

Running Head: TEACHERS' CLASSROOM-BASED EXPERIENCES AND EMOTIONS

TEACHERS' CLASSROOM-BASED EXPERIENCES AND EMOTIONS: A MIXED-METHOD EXPLORATORY STUDY

by

Krishan Hayre

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Arts in School Psychology

at

Mount Saint Vincent University
Halifax, Nova Scotia
July 2019

© Copyright by Krishan Hayre, 2019

TEACHERS' CLASSROOM-BASED EXPERIENCES AND EMOTIONS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES.....	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
CHAPTER 1.....	1
Decision Making.....	1
Emotions.....	5
Teacher Burnout and Teacher Self-Efficacy.....	11
Theoretical Framework Linking Emotions, Thoughts and Decision-Making.....	17
Emotions, Thoughts, and Decisions in the Workplace.....	23
CHAPTER 2.....	27
Decision Making.....	27
Emotions.....	29
Teacher Burnout and Teacher Self-Efficacy.....	30
Theoretical Framework Linking Emotions, Thoughts, and Decision-Making.....	32
Current Study.....	34
Method.....	34
Participants.....	34
Measures.....	35
Procedure.....	36
Results.....	37
Quantitative Analyses.....	37
Qualitative Analyses.....	40
Discussion.....	45

TEACHERS' CLASSROOM-BASED EXPERIENCES AND EMOTIONS

Summary.....	45
Limitations.....	49
Future Research.....	50
Practical Implications.....	51
References.....	53
Appendix A.....	69
Appendix B.....	79

TEACHERS' CLASSROOM-BASED EXPERIENCES AND EMOTIONS

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Descriptive and Group Difference Statistics.....	60
Table 2. Central Tendencies and Range for Positive Emotions Reported During the Positive Event.....	61
Table 3. Central Tendencies and Range for Negative Emotions Reported During the Positive Event.....	62
Table 4. Frequencies of Likert-Scale Responses for Positive Emotions in the Positive Event....	63
Table 5. Frequencies of Likert-Scale Responses for Negative Emotions in the Positive Event...64	
Table 6. Central Tendencies and Range for Positive Emotions Reported During the Negative Event.....	65
Table 7. Central Tendencies and Range for Negative Emotions Reported During the Negative Event.....	66
Table 8. Frequencies of Likert-Scale Responses for Positive Emotions in the Negative Event...67	
Table 9. Frequencies of Likert-Scale Responses for Negative Emotions in the Negative Event..68	

ABSTRACT

Research on teachers' emotional experiences in the classroom, both positive and negative, is lacking, therefore the current research piloted a survey investigating how 13 preschool to ninth grade private school teachers respond emotionally to recalled positive and negative classroom events. Furthermore, this study explored how teachers' emotional experiences affected their subsequent thoughts and actions throughout these recalled classroom events. The results showed that positive and negative emotional experiences differed during the self-reported positive and negative events. Specifically, in the self-reported positive events, there were significantly more positive than negative emotions reported. Throughout the negative events, an equal amount of positive emotions and negative emotions were reported. Both types of event elicited a wide range of intensity for both positive and negative emotion states. Moderate to large significant bivariate correlations between specific emotion states were present in both positive and negative self-reported events. Finally, teachers acknowledged that their emotion states influenced their subsequent thought-action tendencies during both types of classroom events. Implications for further research are described.

CHAPTER ONE

Literature Review

Decision Making

Decision making refers to the process of identifying and selecting a solution to a problem or situation, among two or more possible options. The decision occurs when that solution is selected and implemented (i.e., the behaviour that occurs in response to the situation) (Al-Tarawneh, 2012). During the process of selecting a solution to a problem, an individual would weigh out the positive and negative outcomes of each decision before acting upon them. This allows the individual to choose the most appropriate solution to the situation at hand, so that there are limited negative outcomes after the decision has been made (Al-Tarawneh, 2012). Workplace decision making has been explored in several populations, one of which is health professionals, such as nurses. Nurses face various clinical decisions throughout a workday (Bakalis & Watson 2005) including, but are not limited to, providing nursing care, providing psychological support, teaching patients and/or family members about medically related subjects, and deciding to change patient medication in emergency situations. According to Barkalis and Watson (2005), these decisions are made frequently through a combination of clinical experience, patient preference, and evidence-based practice (i.e., research that is provided regarding patient care).

Crosskerry (2009) proposed the dual process theory of medical decision making, which stipulates that decisions are made by invoking either System 1 or System 2 decision making. System 1 decision making, which is often referred to as experiential decision making, involves intuitive and fast decisions, with little room for conscious evaluation. On the other hand, System 2 decision making, which is often referred to as rational decision making, is a slower process

combining critical evaluation of the situation and more conscious awareness of the decision (Crosskerry, 2009). Crosskerry (2009) argues that while these systems can interact with each other, contextual demands require one or the other and people are not often aware of the vacillation between the two. Contexts that are fast-paced, highly complex/familiar, or within one's area of expertise, typically require a System 1 approach. Contexts that offer time for goal setting, reflection, and trying multiple cognitive strategies (e.g., forward chaining, brainstorming, interacting with others, and information search) before deciding typically evoke a System 2 approach (Crosskerry, 2009).

Research examining this model in emergency physicians suggests that these healthcare professionals use both System 1 and System 2 decision making (Calder, Forster, Stiell, Carr, Brehaut, Perry, Vaillancourt, & Crosskerry, 2011). For instance, an emergency physician would use System 1 decision making (i.e., fast decision making) during rapid lifesaving moments and System 2 decision making (i.e., slow and systematic decision making) during less extreme moments (e.g., deciding to discharge a patient or making a referral). Calder and colleagues examined whether 434 Canadian emergency physicians have a personal preference for System 1 or System 2 decision making using a postal survey. Overall, the results demonstrated that emergency physicians favoured rational decision making (i.e., System 2 decision making), even though they all indicated that they use both methods. The authors also found that female emergency physicians favoured experiential decision making, though did not provide interpretation or explanation for this preference. This could be the case because emergency physicians are presented with situations where they require fast reactions (e.g., patient in critical condition).

Using a qualitative approach, Villa, Manara, and Palese (2012) examined the patterns that guided 18 Italian nurses' decision making processes in weaning and extubating patients post cardiac surgery. Nurses need to be cautious during this period to prevent any complications, such as pneumonia, patient discomfort, and self-extubating. During this process, nurses are required to gather information, identify the problem, consider alternative strategies, and select the most effective solution (Villa et al., 2012).

Three themes were identified in the nurses' decision making process for weaning and extubating patients. The first theme was collecting data and suggesting a decision, because there are no specific criteria for patient stability. This is where the nurse thinks of factors, such as the patient's state of consciousness, body temperature, neurological status, and time elapsed since the surgery, before making their decision to wean the patient (Villa et al., 2012). The second theme was standardizing competence, where nurses acquire the ability to wean and extubate a patient without having to ask or suggest to the doctor. The third theme was maintaining adherence to unwritten rules passed down by expert nurses that allow a nurse to make decisions based on the first two themes (Villa et al., 2012). This qualitative description provides insight into the kinds of decisions nurses spend their time making, which provides insight about the cognitive demands of the nursing profession.

Another group that encounters various situations requiring quick decision making is people working in business and economics industries. People who work in the business world have also been found to react based on the application of personal knowledge gained through experience, as well as through the rules and regulations within their respected industries (Ghattas, Soffer, & Peleg, 2014). Decisions in this field generally consist of financial decisions (e.g., managing cash flow or acquiring assets), structure decisions (e.g., partnership or legal

structures), strategic decisions (e.g., decisions that put the business in a profitable position), and operation decisions (e.g., deciding how to run the business) (Ghattas et al, 2014).

Loe, Ferrell, and Mansfield (2000) published a meta-analysis that reviewed 74 empirical studies that assessed factors contributing to ethical decision making in business. In nine of those studies, education and work experience had no influence on ethical-decision making. Results of the remaining studies were mixed (Loe et al., 2000). Specifically, 26 studies reported slight gender differences with respect to ethical decision making, such that women tended to be more ethically sensitive than men. Codes of ethics were found to influence decision making, because they allow individuals to know what constitutes as an ethical issue. Awareness of one's own ethical behaviour relative to others was found to play a role in few of the studies. Rewarding behaviours and sanctioning (i.e., penalizing) behaviours played a role in terms of whether a particular behaviour would occur more frequently or not. Behaviours that were rewarded, whether ethical or unethical, were found to occur more frequently. On the other hand, sanctioned behaviors resulted in low frequency of that behaviour (Loe et al., 2000).

Workplace-based decision making research, as described above, is focused on describing required tasks, however it does not sufficiently explain how people make decisions. The theory of bounded rationality provides explanatory detail to understand how people make decisions. Simon (1990, 1991) describes the human cognitive system as one that is continually adaptive, meaning that a decision will be shaped by the requirements of the task and competing contextual demands. These requirements and competing demands are both internal (e.g., emotions and prior knowledge) and external (e.g., social norms and professional requirements). Therefore, an ideal decision making state occurs when requirements are optimized and competing demands are minimized (Simon, 1990). However, "because of the limits on their computing speeds and

power, intelligent systems must use approximate methods to handle most tasks. Their rationality is bounded.” (Simon, 1990, p. 60). This concept of bounded rationality is also called the optimality principle. The key intrapersonal mechanisms for understanding bounded rationality as proposed by Simon (1990) are processing speed, working memory capacity, and level of expertise. The goal of this model is to understand how people make decisions within real-life complexity. Emotions are another mechanism of decision making (Fredrickson, 1998). Although no current evidence exists that specifically links emotions to bounded rationality, there is a large body of research and theory that explains emotions.

Emotions

Emotions can be defined along two dimensions (Russell, 1980), both of which result from an individual's direct interaction with the environment or other people (Frijda, 1993). The first dimension is the positive or negative affect (i.e., feeling state) that occurs in response to an event (Fillenbaum & Rapoport, 1970). Positive affect includes emotions such as joy, happiness, and optimism, while negative affect includes emotions such as anger, depression, fear, and frustration (Fillenbaum & Rapoport, 1970). Teachers experience several positive and negative events throughout the day that would impact their feeling state. For example, if a teacher's student is misbehaving, the feeling state that may develop in response to that event could be anger. The second dimension of emotions is the level of arousal of the individual (Schachter & Singer, 1962). Specifically, the level of arousal is described as the degree of intensity of the feeling state that occurred in response to the event (Gaudine & Thorne, 2001). An individual's level of arousal can range from low to high. For example, if the student continues to misbehave in the classroom after being warned, the teacher's level of anger might go from low to high.

Moods differ from emotions in three ways, the first being that moods last longer than emotions (Frijda, 1993). Emotions tend to last minutes, while moods can last for hours or days. The second way that moods differ from emotions is that they are not directly related to a specific event, person, or environment. In other words, a mood lacks reasoning behind the feeling state and derives through an individual's unconscious (Frijda, 1993). Finally, moods are considered to be less intense compared to emotions (Frijda, 1993). Even though these two constructs differ in many ways, there is a link between moods and emotions. For instance, when an individual is in a bad mood, they are likely to experience negative emotions (e.g., anger) about something (Frijda, 1993). This is to say that the nature of the moods informs the individual about the nature of the emotions, and vice versa. For example, if an individual is in a good mood, they are likely to interpret environmental stimuli positively and respond to it with positive emotions. On the other hand, moods can shift when an individual actively reflects on their emotions. (Frijda, 1993).

Affect is described as the outward expression of moods and emotions (Ekkekakis, 2012). A mood or emotion becomes an affect when it is demonstrated through observable behaviours (e.g., facial expressions, tone of voice, or posture). In other words, affect is a physical reaction to an individual's emotional response to environmental stimuli (Ekkekakis, 2012). An example of this could be if your favourite soccer team loses in the final, you may express affect by putting your head down to show that you are sad.

Previous research has suggested that there is a negative correlation between positive emotions and negative emotions. This is often referred to as bipolarity of emotions (Russell, 1980). That is to say that happy and sad are polar opposites and when an individual feels happy they are not sad, and vice versa (Russell & Carroll, 1999). The bipolar model of emotions was investigated in a study in which Russell and Carroll (1999) asked participants to first rate

whether they were happy. Those who responded that they were happy were then asked to rate the extent to which they felt happy on a Likert-scale (i.e., *slightly* to *extremely*). This was followed by various measures asking participants to rate their negative affect (i.e., sadness). Though results of their study largely supported the model that they proposed, 11% of participants rated feeling both happy and sad during their measures (Russell & Carroll, 1999). Simple and bipolar emotion reporting may have occurred because the participants were not presented with an emotionally complex situation. An emotionally complex situation is defined as an event that can cause an individual to feel both positive and negative emotions at the same time (McGraw & Cacioppo, 2001). In other words, if a situation is emotionally complex, then it can simultaneously produce a variety of positive and negative emotions. An example of an event that is emotionally complex could be a parent dropping their child off for their first day of school. This would be a complex situation that would elicit both positive emotions (e.g., being proud of their child and happy for them to make new friends) and negative emotions (e.g., being scared for their safety and sad that there is not as much time to spend together) to co-occur.

In contrast to Russell and Carroll's (1999) study, three studies conducted by McGraw and Cacioppo (2001) further investigated whether individuals can experience a positive emotion (e.g., happiness) and a negative emotion (e.g., sadness) simultaneously using events that are emotionally complex. In the first study, the researchers examined whether 177 participants were more likely to feel a mixture of happiness and sadness after watching the movie *Life is Beautiful* compared to before watching the film. The researchers chose *Life is Beautiful* because it is considered an emotionally complex film due to the comedic nature with which the film proceeds through a plot that is set in a Nazi concentration camp. They hypothesized that the participants

would be more likely to report simultaneously feeling both happy and sad emotions after, as opposed to before, watching the film (McGraw & Cacioppo, 2001).

Before and after watching *Life is Beautiful*, participants were asked to complete an emotion questionnaire which asked them to indicate how they were feeling at the present moment (McGraw & Cacioppo, 2001). Five of the items on the questionnaire consisted of pairs of emotions (i.e., one negative and one positive) where participants were asked to rate whether their feelings aligned with the pairs and the extent to which they felt those emotions. The pairs included *calm-tense*, *relaxed-stressed*, *happy-sad*, *pleased-displeased*, and *excited-depressed* (McGraw & Cacioppo, 2001). The results indicated that before watching the film 10% of participants rated feeling both happy and sad; however, after watching the film 44% rated feeling both happy and sad. Furthermore, these results demonstrated that positive emotions and negative emotions can co-occur in emotionally complex situations (McGraw & Cacioppo, 2001). These findings suggest that emotions are not exclusively bipolar.

In their second study, McGraw and Cacioppo (2001) examined whether 200 undergraduate students could feel both happy and sad in less emotionally complex situations. The researchers compared whether participants would more likely feel happy and sad upon moving out at the end of the school year compared to a random typical day. This was done by asking undergraduates to complete a survey when they dropped off the keys to their dormitories in June (i.e., emotionally complex day) or November (i.e., typical day). June was considered an emotionally complex day because it involved moving out of residence at the end of the school year, which potentially involves feelings of joy for summer in tandem with sorrow as a result of leaving friends for the summer and perhaps worry about final grades that have not yet been received from professors. November is considered a typical day because the term is still in

progress and students are not poised to leave the environment for a long period. Similar measures were used in this study, with some modifications (McGraw & Cacioppo, 2001). The results indicated that only 16% of undergraduate students felt both happy and sad on a typical day and 54% of participants felt both happy and sad in the more complex situation (e.g., moving day) (McGraw & Cacioppo, 2001).

Using similar measures, McGraw and Cacioppo (2001) finally examined whether 154 college students felt both happy and sad on graduation day (i.e., similar emotionally complex situation) compared to a typical day, hypothesizing that they would more likely feel positive and negative emotions simultaneously on graduation day. Graduation day is considered an emotionally complex situation because it could potentially elicit both positive emotions (e.g., happy and proud about graduating from university) and negative emotions (e.g., fear about the future) concurrently. Consistent with their previous findings, results indicated that only 20% felt both happy and sad on a typical day and 50% of participants felt both happy and sad in the more complex situation (McGraw & Cacioppo, 2001). Overall, McGraw and Cacioppo's (2001) studies demonstrated that individuals are more likely to feel both happy and sad in more complex situations than they would in typical situations. Results from these studies support the contextual and complex nature of emotional experience – whereby bipolarity might occur in simple situations and multiple positive and negative emotions can be felt in tandem in complex situations.

Despite the studies described above, there is very little psychological research examining positive emotions exclusively. Seligman (2002) noted that the field of psychology focuses primarily on the negative, possibly because negative emotions are considered more urgent and pose more of an immediate problem as compared to positive emotions (Seligman, 2002). It is

hypothesized that this is the reason why psychological research has focused on various mental illnesses that are accompanied by negative emotions (e.g., depression and anxiety), despite the survival value of positive emotions (Seligman, 2002). For example, positive health (i.e., positive emotions, positive engagement, positive relationships, and positive accomplishment) is linked to recovery after a major cardiac event. Leedham, Meyerowitz, Muirhead, and Frist (1995) conducted interviews with 31 heart-transplant patients before and after their surgeries. They found that those who reported high level of positive emotions and moods before their surgeries had greater adherence to medical routine after their surgeries as well as better recoveries six months post operation. In another study conducted by Scheier, Matthews, Owens, Magoven, Lefebvre, Abbott, and Carver (1989) they found that positive states (e.g., optimism) were associated with faster recovery times, both during hospitalization and at a six month follow up, for 51 men who had coronary artery bypass surgery.

Positive emotions are also considered to be protective (Seligman, 2002). Cohen, Alper, Doyle, Treanor, and Turner (2006) examined whether positive emotions could act as a preventive against the onset of two common colds. Nasal drops that consisted of rhinovirus or influenza were administered to 193 healthy participants. Their results concluded that higher levels of positive emotions were associated with lower risks of developing these two common colds (Cohen et al., 2002). Positive affect has been found to be protective during more severe physiological events as well. For example, positive emotions have been associated with lower mortality rates in the elderly population (Cohen & Pressman, 2006), to protect against stroke (Ostir, Markides, Peek, & Goodwin, 2001), and to protect against the rapid progression of the human immunodeficiency viruses (HIV) (Taylor, Kemeny, Reed, Bower, & Gruenewald, 2000). This limited amount of research has shown that positive emotions are associated with recovery

and protective factors, however, not much is known about how positive emotions effect decision making in complex situations, such as teachers making decisions to support learning and manage behaviour in highly variable and interpersonal classroom contexts every day. Though little is known about teachers' emotions or decision making and thought processes, teacher burnout and self-efficacy have been widely researched.

Teacher Burnout and Teacher Self-Efficacy

Teacher burnout syndrome is a psychological condition that results when day-to-day work stressors gradually take their toll (Brown & Roloff, 2011). Negative classroom experiences can result in teacher burnout syndrome and a lack of self-efficacy (Klassen & Chiu, 2010), as well as low morale, which in turn can affect students' academic achievement (Jennett, Harris, & Mesibov, 2003). Educators who experience burnout typically exhibit three categories of symptoms: emotional exhaustion, reduced personal accomplishments in the classroom, and depersonalization. (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Emotional exhaustion is the central component of teacher burnout and it is the most widely reported symptom among teachers who experience burnout. Emotional exhaustion is described by feelings that cause emotional strain (e.g., anxiety) (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). The most widely used measures of emotional exhaustion include the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (MBI) (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996), the *Copenhagen Burnout Inventory* (CBI) (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen, & Christensen, 2005), and the *Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire* (COPSOQ-II) (Pejtersen, Kristensen, Borg, & Bjorner, 2010). The MBI requires participants to rate questions asking them how much their work makes them feel emotionally exhausted or drained on a 7-point Likert scale (e.g., 0 = Never to 6 = Everyday). These items consist of questions which measure fatigue, frustration, and stress while working. Examples of

these items are: “I feel emotionally drained from my work” and “I feel like I am at the end of my ropes” (Maslach et al., 1996).

The CBI measures the physical and psychological fatigue, and overall exhaustion experienced by an individual in general, by educators due to their teaching work, and by teachers in relation to their work with students. All items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale (e.g., 1 = Almost never – 5 = Always). Finally, the COPSQ-II (Pejtersen et al., 2010) measures emotional exhaustion through four questions such as “How often have you been emotionally exhausted?” on a 5-point Likert scale (e.g., 1 = Not at all – 5 = All the time). Because these measures do not measure positive emotions, it is difficult to draw conclusions about exactly how bad, and good, individuals' daily workplace experiences are. From research to date on many populations, including teachers, it is not clear whether these stressful workplace experiences occur rarely in a context of mostly positive experiences, often in tandem with parallel positive emotions and attributions, or whether stressors are the norm and positive experiences are a rare exception. Because there is a paucity of research in this area, it would be beneficial for future research to take a balanced approach to measuring the protective and harmful effects that positive and negative workplace emotions have on teaching practices, teacher well-being, teacher retention, and student-success.

Reduced personal accomplishments in the classroom, the second type of symptom exhibited by teachers experiencing burnout, are characterized by negative feelings towards one's own competence and accomplishments (Maslach et al., 2001). Teachers who experience a reduction in personal accomplishments tend to negatively evaluate themselves (Maslach et al., 2001). Finally, depersonalization refers to teachers' negative thoughts and feelings towards, and interpersonal distancing from, their students and colleagues (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010).

Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, and Hoy (1998) describe teachers' self-efficacy as one's belief in his or her ability to successfully teach, regulate, and motivate students to learn. If teachers are self-efficacious, there is a greater chance of job satisfaction and positive classroom experiences (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) state that teacher self-efficacy consists of three domains: student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. Student engagement refers to the teacher's ability to actively engage their students in learning processes. Classroom management reflects the teacher's ability to keep students organized, productive, and focused during class time. Finally, instructional strategies represent the teacher's ability to effectively teach content, facilitate activities, and provide timely and actionable feedback to students that facilitate their learning processes (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) conducted a study that surveyed 2249 Norwegian teachers from 113 elementary and middle schools. They investigated the connection between teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout in relation to their perception of school environment variables (e.g., discipline problems, relationship with parents, autonomy, time pressure, and supervision support). All school context variables were significantly related to teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout. Positive relationships with parents ($b = .46$) and autonomy ($b = .13$) positively predicted self-efficacy. Two dimensions of teacher burnout that were measured were depersonalization and emotion exhaustion. Negative relationships with parents was a strong predictor of depersonalization (.44), whereas time pressure (e.g., heavy workload, having to prepare for class the night before, and busy school days) was a strong predictor of emotional exhaustion (.59). Additionally, discipline problems significantly predicted both depersonalization (.11) and emotional exhaustion (.13) (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010).

Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2017) also conducted a study that aimed to understand why teachers leave their profession. They examined 760 Norwegian teachers' views on how school goal structures predicted their self-efficacy, job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, time pressure, and motivation to leave their job. The school goal structures consisted of two components: the learning goal structure and the performance goal structure. The learning goal structure recognizes a student's effort, understanding, and improvement in the classroom. The performance goal structure focused on grades, test scores, and achievement (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017). Results showed that both components of the school goal structures were indirectly related to teachers' motivation to leave the profession. The perception of a learning goal structure predicted higher motivation to stay in the teaching profession. This was mediated via teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction. The perception of a performance goal structure predicted higher motivation to quit the profession. This was mediated via time pressure and emotional exhaustion, two indicators of teacher burnout (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017).

Pas, Bradshaw and Hershfeldt (2012) also investigated how contextual factors are related to teacher burnout and teacher self-efficacy. These contextual factors included teacher demographics (e.g., race and ethnicity), teacher experience (e.g., preparedness), teacher perceptions of the school environment (e.g., principal leadership), and school-level contextual factors (e.g., principal turnover). The researchers examined how these contextual factors change the levels of emotional exhaustion, teacher performance, and student outcomes over a period of two years.

Results indicated there was no significant relation between teacher demographics and teacher self-efficacy or burnout (Pas et al., 2012). With respect to preparedness, teachers who initially reported feeling more prepared exhibited higher levels of self-efficacy and lower levels

of teacher burnout initially, however this was not sufficient to prevent symptoms of burnout over the long-term (Pas et al., 2012). There were mixed results with the measures of teacher perceptions of the school environment with regard to the growth of teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout. For instance, on a measure of teacher perceptions of the school environment, teachers who initially reported high levels of student and parent involvement displayed low levels of burnout, but increased burnout was present after the two-year period (Pas et al., 2012). The only measure of school-level contextual factors that had a significant relation with teacher self-efficacy was mobility, suggesting that in this study school-level contextual factors did not affect teacher self-efficacy or teacher burnout (Pas et al., 2012).

Stasio, Fiorilli, Benevene, Uusitalo-Malmivaara, and Chiacchio (2017) examined teacher characteristics (e.g., sociodemographic, personal resources, and work well-being) of 194 special education teachers at Italian preschools and primary schools in relation to teacher burnout. The outcomes showed that teachers' personal resources (i.e., self-efficacy and self-esteem), their happiness at school, and their job satisfaction were inversely associated with all measurements of teacher burnout. Furthermore, they found that teachers' self-efficacy and self-esteem (i.e., an individuals' overall sense of personal value and self-worth) were negative predictors of student-related burnout. That is, teachers with a positive view of their own teaching competence would in turn positively rate their achievements with respect to their students (Stasio et al., 2017). This was the only study found in the review of the literature to purposefully measured teachers' positive emotions (e.g., happiness).

In a study of 523 Canadian teachers, Wang, Hall, and Rahimi (2015) found that high levels of self-efficacy (e.g., classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement) were predictive of lower levels of burnout, lower levels of illness symptoms (e.g.,

headaches), lower likelihood of leaving the profession, and higher levels of job satisfaction.

Additionally, Wang et al. (2015) found that teachers who perceived their workplace stressors to be controllable (i.e., how much control teachers believe they have with respect to their workplace successes and failures) exhibited lower levels of burnout and higher levels of job satisfaction.

These are psychologically healthy conditions of a workplace that will position a teacher to attend to the complexity of classroom learning processes and make decisions that require work and communication with others (e.g., students, parents, colleagues, or administration) to support student learning.

Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, and Kaplan (2007) suggest that teachers who are burned out exhibit lower autonomous motivation for teaching. Shen, McCaughtry, Martin, Garn, Kulik, and Fahlman (2015) recruited 33 physical education teachers and their 1302 high school students to investigate the relation between student autonomous motivation and teacher burnout. Using multilevel analyses, they found that teacher burnout was negatively related to students' autonomous motivation. Furthermore, they concluded that teacher burnout had a negative effect on students' perceptions of their teacher's ability to support student-autonomy. These results further support the suggestion made by Roth et al. (2007) that teacher burnout can hinder teaching motivation, which in turn can foster a lack of autonomous student-motivation (Shen et al., 2015).

Research on demographic factors and teacher burnout has been limited. Schwab, Jackson, and Schuler (1986) noted that men with burnout are more likely to report higher symptoms of depersonalization than women, whereas Lau, Yuen, and Chan (2005) found that women generally report higher symptoms of reduced personal accomplishment and emotional exhaustion than men. In a study by Pas et al. (2012), no sex differences in teacher self-efficacy were

reported. This was also the case for the relationship between race/ethnicity and teacher burnout/self-efficacy (Pas et al., 2012). Research to date has not adequately captured gender and sex in that only one or the other has typically been assessed through solely binary self-report items that do not allow for gender or sex fluidity or complexity.

Theoretical Framework Linking Emotions, Thoughts, and Decision-Making

Classroom teachers make various decisions each day working with their students. Currently, there is a lack of research specific to understanding teacher decision making in the classroom, therefore the following section will discuss applied theories and models that link emotions to an individual's momentary thoughts and actions, both in general and in the workplace. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) coined the *transactional model of stress*, which suggests that challenging workplace events lead to different short-term and long-term psychological and psychosocial outcomes. These outcomes occur through mediating factors such as cognitive appraisal and coping strategies. The cognitive appraisal process includes both a primary appraisal and a secondary appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The primary appraisal is a thought that evaluates whether the workplace event poses a threat to the individual's well-being and the secondary appraisal is a thought about coping strategies that would help resolve the challenging workplace situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Likewise, Lambert, McCarthy, Fitchett, Lineback, and Reiser (2015) state that teacher stress occurs when classroom demands surpass teachers' classroom resources and supports. Though this model explains stressful situations, stress is only a component of how emotions and cognition shape decision making processes in teachers' work.

Chang (2009) proposed the *antecedent appraisal model*, which focuses on the cognitive and emotional processes that make teachers experience short-term situational distress and long-

term burnout. The *antecedent appraisal model* suggests that teachers' judgements in response to negative classroom events (e.g., student misbehaving) can cause unpleasant emotions, which in turn can result in teacher burnout if these instances occur frequently (Chang, 2009). When these negative events occur frequently, they become habitual patterns. Chang (2009) argues that it is the judgments, or thoughts, made during these situations that produce negative emotions and teacher stress. Chang (2009) tested the *antecedent appraisal model* by examining the emotional responses of 554 teachers and found that the attributions they made about their students' misbehaviours influenced the negative emotions that they experienced. The results of this study suggest that habitual patterns by which teachers appraise negative classroom events are associated with increased rates and intensities of negative emotional experiences.

The models proposed by Chang (2009) and Lazarus and Folkman (1984) both fail to capture how teachers' thoughts and feelings play a role in how they make decisions about responding to stressful events and completely neglect the potential roles of positive emotions. Teachers deal with multiple classroom situations on a daily basis and are required to react quickly to various environmental stimuli, meaning that some of them may lack the cognitive capacity to make multiple appraisals during these situations as proposed in the above models. Fredrickson (1998) proposed the *broaden-and-build theory*, which suggests that positive emotions (e.g., joy or happiness) *broaden* an individuals' momentary thought-action repertoires (i.e., their stocks of thoughts and actions) in complex and rapidly changing situations. That is, positive emotions prompt an individual to pursue a broader choice of thoughts and actions than is typical. These may include playing, exploring, savoring, and integrating (Fredrickson, 1998).

The *broaden-and-build theory* also suggests that if an individual is able to *broaden* their thought-action repertoires, it will allow them to *build* an assortment of personal resources

(Fredrickson, 1998). These personal resources include, but are not limited to, positive friendships, good health, growth of knowledge, and resilience (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). Whereas positive emotions broaden an individual's thought-action repertoires, Fredrickson (1998) argues that negative emotions narrow an individual's momentary thought-action repertoires. Narrowing one's thought-action repertoire results in specific action tendencies that occur when individuals feel threatened (e.g., attack or flee) (Fredrickson, 1998).

Both positive and negative emotions can affect our momentary thought-action tendencies. For instance, negative emotions (e.g., fear) can narrow an individual's momentary thought-action repertoire (Fredrickson, 1998). In other words, negative emotions require fast and decisive thinking and reaction for survival purposes (e.g., attack or flee). This is not the case in situations that generate positive emotions (e.g., joy, interest, contentment, and love).

To date, there has been limited research linking teachers' emotions to their subsequent thoughts and actions, therefore the following discussion will focus on studies examining the *broaden-and-build theory* through other demographics in a laboratory setting. Fredrickson and Branigan (2005) sought to directly test the *broaden-and-build theory* by examining how two distinct positive emotions (i.e., amusement and contentment) and two distinct negative emotions (i.e., anger and anxiety) affected the broadening and narrowing of attention and of the thought-action repertoire when compared to a neutral group (i.e., a group that is not exposed to any experimental manipulation or intervention). Using a sample of 104 American university students, video clips were used to manipulate the participants' emotions. Attention was measured using a visual processing task and thought-action repertoires were assessed using open ended qualitative questions. The results somewhat supported the *broaden-and-build theory*. Specifically, participants who experienced positive emotions displayed broader ranges of attention (i.e., more

attentive) and thought-action repertoires compared to the neutral group. A broadening scope of attention was produced when participants had a global bias on a visual processing task (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). There was no evidence the individuals who elicited negative emotions narrowed their scope of attention when compared to the neutral group. However, there was marginal evidence showing that negative emotions narrowed the thought-action process; this was the case for those who experienced anger, but not for those who experienced fear (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). A difficulty in testing propositions within this theory through experimental tasks is that the nature of induced emotions in laboratory-based tasks and decisions made that do not influence one's personal life might not have strong external validity. Patterns of broadening and narrowing might be different in naturalistic settings where people are making complex decisions in their daily lives.

Fredrickson, Mancuso, Branigan, and Tugade (2000) also explored the *broaden-and-build theory* with participants who were experiencing anxiety-induced cardiovascular reactivity and participants who were in a neutral state. Both groups viewed a movie clip that elicited contentment, amusement, neutrality, or sadness. The findings showed that the cardiovascular effects of positive emotions only surfaced when negative emotions were already in the system. In other words, the positive emotion movie clips produced quicker cardiovascular recovery when compared to the neutral and sad films for participants who were already in an anxiety induced cardiovascular state. This produced an *undoing effect*, where the negative emotions that initially produced cardiovascular reactivity was undone by the positive emotions, allowing the system to return to baseline levels of arousal (Fredrickson et al., 2000). These results support Seligman's (2002) findings that positive emotions are related to recovery.

In a study that examined whether positive affect promotes creativity and problem-solving skill, Isen, Daubman, and Nowicki (1987) found that an induced positive affect assisted creative responding on four problem-solving tasks that typically require creative thinking. At the same time, the participants who were negatively induced had no significant performance effect compared to the control group on these four measures. These results are generally in line with Fredrickson's (1998) *broaden-and-build theory*. It will be beneficial for future research to test the *broaden-and-build theory* on a sample that consisted of teachers and examine the effects positive and negative emotions have on their cognition and reactions within a given moment.

Gaudine and Thorne (2001) developed a model that examined the roles emotions play in influencing the ethical decision process in the workplace. Specifically, their model marks whether specific emotions promote or discourage ethical decision making. Their research examined a *cognitive-developmental model of emotions and ethical decision-making*, which indicated the feeling state (i.e., positive affect or negative affect), along with the level of arousal in emotions, that affect an individual's process in making ethical decisions in the workplace (Gaudine & Thorne, 2001).

First, one of the cognitive developmental models discussed in their research suggested that an individual can resolve dilemmas when they achieve a conception of morality (Kohlberg, 1958). Morality is defined as an individual's view of what is good or right and moral development evolves through exposure to the external world and the rewards and punishments that come with it (Kohlberg, 1958). According to Kohlberg's (1958) model, an individual's moral capacity increases over time because their cognitive structure becomes more sophisticated. Kohlberg (1979) stated that moral development consists of three levels. The first level is pre-conventional moral reasoning, which suggests that there are alternative ways to resolve a moral

dilemma, and a person at this level of development will make decisions that maximize personal benefit and minimize personal strain. The second level is conventional moral reasoning, which suggests that individuals conform to expectations of acceptable behaviour with those around them to maintain and foster personal belonging and safety. The final level is post-conventional moral reasoning, which suggests that individuals are influenced by principles of social contracts that promote fairness for all and personal responsibility to uphold such principles (Kohlberg, 1979). This principled conscience versus earlier levels of moral-cognitive decision making minimizes self-benefit from decision making processes and prioritizes broader societal goals that might not yet be normative.

Gaudine and Thorne (2001) proposed the *cognitive-affective model of ethical decision-making*, which specifically examines the emotions that influence each component of the ethical-decision making process. This model considers how the two dimensions of emotions (i.e., feeling state and arousal) influence the four components of Rest's (1983) *model of moral action*. The first component is ethical sensitivity, which is akin to empathy, the ability to view things from the perspective of others. The second component is moral judgement, which requires an individual to acquire a knowledge of ethical principles. The third component is ethical motivation, which is the ability to differentiate between the right thing to do and making it priority to do it. The final component is ethical character, which is persisting and having the courage and tenacity to implement the above skills (Rest, 1983).

Based on these past theories, Gaudine and Thorne's (2001) model suggests that if an individual is experiencing high levels of arousal and positive affect states, then they are more equipped to resolve ethical dilemmas in the workplace because their cognitive moral structures are more sophisticated. These higher arousal states and positive mood states (e.g., happiness)

allow individuals to master the four components in Rest's (1983) *model of moral action* (Gaudine & Thorne, 2001). They also concluded that higher levels of arousal indicate importance of the situation to an individual and in turn increase an individual's inclination to seek information that will help their decision process. Furthermore, the *cognitive-affective model of ethical decision-making* suggests that extreme negative affect states (e.g., depression) and lower levels of arousals make people less sensitive to the environment and its ethical dilemmas. Lower levels of arousal cause insufficient energy, which makes it difficult to identify when an ethical dilemma is present and if noticed, insufficient energy to choose to do anything about it (Gaudine & Thorne, 2001). Though this theory proposes some explanatory value for the roles of moods in decision making, the consideration of general mood and motivation does not explain how momentary bursts of emotions in complex workplace situations might influence quick and contextualized decision making.

Emotions, Thoughts, and Decisions in the Workplace

As previously mentioned, there is limited research on teachers specifically in relation to how their emotions, thoughts, and decisions are interconnected in workplace environments; however, some research exists that connects emotions, thoughts, and actions in other workplaces. Choi, Lee, No, and Kim (2016) explored whether experiencing compassion could alleviate negative workplace emotions (i.e., anxiety and burnout), deviant behaviours (e.g., off task behaviours during working hours or being rude to colleagues), and thoughts about quitting one's job in a sample of 284 Korean nurses. Using self-efficacy (i.e., an individuals' belief in their ability to succeed) and self-esteem (i.e., an individual's overall sense of personal value and self-worth) as mediating factors, findings demonstrated that there was a negative relation between compassion and negative workplace thoughts, feelings, and actions. Furthermore, the results

indicated that compassion elevated the levels of self-efficacy and self-esteem reported by participants (Choi et al., 2016). Results from this study are beneficial in further exploring self-regulation coping skills in the workplace, as further research needs to be done in this area.

In a study that investigated preservice and practicing teachers' attitudes, feelings, and behavioural intentions concerning children with special education needs, researchers aimed to determine whether teachers' implicit and explicit thoughts played a part in their behavioural intentions and actions toward this population, in addition to their personal and professional experiences (Levins, Bornholt, & Lennon, 2005). Explicit thoughts are thoughts that are at the conscious level (Dienes & Perner, 2002). Implicit thoughts, in contrast, are thoughts that are at the unconscious level (Dienes & Perner, 2002). Teachers assume greater responsibilities when they work with students with special educational needs (Levin et al., 2005). These responsibilities are complex and can cause a mix of positive and negative emotions. Teachers' attitudes vary depending on the type of disability experienced by the student, as well as the number of adaptations needed to accommodate the student (Center & Ward, 1987). Teachers' attitudes toward this population is crucial for successfully integrating children with disabilities into the regular classroom (Stewart, 1990).

Levin et al's (2005) study had four goals: 1) to examine how teachers' personal experiences affect their attitudes towards special education students; 2) to examine how professional experience affects teachers' attitudes towards special education students; 3) to examine the differences in teacher attitudes toward children with specific needs (e.g., ADHD, learning disability, or hearing impairment); and 4) to examine how teachers' implicit and explicit thoughts related to their behavioural intentions and actions. The results established that explicit thoughts are associated with teacher's behavioural intentions and actions towards children with

special needs. Specifically, the results indicated that positive explicit thoughts support teachers' intention to act positively towards children with special needs, while explicit negative thoughts support teachers' intentions to act negatively (Levin et al., 2005). When personal and professional experiences were compared, they found that teachers' attitudes were similar, but their attitudes towards children with low social skills were less positive than for children with low cognitive skills (Levin et al., 2005). This might be because lower social skills lead to more interpersonal conflict and emotionally-evocative situations.

Camacho, Vera, Scardamalia, and Phalen (2018) designed a mixed-methods study that explored 160 American urban teachers' thoughts and feelings in response to negative classroom events and associated prevalence of help-seeking behaviours. A shortcoming of this study is that it did not measure urban teachers' reaction, or decisions, to these negative classroom events. The researchers found that teachers who self-reported professional support were 4.5 times more likely to engage in problem solving and 10.6 times less likely to have thoughts about needing a break in response to negative classroom events (Camacho et al., 2018). This is important because it demonstrates that though negative events might be inevitable in the teaching profession, workplace factors can be protective of burnout and facilitate proactive problem solving.

Finally, Camacho et al. (2018) measured these teachers' help-seeking attitudes (e.g., willingness to seek help from a psychologist). They found that the participants reported a relative openness to this, which suggests that if teachers were offered the appropriate resources and information at the workplace, they would consider this form of support to help cope with difficult situations in the classroom. Specifically, Camacho et al. (2018) suggest that professional psychological services in the workplace would support teachers and provide them with the coping skills to increase their social and emotional responses in the classroom. In keeping with

other workplace studies, it is surprising that the researchers focus on negative experiences without, in parallel, understanding the positive experiences that may occur in tandem with challenging situations.

Due to the lack of research on teachers' emotional experiences and how these emotional experiences affect their subsequent thoughts and decisions in the classroom, the current literature first reviewed research on an individual's decision making process in the workplace. Teachers' emotions through research on teacher burnout and teacher self-efficacy was then explored. Results demonstrated that emotional exhaustion is a key contributor to teacher burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), while positive relationship with students, being able to control workplace stressors, and workplace competence help predict teacher self-efficacy (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Furthermore, theoretical frameworks and studies tying emotions, thoughts, and decisions together in the workplace were reviewed, as well as general studies on workplace decision making. With this in mind, there remains a gap in the research examining how teachers' emotions influence their thoughts and decisions in a given moment. Additionally, more research needs to be done on how positive emotions, in tandem with negative emotions, influence teachers' thoughts and decisions. The majority of the research to date focuses solely on how emotionally exhausted teachers are. It would be beneficial to measure the intensity of a large range of both positive and negative classroom-based emotions and describe teachers' attributions for how these emotional states influence their decision making processes. Finally, within these same classroom events, future research should also examine whether positive and negative emotions can co-occur, a phenomenon that was found during the emotionally complex situations in McGraw and Cacioppo's (2001) studies.

CHAPTER TWO

Teachers' Classroom-Based Experiences and Emotions

Decision Making

Research on classroom teachers' emotions and the role these emotions play in affecting their subsequent thoughts and decisions in the workplace is lacking. Decision making is important in the workplace. Although there is a lack of research on teachers' decision making in the classroom, workplace decision making has been explored through other demographics. Loe, Ferrell, and Mansfield (2000) published a meta-analysis that reviewed 74 empirical studies that assessed which factors contribute to ethical-decision making in the business and economic industries. They found that education, work experience, gender differences, code of ethics, awareness of one's own ethical behaviour relative to others, and rewarding/sanctioning behaviours were all contributing factors to an individual's decision making in the workplace (Loe et al., 2000). These contributing factors affect various types of decisions within these industries. These include financial decisions (e.g., managing cash flow or acquiring assets), structure decisions (e.g., partnership or legal structures), strategic decisions (e.g., decisions that put a business in a profitable position), and operation decisions (e.g., deciding how to run the business) (Ghattas et al, 2014).

Decision making has also been explored in the health professions. Nurses have been found to make clinical decisions based on work experience, patient preference, and evidence-based practice (Bakalis & Watson 2005). These contributing factors affect the way in which nurses provide nursing care and psychosocial support for their patients. Furthermore, they affect decisions around changing patient medication in the event of an emergency or providing families members and/or patients information about medically related subjects (Bakalis & Watson 2005).

In a postal survey study, researchers found that there were two different manners in which emergency physicians make decisions, depending on the situation (Calder, Forster, Stiell, Carr, Brehaut, Perry, Vaillancourt, & Crosskerry, 2011). The first manner in which decisions are formed is experimental decision making (i.e., System 1 decision making), which involves intuitive and fast decision making (Crosskerry, 2009). Emergency physicians use System 1 decision making during rapid lifesaving moments (Calder et al., 2011). The second manner in which decisions are formed is rational decision making (i.e., System 2 decision making), which combines critical evaluation of the situation and a more conscious awareness of a decision (Crosskerry, 2009). System 2 decision making is favoured during less extreme moments (e.g., deciding to discharge a patient) (Calder et al., 2011).

Overall, the research shows that workplace decision making is complex, and the manner in which people make decisions while working varies depending on several factors. However, there is still little research examining how teachers make decisions in a classroom environment. The profession of teaching differs in many ways from the health professions and economic industries. All three of these professions differ in terms of context and job demands, therefore decision making may or may not look different within each of these workplaces. There is no research to date comparing the cognitive process of decision making in various workplace contexts. In order to further understand how teachers make decisions and the kinds of decisions they are faced with in the classroom, it is important to first look at other factors that may play a role in the decision making process. One mechanism that may have a major impact on an individual's thoughts and decision making tendencies are emotions (Fredrickson, 1998), however there is limited research to date that demonstrates how emotions affect a teacher's thoughts and decisions.

Emotions

Previous research has suggested that there is a negative correlation between positive emotions and negative emotions. This is often referred to as bipolarity of emotions (Russell, 1980). The bipolar model was confirmed in a survey study conducted by Russell and Carroll (1999), where only 11% of their participants rated feeling both happy and sad simultaneously. This may have been the case because the participants were not presented with an emotionally complex situation, which is defined as an event that can cause an individual to feel both positive and negative emotions at the same time (McGraw & Cacioppo, 2001).

In contrast to Russell and Carroll's (1999) study, three studies conducted by McGraw and Cacioppo (2001) further investigated whether individuals can experience a positive affect (i.e., happiness) and a negative affect (i.e., sadness) simultaneously using events that are emotionally complex. The results provided evidence to this effect by documenting people's co-occurring happiness and sadness when watching an emotionally complex movie, when asking how undergraduate students feel on an average day during the school year compared to moving day out of residence at the end of the school year (e.g., potentially emotionally complex with joy for summer in tandem with sorrow from leaving friends), and when asking how undergraduates feel on an average day during the school year compared to graduation day (e.g., emotionally complex situation).

Seligman (2002) noted that the field of psychology focuses primarily on negative emotions because they are considered more urgent, and therefore supersede positive emotions. Positive emotions are neglected in the field of psychology because they do not pose an immediate problem. For instance, research has done reasonably well in studying various mental illnesses (e.g., anxiety or depression), which are accompanied by negative emotions, because

they interfere with daily functioning (Seligman, 2002). Seligman (2002) noted that positive emotions need to be studied more, as they are linked to prevention, recovery, and survival. Positive emotions have been associated with rapid recoveries for heart-transplant patients (Leedham, Meyerowitz, Muirhead, Frist, 1995) and rapid recoveries for patients who underwent coronary artery bypass surgery (Scheier, Matthews, Owens, Magoven, Lefebvre, Abbott, & Carver, 1989). Seligman (2002) also argues that positive emotions are protective. Research has shown that positive emotions acted as a preventative to the onset of common colds (Cohen, Alper, Doyle, Treanor, & Turner, 2006), to stroke (Ostir, Markides, Peek, & Goodwin, 2001), to low mortality rates in the elderly population (Cohen & Pressman, 2006), and to the rapid progression of the human immunodeficiency viruses (HIV) (Taylor, Kemeny, Reed, Bower, & Gruenewald, 2000).

Teacher Burnout and Teacher Self-Efficacy

Emotions are important in everyday life, including in the workplace, where one needs to regulate one's affect in moments when emotions are high. One group of individuals who might experience a plethora of emotions on a daily basis are teachers. There is a lack of research on the effects positive emotions have on teaching. Teachers' emotions and their emotional experiences have primarily been explored through research on teacher burnout and teacher self-efficacy, as emotional experiences have been found to be predictors of both these constructs. Negative classroom experiences can result in teacher burnout syndrome and a lack of self-efficacy (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Teacher burnout syndrome is a psychological condition that results when day-to-day work stressors gradually take their toll (Brown & Roloff, 2011). Teacher burnout can cause low morale, which in turn can affect students' academic achievement (Jennett, Harris, & Mesibov, 2003). Educators who experience teacher burnout syndrome have three

categories of symptoms: emotional exhaustion, reduced personal accomplishments in the classroom, and depersonalization. (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Emotional exhaustion is the central component of teacher burnout and it is the most widely reported symptom. Emotional exhaustion is described by feelings that cause emotional strain (e.g., anxiety) (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, and Hoy (1998) describe teachers' self-efficacy as one's belief in their ability to successfully teach, regulate, and motivate students to learn. If teachers are self-efficacious, there is a greater chance of job satisfaction and positive classroom experiences (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) state that teacher self-efficacy consists of three domains: student engagement (i.e., the teacher's ability to actively engage their students in learning processes), classroom management (i.e., the teacher's ability to keep students organized, productive, and focused during class time), and instructional strategies (i.e., the teacher's ability to effectively teach content and provide timely and actionable feedback to students that facilitates their learning processes).

Results from studies done on teacher burnout and teacher self-efficacy demonstrate that emotional exhaustion is a key contributor to teacher burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), while positive relationship with students, being able to control workplace stressors, and workplace competence help predict teacher self-efficacy (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). This research has focused to date primarily on negative emotions, stress, burnout, and the negative impacts these affective experiences have on teacher-goal setting, persistence in one's career, student-goal setting, and learning (Brown & Roloff, 2011; Camacho, Vera, Scardamalia, & Phalen, 2018; Chang, 2009; Jennett, Harris & Mesibov, 2003; Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Levin, Bornholt, & Lennon, 2005; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001; Pas, Bradshaw, & Hershfeldt,

2012; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010; Stasio, Fiorilli, Benevene, Uusitalo-Malmivaara, & Chiacchio, 2017; Wang, Hall, & Rahimi, 2015). No research to date has explored the full profile of emotional experiences in teachers' work. Further, though research has looked at the affect negative emotions have on distal career and learning outcomes, these studies provide no explanatory value, aside from emotional exhaustion and burnout, regarding the nuanced protective and harmful roles emotions might play in how teachers think and act with students when they are teaching every day.

Theoretical Framework Linking Emotions, Thoughts, and Decision Making

Classroom teachers make various decisions each day working with their students. Research has shown that emotions play an integral role in the decision making process. Currently, there is a lack of research specific to teachers' emotions in relation to their decision making. Fredrickson (1998) proposed an applied model, the *broaden-and-build theory*, that links emotions to an individuals' momentary thoughts and actions. The *broaden-and-build theory* suggests that positive emotions (e.g., joy) prompts an individual to pursue a broader choice of thoughts and actions within a given moment. If an individual is able to broaden their stock of thoughts and actions within a given moment, then they will be able to build an assortment of personal resources (e.g., positive friendships, good health, growth of knowledge, and resilience) (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). On the other hand, the *broaden-and-build theory* suggest that negative emotions (e.g., fear) narrows an individual's momentary thought-action repertoire, which in turn causes an individual to react quickly (e.g., attack or flee) (Fredrickson, 1998).

In a laboratory setting, Fredrickson and Branigan (2005) found that participants who experience positive emotions were more attentive and better able to broaden their momentary thought-action repertoires compared to a neutral group. Marginal evidence showed that negative

emotions narrowed the thought-action process, but it was not significant (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). A difficulty in testing propositions within this theory through experimental tasks is that the nature of induced emotions in laboratory-based tasks and decisions made that do not influence one's personal life might not have strong external validity. Patterns of broadening and narrowing might be different in naturalistic settings (e.g., the classroom) where people are making complex decisions in their daily lives. With that said, using self-efficacy and self-esteem as mediating factors, Choi, Lee, No, and Kim (2016) explored whether experiencing compassion could alleviate negative workplace emotions (i.e., anxiety and burnout), deviant behaviours, and thoughts about quitting one's job in a sample of 284 Korean nurses. The results demonstrated that there was a negative relation between compassion and negative workplace thoughts, feelings, and actions. Furthermore, the results indicated that compassion, the ability to feel what another person is feeling, elevated the levels of self-efficacy and self-esteem reported by participants (Choi et al., 2016).

In a study that investigated preservice and practicing teachers' attitudes, feelings, and behavioural intentions concerning children with special education needs, researchers found that positive explicit thoughts support teachers' intention to act positively towards children with special needs, while explicit negative thoughts support teachers' intentions to act negatively (Levin et al., 2005). Furthermore, they found that teachers' attitudes towards children with low social skills were less positive than for children with low cognitive skills (Levin et al., 2005). This might be because lower social skills lead to more interpersonal conflict and emotionally-evocative situations.

Despite research showing that emotions influence decisions in non-education settings and that teachers experience high rates of burnout and emotional exhaustion, there is still a gap in the

literature examining how teachers' emotions influence their successive thoughts and decisions within a given moment. Additionally, there is limited research to date that takes a balanced approach to measuring both positive and negative emotions in workplace settings.

Current Study

Both positive and negative classroom events can be emotionally taxing on a teacher, and this study will contribute detailed description of these experiences. The first objective of this study was to describe teachers' positive and negative emotional experiences in response to self-reported positive and negative classroom events with specific interest in the extent to which a range of events might evoke a range of both positive and negative emotions. This objective is exploratory and descriptive because, to date, teachers have not previously been asked to rate the intensity of a large range of both positive and negative emotions. In addition to describing emotions and their intensities, this study aimed to assess the extent to which emotions co-occur within a given experience. Since prior research has been limited in which emotions are measured, a subgoal of this study was to also describe additional words that teachers would use to describe their emotions in an open-ended way that are not captured from a standardized assessment of positive and negative emotion states. The second objective was to describe teachers' attributions for how self-reported emotions influenced their subsequent thoughts and decisions in the classroom.

Method

Participants

The sample consisted of 13 preschool to ninth grade teachers at a private school in Halifax, Nova Scotia who were invited to complete an anonymous survey. Eleven participants identified as being female, one participant identified as being male, and one participant identified

as being both male and female. Within the sample there were nine permanent position classroom teachers, two contract classroom teachers, one substitute teacher, and one resource teacher. All thirteen participants were Caucasian. With 18 teachers in total at this school, 72.22% of the teachers participated.

Measures

Emotional Experiences Questionnaire – Teacher Form (EEQ - TF). This researcher-constructed survey for purposes of this study asked teachers to describe a positive and a negative classroom event in detail. Each event reported (i.e., one positive and one negative from each participant) is followed by a standardized measure of 20 close-ended items (See PANAS scale description below) to rate the extent to which they experienced a range of positive and negative emotions during the self-reported event. The Likert-scale emotion ratings for each reported event are then followed by open-ended items constructed by the researchers, asking teachers to reflect on how the emotions experienced during the event influenced their thoughts and actions in their teaching practice. The open-ended items that the researcher constructed are intended to contextually situate self-reported emotional experiences based on the Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS) (Watson & Clark, 1984) and explore the attributions teachers make for the effects emotions have on their subsequent thought-action processes (See Appendix A).

Positive and Negative Affect Scale (Watson & Clark, 1984). The Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS) is embedded in this study's EEQ - TF. The PANAS is a self-report survey that asks participants to use a 5-point Likert scale to rate the extent to which they have felt each of 20 emotions at a given time. Ten items on the scale represent positive emotions (e.g., proud) and 10 items on the scale represent negative emotions (e.g., scared). The anchors of the scale are labeled *not at all*, *a little*, *moderately*, *quite a bit*, and *extremely*. Once teachers

described their positive and negative classroom events, they were asked to use a 5-point Likert scale to rate the extent to which that situation caused them to experience these 20 emotions (See Appendix A) in response to each event. The PANAS has strong psychometric properties, being validated and used widely in the field of emotion research. Internal reliabilities of subscales range from acceptable (0.74) to very strong (0.94).

Procedure

This anonymous exploratory mixed methods survey study was conducted at a private school in Halifax, Nova Scotia. The school is a member of the International Association of Laboratory Schools and embraces applied education research. As such, the school welcomed this work and requested a presentation be given to staff to debrief about the study findings once data were analyzed. An email outlining the purpose of the study and where the participants could find the consent forms and surveys was sent through the head teacher at the school to notify all teaching staff. The consent forms (See Appendix B) and the surveys (See Appendix A) were then left in the staffroom, as directed in the email, at the school. The consent forms were attached to the surveys and they outlined the purpose of the study, along with any potential risks and benefits, and contact information to ask questions or express concerns. After reading the consent form, the teachers were asked to complete the anonymous demographics form and EEQ – TF with embedded PANAS scale (Watson & Clark, 1984). Once the participants completed the survey, they were asked to put them in a box that was sealed, which was also located in the staffroom.

Results

Quantitative analyses.

The 20 discrete emotions on the PANAS were tallied to compute a subscale for positive emotion and a subscale for negative emotion for both the positive and negative self-reported classroom events. These scores are continuous and assumptions about normal distribution were assessed graphically, with skewness and kurtosis statistics and Schapiro-Wilks correlation coefficient. All four variables (i.e., positive and negative emotions for the positive and negative events) met the assumption of normality.

A within-subjects MANOVA tested whether teachers' emotional experiences significantly differed between their positive and negative self-reported classroom events. The within-subjects categorical predictor variable are the two events (i.e., self-reported positive classroom event and the self-reported negative classroom event). The outcome variables are the positive affect and negative affect scales described above. A within-subjects *t*-test assessed whether the positive and negative affect scales differed within each event reported. Cohen's *d* effect sizes were calculated for all mean differences reported to communicate differences in standard deviation units and eta squared was reported as a standardized effect size for the MANOVA model, describing the percentage of variance accounted for by the statistical model.

The results indicated an overall significant statistical model, $F_{(2,11)} = 103.43, p < .001, \eta^2 = 0.95$. A subsequent univariate test of positive emotion indicated that teachers experienced more positive emotions in the positive event compared to the negative event, $F_{(12)} = 126.09, p < .001, \eta^2 = 0.91$. A subsequent univariate test of negative emotions indicated that teachers felt more negative emotions in the negative event compared to the positive event, $F_{(12)} = 26.79, p < .001,$

$\eta^2 = 0.69$. See Table 1 for descriptive and group difference statistics (i.e., observed mean difference and Cohen's d).

A within-subjects t -test assessed whether the positive and negative affect scales differed within each event reported. Cohen's d effect sizes were calculated for all mean differences reported to communicate differences in standard deviation units. When examining self-reported positive events, teachers experienced more positive emotions than negative emotions, $t_{(12)} = 30.23, p < .001$, with an extremely large effect size ($d = 7.63$). Even though teachers experienced more negative emotions in the negative event compared to the positive event, the teachers did not feel significantly different levels of positive and negative emotions within the negative event, $t_{(12)} = .210, p > .05$, with a small effect size ($d = .09$).

Descriptive statistics and frequencies describing the range of intensity reported for the 20 discrete emotions measured with the PANAS for the positive event are presented in Table 2, Table 3, Table 4, and Table 5. Descriptive statistics and frequencies describing the range of intensity reported for the 20 discrete emotions measured with the PANAS for the negative event are presented in Table 6, Table 7, Table 8, Table 9. Across the positive event participants' ratings for positive emotions ranged from 0 to 4. All 10 positive emotions had a rating of *extremely* at one point throughout the positive events. Across the positive event participants' ratings for negative emotions ranged from 0 to 3, with the most intensely felt emotion being jittery. During the positive event, no participants rated feeling guilty, hostile, or ashamed. Across the negative event participants' ratings for positive emotions ranged from 0 to 4, with the most intensely felt emotions being active, determined, attentive, strong, interested, and alert. Across the negative event participants' ratings for negative emotions ranged from 0 to 4, with the most intensely felt emotions being afraid, nervous, scared, upset, guilty, irritable, and distressed. While each

negative emotion was experienced to some degree throughout the negative events, hostile, ashamed, and jittery were the only emotions that did not receive a rating of *extremely* (4).

Spearman's non-parametric bivariate correlation statistics were calculated to determine which emotions co-occurred for all 20 emotions for each event reported. All positive and negative moderate to large significant correlations are reported. The positive event's moderate significant emotion correlations found were between active-determined ($r = .65$), determined-afraid ($r = .58$), scared-determined ($r = .58$), irritable-determined ($r = .58$), and interested-alert ($r = .58$). The positive event's large significant emotion correlations found were strong-determined ($r = .82$), alert-attentive ($r = .82$), determined-nervous ($r = .73$), inspired-proud ($r = 1.00$), afraid-nervous ($r = .72$), afraid-scared ($r = .1.00$), jittery-afraid ($r = .84$), afraid-irritable ($r = 1.00$), distressed-afraid ($r = .82$), nervous-scared ($r = .72$), jittery-nervous ($r = .80$), jittery-scared ($r = .84$), irritable-nervous ($r = .72$), irritable-scared ($r = 1.00$), distressed-nervous ($r = .80$), scared-distressed ($r = .82$), jittery-irritable ($r = .84$), distressed-jittery ($r = .99$), and irritable-distressed ($r = .82$).

The negative event's moderate significant emotion correlations found were attentive-interested ($r = .60$), strong-interested ($r = .69$), alert-afraid ($r = .57$), guilty-upset ($r = .64$), distressed-afraid ($r = .61$), distressed-scared ($r = .58$), distressed-upset ($r = .62$), guilty-ashamed ($r = .57$), and guilty-irritable ($r = .62$). The negative event's large significant emotion correlations found were alert-attentive ($r = .77$), jittery-strong ($r = -.87$), alert-scared ($r = .70$), afraid-nervous ($r = .88$), afraid-scared ($r = .91$), nervous-scared ($r = .87$), and irritable-upset ($r = .71$).

Qualitative analyses.

Additional words used to describe teachers' emotional experiences during the positive classroom event included reassured, affirmed, trusting, surprised, observant, passive, warm, caring, supportive, appreciative, blessed, touched, loved, pride, pleased, satisfied, overwhelmed, tired, emotional, embarrassed, awed, giddy, and thrilled. Additional words used by the teachers to describe their emotional experience during the negative classroom event included frustrated, anxious, muddled, foggy, concerned, worried, flustered, inexperienced, disrespected, annoyed, sad, embarrassed, disappointed, helpless, crabby, grateful, and discouraged. After presenting the data of this study to the participants of this study, teachers remarked that they felt some of the items on the PANAS did not reflect their emotion states during those moments and that they would have preferred if the measure used the above additional words or common terminology to describe their emotions (e.g., happy or sad).

Teachers acknowledged that their thoughts and decisions were influenced by the emotions that they experienced during the self-reported events. For example, in a situation where a teacher was on a class field trip they stated that "my feelings influenced my thoughts and decisions." The attributions teachers made are represented under the four following themes: *gratitude and broad perspective taking; self- and co-regulation; emotions as brief distractions; cognitive clarity and confusion*. Overall, teachers reported that they kept teaching and were fully engaged during the positive events and were more inclined to want to disengage during the negative events. For example, one teacher stated that seeing their students use strategies learned in class "gave me the energy to apply back into my teaching". Another teacher explained in response to a negative event, "I know that feeling discouraged me, made me less patient, and less

engaged in the class. I just wanted to give up and try again the next day. I didn't, but that's what I was thinking."

Gratitude and Broad Perspective Taking. During positive emotions states, teachers reported thinking about how they had a new outlook concerning the students they teach. For example, during one teacher's class, a student shared with the class that other students had been calling him names. After the student shared this information, the other students comforted the student. After seeing this, the teacher stated that she thought about how her students demonstrated "their independence as a class coming together as a community of learners."

Teachers expressed awareness and acknowledgement of one's gratitude regarding their position in the school. For example, one teacher stated that their student "made me very aware of how incredibly lucky I am to work in this school and be a teacher" after a young student was thrilled that they counted to 1000. Teachers also reported thinking about how their students are doing a great job. For example, a teacher thought that their students "did such a wonderful job and learned so much and I was so proud of them" in a situation where their students had to do an end of the term presentation at the school fair. In moments of positive emotional states, teachers also thought compassionately about the emotional experiences of the students. For example, one teacher stated how they thought about how "the children (some) were also emotional (in a positive way), and some were likely uncomfortable with others showing such emotion" in a situation where students were asked to leave a comment regarding their experience at school on the last day of classes. Many of the students in this event talked about how supported they felt and how much the class as a peer group shaped who they were. The teacher felt "reassured" and "thought about how her students had a positive school year".

One teacher reported witnessing a student who was typically challenging engage fully in a self-directed inquiry project with their peers. The group of students asked each other questions and provided answers for each other, helping with all of the project work happening in the class. The teacher wrote “It was one of the coolest moments as a teacher to see the engagement, interaction, and learning from one another. This particular incident was very passive for me, which is unusual in my day. It was six years ago and I think of it often.” These broad reflections and expressions of gratitude were only reported in response to positive events.

Self- and Co-Regulation. Teachers acknowledged that their emotions influenced their decisions. For example, teachers stated that they were able to self-regulate during the reported positive event. In a situation where a teacher was excited to look at hermit crabs with their students they stated, “I worked on managing the excitement of the students as well, making sure we followed the correct timing for the activity so that everyone could have similar experiences”. This demonstrates that the teacher was managing both their emotions and those of their students. Teachers reported that they gave their students autonomy. For example, one teacher said that their feelings allowed them to “stand back and allow my students to lead the support that was given” in a situation where students were emotionally supporting each other, meaning that the students self-initiated co-regulation without support from the teacher. Teachers reported that they were able to reframe their actions from negative to positive. For example, one teacher said that they were “able to maintain humor as well as using sarcasm which the students fed off” when addressing a student’s inappropriate comment.

Teachers reported that there was a desire to react emotionally during the negative events and it required effort to regulate these negative emotions. For example, one teacher stated, “my immediate thought was to react, but I tried to manage myself and stay calm” in a situation where

a student was screaming and throwing class materials. Another teacher stated, "I think it makes me change my mood. When I am feeling disrespected and frustrated I find it hard to switch back to being positive and engaging" in a situation where her students were being inattentive. Another teacher explained "I kept my cool in class, but later I was tearful" in a situation where four students were continuously interrupting the class lesson.

In a situation where a student was "particularly belligerent and (somewhat subtly) avoided doing anything that was asked of him, in an effort to get a rise out of me, I could feel my heart racing and my face turning red as I tried to maintain control of the situation, and not show that his actions were having an effect on me." When a student was yelling and throwing a journal and pencil and hitting someone, the teacher explained, "my immediate thought was to react, but I tried to manage myself, stay calm, and remove the student to a calm place so that no one else was hurt." Teachers expressed conscious and effortful attempts to self-regulate during the negative events, which differed from when they reported that they were simply able to self- and co-regulate during the positive events.

Teachers stated that they also tried to help their students learn to self-regulate during and after negative events. One teacher stated that they tried to use "a variety of behaviour management strategies but was unable to make the necessary shift to have a productive class period" in a situation where students were continuously interrupting the lesson. Some teachers expressed that they kept teaching during the negative event, though it was difficult. One teacher explained that dealing with the difficult of behaviour of one student was so frustrating and distracting that it was "challenging to persevere and keep high expectations" for the rest of the students. Teachers noted that when they could not help a student regulate themselves in class,

they would talk to the student about why their behaviour was inappropriate during the negative event after class was over to help the student learn how to self-regulate.

Emotions as Distractions. During the positive and negative events, when a teacher felt extreme emotions, their subsequent behaviour was often to cry or be tearful. Teachers also reported that they felt distracted. For example, one stated that it “probably made me seem distracted and less patient but I was excited as well” when they spoke about watching their students present at the school fair. Teachers reported that they cried tears of joy during the positive events. For example, one teacher notes that “hearing students be kind and complimentary towards each other always brings me to tears”. Another teacher stated, “I know that the pride of the students is what touched me in that moment and made me cry” when they thought about their students’ bright futures.

Sometimes negative emotions could not be self or co-regulated, which led to them being brief distractions. A teacher who had two students screaming loudly about things unrelated to class and insulting the teacher explained, “my frustration meant that I disengaged instead of using the event as an educational experience.” This teacher was focused on maintaining the class lesson plan for the other students and ignored the disruptive behaviour without later follow-up. Though the teacher stayed logistically engaged in the overall class, she disengaged from these two students. One teacher also reported that they disengaged from some school-level conversations because they were avoiding dealing with feelings of disrespect. One teacher stated, “I became more quiet, and probably didn't speak up enough for myself”.

Cognitive Confusion and Focus. Teachers expressed that they were unable to think clearly during some negative events. For example, one teacher stated that they were “unable to think clearly about what should be done and in which order” in a situation where a student was

getting sick in the classroom. In some cases, teachers stated that negative emotions made them have confusing thoughts, whereas in others, teachers reported having thoughts of carefully planning what to do next. For example, one teacher stated that “it made me think very carefully about my next step” in a situation where a student was having a tantrum and screaming “you hate me, I’m stupid...”. Teachers explained that at times they narrowed one’s full attention to a specific child. For example, one teacher thought about how they “were likely less able to tune into the needs of other students” in a situation where a student was having difficulty showing respect to the teacher.

Discussion

Summary

The objective of the current study was to develop some insight about how pre-school to ninth grade private school teachers respond emotionally to self-reported positive and negative classroom events. Classroom experiences can produce an array of emotions for educators and the goal of this study was to add to the understanding of these experiences. Additionally, this study explored the attributions teachers made about how these emotions influenced the decisions and thoughts that teachers experienced throughout these recalled emotional events. By doing this, the authors hoped to inform first steps in both describing teachers’ workplace experiences, as past research has focused on other workplace demographics with different workplace demands (e.g., nurses).

Previous research on teachers’ emotional experiences has focused solely on negative emotions, emotional exhaustion, stress, burnout, and the negative affects these experiences have on teacher-goal setting, persistence in one’s career, student-goal setting, and learning (Brown & Roloff, 2011; Camacho et al., 2018; Chang, 2009; Jennett et al., 2003; Klassen & Chiu, 2010;

Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Levin et al., 2005; Maslach et al., 2001; Pas et al., 2012; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010; Stasio et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2015). Researchers tend to focus solely on negative emotions because they are considered more urgent and pose more of an immediate problem or objective danger (Seligman, 2002). Seligman (2002) noted that there is a need for research on positive psychology, as positive emotions hold a survival value and are considered protective. As such, the current study examined both teachers' positive emotional experiences and negative emotional experiences.

Positive and negative emotional experiences were found to be different during self-reported positive versus negative teaching events. Further, in the self-reported positive event, there were minimal negative emotions experienced and significantly more positive emotions experienced, with a much higher intensity than the negative emotions experienced. With that being said, there was not a complete lack of negative emotions experienced during the self-reported positive events. Interestingly, during the self-reported negative events recalled, teachers felt equal levels, ranging from mild to intense, of both positive and negative emotions. Results from the negative events are consistent with McGraw and Cacioppo (2001), which demonstrated that individuals can experience both positive and negative emotions in complex contexts. These results did not provide support for the bipolar model proposed by Russell (1980), which suggested that there is a negative correlation between positive emotions and negative emotions and they cannot co-occur simultaneously. This is important because teachers are faced with various dilemmas throughout the day that not only impact themselves, but also their students, therefore giving the previous results that positive emotions are protective (Seligman, 2002), it is suitable that teachers experience them during negative events to protect against long term negative outcomes.

The studies proposed by McGraw and Cacioppo (2001) primarily examined whether happy and sad can co-occur within a given event. One goal of the present study was to determine other emotion states that were connected within the positive and negative teacher events, whether they were positive emotion-negative emotion, positive emotion-positive emotion, or negative emotion-negative emotion. Findings indicated that there were more connections between specific emotion states in the positive events than in the negative events. This might be due to the fact that the recalled positive events had a greater variability in ratings across the emotion items. The emotion states that co-occurred in *both* positive and negative events include distressed-afraid, distressed-scared, alert-attentive, afraid-nervous, afraid-scared, and nervous-scared. Of all of those pairings, attentive was the only emotion from the positive affect scale. The determined and attentive emotion states were moderately to highly correlated with a range positive and negative emotions in the events reported (e.g., determined-afraid in the positive event). This finding demonstrates that a variety of positive and negative emotions can co-occur outside of “happy” and “sad”. On the other hand, this could also suggest that a reflection on the PANAS categorization of what constitutes positive and negative emotions should be explored. Perhaps it would be best to place such emotions in a neutral category, as attentive when also feeling excited may be a very different experience than feeling attentive when also afraid.

Teachers shared a range of words to explain their feelings beyond the 20 listed in the PANAS. The most common additional word listed was frustrated. Frustrated was typically present during the recalled negative events, primarily when students were defiant to teacher requests. As requested by the school, the data were presented to the school in which the participants worked after data were analyzed. After this was completed, the teaching staff

expressed that reporting additional words to describe their emotional state was beneficial, as they did not feel all of the emotion items on the PANAS reflected their recalled emotion states.

Fredrickson (1998) proposed that our emotions, whether positive or negative, have an impact on our subsequent thoughts and decisions. Initial attributions made by teachers indicated that they do experience thought-action processes consistent with Fredrickson's (1998) theory. Positive emotions frequently led to reflections about students at a broad level and their teaching profession. Furthermore, positive emotion states allowed teachers to react by giving their students autonomy, self-regulating, or supporting their students when self-regulating. This finding suggests that these teachers were self-efficacious because their actions were aligned with Tschannen-Moran and colleagues' (1998) definition of teacher self-efficacy, which they described as one's belief in his or her ability to successfully teach, regulate, and motivate students to learn. These teachers would more likely have a greater chance of job satisfaction and positive classroom experiences with their students (Klassen & Chiu, 2010), which is aligned with the theme of gratitude during positive experiences.

Negative emotions often led to confusion or a desire to disengage and try again later. This finding relates to research found on teacher burnout, where negative emotional experiences (i.e., emotional exhaustion) can cause low morale, which in turn can affect the students and teachers negatively in the classroom (Jennett et al., 2003). For that reason, it is important to enhance teacher practice within schools and provide interventions for burnout so that more teachers can be equipped with the strategies for having positive experiences within the classroom with their students and their profession.

For both positive and negative experiences, intense emotions were distracting and needed to be regulated to remain focused on teaching and learning. Offering interventions within the

school setting, such as workshops, support groups, and psychological services may be possible options to consider in helping teachers deal with their potential day-to-day stressors and finding solutions. Additionally, providing schools with a presentation of this study's findings, and the findings of upcoming studies on this research topic, could be beneficial in educating staff about their decision making tendencies and what supports could be provided for them if needed.

Limitations

The most notable limitation for the current study was the small sample size. Having participants from only one school made it difficult to draw concrete conclusions from and expand on the research of emotion and decision making, specifically regarding teachers. With a larger sample, a cluster analysis to identify emotions that co-occur might be more informative than the non-parametric bivariate correlations that were logistically feasible within this study. A further limitation of the study was using the PANAS as a measurement tool. After presenting the results of this study to the participants of this study, it was mentioned that they would have preferred common emotion terminology in the survey, such as happy, sad, or angry (See page 39). Additionally, they felt that some of the items on the PANAS did not reflect their emotion states. Items that brought confusion to the sample included inspired, attentive, and determined. An additional limitation is that teachers may have had a self-report bias when completing the EEQ - TF, where they may have not been completely honest about the negative emotions (e.g., ashamed) that they experienced within a given event. This could be the case because they may have felt that they wanted to be viewed as professional, rather than given an honest depiction of their emotional profile. A final limitation to the study was the teachers' ability in a retrospective written survey to self-reflect and report precisely how emotions impact specific thought-action

repertoires. General comments were often made by teachers, and they did not provide much detail or specific explanations and contextual detail.

Future Research

Given the paucity of research on teachers' everyday emotions and subsequent thoughts and actions, there are many recommendations for future research in this area. This study was a first step in describing teachers' workplace experiences (i.e., how their emotions affected their subsequent thoughts and decisions within a given experience). Previous research has looked at the cognitive processes involved in decision making in various workplace contexts, however, there is no research to date comparing the similarities and differences of the cognitive processes involved in decision making within various workplace contexts. This is a topic that should be explored in future studies.

To further assess the extent to which different types of thoughts and decisions vary as a function of emotional valence and intensity, experimental work could test a priori hypotheses reflecting Fredrickson's (1998) principles of cognitive broadening in positive emotional states and narrowing in negative emotional states. It is recommended that future work embrace multiple research designs and anticipate that results from independent studies will triangulate to provide insight about how emotions shape teachers' decision making, as well as provide insight about teachers' stress and well-being. Because this survey relies on recall, there is a loss of contextual detail about the positive and negative experiences. Prospective studies examining in detail teachers' daily experiences through classroom based qualitative methods could add further insight about this topic. An example of this could be having researchers go into the classroom and observe the daily experiences of teachers. There has not been much research on teacher-

emotional experiences, coping skills, and interventions, therefore results from such a study would be beneficial in starting this line of inquiry.

Based on the open-ended items in this study, it is recommended that future use of the EEQ - TF survey include Likert-scale items for the emotions that teachers reported that they did not feel were reflected in the 20 standardized items on the PANAS. With this slightly revised survey given to a larger sample of teachers, it would be possible to assess the measure's validity and reliability in future studies. Giving the survey to public school teachers in a similar geographic area could be an interesting comparison to the experiences of private school teachers described here.

Practical Implications

If school psychologists have a better understanding of teachers' emotional experiences in the classroom, and how these experiences affect their decision making, it can help contextualize their thinking when making recommendations and forming collaborative relationships. Having the emotional intelligence to understand teachers' workplace experiences will allow a school psychologist to be more cautious when providing feedback about their teaching practice to build and maintain positive relationships. Furthermore, these findings suggest that interventions should be provided within the Regional Centre for Education to help teachers develop coping strategies within potentially daily stressful events. Providing cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) within a small group setting could be an example of an intervention that could be provided within the Regional Centre of Education. These CBT groups would be scheduled at a time feasible for teachers who want the support. The group time would be used to explicitly educate teachers, through various exercises, that their thoughts influence their emotions and behaviours, and if an individual can change the way they think, then they can change their emotional responses and

decision making within a given event. Within such an intervention, teachers would be provided with various coping strategies to help them change the way they think during events that elicit negative thoughts and emotions. By doing this, teachers might be more equipped in making appropriate decisions that foster student learning.

References

- Al-Tarawneh, H. A. (2012). The main factors beyond decision making. *Journal of Management Research, 4*(1), 1-23.
- Bakalis, N. A., & Watson, R. (2005). Nurses' decision-making in clinical practice. *Nursing Standard, 19*(23), 112-140.
- Barrett, K. C., & Campos, J. J. (1987). Perspectives on emotional development II: A functionalist approach to emotions.
- Beusaert, S., Froehlich, D. E., Devos, C., & Riley, P. (2016). Effects of support on stress and burnout in school principals. *Educational Research, 58*(4), 347-365.
- Brown, L. A., & Roloff, M. E. (2011). Extra-role time, burnout, and commitment: The power of promises kept. *Business Communication Quarterly, 74*(4), 450-474.
- Calder, L. A., Forster, A. J., Stiell, I. G., Carr, L. K., Brehaut, J. C., Perry, J. J., ... & Croskerry, P. (2012). Experiential and rational decision making: a survey to determine how emergency physicians make clinical decisions. *Emerg Med J, 29*(10), 811-816.
- Camacho, D. A., Vera, E., Scardamalia, K., & Phalen, P. L. (2018). What are urban teachers thinking and feeling?. *Psychology in the Schools, 55*(9), 1133-1150.
- Center, Y., & Ward, J. (1987). Teachers' attitudes towards the integration of disabled children into regular schools. *The Exceptional Child, 34*(1), 41-56.
- Chang, M. L. (2009). An appraisal perspective of teacher burnout: Examining the emotional work of teachers. *Educational Psychology Review, 21*(3), 193-218.
- Choi, H. J., Lee, S., No, S. R., & Kim, E. I. (2016). Effects of compassion on employees' self-regulation. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal, 44*(7), 1173-1190.

- Cohen, S., Alper, C. M., Doyle, W. J., Treanor, J. J., & Turner, R. B. (2006). Positive emotional style predicts resistance to illness after experimental exposure to rhinovirus or influenza A virus. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, *68*(6), 809-815.
- Cohen, S., & Pressman, S. D. (2006). Positive affect and health. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *15*(3), 122-125.
- Croskerry, P. (2009). Clinical cognition and diagnostic error: applications of a dual process model of reasoning. *Advances in health sciences education*, *14*(1), 27-35.
- Dienes, Z., & Perner, J. (2002). The metacognitive implications of the implicit-explicit distinction. In *Metacognition* (pp. 171-189). Springer, Boston, MA.
- Fillenbaum, S., & Rapoport, A. (1970). Emotion Names. *Studies in the Subjective Lexicon* (Academic Press, New York).
- Fredrickson, B. L. (1998). What good are positive emotions?. *Review of General Psychology*, *2*(3), 300-319.
- Ekkekakis, P. (2012). Affect, mood, and emotion. *Measurement in Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 321-332.
- Fredrickson, B. L., & Branigan, C. (2005). Positive emotions broaden the scope of attention and thought-action repertoires. *Cognition & Emotion*, *19*(3), 313-332.
- Fredrickson, B. L., Mancuso, R. A., Branigan, C., & Tugade, M. M. (2000). The undoing effect of positive emotions. *Motivation and emotion*, *24*(4), 237-258.
- Frijda, N. H. (1993). Moods, emotion episodes, and emotions.
- Frijda, N. H. (1986). *The emotions*. London, England: Cambridge University Press
- Gaudine, A., & Thorne, L. (2001). Emotion and ethical decision-making in organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *31*(2), 175-187.

- Ghattas, J., Soffer, P., & Peleg, M. (2014). Improving business process decision making based on past experience. *Decision Support Systems, 59*, 93-107.
- Isen, A. M., Daubman, K. A., & Nowicki, G. P. (1987). Positive affect facilitates creative problem solving. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*(6), 1122-1131.
- Jennett, H. K., Harris, S. L., & Mesibov, G. B. (2003). Commitment to philosophy, teacher efficacy, and burnout among teachers of children with autism. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders, 33*(6), 583-593.
- Kohlberg, L. (1958). *The development of modes or moral thinking and choice in the years ten to sixteen*. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Chicago.
- Kohlberg, L. (1979). *The meaning and measurement of moral development*. Clark University Press.
- Klassen, R. M., & Chiu, M. M. (2010). Effects on teachers' self-efficacy and job satisfaction: Teacher gender, years of experience, and job stress. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*(3), 741-759.
- Kristensen, T. S., Borritz, M., Villadsen, E., & Christensen, K. B. (2005). The Copenhagen Burnout Inventory: A new tool for the assessment of burnout. *Work & Stress, 19*(3), 192-207.
- Lambert, R. G., McCarthy, C. J., Fitchett, P. G., Lineback, S., & Reiser, J. (2015). Identification of elementary teachers' risk for stress and vocational concerns using the national schools and staffing survey. *Education Policy Analysis Archives, 23*, 43-59.
- Lau, P. S., Yuen, M. T., & Chan, R. M. (2005). Do demographic characteristics make a difference to burnout among Hong Kong secondary school teachers?. In *Quality-of-life research in Chinese, western and global contexts* (pp. 491-516). Springer, Dordrecht.

- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. Springer Publishing Company.
- Leedham, B., Meyerowitz, B. E., Muirhead, J., & Frist, W. H. (1995). Positive expectations predict health after heart transplantation. *Health Psychology, 14*(1), 74-79.
- Levins, T., Bornholt, L., & Lennon, B. (2005). Teachers' experience, attitudes, feelings and behavioural intentions towards children with special educational needs. *Social Psychology of Education, 8*(3), 329-343.
- Loe, T. W., Ferrell, L., & Mansfield, P. (2000). A review of empirical studies assessing ethical decision making in business. *Journal of business ethics, 25*(3), 185-204.
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. (1981). Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual. Mountain View, California: CPP.
- Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E., & Leiter, M. P. (1996). Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual, 3rd edn. Mountain View, CA: CPP.
- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*(1), 397-422.
- McGraw, A. P., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2001). Can people feel happy and sad at the same time?. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81*(4), 684-696.
- Ostir, G. V., Markides, K. S., Peek, M. K., & Goodwin, J. S. (2001). The association between emotional well-being and the incidence of stroke in older adults. *Psychosomatic Medicine, 63*(2), 210-215.
- Pas, E. T., Bradshaw, C. P., & Hershfeldt, P. A. (2012). Teacher-and school-level predictors of teacher efficacy and burnout: Identifying potential areas for support. *Journal of School Psychology, 50*(1), 129-145.

- Pejtersen, J. H., Kristensen, T. S., Borg, V., & Bjorner, J. B. (2010). The second version of the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire. *Scandinavian Journal of Public Health, 38*(3), 8-24.
- Pieters, R. G., & Van Raaij, W. F. (1988). Functions and management of affect: Applications to economic behavior. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 9*(2), 251-282.
- Rest, J. R. (1983). Morality. *Handbook of Child Psychology, 3*, 556-629.
- Roth, G., Assor, A., Kanat-Maymon, Y., & Kaplan, H. (2007). Autonomous motivation for teaching: How self-determined teaching may lead to self-determined learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 99*(4), 761-774.
- Russell, J. A. (1980). A circumplex model of affect. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 39*(6), 1161-1182.
- Russell, J. A., & Carroll, J. M. (1999). On the bipolarity of positive and negative affect. *Psychological Bulletin, 125*(1), 3-30.
- Schachter, S., & Singer, J. (1962). Cognitive, social, and physiological determinants of emotional state. *Psychological Review, 69*(5), 379-390.
- Scheier, M. F., Matthews, K. A., Owens, J. F., Magovern, G. J., Lefebvre, R. C., Abbott, R. A., & Carver, C. S. (1989). Dispositional optimism and recovery from coronary artery bypass surgery: the beneficial effects on physical and psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*(6), 1024-1040.
- Schwab, R. L., Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1986). Educator burnout: Sources and consequences. *Educational Research Quarterly, 10*(3), 14-30.
- Seligman, M. E. (2002). Positive psychology, positive prevention, and positive therapy. *Handbook of Positive Psychology, 2*, 3-12.

- Shen, B., McCaughtry, N., Martin, J., Garn, A., Kulik, N., & Fahlman, M. (2015). The relationship between teacher burnout and student motivation. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 85*(4), 519-532.
- Simon, H. (1991). Bounded rationality and organizational learning. *Organization Science, 2* (1), 125 - 144.
- Simon, H. (1990). Invariants of human behavior. *Annual Review of Psychology, 41*, 1 - 20.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2017). Motivated for teaching? Associations with school goal structure, teacher self-efficacy, job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 67*, 152-160.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2010). Teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout: A study of relations. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*(4), 1059-1069.
- Stasio, S., Fiorilli, C., Benevene, P., Uusitalo-Malmivaara, L., & Chiacchio, C. D. (2017). Burnout in special needs teachers at kindergarten and primary school: investigating the role of personal resources and work wellbeing. *Psychology in the Schools, 54*(5), 472-486.
- Stewart, C. C. (1990). Effect of practica types in preservice adapted physical education curriculum on attitudes toward disabled populations. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 10*(1), 76-83.
- Taylor, S. E., Kemeny, M. E., Reed, G. M., Bower, J. E., & Gruenewald, T. L. (2000). Psychological resources, positive illusions, and health. *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 99-115.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. W. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*(7), 783-805.

Tschannen-Moran, M., Hoy, A. W., & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research, 68*(2), 202-248.

Villa, G., Manara, D., & Palese, A. (2012). Nurses' near-decision-making process of postoperative patients' cardiocirculatory weaning and extubation in an Italian environment. *Intensive and Critical Care Nursing, 28*(1), 41-49.

Wang, H., Hall, N. C., & Rahimi, S. (2015). Self-efficacy and causal attributions in teachers: Effects on burnout, job satisfaction, illness, and quitting intentions. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 47*, 120-130.

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1984). *The PANAS-X: Manual for the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule-Expanded Form*. University of Iowa.

Table 1

Descriptive and Group Difference Statistics

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	Cohen's D
Positive Emotion Scale			17.46	4.09
Positive Event	33.08	4.17		
Negative Event	15.62	4.37		
Negative Emotion Scale			-13	-2.10
Positive Event	2.08	3.95		
Negative Event	15.08	7.86		

Table 2

Central Tendencies and Range for Positive Emotions Reported During the Positive Event

Positive Emotions	Mean	Median	Mode	Minimum Score	Maximum Score
Active	2.08	2.00	2.00	0	4
Enthusiastic	3.46	4.00	4.00	2	4
Determined	2.23	2.00	2.00, 3.00 4.00	0	4
Attentive	3.69	4.00	4.00	3	4
Inspired	3.92	4.00	4.00	3	4
Strong	2.77	3.00	4.00	0	4
Interested	3.92	4.00	4.00	3	4
Alert	3.62	4.00	4.00	2	4
Excited	3.46	4.00	4.00	1	4
Proud	3.92	4.00	4.00	3	4

Table 3

Central Tendencies and Range for Negative Emotions Reported During the Positive Event

Negative Emotions	Mean	Median	Mode	Minimum Score	Maximum Score
Afraid	.23	.00	.00	0	2
Nervous	.54	.00	.00	0	2
Scared	.23	.00	.00	0	2
Upset	.08	.00	.00	0	1
Guilty	.00	.00	.00	0	0
Hostile	.00	.00	.00	0	0
Ashamed	.00	.00	.00	0	0
Jittery	.46	.00	.00	0	3
Irritable	.23	.00	.00	0	2
Distressed	.31	.00	.00	0	2

Table 4

Frequencies of Likert-Scale Responses for Positive Emotions in the Positive Event

Positive Emotions	Not At All	A Little	Moderately	Quite A Bit	Extremely
Active	1	3	5	2	2
Enthusiastic	0	0	1	5	7
Determined	2	2	3	3	3
Attentive	0	0	0	4	9
Inspired	0	0	0	1	12
Strong	2	0	2	4	5
Interested	0	0	0	1	12
Alert	0	0	2	1	10
Excited	0	1	0	4	8
Proud	0	0	0	1	12

Table 5

Frequencies of Likert-Scale Responses for Negative Emotions in the Positive Event

Negative Emotions	Not At All	A Little	Moderately	Quite A Bit	Extremely
Afraid	11	1	1	0	0
Nervous	8	3	2	0	0
Scared	11	1	1	0	0
Upset	12	1	0	0	0
Guilty	13	0	0	0	0
Hostile	13	0	0	0	0
Ashamed	13	0	0	0	0
Jittery	10	1	1	1	0
Irritable	11	1	1	0	0
Distressed	10	2	1	0	0

Table 6

Central Tendencies and Range for Positive Emotions Reported During the Negative Event

Positive Emotions	Mean	Median	Mode	Minimum Score	Maximum Score
Active	2.08	2.00	1.00	1	4
Enthusiastic	0.31	0.00	0.00	0	2
Determined	2.62	3.00	3.00	1	4
Attentive	3.15	3.00	3.00, 4.00	2	4
Inspired	0.15	0.00	0.00	0	2
Strong	1.38	1.00	0.00	0	4
Interested	1.92	2.00	2.00	0	4
Alert	3.62	4.00	4.00	3	4
Excited	0.38	0.00	0.00	0	2
Proud	0.00	0.00	0.00	0	0

Table 7

Central Tendencies and Range for Negative Emotions Reported During the Negative Event

Negative Emotions	Mean	Median	Mode	Minimum Score	Maximum Score
Afraid	1.08	1.00	0.00	0	4
Nervous	1.54	1.00	0.00	0	4
Scared	0.77	0.00	0.00	0	4
Upset	2.54	3.00	3.00	0	4
Guilty	1.54	1.00	0.00	0	4
Hostile	1.00	1.00	0.00	0	3
Ashamed	0.62	0.00	0.00	0	3
Jittery	1.08	1.00	0.00	0	3
Irritable	2.54	3.00	3.00	0	4
Distressed	2.38	2.00	2.00	0	4

Table 8

Frequencies of Likert-Scale Responses for Positive Emotions in the Negative Event

Positive Emotions	Not At All	A Little	Moderately	Quite A Bit	Extremely
Active	0	5	3	4	1
Enthusiastic	10	2	1	0	0
Determined	0	3	2	5	3
Attentive	0	0	3	5	5
Inspired	12	0	1	0	0
Strong	5	2	3	2	1
Interested	2	2	5	3	1
Alert	0	0	0	5	8
Excited	9	3	1	0	0
Proud	13	0	0	0	0

Table 9

Frequencies of Likert-Scale Responses for Negative Emotions in the Negative Event

Negative Emotions	Not At All	A Little	Moderately	Quite A Bit	Extremely
Afraid	6	4	0	2	1
Nervous	5	2	1	4	1
Scared	7	4	1	0	1
Upset	1	2	1	7	2
Guilty	6	1	0	5	1
Hostile	6	2	4	1	0
Ashamed	9	1	2	1	0
Jittery	6	2	3	2	0
Irritable	1	1	3	6	2
Distressed	1	1	5	4	2

Appendix A

Teacher's Emotional Experience Questionnaire

1. Briefly describe a positive event that produced a strong emotional reaction while you were teaching a group of students. There is no correct situation to report. Take a few minutes to think about the details of the event and write what you are thinking about in as much detail as possible (i.e. the people involved, things that happened, and the location you were in).

2. Please think about the event you just described. Rate the extent to which you felt:**Active**

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Enthusiastic

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Determined

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Attentive

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Inspired

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Strong

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Interested

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Alert

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Excited

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Proud

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Afraid

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Nervous

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Scared

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Upset

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Guilty

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Hostile

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Ashamed

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Jittery

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Irritable

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Distressed

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

3. Are there any other words you would use to describe your feelings during this event? If so, please share here:

4. How do you think these feelings influenced your thoughts and actions in the situation?

1. Briefly describe a negative event that produced a strong emotional reaction while you were teaching a group of students. There is no correct situation to report. Take a few minutes to think about the details of the event and write what you are thinking about in as much detail as possible (i.e. the people involved, things that happened, and the location you were in).

2. Please think about the event you just described. Rate the extent to which you felt:**Active**

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Enthusiastic

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Determined

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Attentive

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Inspired

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Strong

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Interested

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Alert

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Excited

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Proud

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Afraid

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Nervous

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Scared

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Upset

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Guilty

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Hostile

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Ashamed

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Jittery

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Irritable

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

Distressed

0	1	2	3	4
(Not At All)	(A Little)	(Moderately)	(Quite A Bit)	(Extremely)

3. Are there any other words you would use to describe your feelings during this event? If so, please share here:

4. How do you think these feelings influenced your thoughts and actions in the situation?

Demographics

Please respond to the following demographics items. These will be used to describe the group of people who participate in this study. In no way will you be personally identifiable in communication of study findings.

Ethnicity: Please use your own words and/or select all that apply from list below:

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> African | <input type="radio"/> East Indian |
| <input type="radio"/> African-Canadian | <input type="radio"/> European |
| <input type="radio"/> Asian | <input type="radio"/> Indigenous |
| <input type="radio"/> Caucasian | <input type="radio"/> Indo-Canadian |
| <input type="radio"/> East Asian | <input type="radio"/> Southeast Asian |

Physiological Sex: Please use your own words and/or select all that apply from list below

- Male
- Female

Gender Identity: Please use your own words and/or select all that apply from list below

- Male
- Female
- Transgender
- Two-spirit
- Gender Non-Conforming

Please list the school(s) where you currently work: Your response will be used for data analysis purposes (as a nesting variable). School names will never be shared in communication of results:

Profession: Please use your own words and/or select all that apply from list below:

- Permanent Position Classroom Teacher
- Contract Classroom Teacher
- Substitute Teacher
- Educational Program Assistant (EPA)
- Principal
- Vice-Principal
- Teacher-In-Training (B.Ed student)
- School Psychologist
- Speech-Language Pathologist
- School Counsellor

Students I currently work with are in grade(s): _____

Date of Birth *YEAR / MONTH / DAY: _____

OTHER? _____

Appendix B

**INFORMED CONSENT FORM**

Study title: Teachers' Classroom-Based Experiences and Emotions: A Mixed-Method Exploratory Study

Principle Investigator:

Krista C. Ritchie, PhD
Assistant Professor
Faculty of Education,
Mount Saint Vincent University

Introduction and Purpose:

Research indicates that emotionally elevated workplaces lead to stress and burn-out. There is research documenting the extent to which teaching is stressful, but no evidence on the nuance of the range of contextualized emotional experiences that teachers have,

How will the researchers do the study? What will I be asked to do?

The researchers are collecting data at Halifax Independent School. All teaching staff are invited to participate. If you are reading this consent form, you have a participation package, which is an envelope, this form, and a survey. You will see a sealed box with opening at the top beside the participation packages. If you choose to participate, you will complete the survey, seal it in the envelope and put it in the sealed box. Please do not provide any identifying information. Participation is anonymous. Please return your survey by Friday June 15. Researchers will pick up the sealed box with surveys and any unused participation packages on Monday June 18, 2018.

Potential Harms and Burdens.

There are no expected harms. This study is focused entirely on what you feel comfortable sharing. It is hoped that what is learned will be of future benefit to teachers broadly by contributing to understanding about the emotional demands (positive and negative) involved in the teaching profession. Results will be made public through conference presentations, and peer-reviewed academic publication. Results will be shared in an entirely non-identifiable way

with Halifax Independent School through a presentation and a study summary available for anyone who would like to read it.

Can I withdraw from the study?

You may withdraw from the study at any point. Participation is entirely voluntary. Withdrawal will not affect your work. If you begin to complete a survey and change your mind, simply discard the survey. If you complete the survey and then change your mind, do not put the survey in the box. The surveys are anonymous. Once you submit your survey into the sealed box, your survey cannot be identified and will be included in the data set to be analyzed.

Costs, reimbursements and incentives.

There will be no cost to you to participate in this study. There will be no reimbursement for time spent completing the survey. There is no potential to profit from or commercialize results of this research.

Dr. Ritchie greatly appreciates the opportunity to conduct this study. After data collection, she will give the school a thank you card, a book about whales for the library, and a box of chocolates for the school community to share.

How will my privacy be protected?

Any information that is learned about you will be non-identifiable and anonymous. Paper-based study records will be kept in a locked area at Mount Saint Vincent University for 5 years following publication of the results. Electronic data are stored on password protected, secure MSVU databases and will be deleted 5 years post-publication.

What if I have study questions or problems?

For questions or concerns, please contact Dr. Krista Ritchie, krista.ritchie@msvu.ca. You may also contact Brenda Gagne, Research Ethics Coordinator at Mount Saint Vincent University at brenda.gagne@msvu.ca.

What are my Research Rights?

Reading this consent form and return of the survey indicates that you have agreed to take part in this research and for your responses to be used for research purposes. In no way does this waive your legal rights nor release the investigator(s) or involved institution(s) from their legal and professional responsibilities. If you have any questions at any time during or after the study about research in general, you may contact the University Research Ethics Board at brenda.gagne@msvu.ca or visit the Research Ethics Office at Evaristus Room 223A.

How will I be informed of study results?

Results will be shared in a presentation to Halifax Independent School, and in a report prepared specifically for the school. Any peer-reviewed publication of

results in an academic journal will be shared with the school. The school will not be identified in any publication.