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Positive school leadership for flourishing teachers

Leadership actions that enhance teacher wellbeing

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A thesis submitted in complete fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Educational Leadership, The University of Auckland, 2019.
Abstract

Flourishing teachers lie at the heart of successful education systems. When educational leaders ensure that teachers are flourishing – their wellbeing is high – this enables educational improvement, enhances student wellbeing and academic outcomes, and has the potential to grow the teaching profession. Yet teacher wellbeing is often neglected. In 2019, teachers in New Zealand participated in a ‘mega strike’ to raise awareness of teachers’ working conditions and concerns about teacher wellbeing. The research that explores this issue often takes a deficit approach - exploring teacher ill-being - investigating the causes of stress and burnout. There are few studies of how to enhance teacher wellbeing, particularly in the context of educational leadership (Cherkowski & Walker, 2016).

This research is one of the first studies of leadership influence on teacher wellbeing in New Zealand, and adds to a growing body of international research on improving teacher wellbeing. The research draws on ideas from positive psychology, which is concerned with understanding what enables people to flourish (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), and the role of ‘positive school leadership’ in enabling teachers to thrive (Murphy & Louis, 2018). This study explored the educational leadership practices that enhance teacher wellbeing in an urban secondary school in New Zealand. The exploratory mixed methods investigation surveyed 29 teachers, then used purposive sampling to select three ‘high wellbeing’ and three ‘low wellbeing’ teachers, who participated in semi-structured interviews and completed a wellbeing journal over five consecutive days. Using inductive thematic analysis, I identified both individual and organisational factors affecting teacher wellbeing. A comparative analysis of high wellbeing and low wellbeing teachers produced a profile of a ‘flourishing teacher’, and a set of key recommendations for school leaders. To enhance teacher wellbeing leaders should: 1) ensure teachers feel that their voice, work and effort are valued; 2) facilitate collaboration and professional development that is meaningful to teachers; and 3) enable teachers to have sufficient agency in school level changes. To enact these recommendations it is essential that leaders have sufficient social and emotional competence to enable relationship building and responsiveness to individuals and contexts.
Acknowledgements

At the beginning of my journey to write this thesis I was introduced to the world of positive psychology, which has been summed up by the phrase ‘other people matter’ - how true this has been for me as I have been supported, guided and encouraged by many on this journey, whom I would like to thank.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

Teachers are the most precious resource that we have in our education system, but too often we fail to treat them as ‘taonga’, but as a means to an end. For the education system to meet its goals, we need to take on the challenge of supporting teachers to be learners throughout their careers. We need to treat them with the same care and respect we hope schools will have for children: to take them seriously as learners to create contexts for their growth, and to ensure that everyone has the chance to participate fully in the educational system. If we cannot do this for teachers, how can we expect teachers to be able to do this for children? (M. Cameron, Berger, Lovett, & Baker, 2007, p. 15)

Teachers are a vital part of our education system; they are responsible for the success of our students, and for ensuring school improvement. Yet, the wellbeing of teachers - a critical element of teaching - is often neglected or ignored. Teacher wellbeing is currently in the public and political spotlight in New Zealand. Concerns have been raised by teachers and their unions about the impact of poor working conditions on teacher wellbeing and the teaching profession (Boyle, 2018), including the teacher shortage crisis (Post Primary Teachers’ Association, 2018a), and led to a nation-wide ‘mega strike’ of primary and secondary teachers in May 2019. This paints a poor picture of the general state of teacher wellbeing in New Zealand, and is similar to concerns raised around the globe, with the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) warning of teacher shortages due to an ageing workforce, increasing student numbers and “in-service teachers and school leaders leaving the profession prematurely, due to dissatisfaction, lack of recognition or burnout” (OECD, 2019, p. 47).

Through my own experiences as a secondary school teacher and a school leader, I have observed the impact of job-induced stress and poor wellbeing, as well as seeing teachers flourish in their roles. I have personally experienced these highs and lows. What has motivated me to investigate teacher wellbeing and school leadership strategies is the idea that teacher wellbeing is about valuing teachers, ensuring they can flourish, and therefore enabling high quality teaching that leads to success for students (Cherkowski & Walker, 2018; Murphy & Louis, 2018). Sabre Cherkowski and Keith Walker’s (2018) book Teacher Wellbeing: Noticing, Nurturing, Sustaining and Flourishing in Schools was influential in the

1 “Taonga is the Māori word for a treasured thing” (M. Cameron, Berger, Lovett, & Baker, 2007, p. 15).
beginning stages of my research project, and helped to cement my decision to explore the role of school leaders in enhancing teacher wellbeing. Like these scholars, I also “believe that school leaders are a primary instrument, or leveraging factor, in the flourishing of schools and in the assurance of wellbeing for teachers, staff, students, and school families” (Cherkowski & Walker, 2018, p. 129). My experiences as a teacher and my developing understanding of teacher wellbeing helped to shape the overarching research question for this study: How do educational leadership practices influence teacher wellbeing?

1.1 Background and Rationale

The literature about teacher wellbeing is dominated by a focus on stress, depression, burnout and other negative effects of teachers’ working conditions (Kyriacou, 1987; Travers & Cooper, 1993), including research with New Zealand teachers (Bianchi, Mayor, Schonfeld, & Laurent, 2016; Milfont, Denny, Ameratunga, Robinson, & Merry, 2008). However, over the last few years a number of academics have written about how to enhance teacher wellbeing, such as Sabre Cherkowski and Keith Walker in Canada, Karen Seashore Louis and Joseph Murphy in the United States, and Faye McCallum and Deborah Price in Australia (Cherkowski & Walker, 2018; McCallum & Price, 2016; Murphy & Louis, 2018). Worldwide there have been a few studies exploring leadership and teacher wellbeing, such as: school principals’ experiences of flourishing in schools (Cherkowski & Walker, 2016); improving teacher wellbeing through whole school interventions (Laine, Saaranen, Ryhänen, & Tossavainen, 2017); quality management and teacher health (Lagrosen & Lagrosen, 2012); leadership practices and teacher wellbeing (Konu, Viitanen, & Lintonen, 2010); and, leadership style and teacher subjective wellbeing (Heidmets & Liik, 2014). However, studies with a focus on the role of educational leaders in enhancing teacher wellbeing are still rare, and more commonly the literature about educational leadership focuses on improving outcomes for students, with teachers being seen as a tool for this improvement (Murphy & Louis, 2018). Some studies have explored teacher wellbeing as a precursor to being able to improve student wellbeing, but not as the main focus of the study (Quinlan, 2017; Slemp et al., 2017). Despite the global and local importance of improving teacher wellbeing, there continues to be relatively few studies on how to achieve this, and more research is needed, particularly in New Zealand.
1.2 Significance of This Research

My research addresses a significant gap in the literature about New Zealand teachers’ wellbeing, and the need for better research into how leaders can enhance teacher wellbeing. Poor teacher wellbeing has led to teachers leaving the profession in New Zealand (Post Primary Teachers’ Association, 2018a) and globally (OECD, 2019), and has prompted the call for teacher wellbeing to be taken more seriously for the sustainability of the profession (McCallum & Price, 2016). Exploring school leaders’ roles in enhancing teacher wellbeing is especially important as there are a lack of studies into teacher wellbeing that consider the role of school leadership (Cherkowski & Walker, 2016; Long et al., 2012). The framework of ‘positive school leadership’ provides some insight into how leaders can enhance teacher wellbeing, but as this is a newly emerging field it is also in need of further research (Cherkowski & Bradley-Levine, 2018), particularly as one of the main texts on positive school leadership relied heavily on research conducted in non-school settings (Murphy & Louis, 2018). Therefore, my research adds to the much-needed empirical data about the role of school leaders in enhancing teacher wellbeing, and is timely due to the current need to improve teacher wellbeing in New Zealand.

1.3 Research Aims and Question

The overarching research question is: How do educational leadership practices influence teacher wellbeing? The main research question is further broken down into the following sub-questions:

- What are the differences in teacher wellbeing levels within one secondary school?
- To what extent do leadership practices explain differences in teacher wellbeing levels?
- How do leadership practices enhance or diminish teacher wellbeing?
- How do teachers maintain and enhance their wellbeing independently of leadership practices?

1.4 Overview of Thesis

Chapter two of this thesis provides an overview of my own worldview, the theoretical frameworks used in this thesis, and my reasons for choosing them. This provides a broad view of the relevant literature, explains the rationale for the selection of literature in the
next chapter, and introduces some of the key terminology used throughout this thesis.

**Chapter three** examines the literature on teacher wellbeing from around the world, ranging from studies of stress and burnout, through to how teachers flourish. I outline what the literature suggests are the major factors that impact teacher wellbeing and then focus on the New Zealand research related to wellbeing, identifying a significant gap in the literature.

**Chapter four** describes the methodological approach, research design, data collection methods and analysis, including integration and triangulation. The validity, reliability and ethical considerations are also discussed. **Chapter five** presents the findings from the study, firstly summarising the quantitative results, then presenting the qualitative results (integrating both interview and journal data) organised by the themes that were identified during data analysis. **Chapter six** discusses the results, integrating the quantitative and qualitative data, and interpreting the findings in terms of leadership actions that enhance teacher wellbeing. Finally, **chapter seven** evaluates the strengths and limitations of this study, and the implications for leadership practice, further research, and educational policy.
Chapter 2 Worldviews and Theoretical Frameworks

Poets say science takes away from the beauty of the stars - mere globs of gas atoms. Nothing is ‘mere’. I too can see the stars on a desert night, and feel them. But do I see less or more?... It does not do harm to the mystery to know a little about it. (Feynman, 1995, pp. 59–60)

The lens through which we view the world affects the way in which we interpret it. Science and story-telling can combine to provide a rich description of a phenomenon. I start this chapter by examining my own beliefs and how my worldviews have shaped my research, including my science background and my decision to explore teachers’ narratives of their wellbeing. Then I outline different perspectives of wellbeing, including the lens through which I view wellbeing in this research: positive psychology, which has a focus on understanding how people flourish, a key aim of this research. Furthermore, I review theoretical frameworks of educational leadership, offering a critique in terms of their limitations in addressing teacher wellbeing. The application of positive psychology within organisations is briefly reviewed, and I consider the combination of positive psychology and educational leadership into a newly emerging field of positive educational leadership. With its focus on ensuring all members of a school thrive, positive school leadership is a useful lens though which to examine my research question: How do educational leadership practices influence teacher wellbeing?

2.1 Philosophical Worldviews

A researcher’s philosophical worldview shapes their actions and influences their research practice (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The concept of reflexivity suggests that no researcher can guarantee objectivity, and that “the product of research inevitably reflects some of the background, milieu and predilections of the researcher” (Gibbs, 2007, p. 91). As such, throughout this study I have needed to reflect on my own worldview and identify how it has shaped my research.

I am concerned with the problem of low levels of teacher wellbeing, and how leadership practice can improve wellbeing. My focus is on understanding this problem and how real-world practices may address it, which aligns to the pragmatist paradigm (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Morgan, 2007). Pragmatic approaches focus on the research problem, use multiple methods to develop knowledge about the problem under study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) and are “oriented toward ‘what works’ and real-world practice” (Creswell &
Plano Clark, 2018, p. 37). The pragmatic approach is not limited to only one philosophy, and can draw on different worldviews (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), having “no problem with asserting both that there is a single ‘real world’ and that all individuals have their own unique interpretations of that world” (Morgan, 2007, p. 72). The choice of mixed methods is typical of the pragmatist worldview, where multiple approaches are used to understand a problem and focus on practices that address the problem.

Prior to becoming a secondary school science teacher, I was an engineer. My scientific background aligns with the postpositivist paradigm and its associated epistemology that knowledge is objective. Postpositivist assumptions “hold true more for quantitative research than qualitative research” (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 6) which, in part, explains my decision to use a quantitative instrument to measure participants wellbeing in the first phase of the research: I wished to have a measure by which to identify ‘high wellbeing’ and ‘low wellbeing’ teachers. However, during my experiences in educational leadership over the last 10 years I have also learnt that individuals’ beliefs and their interpretation of the world have a strong influence over their actions and reactions, and a leader must seek to understand others’ points of view. Therefore, I recognise that the postpositive paradigm alone is not sufficient to reflect the complexity of human experience required to understand how to address teacher wellbeing.

I believe that individuals make meaning of the world around them based on their own background, culture, social interactions and their particular context. This aligns with the constructivist paradigm, that suggests everything we experience is through the medium of our own constructs and ideas (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Gibbs, 2007), and its associated epistemology that reality is constructed by individuals (Morgan, 2007). Constructivist researchers recognise that individual’s subjective understandings of their world lead to varied and multiple meanings, and thus, researchers look for the complexity of participants views within their research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The constructivist view has the strongest influence on my research, and is evident in the weighting towards qualitative research and a case study approach which aims to understand and narrate the complexity of participants constructs of their wellbeing and factors affecting it. Overall, the use of postpositivism in the quantitative phase, shifting to constructivism in the qualitative phase is encouraged for explanatory sequential designs due to the combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).
2.2 Wellbeing Frameworks

The use of the terms wellbeing, wellness and health are plentiful in everyday conversation and popular media. Wellbeing is also a commonly used term in academic literature, yet in 2019 there is still no one definition of wellbeing that is agreed upon, or even one spelling, with ‘well-being’, ‘well being’ and ‘wellbeing’ all used frequently. This section of the literature review presents a range of definitions and outlines the wellbeing framework that will be used in my research.

Health is not a simple continuum from disease to wellness – descriptions of health and wellbeing refer to numerous dimensions. The World Health Organisation (WHO) has included a broad, multidimensional, reference to wellbeing as part of its definition of health since the 1940s: “Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity” (WHO, 1948, p. 100). A Māori model of wellbeing, te whare tapa whā, is used in New Zealand schools as it is an underlying concept of the health and physical education section in the New Zealand curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007). Te whare tapa whā compares wellbeing, or hauora, to the four walls of a house, where all are necessary for the strength of the house, and each represents “a different dimension: taha wairua (the spiritual side), taha hinengaro (thoughts and feelings), taha tinana (the physical side), taha whānau (family)” (Durie, 1998, p. 69). Another popular model of wellbeing used in organisations around New Zealand is the ‘five ways to wellbeing’: give, be active, keep learning, take notice, and connect (Mental Health Foundation of New Zealand, 2015). Common themes in these descriptions are that wellbeing is more than the absence of negative emotion or poor health, but encompasses what it means to live a ‘good life’.

2.2.1 Development of hedonic and eudaimonic views of wellbeing. For many centuries there have been two distinct perspectives that have been applied when considering wellbeing: hedonic and eudaimonic. Scholars with a hedonic view of wellbeing are mainly concerned with a person experiencing positive emotions, while others with a eudaimonic view are more concerned with positive functioning. Some scholars use varying combinations of the two perspectives (Huppert, 2017).

As early as the fourth century BC the Greek philosopher Aristippus espoused a hedonic view, teaching that the goal of life is to maximise experiences of pleasure (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Hedonism is very much centred on the self, and has been expressed in a range of ways from a narrow focus on bodily pleasures to a broader focus on goal attainment (Ryan &
Research that aligns with the hedonic view often uses subjective wellbeing (SWB) as a measure, which is comprised of three components: life satisfaction, high levels of positive emotions, and low levels of negative emotions (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Some critics of the hedonic view argue that in the pursuit of pleasure people soon adapt to the newfound level of happiness and return to a more neutral level of wellbeing, thus ending up living on an “hedonic treadmill” (Peterson, 2006, p. 54). In contrast to the hedonic view, other Greek philosophers such as Socrates, Aristotle, and Plato believed that if people pursued a virtuous life, they would achieve authentic happiness (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). Aristotle considered that the hedonic pursuit of happiness was vulgar and made people slaves to their desires (Ryan & Deci, 2001). The eudaimonic view is that not all human desires, when achieved, will lead to wellbeing, and instead wellbeing occurs when people live in accordance with their true self (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Jarden, Jarden, and Oades (2017) provide a simple summary of these concepts in relation to wellbeing: the “hedonic approach encapsulates ‘feeling good’ and the eudaimonic approach encapsulates ‘functioning well’; so wellbeing is ‘feeling good and functioning well’” (p. 207). Through my own experiences of teaching I know that eudaimonic concepts such as purpose in life are often a motivation for those in the teaching profession, yet hedonic concepts such as happiness and life satisfaction can also sustain teachers on a day to day basis. Therefore, in my research I draw on both the hedonic and eudaimonic views.

2.2.2 A scientific approach to wellbeing. One of my concerns was how to quantify wellbeing in a way that would allow me to identify and select ‘high wellbeing’ teachers to discover what factors contributed to their flourishing. Using a pragmatic worldview, I wanted to choose the approach most suitable to explore the issue of teacher wellbeing, in particular the research question: What are the differences in teacher wellbeing levels within one secondary school? Influenced by my scientific background, I chose the science of positive psychology as a lens through which to explore this question.

2.3 Positive Psychology

Positive psychology is not simply ‘positive thinking’, or researching what makes people feel positive emotions (although that is one aspect of a much bigger picture). Peterson (2006) makes a point of explaining that positive psychology “is a broader field than hedonism or happiology” (p. 48). The core of positive psychology is the desire to find out what makes people flourish, where flourishing can be defined as “feeling good and functioning
effectively” (Huppert & So, 2013, p. 838). Positive psychology comprises a well-established body of knowledge, including theories, research and practices, which provide the lens through which I research teacher wellbeing in this thesis.

2.3.1 The history of positive psychology. One of the first mentions of positive psychology was by Maslow (1954) in a chapter entitled “Towards a Positive Psychology” (p. 353) in which he bemoaned the state of psychology at the time for its pessimistic outlook and limited aspiration for human achievement. His evaluation was that:

the science of psychology has been far more successful on the negative than on the positive side; it has revealed to us much about man’s shortcomings, his illnesses, his sins, but little about his potentialities, his virtues, his achievable aspirations, or his full psychological height. (p. 354)

Maslow (1954) went on to recommend how to overcome the limitations in this outlook by studying only psychologically healthy people, developing the vocabulary of psychology to include more positive terms, and the adoption of new concepts such as growth, acceptance, autonomy and self-actualisation as central to psychology. My research follows this recommendation by studying flourishing teachers.

2.3.2 Modern positive psychology. A resurgence of interest in positive psychology occurred almost 20 years ago when Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) published an influential paper outlining a vision in which psychology “will come to understand and build the factors that allow individuals, communities and societies to flourish” (p. 5). They discuss the post-World War Two era in which a disease model of psychology was prevalent, where psychologists made a living from treating mental illnesses, and researchers were given grants for studying psychopathology. However, the need to treat mental illnesses is not overlooked in positive psychology, which has been shown to both promote flourishing, and to relieve poor mental health (Sin & Lyubomirsky, 2009). Key areas of research in positive psychology include flourishing (Seligman, 2011), character strengths (White & Waters, 2015), meaning (Steger, Dik, & Duffy, 2012) and leadership (K. S. Cameron, 2008). These aspects are explored in the factors affecting teacher wellbeing in my study.

2.3.3 Positive psychology 2.0. Almost a decade after Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi’s (2000) foundational paper, Wong (2011) proposed a new view of the science that he named positive psychology 2.0 (PP 2.0). He advocated a shift away from the “artificial dichotomous thinking of positive versus negative psychology” (Wong, 2011, p.
70), by highlighting the symbiotic relationship between positive and negative, demonstrated by such phenomenon as post-traumatic growth. A positive trait such as self-confidence can lead to a positive outcome such as success, or negative outcome such as arrogance. A negative trait such as self-doubt could lead to a positive outcome such as trust in others or a negative outcome such as anxiety. Wong (2011) proposed a dual-system model “to conceptualise how the positives and negatives interact with each other to achieve the good life” (p. 77). More recently research has validated the idea of a ‘dual continua’ in which mental illness and mental health are viewed separately, and a small percentage of people flourish despite having a mental illness (Keyes, 2002; Peter, Roberts, & Dengate, 2011). I also use the idea of a dual continua in this research to represent teacher wellbeing.

2.3.4 Individual and group wellbeing. Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) emphasise that positive psychology can be applied to both individuals and groups:

At the individual level, it is about positive individual traits: the capacity for love and vocation, courage, interpersonal skill, aesthetic sensibility, perseverance, forgiveness, originality, future mindedness, spirituality, high talent, and wisdom. At the group level, it is about the civic virtues and the institutions that move individuals toward better citizenship: responsibility, nurturance, altruism, civility, moderation, tolerance, and work ethic. (p. 5)

Individual and group wellbeing is often related, with positive psychology research showing that “committing acts of kindness and enhancing social connections enables individual and societal flourishing, demonstrating the usefulness of the discipline for individual, group and community wellbeing” (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011, p. 3). In the case of schools, ensuring teacher wellbeing is closely linked to student wellbeing and building a positive school climate (Roffey, 2012; White & Murray, 2015a).

Cultural perspectives also influence the degree to which wellbeing is situated with the individual or within a group. For example, Māori perspectives of health and wellbeing depends on connectedness to others (Durie, 1998), and Eastern cultures view harmony with others as central to happiness (Snyder & Lopez, 2007). These cultural concepts tend to be more collectivist than Western, often individualistic, understandings of wellbeing.

2.3.5 Measuring wellbeing. Three of the main theories of wellbeing from positive psychology, and the dimensions they use to describe and measure wellbeing, are shown in Table 1.
Table 1. *Theories of Wellbeing and Their Dimensions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of model</th>
<th>Dimensions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ryff’s six dimensions</td>
<td>autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations, purpose in life, self-acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seligman’s PERMA model</td>
<td>positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, accomplishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huppert &amp; So’s 10 features of flourishing</td>
<td>competence, emotional stability, engagement, meaning, optimism, positive emotion, positive relationships, resilience, self-esteem, vitality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Adapted from Huppert (2017)

Teachers will often talk about their desire to make a difference in the lives of their students; therefore, it is relevant to consider meaning when measuring teacher wellbeing. Positive relationships are also important when exploring teacher wellbeing. Trusting relationships are often cited in educational leadership literature as central to effective leadership (Fullan, 2001; Robinson, 2011) and teacher-student relationships have a large effect on student outcomes (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). The PERMA model (Seligman, 2011) includes dimensions of both meaning and positive relationships, and also has a sound research base, including the publication of an existing instrument that can be used to survey teachers to measure their wellbeing (Butler & Kern, 2016). For these reasons, and to examine the research question: *What are the differences in teacher wellbeing levels within one secondary school?*, I chose the PERMA model to measure the wellbeing of teachers in my study.

2.4 Educational Leadership – Theoretical Frameworks

In order to explore the overarching research question: *How do educational leadership practices influence teacher wellbeing?*, I present a number of theoretical frameworks of educational leadership. The relevance of these frameworks to the leadership of teacher wellbeing is critiqued, whilst also considering that the impact on student outcomes must be maintained.

2.4.1 Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is one of the most common theories used in both business and education. The foundational work on transformational leadership by Burns (1978) asserted that transformational leadership “occurs
when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (p. 20). The specific moral purpose of schools is to ensure the educational success of their students, and is critical to the long term success of schools (Fullan, 2001). Transformational leadership has been shown to positively influence teachers wellbeing by increasing job satisfaction (Konu et al., 2010), and reducing teacher burnout and job insecurity (Heidmets & Liik, 2014).

There are conflicting views of how transformational leadership impacts student outcomes. Leithwood and Beatty (2008) propose an education-specific model of transformational leadership and highlight that its practices are evident in a meta-analysis of leadership practices influencing student learning (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). However, another meta-analysis showed that instructional leadership had three to four times the impact on student outcomes than transformational leadership (Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008). Transformational leadership, which originated in the business arena, may miss the complexity of the leader-teacher-student dynamic present in schools.

2.4.2 Instructional leadership and student-centred leadership. Instructional leadership is a theory specific to schools, and is very broadly defined as school leadership that emphasises the improvement of student learning outcomes at its core (Bush, 2010; Marzano et al., 2005; Robinson, 2011). One of the most well-known descriptions of instructional leaders is that they perform four roles: “resource provider, instructional resource, communicator, and visible presence” (Marzano et al., 2005, p. 18).

Instructional leadership is also evident within Robinson’s (2011) student centred leadership model, which is popular within New Zealand. The five dimensions of the model are: establishing goals and expectations, resourcing strategically, ensuring quality teaching, leading teacher learning and development, and ensuring a safe and orderly environment. Robinson (2011) claims that the model is based on “new research evidence about the types of leadership practice that make the biggest difference to the learning and well-being of the students for whom they are responsible” (p. 2). However, the evidence presented in the original meta-analysis (Robinson et al., 2008), on which the model is based, does not include any measures of student wellbeing, and at best, Robinson’s model infers student wellbeing from satisfactory academic performance and attendance. Instructional leadership is also described as being concerned with the direction of leadership influence, from leader to students, through teachers (Bush, 2010), and is not as concerned with the leader-teacher
relationship as transformational leadership. Although aspects of instructional leadership such as development of teachers’ skills may well positively influence teachers’ wellbeing, the lack of a focus on wellbeing, and the leader-teacher relationship, means that instructional leadership may not necessarily be the best model through which to explore leadership practices that enhance teacher wellbeing.

2.4.3 Distributed and sustainable leadership. The central idea of distributed leadership is that it moves away from the principal being solely responsible for school improvement, to sharing the responsibility for school improvement throughout the school. This means that leaders can be defined as the people in an organisation that influence others, through formal authority, personal qualities (such as ethics or caring), and/or relevant expertise (Robinson, 2011). Therefore, leadership may be demonstrated by anyone who influences other people’s actions, thinking and emotions (Murphy & Louis, 2018). Distributed leadership is one of the seven principles of Hargreaves and Fink’s (2006) sustainable leadership model, which considers the sustainability of change for educational improvement efforts. Another dimension, resourcefulness, is closely linked to the wellbeing of school staff through ensuring it “develops and does not deplete material and human resources” and “it renews people’s energy. It does not drain its leaders dry through innovation overload or unrealistic time lines for change” (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006, p. 20). However, Louis and Murphy (2018) argue that even emotionally intelligent school leaders have limited experience in creating school cultures that reinforce, rather than sap, the energy and commitment of teachers.

2.4.4 Adapting to context. Theories about different types of leadership are often referred to as leadership styles and are defined broadly by a range of characteristics and behaviours that leaders exhibit, yet leaders rarely fit into just one leadership style. Successful educational leaders integrate different leadership styles (Leithwood & Beatty, 2008), and this has been shown to improve student achievement (Robinson et al., 2008). Often different leadership styles are used depending on the context, and indeed this is necessary during different stages of school improvement (Hallinger, 2005). This adaptability to context is explained in the book The New Leaders (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002) which outlines a number of different leadership styles and the context in which they are appropriate, which depends on both the organisational situation and the people involved. To successfully adapt to different contexts leaders must have sufficient levels of emotional intelligence (EQ), which includes skills in domains such as social awareness and relationship management (Goleman
et al., 2002). As EQ emphasises skills such as understanding oneself and others, and building positive relationships (Goleman et al., 2002), it is likely that if school leaders have a high EQ they will positively influence teacher wellbeing.

2.4.5 Educational leadership for teacher wellbeing. None of the dominant educational leadership models adequately address teacher wellbeing and student outcomes. Transformational leadership has been criticised for having too much focus on leader-teacher relationships and a lack of impact on students. Instructional leadership has been shown to focus on students at the expense of teachers, and student-centred leadership does not focus on the wellbeing of either students or teachers. Sustainable leadership (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006) and the application of emotional intelligence to adaptable leadership (Goleman et al., 2002) both indicate more of a concern for the wellbeing of the people within organisations. The issue of employee wellbeing is more fully addressed by the application of positive psychology within organisations.

2.5 Positive Psychology in Organisations and Leadership

Positive psychology has been applied to organisations and led to a number of areas of development, including Positive Organisational Scholarship, which focuses on macro level processes in organisations, and Positive Organisational Behaviour, that focuses on improving individuals experiences at work (Williams, Kern, & Waters, 2016). Interventions aimed at influencing individual employees values, beliefs, emotions and behaviours include coaching, mentoring and job shadowing (Williams et al., 2016). Other interventions are intended to change the organisational climate, such as gratitude boards, workshops, and communications from management (Williams et al., 2016). It is important for leaders to consider both individual and organisational factors when aiming to develop employee wellbeing.

2.5.1 Positive education. Positive education is a relatively new movement which draws on the larger research base of positive psychology applied to organisations and businesses, and uses positive psychology interventions to improve student wellbeing in schools (White & Murray, 2015a). There are convincing arguments to prioritise positive education in schools in order to enhance students’ wellbeing as a preventative measure against the alarming worldwide statistics about mental health. The World Health Organisation predicts that in wealthy nations, depression will have the largest disease burden by 2030 (Slemp et al., 2017). Positive education is not a replacement of existing educational aims, but an enhancement of student outcomes, concerned with the education of the student
as a whole, moving beyond the academic to also include an education that develops students’ wellbeing (White & Murray, 2015a). However, there has been some critique of positive education for focusing solely on the individual student, when a whole school approach which considers the school environment and community would be more aligned to organisational theories to improve the wellbeing of all people in an organisation (Kern, Adler, Waters, & White, 2015). There are also calls for a move towards ‘Positive Education 2.0’, a major pillar of which is educational leadership, and the aim of which is educating all to flourish (White & Buchanan, 2017).

2.5.2 Positive leadership. Positive leadership is an emerging concept that has roots in positive psychology (K. S. Cameron, 2008). Positive leadership is defined as “promoting outcomes such as thriving at work, interpersonal flourishing, virtuous behaviors, positive emotions, and energizing networks” (K. S. Cameron, 2008, p. 4). Positive leadership uses common themes from positive psychology, such as positive relationships, positive emotions, meaning, and promoting flourishing.

Positive leadership practices have been correlated to employees positive affect, but not to negative affect, thus increasing the positive to negative affect ratio (Kelloway, Weigand, McKee, & Das, 2013). This links to the research on flourishing companies that show they have a ratio of positive to negative statements of around 3:1 or more, the ‘Losada ratio’ (Seligman, 2011). Compared to transformational leadership, leaders may find the positive leadership practices easier to perform on a daily basis, namely: thanking employees, praising them for their job performance, cheering them up, helping employees and complimenting them, whereas transformational leadership qualities such as ‘being inspirational’ are more abstract and difficult to translate into everyday actions (Kelloway et al., 2013). Positive leadership is therefore more practical to implement, and is more directly concerned with staff wellbeing than any of the other models outlined in section 2.4.

2.5.3 Positive school leadership. Murphy and Louis (2018) have proposed a model of ‘positive school leadership’, one of the few examples of literature about applying positive leadership in schools. Leaders within schools are in a position to notice and nurture wellbeing, with the potential to develop cultures that grow wellbeing for all members of the school community (Cherkowski, 2018). Positive leadership in schools focuses on the leader-teacher relationship and has been shown to improve teacher effectiveness, reduce stress, lead to healthier classroom climates (Murphy & Louis, 2018), and increase student and teacher
learning (Louis & Murphy, 2018). As positive leadership is intended to “create positive environments in which human beings can thrive” (Murphy & Louis, 2018, p. 1), and is a moral endeavour to create a better society (Cherkowski, 2018), it fits well with the moral purpose of education “to make a difference in the lives of students” (Fullan, 2001, p. 13). In the course of reviewing the implementation of programmes designed to improve student wellbeing, Slemp et al. (2017) note that the schools experiencing the most success take a whole school approach that includes improving the wellbeing of staff. Therefore, positive school leadership, which has more of a focus on teacher wellbeing than any other educational leadership model, also enhances outcomes for students.

2.6 Conclusion

My worldviews and pragmatic approach to answering my research questions have influenced both the theoretical frameworks I have chosen and my methodological approach. I chose positive psychology as a lens through which to view this research due to my scientific background and its applicability for answering the research questions given its focus on understanding how people flourish. Popular educational leadership theories, such as transformational leadership and instructional leadership, have been critiqued in terms of their limitations in addressing teacher wellbeing, and instead the emerging field of positive school leadership is the lens through which I view this research. Positive school leadership is focused on enabling all members of a school to flourish – teachers flourish, which also improves students’ wellbeing and academic outcomes. It is vitally important to improve teacher wellbeing as it has been one of the main contributing factors to current teacher shortages in New Zealand (and globally). In order for leaders to understand how positive school leadership can enhance teacher wellbeing the factors that influence teacher wellbeing need to be examined.
Chapter 3 Literature Review

What is the current state of teacher wellbeing? How does teacher wellbeing impact schools and students? What factors influence teacher wellbeing? Considerable scholarly, public and political discussion about teachers’ working conditions has often answered these questions in terms of what is wrong with teacher wellbeing, for example, stress, burnout and depression. However, few studies explore how to enable teachers to flourish, and even less ask how educational leaders can enhance teacher wellbeing (Cherkowski & Walker, 2018). In order to explore how teachers flourish, I have analysed the factors influencing teacher wellbeing through a positive psychology lens. I have gathered together and critically examined a range of literature that explores elements of wellbeing, teacher working conditions, and educational leadership. This includes: a critique of whether addressing workload issues is as simple as reducing workload; the importance of supporting early career teachers - a time when they are particularly vulnerable to attrition; how building and maintaining positive relationships, particularly when addressing concerns or disagreements, is central to effective leadership and teacher wellbeing; and, the role of teacher learning in enhancing self-efficacy and professional identity. Other elements affecting wellbeing are closely related to teachers’ individual experiences, such as: leadership influence on teachers’ emotions, that in turn affect student learning; and, the meaning that teachers find in their work, which can be enhanced by enabling teacher voice. Teachers’ personal characteristics are also important, such as their: resilience; responses to stress and coping strategies; and, social and emotional competence. I briefly critique the political and social influences on teacher wellbeing, before exploring positive education and teacher wellbeing research in New Zealand. The paucity of New Zealand based research into teacher wellbeing, and the lack of studies globally on how leaders can enhance teacher wellbeing, provides a compelling argument for the significance of my research.

3.1 Teacher Stress and Burnout

Teacher stress and burnout are topics that have become more prevalent in the research literature over the last few decades. Teacher stress is defined by Kyriacou (2001):

as the experience by a teacher of unpleasant, negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration or depression, resulting from some aspect of their work as a teacher... a negative emotional experience being triggered by the teacher’s...
perception that their work situation constituted a threat to their self-esteem or wellbeing (p. 28).

Prolonged periods of stress can leave teachers unable to function effectively in their jobs, and feeling emotionally and physically exhausted, a condition referred to as burnout (Kyriacou, 1987; Leithwood, 2006).

For decades teaching has often been identified as the highest stress profession when compared to other professions, and this holds true around the world (Kyriacou, 1987). A widely cited study of 1790 teachers in the United Kingdom found that the symptoms of stress in teachers were far higher than the average for the population, or for similar occupations (Travers & Cooper, 1993). Similar higher than average levels of stress were found in a study of 129 teachers across three secondary schools in New Zealand (Milfont et al., 2008).

The effects of stress and burnout on teachers is not only of concern to the individual teachers, but also the consequences for schools and students. When teachers suffer from poor mental health, burnout or depression, this has been linked to poor performance, absenteeism and attrition (Bianchi et al., 2016; Travers & Cooper, 1993). Teachers leaving the profession are one of the contributing factors to the current teacher supply crisis in New Zealand (Post Primary Teachers’ Association, 2016). Schools are using strategies to compensate for a shortfall in teacher numbers such as increasing class sizes and using teachers to teach outside their specialist area, which can lead to “increasing workload and stress, reduced job satisfaction, increasing disenchantment with teaching as a career” (Post Primary Teachers’ Association, 2016, p. 16), all of which are linked to a further decline in teacher retention. Stressed or burnt-out teachers also negatively affect students, due to diminished relationships with students, a lack of empathy, poorer preparation for lessons, and low quality teaching (Kyriacou, 1987; Leithwood, 2006). Reducing stress and improving teacher wellbeing is one of the ways in which both teacher retention and the quality of teaching can be improved.

3.2 Shifting the Focus - Positive Psychology

When considering teacher wellbeing, it is common for the focus to be at the negative end of the wellbeing spectrum. The widely proven concept of ‘bad is stronger than good’ may explain why topics such as stress and burnout dominate the research on teachers’ wellbeing, as ‘bad’ events (e.g. losing money, or receiving criticism) have a stronger effect on people than ‘good’ events (e.g. winning money, or receiving praise), and people are twice as likely to remember bad events than good events (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs,
Perhaps this is why flourishing organisations have a 3:1 ratio of positive to negative statements, also described as the Losada ratio (Seligman, 2011). This highlights how changing the focus from ‘bad’ to ‘good’ can create flourishing.

There have been many calls to focus on how to improve teacher wellbeing and facilitate flourishing in schools. Instead of focusing on why teachers are leaving the profession, Day (2008) challenges researchers to explore “the factors that have enabled the majority of teachers to sustain their motivation, commitment and, therefore, effectiveness in the profession” (p. 256). Cherokowski and Walker (2016) also recommend “growing the research on how ... [positive psychology interventions] may be useful for fostering and supporting well-being and resilience among those who teach, lead and learn in schools” (p. 388). Instead of looking at what went wrong and why, positive psychology looks at what is going right and why, and is the lens through which I explore how teachers flourish.

### 3.3 Factors Contributing to Teacher Wellbeing

When people demonstrate high levels of wellbeing, they are considered to be flourishing (Seligman, 2011). As Cherkowski (2018) argues, teachers flourish in schools:

when their students do; when they feel a sense of belonging to a team of colleagues working toward a common purpose; when they feel a sense of joy, play, laughter, and fun at work; when they are encouraged and supported to take risks in their teaching; and when they see they are making a difference in the lives of their students, school, and community. (p. 64)

Most studies of the factors that enable people to flourish are context free. There is also a lack of studies of flourishing in the workplace, and very few studies of flourishing in the context of school leadership (Cherkowski & Walker, 2016). However, while flourishing does not often feature in educational leadership research, there are a number of studies that give an insight into how to enhance (or at least to avoid diminishing) specific factors related to teacher wellbeing. For example, positive relationships are an important dimension of wellbeing (Seligman, 2011), and educational leadership research often examines how to build trusting relationships (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Robinson, 2011). Research from contexts outside of education also gives an insight into what factors could affect teacher wellbeing, for example, meaningful work is related to wellbeing (Steger et al., 2012). Understanding these factors, and how they link to teacher wellbeing and leadership practice, are a critical component of this study and need to be unpacked further.
3.3.1 **Workload.** Teacher workload is often cited as a main cause of stress (Kyriacou, 1987, 2001), due to the volume and complexity of the workload (Leithwood, 2006), perceived fairness of the workload (Ashton, 2018; Leithwood, 2006), increased workload due to taking on management responsibilities (M. Cameron et al., 2007), and challenges due to work-life balance (Day, 2008). Kyriacou (2001) encourages leaders to look for and remove unnecessary stress caused by poor management, such as setting unrealistic deadlines for tasks, or inadequate communication with staff. However, in a study of pre-service teachers on practicum, the more hours that they spent on lesson planning the less stress they reported (Geng, Midford, & Buckworth, 2015). By comparing this to the workload pressures of qualified teachers, it is worth considering how the allocation of time to different tasks correlates to stress, for example, when teachers take on extra tasks in an area of work they value stress may not increase and job satisfaction may improve (Kyriacou, 2001). Empirical evidence has also shown teacher workload is not directly related to burnout, but when leaders use a more transformational leadership style burnout may be significantly reduced (Heidmets & Liik, 2014). When contemplating the link between workload and teacher wellbeing it is not only the amount of work, but also the nature of the work that matters.

3.3.2 **Supporting early career teachers.** Teacher attrition in New Zealand is especially high among young teachers at the end of their third year of teaching (Post Primary Teachers’ Association, 2016). However, when school leaders effectively support beginning teachers they are more successful at negotiating the early years of their career (Day, 2008), and experience higher levels of job satisfaction (M. Cameron et al., 2007). Receiving support from a mentor teacher is one of the most important factors in enhancing a pre-service teachers’ self-efficacy and reducing stress levels (Geng et al., 2015). There is evidence that support groups for new teachers are also important to help reduce feeling of isolation, and help teachers explore and develop their teaching identity (Farquhar & Tesar, 2016). However, adequate support is not always provided. One study of promising young teachers entering the profession in New Zealand reported that 45% of them described their induction programme as minimal or unsupportive (M. Cameron et al., 2007). Therefore, there is still a need for schools and teacher training organisations to explore how they support new teachers to reduce stress (Geng et al., 2015) and develop and maintain their wellbeing (White & Murray, 2015b).
The way in which leaders support teachers as they progress past the formative years of their career, and take on additional responsibilities, can impact on teacher engagement. Out of a group of 70 secondary teachers in their fifth year of teaching, more than half believed they were less engaged in teaching than they had been at the start of their career, many citing that they had been pushed into management roles which had taken time away from “focus[ing] on ‘what really matters’ in teaching” (M. Cameron et al., 2007, p. 9). In a study of 300 United Kingdom teachers, Day (2008) found that 78% of teachers in their fourth to seventh year of teaching had taken on more responsibility and were struggling to manage the increased workload. If leaders provide opportunities for renewal which allow teachers to step back from the daily hustle of teaching and think about their values and what is important to them, this reinvigorates teachers and helps to maintain their enthusiasm (M. Cameron et al., 2007).

### 3.3.3 Positive, supportive and trusting relationships.
Developing positive relationships are central to positive school leadership (Murphy & Louis, 2018). There is a “fundamental importance of warm, trusting, and supportive interpersonal relationships for wellbeing” (Ryan & Deci, 2001, p. 154), and schools with a positive climate and good social support help to reduce teacher stress (Kyriacou, 2001). School improvement depends on leaders having genuine connections with others (Fullan, 2001), putting others ahead of their own self-interest (Murphy & Louis, 2018), and building relational trust (Cherkowski & Walker, 2016; Murphy & Louis, 2018; Robinson, 2011). Trust is important in creating a safe environment where teachers feel supported by leaders, teachers and students can innovate and take risks with their learning (Cherkowski & Walker, 2016), and student learning is positively impacted (Leithwood, 2011; Leithwood & Beatty, 2008). Building trust helps to foster positive relationships, where teachers feel cared for and appreciated, which then leads to better interactions with students (Roffey, 2012). When students have strong relationships with teachers, this can enable their educational success (Berryman, Eley, Ford, & Egan, 2015).

For leaders to maintain positive and trusting relationships they need to be adept at handling concerns in ways that do not damage relationships. Day (2008) found that the least effective teachers in his study felt unsupported, unappreciated and victimised by leadership, which contributed to the teachers poor performance. Teachers can also feel unsupported, and that their wellbeing is under threat, when leaders and teachers do not agree on how to address student behavioural issues (Roffey, 2012). In Roffey’s (2012) study, teachers became
annoyed if they perceived school leadership did not adequately punish disruptive students. An essential skill for leaders is being able to raise concerns and engage with differing viewpoints whilst maintaining and building relational trust (Robinson, 2011).

3.3.4 Development and accomplishment. A key dimension of school leadership is leading teacher learning and development (Robinson, 2011), which has a positive impact on teachers feeling supported in school and their engagement (M. Cameron et al., 2007; Leithwood, 2006), as well as improving student outcomes (Robinson, 2011). Promoting teacher learning may also help to reduce teacher attrition, as in schools where leaders focus on creating the culture and conditions that encourage teacher learning early career teachers were less likely to change schools (M. Cameron et al., 2007). As Murphy and Louis (2018) argue “emphasiz[ing] the needs of others, particularly their needs for personal growth” (p. 23) is an important aspect of positive school leadership.

Accomplishment involves working towards goals and includes a sense of self-efficacy (Butler & Kern, 2016). Self-efficacy is a person’s belief that they can reach their goals or achieve tasks, and has been linked to resilience and reduced levels of stress and depression (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). Teacher-self-efficacy has been linked to wellbeing, teacher performance, and student outcomes, and can be influenced by leadership practices (Leithwood, 2006). Leithwood (2006) identified principals’ practices that impacted teacher-self-efficacy were “develop[ing] a shared and inspiring sense of direction for the school, modelling appropriate behaviour, and rewarding teachers for good work” (p. 19). A positive sense of identity is also an important factor in preserving self-efficacy, and is linked to wellbeing (Day, 2008; Farquhar, 2012). Day (2008) proposes that teacher identity is comprised of three aspects: professional (social and policy expectations and teacher educational ideals); situated (school specific circumstances such as student behaviour, leadership and support); and personal (life outside of school including family and social roles). When there were imbalances in these three aspects of identity, for example, school demands dominated a teachers identity, then teachers were more likely to experience lower levels of wellbeing (Day, 2008).

3.3.5 Positive emotions. Teachers’ thoughts and feelings can significantly affect student learning, and leaders can influence those emotions through the working conditions they create (Leithwood & Beatty, 2008). In reviewing almost 100 empirical studies on teacher emotions, Leithwood (2011) concluded that there are teacher emotions that can have
“significant effects on teaching and learning including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, morale, stress/burnout, engagement in the school or profession, and teacher trust in colleagues, parents and students” (p. 43). Positive leadership that includes a focus on promoting positive emotions has been shown to improve teachers’ professional knowledge and social capital, and in turn promote better classroom climates that lead to improved student outcomes (Murphy & Louis, 2018). However, care should be taken when assuming positive emotions are linked to wellbeing, as in some circumstances, such as grief, the experience of negative emotions rather than repressing emotions is a sign of a well-functioning person (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

3.3.6 Meaning. Meaning has been defined as serving something greater than oneself (Seligman, 2011) and having direction in life and purpose (Butler & Kern, 2016). Having work that is considered meaningful is a better predictor of absenteeism from work than job satisfaction (Steger et al., 2012). In a study of ‘teachers of promise’, people who left other occupations to become teachers did so because their previous work “did not nourish their sense of personal meaning in their day-to-day lives” (M. Cameron et al., 2007, p. 15). Meaning has also been linked to the amount of agency that teachers have in their work (Murphy & Louis, 2018). Leadership practices such as making sure teachers have a voice in decision making so they can shape their work (Leithwood, 2006) could therefore help to increase the meaningfulness of teachers’ work. Leaders enable teachers to flourish when they help them to see the meaning in their work (Cherkowski & Walker, 2018).

3.3.7 Resilience. Resilience encompasses ideas about how long it takes a person to recover after a setback (Huppert & So, 2013), maintaining commitment in the face of challenges, preserving wellbeing, and the capacity to effectively manage stress (Beltman, Mansfield, & Price, 2011). Teacher resiliency has only recently been a focus of research, and mainly in countries where teacher attrition is a concern (Beltman et al., 2011). Beltman et al. (2011) found 50 empirical studies of resilience (often using terms such as wellbeing, coping and optimism), and concluded that personal characteristics such as motivation and self-efficacy were important factors in determining resilience. Teacher resilience has been linked to teacher retention and quality, and also to higher student achievement (Leithwood, 2006). When teachers are resilient, there are positive impacts for schools and students, and teachers cope better with stress.
3.3.8 **Stress and coping.** Stress is often viewed negatively - ‘distress’ – such as Kyriacou’s (1987) explanation that stress occurs when demands are placed on a teacher that they do not think they can meet, which will threaten their physical and/or mental wellbeing. However, stress can also be beneficial – ‘eustress’ – acting as a motivator, or prompting people to seek social support (McGonigal, 2016). People’s experiences throughout their life, and genetic factors, can determine how they view stress, including their capacity to handle stress (Brabban & Turkington, 2002; McGonigal, 2016). Genetic limits to a person’s emotional range mean that for some the best they can achieve is “to live in the best part of their set range of depression or anxiety or anger” (Seligman, 2011, p. 53).

A teacher’s perception of their circumstances and the degree of control they feel are instrumental in determining the level of stress the teacher feels (Kyriacou, 1987). Kyriacou (2001) points out that each case is unique, and that there is “a complex interaction between [the teachers] personality, values, skills and circumstances” (p. 29). Teachers may use ‘adaptive’ coping strategies, such as exercise and social support, that promote wellbeing, or ‘maladaptive’ coping strategies, such as excessive alcohol consumption or withdrawal, that whilst helping to alleviate stress in the short term are not good for long term wellbeing, and have been linked to increased teacher burnout (Seidman & Zager, 1991). It may be that teachers have a range of adaptive coping strategies, but in circumstances where they are experiencing a number of stressful situation, or a significant trauma, their ability to cope is reduced (Brabban & Turkington, 2002).

3.3.9 **Social and emotional competence.** Emotional intelligence (EQ), which was popularised by Daniel Goleman (1995), has been shown to be predictive of several outcomes including wellbeing and leadership performance (Fullan, 2001; Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011; Leithwood & Beatty, 2008). EQ has been defined as knowing and managing one’s emotions, recognising emotions in others, motivating oneself and managing relationships (Goleman, 1995). In a review of empirical studies Mérida-López and Extremera (2017) found a large negative association between EQ and burnout in secondary school teachers. They also noted mediating factors in the link between EQ and burnout, including support from leadership and workplace social support that helped to reduce burnout (Mérida-López & Extremera, 2017). However, EQ has also been criticised due to unreliable empirical findings on its impact and measurement inconsistencies (Walter, Cole, & Humphrey, 2011).
The concept of social and emotional competence (SEC) is related to EQ, but is broader and includes “self-awareness, social awareness, responsible decision making, self-management, and relationship management” (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 494). Teachers’ SEC has been identified as a key influence on students’ social, emotional and academic outcomes (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). When teacher SEC is developed through training programmes it has been shown to promote more positive classroom environments, significantly improve student outcomes, and help reduce teacher stress and depression (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). A positive school climate can also assist with increasing teachers’ emotional awareness, and improve the quality of teacher-student and teacher-teacher relationships (Geng et al., 2015). White and Murray (2015b) assert that teacher training programmes need to build teachers skills in self-awareness, self-regulation, optimism, mental agility, strengths of character, and connection, in order for teachers to take care of their own wellbeing and be in a position to foster student wellbeing.

### 3.3.10 Political and social influences on teacher wellbeing

There are many factors outside of school leaders’ control that can negatively impact teacher wellbeing, such as political reforms, society’s views of teachers, media portrayal of the profession and alternative opportunities for employment (Leithwood, 2006). A few of these factors are briefly explored here.

Externally mandated policy change can leave teachers feeling overloaded and increase stress (Hargreaves, 2004; Leithwood, 2006). In New Zealand there are a number of policy changes that have affected – and will continue to affect - schools, such as a review of the Tomorrow’s Schools policy and recommendations for reform (Tomorrow’s Schools Independent Taskforce, 2018), and changes to the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) assessment system (Ministry of Education, 2019). However, some of the recommendations included in these policy changes are intended to enhance teacher wellbeing, such as the workload consideration included in the changes to the NCEA (Ministry of Education, 2019).

Other wellbeing issues in New Zealand are associated with teacher’s pay and housing affordability (particularly in Auckland), and have long been raised by teacher unions as a major cause of teacher shortages (Boyle, 2018; Post Primary Teachers’ Association, 2018b). Research shows there is a correlation between wealth and wellbeing for those living in poverty, where an increase in wealth allows people to provide food, shelter and increase
opportunities to connect with others, but as wealth increases there are diminishing returns (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Seligman, 2011). The consensus from both a hedonic and eudaimonic perspective of wellbeing is that, beyond an adequate level of income, a focus on attaining money will not lead to wellbeing or happiness (Ryan & Deci, 2001). The implication for teacher pay is that its impact on wellbeing depends upon the situation of each individual. For those struggling to afford housing, or limiting their social activities due to low income, an increase in pay may well be linked to improving wellbeing. Other factors to consider are that income can be viewed as an indicator of the value that society places on a profession, and society’s views of teachers have been shown to impact teachers’ satisfaction with their working conditions (Leithwood, 2006).

3.3.11 Summary of leaders’ impact on teacher wellbeing. By examining the research on teachers working conditions through a positive psychology lens I have identified a number of factors that can influence teacher wellbeing. The literature has indicated some leadership actions that may enhance teacher wellbeing, such as supporting teacher learning and development, and ways in which leadership actions can diminish teacher wellbeing, such as setting unrealistic deadlines. The research also indicates there are individual characteristics, such as resilience, and habits, such as exercise, that teachers may be able to use to maintain and enhance their wellbeing independently of leadership actions.

3.4 Positive Education and Teacher Wellbeing Research in New Zealand

3.4.1 Positive education in Australia and New Zealand. Positive education has been applied in a number of schools in Australia for some time. Two well-known examples are St Peter’s College in Adelaide, which has been the subject of numerous studies (such as: Kern et al., 2015; Waters, White, Wang, & Murray, 2015; White & Murray, 2015a), and Geelong Grammar School, near Melbourne (Norrish & Seligman, 2015). Although focused on student wellbeing, this research also gives an insight into teacher wellbeing. For example, one study of teachers at St Peter’s College measured several factors, including the PERMA wellbeing dimensions, and showed a correlation between meaning and health, whereas engagement and accomplishment were predictors of job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Kern et al., 2015). Many of the well-known examples of positive education around the world are in private schools, which has led to some critique that “at present there is not enough done to document well-being interventions in disadvantaged and indigenous cultures” (White, 2017, p. 32).
Positive education is not well established in schools in New Zealand. I have identified three private schools, through information on their websites, that implement some form of positive education based programme - Kings College, Pinehurst School and Huanui College - but found no published research related to these schools. There is one publication about a cluster of low- to mid-socioeconomic status primary and intermediate schools that have implemented positive education (Quinlan, 2017). Quinlan (2017) describes the process of implementing and embedding positive education practices in the schools, including teachers leaning about positive psychology and taking steps to enhance their own wellbeing. Although the study was not solely focused on improving teacher wellbeing, it gives some insight into the influence of positive education initiatives to improve the “understanding of the importance of teacher as well as student well-being” (Quinlan, 2017, p. 138). However, New Zealand research related to teacher wellbeing continues to be deficit focused and does not consider how leaders can improve teacher wellbeing.

3.4.2 Teacher wellbeing: A gap in the New Zealand research. There has been very little research into teacher wellbeing in New Zealand over the last 10 years. I carried out a literature review, looking for the terms wellbeing, resilience, coping, stress, burnout and optimism in abstracts on databases covering education, psychology, health science and social science. After checking the results for relevance, a total of 10 articles based on New Zealand studies were found. Five of the studies concerned stress, trauma, burnout and depression (Berger, Benatov, & Abu-Raiya, 2016; Bianchi et al., 2016; Kuntz, Näswall, & Bockett, 2013; Milfont et al., 2008; Tarrant, 2014). The other studies investigated: timetabling (Ashton, 2018), employment status (Grudnoff, 2011), the role of spirituality in leadership (including during trauma) (Gibson, 2014; Tarrant, 2014), and the positive impacts of professional development (Cosgriff, 2017; Owen, 2012).

One study measured both wellbeing and burnout in a sample of 129 secondary school teachers and reported that wellbeing and burnout are negatively correlated (Milfont et al., 2008). The research also showed the teachers have higher than average burnout scores, consistent with other research indicating teaching is a high stress profession (Kyriacou, 2001). In another study, Bianchi, Mayor, Schonfeld, and Laurent (2016) surveyed 184 teachers from across New Zealand and established a strong correlation between depression and burnout, reporting that 8% of teachers were clinically depressed. These two studies show that New Zealand also faces many of the same challenges relating to teacher stress, depression, and burnout that are experienced around the globe.
The antecedents and outcomes of teacher burnout were studied in a survey of 125 teachers in Christchurch 18 months after a magnitude 6.3 earthquake that killed 185 people and caused considerable damage across the city (Kuntz et al., 2013). In the analysis of the data Kuntz et al. (2013) demonstrated that role overload, “the extent to which employees perceive that the time and resources available to meet expectations to fulfil a role are inadequate” (p. 60), was strongly related to increased emotional exhaustion, which in turn was associated with teachers’ intentions to leave their job. Role overload, and also role conflict, “an incompatibility between student, parent and administration demands” (Kuntz et al., 2013, p. 60), was linked to an increase in burnout ratings. Another study in post-earthquake Christchurch tested the effect of an education programme, ERASE-Stress [ES], designed to be delivered to schools after a traumatic event (Berger et al., 2016). The programme was designed to improve teachers’ resilience whilst also training them to deliver a programme to students to assist them in coping with post-traumatic stress. Teachers in the ES intervention group significantly reduced their post-traumatic stress levels. They also increased their optimism, sense of hope and developed positive coping strategies, such as positive reframing, and reduced use of negative coping strategies, such as self-blame (Berger et al., 2016). Although these two studies were specifically targeted to the aftermath of major trauma, knowing what factors lead to teacher burnout, and what strategies can reduce stress, are applicable in a range of contexts.

According to a survey and follow up interviews with 11 language teachers in New Zealand, wellbeing is negatively affected due to teaching multiple year level classes (Ashton, 2018). Many teachers believed they had no influence over the decision to timetable multi-level classes, and that complaining would risk classes for their subject being dropped altogether. Teachers cited higher workload issues, lack of support and professional development, and a devaluing of language learning, which left them feeling tired, frustrated and stressed. This highlights how a lack of support from schools and teachers’ lack of agency are important factors that can affect wellbeing.

A study of 12 first year teachers in New Zealand primary schools demonstrated the negative effects of non-permanent positions on teachers’ wellbeing (Grudnoff, 2011). Six of the teachers who started the year with long term relief positions spoke of feeling worried and stressed from term three onwards as they were spending time preparing curriculum vitae and applying for jobs, whilst also experiencing a large workload preparing for and teaching their classes. They also felt anxious about the prospect of moving to a different school the
following year and worried it would negatively impact their development. In contrast, the beginning teachers in permanent positions were more confident, felt successful and were optimistic about their second year in teaching. When schools make decisions to employ beginning teachers in short term positions it can cause undue stress at a time when they are building their confidence in their practice.

In a case study inquiring into principals’ and teachers’ experience of spirituality in leadership, Gibson (2014) discovered principals viewed spirituality as helping them to remain resilient. Spirituality was defined in broad terms, with two principals holding theistic views of spirituality, and one with non-theistic views. Although the teachers in the study included Māori teachers, who talked about their principal’s spirituality in terms of concepts such as manaakitanga (caring for each other), the author focussed on participants’ broad meanings of spirituality, with only a brief mention of Māori views. The teachers and principals connected spirituality with building quality relationships, showing empathy and compassion, and remaining positive in the face of stressful situations. The principals’ spirituality in their leadership contributed towards the culture of the school and increased teacher morale and desire to stay at the school. However, the impact was not always positive, and there were some leadership actions grounded in the principal’s spirituality that led to staff feeling disaffected, for example, when a principal promoted a Christian message in a school newsletter that staff did not agree with. Spirituality may link to the dimensions of wellbeing explored in the positive psychology literature, such as building positive relationships, however these links are complex to explore due to diverse interpretations of spirituality.

A principal’s leadership following a school tragedy was the focus of a study by Tarrant (2014). In 2008 six students and one teacher from Elim Christian College lost their lives in a river canyoning accident. Through interviews with the principal, the study explored how their faith helped staff, students and the community to cope after the tragedy. Prayer was identified as an important part of coping, and those involved in the tragedy experienced empathy and support through the prayers offered in messages from New Zealand and around the world. The principal also expressed the importance in the belief that God had guided and supported him, and that students expressed that their faith in God provided them strength. This illustrates how faith can be an important factor in enabling coping and building resilience in teachers and students.
Two New Zealand studies focused on the positive impact of professional development on teacher wellbeing. Owen (2012) identified increased teacher resilience was a key outcome for 20 participants in the Virtual Professional Learning and Development (VPLD) programme. The author concluded that the mentoring provided to all participants was a key aspect of building their resilience. Resilience was also increased due to: collaboration and relationship building, sharing experiences and understanding, teachers increased sense of identity, reduced feelings of isolation, and help to cope with uncertainty and change. Another study involving two teachers and a principal at a New Zealand primary school cited the positive impact of professional development on teachers’ personal wellbeing and their sense of professional identity (Cosgriff, 2017). The professional development centred around using a local bush reserve as a focus for teaching and learning. The teachers described an increased sense of wellbeing, that being outdoors leads to less distraction, was energising, they felt more present and had a sense of freedom compared to being confined in a classroom. The teachers also reported a rejuvenation to their professional identity, which was attributed to: curriculum decision making based on the bush setting instead of a focus on activities or subjects; adopting a more flexible, inquiry-based teaching approach; and, seeing their students' enthusiasm, curiosity and caring for the bush area. Both of these studies indicate the possible wellbeing benefits of professional development.

3.5 Conclusion

There is a large gap in the research on teacher wellbeing in New Zealand, with no studies specifically investigating the actions that leaders can take to improve teacher wellbeing. The majority of studies focused on negative effects on teacher wellbeing, such as stress and burnout, with some of those studies citing causes ranging from trauma to timetabling issues. No studies specifically investigated how to enable teachers to flourish, however, two studies exploring professional development suggest that this can help build teachers resilience and improve wellbeing. Only one study specifically sought teachers views about how leadership actions impacted them, but with the focus on spirituality rather than the broader perspective of wellbeing (Gibson, 2014). The research literature from around the globe gives more of an indication of the leadership actions that can enhance teacher wellbeing, but these studies mostly focus on one narrow aspect of wellbeing, such as resilience, there are very few empirical studies that provide a comprehensive analysis of how leadership actions influence teachers’ wellbeing. As context is an important consideration for leaders, and context and culture influence people’s views of wellbeing, there is a need for
research in New Zealand to address the issues currently facing New Zealand teachers. Thus, for educational leaders to more completely understand how they can enable teachers to flourish there needs to be stronger empirical evidence from studies in New Zealand about what factors influence teacher wellbeing.
Chapter 4 Methodology

Wellbeing: If you treasure it you will measure it. (White & Kern, 2017, p. 50)

When schools measure wellbeing it helps to convey its importance and assists in identifying what works and what does not when it comes to improving wellbeing (White & Kern, 2017). In this study, wellbeing is measured both quantitatively and qualitatively, and used to identify leadership practices that influence teacher wellbeing. By employing an explanatory mixed methods design, including the use of a questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, and participant journals, I was able to conduct a comparative case study to explore the differences between how ‘high wellbeing’ and ‘low wellbeing’ teachers viewed leadership practices that impacted on their wellbeing. This approach allowed me to develop a deeper understanding of educational leadership practices that enhance teacher wellbeing.

In Chapter 2, I described how I align with a pragmatist worldview, focused on investigating a problem under study (poor teacher wellbeing), oriented towards real-world practice (leadership practices to enhance teacher wellbeing), and drawing on more than one research paradigm (postpositivist and constructivist). The pragmatist worldview is typically associated with mixed methods research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Morgan, 2007), which I selected for this study. Mixed methods are more than simply a combination of quantitative and qualitative data within a research project, but also encompasses the viewpoints, analysis and inference techniques to integrate the two approaches (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013). My study has a strong focus on qualitative methods, underpinned by the constructivist paradigm, that acknowledges the complexity of participants’ viewpoints, and looks for the varied meanings that individuals apply to a situation or phenomenon (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This chapter details the methodological approach, research design, sample selection, methods of data collection, ethical considerations, validity, reliability and integration in my research.

4.1 Methodological Approach

In addition to a researcher’s worldview, the nature of the research problem or question determines the research approach to be used (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Fetters et al., 2013). I chose a mixed methods approach as it is well suited to answer the main research question: How do educational leadership practices influence teacher wellbeing? This
research question is a ‘what and how’ type of question (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007), as the research must determine what the current teacher wellbeing levels are, then explain how teacher wellbeing is influenced by leadership practice. The overarching question is therefore a mixed methods question, that needs to be further broken down into quantitative and qualitative questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). My research integrates both quantitative and qualitative methods, drawing on their strengths in answering different questions, and thus giving more insight than either method alone (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Quantitative methods are well suited to answering the what question (Fetters et al., 2013): What are the differences in teacher wellbeing levels within one secondary school? Qualitative methods help to explore the remaining questions about why and how the wellbeing occurs and the nature of individual teacher’s experience (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Fetters et al., 2013): To what extent do leadership practices explain differences in teacher wellbeing levels?; How do leadership practices enhance or diminish teacher wellbeing?; and, How do teachers maintain and enhance their wellbeing independently of leadership practices?

4.2 Mixed Methods Research Design

4.2.1 Explanatory sequential, case-selection. There are a variety of mixed methods strategies that may be classified differently depending on the research field (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Three core mixed methods designs are described by Creswell and Creswell (2018): the convergent design, the explanatory sequential design and the exploratory sequential design. This research uses the explanatory sequential design, also known as two-phase mixed methods. Phase one of the research involved the collection of quantitative data, which was then analysed and used to inform phase two of the research where qualitative data was collected and analysed in order to explain the quantitative data. A diagram of the final research design is shown in Figure 1.
An explanatory sequential approach was chosen for this research for two main reasons. First, the main focus of the research was the qualitative phase, but initial quantitative data was needed to identify and select participants. This type of explanatory sequential design is identified by Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) as a case-selection variant. I chose this due to a “need to describe and compare different types of cases” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 10), as documenting diverse cases allowed me to more completely understand the research questions. Phase one of the research quantified the wellbeing levels of the teachers and provided a means to purposefully select ‘low wellbeing’ and ‘high wellbeing’ teachers for a comparative case study. The wellbeing of teachers was measured based on concepts from positive psychology, using an existing instrument, the PERMA-profiler, that has an established research base (Butler & Kern, 2016).
The second reason for choosing an explanatory sequential design was that the qualitative phase was used to explain the quantitative results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). In this case, providing an insight into how leadership practices accounted for the different levels of teacher wellbeing by exploring a range of teachers’ views on what contributes to either enhancing, or diminishing, their wellbeing, with a particular focus on the implications for leadership practices that enhance wellbeing. In order to explore and understand a phenomenon, particularly where little research has been carried out before, and when a subject has not been addressed with a certain group, a qualitative approach is recommended (Creswell, 2009). Therefore, given the lack of previous research into what enables teachers to flourish, the qualitative data in this research provided a means to explore individual’s meaning making and understand the complexities of the situation (Creswell, 2009).

4.2.2 Comparative case study in a single context. A case study can be defined as research that focuses on a phenomenon in a real-life context (Yin, 2009). Case studies are a preferred methodology for exploring cause and effect, when answering ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Yin, 2009). The case study approach was relevant to this research given the ‘cause and effect’ nature of the main research question which explores how leadership practices influence on teacher wellbeing.

Although a single New Zealand secondary school is the setting for this research, it is not considered a single case study. This research focuses on the experiences of individual teachers, rather than the organisation as a whole. As Yin (2009) states “if the data focus only on individual employees, the study will in fact become an employee and not an organisational study…[the organisation] has become the context and not the target of the study” (p 52). Therefore, this research is a comparative case study, also known as collective case study, that investigates multiple cases - the individual teachers - in a single school context (Punch, 2009; Yin, 2009). The multiple-case rationale is applicable to the aim of having sub-groups of cases to cover different types of conditions (Yin, 2009), in this case, grouping teachers according to high and low levels of wellbeing, and allowing a comparison of cases that gives more insight into the research question (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

4.3 Sample Selection

4.3.1 Site. The research site was a large state secondary co-educational school in an urban area in New Zealand. The school has a roll of approximately 850 and a teaching staff
of 65. The school was chosen due to its existing interest in promoting teacher wellbeing, as demonstrated by a decision to set aside time during the final term of 2017 and 2018 for teachers to participate in activities to enhance their own wellbeing, and the principal citing teacher wellbeing as one of the driving factors in changing the meeting schedule at the school. The school also has a reputation for encouraging staff involvement in ongoing professional learning about innovative practice and leadership. However, the school does not implement a positive education programme, or any other type of school-wide wellbeing curriculum.

Table 2. Participating School Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decile</th>
<th>10²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School roll</td>
<td>850³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching staff</td>
<td>65⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School type</td>
<td>State, secondary, co-educational</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Ethnicity of students:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NZ European</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZ Māori</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasifika</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Adapted from Education Counts website (Ministry of Education, 2018).

The school’s curriculum is organised into *The New Zealand Curriculum Framework* (Ministry of Education, 2007) subject areas, cross-curricular projects, and multi-year level tutorial groups. This means that full-time teachers are members of a subject department (e.g. science, health and physical education), as well as a cross-curricular team that has its own

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² School deciles range from 1 to 10. Decile 1 schools draw students from low socioeconomic communities and at the other end of the range, decile 10 schools draw their students from high socioeconomic communities.
³ Broad indicative enrolment numbers given to ensure site cannot be identified.
⁴ Data from participating school.
middle leader. There were five members of the senior leadership team during the time of this study: the principal, assistant principal, and three deputy principals.

4.3.2 Participants. The study aimed for a sample of 30 teachers for phase one of the research, as this is considered a minimum number if statistical analysis is to be carried out on the data (Cohen et al., 2000). A total of 31 teachers completed the questionnaire, however two questionnaires were completed without a consent form and were therefore not included in the sample. From the 29 teachers in the sample, 20 indicated they would like to be contacted about participation in phase two. The questionnaire data was analysed to identify the teachers with the highest and lowest wellbeing scores within the sample, and purposefully select teachers from each extreme for phase two of the research. A total of eight teachers were contacted to participate in phase two, one declined and one did not reply, therefore a total of six participated in the qualitative research, comprising of an interview and completing a participant journal. These teachers included three men and three women, with three of these teachers holding a middle leadership position and three without a formal leadership position. The teachers’ experience ranged from five to 20 years of teaching, with at least one year in the current school, and all but one teacher having taught in other schools. Note that this limited demographic information will not be associated with any individual teacher in this thesis to assist in ensuring the participants cannot be identified by others (besides myself and my supervisors).

4.4 Authorisation and Ethics

4.4.1 Authorisation. The University of Auckland Ethics Committee granted approval for this research project on 19th November 2018, reference number 022131. After obtaining approval from the university I approached the principal of the school to ask permission to conduct the research on site. The principal reviewed the Participant Information Sheet and signed a Consent Form, then a date was arranged for me to present to teachers. Teachers were given a Participant Information Sheet and those who chose to participate in the questionnaire gave their authorisation by signing a Consent Form. The six participants in phase two were given a Participant Information Sheet and signed a Consent Form specific to phase two of the research.

4.4.2 Ethical considerations. Participation in this study was voluntary for both the school and its teachers. At any time during the research the school and any teachers involved in the research were able to leave the project without suffering a negative outcome. Details
about voluntary participation, right to withdraw, anonymity and confidentiality were explicitly communicated in the Participant Information Sheets for the principal and board of trustees, and for the teachers. As this research into wellbeing could also prompt discussions on issues related to stress, burnout, depression or other negative states that can cause harm to individuals, a list of community support services was provided so that teachers knew how to access support if required. I also presented an overview of the research to all teachers, in which I outlined these ethical considerations and provided an opportunity for teachers to ask questions, either at the presentation or via contact details provided on the Participant Information Sheets.

Teachers participating in phase one of the research, the questionnaire, could choose to remain anonymous by not entering any contact information on the questionnaire. Consent forms with participant’s name and signature were collected with each questionnaire. To maintain anonymity the consent forms and questionnaires were separated before analysis, so that questionnaires could not be linked to participants’ details on the consent forms. Participants in phase one that were willing to be considered for phase two of the research were asked to enter their contact details on the questionnaire, and therefore chose to waive anonymity. Anonymity means ensuring that participants can in no way be identified, however, a teacher “agreeing to a face-to-face interview, on the other hand, can in no way expect anonymity. At most, the interviewer can promise confidentiality” (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 61). Any identifying details that teachers entered on the questionnaire were kept confidential to myself and my supervisors. Participants who were selected to invite into phase two of the research were contacted by phone, and the interviews and participant journals were explained, and teachers were given the opportunity to ask questions before deciding whether to participate. Teachers were assigned a code to assist in keeping their identity confidential to the researchers. The only individuals who saw the questionnaires, interview transcripts and participant journals were myself and my supervisors.

Participants were informed that data they provided, once analysed and summarised, will be used in this thesis, and academic outputs such as publications and conference presentations. Teachers were assured that in any publication steps would be taken to ensure they could not be identified, such as removing personal information and references to specific subjects, and teachers were given the opportunity to edit transcripts of interviews. While writing this thesis I have been very aware of applying the concept of ‘non-traceability’, to endeavour that individuals responses are not identifiable (Cohen et al., 2000)
4.5 Data Collections Tools

4.5.1 PERMA-profiler questionnaire. The purpose of the questionnaire was to measure the wellbeing of teachers against the PERMA dimensions of wellbeing: positive emotions, engagement, relationships, meaning and accomplishment (Seligman, 2011). In order to provide a high degree of reliability an existing instrument was chosen for this research, the PERMA-profiler (Butler & Kern, 2016). The instrument has been extensively tested and shown to provide “acceptable internal reliability for each of the five domains [positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, accomplishment] and good overall model fit across over 30,000 participants worldwide” (Butler & Kern, 2016, p. 21). The PERMA-profiler consists of 23 items with an 11 point (zero to 10) Likert scale to rate the response to questions such as ‘In general, how often do you feel joyful?’ from ‘never’ to ‘always’ or questions such as ‘In general, to what extent do you lead a purposeful and meaningful life?’ from ‘not at all’ to ‘completely’. Each dimension of PERMA has three items associated with it, as well as three items related to negative emotions, three items related to health, one item related to loneliness and one item related to happiness. The questionnaire used in my research (Appendix A) also included a section to ask teachers to enter their contact details if they were willing to participate in follow up interviews and participant journals. The questionnaire took approximately three minutes to complete.

The PERMA-profiler used in the questionnaire provided a quantitative, and multidimensional, analysis of wellbeing which was used to purposefully select three ‘low wellbeing’ and three ‘high wellbeing’ teachers to invite to phase two of the research, the interviews and participant journal.

4.5.2 Interviews. Six teachers participated in a 30-minute semi-structured interview, where I used open ended questions to probe teachers’ views of their wellbeing and the factors that they perceived as impacting their wellbeing. This sample size was considered manageable given the time frame of a master’s level study, and small enough to allow a high quality study with adequate time for analysis of the data (Kvale, 1996). Interviews are a good way to access an individual’s perception, meaning making, and to understand their construction of reality (Kvale, 1996; Punch, 2009), a notion that fits well with the constructivist paradigm and the focus on qualitative methods in this research. As such, a semi-structured interview approach was chosen, which uses a set of guiding themes and suggested questions, but allows changes in order for the interviewer to follow up answers.
given and clarify understanding of the subjects meaning (Kvale, 1996). The themes and their suggested questions that guide the interview could be interpreted as ‘leading questions’, however as Kvale (1996) points out, interview questions should “lead in important directions, producing new, trustworthy, and interesting knowledge” (p. 159). The following four questions were constructed to generate qualitative data to explain the quantitative data in phase one (an important aspect of the explanatory sequential research design; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018), and to gain a richer understanding of how leadership actions explain different teacher wellbeing levels:

1. How do you define your personal wellbeing?
2. How do you rate your overall wellbeing? How would you rate it on a scale of 1 – 10?
3. What do you do to maintain or enhance your wellbeing?
4. Do leaders at your school do anything that impacts your wellbeing?

Clarifying and probing questions were also used, as a criteria for the quality of interviews includes “the degree to which the interviewer follows up and clarifies the meanings of the relevant aspects of the answer” (Kvale, 1996, p. 145). The interviews were also used to follow up on any surprising or contradictory results in order to more fully explain the quantitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). For example, when an individual’s score for one of the PERMA dimensions of wellbeing was higher or lower than the rest, the participant was asked about that dimension in the interview. An outline of the questions and additional prompts are included in Appendix B. While carrying out the interviews I was also aware of using active empathetic listening, being sensitive to tone of voice and body language, and picking up on emotions (Kvale, 1996), which helped to guide the types of probing questions I asked. I audio recorded all interviews, made notes during and after interviews, and transcribed all interviews myself, which enabled me to familiarise myself with the content and commence the initial data analysis as I transcribed.

4.5.3 Participant journals. At the end of the interview I outlined the process for completing a participant journal and gave an opportunity for teachers to ask questions. Participants were asked to spend 10 minutes each day reflecting and making a journal entry over a five working day period after the interview. I provided an exercise book for this, and printed instructions were included in the front pages (Appendix C). The instructions included an introduction about the wellbeing dimensions and asked participants to write about any
experiences during the day that they felt impacted on any dimension of wellbeing, either positively or negatively. The instructions also asked the participants to identify any others involved in, or contributing to, the experience in terms of ‘colleague’, ‘middle manager’, or ‘senior leadership team’ to assist in maintaining the anonymity of others. I collected the completed journals and transcribed the contents for analysis.

The benefits of using a participant journal were that they allow events to be recorded in a more natural and spontaneous way and therefore minimised retrospection which is prone to bias (Bolger, Davis, & Rafaeli, 2003). I decided that the participant journal completion should follow the interviews, as this would give the opportunity for teachers to discuss ideas about their wellbeing before completing the journal. They would then be more likely to notice the factors affecting their wellbeing during the day and write about them in the journal. When someone notices a phenomenon, they are likely to think it occurs more frequently, due to selective attention (noticing ideas that are salient), and confirmation bias (looking for evidence to confirm their own ideas) – a combination known as ‘frequency illusion’ (Zwicky, 2006).

4.6 Data Analysis

4.6.1 Quantitative data analysis. The aim of collecting quantitative data was to investigate the variation in teacher wellbeing levels in the school, and provide a means to purposefully sample for phase two, the qualitative phase. This was so that ‘high wellbeing’ and ‘low wellbeing’ teachers could be compared by collecting qualitative data in order to look for factors that explained differences in wellbeing, and could therefore be used to identify practices to enhance wellbeing.

Each of the 29 participants in phase one answered 23 items on the questionnaire, giving a score from zero to 10, and items were subsequently grouped into categories and an average score generated for each PERMA-profiler dimension: positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, accomplishment, health, negative emotions, happiness and loneliness. The data were entered into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and used to calculate the score for each of the nine dimensions in the PERMA-profiler, for each of the 29 teachers in the sample (see Appendix D). Microsoft Excel was also used to analyse the data to generate descriptive statistics for each wellbeing dimension. Descriptive statistics are useful to give a summary of the data that includes the middle of the distribution and spread of data, to check for data entry accuracy, and to identify any outliers (Berkman & Reise, 2012). Multiple box plots were used
to display the values for each PERMA-profiler dimension from the questionnaire, as box plots “laid out side by side,…permit comparisons to be made with ease” (Marsh & Elliott, 2008, p. 171) and “box plots are an efficient way to visualize multiple groups of data while also providing information about skewness and outlying values” (Brussow, 2018, p. 222). Outliers were crosschecked against the original data for any data entry errors, and confirmed outliers were used as one method of identifying potential participants for phase two.

Individual participants wellbeing scores were compared to the descriptive statistics in order to purposefully select six participants for phase two, three to represent the higher wellbeing scores in the sample, and three to represent the lower wellbeing scores. To assist in comparing each teacher’s data to the overall sample, each score for a dimension was colour coded to indicate the highest 10% of individuals and lowest 10% of individuals in that dimension. Colour coding was also used to indicate individuals scores that were higher than the upper quartile and lower than the lower quartile in each dimension. Colour coding of green was used to indicate ‘good’ wellbeing scores, and red for ‘bad’ wellbeing scores. For example, the highest scores for positive emotions, and the lowest scores for loneliness, were coded in green. Finally, the data was sorted according to total wellbeing score to assist in identifying the high wellbeing and low wellbeing teachers. To select three ‘low wellbeing’ teachers for interview, I used the lowest total wellbeing score combined with a majority of dimensions in the red. To select three ‘high wellbeing’ teachers for interview, I used the highest total wellbeing score combined with a majority of dimensions in the green. In total, eight teachers were invited to be interviewed, (one declined to participate and one did not reply). Thus, three low wellbeing teachers and three high wellbeing teachers participated in phase two, the qualitative data collection. These teachers were coded as Teacher A through to F, in the order that they were interviewed.

4.6.2 Qualitative data analysis. Qualitative data were collected from six teachers using semi-structured interviews and participant journals. The analysis began as soon as data was collected (Gibbs, 2007), for example, using clarifying questions during the interview to identify key ideas (Kvale, 1996), and reflecting on the interview afterwards. I audio recorded and transcribed the interviews by using voice recognition software, listening to the transcript using headphones and repeating the dialogue into a microphone. The digital audio recording could be stopped and rewound easily to allow for typing and checking data. I listened to each interview recording another two times and made corrections. I then transcribed the handwritten journals. As Gibbs (2007) states, the process of the researcher transcribing the
interviews, rather than outsourcing this task, allows for familiarisation with the data. I wrote memos during the transcription process, and during further reading of the transcripts and journal data, which added more depth to my analytical thinking (Bazeley, 2013). During transcription and reading I identified initial ideas for coding and possible themes.

All transcripts and participant journals were saved as Microsoft Word files that were then loaded into the computer assisted qualitative data analysis software NVivo. This software allows sections of data to be highlighted and codes to be allocated via ‘nodes’ that can be easily compared and rearranged as needed. I used inductive coding, with the codes based on information in the data, rather than pre-determined themes. During three passes of coding, the initial descriptive codes were refined and combined to produce more analytic codes (Gibbs, 2007), for example, ‘successful lesson’ was combined with other codes to form ‘professional identity’. In order to avoid ‘definitional drift’, and to refine the codes to reflect the themes, a constant comparison method was used, where I regularly viewed all items coded to the same node and compared them to each other and to my codebook (DeCuir-Gunby, Marshall, & McCulloch, 2011; Gibbs, 2007). This was assisted by the use of NVivo, where all data coded to a node can be displayed in one file for comparison, and also by the use of a codebook created in Microsoft Excel, that contained descriptions for each code and example quotes (DeCuir-Gunby et al., 2011). During three iterations of coding the codes were refined, the codebook updated (see Appendix E for final version), and broader themes were identified. Techniques such as manually arranging post-it notes of codes into similar topics assisted with the identification of the themes. The codebook and NVivo data were cross-checked by my supervisors and final codes agreed upon.
4.6.3 **Triangulation, integration and validity.** Multiple sources of evidence are essential to case studies due to the richness of the phenomenon and to assist in building a comprehensive understanding of the case (Fetters et al., 2013; Yin, 2009), in this case, the ‘flourishing teacher’. Data triangulation involves using different sources of data that all contribute to the facts of the case study (Yin, 2009). In my research, data was sourced from a questionnaire, interviews and participant journals, each providing data for triangulation, identifying any converging themes, and increasing the validity of the research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

The main intent of integration in an exploratory mixed methods design is for the qualitative phase to provide a strong explanation for the quantitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Integration in a mixed methods study can occur in a number of ways, such as ‘building’, when the results from one set of data informs subsequent data collection, and ‘merging’, when databases are combined for analysis (Fetters et al., 2013). In this study, building occurred when the quantitative data, which explored the differences in teacher
wellbeing levels, was used to purposefully select ‘high wellbeing’ and ‘low wellbeing’ teachers for qualitative data collection. The qualitative data was used to confirm the levels of teacher wellbeing, and explain the differences between the high wellbeing and low wellbeing teachers’ quantitative results, adding more depth and detail to the findings. Building also occurred when unusual data was used as a basis for questions in the interview, and contributed to validity by identifying important or surprising quantitative results that were explained by the qualitative follow up (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Merging occurred when the interview data and participant journal data were combined for coding in NVivo, and later when the quantitative and qualitative data were merged to answer the research questions, including explaining how leadership actions influenced teacher wellbeing, and identifying the actions that teachers took independently of leadership actions to maintain their wellbeing. A ‘weaving narrative’ approach (Fetters et al., 2013) was used to integrate the quantitative and qualitative data in the discussion of the key themes in Chapter 6. The integration of the quantitative and qualitative data is a strength of my research as it provides rich and detailed answers to my research questions.

4.7 Conclusion

I have chosen a mixed methods approach for this study, in particular an explanatory sequential design, that generates a comparative case study. The mixed methods approach aligns with my pragmatist worldview, in which I draw on the postpositivist paradigm in my quantitative measurement of wellbeing, and then focus on a constructivist approach by using qualitative data to explore teachers views of how leadership actions impact their wellbeing. Data from both phases of the research generated the findings that identified differences in teacher wellbeing levels and explained to what extent leaders actions accounted for the variations in teacher wellbeing.
Chapter 5 Findings

After our interview where I outlined many of the issues in the workplace that were affecting my wellbeing on Wednesday, I felt a bit better that I’d had someone impartial to talk to about my stress. (Teacher B journal)

Lots of changes, but they’re all positive changes, I love it because it’s giving me a different perspective …. and I’m learning all this new stuff, and I feel really positive about it, it’s just a great. (Teacher F)

Teachers in this study clearly had diverse experiences of wellbeing. This chapter presents the findings about the teachers’ levels of wellbeing, perceptions of wellbeing, and factors affecting their wellbeing, with a focus on how school leaders influence wellbeing. The quantitative findings showed large variations between the high wellbeing and low wellbeing teachers, and the qualitative findings expand on and explain these differences in terms of leadership actions and individual teacher’s habits, attitudes and circumstances.

5.1 Quantitative Findings

A questionnaire was used to measure the wellbeing of teachers against the PERMA dimensions of wellbeing: positive emotions, engagement, relationships, meaning and accomplishment (Seligman, 2011), and additional dimensions, health, happiness, negative emotion and loneliness (as added by Butler & Kern, 2016, in their PERMA-profiler). After analysis of the data (as described in section 4.6.1) a score was generated for each dimension between zero and 10, and descriptive statistics were calculated. Table 3 and the boxplots in Figure 3 show the results for the sample of 29 teachers.

5 Note (Teacher X) is used to denote a quote from the interview.
6 Please note that in order to help maintain anonymity the terms ‘they’ and ‘their’ will be used as singular pronouns; ‘he’ or ‘she’ will be replaced by ‘they’, and ‘his’ or ‘her’ will be replaced by ‘their’. Also, specific terms which could be identifying are replaced with a generic term, for example a reference to a specific subject will be replaced with [subject] when quoting a teacher.
Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for PERMA-profiler Dimensions of Phase One Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Lower quartile</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Upper quartile</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Interquartile range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P: positive emotion</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E: engagement</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R: relationships</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M: meaning</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: accomplishment</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H: health</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative emotion</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loneliness</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. Box plot of PERMA-profiler dimensions of phase one participants.

7 Outliers are not accounted for in Table 3, hence data for engagement and happiness are different to boxplots in Figure 3.
Looking at the overall data, the highest median for the PERMA-profiler dimensions was for relationships, and the lowest median was for accomplishment. At the most positive end of the spectrum relationships, meaning and happiness all had maximum scores of 10, and upper quartiles of nine, indicating for these three dimensions 25% of teachers rated between nine and 10. However, the accomplishment dimension had the lowest median, maximum and upper quartile of the dimensions, indicating that even for the highest wellbeing teachers accomplishment does not score as highly as other dimensions.

The largest spread, both range and interquartile range, was for loneliness, indicating a wide variation in the loneliness experienced by the 29 participants. These results show that for some teachers, loneliness could be a major concern. For the positive measures of wellbeing, health had the largest variation. Also, for health the median is closer to the upper quartile than the lower quartile, and the mean is lower than the median, which both indicate a negative skew to the data (see Figure 4). This indicates that there are large differences in health across the 29 teachers, but that for the majority of participants sub-optimal health is not a concern when compared to other factors. There are also large differences in happiness. Looking at the happiness boxplot in Figure 3, two outliers are identified with scores of 1.0 and 2.0. Even when these are accounted for in the box plot it can be seen that happiness shows a positive skew to the data (see Figure 4), as the mean is higher than the median, and the median is the same as the lower quartile. However, despite the positive skew, after accounting for outliers the lower quartile for happiness is higher than the lower quartiles for the majority of the other PERMA dimensions (see Figure 3). These factors indicate low happiness was a major factor for two participants, but suggests that for most participants low happiness was not a concern when compared to other factors.

![Negative skew example](image1.png) ![Positive skew example](image2.png)

*Figure 4. Representation of negative and positive skew in data*
These data showed a wide variation in the wellbeing scores for the sample of 29 teachers, which enabled the selection of three high wellbeing and three low wellbeing teachers to participate in the qualitative data collection.

5.2 Qualitative Findings

Semi-structured interviews provided the six teachers in phase two with an opportunity to discuss their wellbeing in more detail, and to capture their views about factors they perceived affected their wellbeing, with a particular focus on how they viewed leadership practices as impacting their wellbeing. The participant journals they completed after the interview were a chance for further reflection on the daily occurrences that influenced their wellbeing. The analysis of the rich qualitative data generated is presented in this section, where I integrate the interview and journal data to explain how both contributed to my inductive coding and identification of themes. A more in-depth discussion of how these findings relate to the research questions and the academic literature will follow in Chapter 6, where I also integrate the quantitative data, and triangulate between questionnaire, interview and journal data to identify the key leadership actions that influence teacher wellbeing.

The nine themes identified through inductive coding are:

1. Concepts of wellbeing
2. Self-care
3. Experiences of stress
4. Personal and professional identity
5. Workload
6. Work and home life interface
7. Interactions with colleagues and students
8. Learning, change and growth
9. Leadership communication

There is some overlap between these themes, for example, when teachers described stressful situations, they referred to issues such as workload, or communication with leaders. To avoid repetition, I made decisions to include descriptions of teachers views in the section I deemed most closely related to their key ideas. There is some description to acknowledge when an idea features prominently in more than one theme.
The following sections present a descriptive analysis of each theme, highlighting any factors that impacted on teachers’ wellbeing (either positively or negatively), describing the source of that influence (either due to the individual, leaders, or others), noting any aspects all teachers agreed on, and any differences between high wellbeing and low wellbeing teachers. The teachers will be referred to by their letter code, and for reference the wellbeing level of each teacher is given in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher code</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wellbeing level</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 5.2.1 Concepts of wellbeing

In the semi-structured interview teachers were asked ‘How do you define your personal wellbeing?’ ‘How do you rate your overall wellbeing?’ and ‘How would you rate it on a scale of 1 – 10?’. These questions were asked to uncover what teachers think is important for their wellbeing, and allowed me to identify follow up questions to probe the ways in which this related to their role as a teacher.

Most teachers defined wellbeing as quite broad, encompassing mental, emotional and physical aspects as important to wellbeing, such as: “I think wellbeing encompasses all aspects in terms of mental wellbeing, emotional wellbeing, physiological, psychological and just you know, physical wellbeing in terms of your health” (Teacher E). One of the low wellbeing teachers, Teacher A, did not have a clear definition of what factors made up their wellbeing, but was able to list a number of factors that negatively impacted on them, and interestingly, was the only one of the six to mention financial issues as impacting negatively on their wellbeing.

The main difference between the high wellbeing and low wellbeing teachers was the way in which high wellbeing teachers were able to talk enthusiastically about examples that illustrated their high wellbeing, such as self-care habits.

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8 Comments from teachers include the abbreviations they used: HOD (head of department) and SLT (senior leadership team).
5.2.2 **Self-care.** The high wellbeing teachers had an awareness of the importance of regular habits to enhance their wellbeing:

I think that wellbeing needs to be something that happens on a regular basis... somehow building it into what we do in our daily lives, at work, in the workplace, it needs to be at the forefront of what we do. (Teacher F)

A regular activity was also cited by Teacher C as an important factor in their high wellbeing: “I've got quite a meaningful pursuit outside of school and I think to me it's a very valuable thing… that's a big part of why I feel a good sense of wellbeing, even through difficult times as a teacher”. Enabling this time for habits outside of work also links to the discussion on work/life balance (see section 5.2.6).

Two high wellbeing teachers and one low wellbeing teacher talked about prioritising the need for rest or sleep, such as: “those days where you're just low, I know that I'm tired and I need to rest” (Teacher F). Teacher A was able to block out emotions in order to sleep: “I do sleep well in general, which is a great thing, I think I am able to block out my emotions when I'm really tired”, and Teacher F used a bedtime routine to help them sleep: “sleepy time tea before bed” was mentioned on four of the five days in the journal. However, one low wellbeing teacher, Teacher B, suffered with a lack of sleep due to thinking about issues at school and also journaled about sleepless nights: “the fourth night in a row of insomnia”.

Illness or injury was mentioned by three of the teachers as having a negative impact on their wellbeing. Teacher B had a period of recovery from an accident that had hindered their leisure activities. Teacher D commented on the effect of some medical issues: “when I came back from hospital on Wednesday I got home and I felt absolutely drained”. Dealing with a medical issue, that included a recent operation, impacted on Teacher E too:

the physical [aspect of wellbeing], and that’s, for me, it's my [medical issue] and I think in that aspect of my life I really want it to be a 10 but, yeah, it's something that impacts my emotional and kind of psychological wellbeing.

Healthy eating and exercise did not feature strongly in the interviews or journals. Two high wellbeing teachers mentioned eating habits they saw as beneficial to their health. Teacher D stated that their way of eating was: “just to stop my sugar intake”, and Teacher F: “started a new diet about 3 years ago… and so I found that I feel better from that as well, I have more energy”. No other teachers mentioned eating habits. Exercise was a regular habit for one of the high wellbeing teachers (Teacher F), and had a positive impact on their wellbeing: “keeping up my fitness really helps with those endorphins, and you know, I just...”
feel better after my run and keeping fit, it kind of de-stresses me at the end of the day” and exercise featured every day in their journal. Teacher A briefly discussed exercise: “sometimes exercise, but not like a lot of exercise”. Interestingly, one of the high wellbeing teachers commented on their lack of exercise: “I mean I don't go to the gym, I don't do anything, you know” (Teacher D). Only Teacher F talked about exercise as a way to cope with stress, although stress was an important element for teacher’s wellbeing.

5.2.3 Experiences of stress. All teachers referred to various sources of stress, worry, or anxiety, caused by both school-related and out of school factors. Work-related sources of stress, such as workload and school systems, were mentioned to some extent by all teachers. Non-school sources included: physical health, relationships, and finances. There were varying levels of stress across the sample of teachers. A complex combination of the amount of stress teachers were under, their attitudes towards stress, and their self-care and coping strategies, all contributed to how stress impacted their wellbeing.

There were four teachers, two high wellbeing and two low wellbeing, who responded to stress with varying degrees of putting problems into perspective in order to cope. Comments about perspective included: “I try to think very rationally, think what's more important... because, like, emotional stuff really can get me and get me quite depressed” (Teacher A). Teacher D expressed that if they really did not like a teaching job then they knew they could leave for another job. Teacher E discussed how they changed from being really stressed about whether students would hand in on time, to seeing that as something students needed to take ownership over. Taking a step back after a difficult meeting helped Teacher F:

I’m looking at the person going ‘hey, maybe you're stressed at the moment and you're piling that stress on to us’, and so I was able to look at it from a different perspective, and... I have not taken it to heart, and I haven’t let it affect my wellbeing.

Another teacher viewed a certain amount of stress as useful:

I mean a little bit of stress is good, because it keeps you ticking over, and I think that's widely published, or widely documented in scientific journals, that some pressure, you know like a deadline for marking in three weeks like that's good. (Teacher E)

However, Teacher E also avoided stress at times: “I just kind of ignore some of the stuff that is coming from the top, because I don't really need to stress myself out”. Thus, teacher perspective-taking includes the way they think about situations, and at times deciding what work is most important for them to do.
Two of the low wellbeing teachers were prone to ruminating or suppressing emotions during times of stress. It was apparent that Teacher A was suppressing emotions: “I try to focus on the work, not too much on the personal things” and in a journal entry stated: “I did feel slightly scared about the fact that I am hiding my emotions and losing the ability to be honest, and true about my personal feelings”. Rather than suppressing emotions, Teacher B’s comments pointed to a tendency to ruminate about worries, for example: “switching off the brain, and actually you know, getting away from work thoughts is quite hard”, and when asked about their frustrations with assessment: “that's where like a lot of my thoughts spiral at night”. Fortunately, both Teacher A and B referred to people they talked to at work that provided support during stressful times: “I mean on the whole people at the school are just lovely, there's always someone you can find to talk to if you're feeling stressed” (Teacher B).

All teachers cited relationships as a source of support during stressful times (although at times relationships could also be a source of stress). A clear pattern for the high wellbeing teachers were their references to support from their spouse, family, and/or friends outside of work, indicating that this may be a protective factor against stress:

I feel immensely privileged and lucky actually you know, I come from a stable family, you know I get on with my brothers and sisters, I get on well with my folks, I'm happily married, and I've got a wonderful daughter... those things are stable.
(Teacher C)

The high wellbeing teachers linked supportive relationships to their wellbeing: “I think if my marriage was falling apart, I’d probably be... I wouldn't have rated myself an eight I don’t think on the wellbeing scale” (Teacher C). Teacher F also talked about supportive relationships: “I have a very supportive [spouse]” and “I’m very close to my family. I have a limited amount of friends, I have probably two or three that I would say were close friends, that I can use for support when I need that”. Although Teacher D talked of having moved away from close friends, they did state that: “I think it's made our family closer though, me and my [spouse], because we're on our own.”

In contrast, the low wellbeing teachers did not appear to have consistently supportive relationships with family and friends, and some relationships were a source of stress. One of Teacher A’s family members had been hospitalised due to an accident, and they described the stress they felt due to having to support their family: “I feel that I need to be helping them all the time and maybe for the rest of my life… it makes me really sensitive and sad”. Another complication was the ending of a relationship: “Woke up feeling quite sad about the
relationship break up really affecting my daily life” (Teacher A journal). For Teacher A these sources of stress were a dominant negative influence on their wellbeing. Teacher E stated that: “sometimes my family don't do that [support me] as well as I would hope they would”. Teacher B made no mention of family or friends outside of work.

5.2.4 Personal and professional identity. A strong identity outside of being a teacher was linked to meaning and wellbeing. All high wellbeing teachers had a connection to a meaningful pursuit outside of school. For one teacher their membership of a group outside of school was a significant factor in their high wellbeing, and they summed up the protective effect of this strong identity:

if you perceive yourself only as being a teacher, then as soon as you encounter anything that’s really hard that kind of erodes your entire sense self, but if I've got something outside of that, that is equally as meaningful, then you know, there’s that balance there's that other thing to hold on to. (Teacher C)

Another high wellbeing teacher made reference to working on an out of school project on four of the five days in their journal, which positively influenced their emotions: “went home and finished off [part of project] which ended the day on a high” (Teacher D journal).

However, for two of the low wellbeing teachers they commented on having lost the connection to their out of school pursuits. Teacher A described having a background in music and arts, but no longer being able to access that: “art and music is a big thing, but it's really hard to access it these days because I just have to stay at home all the time”. Another low wellbeing teacher described issues at school as leading to “lack of motivation in other areas of my life” and having an impact on trying to reintroduce a sport: “just trying to get back into that competitiveness, I've actually got my competitive drive back… but with everything else it's just not working out” (Teacher B). This illustrates the impact of teaching on being able to form and sustain an identity outside of work.

The professional identities of high wellbeing and low wellbeing teachers within the study was also linked to wellbeing. Professional identity encompasses the teachers’ reasons for choosing to become a teacher, their educational values and beliefs, and their self-efficacy in their role. Most teachers talked about the desire to become a teacher and their sense of connectedness to the profession: “being a teacher is a big part of how I see myself” (Teacher C); “I love my job, and so my wellbeing is pretty good” (Teacher F).
A common trend was that the lower wellbeing teachers showed a greater misalignment with the school – when teachers did not agree with school policy, or the way in which it was implemented. The school goals for student achievement were a source of disagreement and stress for Teacher E:

I think the stresses from senior management, who want everyone to get over the line, is unrealistic, it's totally unrealistic 90% will pass, 10% will fail, I am happy with that, the school may not be happy … the pressure that we're getting from the top it’s, you know just, it's really unrealistic.

Teacher B’s views on assessment did not align with the school’s practices: “I'm not happy with how we're assessing at school…this assess when ready thing is driving me insane…. I think it's become incredibly murky about what assess when ready means”. This in turn impacted on Teacher B’s wellbeing, causing sleepless nights. Misalignment with the school also seemed to impact teacher self-efficacy – the extent to which a teacher believes they can meet goals and positively influence student learning. Teacher B expressed concerns about students completing assessment tasks:

Most of them are not going to meet the Friday deadline, and we've got the next unit of work starting next week and I'm thinking… ‘I don't like this assessment, are we dragging it out? am I going to be doing this all term? in my own time? and in their own time?’… that's definitely one of the driving points that’s making me really unhappy.

In Teacher A’s journal entries it was apparent they did not agree with the amount of time the school devoted to one particular curriculum area: “I do sometimes feel that [the course] is quite unnecessary for it to be this long” and this then led to low self-efficacy in that subject: “I can feel the students are losing interest in their work…even if I want to, if the student is not interested, I don’t know how to inspire them again”.

In contrast, the high wellbeing teachers more frequently talked about meeting goals, resolving problems, and lessons going well, all indications of higher self-efficacy. For example, Teacher F described a successful lesson:

I had a lesson this morning with a difficult class and they were just like ‘oh thank you miss, that was a really great lesson a miss’, it was quite nice to get that feedback, and that feels good too.

High wellbeing teachers also expressed more agreement with the school culture and practices, sometimes referring to how their current experiences aligned more with their views than negative experiences in other schools. For example, Teacher D contrasted experiences at
a previous school where they were “always about getting those A to C grades, and that was all they were focused on”, and that this focus on students’ academic results was detrimental to teacher wellbeing. In contrast, Teacher D preferred their current school’s approach: “I think we have a much broader view of the, you know, a holistic view of the student and seeing them as a whole”. Teacher F approved of changes the new principal was making at the school: “we have a new principal this year, so lots of changes, but they’re all positive changes, I love it”, and “I think [the principal’s] vision is a really good one”.

5.2.5 Workload. The seemingly never-ending work of teaching is summed up by Teacher C: “one thing that teaching can do is it can threaten to take over your life, you know, because you know, in a way the job is never done, there's always something else you can do”. Teachers talked about the impact of a high workload in terms of stress (see section 5.2.3) and struggling to achieve work/life balance (see section 5.2.6), and they went on to talk about the specific sources of this workload and the impact on their wellbeing.

All teachers experienced some negative impacts on their emotions, energy, or home life, due to high workload, such as: “too busy for morning tea, straight into teaching. Energy levels beginning to waiver” (Teacher F journal); “I'm going to be up until 10 at night planning these again to tweak what I have” (Teacher B); “there’s quite a lot of marking right now, which is a little stressful” (Teacher C journal).

A couple of teachers expressed the view that a high workload is just part of teaching: “you are stressed because you're just trying to get so much, to fit so much into the day, but I think that's just the nature of the job, I really do” (Teacher F) and Teacher B expected that there would be periods of higher workload: “I know that there are peaks and troughs you know”. This could indicate a degree of acceptance, or they may feel a lack of agency in being able to change this.

There was some indication in the responses that a large workload was not necessarily linked to lower wellbeing. One of the low wellbeing teachers made no comments related to workload in the interview, and only one brief comment in the journal about one particular course: “the workload is getting much bigger”. In contrast one of the high wellbeing teachers talked about their workload having increased over recent years:

when I was teaching, just as a [subject] teacher, I definitely didn't do as much in terms of admin and having lots of conversations, and now with my [leadership] role I certainly am having to think about more than what I needed to. (Teacher F)
Teacher F went on to talk about the sense of accomplishment they felt due to promotion to this new role.

One clear message that did emerge was that half of the teachers, two low wellbeing and one high wellbeing, were frustrated with what they perceived as an extra unnecessary workload due to school-based systems or the pace of school-initiated change. Teacher D described their frustration due to parts of the “ICT system” at the school that:

make things more complicated than they need be, and I think if you are a busy teacher you don't necessarily want to be spending more time than needs be trying to do something that's normally quite simple.

A few teachers discussed increased workload due to a school wide mandate to increase student choice. Teacher B summed up the impact of giving students a choice of assessment deadlines: “so I'd be having maybe like 10 kids in a class would meet the actual deadline, and then I would be trying to plan the next unit and mop up the 20 kids who were still wanting feedback”. The impact of offering students more choice in class was also explained as follows:

again the amount of planning for like student choice, you know like their choice in [a subject], like their choice of [topic], or you know like I find myself having to spend even more time like [reviewing topics] I haven't done because students want to choose that [topic]. (Teacher B)

There was resentment from teachers about tasks that they viewed as ‘admin’ or ‘compliance’ which reduced teacher engagement as these tasks detracted from the ‘real’ work that they wanted to do. Meetings were one example: “these meetings always make me feel a little ineffective as there is so much to do but yet we don’t seem to be doing anything much apart from admin” (Teacher D journal). Teacher E discussed their views of unnecessary administration work: “all this red tape and compliance costs, compliance paperwork, which is definitely impacting mental wellbeing for teachers”. This teacher also suggested that part of the problem was adding in more expectations without making time for them: “if you add something in then something has to come out, and so where's the time in the school day, or in our lives, to get the teaching and learning right?” (Teacher E). Teachers responded differently to increased workload, Teacher F described that: “I do work through my lunch breaks, but that's my decision to do that”, but Teacher E, who resented the way assessment strategies were changing took a different approach: “I just kind of ignore some of the stuff that is coming from the top”.

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Only one teacher commented about a change that was made by senior leadership to attempt to reduce workload by cutting down meeting time:

"taking the meetings away from after school, where they were sometimes an hour or longer, or people weren't leaving until well after five, that's not there anymore, and we're meeting in the mornings, and that's really affected the wellbeing in a positive light. (Teacher F)"

However, the view that leadership was helping to reduce workload was in the minority. Teachers generally perceived that leaders had created extra unnecessary workload due to certain school policies and school wide changes.

5.2.6 Work and home life interface. The cross over between teachers’ work and home life has been evident already in this chapter. For example, having a strong identity outside of work is important for wellbeing, but workload can impact on whether teachers have the time and energy to create and maintain that identity. Teachers talked about the impact that work can have on home life, and consequently affect their wellbeing: “I think your job has a huge impact on it [wellbeing] in my opinion… even if, with the best will in the world, I think you do take things home if things aren't going well” (Teacher D).

Creating a work/life balance is more heavily influenced by school related factors than other forms of self-care discussed in section 5.2.2. The high wellbeing teachers were more likely to talk about how they achieved a work/life balance, for example, Teacher C had strong boundaries around their time: “whenever we have a [group meeting], well to me it's one night a week and on that night school work is not important enough to take away from my [group] so I really protect it”. Teacher F was aware of balancing their time by ensuring other activities were part of their regular routines: “awareness of trying to fit everything else in that I do in my private life, but also, I am aware of my family, and my exercise, and being with friends, and taking that time out”.

The low wellbeing teachers expressed difficulties in preventing work intruding into life outside school, or vice versa, and did not perceive that they had adequate work/life balance: “trying to have a life at the same time is not really working well” (Teacher A). These teachers also gave examples of how work life was detracting from their home life:

"in the last few weeks I've not been motivated to [do activities] and that's also been playing on my mind a lot, so... I have a little bit of that guilt that I’m not getting out to [do activities], or I have prioritised [activities] over doing work. (Teacher B)"
Alternatively, home life could be a distraction from work: “had a phone call from my parents (dad) during the middle of the day (interval) which really affected my day… I arrived in my next class feeling really irritated” (Teacher A journal). Teachers’ circumstances - both in school and out of school - affected the degree to which they could achieve a work/life balance.

5.2.7 Interactions with colleagues and students. All teachers viewed relationships with colleagues and students as positive and beneficial to their wellbeing. Teachers described good collegial relationships in teams: “the people with whom I work, the people that I sit next to in the office you know, I get on with them really well” (Teacher C) and “my department are really supportive, really friendly, endearing, engaging, funny” (Teacher D). Some teachers also identified positive individuals that influence their enjoyment of work: “[department colleague] is really helping too actually, because she's super positive” (Teacher E). One teacher commented on the increased importance of these workplace relationships after moving to a new area, away from close friends: “I think that kind of places more of a... I don't know, I think it makes it more important that your working relationships are good” (Teacher D).

These positive relationships with colleagues were also a source of support during stressful times: “on the whole people at the school are just lovely, there's always someone you can find to talk to if you're feeling stressed” (Teacher B). One teacher described how the empathy they received from departmental colleagues was helpful when talking about personal problems:

they listen to it and try to give me a lot of advice, or there's not a lot that they can do about it so they listen and show empathy, or sympathy, to me and that really actually does help, it feels like someone's trying to understand my emotions so that’s really good. (Teacher A)

Colleagues were also a source of support for each other in terms of self-care: “we're going to at lunch time, if it's nice, go out and go for a 15 minute walk, because we were talking about, they were talking about their stress levels” (Teacher F).

The same pattern of generally positive interactions was also true for the teacher-student relationships at the teachers’ current school: “year 12s, my wonderful class! I really enjoy this group – a nice relaxing environment” (Teacher B journal) and “great first lesson and feeling super energised. Relationships in this class strong” (Teacher F journal). There
were only a few slightly negative comments from teachers about frustrations with students not handing in work, or their behaviour.

Where teachers had experienced negative interactions with others at previous schools, they described how this was detrimental to their wellbeing: “I worked with a lady and she wasn't very pleasant at all…it got to the point where I was going to leave, and it really did affect my wellbeing” (Teacher D). Poor student behaviour at a previous school was described by Teacher E: “students were totally running amok”, which contributed to their low morale: “I would dread getting up to work”. The contrast to previous bad experiences reinforced how beneficial positive working relationships were for all teachers.

5.2.8 Learning, change and growth. Teachers discussed how their learning, including formal professional development, impacted their wellbeing. Collaboration was often mentioned in terms of activities that were used to try to facilitate learning. Learning and collaboration were often linked to changes in the organisation, and all teachers commented on how the changes taking place impacted their wellbeing.

On the whole, teachers’ comments about professional development were positive, with teachers valuing time for their own learning, and feeling a sense of achievement through progressing. Teacher B appreciated the extra time available for professional development (PD) at the end of the year: “I feel like at this school we are very lucky with the seniors leaving for study leave and we've got all those weeks of PD”. Teacher C spoke of the benefits of pursuing goals: “feeling a sense of positive movement towards a noble goal is one way to feel good about yourself, you know, positive emotions associated with making progress towards a noble goal, or some kind of goal that's meaningful”. Mentoring was another form of professional development mentioned by one teacher:

I have a meeting with my mentor, and it’s... their role is to improve my practice, and to discuss the why, and the what, and the where, and the how, and we have a lot of conversations like that, and I always come away feeling ‘Ah, that's really good, that's really helpful for my practice, for building capacity, this is really good’. (Teacher F)

Interestingly, mentoring was not mentioned by any other teachers, which may indicate it does not occur frequently, or does not have a large impact, or is informal and therefore not referred to as mentoring.

A difference between the high and low wellbeing teachers was the way in which they took ownership of their practice and learning. Two of the high wellbeing teachers described
being reflective about their practice as a positive. Teacher C talked about the meetings in which leaders challenged teachers thinking: “[the leaders are] really challenging us with that reflective... being reflective on our own practice, you know, that's stuff’s good”. Teacher F journaled about how reflection on their practice positively impacted them: “lessons went smoothly, new teaching practice worked well. I was able to spend time reflecting on my practice and felt rejuvenated by this”. The high wellbeing teachers were also proactive about initiating their own learning. Teacher F took up many professional development opportunities offered by the school: “the choice is to take that opportunity, there's no not taking any opportunities, and incorporating that, because it's all learning and increasing my knowledge, and it impacts on the students that I work with, and my team”. Teacher C took charge of their own learning by including learning outside of the school context, which was clearly important to them: “[I] educate myself in other ways, and you know, sharpen my mind in other ways, things like reading and listening to podcasts”.

There were no clear differences between the way that high wellbeing and low wellbeing teachers viewed collaboration. At times collaboration was seen in a positive way, for example maximising engagement: “I mean I'm engaged here, definitely. You know, I'm team teaching with [a colleague], engaged in what we're doing in [subject], you know, like it’s... I would say that's a 10 [out of 10]” (Teacher E). Collaboration during meetings was also a chance to obtain feedback, positively impacting on one teacher’s self-efficacy: “we had a department check-marking meeting in the morning. I had a couple of pieces of student’s work checked by [the HOD] and she gave me some reassuring feedback about my grade-assigning (Teacher C journal). Teacher C also appreciated the way in which leaders used collaboration to solve an issue, including teachers in the discussion:

it's not done it in an aggressive way, it's not done in an accusatory or finger wagging sort of a way, it's like ‘this is an issue, this is what the numbers are saying, can we work together to improve those numbers?’ …. we feel part of the solution rather than just being, you know, symbols of the problem. (Teacher C)

Teacher F summed up the way in which collaboration had a positive impact on them: “I'm used to working in teams, sharing ideas, and building capacity.... and it's all very uplifting, and feels great” (Teacher F).

When collaboration was not used, it could have a negative impact, for example when a leader approached a meeting in a non-collaborative way: “no collaboration, yep, and that makes it unfair for me, and I feel for my colleagues as well because they never got an
opportunity to share their great ideas, well none of us did.” (Teacher F), and this resulted in negative feelings for the teachers involved: “we were all quite down and flat” (Teacher F). Teacher B felt some frustration around a period of very directed professional development “that was exhausting, it was very, very... everything was structured throughout” and contrasted that to times they had been able to choose how to use their own professional development time, which they preferred.

Even when leaders were attempting to collaborate, it was viewed negatively if it was not seen as productive, or if those involved did not see the purpose. The following comment highlights how a collaborative approach may be resented:

like how many times have we looked at our school goals, and department goals, and coming up with... we spent an hour coming up with a phrase for [subject], like why? Why? Why do we spend an hour to define, you know, [strand of subject]? (Teacher E)

Much of the learning and collaboration discussed was to enable improvements and changes in practice. The changes occurring in the school were highlighted by four of the teachers as negatively impacting on teacher wellbeing. Changes included adapting procedures and practices, such as methods of assessment, or the introduction of new approaches, such as universal design for learning (UDL). Two of the low wellbeing teachers commented on negative impacts due to these types of changes which adversely impacted on their workload:

[I am] still trying to bring in like learner agency and UDL into [the unit], you know things that are coming up next week, and going ‘oh I'm going to be up until 10 at night planning these again to tweak what I have’. (Teacher A)

we are changing things up in [the course], but I mean, [department colleague] said [the course] takes the most out of her teaching load, you know, because you have to get your head around it, and I think we've made it harder for ourselves, I don't know why. (Teacher E)

Despite the impact of the extra workload, Teacher B could see valid reasons for the changes being implemented: “quite a lot of change, particularly I mean like the UDL stuff absolutely, like we need to be offering, you know this real differentiation and offering everything to all, like I think that's really important”. However, Teacher E perceived the changes as needless, the increased workload as an unnecessary burden, and expressed a reluctance to change their practice: “you know, what I've done in the past has worked, why are we changing it?”.

Teacher D, a high wellbeing teacher, drew attention to differing perceptions about the changes taking place in the school, stating that “it does seem that some people are getting a little overwhelmed with the amount of change”, and when giving a specific example about
changes to an appraisal document contrasted her view, to others “it’s perceived as more work, but it's probably not”. However, this same teacher did think the pace of change was too fast:

Negatively... I would say at the moment there's a lot of things going on, and a lot of changes are occurring, which obviously, you know, change is, I think change is probably required, but I would maybe slow down a little bit.

Other teachers agreed that there were a lot of changes occurring in the school: “too much change” (Teacher E), “trying to embed so many things at once” (Teacher B), “lots of changes” (Teacher F). However, the high wellbeing teachers saw the changes as necessary to improve teacher practice and student outcomes. As Teacher D explained: “they make sense so that’s... I think I'm one for if change is… occurs because it makes sense, then we just have to do it”. Teacher F also agreed, stating that:

We have a new principal this year, so lots of changes, but they’re all positive changes, I love it because it's giving me a different perspective on the changes, and how it's impacting on our students, and it is impacting on our students, and I'm learning all this new stuff, and I feel really positive about it, it's just great.

In general, the high wellbeing teachers embraced change more readily than low wellbeing teachers.

5.2.9 Leadership communication. Communication between leaders and teachers is a thread that runs through much of the findings so far. When teachers described leaders at the school it was apparent most had good working relationships with at least some of the leaders, for example: “I think that my [team leader], I've got a good relationship with her” (Teacher B) and there was a positive working environment: “I feel supported by the school so that's good” (Teacher C). However, despite these good relationships there were differences in how the low wellbeing and high wellbeing teacher perceived leaders’ clarity and consistency of communication, and leaders’ receptiveness to feedback.

The low wellbeing teachers felt uncertain about the changes leaders were introducing. These teachers did not understand the leaders’ rationale for change, were confused about the meaning of new initiatives, and were not confident to implement new practices effectively. Teacher E spoke of frustration at the pace of change, and not understanding leaders’ reasons for making changes:

Too much change and not seeing the reasons for change. Or it could be someone's reason for change, but the evidence doesn't back that up, or it could be a group of leaders change, but the evidence might back some of their claims up, but it's not applicable to this school.
Even when a low wellbeing teacher expressed an understanding about the rationale for certain policies, this did not mean they felt confident to implement them, or agreed with the way in which the school was implementing them. Teacher B agreed with the introduction of universal design for learning (UDL), but was not confident in applying this approach: “and now we're trying to layer in UDL… we are encouraged to just kind of take it step by step, but I don't know if I fully understand the concepts?”.

The high wellbeing teachers generally did not express any confusion around leaders’ communication about school wide policies, and tended to see leaders in a positive light: “the meetings we have with the principal are really positive, and I think her vibe, her positive vibe, and her inspiration and motivation, it affects us all” (Teacher F). They were also more likely to view the messages from leadership as consistent and co-ordinated. Teacher C commented: “they seem to communicate together quite well, and sometimes it's more consistent than others, but on the whole, we tend to get something of the same message from different managerial angles”. Any comments about unclear communication were more related to day to day annoyances, such as: “I don’t know if I am to run a [leaders’] meeting tomorrow so don’t know if I should write an agenda?” (Teacher D journal).

One low wellbeing teacher perceived that leaders did not communicate well with each other: “more being added on from here, and here, because they [leaders] don't talk to each other” (Teacher E). However, when a high wellbeing teacher did perceive potential confusion about school policy, they expected that leaders would clarify this. For example, when Teacher C discussed achievement targets for students as conflicting with individualised programmes with reduced credits for students, and queried which is the higher priority, they noted: “I don't know the extent to which the senior management are answering that particular question, but as things progress it's a question that I think needs to be ironed out, or it needs to be clarified”.

Another way that communication from leaders led to negative emotions was when there was a lack of recognition of the work that teacher did, or teachers perceived that leaders did not really understand the extent of the work they did. For example, at a meeting in which teachers were told they needed to improve student achievement, Teacher B described that their classes had met achievement targets, yet there was no recognition for this, leading to a sense of frustration. Teacher D described the negative emotions when their hard work was not recognised at a previous school: “I kind of really worked hard to make it a wonderful
department, we got brilliant results for our students, but still I didn't get any promotion within that school, and that was a little bit disheartening” (Teacher D).

There were a few examples of when leaders interacted with teachers in quite a directive manner, or teachers viewed school policy as being directives from leadership that they had to adhere to. Teacher E felt that their practice was being constrained by leadership mandates:

I mean if we've got an outcome, if we know what the outcome is and we can co-construct the outcome, then why does it all need to have…. like, I feel like, there is a tick box thing that's happening.

This low wellbeing teacher talked about not following through with the expectations set by leaders instead of voicing concerns. A high wellbeing teacher described an incident in a meeting where a leader was directive and ignored feedback:

being spoken to in quite a direct, and... I'm not going to say aggressive, but it's certainly like there was an anger to the tone, where it caused a quietness about us, because we're not used to being spoken to like that. And, it wasn't a telling off, it was like they were directives… our voice wasn't being listened to… and what caused the quietness was when we spoke up about an idea it was put down. (Teacher F)

However, in contrast to how the low wellbeing teacher responded when they did not agree with leadership actions, this high wellbeing teacher put the interaction into perspective as a one off, and felt confident to approach that leader with feedback about how they felt:

I will at some stage, make an appointment or a meeting with that person and just say ‘hey, this is how I felt’ and that's important to me to tell that person how I felt at that moment, because I don't know that they feel that. (Teacher F)

All three high wellbeing teachers were confident in giving feedback and expressing opinions to leaders, as in the previous example, and felt that leaders listened to their feedback: “everyone's voices are valued which is quite nice, everyone can have their say and it doesn't really matter... there's very little agenda or right answer and everyone can talk about the things that are plaguing them” (Teacher C). They described senior leaders as being accessible and receptive to their views: “I think they have got it right, in the way that they are approachable, they do listen, … I think they listen to teacher voice, and I think they do value it” (Teacher D). However, all three of the low wellbeing teachers expressed some degree of negativity around voicing their opinions and ideas. Teacher A was confident working directly with their HOD, yet when asked about the senior leadership team (SLT) expressed a degree of anxiety:
I think it's actually quite good that I don't have to go to the SLT to ask for such and such, I can just ask my HOD… and it's quite a nervous thing to be going into like SLT office and asking for something.

Another teacher expressed similar views, that they were happy to approach some leaders about issues, but were anxious about approaching their HOD about a difference in opinions about how assessments should be conducted: “I've been a bit nervous about actually being truthful with my HOD” (Teacher B). Another teacher described an interaction in which they did not raise their concerns about an assessment: “I said ‘no’. Well, I didn't say no in front of her” (Teacher E), after which they went on to run the assessment according to their own ideas. At times the low wellbeing teachers felt that leaders would not listen to their opinions: “I think my thoughts around it will just kind of fall on deaf ears” (Teacher B).

5.3 Conclusion

The findings presented in this chapter are a summary of teachers’ accounts of their wellbeing, and provided an insight into the influences on teacher wellbeing. The quantitative data showed there are some large differences in teacher wellbeing levels within the school, and the qualitative data showed some clear patterns in the high wellbeing and low wellbeing teachers’ actions, and their perceptions of leadership actions. Teachers’ habits, such as their coping strategies, and circumstances, such as relationships with family, affected their wellbeing. Leadership actions, such as facilitating collaboration or listening to feedback, also influenced teacher wellbeing. By looking for commonalities within each group of teachers - the low wellbeing teachers and the high wellbeing teachers – there is clear evidence of particular leadership practices that influence teacher wellbeing. Further synthesis of this evidence, and comparison with existing literature, is needed to give a cohesive picture of how leaders can enhance teacher wellbeing.
Chapter 6 Discussion

The architecture of Positive School Leadership provides an alternative [to deficiency-based thinking] by using a sharper lens to look at the patterns of leadership behaviors that honor and support the work of all members of the school community and create incubators for success. (Murphy & Louis, 2018, p. 60)

The findings of my research show that the actions of leaders can enhance the wellbeing of teachers and facilitate teacher flourishing. The flourishing teachers in this study had higher self-efficacy, greater commitment to school goals and to professional growth. Flourishing teachers can positively impact student outcomes and enable educational improvement. By using a ‘weaving narrative’ approach (Fetters et al., 2013) that integrates the quantitative and qualitative data, this chapter provides an in-depth, evidence-based discussion on the factors that impact teacher wellbeing, including a focus on identifying leadership practices that enhance teacher wellbeing.

6.1 Differences in Teacher Wellbeing Within the School

The findings revealed a large variation in teacher wellbeing levels across the school. Reasons for this variation include the nature of the interactions between leaders and teachers, and the teachers’ individual perceptions, practices and circumstances. The combination of these factors explain the wide variation in the teacher wellbeing scores seen in the sample of 29 teachers from phase one of the study, the questionnaire, as shown in Figure 5.

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9 Note that the interview and journal data were integrated during analysis as outlined in section 5.2.
The scores for each wellbeing dimension for each of the six teachers in phase two are shown superimposed on the data from phase one in Figure 5. None of the high wellbeing teachers had all of their scores in the ‘best’ 25% for every dimension (high for each PERMA-profiler dimension apart from negative emotion and loneliness), with two teachers scoring five out of nine in the top 25%, and one teacher with six out of nine. Some scholars may argue that this does not truly reflect a ‘flourishing’ teacher. Huppert and So (2013), for example, defined flourishing as people with eight of their 10 features of flourishing at the top end of the scale in their sample. However, their definition led to identifying 15.8% of their sample as flourishing (Huppert & So, 2013), and as the three high wellbeing teachers in this study are in the top 15% of this sample, I have classified them as flourishing.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>PERMA-profiler average score</th>
<th>Teacher rating in interview</th>
<th>Any teacher reference to change since completing the questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5 to 6</td>
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<td>B</td>
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<td>D</td>
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<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Teacher indicated they thought their wellbeing score had dropped since completing questionnaire due to the impact of family illness</td>
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</table>

For the six teachers that participated in phase two of the research their responses in the interview about their level of wellbeing show a close agreement to their scores in the questionnaire, as shown in Table 5. Teacher E’s ratings showed the largest difference (1.3), however, they explained poor physical health dominated their wellbeing, and other aspects of their wellbeing were “OK”. For each teacher in phase two, their individual PERMA-profiler dimension scores were inspected to look for any that stood out as being higher or lower than the rest. When asked about any dimension that was higher or lower, the teachers explanations showed a close agreement to the questionnaire results. For example, Teacher C’s score for meaning was 0.7 higher than any other dimension, and when asked about meaning in the interview it was clear meaningful work and a meaningful pursuit outside of work were of great importance to them for their wellbeing. Teacher A rated a one out of 10 in the questionnaire for happiness, identified as an outlier for the sample, and when asked about feeling happiness and joy in the interview they rated it as a two out of 10. The triangulation of the quantitative questionnaire data and qualitative data from the interview shows that teachers’ self-evaluations of their wellbeing were consistent.
6.2 Leadership Practices That Enhance Wellbeing

[Leaders are] building me as a person, that's making me more knowledgeable, it's making me a better person, and better at my job, and I see that in such a positive light. (Teacher F).

Leadership practices clearly have an influence on teacher wellbeing. However, the quantitative data showed a wide range of teacher wellbeing scores. High wellbeing teachers in the study, such as Teacher F, attributed certain leadership actions to enhancing their wellbeing. However, other teachers experienced a negative impact on their wellbeing due to leaders’ actions. Teachers’ experiences of how leadership actions impacted their wellbeing were markedly different, despite being within one New Zealand secondary school. This generates the question as to whether the high wellbeing teachers had a more positive experience of leadership actions because their wellbeing was already high, or whether their wellbeing was increased due to leadership actions. As subjectivity and bias are crucial aspects of a constructivist approach, I recognise that each teacher could have a different perception or view of the ‘same’ experience, which could explain variations in how teachers interpreted leaders influence on their wellbeing. Different experiences with different leaders could also explain variations in teachers’ interpretations of leadership actions. Teachers in the study could regularly interact with two middle leaders (as they belonged to both a subject department and a cross-curricular team), and different members of SLT. The degree of interaction between teachers and leaders also varied. For example, three teachers in the study were in middle leadership positions and had more interaction with senior leaders in the course of their role than the other three teachers, and were more likely to interact with senior leaders one-to-one. Although the teachers in this study were exposed to many different interactions with different leaders there were clear trends in leadership practices that the teachers identified as enhancing their wellbeing. While cause and effect cannot be demonstrated in this study, the findings – supported by relevant literature - strongly suggests that there are three leadership actions that enhance teacher wellbeing:

1. Ensuring teachers feel that their voice, work, and effort are valued;
2. Facilitating collaboration and professional development that is meaningful to teachers;
3. Enabling teachers to have sufficient agency in decision making and changes.
Each of the actions are grounded in the perception of teachers. For example, actions that make one teacher feel valued may have little impact on another teacher. However, leaders need to be responsive to individuals and context, and whether (or not) a leadership action impacts on a teacher’s wellbeing can be linked to the leader’s responsiveness, relationship building, and social and emotional competence.

These actions do not have distinct boundaries; they overlap and influence each other. For example, professional development can be undertaken in relation to changes occurring in schools, such as a meeting to learn about universal design for learning as part of school wide changes to assessment practice. Therefore, these actions do not stand alone, but are a set of practices that link to the central idea of positive school leadership, that the role of school leaders is to create an environment in which people can thrive (Cherkowski, 2018; Murphy & Louis, 2018), with a particular focus on teacher wellbeing.

6.2.1 The importance of teachers feeling that they are valued. The teachers in this study talked about appreciation, recognition and feeling valued as contributing positively to their wellbeing. Other research supports this finding as feeling appreciated is linked to flourishing (Hone, Jarden, Duncan, & Schofield, 2015). When leaders listened to teachers’ opinions and ideas, the teachers felt valued, and all of the high wellbeing teachers in the study felt that their voice was heard. This is critical for both educational leadership and teacher wellbeing as “voice creates opportunities for influence, and the capacity to exercise influence is critical both for self-efficacy and for developing teams” (Murphy & Louis, 2018, p. 69, emphases in original).

When leaders showed they valued teachers by acknowledging and listening to them, the teachers’ self-efficacy was enhanced. The quantitative data showed high wellbeing teachers accomplishment scores (7.7 to 8.7) were higher than low wellbeing teachers (5.3 to 6.0). The accomplishment scores were based on teachers ratings of how well they achieved goals and handled responsibilities, which therefore gives an indication of their self-efficacy, as high self-efficacy is linked to achieving goals (Bandura, 1995). Self-efficacy is also associated with enhanced wellbeing and performance (Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2001). This interpretation is supported by the qualitative data, as the high wellbeing teachers more frequently described meeting goals, such as gaining promotion. Self-efficacy is also linked to

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10 There are a number of qualitative explanations for the PERMA-profiler dimension scores. Rather than list all possible explanations here, they are presented throughout this chapter as they link to the themes discussed.
one’s belief that they can influence their circumstances (Bandura, 1995), which was demonstrated by high wellbeing teachers in my study as they were more likely to approach leaders to ask questions, or pass on ideas or feedback. In contrast, the low wellbeing teachers were reluctant to approach some of the leaders in the school, commenting that leaders would not listen to their ideas or concerns. This finding is consistent with McCallum’s (2010) study that found when leaders fail to acknowledge teachers’ concerns this has a negative impact on wellbeing. Furthermore, the low wellbeing teachers in the study commented on leaders’ lack of understanding of the effort they were putting into their work, or their workload, which led to significant feelings of frustration. However, other research shows when leaders demonstrate empathy - actively understanding others perspectives and concerns - they create resonance with employees, increasing positive emotion and bringing out the best in people (Goleman et al., 2002). A key takeaway from this research is that teachers feel valued when they feel understood, and leaders need to effectively demonstrate empathy in order to communicate that with teachers.

Teachers in this study linked the notion of feeling appreciated to recognition from leaders, such as through positive comments or promotions. The high wellbeing teachers scores for meaning (8.7 to 9.7) and accomplishment (7.7 to 8.7) were much higher than the low wellbeing teachers scores for meaning (3.3 to 6.0) and accomplishment (5.3 to 6.0). This was explained by two of the high wellbeing teachers who talked of being promoted to middle leadership positions in the last few years, which had positively impacted on their wellbeing through increased meaning and accomplishment in their work. The idea of recognition at work links to three areas of research: strengths use, appropriate appreciation, and workload. First, when the teachers in this study were promoted, they felt their strengths had been recognised, and it positively impacted their sense of accomplishment. This is consistent with Roffey’s (2012) research that demonstrates when leaders recognise teacher strengths, teachers respond positively. Other studies also show how a strengths-based approach in the school or workplace promotes teacher or employee wellbeing (Cherkowski, 2018; Hone et al., 2015; Murphy & Louis, 2018). Second, in this study two teachers responded positively to being promoted, and felt appreciated. However, this is different to the findings in another study that teachers were unwilling to take on leadership roles as they have seen leaders overwhelmed by workload, and see leadership roles as taking away from their ability to make a difference in the classroom (M. Cameron et al., 2007). As Chapman and White (2019) explain, individuals differ in how they prefer appreciation to be demonstrated, and therefore
leaders should consider what kind of recognition is appropriate. Third, recognition also links to workload. The issue of workload elicited a mixed response from the teachers in this study. Some high wellbeing teachers talked of having taken on extra responsibilities and workload, but overall the opportunities that they were given contributed positively to their wellbeing. When teachers were valued they were willing to work harder, as “when people see that their contributions are valued, the significance of the work increases (Grant, 2008). When recognised by leaders, a teacher may work even harder” (Murphy & Louis, 2018, p. 94). In contrast, when teachers in this study perceived that a higher workload was due to unnecessary administration work, or poorly managed initiatives, they expressed resentment, their wellbeing decreased, negative emotion and tiredness increased. Fullan (2005) sums up this sentiment with the statement: “It is not hard work that tires us out as much as negative work” (p. 26). Empirical evidence has demonstrated that teacher burnout is not correlated to workload, but to other factors such as whether leaders employ a transformational leadership style (Heidmets & Liik, 2014). These findings indicate that ensuring the nature of the work makes teachers feel valued, may be more important than workload in terms of impacting teacher wellbeing. Although leaders have limited control over many aspects of workload, by focusing on ongoing professional development opportunities they can increase the meaning of work and teacher job satisfaction (Day & Gu, 2010).

6.2.2 The impact of meaningful professional development.

Reducing the hours of work is not enough if work is soul destroying. Nor is work-life balance the solution, because it gives us the excuse for tolerating awful jobs, with the compensation that we can recover at home. Most jobs which do not expand our talents make us into part-time slaves. (Mulgan, 2005 as cited in Day & Gu, 2010, p. 141)

All teachers in the study referred to the positive impact of professional development, with many discussing the sense of achievement they experienced through their own personal and professional growth. This aligns with research that meaningful professional development is linked to teacher morale (Leithwood, 2006), and job satisfaction (Murphy & Louis, 2018).

Teachers in this study viewed professional development as meaningful when they perceived it met their own needs for development, as well as enhancing student outcomes. The quantitative data in my study showed high wellbeing teachers accomplishment scores (7.7 to 8.7) were higher than low wellbeing teachers (5.3 to 6.0). One way in which the qualitative data explains this difference is that the high wellbeing teachers were more likely
to take ownership of their own learning, were involved in a wider range of professional learning and were learning through taking on new responsibilities. This is consistent with Ryan and Deci’s (2000) work that intrinsically motivated people are more likely to seek out challenges and learning, and have a higher subjective wellbeing. Leaders in this study enabled the high wellbeing teachers to take ownership of their learning when they provided choice in professional development and gave teachers more responsibility. In contrast, the low wellbeing teachers expressed frustration when they perceived professional development as not relevant, or as too directive, or not meeting their needs. This oversight of teachers’ development needs is summed up by Murphy and Louis (2018, p. 24): “it is typical to hear that ‘it is all about the students and their academic success.’ This near-exclusive focus on ends limits attention to the means (or those teachers who provide the means) as valuable in their own right”. The findings of my research support Le Fevre, Timperley and Ell (2016) who argue that to avoid the feeling that professional development is being ‘done to’ teachers, learning needs to be adaptive and responsive to teacher needs. Positive school leadership is concerned with all members in the organisation flourishing, including teachers’ personal needs for growth and development (Murphy & Louis, 2018). When leaders facilitate professional development that meets each individual teacher’s need for growth the accomplishment aspect of wellbeing increases.

A key finding was that when teachers participated in effective collaboration it increased their engagement in their work. For example, Teacher C, who scored 9.0 for engagement, described a meeting in which leaders asked teachers to work alongside them to improve student outcomes, and responded positively to the challenge. This is consistent with research that shows successful schools are learning communities that promote collective learning among staff, and where leaders are actively involved (Day & Gu, 2010). However, Teacher B, who scored 8.3 for negative emotions, explained the negative emotions they felt at that same discussion to improve student achievement, when leaders did not recognise that Teacher B had positively impacted student achievement. These examples show how important it is for leaders to use a strengths-based focus during collaboration if they are to enable teachers to flourish. This conclusion is supported by Cherkowski (2018) who describes how positive leaders facilitate collaboration to improve teaching using a strengths based focus. Another issue highlighted by Teacher C and Teacher B’s different responses to the same meeting is the need for leaders to address the diverse perceptions of teachers, which may be helped to some extent by relationship building (see also section 6.5).
Mentoring was mentioned by one of the teachers in the study as having a significant positive impact on their learning and development. However, no other teachers talked about being mentored. This may be a missed opportunity, as overall the teachers in phase one rated lower than a general sample (Butler & Kern, 2016) for accomplishment, and for 11 of the 29 teachers accomplishment was the lowest of their PERMA scores, which may indicate teachers perceived a lack of personal growth, and there may be a need for more development opportunities for these teachers. Mentoring can provide a means to ensure the personal development of the teacher, which is sometimes overlooked in instructional leadership. Day and Gu (2010) argue that “experience and research, then, suggest that a dichotomy between promoting technical competence and personal growth in professional learning is false, and that ignoring the contribution of teachers’ sense of emotional wellbeing to their capacities to teach to their best is foolish” (p. 38). This is where positive school leadership is more effective than instructional leadership, as it “emphasizes the needs of others, particularly their needs for personal growth” (Murphy & Louis, 2018, p. 23).

6.2.3 Consequences of enabling teacher agency in decision making and changes. The high wellbeing teachers felt that they were listened to, which made them feel valued and gave them a sense of agency in the decision-making processes at the school. Laine and colleagues (2017) also reported that “members of the school community highly valued the possibility of impacting decisions, and the right to have their voices heard” (p. 32), and the degree to which teachers are able to influence decisions has been linked to higher wellbeing (Pisanti, Gagliardi, Razzino, & Bertini, 2003). The quantitative data showed the high wellbeing teachers scored more highly for positive emotions (7.7 to 8.0) than the low wellbeing teachers (4.0 to 6.3), and one way the qualitative data explained this was that the high wellbeing teachers felt more positive about the changes occurring at the school, and felt leaders had considered their feedback about the changes. These findings align with the research work of Hargreaves (2004) who found that when leaders consider teachers’ points of view in the decision making process, teachers are more likely to experience positive emotions. In contrast, the low wellbeing teachers described negative emotions when they felt that their voices were not heard, that they could not influence decisions, and they experienced less agency and feelings of control over their work. A lack of control over workplace decisions has been shown to increase stress and is linked to poor wellbeing, and is more likely to be observed in employees further down the hierarchy of organisations (Marmot,
If leaders can include all teachers in decision making this will have positive impacts on teacher wellbeing.

The degree to which teachers feel a sense of agency in change is also linked to their self-efficacy. The high wellbeing teachers scored highly on accomplishment in the PERMA-profiler, which has been linked to self-efficacy. The high wellbeing teachers in this study were more likely to participate in decisions as they all felt that their voice was valued. This is consistent with Leithwood’s (2006) finding that when teachers participate in decisions affecting their work they experience greater self-efficacy. In contrast, the low wellbeing teachers had lower accomplishment scores, and were not as confident implementing changes such as applying new practices. This may be indicative of ‘implementation dip’, where teachers need to develop new understandings and skills to implement changes (Fullan, 2001), or ‘enactment gap’, the difference between knowing the theory and being able to use it within the classroom (Le Fevre, 2010). The low wellbeing teachers also tended to view changes more negatively, did not see the reasons for change, and did not agree with school policy or the way in which it was implemented. Leaders need to ensure that teachers buy into the changes being proposed, without being coercive (Fullan, 2001) or mandating changes, as that results in negative emotions (Hargreaves, 2004). Compliance, rather than commitment to changes, can occur through traditional change management that views organisations and individuals as having problems that need to be fixed, and uses a sense of urgency to drive change (McQuaid, 2017). Rather than this deficit way of thinking, positive school leadership advocates avoiding a problem-solving approach and listening to the needs and concerns of teachers (Murphy & Louis, 2018). To escape becoming the target of negative emotions associated with imposed change leaders must employ an inclusive change process where participants views are sought and taken into account (Hargreaves, 2004).

A vision and direction are important for school change. Teachers’ meaning scores were linked to their rating of purpose and direction. The high wellbeing teachers meaning scores (8.7 to 9.7) were much higher than the low wellbeing teachers meaning scores (3.3 to 6.0). One explanation for this is that high wellbeing teachers showed more alignment to the school goals and ethos than low wellbeing teachers. This also indicates high wellbeing teachers have a higher organisational commitment - defined as a belief in schools goals, a willingness to work hard for the school and a desire to belong (Leithwood, 2006). It was clear from Teacher E’s negative reaction to spending a one-hour meeting working on department goals that if leaders do not generate teacher buy in to goals, teachers are not willing to work
towards them. However, if a transformational leadership approach is used it can enhance teachers’ organisational commitment (Ross & Gray, 2006) largely due to the vision set by the transformational leader (Leithwood, 1999). A clear and compelling vision is important for increasing organisational commitment and enabling change, and is linked to teachers’ rating of meaning in their work.

The majority of the teachers in this study commented that a lot of change was occurring at the school, with half the teachers commenting that the pace of change was too fast. A pacesetting style of leadership can lead to teachers feeling overwhelmed (Fullan, 2001; Goleman et al., 2002). This was certainly the case for some of the low wellbeing teachers in the study, who felt there was “too much change” (Teacher E) and wanted more time to get used to new initiatives before moving on to the next one. The teachers’ views were consistent with research demonstrating that “staff perceive continuous development as exhausting…[and] should be allowed more time to get accustomed to interventions and their implications before proceeding to new interventions” (Laine et al., 2017, p. 35). Even the high wellbeing teachers commented that at times changes conflicted with existing policies. Leaders need to focus on a few key priorities, instead of pursuing multiple goals, and clearly communicate these priorities to teachers (Le Fevre, 2010), thus, avoiding ‘initiative overload’ and unrealistic timelines so that leader and teacher energy can be sustained through the changes (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006).

One question raised in my analysis of the findings was ‘why do certain teachers feel that leaders did not listen to them?’ It may be down to teachers’ individual perceptions, to lower confidence in speaking up, or perhaps due to differences in opinion. As the low wellbeing teachers tended to not agree with school policy or the way in which it was implemented, this may have led to leaders dismissing their opinions. Enthusiastic supporters of change, such as the high wellbeing teachers in this study, may ensure initial success of new initiative, but in order for changes to be sustainable it is important that those who have concerns are included at the start, and there is consultation throughout the change process (Hargreaves, 2004). Leaders can benefit from redefining resistance to change, as one is more likely to learn something from those one does not agree with (Fullan, 2001). Another viewpoint put forth in the literature is that resistance to change is a form of teacher agency, and rather than deride teachers that act to stop changes, they may in fact be trying to prevent an ill-considered change (Priestley, 2015). Facilitating effective change, as with the other
leadership actions in this chapter, depends on individual teachers’ perspectives as well as leadership actions.

6.3 Teacher Practices and Individual Circumstances That Enhance Wellbeing

Anyway, I’ve noticed that the beyond-school interests and pursuits that I have help to sustain me during the pressure of the working week. I find myself thinking about [out of school] activities, reflecting, planning, and plotting with reasonable regularity during the day. This beyond-school side of my life is really important to sustaining a balanced sense of myself: feeling reasonably competent in two quite different areas of experience provides me with a solid sense of self-assurance and confidence as I muddle through the daily pressures of being a school teacher. (Teacher C journal)

The leadership actions of valuing teachers, creating opportunities for meaningful professional development, and enabling teacher agency in decisions, all contributed to the wellbeing of teachers. However, to acknowledge the complexity of influences on wellbeing, the factors that are related to individuals’ traits are also explored. One of the research questions was focused on what teachers did to maintain and enhance their wellbeing independently of leadership practice. In reality, it is difficult to judge to what degree a teachers’ actions are independent of leadership actions. For example, many teachers described how work has impacts their home life. Therefore, rather than claim these teachers’ actions are truly independent of what occurs in the workplace, this section explores how individual’s actions and circumstances, that may also interact with school life, influence wellbeing.

One of the clearest differences between the high wellbeing and low wellbeing teachers were their ability to respond to stressful situations. High wellbeing teachers tended to have positive coping strategies for dealing with stress and avoided maladaptive coping strategies such as rumination, self-isolation and suppression of emotions. However, an individual’s ability to cope with stress can depend on the number of stressors in their life, and the relative significance of the stressors (Brabban & Turkington, 2002). For example, Teacher E did have some positive coping strategies, but scored 4.7 for health in the PERMA-profiler, and explained in the interview how a medical condition negatively dominated their overall wellbeing.

The flourishing teachers in my research approached challenges and changes positively, seeing change as necessary, and seeing challenges as an opportunity for growth.
This is consistent with research about people that thrive in stressful situations, they tend to: see stress as a normal part of life, are less likely to views stress as catastrophic, and they believe they can make choices, such as changing the situation or how it affects them (McGonigal, 2016). In research involving teachers and doctors in Germany, those that viewed anxiety at work as a source of energy, or making them more active problem-solvers, were less likely to feel overwhelmed and suffer from emotional exhaustion (Strack, Lopes, & Esteves, 2015). Another coping strategy used by a number of the teachers in this study was to view their problems from a larger perspective. This idea of ‘perspective-taking’ is part of the concept of self-compassion (Jennings, 2015; Neff, 2015), which is an important contributor to “teachers’ social and emotional characteristics [that] may play a critical role in teacher and classroom quality” (Jennings, 2015, p. 741). Whilst self-compassion is positively correlated to perspective-taking, it is negatively correlated to rumination and suppression (Jennings, 2015; Neff, 2015). The high wellbeing teachers in this study applied perspective-taking more consistently, whilst the low wellbeing teachers were more prone to rumination and suppression. Often the low wellbeing teachers would suppress thoughts about situations they were worried about by using distractions such as focusing on work tasks. Suppression of unwanted thoughts has been found to exacerbate the very thoughts that one is trying to suppress, cause the thought to return more frequently, cause additional distress, interfere with sleep quality and interfere with the performance of tasks (Najmi & Wegner, 2009; Neff, 2015), demonstrating a possible link between thought suppression and lower wellbeing. Instead of suppressing thoughts, if teachers ruminated about stressful events, they reported negative impacts such as poor sleep. Ruminating about a stressful events has been linked to increased levels of the hormone cortisol, an indication of an increased stress response, which is in turn often linked to poor health (Zoccola & Dickerson, 2012). Therefore, teachers’ mindsets have an important influence on wellbeing.

Positive and supportive relationships with others was a protective factor against stress and a contributor to higher wellbeing for the teachers in this study. All teachers talked about positive relationships with colleagues at work, but the flourishing teachers also talked about supportive relationships with friends and family outside of work, and scored more highly on the positive relationships dimension (9.0 to 10.0) than the low wellbeing teachers (4.7 to 7.7). Maintaining strong social connections is known to be a strategy that teachers use to maintain their wellbeing (McCallum & Price, 2016), can help to reduce stress (Thoits, 2012), and contribute to overall wellbeing (Huppert & So, 2013; Seligman, 2011). As “wellbeing is
intricately connected with a strong sense of personal identity” (Farquhar, 2012, p. 27), another protective factor for the high wellbeing teachers was having a strong identity outside of teaching. For example, Teacher C scored 9.7 for meaning, which they explained in the interview was due to their non-teaching identity which sustained them through the stress of teaching. Stress tends to affect particular identities, or social roles that people hold, and when experiencing stress in one role domain people may invest more energy in other domains as a coping mechanism which can mitigate the effect of stress on overall wellbeing (Thoits, 2012). The challenge for teachers is how to navigate the demands placed on them by their profession so that they have the time and energy to develop and sustain non-teaching identities. Two of the low wellbeing teachers found that school demands encroached on their ability to fully participate in out of school life, whilst high wellbeing teachers placed boundaries around their time, ensuring they spent quality time with family and participated in out of school interests regularly. One low wellbeing teacher did put boundaries around school demands, and regularly met with friends, but their low wellbeing was dominated by health issue.

The coping strategies employed by teachers, and protective factors against stress, has an influence on teachers’ overall wellbeing, although there are limits to the effectiveness of these due to the number and nature of stressors in teachers lives. Together with the leadership actions identified in this chapter these factors combine to explain the varying degrees of teacher wellbeing observed in the school.

6.4 A Dual Continua to Describe Teacher Wellbeing and School Influence

Like my personal life… I do sometimes talk about that … there's not a lot that they can do about it so they listen and show empathy, or sympathy, to me and that really actually does help it feels like someone's trying to understand my emotions so that’s really good. (Teacher A)

Influences on teacher wellbeing are complex. They cannot be attributed solely to school leadership, as a teacher’s individual characteristics and circumstances can have a large effect on their wellbeing. In the case of Teacher A, the quantitative data showed they had the lowest average PERMA-profile score of all the 29 teachers in phase one, but the qualitative data explained their low wellbeing was dominated by a range of factors outside of school and that the empathy displayed by one leader had a positive influence on their wellbeing. In the positive psychology literature flourishing has been discussed in terms of both mental health and mental illness, where the two are not mutually exclusive and can be represented on a dual
continua (Peter et al., 2011). In a similar manner a dual continua model is used here (see Figure 6) to provide a representation of the teachers’ wellbeing scores and the influence of the school on their wellbeing as explored in the interviews and journals, thus integrating the quantitative and qualitative data in a ‘joint display’ (Fetters et al., 2013).

![Image of dual continua model](image)

**Figure 6.** Dual continua: teacher wellbeing and school influence on wellbeing.

As the dual continua illustrates, it is possible for a teacher to have low wellbeing, but for school to be a positive influence on their wellbeing (as in the case of Teacher A). School based factors had a varying degree of influence on the high wellbeing teachers, with Teacher F being most positively influenced by leaders and the school environment, whilst Teacher C attributed the main source of their wellbeing to a meaningful pursuit outside of work and their family. The variations in how leadership actions influenced teacher wellbeing can be explained to some degree by the nature of their interactions, as explained in the next section.
6.5 Relationships, Responsiveness, and Social and Emotional Competence

Great leaders move us. They ignite our passion and inspire the best in us. When we try to explain why they are so effective, we speak of strategy, vision, or powerful ideas. But the reality is much more primal: Great leadership works through the emotions. (Goleman et al., 2002, p. 3)

The impact that leaders have on teachers depends on how leaders are able to connect to teachers on an emotional level. The high wellbeing teachers in my study scored highly for positive relationships on the PERMA-profiler (9.0 to 10.0), and when this was explored in the interview it was clear they had relationships with school leaders where they felt listened to, valued, and understood. These leader-teacher relationships illustrated three key skills that determined whether leaders’ actions enhanced teacher wellbeing: relationship building, responsiveness, and social and emotional competence.

A key finding in this research was the importance of good relationships between leaders and teachers in enabling teachers to flourish. This finding agrees with other academics who assert that positive relationships are at the core of flourishing schools (Cherkowski, 2018) and positive school leadership (Murphy & Louis, 2018). The high wellbeing teachers scored more highly on positive relationships, and were confident to approach senior leaders, or speak with them in meetings. These positive relationships then enabled the teachers to participate in decision making. However, low wellbeing teachers were hesitant to approach senior leaders or go into their office, which could indicate low trust, or be due to teachers’ personal characteristics, or both. Building relationships with teachers is one of the key ways in which leaders can build trust - a key factors in risk taking and change (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Murphy & Louis, 2018). When Teacher B described feeling frustrated because a leader did not understand the amount of effort they were putting into their work, this illustrates the negative effects of leaders not knowing teachers well. Leaders can take the initiative to build relationships with all staff by reaching out to them, an idea that is central to leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, by recognising “that if they want to develop solid, trusting relationships with teachers (and others), they need to get out of their offices, initiate exchanges, and do so in a positive manner” (Murphy & Louis, 2018, p. 57).

Where positive leadership differs from other leadership theories is that it includes a view of leadership as a socially constructed reality, for leaders “it is not who they are, but how others perceive them that matters” (Murphy & Louis, 2018, p. 60). Consistent with the idea of socially constructed reality, and the constructivist worldview used in this research, the views
the teachers expressed in this study are their perspectives of leadership, and are also their reality.

The importance of leadership responsiveness was evident in the findings of this study in a number of ways. Teachers felt valued through different actions such as being listened to, having their strengths acknowledged, or being promoted. Chapman and White (2019) also make the point that leaders need to be responsive to individuals in the way that they show appreciation. Teachers in my study felt that their individual needs were being met when leaders provided them with choice in professional development, and it also increased teachers sense of accomplishment. Le Fevre and colleagues (2016) also make the point that effective professional learning needs to be adaptive and responsive to teacher needs. Leaders in this study also demonstrated responsiveness when they considered teachers’ points of view when making decisions, and when this occurred teachers reported positive impacts on their wellbeing. Other research has also shown that participation in decision making and changes leads to positive teacher emotions and increased wellbeing (Hargreaves, 2004; Murphy & Louis, 2018). As well as responding to individuals, the wider context of the school is important to consider, and different leadership styles may need to be applied in different situations, as what works in one context may not work in another (Fullan, 2001; Goleman et al., 2002).

Teachers experienced positive impacts on their wellbeing when leaders showed positivity, understanding, empathy, trust, and openness. However, wellbeing was negatively affected by a lack of understanding, being unwilling to listen, and not being approachable. This illustrates the importance of social and emotional competencies such as “self-awareness, social awareness, responsible decision making, self-management, and relationship management” (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 494). Several studies agree that a leader's ability to manage emotions is central to effective leadership, including being able to build positive relationships and respond appropriately to others (Cherkowski, 2018; Crawford, 2011; Goleman et al., 2002; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Murphy & Louis, 2018). Throughout this study the role of emotions and social competency in leader-teacher interactions has been highlighted, for good and bad. Fortunately for leaders they can learn to improve their emotional intelligence (Goleman et al., 2002).
6.6 Conclusion

Teacher wellbeing is a complex phenomenon, that is influenced by leadership practices, teachers own habits and routines, and teachers’ individual circumstances inside and outside of school. The extent of leadership influence on wellbeing was shown to vary between teachers, but in all cases leaders did influence teacher wellbeing.

The findings and discussion of my research indicates that the leadership practices of valuing teachers, facilitating meaningful professional development, and enabling teacher agency in decision making and change, clearly influence teacher wellbeing. In order to improve teacher wellbeing leaders also need social and emotional competence to effectively connect with teachers, build relationships, and tailor their actions to be responsive to individuals’ needs. By considering these key ideas some clear guidance can be provided on how leaders can enhance teacher wellbeing.
Chapter 7 Conclusion

Other people matter

- Christopher Peterson, 1950-2012

Christopher Peterson (2008) regularly used this phrase to encapsulate what the positive psychology research tells us about living a good life; that it is not about individuals, but rather the importance of connections to other people. My research has shown that teacher wellbeing deeply depends on connections to others: family, friends, students, colleagues and leaders. The quality of leader-teacher relationships plays an important role in influencing teacher wellbeing. The key findings in this study are that leaders enhance teacher wellbeing when they communicate that teachers are valued, facilitate meaningful learning, and ensure teacher agency in decision making. As other research has also demonstrated, these practices improve education, improve schools, and improve outcomes for students. This final chapter discusses the key findings from this study, recommendations for leadership practice, the strengths and limitations of this research, and implications for further research and for policy makers.

7.1 Profile of a Flourishing Teacher

Leadership practices have a key role in enhancing teacher wellbeing. However, a key finding of this study is that teacher wellbeing also depends upon individual teacher’s habits, attitudes and circumstances. The profile of a flourishing teacher incorporates the common factors that were a positive influence for the three high wellbeing teachers in this study. As it is based on information from only three teachers it may be possible for teachers to flourish without possessing all these qualities, and there may be factors missing from this profile that would be important for other individuals (e.g. cultural or spiritual considerations). However, key ideas in this profile of a flourishing teacher, such as positive relationships and optimism, align with broader positive psychology research about what enables us to flourish (Seligman, 2011).
Profile of a Flourishing Teacher

The flourishing teacher views wellbeing as a broad concept encompassing mental, emotional and physical aspects, and can enthusiastically explain their attitudes, habits and routines they use to maintain their high levels of wellbeing. These routines include healthy eating, exercise, and setting aside time for out of school activities. The flourishing teacher finds meaning in their life outside of school, giving them a strong sense of identity outside of teaching. They have supportive relationships with family and close friends. Their sense of identity and supportive relationships are protective factors against stress. When they do encounter stress or problems, they are optimistic about coping, are able to put problems into perspective, and problem solve without ruminating or suppressing their emotions. The flourishing teacher feels aligned with school values and goals, feels that leaders listen to their ideas, and perceive communication from leaders as clear and consistent. The flourishing teacher takes ownership of their professional development, embraces change and has high self-efficacy.

Although these individual factors affect teacher wellbeing to varying degrees, for all teachers in my study, their wellbeing was influenced by leadership practices. In order for teachers to flourish, individual practices alone are not enough. How teachers are able to flourish is also dependant on positive school leadership practices.

7.2 Recommendations for Practice and Implications for Leaders

I think that wellbeing needs to be something that happens on a regular basis, not at the end of the year, but happens at the beginning, and it's happening... somehow building it into what we do in our daily lives, at work, in the workplace, it needs to be at the forefront of what we do. (Teacher F)

In order to embed wellbeing into the school ethos, wellbeing needs to be part of the everyday actions of people in the school. For leaders, this means taking the actions identified in Chapter 6 and making them into habits. The term ‘habit’ has been chosen as a habit requires actions to be repeated regularly, and the findings showed one off leadership actions were not enough to influence teacher wellbeing, as explained by Teacher F in the quote above. The three key leadership habits that enhance teacher wellbeing are:

1. Value teachers - ensure teachers feel that their voice, work and effort are valued;
2. Meaningful learning - facilitate collaboration and professional development that is meaningful to teachers;
3. Agency in decisions - enable sufficient teacher agency in decision making and changes.
The leadership habits, which are represented in Figure 7, depend on an individual teacher’s perception of leadership actions. For example, actions that make one teacher feel valued may not impact another teacher in the same way. This is represented in the model by the interaction between the habits and the teachers’ characteristics and competencies (in the black circle). As teachers’ habits, attitudes and personal situations influence the effective implementation of these habits, it is essential that leaders have skills in relationship building, social and emotional competence, and responding to context, in order to influence teacher wellbeing. As Murphy and Louis (2018) remind us, “context [is] a continuous moderator or boundary condition for leadership attributes and behaviors” (p. 14). These leadership skills are represented in the model as school leaders’ competencies (in the red circle), that interact with the leadership habits to influence teacher wellbeing.

Figure 7. Model of positive school leadership for flourishing teachers.

These recommendations do not intend to put the burden of responsibility for teacher wellbeing on leaders, but rather to look at the extent of what it is possible to achieve through
leadership practice. There are limitations to how leaders can respond to context. Leaders have limited, if any, influence over some of the factors affecting teacher wellbeing, such as a teacher’s family life, or national assessment requirements. If factors such as these dominate a teacher’s wellbeing then the recommended actions may have limited impact. Leaders also face many different demands, so the extent to which leaders are willing or able to implement the recommendations will depend on whether they align with other priorities. For example, if meaningful professional development requires implementing individual mentoring for teachers, then the time commitment may be prohibitive. Other demands on leaders also include externally mandated policies that have the potential to diminish teacher wellbeing, such as the impending changes to the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) assessment system (Ministry of Education, 2019), which have been accused of taking away teacher agency (Collins, 2019). However, leaders have been shown to have a role in mediating such mandated policy so that changes are shaped to the context of the school and teachers have ownership of the changes (Hargreaves, 2004; Louis & Robinson, 2012).

The leadership habits I recommend are what many leaders espouse to be actions they are already doing – what leader would say they do not value teachers? However, it was clear from the teachers in this study that they did not always perceive they were valued. It is worth considering the differences between what people say they do, their espoused theories, and what they actually do - their theories-in-use (Argyris, 2010). When dealing with difficult situations, people often end up producing consequences they do not desire, using defensive reasoning such as blaming other people for errors, and they are often unaware they are doing so (Argyris, 2010). For leaders to implement the suggested recommendations they may need to examine their own theories-in-use. For example, leaders may intend to involve teachers in decision making, but if the process is potentially threatening for teachers then leaders will not receive genuine feedback.

The leadership habits and competencies in my model share similarities with the set of behaviours Murphy and Louis (2018) describe: supporting, enabling, modelling, acting authentically, establishing values, and developing relationships. The habits also link closely to a set of questions proposed by Cherkowski (2018, p. 70) for leaders and teachers to reflect on their practice and develop a ‘flourishing mindset’ that enhances teacher wellbeing:

- Am I seen? Do I see others? (being known)
• Am I contributing my strengths? Do I help others to contribute their strengths? (difference-making)

• Am I learning and growing? Do I help others to learn and grow? (professional learning)

• Am I seeking feedback? Do I give feedback? (appreciation and acknowledgment)

7.3 Strengths and Limitations of This Research, and Implications for Further Research

A significant strength of this research is that it contributes to the understanding of how educational leadership practice can enhance teacher wellbeing, an area in which little research has been conducted globally (Cherkowski & Walker, 2016), and none in New Zealand.

Another strength of this study was the rich descriptive data generated about teachers’ experiences of their wellbeing. In interviews and the participant journals, the teachers were willing to discuss their perceptions about factors affecting their wellbeing, including school leaders’ actions. This enabled an analysis of leadership actions that influence wellbeing, that could then be understood through positive school leadership theory, from teachers’ perspectives. However, this use of self report data also has limitations. It can lead to unreliable scores in the quantitative data, for example, inflated scores due to desirability of response, or variations due to the emotional state of the teacher at the time of completing the questionnaire. The interviews and participant journals were also the teachers’ own views and perceptions of events, and reflects their own constructs of reality. Therefore, the research does not portray ‘actual’ reality, or the leaders accounts of events described by teachers. Future research could include the school leaders’ perspectives, ensuring to include middle leaders as well as senior leaders, as all were mentioned by teachers as having a direct influence on their wellbeing. By comparing teachers’ and leaders’ views, researchers would be able to develop a more in-depth analysis of the relationships between school leadership and teacher wellbeing. In addition, the examination of theories-in-use could be further strengthened by including researcher observations in the data collection, or methods such as recording meetings and other interactions.

Context and culture are critical factors that affect people’s constructions of reality and views of wellbeing. The context of this study was in one urban secondary school in New Zealand, therefore the applicability of its findings outside of this context are limited. Future
research could explore teacher wellbeing in different types of schools (e.g. special character schools, primary schools) in diverse geographical locations. In Australia, for instance, McCallum and Price (2016) identified that there are particular challenges with teacher wellbeing and retention in remote areas. Similarly, rural schools in New Zealand face teacher recruitment challenges (Post Primary Teachers’ Association, 2018a), and may benefit from an exploration of teacher wellbeing in their contexts.

The importance of how culture influences views of wellbeing has been acknowledged by positive psychologists (Peterson, 2008). For example, a narrow Western view of health and wellbeing has been contrasted to the more holistic view of wellbeing held by Māori (Durie, 1998). Schools in which Māori students thrive acknowledge the importance that their identity as Māori has on their wellbeing and success (Ministry of Education, 2013), and leadership in these schools is distributed and transformative, focusing on social justice and the desire to change the status quo (Berryman et al., 2015). The school in my study had a very low percentage of Māori students (7%) and teachers, therefore teachers’ and leaders’ views of wellbeing may be quite different to those teaching in schools with a higher Māori population. The PERMA framework, used in my study to conceptualise and measure teacher wellbeing, is based on a Western view of the world, and as such further research that considers wellbeing through te ao Māori (Māori worldview), which has a much greater focus on the interconnectedness of all beings, would be valuable in the New Zealand context.

There were a number of strengths embedded in my research design. The first strength was the use of an established instrument to collect quantitative data about the levels of teacher wellbeing. The instrument is based on the PERMA wellbeing dimensions (Seligman, 2011), and already has proven reliability and validity in a sample of over 30,000 people (Butler & Kern, 2016). The quantitative data provided a means to compare the different wellbeing levels of teachers and purposefully select high wellbeing and low wellbeing teachers for a comparative case study. This is another strength of this study, as documenting diverse cases allows researchers to more completely understand a research question (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). By analysing the similarities and differences between the high wellbeing and low wellbeing teachers, this enabled a better understanding of the underlying mechanisms that explained differences in wellbeing, and enabled the pinpointing of factors that enhanced teachers’ wellbeing. A key strength of this explanatory sequential design was the use of qualitative data to explain the findings in the quantitative phase (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), and the validity of those explanations were increased in two main ways.
First, by choosing individuals from phase one to participate in phase two (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), and second, by using the qualitative phase to explain surprising or contradictory results from the quantitative phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). In each interview the teacher was specifically asked about at least one PERMA-profiler dimension that was higher or lower than their other dimensions, which led to more insights about factors that enhanced or diminished wellbeing. Finally, the combination of three sources of data (questionnaire, interviews, and participant journal) enabled triangulation, the identification of any converging themes, and increased the validity of the research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Given the short timeframe for this type of study, the wellbeing of teachers was only measured over a period of three weeks in the first term of the school year. However, teachers’ wellbeing can vary over time. For instance, some teachers may experience periods of more intense pressure, such as during assessment preparation, or at other times may be under fewer pressures, such as during school holidays or after end-of-year examinations. Further research could measure teacher wellbeing several times over the course of a year to examine any variations. Variations in wellbeing can also occur over the course of a teacher’s career. In this study, teachers’ experience ranged from five to 20 years. There were no beginning teachers, and only one teacher made the connection between career stage and promotion prospects to teacher wellbeing, therefore insufficient data were available to draw a conclusion on the impact of career stage on wellbeing. Possibilities for longer-term research would be to track wellbeing over the course of a teacher’s career, although a more manageable approach would be to seek out groups of teachers at different stages in their career to explore any differences in wellbeing.

This study showed that the social and emotional competence of leaders is a key factor in how well leaders are able to respond to individuals and context in a way that can improve teacher wellbeing. This is an area that other researchers have highlighted as needing further investigation, as “research on social-emotional learning and teacher leadership development may be an interesting avenue for further research on teacher leadership” (Cherkowski, 2018, p. 72) and the role of “emotion in schools deserves to have more focused research” (Crawford, 2011).

There are numerous studies that have compared teacher stress levels to the general population (Kyriacou, 1987; Milfont et al., 2008; Travers & Cooper, 1993), but none that
have compared teacher wellbeing levels to that of the general population, and this is an area that could be investigated. In the sample of 29 teachers in phase one, 11 teachers had accomplishment as their lowest scoring PERMA dimension. Further research could be carried out to investigate teacher accomplishment given that factors such as a lack of career opportunities, has been linked to increased turnover intentions (Heidmets & Liik, 2014).

Overall this research has many strengths, most notably it is a significant contribution to the literature on teacher wellbeing as it is one of the few empirical studies that examines the potential of educational leadership practices to enhance teacher wellbeing.

7.4 Implications for Policy and Training Providers

In New Zealand, there are currently a number of proposed policy changes to school governance, teacher appraisal, and assessment systems that could have a large influence on teacher wellbeing. There is also potential for training providers to introduce more learning about teacher wellbeing into their programmes.

The New Zealand government has started to recognise the need to reduce teacher workload in order to improve teacher wellbeing. The impending changes to the NCEA assessment system include a series of recommendations intended to reduce teacher workload, such as externally assessing more standards, reducing the number of credits available in subjects, and making level one optional (Ministry of Education, 2019). However, some teachers have already raised concerns that reducing the number of assessment standards available takes away the flexibility, and student and teacher agency, that are possible within the current structure (Collins, 2019). As teachers in my research discussed, when they felt a lack of agency in their work due to school mandated initiatives, their engagement decreased and they felt resentful and not valued as a professional. Therefore, the NCEA changes could impact on teacher wellbeing in unanticipated ways, as workload issues are more complex than simply the amount of work - the nature of the work also needs to be considered (Day & Gu, 2010). The teachers in my research also discussed how unnecessary administration work had a negative impact on their wellbeing. New Zealand could follow the example of the United Kingdom government, which has responded to teachers’ concerns about unnecessary or unproductive tasks by putting forward a range of recommendations, such as improving data management in schools (Department for Education, UK, 2015).
The recent contract negotiations between teacher unions and the government led to an ‘Accord’ to address concerns about workload, wellbeing and other workforce issues. As a result of this, the Teaching Council is considering “removing teacher performance appraisal as an accountability instrument, in recognition that in some settings the process has become burdensome” (Teaching Council New Zealand, 2019, para. 2), with the intention of liberating time for teachers to work on their own development. Future research could investigate if changes to appraisal results in a focus on teacher development that enhances teacher practice and self-efficacy, and determine how that impacts on wellbeing.

The Tomorrow’s Schools taskforce’s recent review of New Zealand’s education system recommended a move away from self-governing schools to centralised education hubs that will take on the role of managing a number of administration tasks for schools (Tomorrow’s Schools Independent Taskforce, 2018). This has many implications for schools, including addressing teacher wellbeing, as education hubs would take on responsibility for health and safety legislation compliance. In 2015, the Health and Safety at Work Act was updated to clarify that an employer’s duty of care to prevent harm to employee’s health includes both physical and mental health, and therefore Worksafe, New Zealand’s workplace health and safety regulator, encourages employers to promote employee wellbeing (Worksafe, 2017). Given that my research has identified wellbeing as embedded in the school culture, and influenced by leadership actions, this has implications for the move to a centralised system to take responsibility for wellbeing. Any future work to implement education hubs will need to consider how to promote the wellbeing of teachers within their mandate to take on responsibility for health and safety.

Finally, there are implications for teacher education providers, both in initial teacher education (ITE) programmes, and for educational leadership development. In the current climate it is vitally important to prepare new teachers to not only cope with the demands of the profession, but to enable them to flourish. A number of practices that teachers in this study used to improve and maintain wellbeing, such as exercise, time with friends, and reflection, also align with some of the wellbeing practices taught in ITE programmes in Australia (McCallum & Price, 2016). There are, therefore, opportunities to include similar courses in ITE programmes in New Zealand. Given the importance of leadership actions on teacher wellbeing that have been examined in this thesis, there is also a strong case for including learning about these practices in educational leadership development programmes. Louis and Murphy (2018), for example, make the case for including learning about positive
leadership in development programmes, as school leadership is not like managing any
government office or business, but is “a unique position that incorporates responsibility for
both children and adult members who usually have a calling” (p. 175).

### 7.5 Concluding Remarks

My research has shown that strong relationships between leaders and teachers, based
on care and understanding, are essential to enable teachers to flourish. Leaders must show
that they genuinely value teachers, support their personal growth and value their voice in
decision making. These leadership habits not only enhance teacher wellbeing, but also lead to
the wellbeing and success of all in the school community (Murphy & Louis, 2018). The
flourishing teachers in this study are effective teachers, they are responsive to their students’
needs, and they reflect on their practice in order to improve student success.

The onus for school leaders to improve teacher wellbeing is not an added extra, but
needs to be embedded in the everyday interactions between leaders and teachers in schools. It
is imperative that teacher wellbeing is improved to ensure the sustainability of the teaching
profession, as the current context for many teachers in New Zealand is one of stress and
thoughts of leaving the profession. As my research shows, when leaders and teachers work
together to promote personal growth and collective understanding, they have the power to
enhance teacher wellbeing.
Appendices
Appendix A  Teacher Wellbeing Questionnaire

Teacher Wellbeing Questionnaire

Please respond to each question by placing a tick or cross in a position from 0 to 10 that best represents your response. Questions are not specific to your experience at school, answer for your experiences in general.

Once completed please post this questionnaire, together with the consent form, to Dr Rachel Riedel at The University of Auckland, using the stamp addressed envelope provided.

Please post by Monday 25th March

1. How much of the time do you feel you are making progress towards accomplishing your goals?

Never 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Always

2. How often do you become absorbed in what you are doing?

Never 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Always

3. In general, how often do you feel joyful?

Never 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Always

4. In general, how often do you feel anxious?

Never 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Always

5. How often do you achieve the important goals you have set for yourself?

Never 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Always

6. In general, how would you say your health is?

Terrible 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Excellent
7. In general, to what extent do you lead a purposeful and meaningful life?
   Not at all [0-10] Completely

8. To what extent do you receive help and support from others when you need it?
   Not at all [0-10] Completely

9. In general, to what extent do you feel that what you do in your life is valuable and worthwhile?
   Not at all [0-10] Completely

10. In general, to what extent do you feel excited and interested in things?
    Not at all [0-10] Completely

11. How lonely do you feel in your daily life?
    Not at all [0-10] Completely

12. How satisfied are you with your current physical health?
    Not at all [0-10] Completely

13. In general, how often do you feel positive?
    Never [0-10] Always

14. In general, how often do you feel angry?
    Never [0-10] Always
15. How often are you able to handle your responsibilities?

Never 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Always

16. In general, how often do you feel sad?

Never 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Always

17. How often do you lose track of time while doing something you enjoy?

Never 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Always

18. Compared to others of your same age and sex, how is your health?

Terrible 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Excellent

19. To what extent do you feel loved?

Not at all 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Completely

20. To what extent do you generally feel you have a sense of direction in your life?

Not at all 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Completely

21. How satisfied are you with your personal relationships?

Not at all 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Completely
22. In general, to what extent do you feel contented?

Not at all 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Completely

23. Taking all things together, how happy would you say you are?

Not at all 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Completely

Optional section:

If you agree to be contacted about further research that includes a 30 minute interview and completing a participant journal please enter your contact details below. **This section is voluntary, you do not have to complete this section.**

If you enter your contact details here you will be emailed a summary of your wellbeing score from this questionnaire. This will be sent after all research data has been collected.

Taking part in this research is voluntary for all participants and the Board of Trustees/Principal have given assurances that teachers will not be treated differently by the school for choosing to participate or not participate in this research project.

I agree to be contacted about participating in an interview and completing a participant journal.

Name: _________________________________

Email address: _________________________________

Phone numbers

Day time: _________________________________

Evening: _________________________________

Best time to contact: _________________________________

Number of years teaching: _________________________________

Number of years teaching at Albany Senior High School: _________________________________

Please state any leadership positions held at Albany Senior High School e.g. head of department, SCT: _________________________________

Once completed please post this questionnaire, together with the consent form, to Dr Rachel Riedel at The University of Auckland, using the stamp addressed envelope provided.

Please post by Monday 25th March

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 19th November 2018 for three years. Reference Number 022131.
Appendix B  Teacher Interview Questions

A semi-structured interview will be used. There are some key questions that will be asked, but as the interviewer (the student researcher) will be responsive to the teachers’ answers the follow up questions may vary. The aim of the interview is to uncover teacher views about what affects their wellbeing, including the impact of other people at school.

Introduction
The interviewer (the student researcher) will give an overview of the wellbeing model being used at the beginning of the interview, in order that teachers can identify factors that relate to any of the wellbeing dimensions. The wellbeing dimensions are: positive emotions, engagement, positive relationships, meaning, accomplishment and health.

1. How do you rate your overall wellbeing? How would you rate it on a scale of 1 – 10?
2. How do you define your personal wellbeing?
3. What do you do to maintain or enhance your wellbeing?
4. Do leaders at your school do anything that impacts your wellbeing?

Possible prompts for specific questions:
The following are possible prompts in response to information or questions from participants.
Ques 1:
If you look at emotions, engagement, relationships, meaning, accomplishment and health, are there any of those aspects you think are going well? Or any that are not going so well?

Ques 2:
Are there any other aspects to your wellbeing apart from ... ?

Ques 3:
Is there anything inside or outside of school that you do to improve the ..... aspect of your wellbeing? If you are feeling ... what would you do about it?

Ques 4:
For example, setting deadlines, workload, timetabling, interactions, policies, meetings.

Other useful sentence starters for prompting more information
- How did that make you feel?
- So what you are saying is ... is that right?
- Tell me more about ...
- Can you elaborate a bit ...
- Could you give me an example ...
- How do you think that impacted you?
- So what does that look like for you/mean for you ...
- In what way did ...
- Can you think of other examples where that happened?
- How did you interpret...
- Who was involved in...
PERMAH information sheet for use during interview

Wellbeing can include any of the following ideas or concepts:

EMOTIONS - positive or negative emotions, for example happiness, frustration, anger, joy

ENGAGEMENT - intense concentration, focus, absorbed in your work OR boredom, distraction, disinterest

RELATIONSHIPS - support, encouragement, friendship OR conflict, negativity

MEANING - purpose, value, worthwhile OR undervalued, directionless

ACCOMPLISHMENT - meeting goals, achieving, progressing OR setbacks

HEALTH - good mental and physical health such as energy and positivity OR negative such as physical illness or anxiousness

NOTE: If referring to other people please use the terms student, colleague, middle leader or senior leadership team (SLT) and A or B etc if appropriate for more than one person in that category.

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 19th November 2018 for three years. Reference Number 022131
Appendix C    Journal Instructions

These instructions will be printed and glued into the front page of the exercise book to be used by participants for the journal.

Journal Instructions

Please complete one journal entry per day over a 5 consecutive day period at work.

Please record anything that happened during the day at work that you feel affected your wellbeing, in either a positive or negative way. This should take approximately 10 minutes.

Wellbeing can include any of the following ideas or concepts:

EMOTIONS - positive or negative emotions, for example happiness, frustration, anger, joy
ENGAGEMENT - intense concentration, focus, absorbed in your work OR boredom, distraction, disinterest
RELATIONSHIPS - support, encouragement, friendship OR conflict, negativity
MEANING - purpose, value, worthwhile OR undervalued, directionless
ACCOMPLISHMENT - meeting goals, achieving, progressing OR setbacks
HEALTH - good mental and physical health such as energy and positivity OR negative such as physical illness or anxiously

NOTE: If referring to other people please use the terms student, colleague, middle leader or senior leadership team (SLT) and A or B etc if appropriate for more than one person in that category.

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 19th November 2018 for three years. Reference Number 022131.
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**Worst 10%**
- 1.0 eg lowest PERMAH, highest N, Lon

**Best 10%**
- 1.0 eg highest PERMAH, highest N, Lon

**Worst quartile**
- 1 PERMAH & H below LQ, N and Lon above UQ

**Best quartile**
- 1 PERMAH & H above UQ, N and Lon below LQ

**Outlier**
- Value greater than 1.5 times the interquartile range
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Worst 10% eg: lowest PERMAH, highest N, Lon
Best 10% eg: highest PERMAH, highest N, Lon
Worst quartile: PERMAH below LQ, N and Lon above UQ
Best quartile: PERMAH above UQ, N and Lon below LQ
Outlier: Value greater than 1.5 times the interquartile range
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<tr>
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<th>Example</th>
<th>Does not include</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>Any mentions of assessments could be marking, moderating or how assessments are carried out in class.</td>
<td>“I’m not happy with how we’re assessing at school” AND “the negative comes in when there’s all the marking and assessments come in at the same time.”</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Comparison to other schools</td>
<td>Where teachers compare their experiences of teaching in other schools (or countries), related to wellbeing, assessment or any aspect of schools and education systems.</td>
<td>“everywhere else I’ve worked they’ve been like...” AND “I think you can’t just measure student success by sublevels [as they did at previous school]...”</td>
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<tr>
<td>Emotions</td>
<td>Specific reference to feelings or emotions such as happy, stressed, frustrated.</td>
<td>“...and they were just like “oh thank you miss, that was a really great lesson a miss”, it was quite nice to get that feedback, and that feels good too.” AND “Engagement – low (bored).” [Journal entry]</td>
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<td>Great quotes</td>
<td>Quotes to use in thesis, possible headings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>Sections I think have an important meaning, but not sure what code they belong to, or if a new code needs to be created. Review all data in this code after checking all interviews and journals.</td>
<td>“things are tough with my girlfriend” “I only talk a lot with my department, quite a lot, I don’t really have a direct contact to the SLT”</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Comments on quality of relationship with spouse, family or colleagues.</td>
<td>“if there’s any concerns I’ll just talk with my Hod and she deals with it pretty well, with any problems, like systems and everything” AND “she does a good job creating and managing quite a nice community spirit you know”</td>
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<tr>
<td>School environment and systems</td>
<td>General comments about environment, culture, working conditions. Includes school systems e.g. computers, timetabling.</td>
<td>“feeling ok, sort of balance, I guess. Yeah, particularly I guess work life balance is super important, yes, being able to switch off [laughs].” AND “I think, I would define it by if I feel happy in myself, then I kind of think my wellbeing is good, yeah, I equate it to happiness and also probably if I feel ok.”</td>
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**Concepts of Wellbeing**

- *Wellbeing definition:* Teachers answers to wellbeing definition questions, plus any other comments in interview that define wellbeing.
  - “I’d put myself at a 9 out of 10”, “I am 1 point lower now than when I did the questionnaire”, “My wellbeing has dropped since I filled out your form”

- *Wellbeing out of ten:* Self-rated wellbeing score out of ten that participants gave when asked in interview. Can include changes.
  - What teachers with their wellbeing to be

**Interactions**

- *Interactions with colleagues, leaders, parents and students:* Participants demonstrating empathy for others.
  - “putting your mind and focus in their shoes, and I think empathizing is so important, you really need to have and build empathy with students...” AND “And being aware of the people around you and their lives, so talking to them about their kids, talking to them about their family, talking about their holidays, you know, I just think that you’re caring by asking.”

- *Empathy from others:* When someone is listening and showing empathy, concern etc. (ALSO coded into support from others)
  - “she just talks to me about anything I want and she listens” AND “people at the school are just lovely, there’s always someone you can find to talk about if you’re feeling stressed”

- *Negative or reluctant to interact with colleagues:* Describing negative interactions, or a reluctance to interact with colleagues, or leaders.
  - “If you have colleagues who are negative, I find that does have an impact, because that can bring down” AND “I said “yes”, Well, I didn’t say no in front of her”

- *Parent interactions:* Any interactions teachers had with parents - meeting, phone conversation, emails.
  - “Then emailed all parents letting them know what needs to be completed by the end of term.” AND “I had a meeting with [school counselor] re: student welfare, that took ½ hour with parents.”
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<td>Interactions, continued</td>
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<td>Positive interactions with</td>
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<tr>
<td>colleagues</td>
<td>The general climate or working environment. The &quot;feel&quot; of the school</td>
<td>We've now decided that the term, term two, we're going to put in some staff support. We're going to do a 2-hour workshop at the end of term one, and a 1-hour workshop at the end of term two, to support the school. We want to support the teachers. We want to support the students. We want to support the school.</td>
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<td>Support</td>
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<td>Supporting colleagues</td>
<td>When teacher reflects on helping or supporting colleagues at school</td>
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<td>Interpersonal conflicts</td>
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<td>leadership communication - continued</td>
<td>School wide strategy, initiative, communication from leaders about it, or discussion of the strategy or initiative.</td>
<td>&quot;It think the higher level managers also create challenges, so... like the professional inquiry is a good example of that...&quot; AND &quot;I like the fact that the school has the well-being at the end of the year, it really gives everyone an opportunity to stand back and look at themselves...&quot;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>School wide strategies</td>
<td>School wide initiatives that all teachers participate in.</td>
<td>&quot;I think they'll have some good strategies for at the end of the year to catch those kids up who didn't make it.&quot; AND &quot;During briefing we were asked to look at our results and if the graph was not in the blue then it was an indication that students within your classes did not achieve 14 credits of more&quot;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Individual learning for students</td>
<td>Individual learning plans for students; IEP (individual education plan), MYP/AM (multi-year my achievement plan).</td>
<td>&quot;and for example last year I calculated with my own last year's students that one in three students were either MYP/AM, and that means they had a multi-year plan...&quot; AND &quot;I have learning support required a student in my classroom who has some learning support issue and is very attention seeking.&quot; (journal entry)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>Teachers being trusted to do a job, trust between colleagues.</td>
<td>&quot;Yeah, but also that I'm trusted to do a good job, you know, to use the resources that have been given and the ideas have been shared, you know to relate well to my students.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning, change and growth</td>
<td>Changes</td>
<td>Specific, planned, changes to systems, assessment etc at the school.</td>
<td>&quot;. . . I guess a couple of other things with good intentions would be sort of trying to embed so many things at once.&quot; AND &quot;Say like the revised appraisal document, so it was originally in one format and now it's just been re-jigged to align a little bit more closely to the new standards...&quot;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>Collaborating with others (or not collaborating when expected to). Collaboration is mainly related to improving teaching and learning.</td>
<td>&quot;You know, I'm team teaching with [a colleague], engaged in what we're doing [subject]...&quot; AND &quot;When we had to share our ideas in a group, I think I asked the group I was sitting with by refining the participation&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feedback and teacher voice</td>
<td>When leaders seek feedback from teachers or listen to their ideas. How approachable leaders are. Teachers being able (or not) to voice concerns over work with others. When leaders inquire into teachers views.</td>
<td>&quot;I think it seems to feel like everyone's voices are valued which is quite nice, everyone can have their say and it doesn't really matter... there seems to be something like there's very little agenda or right answer and everyone can talk about the things that are plaguing them, and you know, and that's OK.&quot;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Goal setting</td>
<td>Setting goals as a teacher - could be around teaching strategies, student achievement or career progression.</td>
<td>&quot;And at [another previous school] as well I mean I got a... yeah, I had a new job every year I was there, so I never stayed in the same job, so I was there for 4 years and I had a new position every year.&quot; AND &quot;I talk about like what I'm currently working on, that like changes that I do want to be making...&quot;</td>
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<td>Professional development and learning</td>
<td>Time for professional development, in school, or courses out of school. School wide work on improving teaching and learning. One to one mentoring (1 mention) and non-school related learning (1 mention).</td>
<td>End of year PD time. Professional inquiry and strategies to improve NCEA results. &quot;educate myself in other ways, and you know, sharpen my mind in other ways, things like reading and listening to podcasts&quot;</td>
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<td>or others</td>
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<td>Alignment with</td>
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<td>When teacher expresses</td>
<td>“I love my job, and so my well-being is pretty good” AND “First became</td>
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<td>alignment with school</td>
<td>a teacher I mean, yes having a job and dream to become a teacher was a</td>
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<td>environment, values or</td>
<td>big part of it!”</td>
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<td>Calling to be a</td>
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<td>Comments about love of</td>
<td>“I could struggle a bit because it just didn’t make sense and when you</td>
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<td>teacher</td>
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<td>teaching, meaning of</td>
<td>just give students [school grading system] for [subject] it doesn’t really</td>
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<td>teaching.</td>
<td>make sense for them as well.” AND “My external results weren’t as good as</td>
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<td>I’m used to getting, kids here don’t take them seriously…”</td>
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<td>Self-efficacy as a</td>
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<td>Comments about effectiveness</td>
<td>“I did feel as if my explanations during [subject] lesson was not that</td>
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<td>teacher</td>
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<td>teaching, lessons, etc. Also</td>
<td>great.” AND “It probably taught it even better this year than previous</td>
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<td>include comments about</td>
<td>years hoping to combat what happened last year…”</td>
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<td>students working well /</td>
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<td>misbehaving etc as this</td>
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<td>impacts learning and teacher</td>
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<td>Comments relating to the</td>
<td>“…I had two year 13 classes and two year twelve classes and everything</td>
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<td>amount of work or time</td>
<td>hit at the same time…” AND “ICT system at school that are a little bit</td>
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<td>taken to complete work</td>
<td>hard to understand, and they seem to make things more complicated than</td>
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<td>(including meetings).</td>
<td>then need be, and I think if you are a busy teacher you don’t necessarily</td>
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<td>want to be spending more time than needs be trying to do something that’s</td>
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<td>normally quite simple”</td>
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<td>Workload -</td>
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<td>Managing assessment hand</td>
<td>“because the bulk of my work was coming in on a deadline, and that’s how</td>
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<td>managing</td>
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<td>ins, strategies to deal</td>
<td>I manage my well-being, my time, is being able to…” AND “…and then I</td>
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<td>with workload, time</td>
<td>like to get to work early and to be organised.”</td>
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<td>Work and home life interface</td>
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<td>Finances</td>
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<td>&quot;financial situation is actually probably another one that I have to talk about, because that is affecting me quite heavily.&quot; AND &quot;at the moment I try to save a bit of fuel.&quot;</td>
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<td>Late or on time</td>
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<td>Being late for work, meetings etc. or comments about being able to make it on time</td>
<td>&quot;Arrived at school feeling good today as I was able to get out very early from home.&quot; AND Slept in late leaving. Frustrated, this hardly happens. (journal entry)</td>
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<td>Religion</td>
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<td>Only one brief mention of religion (not sure how well it fits in the work and life interface node - may remove)</td>
<td>&quot;personal background, religion is a big thing&quot;</td>
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<td>Traffic</td>
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<td>Traffic to and from school.</td>
<td>&quot;I do sort of feel a bit like &quot;ughh&quot; if I've just gone straight home, and, sat in traffic and gone home.&quot; AND &quot;that they're able to leave at a good time to get in that traffic and get home on time.&quot;</td>
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<td>Work life balance</td>
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<td>Comments on trying to balance having a life outside school with school work, specifically setting aside time to not be working.</td>
<td>&quot;trying to have a life the same time is not really working well but I'm trying to manage it.&quot; AND &quot;just the other general leisure activities you know, like playing video games and watching movies, and you know going out with friends for a drink, and you know just the other regular stuff. Yeah, that sort of stuff is all really important.&quot;</td>
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References


Hone, L. C., Jarden, A., Duncan, S., & Schofield, G. (2015). Flourishing in New Zealand workers: Associations with lifestyle behaviors, physical health, psychosocial, and


