as they additionally require these for building student engagement and bonding in their academic context.

Through examining student perspectives of the ‘emotional’ aspects of the classroom environment, the current study confirmed that a core component underpinning the atmosphere created in the classroom was the relationship maintained between the teacher and their students. Analysis of the data suggests relationships are not mutually exclusive from the other two classroom environment components, ‘discipline’ and ‘learning’ (Moos & Trickett, 1995; Trickett & Moos, 1973), however they underpin students’
perception of these factors. Hypothesising on causation, relationships could both impact, and be impacted by, discipline and learning (Woolfolk Hoy & Weinstein, 2006). Yet, student narratives implied that they felt their relationships with their teachers changed how they perceived and responded to their teachers’ inter- and intra-personal emotional behaviours. Placement of emotional relationships at the centre of the secondary school version of the ECC model in Figure 7 therefore was deliberate. This resonates with other researchers who also determined that students weigh relationships more heavily than discipline and learning in regard to motivation and achievement outcomes (Anderson et al., 2004; Brackett et al., 2011; Meyer et al., 2009; Moos & Moos, 1978; Patrick et al., 2007). It is concluded then that to adequately teach and discipline a student, a teacher has to know the student, their approach to learning, and what drives them to participate in school. Yet, it is also important in maintaining the relationship the teacher has with their student, that the teacher is competent in disciplining and teaching their students, to not lose the element of respect that is critical in the teacher-student dyad.

**Emotional Classroom Climate Model**

The aim of this research was to determine what the ECC specifically looks like in the secondary school setting. Having identified emotion as having two roles in younger children’s classrooms; using emotion to teach and physically teaching emotional competence (Evans & Harvey, 2012; Harvey & Evans, 2003; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009), it was questioned whether these two functions were still prevalent in older students’ learning environments. To assess the above, Harvey and Evans’ (2003) model of the ECC, and the later revised ECC model (Harvey et al., 2012) underpinned this study. Teachers’ utilisation of emotional skills in their teaching was consistent in the secondary school setting, yet the teaching of emotion was less definitive. Overall, themes obtained in Harvey and Evans’ study were paralleled in the current study, with differences mainly operating within the categories implied by these themes. Table 2 in Appendix D illustrates and compares the findings obtained within the primary and secondary school settings.
Student participants in the current study predominantly discussed the teacher-student, and teacher-class dyads. This differed from the work of Harvey et al. (2012) and Harvey and Evans (2003) which also revealed information on student-student relationships. Although both primary and secondary school contexts described the importance of time given and interest shown to students, in the secondary school, this dynamic changes as students in their final year of schooling are approaching ‘adult’ status. A prerequisite quality of the time given and interest shown was that it was genuine; conversation needed to go beyond polite small talk to deep and personal conversations that acknowledged the history between teacher and student. Since the teacher-student relationship at the secondary level is characterised by less of an age and therefore power difference (Steinberg, 2011), how the teacher positioned them self in relation to the student impacted how they were appraised, hence the valence of the term ‘relatable’ (see Appendix E).

*Emotional intrapersonal beliefs* and *emotional interpersonal guidelines* were consistently identified by the secondary school students in the current study as being important aspects of the ECC. Specific factors relative to these components such as fairness, humour, respect, belief in students, as well as teacher competency, and approach to teaching were prevalent across all six focus groups, as predicted in prior classroom climate research (see Bempechat et al., 2011; Bempechat et al., 2013; Bishop & Berryman, 2009; Catterall, 1998; Cox & Kennedy, 2008; Irwin, 2007; Wentzel, 2002). Between Harvey and Evans’ study and the current research, the main differences existed at the sub-concepts level. Intrapersonal beliefs focussed predominantly on the teachers’ passion, as factors such as the teachers’ emotional philosophy and emotional self-acceptance were not explicitly available for the students to comment on. The teachers’ emotional attitude was most salient in this theme as students reported how their teachers’ attitude impacted upon their interpersonal guidelines and how they interacted with students.

As can be seen in Table 2 in Appendix D, availability was deemed its own sub-category, despite Harvey and Evans finding it to be a component of
‘emotional standards.’ The salience of this topic within and between focus groups supported it as a standalone concept. The difference in the weighting of this concept’s importance across the age groups is understood as being a function of school design. In primary school, there is often one teacher predominantly responsible for each student; hence their availability is relatively consistent, yet when having multiple teachers, as happens in secondary school, teachers have their responsibility to students diffused (Riley, 2009). Students expressed in the current study the importance of having a teacher who would listen to concerns holistically, not just in regard to their own subject. Furthermore the disciplined academic focus adopted in secondary schools (Eccles et al., 1993), and the independence of the students (Steinberg, 2011), promotes the use of more passive than active teaching styles. Students agreed they want more independence but this is often misunderstood by teachers as meaning less support. Despite a students’ age, students continue to need their teachers to be available to them to meet their needs for belonging and safety.

Not having accessed the teachers’ voice impacted on the reporting of the component emotional awareness in the secondary school sector. Students could only comment on emotion that was explicitly managed or dismissed, thus not attending to personal emotion was understood by the students as their teachers not being aware of student emotion. Literature proposes however that teachers could actually be using meta-emotion principles to aid students in learning to self-regulate their emotional experiences (Gottman et al., 1996; Gottman et al., 1997). This may partially explain why teachers’ emotional interactions and their link with the development of students’ emotional intelligence and emotional regulation skills was less evident in this study.

Since emotional intelligence and regulation is often absorbed rather than taught (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Mottet & Beebe, 2000), it is hypothesised that students may be unaware of the extent of skills they are learning through observation and the presence of an emotionally competent role model. Students disclosed they felt it was more important to have a relationship with their teacher which enabled them to access support on a
needs basis. Perhaps this relationship in itself has the potential to make students more emotionally capable by enabling them to be in control of understanding their own emotional experiences and awareness of when to seek out emotional support.

Teachers’ perspectives are required to understand whether emotional awareness is, or is not, a core emotional skill in the secondary school context, or as proposed, that students are just restricted in their awareness of what teachers notice about their student emotions when these are not visibly dealt with. It is likely that both standpoints are plausible across different teachers’ styles based on their own emotional capabilities (Elbertson et al., 2009). Additionally, knowledge of the motives behind teachers’ responses, or lack of a response, to student emotion would add to the literature on how emotion is used as a strategy for developing emotionally intelligent students that can self regulate their own emotion. The current researcher therefore supports the need for a subsequent study that obtains secondary school teachers’ voices.

**Emotion Contagion**

A difference in the centrality of emotion contagion was evident between the current findings and those of Harvey et al. (2012). When emotion contagion was added to the ECC model, it was done so with some hesitation; the nature and function of emotion contagion in the classroom was unclear in regard to its classification as an emotional skill or an emotional artefact (Harvey et al., 2012). On one level, emotion contagion related closely to emotional awareness, suggesting teachers were consciously utilising emotion to influence their students’ emotions, yet on another level emotion contagion did not receive as high weighting as the other emotional components suggesting emotion contagion to be an unconscious consequence of other emotional skills (Harvey et al., 2012). Again, not having included teachers’ voices in the study leads one only to assumptions of how teachers are using this component of the ECC model, yet student anecdotes propose how teachers could utilise this as a strategy.
Note how in the secondary school version of the ECC model in Figure 7 ‘emotion contagion’ shifted so that ‘contagion’ referred to both the emotions and environment created by teachers’ emotional skills. Students consistently identified mirroring their teachers’ emotions as well as having the classroom as a whole following the tone created by the teachers’ emotional behaviour. This supports emotion contagion as an artefact. Additionally however, students identified a more conscious transfer of emotion that consequently impacted on academic outcomes. On top of unconsciously enjoying a subject because the teacher was excited about what they were teaching, students in secondary school actually consciously altered their behaviour. Students admitted to striving for achievement beyond reasons intrinsic to themselves, they also strived for achievement for reasons relating to the teacher, resonating with a performance orientation explained in achievement goal theory. This pattern of behaviour supports contagion also having the potential to be an emotional skill. Although the current study cannot conclude whether or not teachers are purposely utilising their emotional awareness and management as a skill to influence students’ emotions, it can strongly suggest that teachers can, and would benefit from, utilising emotional strategies to enhance student behaviour conducive to academic output. Having included outcomes in the study adds new understandings of the power of the contagion concept, and the power of the ECC.

**Outcomes**

Having predicted that teachers’ emotional interactions would continue to play a significant role in the secondary school context, the current research further sought answers to whether the presence of teachers’ emotional skills were having an effect on behaviour and academic outcomes. Visual assessment of the dynamic between teachers’ emotional behaviours and student outcomes in the model in Figure 7, it is fair to conclude that it does. The participating students identified, as did prior research, that teacher-student relationships and the classroom atmosphere affect motivation and achievement (Anderson et al., 2004; Cornelius-White, 2007; Meyer et al., 2009; Patrick et al., 2007; Roorda et al., 2011), and impact
behaviour (Brackett et al., 2011; Cornelius-White, 2007; Crosnoe et al., 2004; Evans et al., 2009). Having utilised a qualitative method, hypotheses can probe data in the form of student anecdotes, to seek possible reasons of how teachers’ emotional behaviours in the classroom are influencing student responding.

**Emotion underpins academia.** Brackett’s (2011) comment that you cannot satisfy academic goals without addressing these in an environment that is socially and emotionally positive, has been at the forefront of this research. The goal of the study being to understand that if this is true, how can socially and emotionally positive environments be created. Students reporting better motivation, engagement and achievement when their teachers formed a relationship with them supports Brackett and many other theorists belief that students interpersonal and intrapersonal needs require fulfilling before higher level learning can be accomplished (Farrington et al., 2012; Maslow, 1943; Maslow, Frager, Fadiman, McReynolds, & Cox, 1970; Roeser et al., 2000).

Ellis and Collings (1997); Farrington et al. (2012); Roeser et al. (2000); Ryan and Stiller (1991) all identified needs to address before students engage themselves fully in learning tasks. Despite slightly different terminology, they identified similar factors, these were, having a sense of belonging, safety and relatedness, feeling competent and having confidence in their ability, and valuing the task they were doing or what they were learning. Students reported a sense of belonging through developing personal relationships with their teachers, furthermore they reported feeling safe as an outcome derived from a combination of the factors in the ECC model that created environments illustrated as ‘open’ and ‘comfortable’. Feelings of competence and self-efficacy were developed through high teacher expectations and positive affirmation that communicated to the students their teachers believed in, valued and trusted them. Lastly, valuing learning was directly impacted by the value the teacher placed in their teaching. Combinations of the above were described by students as consequently affecting their enjoyment of, and effort exerted in that subject. For that reason it has been speculated above in Figure 7 that the fulfilment of
these needs and the desire to maintain this fulfilment is how emotion can set
the scene for, and promote, academic learning. The summary determined
years ago by Maslow (1943; 1970), and more recently by the above
theorists, has now also been drawn in current research; achievement is
greater when these fundamental emotional needs are addressed and met.

**Teachers as friends.** The above analysis on the fulfilment of needs
impacting student outcomes also partially explains the comparison of the
teacher-student relationship to the friendship relationship which was not
predicted prior to data analysis. Although salient within and across the focus
groups, the term ‘friendship’ was a difficult one for the students to
conceptualise, leaving questions as to what friendship looked like within the
teacher-student dyad. The Friendship Quality Scale (FQS) developed by
Bukowski, Hoza, and Boivin (1994) includes five central features of
friendship reflected in the current study. These are companionship, conflict,
help, security and closeness.

The relevance of Bukowski and colleagues’ friendship indicators is
that the emotions underlying these components of friendship are similar to
the interpersonal needs being met through the teacher-student dyad. This
provides a possible explanation as to why positive teachers were being
described as “kind of like a friend.” Companionship and conflict are two
forms of belonging; students also gain a sense of belonging in the school by
being connected with their teachers. Help and security provides an
individual with a sense of safety and security, two feelings students reported
from being taught by competent and available teachers. Lastly, closeness
when considered as a form of appraisal, branches off belonging to enhance
self-esteem. Teachers can instil this in their students through their
relationship with them, and their emotional standards and expectations
which enable a student to feel valued, trusted and respected.

Friendship literature has extensively studied the function of
friendships being able to positively influence academic behaviours and
reduce delinquent behaviours through fulfilling students’ social and esteem
needs (Kendrick, Jutengren, & Stattin, 2012; Nelson & DeBacker, 2008;
Wentzel & Caldwell, 1997). It is not surprising then, that having positive
teacher-student dyads fulfilling the same human needs, these also provide positive outcomes academically and behaviourally for students. It is assumed that a sense of belonging, safety and self-esteem is conducive to learning, when provided by both friends and teachers as they fulfil the same needs in students. Professionally, teachers are not employed to be their students’ friends, but this does not mean teachers cannot use principles of friendship to connect with their students, and bond them to the school institution.

**Teacher expectations.** Esteem needs are the final need Maslow (1943) believed required fulfilling before learning needs became a students’ current motivation. Students disclosed internalising their teachers’ expectations, both positively and negatively. Concern is raised because of the way exams are organised in NCEA as achieved, merit or excellence level questions (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, 2014), this system frequently facilitates the communication to students of the expectation the teacher has for their achievement.

Students reported different feelings with regard to teachers’ expectations based on how compatible these were with their perceptions of their own ability. Although positive appraisals came from a match between teacher expectations and student achievement levels, this was not always conducive to learning outcomes; feeling safe only having to meet low expectations was described by the students as not challenging them to improve beyond this. In some cases a mismatch was more beneficial to learning as although students felt pressured to meet their teachers’ high expectations, some students disclosed they worked harder to meet this. This analysis calls attention to the Pekrun et al. (2002) cognitive-motivational model of emotion which defines emotion not purely as either positive or negative, but furthermore as activating or deactivating. Depicted in Table 5 below, Pekrun et al. (2002) summarise that “simplistic conceptions of negative emotions as bad and positive emotions as being good should be avoided because positive emotions are sometimes detrimental and negative emotions such as anxiety and shame beneficial” (2002, p. 103). Traditionally ‘negative’ emotions such as anxiety, stress or shame can be activating as a
human response to unfavourable emotion is action to alter this state of discomfort (Baumeister et al., 2007; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000). This is seen in the behavioural pattern of cognitive dissonance whereby people revise their attitudes and/or behaviour to reduce inconsistencies between thoughts and actions (Festinger, 1957).

Table 5

*Emotions Affecting Academic Performance as Explained through the Cognitive-Motivational Model, adapted from Pekrun et al. (2002)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Activating</strong></td>
<td>Enjoyment of learning,</td>
<td>Anger, anxiety, stress and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hope for success, or pride</td>
<td>shame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Deactivating</strong></td>
<td>Relief, relaxation after</td>
<td>Boredom, hopelessness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>success, contentment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although some students disclosed trying harder to meet their teachers’ high expectations, other students identified “giving up” when they felt they could not meet their teachers’ expectation. In the face of failure, Steenbarger and Aderman (1979) found that people would alter their behaviour to avoid failure in future. However this did not hold true when the person did not see themselves as having a chance to improve. Instead of becoming motivated to keep trying, they gave up by dissociating from the task. Baumeister et al. (2007) explain both responses are aimed at reducing anticipated negative emotion. It was understood then that teacher support and availability was an additional confounding factor in determining whether students would try harder or give up when faced with a higher expectation than they perceived themselves as capable of achieving. Aligning student anecdotes with the above theoretical discussion, it was understood that teachers who were available and active in the classroom and those who communicated their belief in their students’ ability transferred this emotion onto their students. Subsequently, these students developed a belief in their own ability to gain the anticipated positive outcome of meeting the teachers’
expectation, and therefore were motivated to continue working towards a higher level of achievement (Baumeister et al., 2007; Steenbarger & Aderman, 1979). Without support, negative outcomes remained anticipated, hence motivation was not enhanced.

This aforementioned analysis is familiar to Baumrind's parenting dimensions (1978; 1991). Just as parents who balance demands or expectations with responsiveness or warmth enable more positive outcomes from their children (Walker, 2008), so can teachers. Like good parents, good teachers push children and students to keep growing, but provide the support necessary for this growth. In relation to the overall ECC model, teachers need to know their students to be able to adequately support them and therefore recognise how to induce activating, rather than deactivating emotions.

Additionally, as documented in the ‘Pygmalion in the classroom’ literature (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968), students identified as the ‘teachers’ pet’ and those students expected to achieve with excellence not only received preferential treatment, but also a higher quantity and quality of learning help. Thus, they are more able to fulfil this expectation. This self-fulfilling phenomenon is presented in Figure 8.

Figure 8. Cyclical nature of teachers’ expectations influencing student emotion, behaviour and outcomes
**Student behaviours.** In addition to teacher expectations altering student outcomes, how students appraised a teacher also impacted behaviour and motivation. Five academic profiles were described in the findings; these also can be understood through the emotion feedback system. Baumeister et al. (2007) provide a wealth of literature supporting the idea that people engage in behaviour when they believe it will enhance their positive emotion. Likewise from a functionalist perspective, desirable emotion fosters repetition of the action that created the desirable emotion (Campos et al., 1994). An example of such a pattern of behaviour is when upset people engage in prosocial behaviour to make themselves feel better.

Students who described their motivation to try harder in school as to “not let their teacher down”, to “reward the teacher”, or because they are “scared of the teacher” are motivated by the anticipated affect their success will have on their teacher, it also relates to the anticipated emotional affect their teachers’ emotional response will have on them. For example they would feel guilty for disappointing the teacher, or they would feel happy for pleasing their teacher. Without the emotional bond between the teacher and student, feelings of guilt would not be anticipated as the teachers’ reaction would not affect the students’ emotional reaction. Purposely failing fulfils the same criteria, except that the teachers’ negative response to student failure is actually the positive outcome anticipated by students. Therefore, in regard to achievement goal theory, on top of how teachers frame learning to influence mastery or performance oriented approaches in students, by either emphasising personal competence or in class competition (Sage, 2014), it appears that how they interact with students also influences these motivational orientations. This analysis presents a strategy for teachers to use emotion as a skill in the classroom. Developing a connection with students through emotional behaviours outlined in this research can aid a teacher in getting their students to align with their expectations for behaviour and achievement.

**Implications**

The implications of this research are three-fold. Firstly, teacher emotional behaviour that enables student engagement is identified.
Secondly, the understanding of the affect that teachers' emotional behaviours have on students can be used as a basis to develop formal evaluation of teachers' emotional skills in the secondary environment. Thirdly, understanding what students' desire from their teachers can potentially augment formal training aimed at enabling teachers to better engage emotionally with their students to enhance their learning. Whereas prior research has consistently found what students want from their teachers and their education experience, for example stronger relationships with their teachers, this study has actually delved further to describe specific and practical examples of what teachers are doing that builds positive or negative relationships.

Understanding teachers' emotional behaviours that alter students' emotions in the classroom, their stimulation and comfort in the environment, and their academic outcomes can lead to informing teachers of the strategies they can use to make sure these outcomes are positive. The inclusion of sharing students' experiences aims to serve the purpose of empowering teachers as more than just the teacher of their academic subject. The emotionally derived concepts highlighting specific positive impact hopefully will assist in gaining teachers buy-in to the notion that teaching is inclusive of an emotional component, and this enhances rather than distracts from learning.

**Emotion is central to learning.** Undervalued in the evaluation of emotion and its role in education in chapter two was the notion that emotion actually enhances memory. Students described the value they saw in teachers who taught beyond the curriculum and who shared a passion for presenting their topic in interesting ways as this solidified their learning. This is likely because emotion enhances memory for relevant information taught during a lesson by directing cognition to the source of the emotion (Baumeister et al., 2007). This explanation also clarifies why learning was distracted in classrooms where teachers were inconsistent with their emotion. Students were cued into this unregulated emotion rather than the lesson. Since emotionally charged events are remembered better (McGaugh, 2002) teachers need to be mindful about what part of their lesson is
emotionally charged, their negative emotional state or their emotion attached to the learning content.

In addition to purely identifying emotion as impacting outcomes as was predicted, students in this study also placed emphasis on the role of the overall environment impacting their emotions in class. A number of studies by Custers and Aarts (2005) revealed that positive affect enhanced an individual’s desire to want to fulfil a task, that prior to being paired with a positive and subliminal stimuli had been a neutral task. Additionally, “participants worked harder on tasks that were instrumental in attaining behavioral states when these states were implicitly linked to positive affect” (Custers & Aarts, 2005, p. 129). Relative to the school, students explained the atmosphere when they walked into the classroom as priming them for the type of lesson they were in for. Creating a warm atmosphere as students enter class, i.e., a quick chat about the weekend, can prime students to feel positive about learning in that environment. Custers and Aarts (2005) also found this effect to be independent of the participant’s conscious rating of their likability for the task. Likewise, students disclosed that even subjects they disliked or struggled in could be enjoyable, and they could have success in, with the right teacher taking it. Creating a positive ECC therefore benefits students holistically, as well as benefits teachers by creating students who are keen and ready to learn.

**Limitations and Recommendations**

This study utilised the self-report method to obtain students’ internal experiences and individual perceptions of their relationships and interactions with their teachers at secondary school. Students’ self-reported perceptions of the ECC succeeded in gaining an understanding of the emotional components underlying the teacher-student dyad, however the method of achieving this was by framing questions around the components discovered in Harvey, Evans and colleagues studies (Evans & Harvey, 2012; Harvey et al., 2012; Harvey & Evans, 2003); hence the similarity between the studies was not unexpected. Having gained specific reports minimises this concern as although being led to discuss these factors, students individually brought forth their own examples of where these components had or had
not affected them. There are some additional concerns that the data are based on retrospective memories; backing up these with observation data of the ECC would have been worthwhile had it been feasible. The reliability of the data is somewhat enhanced by students recalling recent emotional events which have shown to enhance the recall of specific details and therefore minimise their inaccuracy (Bohanek, Fivush, & Walker, 2005; Comblain, D’Argembeau, & Van der Linden, 2005).

A further recommendation would have been to obtain teachers’ voices had it been viable. The rich detail obtained from students satisfied the desire to gain practical examples of how teachers can cater for their students emotionally, yet was limited by the students’ inability to comment on the internal motives and purposes behind the teachers’ behaviour. As a result, this study provides examples of discrete behaviours of the teachers, both positive and negative, compared to in Harvey, Evans and colleagues studies that actually evaluated positive emotional skills that teachers possessed in order to reduce students’ emotional and behavioural difficulties (Evans & Harvey, 2012; Harvey et al., 2012; Harvey & Evans, 2003). It would be worthwhile to determine from the teachers’ point of view, what they are intentionally doing to create positive teacher-student relationships and positive ECCs, and how they feel their own behaviours and emotions are impacted or affected by students’ behaviour. Additionally, as mentioned above, teachers’ voice would likely validate the concept of emotional awareness and add to the literature on how managing emotion is done selectively as a strategy to develop emotionally intelligent students.

In regard to the student population, the students who provided the findings for this study are those who, despite being able to legally leave school at age 16 (“Education Act No. 80,” 1989), have stayed on to complete NCEA level three and gain University Entrance. Therefore the sample population comes from students who have already shown they are motivated to attain the highest level of education New Zealand secondary schools offer. The difference in achievement levels of the students does make the sample representative of a range of ability levels, however, does not access the opinions of vulnerable populations most at risk of dropping out or
failing, and therefore those most in need of a bond to the school and their educators. Conducting a similar study with at risk students would be insightful in regard to how teachers could develop their emotional skills with students to reduce the risk of them slipping through the education system. Additionally, although alluding to similarities between western and Māori educational perspectives and needs, specifically assessing the cultural validity of the model presented in the findings section is recommended to ensure this analysis works to minimise rather than exacerbate the education gap present in New Zealand.

Conclusion

The current study adds support to Hargreaves (1998) view that emotions are central to teaching. The ECC and the teachers' emotional behaviours that create a positive ECC have huge implications for students enjoying school, being engaged in school, and achieving at school. The content the teachers teach is as important as how they teach it, as without the relationship building a foundation for the classroom, learning is lost amongst the other needs students are looking to fulfil. This study has identified that students in secondary school value the relationships they have with their teachers, and students feel, behave and achieve better when these relationships are there. Better than this though, this study is the first that has provided evidence of the 'how'; how teachers can build these relationships, and how these relationships impact behaviour, motivation and achievement. Students are intuitive to what their teachers are doing, and what they need as learners, hence this study proved the worth of attaining student perspectives when looking to solve student related matters.
References


Callear, A. (2014). *Childrens Emotion Regulation Inventory (ChERI): Measure development, item domains and summary profiles*. (Doctor of Clinical Psychology), Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.


Comblain, C., D’Argembeau, A., & Van der Linden, M. (2005). Phenomenal characteristics of autobiographical memories for emotional and


competent children, competent learners study. Wellington, New Zealand.


Appendices

Appendix A – School information and consent

Who am I?
Kia ora, hello, my name is Rachel Malins and I am a student at Massey University in Albany. I am currently studying towards the degree of Master in Educational Psychology. In my five years since graduating from secondary school, I have been pursuing my passion of helping students achieve their own goals within New Zealand’s education system. I would like to please invite you and your school to participate in this research. I am interested in students’ perceptions of their teacher-student interactions and how this aspect of the classroom functions to alter their secondary school experience academically and emotionally. I believe that learning is a holistic process, hence to accommodate academic needs you have to also fulfil social, emotional and physical needs. Your help in this project would be much appreciated.

What would the school need to do?
This project involves students participating in one focus group (approximately 1.5 hour duration) with their peers to discuss their classroom experiences and how they interact with their teachers. Students are stakeholders in their own education; hence previous studies have really gained from hearing students’ perspectives and found them eager to share their experiences in school.

Teaching is emotional work. The objective of this study is to gain an understanding of the specific things that teachers do to support their students emotionally. Therefore, this study is focussed on gaining insight into the actual teacher behaviours that develop and foster appropriate teacher-student relationships and emotional development in secondary school.
**What we want to know...**

How do students understand their secondary school experience as being shaped by their teachers’ emotional interactions?

How have teachers built relationships with their students and how have these impacted the class environment?

How have teachers managed and/or coached their own and their students’ emotion in the classroom?

How have these previously mentioned interactions and environments altered students’ academic attitudes and output?

**Who can participate?**

We want to interview Year 13 students for this study. We are aiming for 10-12 students so we can create two focus groups. To reduce disruption, we will co-ordinate with you about the best time and place to hold these focus groups.

It would be useful for student participants to be students that you believe can articulate their school experiences. Other than students being Year 13, students can vary academically and demographically. This is so data can represent most seventh formers.

**What benefits does this offer to participants?**

- Research has show that students benefit by observing and discussing their schooling experiences
- A summary of results will be made available to interested teachers and students
- Findings can be presented to interested school staff and/or management teams

**What we want you to do**

We want you to invite participants to be involved in this study, supply them with an information package, and collect their consent. We will not approach students ourselves and no information will be expected to be supplied to us until written consent is given by the students.
What happens to the information?

- Discussions from the focus groups will be recorded and transcribed by the researcher
- The data contained in the transcription of the focus group will be kept confidential so that the data cannot be traced back to any specific participant, or your school
- All data will be securely stored by the researcher
- All data will be destroyed (erased or shredded) after data analysis is completed
- Findings from the data will be presented anonymously as a report, no identifying information will link the report to your students or your school
- If requested, a summary of findings will be emailed after completion of the study

Participants Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- withdraw from the study up to one month after the focus groups have been conducted;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your school name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.

Project Contacts

Rachel Malins  
(Researcher)  
rachel_malins@yahoo.co.nz

Jeanette Berman  
(Primary Supervisor)  
J.Berman@massey.ac.nz

Shane Harvey  
(Secondary Supervisor)  
S.T.Harvey@massey.ac.nz

Low Risk Notification

“This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University’s Human
Ethics Committees. The researcher(s) named above are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact Professor John O’Neill, Director, Research Ethics, telephone 06 350 5249, email humanethics@massey.ac.nz”.

Compensation for Injury

If physical injury results from your participation in this study, you should visit a treatment provider to make a claim to ACC as soon as possible. ACC cover and entitlements are not automatic and your claim will be assessed by ACC in accordance with the Accident Compensation Act 2001. If your claim is accepted, ACC must inform you of your entitlements, and must help you access those entitlements. Entitlements may include, but not be limited to, treatment costs, travel costs for rehabilitation, loss of earnings, and/or lump sum for permanent impairment. Compensation for mental trauma may also be included, but only if this is incurred as a result of physical injury.

If your ACC claim is not accepted you should immediately contact the researcher. The researcher will initiate processes to ensure you receive compensation equivalent to that to which you would have been entitled had ACC accepted your claim.
Students have their say: What can New Zealand secondary school students tell us about their emotional experiences in the classroom?

SCHOOL PRINCIPAL CONSENT FORM

I have read the information sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I agree for my school to take part in this study under the conditions set out in the information sheet.

By writing my email address, I ask to have a summary of the findings emailed to me after the study has been completed

I would like to have the findings presented to myself and my staff at the conclusion of the project  yes / no

Signature.................................................................................................................Date.............

Full Name Printed........................................................................................................
Appendix B – Participant information and consent

Institute of Education | Private Bag 102904 | North Shore | Auckland 0745

Students have their say: What can New Zealand secondary school students tell us about their emotional experiences in the classroom?

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Who am I?

Kia ora, hello, my name is Rachel Malins and I am a student at Massey University in Albany. I am currently studying towards the degree of Master in Educational Psychology. In my five years since graduating from secondary school, I have been pursuing my passion of helping students achieve their own goals within New Zealand’s education system. I would like to please invite you to participate in this research. I am interested in students’ perceptions of their teacher-student interactions and how this aspect of the classroom functions to alter their high school experience academically and emotionally. I believe that learning is a holistic process, hence to accommodate academic needs you have to also fulfil social, emotional and physical needs. Your help in this project would be much appreciated.

What would you need to do?

If you agree to participate, and are selected for the study, you will participate in one focus group (approximately 1.5 hour duration) with four to six other students. This focus group will run during school time, the time and place of this focus group will be decided by your school so that it causes the least disruption to your school work. The focus group discussion will be aimed at gaining insight into the actual teacher behaviours that develop and foster appropriate teacher-student relationships and emotional development in secondary school.

Why you have been chosen?

- You have been nominated by school personnel to be a part of this study
- School personnel believe you have the maturity to articulate your school experiences and would enjoy doing so
- If you consent to participate you will be selected to take part based on availability and space in the focus groups
If you are chosen to participate, your school will inform you of when and where the focus group will take place.

**What benefits does this offer to participants?**

- Research has shown that students benefit by observing and discussing their schooling experiences.
- Your discussions will help teachers gain an understanding of how best to accommodate your learning and development.
- You will have access to a summary of results.

**What happens to the information?**

- Discussions from the focus groups will be recorded and transcribed by the researcher.
- The data contained in the transcription of the focus group will be kept confidential so that the data cannot be traced back to any specific participant, or your school.
- All data will be securely stored by the researcher.
- All data will be destroyed (erased or shredded) after data analysis is completed.
- Findings from the data will be presented anonymously as a report, no identifying information will link the report to your students or your school.
- If requested, a summary of findings will be emailed after completion of the study.

**Participants Rights**

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- withdraw from the study up to one month after the focus groups have been conducted;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your school name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.
Project Contacts

Rachel Malins          rachel_malins@yahoo.co.nz
(Researcher)

Jeanette Berman       J.Berman@massey.ac.nz
(Primary Supervisor)

Shane Harvey          S.T.Harvey@massey.ac.nz
(Secondary Supervisor)

Low Risk Notification

“This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University’s Human Ethics Committees. The researcher(s) named above are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact Professor John O’Neill, Director, Research Ethics, telephone 06 350 5249, email humanethics@massey.ac.nz”.

Compensation for Injury

If physical injury results from your participation in this study, you should visit a treatment provider to make a claim to ACC as soon as possible. ACC cover and entitlements are not automatic and your claim will be assessed by ACC in accordance with the Accident Compensation Act 2001. If your claim is accepted, ACC must inform you of your entitlements, and must help you access those entitlements. Entitlements may include, but not be limited to, treatment costs, travel costs for rehabilitation, loss of earnings, and/or lump sum for permanent impairment. Compensation for mental trauma may also be included, but only if this is incurred as a result of physical injury.

If your ACC claim is not accepted you should immediately contact the researcher. The researcher will initiate processes to ensure you receive compensation equivalent to that to which you would have been entitled had ACC accepted your claim.
Students have their say: What can New Zealand secondary school students tell us about their emotional experiences in the classroom?

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

I have read the information sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I agree to the focus group being sound recorded.

I agree not to disclose anything discussed in the focus group.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the information sheet.

I acknowledge that I have discussed my participation in this study with my family/whānau

By writing my email address, I ask to have a summary of the findings emailed to me after the study has been completed

..................................................................................................................................................

Student Signature.............................................................................................................Date ..........
Full Name Printed..................................................................................................................
## Appendix C - Focus group schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Type</th>
<th>Script and Question in this study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opening</td>
<td>Thank you all for participating in this focus group regarding your classroom experiences as secondary school students, my name is Rachel Malins and I am a student at Massey University. The aim of today is to share your experiences as secondary school students, with specific mention of your interactions and relationships with your teachers. Mainly I am trying to find out how different teachers have or have not supported you emotionally and socially. This regards how they interact with you, and how this changes how you behave, achieve and feel in that classroom. Although you are in class to learn the subject content it is also important that you are happy in class, feel like you belong and are being given the support you need to succeed. Most importantly for me is to get your stories about interactions with different teachers across your time at secondary school to find out what works for you and what doesn’t. There are no wrong answers. I am interested in any advice you can give me. Please feel free to share your point of view. Keep in mind that I am just as interested in negative comments as positive comments as the comparison is very helpful to get an understanding of how different teachers help or hinder your school experience. Just some housekeeping before we begin, can I please ask that you: * Speak up. The reason is that I am tape recording and do not want to miss any of your comments. * Remember no names are attached to your comments. Your identity will remain confidential. * For any reason you may withdraw from this...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
study at any time.
  
- My role is to ask questions and listen. I want you to feel free to talk and I’ll be moving the discussion from one question to the next.

Let’s begin. I will run a quick sound check to see if the recording is working. Can you please go around the group and say your name and what your plans are for next year after graduating secondary school

Introduction

The questions I am asking are focused towards the topic of the emotional classroom climate, this refers to student-teacher interactions and how teachers educate you emotionally as well as academically. Can you tell me:
  
- When you think of a positive emotional classroom, what comes to mind?
- When you think of a negative emotional classroom, what comes to mind?

Transition

For the remainder of this focus group I want you to think back over your time at secondary school and compare the teachers that you liked or disliked, and those teachers that made you succeed or fail. We want to establish why different teachers get different results from students hence I need you to please provide examples of positive and negative experiences related to the questions.

Research Question 1: How are different classrooms experienced as a result of the teachers’ interaction style?

To begin, can you identify teachers where you enjoyed their class, where you did well, both academically, socially and emotionally, and also classes where you did not do so well in these areas. I want you to reflect on the characteristics and behaviours of those two types of teachers you encountered. Now tell me, what did the teachers do in the classes where you did well that made a difference for you? How did that compare to the teachers where it did not work for you?

Prompts...
  
- What was it about your teachers’ interaction style that made you think they did or did not
Research Question 2: How do students perceive their secondary school teachers as coaching them socially and emotionally?

You're at school to learn right? But this should not just mean academically. How did your teachers coach you socially and emotionally? Can you recount any learning experiences you had as a result of how your teachers interacted with you? Did they use emotion to explain situations and discuss social issues with you?

Prompts

• As you matured, did your teachers interact with you differently?
• How did they deal with personal issues?
• Did they share their feelings and personal stories with you?
• Did you ever feel like you were treated in an unfair way because of things going on in the teachers' personal life?
• How did teachers help you in times when you felt stressed and/or pressured?

Research Question 3: How do students perceive their teachers' emotional competencies and the emotional classroom they create as helping or hindering their learning experiences?

What was it about certain classes and teachers that made you do well? How did the teachers' emotional and social behaviours change your ability to learn the material? In what classes did you have the most success and why, equally in what classes did you have the least success and why?

Prompts:

• How did teachers deal with their own and the classes' emotions to ensure everyone was on task?
• Did the bond you had with your teachers change how hard you tried in their class?
Wrap up Question  Finally, I want you all to give me your recommendations. If I was to go back and train new teachers, what advice would you want me to give them so that they would all create these positive classroom environments?

Ending  So we have got through all the set questions,
       • Is there anything we have missed?
       • Is there anything that we should have talked about but did not?
       • How did you find that process?
### Appendix D – Tables

**Table 1**

*Phases of Thematic Analysis from Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 35)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Description of the process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 – Familiarise yourself with the data</td>
<td>Transcribing data, reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 – Generalise the initial codes</td>
<td>Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 – Search for themes</td>
<td>Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 – Review themes</td>
<td>Checking the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – Define and name themes</td>
<td>Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells; generating clear definitions and names for each theme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – Produce the report</td>
<td>The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2

*Comparison of the Concepts Covered within the Main Themes of the Emotional Classroom Climate Model by Harvey and Evans (2003) and the Current Study*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-student</td>
<td>Initiating greetings and conversations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Allowing the students to know them as an individual</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-class</td>
<td>Participating and displaying an interest in student activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student-student</td>
<td>Positive reinforcement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Directing positive comments to things the students were interested in</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Making time and being available to students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Using alternative communication</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Being open to class issues and concerns</td>
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<td>Personally connecting with students</td>
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<td>Sharing information</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Getting to know students</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Friendship</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relatable</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding, empathetic, supportive</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Humour</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poor communication</td>
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| Intrapersonal Beliefs   | Emotional philosophy  |
|                         | Emotional attitude  |
|                         | Emotional acceptance  |
|                         | Emotional self-acceptance  |
| Emotional student-acceptance | Enjoying their job  |
|                         | Believing in their profession and the impact it can have  |
|                         | Cultural competency  |
|                         | Seeing student as a whole  |
|                         | Reflect on their own practices to understand  |
|                         | Passion for teaching students |
|                         | Passion, enthusiasm, inspiring  |
|                         | See student as a whole  |
|                         | Teacher competence  |
|                         | See student as a job  |
## Interpersonal Guidelines

### Emotional standards
- Fairness
- Respect
- Availability
- Trust/belief in students
- Emotional boundaries

### Personal boundaries
- Expectations
- Limit setting
- Structure/routine

### Emotional self-awareness
- Emotional student awareness
- Emotional class awareness
  - Aware of antecedents to both their own and students' emotions

### Teacher emotion regulation
- Emotion self-coaching
- Emotion coaching of students (individual and/or class)
  - Masking or qualifying an emotion

### Emotion Management
- Teacher's notice student emotion
- Regulate emotion
- Accommodate emotion
- Coach emotion – discuss and induce emotion
- Emotion dismissing
- Communicate expectations
Appendix E – Figures

Figure 1. Number of participants that mentioned each of the teacher behaviour sub-concepts brought up during the focus groups.
Figure 2. Number of participants that mentioned each of the outcome sub-concepts brought up during the focus groups
Figure 3. Frequency of concepts based on the number of focus groups they were mentioned within.