

Making “magic”: an exploration of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school

Submitted by
Neil Alexander McGoran BA, Grad Dip. Ed, M.Ed

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the degree of
Doctor of Education

School of Educational Leadership
Faculty of Education

Australian Catholic University
Research Services
Locked Bag 4115, Fitzroy, Victoria 3065
Australia

Submitted on May 6, 2005

STATEMENT OF SOURCES

This thesis contains no material published elsewhere or extracted in whole or in part from a thesis by which I have qualified for or been awarded another degree or diploma.

No other person's work has been used without due acknowledgement in the main text of the thesis. The thesis has not been submitted for the award of any degree or diploma in any other tertiary institution.

All research procedures reported in the thesis received the approval of the Human Research Ethics Committee at the Australian Catholic University.

I sincerely acknowledge the wonderful direction, advice, support and guidance received from my Principal supervisor, Dr Helga Neidhart, whose promptness, professionalism and expertise were above, and beyond, expectation. I also thank my Co-supervisor, Dr Annette Schneider, for her constructive and generous comments. Annette's support and concern for my welfare were greatly appreciated.

Since this research was conducted in my own workplace, I am extremely grateful for the support, interest and mentorship of the College Principal, Br Patrick Cronin. Furthermore, without the conscientious involvement of the teaching staff and students, it would not have been possible to complete this thesis. Thus, I acknowledge and thank the eight Year 8 teachers and thirty nine Year 8 students who shared their time, wisdom and experiences with me during this project.

I must also thank my wife Michelle for her patience, support and encouragement over the last three and half years. Moreover, I thank her for the most wonderful reason for meeting a deadline: our first baby. Last, but not least, I am grateful that my mother and late father, instilled in me a love of education. I thank them dearly.

Neil McGoran

April 26, 2005

ABSTRACT

This research explored the understandings and perceptions of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom, as expressed by teachers and students at a Catholic school, and the relationship between this leadership and boys' academic motivation. The researcher assumed that the classroom is an organisation (Cheng, 1994) where all teachers, perhaps even unknowingly (Crowther, 1996), exercise leadership and, furthermore, that this leadership results in positively influencing boys' willingness to learn. The research was targeted at Year 8, the first year of high school in South Australia, because academic motivation is considered most problematic during and after transition into high school (Maehr & Midgley, 1991).

The research was interpretivist, with symbolic interactionism as the theoretical perspective. The methodology adopted was case study, and data were collected using:

- a) Focus group interviews with eight members of the Year 8 'core' teaching team on issues pertaining to teacher leadership in the classroom and how this positively influences boys' academic motivation.
- b) A survey questionnaire about academic motivation, distributed to thirty-nine specially identified Year 8 students.
- c) Interviews with five key Year 8 student informants about teacher leadership and its impact on boys' academic motivation.

Data were analysed using a "general analytic strategy" (Yin, 1994, p.102), which included the adoption of a method of "successive approximation" (Neumann, 1997, p.427).

Five categories of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom were identified: service; authenticity; transformation; empowerment; and community. The research also established that each category involves an array of qualities that help teacher leaders strengthen relationships in the classroom, and a set of actions that enable teacher leaders to help boys complete classroom tasks. Further, results indicate that by strengthening relationships and supporting boys to complete tasks, teacher leaders positively influence boys' academic motivation.

In addition, the research presents a framework for understanding and discussing the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation. This framework draws attention to the relational qualities and task specific strategies in each category of classroom leadership that positively influence boys' academic motivation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
CHAPTER 1: THE RESEARCH DEFINED	1
1.1 Introduction to the Research	1
1.2 The Research Site	4
1.3 Identification of the Research Question	4
1.4 Purpose of the Research	5
1.5 Design of the Research	5
1.6 Significance of the Research	6
1.7 Limitations of the Research	10
1.8 Definitions	10
1.8.1 Year 8 student	11
1.8.2 Year 8 key student informant	11
1.8.3 The classroom as an organisation	11
1.8.4 Leadership	11
1.8.5 Academic motivation	13
1.9 Outline of the Thesis	14
1.9.1 Chapter outlines	14
 CHAPTER 2: THE RESEARCH CONTEXT	 17
2.1 Introduction	17
2.2 The Catholic School since Vatican II	18
2.3 Background of the Research Case Study School: Christian Brothers College, Adelaide (CBC)	20
2.4 Boys' Learning	24
2.4.1 Collect evidence and undertake ongoing inquiry on the issue, recognising that schools can do something about it	30
2.4.2 Adopt a flexible, whole school approach with a person and team responsible	31
2.4.3 Ensure good teaching for boys, and all students in all classes	31
2.4.4 Be clear about the kinds of support particular boys need	32
2.4.5 Cater for different learning styles preferred by boys	32
2.4.6 Recognise that gender matters and stereotypes should be challenged	33
2.4.7 Develop positive relationships, as they are crucial for success	34
2.4.8 Provide opportunities for boys to benefit from positive male role models from within and beyond the school	34

2.4.9	Focus on literacy in particular	35
2.4.10	Use information and communication technologies (ICTs) as a valuable tool	36
2.5	The Researcher's Role and Involvement	36
2.6	Conclusion	37

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW38

3.1	Introduction	38
3.2	Conceptual Framework	40
3.3	Organisational Leadership	41
3.3.1	Model the way: find your voice by clarifying your personal values, and set the example by aligning your actions with shared values	43
3.3.2	Inspire a shared vision: envision the future and enlist others	45
3.3.3	Challenge the process: search for opportunities to improve, generate small wins and learn from mistakes	46
3.3.4	Enable others to act: foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust, and strengthen others by sharing power and discretion	48
3.3.5	Encourage the heart: recognise contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence, and celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community	49
3.3.6	Credibility is the foundation of leadership	50
3.4	Summary	50
3.5	Christian Leadership and Leadership in a Catholic School	51
3.5.1	Christian leadership	52
3.5.2	Leadership in a Catholic school	54
3.6	Summary	56
3.7	Teacher Leadership	57
3.7.1	Teachers as leaders	57
3.7.2	Teachers as leaders in the classroom organisation	61
3.7.3	Teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the classroom	61
3.8	Summary	62
3.9	Motivation and academic motivation	64
3.9.1	The intrinsic/ extrinsic dichotomy	64
3.9.2	Boys' academic motivation – implications for this study	67
3.9.3	Developing boys' academic motivation	68

3.9.4	The impact of high school transition on boys' intrinsic academic motivation	69
3.10	Summary	69
3.11	Conclusion	71
3.11.1	Characteristics	73
3.11.2	Implications of this research	75

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH PLAN76

4.1	Introduction	76
4.2	Theoretical Framework	77
4.2.1	Epistemology	77
4.2.2	Theoretical perspective	80
4.3	Research Methodology	82
4.3.1	Case study	82
4.4	Data Collection	84
4.4.1	Year 8 'core' teaching team focus group interviews	85
4.4.2	Year 8 student questionnaire	88
4.4.3	Year 8 key student informant interviews	89
4.5	Research Participants	90
4.6	Data Analysis	91
4.7	Trustworthiness	96
4.7.1	Credibility	96
4.7.2	Transferability	98
4.7.3	Dependability	98
4.7.4	Confirmability	99
4.8	Ethical Considerations	99
4.9	Limitations of the Study	101
4.10	Design Summary	103

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH104

5.1	Introduction	104
5.2	Research Design	104
5.3	Teachers' Perceptions of the Concept of Teacher Leadership in the Year 8 Classroom	107
5.3.1	Service	107
5.3.2	Authenticity, including spirituality and shared values	109

5.3.3	Transformation towards a shared vision	115
5.3.4	Empowerment, based on trust	118
5.3.5	Community	121
5.4	Teachers' Perceptions and Understandings of the Relationship between Teacher Leadership and Boys' Academic Motivation in the Year 8 Classroom	122
5.4.1	Service and boys' academic motivation	122
5.4.2	Authenticity, including spirituality and shared values, and boys' academic motivation	124
5.4.3	Transformation towards a shared vision and boys' intrinsic academic motivation	126
5.4.4	Empowerment, based on trust, and boys' academic motivation	133
5.4.5	Community and boys' academic motivation	135
5.5	Students' Perceptions and Understandings of the Relationship between Teacher Leadership and Boys' Academic Motivation in the Year 8 Classroom	140
5.5.1	Service and boys' academic motivation	140
5.5.2	Authenticity, including spirituality and shared values, and boys' academic motivation	146
5.5.3	Transformation towards a shared vision and boys' intrinsic academic motivation	153
5.5.4	Empowerment, based on trust, and boys' academic Motivation	159
5.5.5	Community and boys' academic motivation	166
5.6	Comparisons	178
5.6.1	Teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings of the teacher leadership in the Year 8 Classroom	178
5.6.2	Teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' intrinsic academic motivation	182
5.7	Conclusion	190
CHAPTER 6: REVIEW AND CONCLUSIONS		192
6.1	Purpose of the Research	192
6.2	Research Design	192
6.3	Research Questions Answered	194
6.3.1	What do Year 8 teachers and students understand by the concept of teacher leadership in the classroom?	195

6.3.2	How do Year 8 teachers, in their role as classroom leaders, positively influence boys' academic motivation?	197
6.3.3	What aspects of teacher leadership influence boys' intrinsic academic motivation?	199
6.4	Conclusions	200
6.5	Making "Magic" in the Year 8 Classroom	208
6.6	Strengths, Weaknesses and Validity of the Framework	210
6.7	Implications for the Profession	212
6.7.1	Implications for other researchers	212
6.7.2	Implications for universities	213
6.7.3	Implications for the profession: Catholic schools	214
6.7.4	Implications for the profession: teachers	215
6.7.5	Implications for the case study school, CBC	215
6.8	Addendum	217

APPENDICES219

Appendix A: Approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee	219
Appendix B: Focus group interview questions	220
Appendix C: Student questionnaire	224
Appendix D: Key informant interview questions	230
Appendix E: Information letter to teacher participants	233
Appendix F: Teacher participant consent form	235
Appendix G: Information letter to student participants	236
Appendix H: Assent form for student participants	238
Appendix I: Information letter to parents of student participants	239
Appendix J: Parent/ Guardian consent form	241

REFERENCES242

GLOSSARY OF TERMS261

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 3.1 Conceptual framework of the literature	41
Figure 3.2 Jesus' leadership and Christian leadership	54
Figure 4.1 General analytic strategy for the research	92
Figure 4.2 The process of successive approximation	94

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1.1 Overview of the structure	14
Table 2.1 Four contextual considerations	17
Table 2.2 The cultural characteristics that give expression to the charism of Edmund Rice in a Catholic school in the Edmund Rice tradition	21
Table 2.3 Key factors or generalisations that help to explain why some boys experience attitudinal disengagement or demonstrate anti-learning behaviours in class	27
Table 3.1 The structure of the literature review	39
Table 3.2 Characteristics of leadership in the literature	72
Table 3.3 Aspects of teacher leadership that influence academic motivation	73
Table 3.4 Relationships between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school (from literature) ..	74
Table 4.1 Overview of the research plan	77
Table 4.2 Research design summary	103
Table 5.1 Overview of the presentation of findings	106
Table 5.2 Service and boys' academic motivation	143
Table 5.3 Authenticity, including spirituality and shared values, and boys' academic motivation	149
Table 5.4 Transformation towards a shared vision and boys' academic motivation	158
Table 5.5 Empowerment, based on trust, and boys' academic motivation	161
Table 5.6 Community and boys' academic motivation	170
Table 5.7 Summary: comparisons and contrasts of teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings of teacher leadership	181
Table 5.7 (Cont)	182
Table 5.8 Summary: comparisons and contrasts between teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation (not in rank order)	189
Table 5.8 (Cont)	190
Table 6.1 Aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys' academic motivation	200
Table 6.2 The relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom (from the research)	209

CHAPTER 1

THE RESEARCH DEFINED

1.1 Introduction to the Research

The fact that classroom teachers are able to have enormous influence over their students' academic, social and cultural development is largely unchallenged. So, too, is the concept that teaching is a complex, powerful and responsible profession. Teachers, then, have a significant role to play in classrooms, in schools, and in education per se. Yet, is this role leadership?

Given Gardner's (1986) assessment nearly twenty years ago, that "leading and teaching are often synonymous, (because) both the teacher and the leader exert influence and create inspiration in their followers" (p.16, brackets added), teacher leadership is not a new idea. The tendency, however, seems to be to differentiate between *teaching* and *leading* based on the roles that teachers fulfil beyond the classroom, in that teacher leadership is, essentially, leadership of other teachers. Following this view, it seems that, in spite of the fact that the classroom is where teachers may be most influential, responsible and authoritative, they are considered to be simply *teaching*. Is it necessary, or even accurate, to draw such a distinction between teaching and leading? That is to say, is the work that teachers do, and the influence that they have over students in the classroom, actually leadership?

The aim of this research is two fold. Initially, it is to explore the understandings and perceptions of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom, as expressed by teachers and students at a Catholic school. A subsequent aim is to

explore the relationship between this leadership and boys' academic motivation.

Central to the inquiry are three assumptions. These are:

1. The classroom is an organisation and, as such, "may be studied and managed by theories of organisation and management" (Cheng, 1994, p.7);
2. All teachers, perhaps even unknowingly (Crowther, 1996), undertake leadership in the classroom organisation; and
3. Part of this leadership includes positively influencing boys' willingness to learn.

The research is targeted at Year 8, the first year of high school in South Australia, because academic motivation is considered most problematic during and after transition into high school (Maehr & Midgley, 1991).

The motivation for this research also has two distinct, but related, elements. The first goes back to 2001 when I read Crowther's (1996) address on the topic of teacher leadership. Certain elements struck a chord with me. The most intriguing was the notion that only *some* teachers are leaders. Crowther (1996) lamented: "Perhaps some of the teachers with whom we work are already exercising leadership in ways that confirm the integrity of important cultural values, even if we haven't recognised that leadership and perhaps they haven't either" (p.7).

When I considered this idea, I immediately asked: "why only some?" After all, in any classroom situation, teachers are seen by their students to be the people 'in charge', or 'in authority'. Does this not suggest that, in actual fact, teachers *are* leaders, at least in the eyes of their students? Moreover, if and when change needs to be implemented, or curriculum altered, or pedagogy improved in the classroom,

formally appointed school leaders and parents seem to consider teachers to be the people ultimately ‘responsible’ for ensuring that this change actually occurs. So, do formally appointed school leaders and parents acknowledge that classroom teachers are leaders? Surely if they did, the idea that only *some* teachers are leaders, and not *all* teachers, would appear nonsense.

It was at this point that another aspect of Crowther’s (1996) address became apparent, and made me think again. Perhaps students do view their teachers as leaders. Yet, given that *leader* is a title rarely bestowed on the classroom teacher, it is also conceivable that students just think of their teachers as exactly that: as *teachers*. More striking still, was the realisation that it is little wonder that some parents and formally appointed school leaders do not associate classroom teaching with leadership, when some teachers *themselves* may not think that what they are doing in the classroom is actually leadership. Thus, it is the “why only some” that first inspired me to focus this research on teacher leadership in the classroom.

The words spoken by an ACU lecturer, Ron Toomey, at a tutorial in 2003, provided the second element of motivation for this study. I had been grappling for some time with the idea that, although teacher leadership was a worthwhile topic, it was not solely what I wanted my inquiry to be about. I wanted to explore what teachers could do with their leadership in the classroom, or how they could approach the notion of leadership, so that they are better able to influence their students’ development. It occurred to me that, ultimately, teachers want their students to learn. Thus, I began to formulate a research proposal that addressed the relationship between teacher leadership and students’ learning. As I fumbled for the terminology, Toomey

breathed life into the study. Knowing that I wished to conduct a case study at my own work place, a Catholic boys' school, he paraphrased my disjointed thoughts this way: "so, you're essentially exploring that *magic* in the classroom, between teacher and student that inspires a boy to want to learn" (Toomey, R., personal communication, April, 2003).

The imagery of there being some sort of magic connection in the classroom between teacher and student strongly appealed to me. In addition, Toomey's use of the word *inspires* immediately sharpened the focus of the proposed inquiry, for even though teachers want students to learn, they cannot learn for them, and nor can they hope to include everything in the curriculum. What they can do, however, is encourage students to *want* to learn. For that reason, making, or creating, magic in the classroom seems an ideal goal of teacher leadership. The motivation for this research, therefore, is the desire to find out how teacher leaders can *make* that magic.

1.2 The Research Site

The research site for this case study is Christian Brothers College, Wakefield Street, Adelaide. It is a Reception to Year 12 Catholic school for boys in the Edmund Rice tradition, with a population of about 950 students. A background discussion of the case study school is contained in Chapter Two, "The Research Context".

1.3 Identification of the Research Question

The research question comprises three related parts. What do Year 8 teachers and students understand by the concept of teacher leadership in the classroom? How do Year 8 teachers, in their role as classroom leaders, positively influence boys'

academic motivation? And what aspects of teacher leadership influence boys' academic motivation?

1.4 Purpose of the Research

The purpose of the study is to explore Year 8 teachers' and students' understandings and perceptions of leadership in the classroom, and how such leadership might positively influence boys' academic motivation. The keystones to this purpose are the beliefs that the classroom is an organisation (Cheng, 1994) where all teachers bring to bear leadership, and that a fundamental component of this leadership is to positively influence their students' academic motivation.

1.5 Design of the Research

The methodology underpinning the research is case study. As mentioned, the case study school is Christian Brothers College, Adelaide, which was researched in order to better understand the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom.

Data collection methods used in the case study included:

- a) Focus group interviews with eight members of the Year 8 'core' teaching team on issues pertaining to teacher leadership in the classroom and how this positively influences boys' academic motivation.
- b) A survey questionnaire about academic motivation, distributed to thirty-nine specially identified Year 8 students.
- c) Interviews with five key Year 8 student informants.

Two focus group interviews were conducted with eight members of the Year 8 ‘core’ teaching team, who teach the Year 8 Home Rooms in ‘blocks’ of time. The focus group interviews generated teachers’ self perceptions of leadership in the classroom, and its relationship to academic motivation. During the focus group interviews, teachers developed a shared understanding of what boys’ academic motivation ‘looks like’ in the classroom and, based on this understanding, identified students who demonstrated, or appeared to possess, academic motivation. This resulted in a group of specifically identified Year 8 students, which was then invited to complete a survey questionnaire. Within this group, staff also highlighted five particular students, one in each Year 8 class, whom they considered to be the most highly motivated in the Year level. The survey questionnaire and key informant interviews created students’ perceptions and understandings of their teachers’ classroom leadership and its subsequent influence on students’ willingness to learn. For convenience, the survey questionnaire was “group administered” (Lavery, 2003, p.88). Teacher and student participants were all volunteers.

1.6 Significance of the Research

The significance of the study rests on a conviction that teacher leadership in the classroom and its influence on boys’ academic motivation make a difference in schools. Establishing and developing the leadership potential of classroom teachers is fundamental to the profession. Accordingly, it is expected that the present inquiry will have three specific implications for the teaching profession, as it:

1. develops and affirms a notion that classroom teaching is, essentially, leadership;

2. generates a language and framework for discussing and understanding classroom leadership; and
3. concentrates on the manner in which such leadership influences boys' academic motivation.

Teacher leadership is an emerging theme in today's scholarly literature. Yet, the focus seems to be on how such leadership can be encouraged, with the purpose of transforming school leadership beyond traditional, hierarchical models (Bucknor & McDowelle, 2000; Childs-Bowen, Moller, & Scrivner, 2000; Shen, 2001). School-wide leadership is certainly important and relevant, but such a focus does little to alter the perception that leadership is something that teachers engage in quite separately from teaching. By centring this research on teachers' classroom leadership, it is hoped that the study will fill an apparent gap in the literature, and add to the discourse about ways of understanding, encouraging and applying leadership in Australian classrooms.

Leithwood and Riehl (2003) assert that a necessary part of leadership is creating conditions that help positively influence intrinsic motivation. In following this view, it can be argued that a facet of classroom leadership is to seek to positively influence students' academic motivation. Further, this stance makes a case for the importance of providing teachers with a means to understand how this might be achieved. A review of the literature reveals that the relationship between teachers' classroom leadership and boys' academic motivation is understudied. Thus, the present inquiry may go some way towards addressing this lacuna in the field.

1.7 Limitations of the Research

This research has several limitations. The most significant is that the study rests on a premise that the classroom is an organisation, “where the teacher is often assumed to be the leader and students the followers” (Cheng, 1994, p.1). There are strong arguments against the notion that teachers are classroom leaders, many of which contend that teacher leadership requires an out of class component, such as leadership of other teachers (Barth, 2001; Crowther, Hann, & Andrews, 2002; Gullatt, 1995; Harris & Muijs, 2002; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). While the researcher acknowledges in the literature review the existence of this counter opinion, greater emphasis has been placed on literature that supports the belief that teachers exercise leadership in the classroom organisation, so as to advance scholarly debate about teacher leadership. This ‘strategic choice’ also enables the researcher to explore the influence of teacher leadership on boys’ academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom. Nevertheless, the decision to largely ignore the possibility that classroom teaching is not really leadership does limit the study.

Limitations also surround the process used in the research to identify student participants, the number of participants in the study, and the assumption that teachers’ classroom leadership actually influences boys’ academic motivation. Eight members of the Year 8 teaching team participated in the focus group interviews. These teachers were asked to identify, during the focus group interviews, those Year 8 students whom they believed possessed, or demonstrated, academic motivation. This exercise produced a list of forty-one students, thirty-nine of whom agreed to complete the survey questionnaire, which was “group administered” (Lavery, 2003, p.88). From the group of thirty-nine, teachers then nominated five students to participate in

key informant interviews. Although this process is an acceptable way of choosing a sample for a case study, it does generate limitations.

Clearly, the eight teachers would have selected students based on their various interpretations of the definition of academic motivation. It may have been the case, therefore, that some teachers selected students who were socially agreeable to their idea of teaching, or boys who exhibited high levels of achievement or, just as significantly, boys whose academic motivation was completely independent of teachers' classroom leadership. The existence of these possibilities is a limitation of the study as, in some cases, academic motivation seems unrelated to teacher leadership and, furthermore, where a relationship can be established, it is not possible to accurately categorise academic motivation as either intrinsic or extrinsic.

It is important to note, also, that the study is not meant to be an exploration of the relationship between teacher leadership and the academic motivation of highly motivated and/or high achieving boys, which the student selection exercise might suggest. The process of student selection was adopted so that the 'sample' would contain *only* academically motivated boys. There was no guarantee, of course, that such motivation was dependent upon their teachers' leadership, but the researcher believed that if, in fact, there was a clear relationship between the chosen students' academic motivation and teacher leadership, then academically motivated boys would be best able to discuss and reflect upon this link.

Nonetheless, the original list of forty-one students represents only 27.33% of the Year 8 cohort. An obvious question is, what is happening to the other 72.67% of

students, who experience the same classroom leadership? While this question is addressed in more depth in the section on “Strengths, Weaknesses and Validity of the Framework” in Chapter 6, it is clear that the resulting framework, which is presented as a means of understanding and discussing the relationship between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom, does not extend to all Year 8 students at the case study school. Moreover, given that a few students make references in the survey questionnaire and key informant interviews to little, if any, link between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation, the framework is valid for only *some* of the Year 8 student participants.

Finally, as with any qualitative research, the role of the researcher is a potential limitation. To this end, proper case study protocol was followed, particularly Burns’ (1994) recommendations. These include creating relevant questions, listening effectively, being flexible, clearly understanding what is being studied, and being open minded when analysing data. A further limitation is the fact that case study methodology does not lend itself to drawing generalisations.

1.8 Definitions

1.8.1 Year 8 student

In South Australia, a Year 8 student is a person who is in the first year of high school. More particularly, at the case study school, a Year 8 student is a boy approximately aged between 12 and 13 years. Thirty-nine Year 8 boys participated in the study.

1.8.2 Year 8 key student informant

A key informant is a person whose insights may help the researcher better understand the phenomenon under study (Patton, 1990). Further, a “key informant is particularly knowledgeable and articulate” (p.263). In this case study, five Year 8 key student informants, one from each Year 8 class, were nominated by Year 8 teachers during the focus group interviews, on the basis that they demonstrated, or appeared to possess, a high degree of academic motivation.

1.8.3 The classroom as an organisation

For the purposes of the research, it is asserted that the classroom is an organisation (Cheng, 1994) or “a group of learners” (Wilcox, 1997, p.1), where the teacher is the leader (Cheng, 1994; Guisinger, 2002) or the leading learner (Groome, 1998). Cheng (1994) states that “a class of students and their (leader) are in nature a small organisation that may be studied and managed by theories of organisation and management” (p.7, brackets added). Thus, the study explores teachers’ and students’ understandings of teacher leadership and its influence on boys’ academic motivation, as it pertains to an individual classroom organisation.

1.8.4 Leadership

Leadership is a difficult concept to define and, as the literature review highlights, the myriad of definitions offered merely adds to the complex nature of leading and leadership. In fact, Burns (1978) noted that “leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth” (p.2). Nonetheless, three definitions provide a sound basis for understanding and discussing leadership in this study.

Leithwood and Riehl (2003) believe that two functions, “providing direction and exercising influence” (p.2), are at the core of most definitions of leadership. As far as they are concerned, “leaders mobilise and work with others to achieve shared goals” (p.2). This definition has three implications:

- Leaders do not merely impose goals on followers, but work with others to create a shared sense of purpose and direction.
- Leaders primarily work through and with other people. They also help to establish the conditions that enable others to be effective.
- Leadership is a function more than a role. (p.2)

Thus, according to Leithwood and Riehl (2003), leadership is functional and, moreover, may be “carried out in many different ways” (p.2), by various people.

Kouzes and Posner (2002) argue that leadership is, first and foremost, a relationship “between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow” (p.23). The success of this relationship depends on a leader’s credibility, which is the “foundation of leadership” (p.32). In turn, Kouzes and Posner define credibility as “do(ing) what you say you will do” (p.38, brackets added). Ultimately, leaders can achieve this by being honest, competent, inspirational and forward looking (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Wilcox (1997) offers a third definition, based on the assertions that “leadership is a set of skills that anyone can acquire” (p.1), and that the prime aim of leadership in a learning group is to ensure that the group functions effectively. Accordingly, Wilcox (1997) contends that learning groups have two objectives: “to complete learning tasks (and) to maintain positive and effective relationships among

group members” (p.1, brackets added). That is to say, “leadership consists of actions that help the group to complete its tasks successfully and maintain effective working relationships among its members” (p.1).

These three definitions provide a useful frame of reference for conceptualising leadership in this study. In so doing, they draw attention to four particular aspects of leadership:

1. leadership requires leaders to provide direction and exercise influence so as to achieve the objectives of a group (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Wilcox, 1997);
2. leaders work with, and through, others to establish shared goals and to create conditions that allow a group, and individuals within the group, to function effectively (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Wilcox, 1997);
3. leadership of a group consists of actions that help the group to complete its tasks (Wilcox, 1997); and, finally,
4. leadership is a relationship and, as such, necessitates that leaders are credible and spend time developing and sustaining group relationships (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Wilcox, 1997).

These four aspects feature in Chapter 3, “Literature Review”.

1.8.5 Academic motivation

Academic motivation is a psychological construct which, for the purposes of this study, is defined as “want(ing) to learn, lik(ing) learning-related activities, and believ(ing) school is important” (Brown & Keith, 1998, p.1, brackets added).

Academic motivation is the inclination, or impetus, to learn in the classroom which, according to Vallance (2002), is a phenomenon generally accepted as “pivotal and essential for successful learning” (p.1). Consequently, for the purposes of this study, a boy who demonstrates, or appears to possess, academic motivation is defined as one who “want(s) to learn, like(s) learning-related activities, and believe(s) school is important” (Brown & Keith, 1998, p.1, brackets added).

1.9 Outline of the Thesis

The thesis comprises six chapters. Table 1.1 provides an overview of the structure.

Table 1.1 Overview of the structure

Chapter 1	The Research Defined
Chapter 2	The Research Context
Chapter 3	Literature Review
Chapter 4	Research Plan
Chapter 5	Presentation and Analysis of Research
Chapter 6	Review and Conclusions

1.9.1 Chapter outlines

Chapter 2, “The Research Context”, presents four contextual considerations, which contribute to an understanding of this exploration of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom. These four considerations are the Catholic school since Vatican II, the background of the

research case study school, boys' learning, and the researcher's role and involvement in the study.

Chapter 3, "Literature Review", examines literature in four main areas. The first is organisational leadership, where five leadership practices and ten commitments to leadership are outlined to provide a framework for understanding and discussing effective leaders and leadership. The second is Christian leadership and leadership in a Catholic school, where the leadership of Christ and the manner in which it is embodied in the leadership approaches in Catholic schools are reviewed. The third area of literature focuses on teacher leadership, and helps to generate a notion of the classroom as a small organisation where all teachers are leaders, and where part of their leadership is to positively influence boys' academic motivation. The final section includes literature on motivation generally and boys' academic motivation. Overall, this literature review attempts to generate an explanation of the dichotomy between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, to define boys' academic motivation, and to present various aspects of teacher leadership influencing boys' academic motivation in the classroom. Chapter 3 concludes with a rationale of the way the literature review informs this research.

Chapter 4, "Research Plan", details the approach to data collection and analysis. The theoretical framework of the research, including epistemology, theoretical perspective and case study methodology, is explained. Data collection methods and the research participants are described. The trustworthiness of the research is argued, together with references to the credibility, transferability,

dependability and confirmability of the study. Ethical considerations and limitations of the research are presented, and a research design summary concludes the chapter.

Chapter 5, “Presentation and Analysis of Research”, details the research findings in four sections. Section one outlines teachers’ perceptions and understandings of the concept of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom. Section two contains teachers’ perceptions and understandings of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation. Section three summarises students’ perceptions and understandings of teacher leadership and its relationship to academic motivation and section four compares teachers’ and students’ views.

Chapter 6, “Review and Conclusions”, presents the results of the inquiry, in the form of answers to the three research questions. A conclusion to the research details how the research may address a perceived lacuna in the literature on teacher leadership and its relationship to academic motivation. Finally, Chapter 6 outlines some possible implications of the research for the profession.

CHAPTER 2

THE RESEARCH CONTEXT

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom. Three assumptions underscore this purpose. Firstly, the classroom is an organisation (Cheng, 1994). Secondly, teachers are leaders within their respective classroom organisations. And thirdly, teachers, as leaders, are responsible, at least in part, for positively influencing their students' academic motivation.

In this chapter, four contextual considerations, which contribute to an understanding of this study, are discussed. Context is essential in that it helps to situate action in research within a wider historical spectrum, and provides an avenue through which meaning can be correctly conveyed (Dey, 1993). Thus, qualitative research is context-specific (Wiersma, 1995). Table 2.1 outlines the four considerations.

Table 2.1

Four contextual considerations

First Consideration	The Catholic school since Vatican II
Second Consideration	The background of the research case study school
Third Consideration	Boys' learning
Fourth Consideration	The researcher's role and involvement

The four contextual considerations situate the research in the wider historical spectrum (the Catholic School since Vatican II); characterise the charism, identity and environment of

the Catholic school involved in the study (background of the research case study school); outline current trends in boys' learning, the ways boys' learn and the classroom practices that improve their learning (boys' learning); and clarify the role of the researcher in the case study school and his involvement in the study.

2.2 The Catholic School since Vatican II

The Second Vatican Council (1962-1965) was a "Pentecost" (Congregation for Catholic Education, 1998, par.21) for the Catholic Church. Prior to it, the Church "could be described predominantly as inward looking, anti-world, defensive, highly stratified and rule oriented" (Lavery, 2003, p.15), and the Church placed strong emphasis on the authoritative law of God as expressed in Canon law (Rowland, 2003). Vatican II, however, through its major catalytic calls, *ressourcement*, to return to the original traditions and foundations of the Church, and *aggiornament*, to bring the Church into the present day (Nichols, 1999), generated a new direction for Catholicism (Lavery, 2003).

The Council paved the way for a moral theology that centred on the value of the human person (Rowland, 2003) which, in turn, underpinned its teaching on Catholic schools. "The person of each individual human being, in his or her material needs, is at the heart of Christ's teaching; this is why the promotion of the human person is the goal of the Catholic school" (John Paul II, 1991, par.4). Furthermore, the teachings of Vatican II recognised a need to be ecumenical (Paul VI, 1965, par.16), based on an openness to learn and reform (Ludwig, 1995) and, because of its commitment to a "communal ecclesiology" (Groome, 1998, p.189), expounded a communal rather than hierarchical approach as the predominant model of the Church (Groome, 1998).

Through the Council's *Declaration on Christian Education*, the notion of community became synonymous with Catholic schools. In addition, the Council's assertion that the development of the full human person is possible only through relationships with other human beings within a community (McLaughlin, 2001), forged an inextricable link between community, the Catholic school and the Church's new direction, namely to enable "each man (*sic*) to grow in humanity...(and) become more a person" (Paul VI, 1967, par.15, brackets added). The Congregation for Catholic Education (1998) advanced this link, by explaining that the "educating community" in a Catholic school "(is) constituted by the interaction and collaboration of its various components: parents, teachers, directors and non-teaching staff" (par.18, brackets added), and functions, primarily, "to further the objective of a school as a place of complete formation through interpersonal relations" (par.18).

The Congregation also restated that the Catholic school has a "fundamental duty to evangelise" (par.3), which is embedded in the larger mission of the Church (Congregation for Catholic Education, 1982) and based on Jesus' mission (Paul VI, 1975). Importantly, responsibility for the development of community and the fulfilment of the school's primary duty to evangelise rests largely with teachers (Congregation for Catholic Education, 1998), who "fulfil a specific Christian vocation and share an equally specific participation in the mission of the Church" (Paul VI, 1965, par.8). As far as the Congregation for Catholic Education (1998) is concerned, teachers are significant role models for students in their search for, and acquisition of, knowledge, truth and values. Teachers must be "competent" and "may be a reflection, albeit imperfect but still vivid, of the one teacher" (par.14).

The concept of a Catholic school as a community, characterised by interaction and collaboration, informs the literature on leadership in a Catholic school which is reviewed in

Chapter 3. More particularly, the inherent responsibility for the creation of an educating community and the ultimate fulfilment of its evangelical mission, largely shouldered by teachers, provides both a rationale for focusing this exploration on teachers and a foundation on which to build a broader understanding of teacher leadership in the classroom at a Catholic school.

2.3 Background of the Research Case Study School: Christian Brothers College, Adelaide (CBC)

The case study school was established in 1878 and is situated on Wakefield Street in Adelaide, South Australia. It is an R-12 school for boys on two campuses, with a population of about 950 students. The school was founded by the Christian Brothers and, since the creation of the Christian Brothers' new charter in 2004, is referred to as a Catholic school in the Edmund Rice tradition. CBC, like all Edmund Rice Schools, "exists as part of the evangelising mission of the universal Catholic Church...and the mission and communion of its local Church", and offers "a distinctive educational philosophy", based on "an authentic expression of the charism of Blessed Edmund Rice" (The National Planning Committee for Schools Governance, 2004, p.5). Thus, to put CBC into context, it is first necessary to examine the charism of Blessed Edmund Rice and the cultural characteristics that are present in a Catholic school in the Edmund Rice tradition.

Blessed Edmund Rice, an Irish Catholic, founded the Lay Order of the Christian Brothers in Waterford, Ireland in 1802. His charism, or gift "carried out on behalf of the Christian community in response to a call of God" (The National Planning Committee for Schools Governance, 2004, p.4), was to liberate and empower the poor by providing them with an education (*Christian Brothers College Vision Statement*, 2002). Today, this charism finds expression in eleven cultural characteristics that define the spirit and mission of a

Catholic school in the Edmund Rice tradition. These characteristics, which form the basis of Christian Brothers College's own Vision statement, are summarised in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

The cultural characteristics that give expression to the charism of Edmund Rice in a Catholic School in the Edmund Rice tradition

- Holistic education: integrated development occurs through quality teaching and learning;
- Spirituality: each person's story is unique and sacred;
- Faith in action: each person is called to respond out of a personal relationship with God;
- Community: a school forms a distinctive community;
- Pastoral care: the dignity of each person as a child of God is at the heart of pastoral care;
- Service of others: service of others is integral to being a follower of Jesus;
- Being just: justice is integral to the vision of the Kingdom;
- At the margins: Edmund Rice, following Jesus, sought out the marginalized;
- Compassion: compassion is central to the life and teaching of Jesus and to the spirituality of Edmund;
- Stewardship: God's gifts are to be shared justly and used wisely, as exemplified by Edmund; and
- Reflective practice: reflective practice leads to personal and communal growth. (The National Planning Committee for Schools Governance, 2004, pp.7-11)

An understanding of the charism of Blessed Edmund Rice is relevant to this research because it draws attention to the distinctive educational mission that gives CBC its reason for being. Using this as a backdrop, it is now possible to characterise CBC's unique identity and environment.

CBC is situated on two campuses: a Junior School (Reception- Year 7) and a Senior School (Year 8- Year 12), both on Wakefield Street. The Senior School is nominally divided into three further sections: Secondary Middle Schooling (Years 8 and 9), the Senior Transition Year (Year 10), and the Senior Years (Years 11 and 12). Because of its central location, strong tradition and reputation, CBC draws its student population from a variety of metropolitan and near rural areas. Moreover, this population is extremely diverse, with 58% of students from a non-English speaking background (NESB), 9.3% of students classified as having special needs, and 22% on School Card and a further 15% on the borderline (Non Government Schools Registration Board, 2004). Eligibility for the School Card Scheme is dependent on whether the combined family income falls within the School Card income limits. In 2004, the combined family income threshold for one dependent child was \$27, 257 per annum. The income threshold rises in increments to \$30, 233 for families with five dependent children, and a further \$700 per child beyond that. At CBC, families who are eligible for School Card automatically receive a fifty percent reduction in school fees. The Year 8 enrolment is approximately 150 students, of which one third comes from the Junior School, and is broken into five mixed ability Home Rooms, each of approximately thirty students.

A stated aim of the school is to prepare “students for active involvement as members of the human community, bringing a practical knowledge, appreciation and celebration of Catholic faith and spirituality to bear upon the events of life” (*Christian Brothers College Vision Statement*, 2002, p.3). CBC has a strong tradition of academic excellence, and students and staff at both campuses participate in a range of co-curricula and service activities. These include sporting teams, band, music lessons, drama productions, chess, debating, St Vincent de Paul, the Duke of Edinburgh’s Award, Christian Service Learning and

the Student Action Group. CBC is currently identified by the Commonwealth Government as a Boys' Education Lighthouse School, for its successful implementation of boys' education programmes. As a result, the school provides leadership in the teaching of boys to four partner schools in the Adelaide cluster.

CBC offers an extensive senior curriculum, incorporating both South Australian Certificate of Education (SACE) subjects and Vocational Education and Training (VET) modules, which can be studied from Year 10 onwards. The Secondary Middle Schooling curriculum (Years 8 and 9) and the Junior School curriculum are structured within the confines of the South Australian Curriculum Standards and Accountability Framework (SACSA), ranging from Standard 1 in Reception to Standard 5, which should be achieved by, if not before, the end of the first Semester of Year 10.

The Secondary Middle School adopts a particular approach to teaching and learning, underpinned by the premise that each is most effective when conducted within a strong and authentic relationship between teacher and student. The *Christian Brothers College Secondary Middle Schooling Information Handbook and Diary* summarises the significance of relationships in Middle School classrooms:

The learning programme in the Secondary Middle School will be particularly sensitive to the developmental needs of adolescents in Years 8 and 9. To this end, the development of an environment based on healthy working relationships, responsibility and cooperation will be a major goal. As a consequence of this, students in the Secondary Middle School should be better able to make a stress free transition from primary school to the Secondary Middle School environment. (p.3)

To enable relationships to flourish, CBC has adopted a 'block' timetable in the Secondary Middle School, which facilitates fewer teachers being responsible for significant portions of the curriculum. At Year 8, each Home Room has two pastoral care teachers who teach five curriculum areas. This equates to five out of eight of the daily lessons, in two 'blocks' of time. Special Advisory Groups, or pastoral care lessons, are held for eighty minutes, two times per Term, to support relationship building within the Secondary Middle School. There is also a ten-minute administration period each morning and afternoon.

The focus on relational learning (Otero, 2000) has been complemented by a series of pedagogical changes aimed at improving young adolescents' educational outcomes, interest and engagement in the middle years of schooling. These include the specific teaching of thinking skills and cooperative learning strategies after the style of Kagan (1999), the incorporation of theme weeks, most notably city week, NAIDOC week and Science week, and the development of teaching teams, which are able to plan together and, in some cases, team teach. At Year 8 level, the two teaching teams are organised around the two 'blocks' of time.

2.4 Boys' Learning

Since the case study school is an all boys' College, it follows that this research should be centred specifically on boys' academic motivation, and not that of girls, or of students in general. As a result, an appreciation of the state of boys' education appears useful to this research.

Further, a growing body of recent literature that examines the significant differences between boys' and girls' achievement, attitudes to school and learning styles (Martin, 2002;

Vallance, 2002; Victorian Association of State Secondary Principals, 1998), coupled with that which warns against assuming that motivational factors apply uniformly across the genders (Gilligan, 1993; Pintrich, Roeser, & de Groot, 1994), seems to indicate, even more strongly, that an understanding of the current trends in boys' learning, the way boys' learn and the teaching practices that improve their learning is crucial to situating the action in this particular study.

The report by the House of Representatives Committee (2002), *Boys: Getting it Right*, reveals alarming concerns about the state of boys' education in Australia. The report found that retention rates for boys are significantly lower than for girls. In South Australia in 2000, all schools' data showed that the retention rate for girls was 71.8%, but only 59.2% for boys. In non-Government schools, the retention rate for girls was 90.6%, and 79.3% for boys (Education and Training Committee, 2002). It is also outlined in the report that boys have lower academic achievements, particularly in literacy-based subjects.

Boys do not perform as well as girls in each aspect of literacy - writing, reading, viewing, speaking and listening. Gender differences are greatest for the expressive modes of writing and speaking, and least for the receptive modes of reading, listening and viewing. Also, boys typically comprise about two thirds of all students referred to reading recovery programmes in Australian schools. (Education and Training Committee, 2002, p.8)

Boys are over-represented in learning support and behavioural management programmes in schools, where almost 80% of suspensions and exclusions are boys (Education and Training Committee, 2002). In general, suspension rates rise in Year 8, peak in Year 9 and then plateau in Year 10 and, according to the report, "suspensions and expulsions appear

to be closely correlated to boys' disengagement from school" (Education and Training Committee, 2002, p.8). Boys, too, are less likely to go to University. In 1999, women accounted for 55.6% of all higher education commencements, and 54% of total enrolments, with the gap widening each year (Education and Training Committee, 2002).

As a result of these concerns, the Committee believed that it was time to address "the assumption that girls have urgent educational needs to be addressed and that boys will be all right" (p.xvi). Rather, in the Committee's opinion, "change is essential" (p.xvii). Similar concerns were raised in the Victorian Association of State Secondary Schools Principals' report (1998), *Improving the School Performance of Boys*, in which curriculum choice was identified as a contributing factor. The report argued that some boys in schools aim too 'high' and choose traditional subjects like Higher Mathematics and Science, rather than studies that place greater emphasis on literacy, which soon results in them experiencing declining success and disengagement (Lillico, 2003) and, ultimately, exacerbates boys' underachievement in literacy skills (Chandler, 2004). Conversely, others choose too 'low', which leads to an over-representation of boys in courses that channel into post school vocational options "that will experience the greatest decline in employment over the next decades" (Chandler, 2004, p.338). The corollary of this is that boys, again, are under-represented in courses that expose them to necessary skills, like personal communication, emotional intelligence and health (Chandler, 2004).

Chandler (2004) further enunciates the concerns about boys' learning, by drawing attention to several generalisations that help to explain why *some* boys, particularly during the middle years of schooling, may experience attitudinal disengagement or demonstrate anti-learning or disruptive behaviours in class. Chandler (2004), extending the work of Lillico

(2003), argues that a combination of the following key factors often underpins boys' attitudes to learning. These key factors or generalisations are outlined in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3

Key factors or generalisations that help to explain why some boys experience attitudinal disengagement or demonstrate anti-learning or disruptive behaviours in class

- Boys lack accurate self-knowledge about their abilities and usually set unrealistic expectations for themselves in the classroom.
- Boys are driven by a desire to succeed and a fear of failure. Often, when failure occurs, it is then very difficult to resurrect motivation.
- Boys sometimes possess a pragmatic and narrow view of what is educationally useful and relevant.
- The peer group provides boys with their primary source of reference. Often, the peer group plays a role in maintaining an anti-learning culture. The peer group may not be supportive of attitudes conducive to high academic achievement.
- The broader cultural messages available to boys do not tend to place value on positive approaches to learning. (Chandler, 2004, pp.339-340)

Of course, this may well be a simplistic view, given that these factors refer to *some* boys (Pallotta-Chiarolli, 1997) but, nonetheless, there seems to be “a growing disaffection on the part of a broad range of boys, not all of whom fit the stereotypical boy ‘at risk’” (Trent, 2001, p.6).

According to Trent (2001), it is easy to “catastrophise” (p.1) boys' educational problems, particularly in light of the exponential growth in media interest in the topic. She continues: “claims that there is a crisis, that there is an adversarial girls versus boys

competition in terms of measured achievement are not only wrong but ...dangerous” (p.2). In fact, Trent (2001) argues, girls have been outperforming boys since 1977, and that some, although a smaller number, have always outperformed them. Similarly, since 1977, the retention rate for boys has been less than that for girls, although she does concede that the situation has worsened since 1992, because “more and more boys from across the socio-economic spectrum” (p.3) have failed to complete Year 12. In Trent’s (2001) opinion, admittedly a cynical one (p.3), it was “when the children of the powerbrokers began to walk away from education, there was deemed to be a “crisis”” (p.3).

As far as this research is concerned, when the gap between boys’ and girls’ retention rates began to widen is largely irrelevant. So too is the fact that there is a gap at all, whether it refers specifically to retention rates, or academic achievement, or representation in learning support programmes, or any of the many comparisons that exist within the narrow either/or debate about boys’ education that has featured in newspaper headlines and editorials (Trent, 2001). In truth, “it is unhelpful to set up a binary opposition between the schooling of girls and that of boys, according to which if one group wins, the other loses” (Epstein, Elwood, Hey, & Maw, 1998, p.4). What is relevant, however, is that boys are not staying at school for as long or achieving as well as they once did (Commonwealth Government, 2003). This may or may not be a crisis but, either way, it is difficult to find fault in Head’s (1999) summation.

Looking at the evidence which confronts us of so many young men suiciding (*sic*), being suspended from school, in trouble on the streets and struggling to achieve at school, any sensible person would have to conclude that young males are in considerable difficulty. (p.4)

West (2000) rightly points out that not all young men are in trouble. Yet, he contends, there are “sufficient... to cause concern” (p.1).

Out of all of this, it can be established irrevocably that some boys “are under performing in literacy, achievement, motivation, retention and school completion” (Martin, 2002, p.1) compared with their predecessors. Since this is not new, it is a worrying trend, given that the figures seem to be increasing (Nelson, 2004; Trent, 2001). More importantly, the apparent correlation between boys’ education and some of the difficulties in larger society, such as men’s health, sport, relationships, violence, crime and changes in the workplace (Victorian Association of State Secondary Schools Principals, 1998; West, 2000), has led researchers, educators and politicians to generate a series of reports and recommendations committed to improving educational outcomes for boys (Commonwealth Government, 2003; Education and Training Committee, 2002; Martin, 2002; Slade & Trent, 2000; Trent 2001). The main thrust of recent research has been to identify boys’ needs and, in turn, how schools and teachers can better meet their needs (Chandler, 2004; Commonwealth Government, 2003; Martin, 2002; Vallance, 2002). Whether this has been in response to a crisis is a matter of conjecture. Nonetheless, the research has come “in response to the overwhelming need and interest in the important area of boys’ education” (Nelson, 2004, p.1).

Recent boys’ education data have identified that boys and girls learn differently (Chandler, 2004; Lillico, 2003; West, 2000). More important, however, has been the realisation that it cannot be assumed that boys are a homogeneous group and, therefore, all learn in the same way, or that “boys’ and girls’ needs are always different” (Martin, 2002, p.1). This understanding lends itself to a more comprehensive approach to boys’ education reform, inclusive of the needs of girls, based on the development of “a more active curriculum, more lessons which are more structured, and raising the quality of teachers” (West, 2000, p.5). Such an approach has gained considerable momentum of late, as

evidenced by the promise of the Australian Government Minister for Science, Education and Training, Dr Brendan Nelson, that “absolutely nothing will be done that in any way threatens the long overdue progress of girls” (Nelson, 2004, p.4), and Martin’s (2002) assurance that his four general “principles for assisting boys” (p.2) will also assist girls. To this end, it seems that a way forward in the boys’ education debate is to focus on an annunciation of the particular ways *some* boys learn (Chandler, 2004), and to develop more inclusive teaching, learning and assessment practices that support both boys and girls (Bradford, 1999; Martin, 2002).

The Commonwealth Government, through its Boys’ Education Lighthouse Schools Programme, has generated ten guiding principles for success in educating boys, which it views as a way to “inform the development and implementation of ongoing programmes to improve the education of boys in schools” (Commonwealth Government, 2003, p.4). These guiding principles provide a useful framework, which houses a discussion of the way some boys’ learn, and the inclusive teaching and learning practices that have proved useful.

2.4.1 Collect evidence and undertake ongoing inquiry on the issue, recognising that schools can do something about it

The fact that schools can do something about boys’ learning is at the core of Stage Two of the Commonwealth Government’s Boys’ Education Lighthouse Schools Programme, as evidenced by its decision to announce that 51 Lighthouse Schools will undertake, during 2004 and 2005, a collection of interrelated action research projects designed to identify teaching and learning practices that support boys (Nelson, 2004). But, what does this really mean for schools? Moreover, what should schools do to improve boys’ learning?

In general terms, schools need to set about “building proactive, optimistic and effective school cultures” (Martin, 2002, p.2). This can be achieved through the formation of “a school staffing structure and mix that sends appropriate messages to students” (Martin, 2002, p.2), in conjunction with the development of peer support, tutoring and mentor schemes (Chandler, 2004). Furthermore, schools must value student input into policies (West, 2000), recognise and reward learning achievement and academic excellence (Lillico, 2003), and, significantly, ensure that subjects focus on the acquisition of both practical and academic skills (Cortis & Newmarch, 2000).

2.4.2 Adopt a flexible, whole school approach with a person and team responsible

Schools must ensure that their approaches are based on a common vision that finds expression in all facets of its operation, including teaching, learning and assessment, behaviour policies and rewards programmes (Commonwealth Government, 2003). To this end, it is recommended that schools employ a teaching and learning coordinator, whose prime responsibility is to ensure an inclusive and consistent approach to education, which benefits both boys and girls (Bradford, 1999).

2.4.3 Ensure good teaching for boys, and all students in all classes

Boys learn teachers and not subjects (Biddulph, 1995). Whilst this is a generalisation that may not ring true for all boys, it does highlight the importance of teachers and teaching, particularly for some boys. This notion is explored in Slade and Trent’s (2000) study, *What the boys are saying*, where their sample of boys suggests that concerns relating to boys’ education have little to do with a crisis of masculinity, difficulties with literacy and numeracy, or peer pressure which manifests itself in negative attitudes towards learning. Instead, the boys in Slade and Trent’s (2000) study lay blame squarely at the feet of teachers who, they

believe, are, among other things, boring, disinterested and set on making learning as irrelevant as possible. This supports Atkinson's (2000) assertion that students' classroom motivation is dependent, to a large extent, on teachers' own levels of interest and motivation.

"Good teachers" are able to develop strong and supportive relationships with students (McGoran, 2001; Otero, 2000), are fair and consistent and regularly prepared to offer praise (Slade & Trent, 2000, p.15), reflect on current practice and use a range of inclusive teaching practices (Commonwealth Government, 2003). This range of teaching and learning practices should include tasks that promote active learning (Vallance, 2002) and develop high order thinking skills (Baylis, 2004). Further, generically speaking, tasks completed for assessment purposes should be "closed, single concept, structured, experiential and information dense" (Chandler, 2004, p.341). Moreover, assessment should be supported by examples of good work, a set of clear and precise instructions, attainable short and long-term goals and periodical monitoring and checking (Lillico, 2003).

2.4.4 Be clear about the kinds of support particular boys require

Because boys are not a homogeneous group and, in some cases, may not necessarily have needs different from those of girls (Martin, 2002), it is imperative that schools do not adopt a one size fits all approach to boys' education. Thus, through inclusive teaching practices, enhanced by a differentiated approach to the curriculum, boys and girls can both be given opportunities for success (Tomlinson, 1999).

2.4.5 Cater for different learning styles preferred by boys

Inextricably linked with the notion of a differentiated curriculum, is the realisation that teaching and learning need to incorporate a vast array of strategies, including those that

research suggests will enhance boys' engagement and learning (Commonwealth Government, 2003). Vallance's (2002) study identified relevance and physicality as particular aspects of teaching and learning that motivated boys in the classroom. Similarly, some boys enjoy both cooperative and individual learning activities (Kagan, 1999), tasks that are challenging (Rinne, 1998), and those that "provide them with a degree of involvement in decisions about content and opportunities to negotiate their learning as a valued stakeholder" (Commonwealth Government, 2003, p.6).

2.4.6 Recognise that gender matters and stereotypes should be challenged

Blair (2000) believes that young people, both in and out of school, take on new behaviours of adolescence in order to position themselves as gendered among their peers. Through their demeanor, from the way they dress, act, move and talk, boys are continually constructing their versions of masculinity. She notes that because each particular construction is an outcome of social interaction and a reason for engaging in interaction, boys, in particular, tend to ridicule those within their own gender who do not clearly conform to the sets of standards they construct as necessary parts of masculinity.

To alleviate this problem, Martin (2002) recommends that schools adopt a gender equity framework. In his opinion, the *Gender equity strategy* helps schools and teachers to both address destructive gender stereotypes and to enlighten teachers about the "typical" (Galley, 2002, p.1) male adolescent behaviours that have hitherto been discouraged in classrooms. Such behaviours are movement and argumentative questioning, which are legitimate learning approaches for some boys (Galley, 2002). The Gender equity strategy incorporates five aspects for schools to investigate:

- Understanding gender construction;

- Curriculum, teaching and learning;
- Violence and school culture;
- Post school pathways; and
- Supporting change. (Martin, 2002, p.2)

2.4.7 Develop positive relationships, as they are crucial for success

Boys need to experience a range of healthy and positive relationships with their classroom teachers, so that teaching and learning can be supported and improved (McGoran, 2001). Similarly, boys must “feel that there are people in the school who care about (them) and (their) development” (Commonwealth Government, 2003, p.6). Just as importantly, there should be a strong connection between the home and school, particularly in terms of shared values (Schools Council, 1993).

2.4.8 Provide opportunities for boys to benefit from positive male role models from within and beyond the school

Scholars such as Burn (1999), Biddulph (1995) and Fletcher (1995) have long been advocating that boys need positive male role models. Their assertion has been, and continues to be, that if there were better relationships between fathers and their sons and more male teachers, then boys would encounter fewer problems. To some extent, this argument is still alive and well today, in that the Howard Government is proceeding with plans “to offer 500 scholarships worth \$2000 each to attract more men into primary teaching” (Nelson, 2004, p.2), because “such role models provide inspiration and support for young boys seeking to develop their own understanding of how to become an effective adult male in the community” (Commonwealth Government, 2003, p.6).

Historically, however, there has been strong opposition to the notion that boys need explicitly male role models, as evidenced by Slade and Trent's (2000) study, in which boys indicated that this was not an issue, Ryan's (1997) assertion that absent fathers and few male role models is not an underlying cause of the problems boys are encountering, and Pallotta-Chiarolli's (1997) sobering assessment that some boys with absent fathers are doing well, and others, with fathers, are not.

Chandler (2004), although supportive of positive male role models from within the school, warns "guest role models work less well" (p.340). On another note, Martin (2002) contends that a gender balance in school staffs would be a positive step forward.

2.4.9 Focus on literacy in particular

Given that "14 year old boys are doing worse in literacy tests than they were 25 years ago" (Nelson, 2004, p.1), it is not surprising that improving boys' literacy is a critical aim for schools and teachers. Interestingly, literacy levels for males actually drop through the transition from primary to secondary schools (Rowe, 2000), and the "median level of competency does not improve as much for males as for females throughout high school" (Cortis & Newmarch, 2000, p.8). It has been suggested that in order to improve boys' literacy levels, schools should develop and promote an effective library (Martin, 2002), and teachers should engage in whole language teaching, coupled with specific instruction in phonics (Commonwealth Government, 2003). Just as importantly, boys need to be exposed to a range of different literacies, especially multimedia (Commonwealth Government, 2003).

2.4.10 Use information and communication technologies (ICTs) as a valuable tool

Many boys, especially those who are underachieving at school, enjoy the use of ICTs in the classroom (Commonwealth Government, 2003). There is evidence to suggest that quality ICT can “expand students’ skills and assist students with academic difficulties” (Martin, 2002, p.3) which may be due, in part, to the feelings of immediacy, relevance and practicality that boys experience with their use (Vallance, 2002). ICTs also support a shift towards more learner-centred pedagogies (Commonwealth Government, 2003).

2.5 The Researcher’s Role and Involvement

The researcher occupies the role of Director of Middle School at Christian Brothers College, Wakefield Street, Adelaide, which involves responsibility for the development of staff in middle schooling pedagogy and for the welfare of students in Years 8 and 9. In addition, the researcher is an instrument in data collection in the study. Thus, his role in the case study school, and his involvement in the case study per se, contributes to the context of the research.

As Director of Middle School, the researcher leads a team of twenty teachers who are the Home Room, or core, Middle School teachers. The twenty teachers are divided into two Year level teaching teams of ten. These meet regularly together as a Middle School team and, on occasions, both formally and informally, as Year level teams. The meetings have various foci, including administration, curriculum, pedagogy and student welfare. The researcher participated in the case study with eight of the ten teachers comprising the Year 8 teaching team, in two focus group interviews. This provided insights into how the school and the group functioned and, more importantly, valuable experience of ways to engage the group in discussion.

However, while the group was used to working together and discussing ideas, it was more accustomed to the researcher as the team's leader, rather than as *researcher*, which may have impacted on the group's responses. Similarly, the student participants may have found difficulty discriminating between the dual roles of Director of Middle School and *researcher*. Thus, because of this already existing relationship, the student participants' comments may have been more reserved and/or less descriptive than may have otherwise been the case.

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, four considerations, which contribute to the context of the research, are addressed: the Catholic school since Vatican II; the background of the research case study school; an understanding of boys' learning; and clarification of the researcher's role in the case study school and his involvement in the study. Informed by these four considerations, and given the purpose of this particular study, a review of literature on organisational leadership, Christian leadership, leadership in a Catholic school and boys' academic motivation is presented in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

Since the purpose of this research is to explore the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school, it seemed necessary to examine the literature in four areas. These were (i) the general field of organisational leadership, (ii) Christian leadership and leadership in a Catholic school, (iii) teacher leadership, and (iv) motivation generally and boys' academic motivation.

In this chapter, the literature on organisational leadership examines five leadership practices and ten commitments to leadership that provide a framework for understanding and discussing effective leaders and leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). The literature on Christian leadership and leadership in a Catholic school is centred on the leadership of Christ (Sofield & Kuhn, 1995), and the manner in which it is embodied in the leadership approaches in Catholic schools (Benjamin, 2002; McLaughlin, 2001). The literature on teacher leadership helps to shape a notion that the classroom is a small organisation where all teachers are leaders (Cheng, 1994; Gardner, H., 2000a; Gardner, J., 1986; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Wilcox, 1997), and where part of their leadership is to positively influence boys' academic motivation (Guisinger, 2002; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Literature on motivation generally and boys' academic motivation examines the dichotomy between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner, Ryan & Cameron, 2001; Dev, 1997; Hanson, 1998; Samson & Challis, 1999; Scherer, 1999; Shia, 1998), defines boys' academic motivation (Brown & Keith, 1998), and outlines various aspects of teacher leadership

that influence boys' academic motivation in the classroom (Goleman, 1996; Houser & Frymier, 2000; Kerssen-Griep, 2001; Otero, 2000). The structure of the remainder of the literature review is outlined in Table.3.1.

Table.3.1 The structure of the literature review

3.2 Conceptual Framework

3.3 Organisational leadership

- Model the way
- Inspire a shared vision
- Challenge the process
- Empower others to act
- Encourage the heart
- Be credible

3.4 Summary

3.5 Christian leadership and leadership in a Catholic school

- Christian leadership
- Leadership in a Catholic school

3.6 Summary

3.7 Teacher leadership

- Teachers as leaders
- Teachers as leaders in the classroom organisation
- Teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation

3.8 Summary

3.9 Motivation and boys' academic motivation

- The intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy
- Boys' academic motivation - implications for this study
- Developing boys' academic motivation
- The impact of high school transition on boys' academic motivation

3.10 Summary

3.11 Conclusion

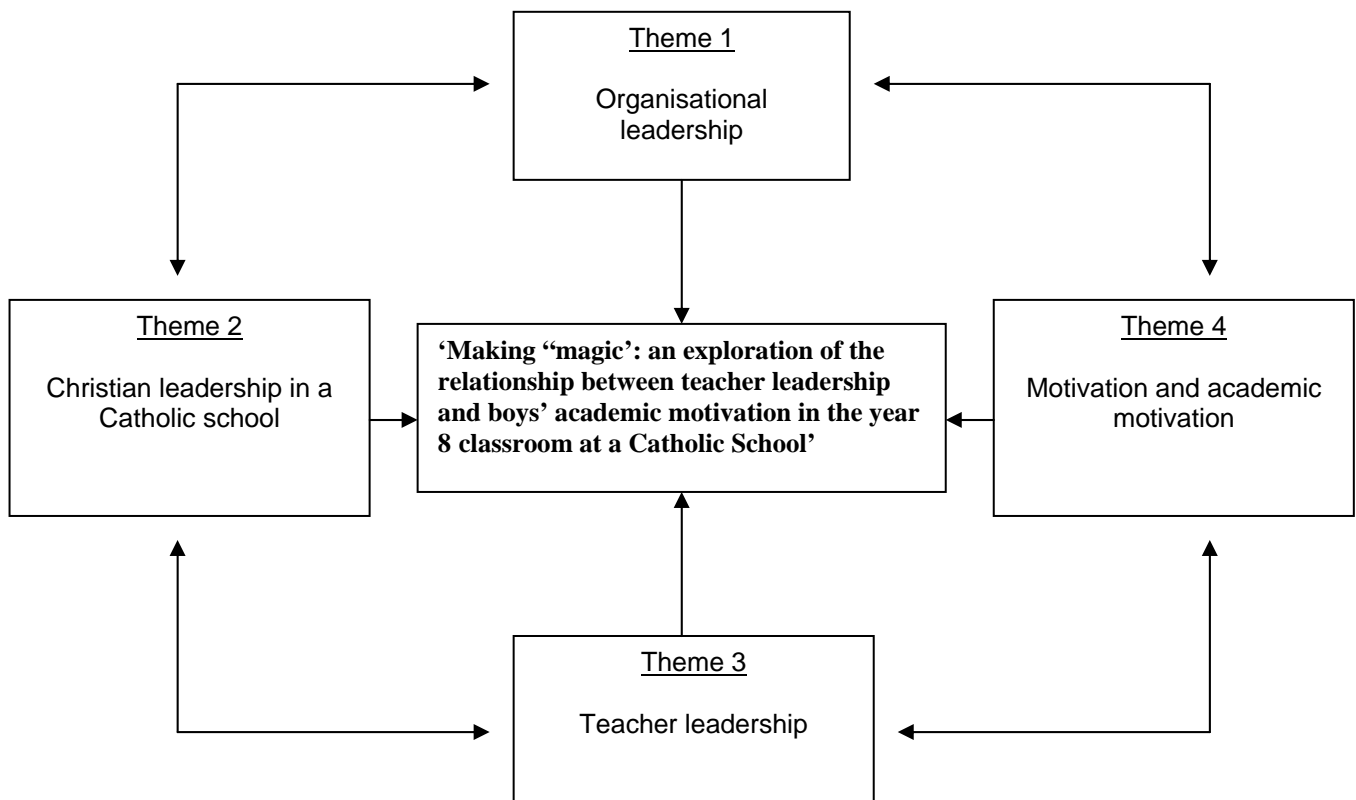
- Characteristics
- Implications for this research

3.2 Conceptual Framework

The four themes, (i) organisational leadership, (ii) Christian leadership and leadership in a Catholic school, (iii) teacher leadership, and (iv) motivation and boys' academic motivation, are all connected. Together, they form the conceptual framework that supports this exploration of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school.

The literature on organisational leadership outlines major developments in the field and provides a model for conceptualising leadership in this study. The literature on Christian leadership and leadership in a Catholic school helps to locate the study within its context, and creates a platform on which to build a notion of teacher leadership in a Catholic school. The literature on teacher leadership then attempts to generate a rationale for categorising all teachers as leaders in their classrooms, and identifies a link between leadership and boys' academic motivation. Finally, the literature on motivation and boys' academic motivation further develops this link and addresses aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys' academic motivation in the classroom. These themes, as well as their relationship to each other and to the research topic, are outlined in Figure. 3.1.

Fig.3.1 Conceptual framework of the literature



3.3 Organisational Leadership

“Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth” (Burns, 1978, p.2). Terry (1993) refers to it as an enigma, and believes that constant efforts over many decades to define leadership have merely generated a set of contradictions. He summarises some of these contrasting views as follows:

Some theorists believe that leadership is inherently unethical; others, inherently ethical. Some view leadership as clearly distinct from management and expertise; others view the difference as at best blurred and, on reflection, not important. Some believe leadership can be taught; others say it is caught. Some rest their definitions on traits, others on situations, organizations or politics. (p.8)

Because of the complexity of leadership, there is no single definition (Yukl, cited in Leithwood & Duke, 1999, p.45). However, two essential questions persist: “what exactly is leadership, and how can we come to understand it better?” (Richmon & Allison, 2003, p.32). In order to do so, it seems useful to consider some of the major developments that have occurred in the field over time.

Early leadership research focused on the ‘great man’ theory (Stogdill, 1974). That is, some people were simply born to lead or, put another way; only a few ‘great’ people were capable of leading others to greatness (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). This evoked interest in ‘trait’ theory (Yukl, 1998), where leaders had various traits that set them apart from others, and ‘behavioural’ theory (Hallinger & Hausman, 1987), where leadership was defined as a set of behaviours.

These proved inconclusive, leading to other characterisations. These included ‘situational’ leadership (Yukl, 1998), which was an approach that depended upon the situation the leader confronted, an examination of the various ‘styles’ that leaders employed (Stodgill, 1974), ‘moral’ leadership (Sergiovanni, 1992) and ‘authentic’ leadership (Terry, 1993), where the combination of ethics, authenticity and spirituality is paramount. It led also to approaches such as ‘exchange’ leadership (Yukl, 1998) or ‘transactional’ leadership (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993), which required “compromising among leaders and followers” (Schultz, 2001, p.6). The notion of ‘exchange’ was further explored in particular theories, such as ‘transformational’ leadership (Burns, 1978), where leaders are able to transform groups “in ethically and morally uplifting ways” (Schultz, 2001, p.7), and ‘servant’ leadership (Greenleaf, 1977), which calls leaders to serve the groups they lead.

In order to make sense of these and other views of leadership, Richmon and Allison (2003) created “three broad theoretical approaches to understanding leadership” (p.43). In their view, “leadership is understood either (*sic*) as a function of the individual, as a function of the interaction between individuals or as a function of the situation which may or may not be located within a formal organisation” (p.43). These categories are a useful means of drawing together some of the literature, but in highlighting the fact that leadership theories favour one quality over another, they also reinforce the complexities of leading and leadership.

Because of the complex and sometimes confusing nature of the topic of leadership, for the purposes of this study, the model of leadership developed by Kouzes & Posner (2002) has been adopted. Kouzes and Posner (2002) argued that five leadership practices, ten commitments and the notion of credibility emerge from the many theories of organisational leadership, as the fundamental principles of effective leadership. These principles provide a framework and background for conceptualising and discussing leadership in this study.

The five practices, ten commitments and four elements of credibility are now discussed.

3.3.1 Model the way: find your voice by clarifying your personal values, and set the example by aligning your actions with shared values

For leaders to be successful, they must model the type of behaviour that they expect from others (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Inextricably linked with this, are the notions of ‘walking the talk’ and consistently connecting what is done to what is said, and what is said to what is done (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Kouzes and Posner (2002) believe that leadership is continually evolving and can, and should, be improved. To

this end, leaders need to be constantly aware of ways to set the example, and to ensure that their actions articulate not only their own values but also those that are shared by their followers. To do this effectively, they must first know what *they* believe.

Kouzes and Posner (2002) refer to this as clarifying personal values.

These personal values are the principles by which decisions are made and actions taken. They need to be clearly articulated and transparent, because it is only by remaining true to these principles that leaders are authentic. Kouzes and Posner (2002) define authentic leadership as “leading others according to the principles that matter most to you” (p.52). It requires leaders “to be true and real to themselves, and in the world” (Terry, 1993, p.151), and it is authenticity that ultimately guides actions. Terry (1993) continues:

Authenticity informs and directs actions; action grounds authenticity in life.

The abstract and the concrete are joined in authentic action. Without authenticity, action drifts. Without action, authenticity remains idle conjecture and wishful thinking. (p.138)

Leaders do not do this in isolation. To lead people from ‘what I believe’ to ‘what we believe’, leaders must recognise that they are involved in a partnership, and that they too are called to serve (Greenleaf, 1977). The concept of servant leadership is a critical aspect of ‘modelling the way’ because it incorporates commitment to other people, as well as a vision built upon shared values that can encourage other people within the organisation to be servants themselves (Greenleaf, 1977; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Ultimately, service and a commitment to shared values promote a common language, enable leaders to “build on agreement” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p.78), and benefit both the individuals within the organisation, and the organisation itself.

3.3.2 Inspire a shared vision: envision the future and enlist others

One of the most important leadership practices is to ‘dream’. Leaders need to imagine an exciting future for the organisation, and then lead the organisation towards that dream. However, this is not a sole journey: all people within the organisation need to share the vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Treston, 1994).

A vision enables everyone to see more clearly where the organisation is heading, and gives focus and meaning to what people do. Duignan (1997) contends that it allows people to “focus on the bigger picture while helping them understand and appreciate their role in bringing it about” (p.6). When all in the organisation share the vision, people are able to “move beyond focusing on self, skills and techniques to a more holistic appreciation of organisation and work” (p.6).

According to Kouzes and Posner (2002), to move from ‘my vision’ to ‘our vision’, leaders need to “communicate their hopes and dreams so that others clearly understand and accept them as their own” (p.159). This can be achieved by adhering, as closely as possible, to the following action steps: (a) get to know your constituents, (b) find the common ground, (c) draft a collective vision statement, (d) expand your communication skills, (e) breathe life into your vision, (f) speak from the heart, (g) listen first and often, and (h) “hang out” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p.170). These steps can make it possible for leaders to generate enthusiasm and motivation amongst members of the organisation, and gain from them a commitment towards a common purpose.

3.3.3 Challenge the process: search for opportunities to improve, generate small wins and learn from mistakes

“Leaders venture out. Not one person claimed to have achieved a personal best by keeping things the same” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, pp.16-17). Within Kouzes and Posner’s model, leaders seek to change and improve organisations, often by listening to others and by supporting their ideas. They are aware of the risks, yet they continue the search anyway, usually by plotting various steps along the way that provide opportunities to celebrate small wins. Just as significantly, leaders learn from their mistakes, so that they are not repeated. In other words, leaders seek to *transform* organisations.

Transformational leadership often incorporates four qualities: charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Dubrin & Dalglish, 2003). The aim of transformational leadership is to move people beyond their self-interests for the good of the organisation (Bass, 1997), by:

- Appealing to followers’ values and their sense of higher purpose.

Transformational leaders articulate the problems in the current system and have a compelling vision of what a new society or organisation could be.

This new vision is linked to both the leader’s and the followers’ values.

- Reframing issues so that they are aligned with the leader’s vision and the followers’ values.
- Operating at a higher stage of moral development than their followers.

Their vision often appeals to the followers’ end values. End values are the ideals by which a society or organisation should strive to live, and include justice, freedom, equality. (Dubrin & Dalglish, 2003, p.76)

Bass and Stedlmeier (1998) add to the discourse about transformational leadership, suggesting that the “best of leadership is both transformational and transactional” (p.3). Transactional leadership includes contingent reinforcement.

Followers are motivated by the leaders’ promises, praise and reward. Or, they are corrected by negative feedback, reproof, threats, or disciplinary actions. The leaders react to whether the followers carry out what the leaders and followers have ‘transacted’ to do. (Bass & Stedlmeier, 1998, p.2)

While there is a tendency to differentiate between transformational and transactional leaders, Bass and Stedlmeier (1998) contend that most leaders portray “a range of leadership that includes both transformational and transactional factors. However, those we call transformational do much more of the transformational than the transactional” (p.3). This view complements that of Waldman, Bass and Yammarino (1990), who argue that “transformational leadership augments the effectiveness of transactional leadership; it does not replace it” (p.384).

However, certain authors (English, 2000; Gronn, 2003) have identified concerns about transformational leadership. English (2000) argues that the relationship between leader and followers is best conceptualised as “leader does to them and for them, never with them as co equals” (p.17), a notion referred to by Gronn (2003) as heroic individualism.

A corollary of transformation in the field of leadership is the notion that a hero figure will ‘turn around’ a poorly performing or under performing organisation. This popular shorthand rhetoric attests to the presumed potency of individually focused, transformational style leadership. (p.17)

In the case of the UK Government's Fresh Start scheme for failing schools, the increasing number of resignations by Principals charged with the responsibility of improving schools infers that "transformational heroism may well have outreached its capacity to deliver on the officially sanctioned expectations" (Gronn, 2003, p.17).

Nevertheless, Kouzes and Posner (2002) view transformation as an important part of leadership. "Leaders don't have to change history, but they do have to make a change in 'business as usual'" (p.194). Thus, by experimenting with various ideas, effective leaders actively seek change, and embrace failure.

Leaders guide and channel the often-frenetic human motion of change toward some end. When things seem to be falling apart, leaders show us the exciting new world we can create from the pieces. Out of the uncertainty and chaos of change, leaders rise up and articulate a new image of the future that pulls the organisation together. (p.224)

By adopting and advancing the attitude that failure is something that is a necessary part of success, leaders can turn the stress and angst of transformation into an adventure, and ultimately create an environment in which followers can become leaders themselves (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

3.3.4 Enable others to act: foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust, and strengthen others by sharing power and discretion

Leadership is a team effort (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). In order for dreams to be realised, leaders must engage everybody in their organisation in a positive manner. This is possible if leaders encourage collaboration, build trust and empower their constituents. Collaboration "is the critical competency for achieving and sustaining high performance" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p.242) and in today's technologically

advanced world, it underpins organisational success (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Collaboration, with its basis in the “identification, release and union” (Sofield & Juliano, 1995, p.11) of people’s talents, is also an integral component of Christian leadership (Sofield & Juliano, 1995; Sofield & Kuhn, 1995).

At the core of collaboration is trust. “Trust involves people’s performance in fulfilling obligations and commitments...acting with integrity...being honest in one’s words and consistent in one’s actions...and demonstrating concern for others” (Shaw, 1997, pp.30-32). It is not something that leaders can leave to chance: they must actively seek to create a climate of trust (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). This is possible by trusting others, being open to influence, making one’s self vulnerable and listening to people’s needs and desires (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Ultimately, this leads to interdependent relationships within the organisation and helps to empower constituents, enabling them to take the lead in certain initiatives.

3.3.5 Encourage the heart: recognise contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence, and celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community

Leaders must show appreciation for the contributions that people make to the organisation by linking rewards with performance. Kouzes and Posner (2002) argue that leaders need to make the following commitments when it comes to recognising the excellence of individuals:

- Be creative about rewards
- Make recognition public
- Provide feedback en route
- Be a Pygmalion
- Foster positive expectations

- Make the recognition presentation meaningful
- Find people who are doing things right
- Don't be stingy about saying thank you (p.349).

It is essential for leaders, however, to ensure that each of these is supported by genuine care and respect for an individual's work, so that individuals realise that their efforts are appreciated. This way, success depends on the efforts of many, rather than just a few. Inevitably, this builds team spirit and a sense of community, and generates a means by which the organisation can achieve its vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2002)

3.3.6 Credibility is the foundation of leadership

Leadership is primarily about the relationship “between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p.23). The practices and commitments outlined by Kouzes and Posner (2002) must be accompanied by the following four characteristics for the leader to be successful: honesty, competence, inspiration, and an ability to look forward (p.24), which together are referred to as *credibility*, which is the “foundation of leadership” (p.32). Credibility is defined simply as “do what you say you will do” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p.38), which links directly to the practice of modelling the way. Essentially, credibility, or modelling the way, positively influences followers' attitudes and increases loyalty both inside and outside the organisation.

3.4 Summary

The review of the literature on organisational leadership focused extensively on the five practices and ten commitments to leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). These five practices and ten commitments incorporate modelling the way through

authentic behaviour (Terry, 1993), inspiring a shared vision, and challenging the process through a notion of transformational leadership characterised by four factors: charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration (Dubrin & Dalglish, 2003). The importance of enabling others to act through collaboration (Sofield & Juliano, 1995), trust (Shaw, 1997) and empowerment, and encouraging the heart by recognising excellence and fostering community are also conveyed. Finally, the significance of credibility to leadership practice is acknowledged.

The literature on organisational leadership appears relevant to this research because it provides a framework for understanding and discussing leadership, especially the notions of authentic and transformational leadership, the importance of a shared vision, collaboration, trust and empowerment, and the benefits of rewarding excellence and developing community. These issues will be further explored in this study.

3.5 Christian Leadership and Leadership in a Catholic School

The five practices and ten commitments to leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) create a background understanding of leadership that informs this research. Since the aim of the study is to explore teacher leadership within a Catholic school, where “Jesus is the indispensable model for Christian leaders” (Sofield & Kuhn, 1995, p.33), it is necessary to examine leadership as modelled by Jesus, both for Christian leaders in general, and leaders in a Catholic school in particular. The notions of Christian leadership and leadership in a Catholic school are now addressed.

3.5.1 Christian leadership

Jesus is the model upon which Christian leadership is based. His life, actions and teachings speak “to all believers who serve as leaders; (they) shape the way in which they understand their roles and act as people who can transform the world” (Sofield & Kuhn, 1995, p.33, brackets added). According to Sofield and Kuhn (1995), what separates the Jesus model of leadership from others is “his all-abiding and foundational belief in God’s love” (p.33).

Loughlan Sofield is an internationally recognised author on ministry and personal development. He co-authored the book, *The Collaborative Leader* with Donald Kuhn, a specialist in leadership development. In Cieslak’s (2003) paper, ‘An Overview of Leadership’, in which he compares “the thoughts of two experts - one writing from a secular viewpoint and the other writing from a religious perspective” (p.1), Cieslak (2003) refers to Sofield and Kuhn (1995) as “experts” (p.1) on leadership from a religious perspective. In particular, Cieslak (2003) makes reference to Sofield and Kuhn’s (1995) “list (of) the characteristics that a good leader should have” (Cieslak, 2003, p.1, brackets added), which offers a clear model of Christian leadership.

In fact, Sofield and Kuhn (1995) present two models of Christian leadership for leaders to follow. The first is a model of Jesus’ leadership, while the second is a model of Christian leadership. The models provide a useful basis for understanding and discussing Christian leadership in this research.

Sofield and Kuhn’s (1995) model of Jesus’ leadership, based on His life and teachings, entails eleven “characteristics and behaviours” (p.34). Jesus was: “a

listener; responsible in a loving way to what he heard; a creator of vision; authentic; compassionate; forgiving; straight forward; generative; inclusive; empowering; and a person of integrity” (pp.34-36).

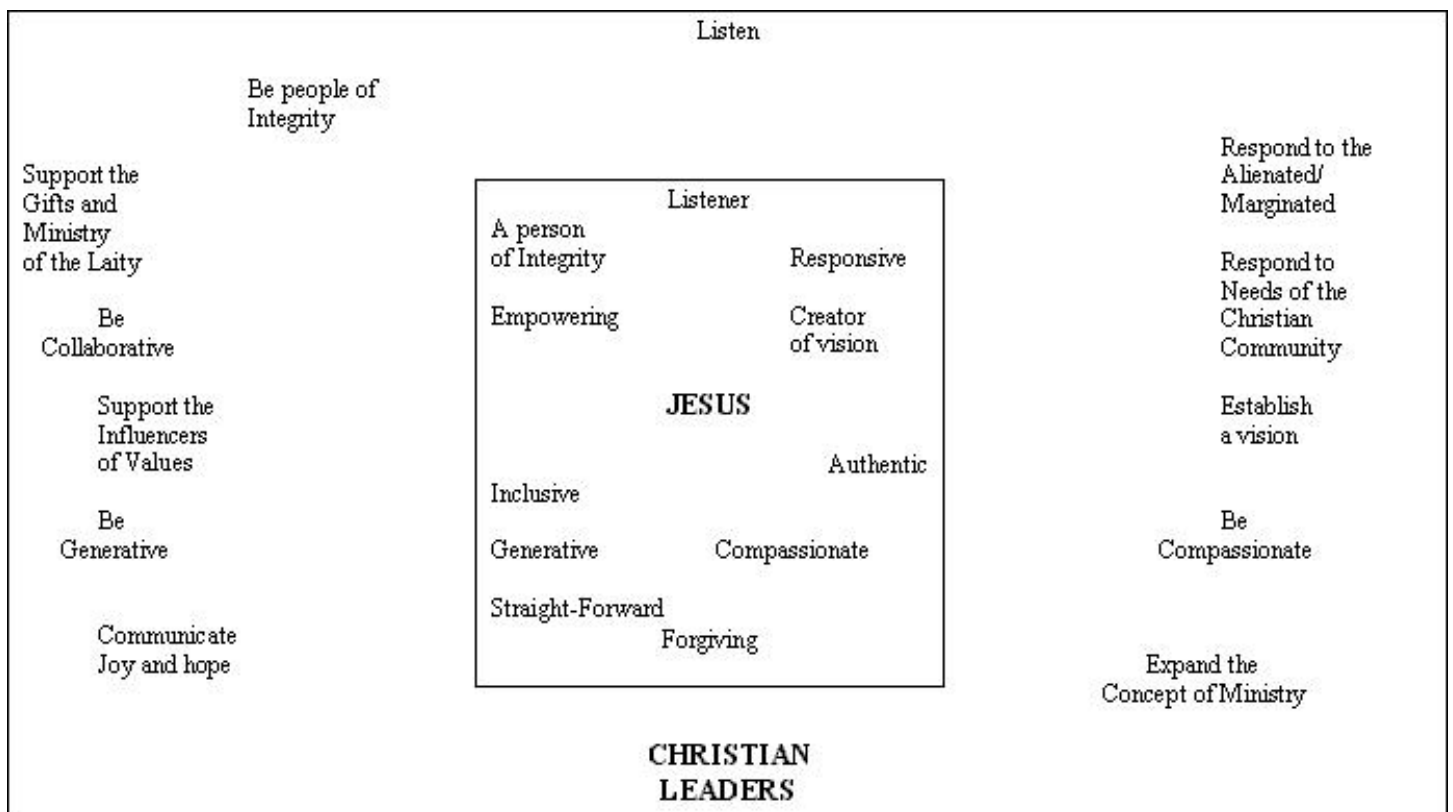
“Christian leadership is essentially living as Jesus did” (Sofield & Kuhn, 1995, p.36). Heisler (2003) believes that this entails three things: “commitment to a cause or goal, the personal character of the leader, and the extent to which the leader has real compassion for his or her followers” (p.1). Jesus’ commitment to the mission of human redemption given to him by his Father is the perfect example of passionate application to a cause. Similarly, Jesus’ own strength of character, through his uncompromising integrity and denunciation of ‘hypocrites’, reinforces the notion that effective leaders need character and credibility (Heisler, 2003; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Thirdly, the many examples of Jesus’ compassion throughout the gospels provide a guide for Christian leaders. Sofield and Kuhn (1995) refer to Jesus’ commitment to other people in this manner: “His whole life was characterised by compassionate responses to those who experience pain of mind, body, or soul” (p.35).

Sofield and Kuhn’s (1995) model for Christian leadership also detailed similar characteristics. Christian leaders:

listen; establish a vision; respond to the alienated and marginated; expand the concept of ministry; collaborate; support the gifts and ministries of the laity; respond to the needs of the Christian community; support the influencers of values; are people of integrity; are generative; are compassionate; and communicate hope and joy. (pp.37-39).

The models of Jesus’ leadership and Christian leadership are illustrated in Figure.3.2.

Fig.3.2 Jesus' leadership and Christian leadership



Sofield & Kuhn, 1995, p.40

3.5.2 Leadership in a Catholic school

“The mission of the Church has ultimately to be the same mission of Jesus” (McLaughlin, 2001, p.2). Since Catholic schools exist to promote the Church’s mission (McLaughlin, 2001), then leadership within a Catholic school aims to embody the Jesus model, which Benjamin (2002) contends, “radically determines how leaders in Catholic schools shape and influence learning in their schools” (p.83). Such leadership incorporates authenticity (Duignan, 2002), transformation (Treston, 1998), service (McLaughlin, 2001) and community (McLaughlin, 2001), which together form a notion of leadership in a Catholic school that informs this study.

Authentic leadership (Duignan, 2002), is “based on personal integrity and credibility, trusting relationships and commitment to ethical and moral action” (p.175), and is a key leadership principle within Catholic schools. It is closely related to spiritual leadership, or the “reaffirming (of) enduring core values such as respect for the individual, tolerance of divergence, high personal conduct and commitment to renewal” (Duignan, 1997, p.2), whose development rests very much with leaders of Catholic schools. Spirituality is a characteristic of all of humanity (McLaughlin, 2001), and is inextricably linked with the vision of Catholic education.

The relational and community aspects of Catholic schools naturally lend themselves to transformational leadership (McLaughlin, 2001), which is a necessary part of Catholic education (Kelly, 2002; McLaughlin, 2001; Treston, 1998). Mulligan (1994) states: “To be the conduit of the Church’s social teaching, to propose a critical education with the purpose of transforming society - this is an authentic and credible *raison d’etre* for Catholic education” (p.78).

Service is an essential element of leadership within the Catholic school (McLaughlin, 2001), as it embodies the leadership of Christ: “For the Son of Man himself did not come to be served but to serve” (Mark 10: 44). Benjamin (2002) argues that “the Catholic leader is one who ministers to others in a spirit of service, draws inspiration and strength from Christ, is able to share that inspiration with colleagues and draw them into active cooperation” (p.82).

Finally, the relational nature of leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and the sense of community that prevails in Catholic education (Congregation for Catholic Education, 1998), demand a communal approach to leadership. While individual

roles within the school should be respected, “the community dimension should be fostered” (Congregation for Catholic Education, 1998, p.20) above all else. Catholic schools are essentially organisations for relationships (Duignan, 1998) and as such, leadership should be empowering and participatory (Benjamin, 2002).

3.6 Summary

The literature on Christian leadership and leadership in a Catholic school focused primarily on the leadership model that Jesus provides and its relevance to leadership in Catholic schools (Benjamin, 2002; McLaughlin, 2001). Christian leaders are called to:

listen; establish a vision; respond to the alienated and marginated; expand the concept of ministry; collaborate; support the gifts and ministries of the laity; respond to the needs of the Christian community; support the influencers of values; be people of integrity; be generative; be compassionate; and communicate hope and joy. (Sofield & Kuhn, 1995, pp.37-39).

The leadership in Catholic schools is inspired and shaped by the life and teachings of Jesus, and the traits of Christian leadership. It is described as authentic (Duignan, 2002; McLaughlin, 2001), transformational (Mulligan, 1994; Treston, 1998), servant (Benjamin, 2002), and communal (Congregation for Catholic Education, 1998).

The scholarly literature on Christian leadership and leadership in Catholic schools is significant to this research, as it locates the study within its context, and creates a platform on which to build a notion of teacher leadership in a Catholic school, where all teachers are perceived to be leaders.

3.7 Teacher Leadership

The third, and pivotal, theme that informs this exploration is teacher leadership. Despite Crowther's (1996) lament that "no matter how significant (the) work (of teachers) may be in our communities and in our way of life, they are unlikely to be construed as leaders" (p.2), teacher leadership is now an area of interest to researchers, principals and teachers. This increased interest has coincided with recent attempts to move on from the ideology of authority-based leadership (Crowther, Hann & Andrews, 2002). The notion of teacher leadership as it is defined in the literature is outlined in this section (Barth, 2001; Gullatt, 1995; Harris & Muijs, 2002; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001), and the concept of teacher leadership in the classroom is discussed (Cheng, 1994; Gardner, H., 2000a; Gardner, J., 1986; Guisinger, 2002). The critical link between teacher leadership in the classroom and its influence on academic motivation is also identified (Guisinger, 2002; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). While the literature suggests that there are recent studies in the area of teacher leadership, the idea of teacher leadership in the classroom seems to be understudied. Similarly, its relationship to academic motivation also seems to be a lacuna in the literature.

3.7.1 Teachers as leaders

Currently, a dichotomy is evident in the literature on teacher leadership. Some commentators suggest that an integral element of teacher leadership is out of class involvement as leaders of other teachers, of curriculum, of learning, or even in developing budgets (Barth, 2001; Gullatt, 1995; Harris & Muijs, 2002; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). Consequently, this infers that the title of teacher leader applies to only some teachers (Lieberman, Saxl & Miles, 2000). Others contend that the term 'teacher' is synonymous with 'leader', and that classrooms are small organisations in

which every teacher is a leader (Cheng, 1994; Gardner, H., 2000a; Gardner, J., 1986; Guisinger, 2002).

Harris and Muijs (2002) believe that teacher leadership incorporates three main areas: the leadership of other teachers; the leadership of developmental tasks that are fundamental to improved learning and teaching; and the leadership of pedagogy through the formulation and modelling of effective forms of teaching. They suggest that “teacher leaders lead within and beyond the classroom, they identify and contribute to a community of teachers and influence others towards improved educational practice” (p.2). Leithwood and Riehl (2003), and Crowther, Hann and Andrews (2002) identify with this description, and argue that service to the profession and to other teachers, collaboration with other teachers and the formation of a shared vision are critical aspects of teacher leadership. Teacher leaders need to “work effectively as members of instructional teams” (Gullatt, 1995, p.1) and “share and possess qualities of leadership in the school” (Lieberman et al, 2000, p.16). As far as Lieberman, Saxl and Miles (2000) are concerned, “synonyms for teacher leader are ‘effective teacher’, ‘good teacher’, and ‘role model’” (p.16).

The tendency to discern between ‘teacher as leader’ and ‘teacher’, based on qualifiers such as ‘good’ and ‘effective’ (Crowther, 1996; Gullatt, 1995; Lieberman et al, 2000), is at the heart of the dichotomy evident in the literature. Elements of this can be traced to Crowther’s (1996) groundbreaking address on the position of teacher leadership in the field of educational leadership, which clearly differentiated between teachers and teacher leaders. In attempting to account for the under representation of teacher leadership in literature in the field of leadership, Crowther (1996) offers the following two reasons. First, educational administration theorists may have failed “to

recognise the full leadership dimensions of the work of *some* classroom teachers” (p.7) and second, “the *outstanding* professionals themselves” may have insisted “that their prime interest (was) not to lead, not to manage, but to teach” (p.7, emphases added). Crowther’s (1996) references to ‘some classroom teachers’ and ‘outstanding professionals’ intimate that only some teachers – namely those who are ‘outstanding’ - are leaders.

As such, the use of adjectives like ‘some’, ‘outstanding’, ‘effective’ and ‘good’ (Crowther, 1996; Lieberman et al, 2000) in definitions of teacher leaders naturally infers that not all teachers are leaders, because not all teachers are effective or good. Similarly, the inclusion of the notion of leading beyond the classroom (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001) in any definition suggests that those teachers who do not lead beyond the classroom are not leaders in any sense. Authors such as Crowther (1996), Lieberman, Saxl and Miles (2000), and Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) inadvertently raise the question, what is the difference between a teacher and a leader?

Gardner’s (1986) reflection on leadership indicates that there is no difference. “Leading and teaching are often synonymous. Both the teacher and the leader exert influence and create inspiration in their followers” (p.16). Since “leadership is the process of persuasion or example by which an individual (or leadership team) induces a group to pursue objectives held by the leader, or shared by the leader and his or her followers” (Gardner, 2000a, p.16), all teachers are leaders, at least in their respective classrooms. The potential to persuade that teachers possess, infers that ‘teacher’ and ‘leader’ are synonymous (Gardner, 1986; Guisinger, 2002), although ‘teacher’ is not necessarily synonymous with ‘effective leader’ or ‘good leader’, as these qualifiers are dependent upon other factors.

It is interesting to note that some teachers themselves may not be aware that the work they are doing is actually leadership (Crowther, 1996). “Perhaps some of the teachers with whom we work are already exercising leadership in ways that confirm the integrity of important cultural values, even if we haven’t recognised that leadership and perhaps they haven’t either” (p.7).

By referring to the work of several teachers, Crowther (1996) offers a link between the work of classroom teachers and that of leaders in organisations, and identifies, in particular, three theories of organisational leadership that are applicable to teacher leadership. These are: transformational, educative and strategic leadership. More specifically, Crowther (1996) suggests that teacher leaders:

- Show commitment to values and to making a better world
- Enjoy levels of trust in their communities
- Are dependable
- Treat others with dignity and respect
- Are confident and enthusiastic
- Are confident, assertive and proactive communicators and are able to develop relationships
- Are enthusiastic and optimistic. (pp.5-6)

This link is strengthened when the classroom is examined as a small organisation, “where the teacher is often assumed to be the leader and students the followers” (Cheng, 1994, p.1). In adopting this view, it is possible to shape a notion that leadership is inclusive of all classroom teachers.

3.7.2 Teachers as leaders in the classroom organisation

The classroom is an organisation (Cheng, 1994) or “a group of learners” (Wilcox, 1997, p.1), where the teacher is the leader (Cheng, 1994; Guisinger, 2002) or the leading learner (Groome, 1998). Cheng (1994) states that “a class of students and their (leader) are in nature a small organisation that may be studied and managed by theories of organisation and management” (p.7, brackets added).

In any learning group, there are “at least two basic objectives: to complete learning tasks, and to maintain positive and effective relationships among group members” (Wilcox, 1997, p.1). Leadership within a group has two functions: to “provide direction and exercise influence” (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003, p.2). It requires: “flexible behaviour; the ability to diagnose what behaviours are needed at a particular time in order for the group to function most efficiently; and the ability to fulfil these behaviours or get other members to fulfil them” (Wilcox, 1997, p.1). This leadership invariably falls upon the teacher, whose actions help the group to achieve its goals (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003), and “maintain effective working relationships among its members” (Wilcox, 1997, p.1). This requires the teacher to be trustworthy and authentic (Houser & Frymier, 2000; Younger & Warrington, 1999). Inextricably linked with this, is the teacher leader’s ability to positively influence boys’ academic motivation.

3.7.3 Teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation in the classroom

Establishing the conditions that help positively influence boys’ academic motivation is a necessary part of leadership (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Guisinger (2002) suggests that to be effective leaders, teachers must “create a good learning environment, empower their students, maintain classroom discipline, and *motivate*

students” (p.iv, emphasis added). This can be best achieved by teachers and students working together to create a shared sense of purpose and direction, particularly in terms of “student learning, including both the development of academic knowledge and skills and the learning of important values and dispositions” (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003, p.2).

Fundamental to improving boys’ academic motivation is the belief that boys’ willingness to learn increases when their interest increases (Brown & Keith, 1998; Scherer, 1999). This can also be achieved through the use of extrinsic methods (Conger, 1999), although their long-term effect on intrinsic motivation is felt to be problematic (Gardner, 2000b). This debate is expanded upon in the fourth theme, where a specific definition of academic motivation is also presented, to help to sharpen the focus of the study.

Because of the significance of leadership in illuminating the research problem, the following questions evolved as a focus for the research.

- What do Year 8 teachers and students understand by the concept of teacher leadership in the classroom?
- How do Year 8 teachers, in their role as classroom leaders, positively influence boys’ academic motivation?

3.8 Summary

The literature on teacher leadership highlighted two contrary views. Some scholars believe that only those teachers who are ‘good’ or ‘effective’ and lead outside of the classroom are leaders (Barth, 2001; Gullatt, 1995; Harris & Muijs,

2002; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001), while others argue that ‘teacher’ and leader’ are synonymous, and the classroom is an organisation in which all teachers are leaders (Cheng, 1994; Gardner, H., 2000a; Gardner, J., 1986; Guisinger, 2002). Irrespective of the dichotomy, teacher leaders need to serve others, collaborate and develop a shared vision, whether it is with other teachers or with their students in the classroom, or both (Crowther et al, 2002; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Studies of group leadership generate the view that the classroom is a small organisation where leadership can be transforming, educative, strategic, authentic and communal (Crowther, 1996; Houser & Frymier, 2000; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Younger & Warrington, 1999). The studies of group leadership also help to shape a notion that leadership is inclusive of all teachers (Cheng, 1994; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Wilcox, 1997). Finally, the concept is raised that an element of teacher leadership is creating and contributing to an environment that positively influences academic motivation (Guisinger, 2002; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003).

The literature on teacher leadership is significant to this research in several ways. First, the literature establishes the understanding that the classroom is an organisation in which all teachers are leaders (Cheng, 1994; Gardner, H., 2000a; Gardner, J., 1986; Guisinger, 2002). Second, the literature highlights that teacher leadership can include the following characteristics: service, collaboration, vision, transformation, education, strategy, authenticity and community (Crowther, 1996; Guisinger, 2002; Houser & Frymier, 2000; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Wilcox, 1997; Younger & Warrington, 1999). Third, a link is developed between classroom leadership and boys’ academic motivation (Guisinger, 2002; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003) that will be explored in this study. Thus, a more thorough understanding of

motivation in general and academic motivation in particular, seems necessary.

Literature on motivation and academic motivation is now examined.

3.9 Motivation and Academic Motivation

In this study, the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school is referred to as that 'magic' connection between a teacher as leader and a student that inspires him to want to learn. In order to explore this relationship, or 'magic' connection, it is necessary to review the literature on motivation and academic motivation. Firstly, the dichotomy between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is explained (Deci, 1971; Deci et al, 2001; Hanson, 1998; Scherer, 1999; Wentzel, 1997). Secondly, the notion of academic motivation, which is an integral part of this study, is outlined (Brown & Keith, 1998; Vallance, 2002; Wentzel, 1998). Thirdly, aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys' academic motivation in the classroom are raised (Houser & Frymier, 2000; Lillico, 1998; Otero, 2000; Younger & Warrington, 1999), and finally, the impact of high school transition on boys' academic motivation is discussed (Eccles & Midgley, 1989; Maehr & Midgley, 1991; Simmons & Blyth, 1987).

3.9.1 The intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy

Intrinsic motivation has been defined as "participation in an activity purely out of curiosity...the desire to engage in an activity purely for the sake of participating...(and) the desire to contribute" (Shia, 1998, p.2). Conversely, extrinsic motivation "refers to motives that are outside and separate from the behaviours they cause; the motive for the behaviour is not inherent or essential to the behaviour itself" (Shia, 1998, p.2). Intrinsic motivation is evident when students engage in an activity

for its own sake and not because of any extrinsic reward. Alternatively, extrinsic motivation is evident when students complete tasks for a reward (Dev, 1997).

It is proposed that extrinsic rewards impact negatively on students' academic motivation (Deci et al, 2001; Scherer, 1999). Although rewards are designed to positively stimulate motivation, they can, on occasion, undermine self-motivation and persistence to learn (Deci et al, 2001). Gardner (cited in Scherer, 1999) agrees, suggesting that extrinsic tools have only a short-term effect.

Some people use the word behaviourist to describe a regimen based on rewards and punishment. I'm not one of the individuals who avoids rewards or punishments in all cases; but grounding one's teaching in such 'schedules of reinforcement' can't work in the long run. (p.2)

Instead, Gardner (cited in Scherer, 1999) proposes that classrooms that adopt a constructivist approach to learning ultimately have the largest positive impact on students' academic motivation. A behaviourist class "focuses on the answers and tries to shape responses until they resemble a prototype" (p.2). On some occasions, and especially for some students, the correct answer - or the reward that invariably comes with that answer - can help to increase intrinsic motivation, at least for a time. However, it is not a suitable long-term prospect. Conversely, a constructivist classroom encourages students to "continually try out ideas and practices for themselves, (to) see where they work and where they prove inadequate" (p.2). By creating an environment that allows students to think and construct their own models of understanding, the constructivist classroom makes learning appear much more enjoyable. Hence, it enables students to "come to learn because they have a desire to learn, not because someone is giving them an A or an M and M" (Scherer, 1999, p.2).

The alternative view is that extrinsic motivational tools, such as goal setting, learning contracts, peer led activities and reward programmes, can have positive effects on students' academic motivation (Hanson, 1998; Wentzel, 1997). The key to positively influencing academic motivation, particularly at the middle school level, is for teachers to use extrinsic tools in conjunction with attempts to generate intrinsic interest in the topics being studied, until students experience increased academic motivation (Hanson, 1998). This can be achieved by simply creating a safe, caring and comfortable classroom environment that enables students to have fun, to feel that they belong, and to have some control over what they are doing (Wentzel, 1997).

Samson and Challis (1999) contend that incentives are essential to reward "the attainment of specified goals to a satisfactory standard" (p.15), or students will not cooperate to their full potential (Badaracco & Ellsworth, 1989). This is called a "necessary transaction" (Conger, 1999, p.2) between leader and subordinate. "Leaders not only structure activities and demonstrate concern for their subordinates. They also put in place appropriate goals and incentives...as a transaction or exchange between a leader and his or her subordinates" (p.2). Importantly, the student must feel that the reward is commensurate with the effort that he or she has put in (Badaracco & Ellsworth, 1989). Samson and Challis (1999) actively support the behaviourist view, believing that positive behaviour must be reinforced, while "unacceptable behaviour (should be) flushed out and (properly) managed" (p.15). Reinforcement should be done openly, and in as many forms and for as many reasons as possible, so that a clear culture can be established (Kouzes & Posner, 1999). Teachers as leaders should find ways to reward every student - for completing homework, trying hard at band, attending sports practice, or for positive actions, so as to reduce discipline infringements and, eventually, to transform the culture of the school (Groome, 1998).

3.9.2 Boys' academic motivation - implications for this study

Academic motivation is the inclination or impetus to learn in the classroom which, according to Vallance (2002), is a phenomenon generally accepted as “pivotal and essential for successful learning” (p.1). “A child who is academically motivated wants to learn, likes learning-related activities, and believes school is important” (Brown & Keith, 1998, p.1). Consequently, for the purposes of this study, a boy who demonstrates, or appears to possess, academic motivation is defined as one who “want(s) to learn, like(s) learning-related activities, and believe(s) school is important” (Brown & Keith, 1998, p.1, brackets added). In turn, this study attempts to explore the ways in which Year 8 teachers, as leaders, positively influence boys' academic motivation in the classroom.

Vallance (2002), in his research in a boys' school, provides an insight into a significant factor that positively influences boys' academic motivation and, as such, his research is relevant to this particular study. Vallance (2002) identified physicality as an aspect of boys' classroom learning that has a positive influence on academic motivation. He contends:

It is clear that students like doing things rather than abstract learning. The physical operations of learning are firmly bound into how students learn. It is further argued that the common cry of boys: ‘what is the use of this?’ is part of the appeal to relevance that physicality immediately satisfies. (p.10).

The influence of physicality on boys' academic motivation will be further explored in this research.

3.9.3 Developing boys' academic motivation

Teachers as leaders must have highly developed communication skills that, in turn, foster healthy relationships built on solid communication, and facilitate the successful management of behaviour (Houser & Frymier, 2000; Lillico, 1998; Otero, 2000). Each of these traits positively influences boys' academic motivation (Younger & Warrington, 1999). Similarly, caring teacher leaders impact positively on boys' academic motivation (Wentzel, 1997), as do those teachers who are enthusiastic and motivated (Atkinson, 2000; Patrick, Hisley, & Kempler, 2000) and those who appear friendly and relaxed (Younger & Warrington, 1999).

When teachers successfully use interpersonal communication activities that address the immediate needs of their students, they encourage students' active involvement in learning and, consequently, positively influence their academic motivation (Kerssen-Griep, 2001). Teachers as leaders can also impact positively on boys' academic motivation by incorporating strategies such as constructivism (Fullan, 1993; Groome, 1998; Rinne, 1998), empowerment (Bradford & Cohen, 1998; Duignan, 1997; Loader, 1997), life-long learning (Gardner, 2000b; Smith, 1995) and emotional intelligence (EQ) into students' learning (Goleman, 1996). Furthermore, boys' academic motivation will be positively influenced if teacher leaders abandon a compartmentalised approach to the curriculum and move more towards a curriculum that is skill based (Scherer, 1999), where learning and doing (Binney & Williams, 1997) and learning and feeling (Goleman, 1996) are integrated.

3.9.4 The impact of high school transition on boys' academic motivation

The transition from primary to middle or high schools often has a more profound impact on student academic motivation than adolescence itself (Maehr & Midgley, 1991). This is due mainly to a combination of changes in teaching strategies or leadership methods between primary and middle or high schools, and the different context and environment (Eccles & Midgley, 1989; Maehr & Midgley, 1991; Simmons & Blyth, 1987). The ramifications of declining academic motivation after transition into middle or high schools may continue for many years, and can have a lasting effect on a student's overall academic and social development (Maehr & Midgley, 1989). Because secondary schooling in South Australia begins in Year 8, this would seem to be the most pertinent year level to target in this research.

Because of the major relevancy of these issues in illuminating the research problem, the following question evolved as a focus of the research.

- What aspects of teacher leadership influence boys' academic motivation?

3.10 Summary

The literature on motivation and academic motivation drew attention to the dichotomy between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Shia, 1998). Intrinsic motivation is evident when students engage in an activity for its own sake and not because of any extrinsic reward, while extrinsic motivation occurs when students complete tasks for a reward (Dev, 1997). This review established that, while some theorists argue that extrinsic rewards impact negatively on students' academic motivation (Deci et al, 2001; Scherer, 1999), others believe that extrinsic motivational tools can have positive effects on students' academic motivation (Badaracco &

Ellsworth, 1989; Hanson, 1998; Samson & Challis, 1999; Wentzel, 1997). Academic motivation was defined and its significance to improved classroom learning was explained (Brown & Keith, 1998; Vallance, 2002; Wentzel, 1997), and aspects of teacher leadership influencing boys' academic motivation were presented (Houser & Frymier, 2000; Lillico, 1998; Otero, 2000; Younger & Warrington, 1999). Finally, the review drew attention to the significant impact of high school transition on academic motivation (Eccles & Midgley, 1989; Maehr & Midgley, 1991; Simmons & Blyth, 1987).

The literature on motivation and academic motivation is significant in a number of ways to this exploration of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school. Initially, the literature differentiates between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and helps to generate a definition of academic motivation. It then outlines aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys' academic motivation and makes explicit the impact of high school transition on boys' academic motivation. Finally, a rationale is generated for centring this exploration of teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation at the Year 8 level.

3.11 Conclusion

The four themes comprising this literature review are interrelated and, together, form the conceptual framework of the literature (Figure. 3.1) underpinning this exploration of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school. Each is significant to the research topic (summaries 3.4; 3.6; 3.8; 3.10).

The literature on organisational leadership provides a model for understanding and discussing leadership in this study, especially the notions of authentic and transformational leadership, the importance of shared vision, collaboration, trust and empowerment, and the benefits of rewarding excellence and developing community. The literature on Christian and Catholic school leadership generates a platform on which to build a notion of teacher leadership in a Catholic school, and describes such leadership as authentic, servant, transforming and communal. Thus, teacher leadership literature generates a rationale for categorising all teachers as leaders in their classrooms, and highlights the characteristics of this leadership, namely service, collaboration, vision, transformation, education, strategy, authenticity and community. The various characteristics of leadership evident in this study are outlined in Table 3.2.

Table.3.2 Characteristics of leadership (in the literature)

Organisational leadership	Christian leadership/leadership in a Catholic school	Teacher Leadership
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Model the way • Develop shared values • Be authentic • Serve • Develop a shared vision • Transform • Seek small wins • Collaborate • Trust • Empower • Listen • Reward • Recognise • Communal • Care • Respect • Be honest • Be competent • Be forward looking • Inspire 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Listen • Be a person of integrity • Empower • Be inclusive • Be generative • Be straight-forward • Forgive • Commit • Be compassionate • Be authentic • Create a vision • Respond • Hold values • Be joyful • Be hopeful • Transform • Serve • Communal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empower • Learn • Model • Influence • Collaborate • Create a vision • Teach • Persuade • Be a person of integrity • Commit to values • Trust • Be dependable • Respect • Be confident • Be enthusiastic • Be a proactive communicator • Relate • Be optimistic • Direct • Be flexible • Be authentic • Transform • Serve • Communal • Motivate • Manage behaviour

Significantly, the literature also identifies a link between leadership and boys' academic motivation. The motivation literature and that on boys' academic motivation further develops this link and distinguishes aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys' academic motivation in the classroom. Aspects of teacher leadership influencing motivation and academic motivation are outlined in Table 3.3.

Table.3.3 Aspects of teacher leadership that influence academic motivation (in the literature)

- Encouraging learning for its own sake
- Rewards
- External influence
- Behaviourism
- Fairness/ justice
- Relevancy
- Balancing intrinsic/extrinsic factors
- Influencing factors
- Intrinsic interest
- Physicality
- Extrinsic methods
- Empowerment
- Environment
- Challenge
- Authenticity
- Encouragement
- Communication
- Relationships
- Negotiation
- Caring
- Teacher motivation
- Friendliness
- Constructivism
- Emotional intelligence
- Life-long learning
- Transition
- Enthusiasm
- Discipline
- Curriculum

3.11.1 Characteristics

The literature on leadership and motivation informs this research in various ways. It helps to create a notion that all teachers are leaders within the classroom organisation, identifies five categories that contribute to an understanding of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school, and highlights aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys' academic motivation.

Since leadership is essentially about two main objectives, namely “to complete learning tasks, and to maintain positive and effective relationships among group members” (Wilcox, 1997, p.1), the literature also provides a means of rationalising aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys’ academic motivation into two categories. Further, the literature illuminates the research topic by helping to shape a notion that part of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom is to positively influence boys’ academic motivation by strengthening relationships and completing tasks. Finally, the literature helps to generate a framework for understanding and discussing the relationship between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school. This framework is shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. Relationships between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school (from literature)

Classroom leadership is categorised by...	Teacher leaders can strengthen relationships by being... (Relational aspects)	Teacher leaders can complete tasks by... (Task oriented aspects)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Service • Authenticity, including spirituality and shared values • Transformation, towards a shared vision • Empowerment, based on trust • Community 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivated • Enthusiastic • Inspirational • Respectful • Tolerant • Able to look forward • Competent • Honest • Communicative • Caring • Friendly • Collaborative • Fair and just • Interested 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modelling what they want • Managing behaviour • Developing intrinsic interest • Applying extrinsic methods • Incorporating learning and doing, and learning and feeling • Negotiating with students • Adopting a constructivist, skill-based approach to the curriculum • Achieving relevance • Developing a good learning environment • Creating a smooth transition into high school

3.11.2 Implications for this research

The first part of this exploration focuses on how the five categories of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school (service; authenticity, including spirituality and shared values; transformation, towards a shared vision; empowerment, based on trust; and community) are embodied by Year 8 teachers in the case study school. The second part focuses on the impact of teacher leadership on boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom. This is articulated, principally, through a discussion of the relationship between the ways in which each of the five categories of teacher leadership is embodied in the classroom and the aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys' academic motivation. The two parts, together, facilitate this research, and generate a framework for understanding and discussing the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom. Although recent studies have been undertaken of the classroom as an organisation, teachers as leaders and boys' academic motivation (Cheng, 1994; Vallance, 2002), the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom appears to be a lacuna in the field, which this exploration attempts to address.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH PLAN

4.1 Introduction

The review of literature in Chapter 3 focused extensively on four themes:

(i) organisational leadership; (ii) Christian and Catholic school leadership; (iii) teacher leadership; and (iv) motivation, which create the conceptual framework that supports this exploration of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school. The review also generated three questions, which refined and clarified the focus of the study. When these questions and the purpose of the study were considered, it seemed appropriate to undertake the research in the following manner.

First, since the research attempts to explore the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom via the experiences and perspectives of Year 8 teachers and students from Christian Brothers College, it is predominantly categorised by words (Wiersma, 1995). Second, the research is context specific (Wiersma, 1995) and, as such, reforms of Vatican II, the environment of Christian Brothers College, Adelaide, and the characteristics of a school in the Edmund Rice tradition are examined. Similarly, because the study explicitly addresses boys' academic motivation, intricacies of boys' education and boys' learning are also outlined. Third, the research includes the researcher as an instrument in data collection (Burns, 1994), which necessitates an explanation of the researcher's role and involvement in the study, and adherence to Burns' (1994) protocol. Together, these characteristics suggest an approach to research that is qualitative and

interpretive, and designed around case study. Table 4.1 provides an overview of the research plan.

Table 4.1 Overview of the research plan

4.2 Theoretical Framework

- Epistemology: interpretivism
- Theoretical perspective: symbolic interactionism

4.3 Research Methodology

- Case study

4.4 Data Collection

- Focus group interviews
- Student questionnaire
- Year 8 key student informant interviews

4.5 Research Participants

- Year 8 'core' teaching team
- Year 8 students

4.6 Data Analysis

- General analytic strategy
- Successive approximation

4.7 Trustworthiness

- Credibility
- Transferability
- Dependability
- Confirmability

4.8 Ethical Considerations

4.9 Limitations of the Study

4.10 Research Design Summary

4.2 Theoretical Framework

4.2.1 Epistemology

Any piece of research is grounded in a set of underlying assumptions about what constitutes knowledge and which research methods are appropriate (Lavery,

2003). Gough (2002) contends that the most important assumptions refer to the epistemology that underpins the research, because it clearly defines the “nature of the relationship between the knower (the inquirer) and the known (or knowable)” (p.5). In turn, epistemology is defined as “a theory of knowledge that specifies how researchers can know what they know. Different epistemologies offer different rules on what constitutes knowledge, and what criteria establish knowledge of social or natural reality as legitimate, adequate or valid” (Ramazanoglu & Holland, 2002, p.171).

This exploration of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation lends itself to qualitative research. Qualitative research has “an emphasis on processes and meanings that are not rigorously examined, or measured (if measured at all), in terms of quantity, amount, intensity, or frequency” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p.4). Central is the belief that a clear distinction can be drawn between the aims of the natural and human sciences. That is, natural science, epitomised largely by quantitative research, seeks explanation (*Erklaeren*), while human science, grounded generally in qualitative approaches, seeks understanding (*Verstehen*) (Connole, 1990; Schwandt, 2000). Furthermore, “qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p.3).

Such researchers explore questions that stress “the importance of the subjective lifeworld of human beings” (Burns, 1994, p.11). Consequently, an indelible aspect of qualitative research is the belief that, in order to understand “the meaning of human action”, one must first grasp “the subjective consciousness or

intent of the actor from the inside (*Verstehen*)”, so as to then “understand what he or she is up to in terms of motives, beliefs, desires, thoughts and so on” (Schwandt, 2000, p.192). Qualitative research is also flexible, context specific and categorised by words more than numbers (Wiersma, 1995).

Nonetheless, although qualitative research refers to an epistemology, there are many forms of qualitative research. These various forms have obvious similarities but also some differences. This particular exploration takes the form of an interpretivist study.

Interpretivist inquiry aims to understand actions from the perspectives of particular actors and within each actor’s context, a phenomenon referred to as psychological re-enactment (Schwandt, 1994). Given that interpretive practice enables the researcher “to see and document the qualities of educational interaction too often missed by more positivistic inquiries”, and reveals the “possible relationships, causes, effects and even dynamic processes in school settings” (Burns, 1994, p.14), it seems an ideal approach to adopt in this instance. Moreover, since it provides an avenue for important life stories to be told; stories that “are located in that imaginary space where a seriously deficient here-and-now meets a desirable, but possible, future” (Barone, 1990, p.371), the interpretivist paradigm can have strong social justice and reformative effects (Ferguson, Ferguson, & Taylor, 1992).

However, it is the benefits that interpretivist research can bring to ordinary classroom teachers in general, and those at Christian Brothers College in particular,

that confirm its suitability for this particular study. About this, Burns (1994) writes:

Interpretive research

provides(s) in-depth information on teacher interpretations and teaching style...Ordinary teachers, who may not have knowledge of sophisticated measurement techniques, could turn to (interpretive) reports in order to examine forms of knowledge that might otherwise be unavailable, thereby giving new insight concerning educational endeavours. The close connection between (interpretive) research and teaching might also inspire teachers themselves to become involved in research. (p.14, brackets added)

Thus, this study attempts to explore and understand the lived experience of leadership and academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school of those who know it best - the Year 8 teachers and students.

4.2.2 Theoretical perspective

Perspectives create a lens through which people are able to make sense of the world (Evans, 2001). They are sets of assumptions or beliefs that generate a conceptual framework for understanding phenomena (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) and, within the field of interpretivist research, there are many such perspectives, each with its own particular emphasis. This study is underpinned by symbolic interactionism.

Symbolic interactionism is a theoretical approach that seeks to understand human behaviour. It “involves the study of individuals in society and what impacts on their own subjective insights and feelings” (Hard, 2002, p.5). Further, it contends that “a person’s perspective, or the meaning that one creates out of one’s experience,

is what a person interprets as reality” (Fidishun, 2001, p.3). Thus, symbolic interactionism holds that people’s actions towards other people and things are based on the meanings that they give to them (Crotty, 1998). For this reason, symbolic interactionism provides a suitable theoretical perspective for an exploration of how leadership and its impact on academic motivation are enacted and understood by those directly involved.

The concept of symbolic interactionism was developed by Blumer and based largely on Mead’s earlier work (Hard, 2002). It is characterised by three key aspects, namely:

- that people individually and collectively, act on the basis of the meanings that things have for them;
- that meaning arises in the process of interaction among individuals;
- and that meanings are assigned and modified through an interpretative process that is ever changing subject to redefinition, relocation and realignments. (Benzies & Allen, 2001, p.545)

Central to the concept is the belief that the researcher can, as far as possible, take the role of a participant being studied (Crotty, 1998). This process is referred to as an interaction (Crotty, 1998). In turn, the interaction is symbolic because the researcher’s understanding of the participant’s feelings, beliefs and perceptions comes via discussion and involvement, from “‘significant symbols’- that is language and other symbolic tools” (p.75).

Since this research attempts to explore and understand the insights into leadership and academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom from the perspective of

those teachers and students being studied, symbolic interactionism seems an appropriate approach to adopt. Moreover, since focus groups and key informant interviews “represent opportunities for the researcher to witness and record the interactions and interpretations individuals make to the research questions both as individuals and in a group setting” (Hard, 2002, p.11), they are considered ideal for “studies that utilise a symbolic interactionist framework” (p.11).

4.3 Research Methodology

4.3.1 Case study

The research methodology adopted in this project is case study. The popularity of the case study, as well as its acceptance as a legitimate research methodology, has increased significantly in recent times (Callaghan, 1996; Stake, 2000). This is partly due to its face-value credibility (Bachor, 2000), and “because people want a convenient and meaningful technique to capture a time-framed picture of an individual’s - or some other aggregate that can be construed as a unit or collective - characteristics and performance” (p.1). However, case study has been described as intrusive (McKay & Oliver, 1997), and has been dismissed by some because it does not lend itself to the drawing of generalisations (Stake, 2000). In the present inquiry, the potential problem caused by a lack of generalisability is overcome by recognising that the goal of qualitative research is really transferability, and not generalisability (Byrne, 2004). The notion of transferability is discussed later in this chapter.

In case study, the case is the situation. It may be an individual, a group, a classroom of children, or an organisation, but essentially, the case “is one among

others” (Stake, 2000, p.436). Moreover, “the time (researchers) may spend concentrating (their) inquiry(ies) on the *one* may be long or short but, while (they) concentrate, (they) are engaged in case study” (Stake, 2000, p.436, brackets and emphasis added).

Case study is an approach to research that involves detailed investigation of a phenomenon within its particular context, using a variety of research methods (Wiersma, 1995). It is “both a process of inquiry about the case and the product of that inquiry” (Stake, 2000, p.436), and is primarily documentary (Walker, 1983), descriptive and interpretive (McKay & Oliver, 1997). Generally, case study focuses on the ‘how’ and ‘why’ of educational research (McKay & Oliver, 1997), and, because of its flexibility, is regarded as an appropriate strategy for exploratory work (Higgs, 1997). Case studies can ‘fit’ roughly into three categories: intrinsic, instrumental and collective (Stake, 2000), although some researchers prefer to categorise them according to their purposes: that is, case studies for identity, explanation or control (White, 1992).

Intrinsic case study is undertaken, first and foremost, because the researcher wants to gain an understanding of a particular case (Stake, 2000). He or she does not necessarily believe that “the case represents other cases or (that) it illustrates a particular problem...(Rather), in all its particularity and ordinariness, the case itself is of interest” (p.437, brackets added). Conversely, instrumental case study provides an insight into an issue; the case itself is secondary, and essentially facilitates the understanding of something else (Stake, 2000). Usually, “the choice of case is made to advance understanding of that other issue (because it) is believed that

understanding (it) will lead to better understanding of a larger number of cases” (p.437, brackets added). Thirdly, as the name suggests, collective case study is undertaken when a researcher studies numerous cases in order to investigate a particular phenomenon. Stake (2000) refers to this as “instrumental study extended to several cases” (p.437). The present inquiry is largely intrinsic case study, although it may also have instrumental value.

While Stake (2000) argues that studies ‘fit’ roughly into one of these categories, Peshkin (1992) suggests that the benefits of case study are often two-fold. “I mean to present my case so that it can be read with interest in the case itself, but I always have another agenda - to learn from the case about some class of things” (p.83). To this end, this case study can generate both intrinsic and instrumental benefits. On the one hand, the ‘snapshots’ of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom and the aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys’ academic motivation at Christian Brothers College may be useful for the professional development of its teachers as leaders and the continued improvement of its teaching programmes so that they better address boys’ academic motivation. On the other hand, the case study may provide a means of “refining theory and suggesting complexities for further investigation” (Stake, 2000, p.448) into either or both of these phenomena, in the world beyond the College.

4.4 Data Collection

Data collection methods used in this case study include:

- a) Focus group interviews with eight members of the Year 8 ‘core’ teaching team on issues pertaining to teacher leadership in the Year

8 classroom and how this positively influences boys' academic motivation;

- b) A survey questionnaire about academic motivation distributed to thirty nine specially identified Year 8 students;
- c) Interviews with five key Year 8 student informants.

4.4.1 Year 8 'core' teaching team focus group interviews

The first research method involved two "focus groups interviews" (Patton, 1990, p.335) with eight members of the Year 8 'core' teaching team, who teach the Year 8 Home Rooms in 'blocks' of time. A focus group is "a group of individuals selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of the research" (Powell & Single, 1996, p.499). Focus group interviews are "considered appropriate for qualitative research when the intention is to explore a 'focus', or a specific point in a broad subject" (Ressel, Gualda, & Gonzalez, 2002, p.2). The method can also "be applied to a specific theme, in which the purpose is to elicit the different points of view about the theme, to understand the different worldviews, and to understand in depth a behaviour of a determined group" (Ressel et al, 2002, p.2).

In general, focus group interviews are used to help researchers understand respondents' feelings, beliefs, attitudes and experiences, in a way that is not possible in one-to-one interviews, survey questionnaires or observation (Gibbs, 1997). While the focus group is a form of group interview, there are differences between the two. Gibbs (1997) contends that "group interviewing involves interviewing a number of people at the same time, the emphasis being on questions and responses between the

researcher and participants” (p.2). On the other hand, focus group interviews rely on “interaction within the group based on topics that are supplied by the researcher” (Morgan, 1997, p.12). Thus, the fundamental difference between the focus group interview and group interview is “the insight and data produced by the interaction between the participants” (Gibbs, 1997, p.2), which reveals “what is on the respondents’ mind(s) and not the researcher’s” (Tyrrell, 1998, p.2).

Authors vary in their assessments of the recommended number of people per focus group, but there is consensus that the group “must be small enough for everyone to have an opportunity to share insights and large enough to provide a diversity of perceptions” (Tyrrell, 1998, p.1). Discrepancies about the formation of groups, numbers of groups that should be used and preferred meeting locations also exist. There are warnings against conducting a focus group with an already established group (Tyrrell, 1998), although the formation of an ‘expert panel’ within an organisation (Nielsen, 1997) can be beneficial to both the study and to the participants (Gibbs, 1997). Some studies use only one meeting with several focus groups (Burgess, 1996), while others meet with the same group several times (Gibbs, 1997). Interviews can be held in a variety of locations, ranging from people’s homes to rented facilities (Gibbs, 1997), or in the case of existing groups, where they hold their regular meetings (Gibbs, 1997). Focus group interviews generally last between one to two hours (Gibbs, 1997).

In the present study, eight members of the Year 8 team, who double as core subject and Home Room teachers, were considered to be more able than any other group to offer insights into teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom at Christian

Brothers College. Furthermore, during the focus group interviews, teachers were able to develop a shared understanding of what boys' academic motivation 'looks like' in the Year 8 classroom and, based on this understanding, to identify students who demonstrate, or appear to possess, academic motivation. This resulted in a group of 41 students, who were invited to participate in the project. Within this group of 41, staff also highlighted five particular students, one in each Year 8 class, considered to be the most highly motivated in the Year level. Finally, the teacher group was able to comment on the approaches used to positively influence boys' willingness to learn.

Critics of the focus group suggest that data collected are often irrelevant (Morgan, 1988). Further, the group culture may affect individual expression (Tyrrell, 1998) and make it difficult to distinguish the individual view from the group view (Gibbs, 1997), and there is the potential for bias (Tyrrell, 1998). The benefits of the focus group are that people are more relaxed (Tyrrell, 1998), prepared to ask questions of each other, to review their own understandings of the issue at hand (Gibbs, 1997), and to "make decisions after listening to advice and counsel of people around them" (Tyrrell, 1998, p.3).

In this case study, focus group method was used with one group (eight of the ten members of the Year 8 teaching team), which met twice in the Year 8 LAP room, where the group regularly holds its meetings. The first interview was forty five minutes long, while the second went for two hours. The focus group interviews were taped and transcriptions were offered to the group for checking.

4.4.2 Year 8 student questionnaire

The Year 8 student questionnaire was “group administered” (Lavery, 2003, p.88) to those students who were identified by teachers during the focus group interviews, as demonstrating, or appearing to possess, academic motivation. Forty-one such students were identified, thirty-nine of whom elected to participate. The questionnaire was divided into five sections: service; authenticity (and shared values, including spirituality); transformation (which requires a shared vision); empowerment (based on trust); and community. The questionnaire comprised forty-three items, organised as follows: five on ‘service’, seven on ‘authenticity’, eleven on ‘transformation’, and ten each on ‘empowerment’ and ‘community’. A Likert type scale was employed and this made it possible to generalise some of the data (Punch, 1998). The survey questionnaire was very directed, and was constructed on the assumption that there is an identifiable link between students’ motivation and teachers’ approaches to leadership. Each question focused the students on certain types of leadership behaviours and asked them to respond to them. This approach required the students to explore the link, if any, between their academic motivation and teachers’ leadership. It is acknowledged, however, that this process limits the study. Although students were given opportunities in each section of the questionnaire to write comments, both to allow for a variety of responses of which the researcher was unaware, and to provide an avenue for students to respond more personally, they were not asked open ended questions about their teachers’ classroom leadership and its subsequent influence on their willingness to learn. Thus, the format of the questionnaire did not, necessarily, lead to a construction of students’ images of teacher leadership.

4.4.3 Year 8 key student informant interviews

A key informant is a person whose insights may help the researcher better understand the phenomenon under study (Patton, 1990). Further, a “key informant is particularly knowledgeable and articulate” (p.263). In this case study, key informant interviews were conducted with five Year 8 students, one from each Year 8 class, who appeared to possess or demonstrate a high degree of academic motivation. Teachers nominated the five students during the focus group interviews. When one student declined to participate in the study, the second ranked student in that particular class was invited to be interviewed. As was the case with the survey questionnaire, the interview questions were highly directed towards exploring the link between academic motivation and teacher leadership, although the researcher still had an opportunity “to establish a conversational style” (Patton, 1990, p.283). With permission, a small tape recorder was used to ensure the accuracy of responses and to improve the level of interaction in the interview. The researcher and interviewee tested the tape recorder immediately prior to the interview to ensure that the tape was running, and again at the conclusion of the interview, so that both were satisfied that it had recorded properly. Each respondent was offered a full interview transcription, which was subsequently validated.

The purpose of the key informant interviews was to establish how the students perceived teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom, and to identify aspects of teacher leadership that influence their academic motivation. In an attempt to target the interviews (Yin, 1994), most of the questions were devised through analyses of the literature review and responses made in the focus group interviews and student survey questionnaire. This helped to focus the students’ attention directly on the research

area but, again, it must be stated that the questions, generally, explored predetermined, fixed concepts. That is, students were asked to comment on their teachers' leadership behaviours and attributes in each of the five earlier established components of classroom leadership, and to explore the relationship between these behaviours and attributes and their own academic motivation. This course of action was adopted in order to advance the study but, at the same time, the researcher is aware of the limitations of the data collection instruments in eliciting information from student participants. Furthermore, as may be the case with any individual interview, key informants' responses may have been biased (Patton, 1990).

4.5 Research Participants

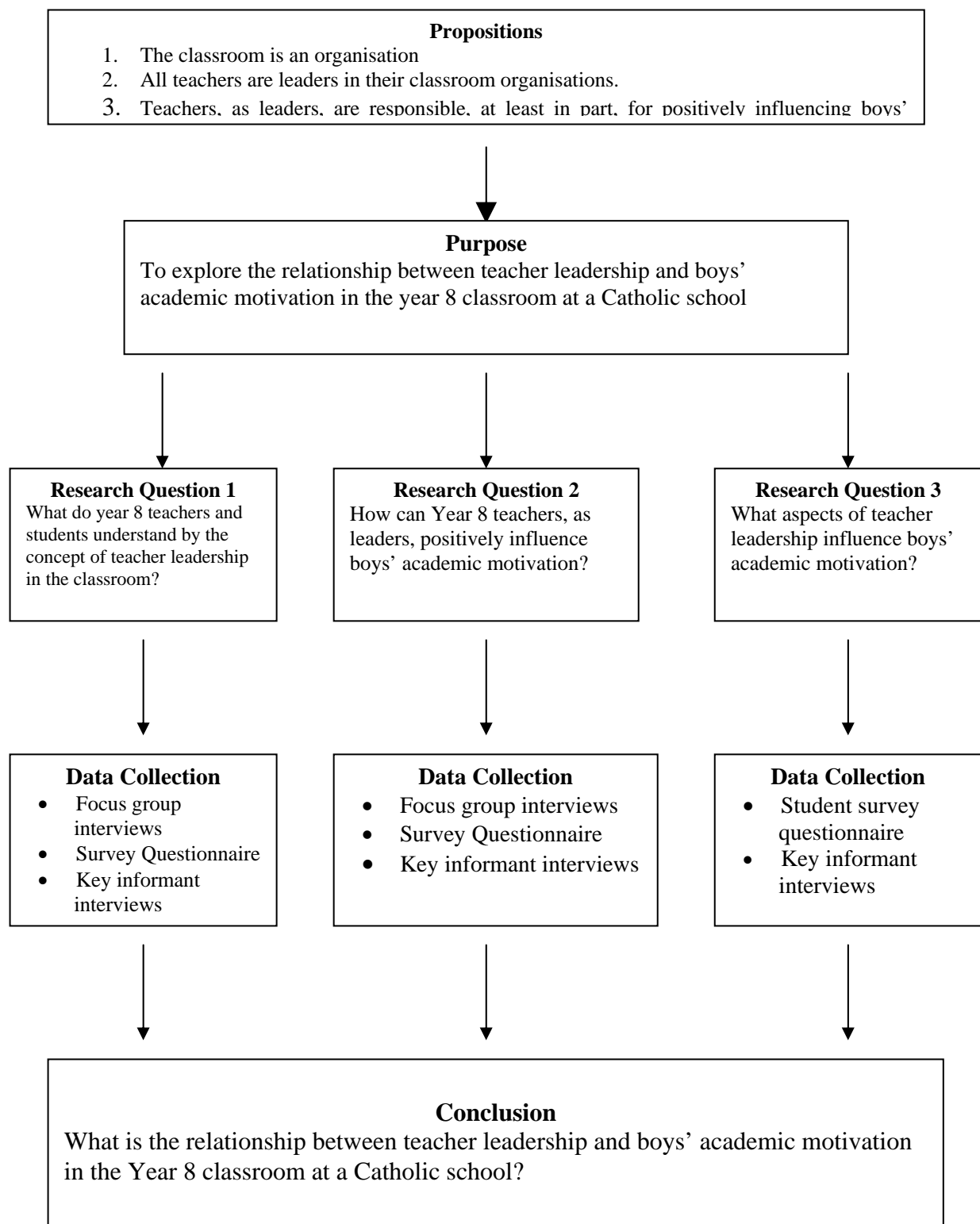
Eight of the ten members of the Year 8 teaching team volunteered to participate in the research. During the focus group interviews, forty-one Year 8 students were identified by their teachers as demonstrating, or appearing to possess, academic motivation. Each of these was informed about the study and invited to complete the questionnaire. Thirty-nine volunteered to participate. Five of the thirty-nine, one from each Year 8 class, were nominated during the focus group interviews as key informants, because it was believed that they were the most highly motivated students in the Year level. Again, teachers identified these five students, and each was invited to participate in a semi structured interview. When one student declined, the second ranked student in that particular class was invited. To maintain confidentiality, data collected during the focus group and key informant interviews were presented anonymously. For purposes of style and ease of understanding, key student informants were allocated pseudonyms.

The process of student selection was adopted so that the ‘sample’ would contain *only* academically motivated boys. There was no guarantee, of course, that such motivation was dependent upon their teachers’ leadership, but the researcher believed that if, in fact, there was a clear relationship between the chosen students’ academic motivation and teacher leadership, then academically motivated boys would be best able to discuss and reflect upon this link.

4.6 Data Analysis

In the analysis of case study data, the use of a “general analytic strategy” (Yin, 1994, p.102) is recommended. In the present inquiry, this entailed following the three theoretical propositions that underpin the study. These, in turn, help to give the study its purpose, shape the data collection methods and identify elements of the data that are relevant (Yin, 1994). The first theoretical proposition is that the classroom is a small organization. The second is that all teachers are leaders in their respective classrooms. The third follows: teacher leaders are responsible, at least in some way, for positively influencing their students’ academic motivation. This course of action is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Fig. 4.1 General analytic strategy for the research



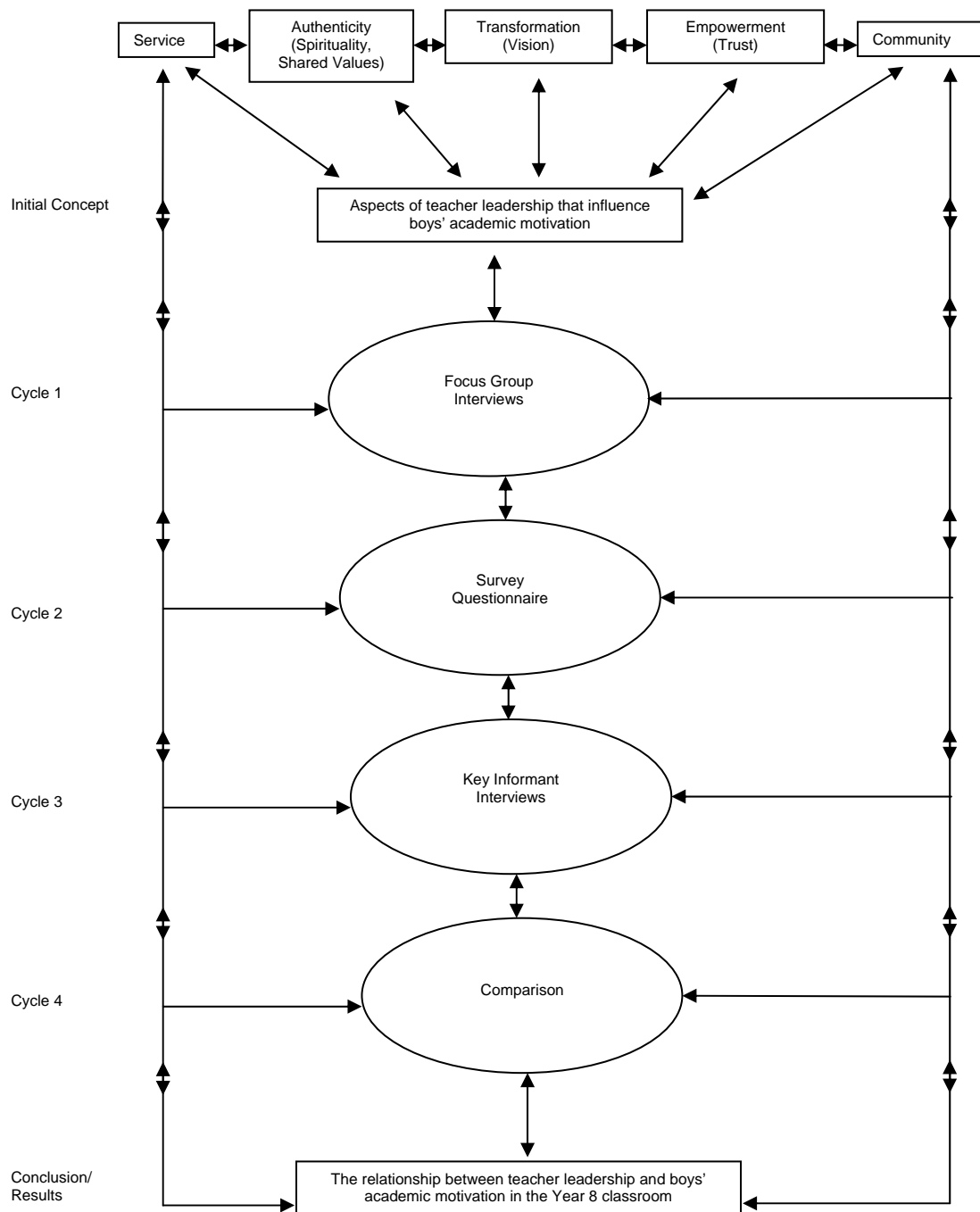
Within the “general analytic strategy” (Yin, 1994, p.102) that characterised data analysis in this inquiry, the researcher adopted a method of “successive approximation” (Neuman, 1997, p.427). This is described as follows. “This method involves repeated iterations or cycling through steps, moving toward a final analysis. Over time, or after several iterations, a researcher moves from vague ideas and concrete details in the data toward a comprehensive analysis” (Neuman, 1997, p.427).

In implementing successive approximation, a researcher begins with a set of assumptions, concepts and research questions. From there, he or she then probes into the data, asking questions of the evidence to see how well the concepts fit the evidence and reveal features of the data. He or she also creates new concepts by abstracting from the evidence and adjusts concepts to fit the evidence better. The researcher then collects additional evidence to address unresolved issues that appeared at the first stage, and repeats the process. At each stage, the evidence and the theory shape each other. (Neuman, 1997, p.427)

The process is called successive approximation because the concepts and evidence are continually modified to become successively more accurate (Neuman, 1997).

Essentially, there were four cycles of approximation in this study. Each is shown in Figure 4.2, which illustrates how successive approximation was used in the research.

Fig. 4.2 The process of successive approximation



A preliminary exploration in the review of literature drew attention to five categories of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom (service; authenticity, which includes spirituality and shared values; transformation, which requires a shared vision;

empowerment, based on trust; and community), and identified aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys' academic motivation. The five categories and influential aspects of teacher leadership provided an initial concept, or "general idea" (Neuman, 1997, p.428), of teacher leadership in the classroom and its relationship to boys' academic motivation. The concept was subsequently modified over the course of four cycles, namely focus group interviews with Year 8 teachers, the student survey questionnaire, the key informant interviews and, finally, a comparison of teachers' and students' perceptions. Each time, the five categories and influential aspects of teacher leadership were refined to better reflect the evidence, until theory and evidence were more closely aligned.

The initial concept facilitated the coding of the focus group interview questions into five categories. At the conclusion of the focus group interviews, data were tentatively analysed and, again, coded according to these five categories, detailing specifically teachers' perceptions of classroom leadership and its impact on boys' academic motivation. The analysis was completely descriptive. Subsequently, the student survey questionnaire was refined and administered, which generated the second cycle. The questionnaire was divided into five sections: service; authenticity (which includes spirituality and shared values); transformation (which requires a shared vision); empowerment (based on trust); and community, with each comprising a variety of questions. The aim of the questionnaire was to establish students' perceptions of teacher leadership and its influence on boys' academic motivation. In this cycle, Microsoft Excel was used to analyse the data and to generate a statistical summary for each section of the questionnaire, including mean, mode and standard deviation. Descriptive evidence was also collected and analysed in each section.

The next cycle involved initially refining the key informant interview questions in light of the provisional evidence established in the first two, and then undertaking a descriptive analysis. Again, data were coded using the five categories, which further established and refined an understanding of the research topic. Finally, in the fourth cycle, students' and teachers' perceptions of teacher leadership and its relationship to boys' academic motivation were compared and contrasted, taking into account both descriptive and statistical evidence. After the four cycles, two summary lists of findings were established, one detailing teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom, and the other, its relationship to boys' academic motivation.

4.7 Trustworthiness

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) contend that, in qualitative research, "terms such as credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability, replace the usual positivistic criteria of internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity" (p.14). The key point for qualitative researchers is that they must ensure that the views and voices of all participants in the research are expressed truthfully (Wiersma, 1995), so that the study is fair and balanced (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Attention to each of the categories: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability, helps to build the trustworthiness of the research (Guba & Lincoln, 1985).

4.7.1 Credibility

Research is only credible when the findings appear truthful to those involved in the inquiry (Wiersma, 1995). In a focus group interview, the personal characteristics of the moderator can "have a direct bearing on the nature of group interaction and thereby affect the quality of discussion" (Tyrrell, 1998, p.4).

Similarly, the evolving group culture may adversely affect individual expression and inhibit responses. In some cases, perceived experts who dominate conversation may have a detrimental effect on the input of others in the group. Further, conflict within the group can lead to polarised views that do not accurately portray the opinions of the group (Tyrrell, 1998).

There are also concerns about the credibility of the data collected from semi structured interviews, in that it may be distorted by the researcher's selective attentiveness (McKay & Oliver, 1997). That is, evidence which is helpful to a hypothesis, may be, even unwittingly, given more attention than that which counters a developing argument. In such an instance, the data produced for the study are compromised. Consequently, an attempt must be made by the researcher to ensure that the views and voices of all participants are expressed accurately (Lincoln & Guba, 2000).

To this end, various approaches were employed in this research. The first was to gather data from various sources, so as to establish different points of view (Wiersma, 1995). The data sources were two focus group interviews with Year 8 teaching staff, a survey questionnaire administered to thirty nine nominated students, and five key student informant interviews. The second was member checking, which required the researcher to submit focus group and interview transcriptions to participants for review (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). These were subsequently validated by the participants. Finally, the researcher employed an audit trail to verify the credibility of the information collected. This entailed regular discussions with the University supervisor and co-supervisor during the study, in order to check the

reliability and validity of the processes used to analyse and produce data (Guba & Lincoln, 1985).

4.7.2 Transferability

Transferability is not ‘generalisability’. Moreover, even though generalisability is “an appealing concept because it allows a semblance of prediction and control over situations” (Hoepfl, 1997, p.12), it is never the goal of qualitative studies (Byrne, 2004). This is largely the case because specific case study conditions make it “impossible to generalise” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.124). As such, in this case study, the researcher has attempted to achieve transferability, which is “the extent to which the findings can be applied to other contexts” (p.3). It must be noted, however, that this is not simply a matter of stating the degree to which the research findings can be transferred to another context, for it is predominantly the reader who performs this process. The researcher merely facilitates transferability, by providing “thick description” (Denzin, 1989, p.83), “based on the qualitative method of purposeful sampling” (Patton, 1990, p. 169). To do so in this inquiry, the researcher has included thick description of the participants’ experiences, understandings and perceptions to the point that the reader can clearly establish the key themes, ideas and categories, and has outlined both his role in the case study school, and his involvement in the study (Gorski, 1998).

4.7.3 Dependability

The crux of dependability in qualitative research is the notion that if a study were repeated with the same or similar participants in the same or similar circumstances, the findings would also be repeated (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Hence,

dependability is closely related to consistency (Seale, 1999). To achieve dependability, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest the use of an “inquiry audit” (p.317), to “examine both the process and the product of the research for consistency” (Hoepfl, 1997, p.13). In this research, the inquiry audit entailed following general rules for case study data collection, such as clearly stating the research questions and adhering to focus group and key informant interview protocol (Campbell, 1996), and developing an evidence database, which, on the one hand, allowed the researcher to formally organise the evidence into themes and, on the other, facilitated the analysis of data from various sources (Yin, 1994).

4.7.4 Confirmability

The confirmability of an inquiry is “the degree to which the researcher can demonstrate the neutrality of the research interpretations” (Hoepfl, 1997, p.13). As is the case with a study’s dependability, its confirmability can also be strengthened through the adoption of an “inquiry audit” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.317), or a “confirmability audit” (Hoepfl, 1997, p.13), with the aim to clearly establish a chain of evidence (Yin, 1994). The main techniques used in this research included member checking and an audit trail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Further, the researcher gathered data from various sources, so as to generate different points of view (Wiersma, 1995).

4.8 Ethical Considerations

The study was completed with strict regard for ethical issues. It can be said that “something of a contract exists between researcher and researched, a disclosing and protective covenant, usually informal, but best not silent - a moral obligation” (Schwandt, 1993, p.8). This moral contract helped to direct the choices the

researcher made when considering textual form, what to include and when to probe, and was necessary to protect the privacy and integrity of participants (Stake, 2000).

The following steps were taken:

1. Approval for the study was gained from the Australian Catholic University Human Research Ethics Committee, and from the Principal of the case study school.
2. Staff and student participation was voluntary and each participant, as well as the parents of child participants, was thoroughly informed, in writing, about the focus of the study, the methodology and methods used, the extent of observation and what and how results were to be reported (Stake, 2000).
3. The participants' identities were concealed. Focus group and student questionnaire respondents were never referred to by name and pseudonyms were used to conceal the identities of the five key student informants.
4. Each focus group participant was required to agree to keep confidential any issues raised in the focus group interviews and, similarly, in the role of moderator, the researcher presented data anonymously (Gibbs, 1997).
5. The fact that access to data was limited to only the researcher and his supervisors was explained (Stake, 2000).
6. In accordance with member checking, drafts of the data produced were forwarded to the appropriate participants for them to check the manner in which they were presented (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992).
7. All records of interviews and survey questionnaires have been transferred onto a CD-ROM and stored in a locked filing cabinet in the supervisor's office at the Australian Catholic University.

4.9 Limitations of the Study

This research has several limitations. The most significant is that the study rests on a premise that the classroom is an organisation, “where the teacher is often assumed to be the leader and students the followers” (Cheng, 1994, p.1). There are strong arguments against the notion that teachers are classroom leaders, many of which contend that teacher leadership requires an out of class component, such as leadership of other teachers (Barth, 2001; Crowther, Hann, & Andrews, 2002; Gullatt, 1995; Harris & Muijs, 2002; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). While the researcher acknowledges in the literature review the existence of this counter opinion, greater emphasis has been placed on literature that supports the belief that teachers exercise leadership in the classroom organisation, so as to advance scholarly debate about teacher leadership. This ‘strategic choice’ also enables the researcher to explore the influence of teacher leadership on boys’ academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom. Nevertheless, the decision to largely ignore the possibility that classroom teaching is not really leadership does limit the study.

Limitations also surround the process used in the research to identify student participants, the number of participants in the study, and the assumption that teachers’ classroom leadership actually influences boys’ academic motivation. Clearly, the eight teachers would have selected students based on their various interpretations of the definition of academic motivation. It may have been the case, therefore, that some teachers selected students who were socially agreeable to their idea of teaching, or boys who exhibited high levels of achievement or, just as significantly, boys whose academic motivation was completely independent of teachers’ classroom leadership. The existence of these possibilities is a limitation of the study as, in some cases,

academic motivation seems unrelated to teacher leadership and, furthermore, where a relationship can be established, it is not possible to accurately categorise academic motivation as either intrinsic or extrinsic.

Similarly, the original list of forty-one students represents only 27.33% of the Year 8 cohort. An obvious question is, what is happening to the other 72.66% of students, who experience the same classroom leadership? While this question is addressed in more depth in the section on “Strengths, Weaknesses and Validity of the Framework” in Chapter 6, it is clear that the resulting framework, which is presented as a means of understanding and discussing the relationship between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom, does not extend to all Year 8 students at the case study school. Moreover, given that a few students make references in the survey questionnaire and key informant interviews to little, if any, link between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation, the framework is valid for only *some* of the Year 8 student participants.

As outlined in the sections on the student survey questionnaire and key informant interviews, the directed nature of the instruments further limits the study, particularly as they require students to respond to predetermined, fixed ideas. This course of action may have affected the outcome of the research. Finally, as with any qualitative research, the role of the researcher is a potential limitation. To this end, proper case study protocol was followed, particularly Burns’ (1994) recommendations. These include creating relevant questions, listening effectively, being flexible, clearly understanding what is being studied, and being open minded

when analysing data. A further limitation is the fact that case study methodology does not lend itself to drawing generalisations.

4.10 Design Summary

Table 4.2 Research design summary.

Timeline	Procedure	Source
June 2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus group interview 1 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Year 8 ‘core’ teaching team
July 2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus group interview 2 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Year 8 ‘core’ teaching team
August 2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Survey questionnaire 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nominated Year 8 students
August- September 2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Year 8 Key Informant interviews 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nominated Year 8 key informants
September- November 2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data analysis 	
December 2004- February 2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draft report • Review by focus group interviewees and key informants 	
February- April 2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Final report 	
May 2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Submit thesis 	

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school. Underpinning this purpose are the assumptions that the classroom is an organisation (Cheng, 1994), all teachers are leaders in the classroom, and that part of their leadership is to positively influence boys' academic motivation.

5.2 Research Design

The methodology adopted was case study. The chosen school was Christian Brothers College, Adelaide, which was researched in order to better understand the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom.

Data collection methods used were:

1. Two focus group interviews with eight Year 8 Home Room teachers.
2. A survey questionnaire to selected Year 8 students.
3. Five interviews with key Year 8 student informants.

The two focus group interviews were conducted with eight volunteers from a group of ten Year 8 Home Room teachers, who were specifically identified because of their close involvement with the Year 8 cohort, as each doubled as a Home Room and 'core' subject teacher. The two focus group interviews generated the Year 8 teachers'

understandings of the notion of teacher leadership in the classroom, and the manner in which teachers as leaders positively influence boys' academic motivation.

Furthermore, during the second focus group interview, teachers were invited to formulate a collective understanding of academic motivation and, with that in mind, to identify and rank the Year 8 students in their respective classes who seemed to demonstrate academic motivation. They were then invited to identify one student in each class, who seemed to possess the highest level of academic motivation. Through this process, forty-one students were selected to participate in the survey questionnaire. Five students in this group, namely the highest ranked students in each Year 8 Home Room, were also invited to be interviewed.

The survey questionnaire and key informant interviews were designed to generate the Year 8 students' experiences and understandings of the influence of teacher leadership on their academic motivation and, in turn, those aspects of teacher leadership that affect academic motivation. For convenience, the survey questionnaire was "group administered" (Lavery, 2003, p.105) to thirty-nine volunteers out of the forty-one Year 8 students, who were identified during the second focus group interview as demonstrating academic motivation. All thirty-nine students completed the survey questionnaire. Four of the five Year 8 students initially identified as key informants chose to participate in an interview. So that all five classes could be represented, in the case where a student elected not to be interviewed, the second ranked student in that particular class was invited to participate.

The data were analysed using a "general analytic strategy" (Yin, 1994, p.102), which adhered to the three theoretical propositions that led to the study, namely: the

classroom is a small organisation; all teachers are leaders in their respective classrooms; and teacher leaders are responsible, at least in some way, for positively influencing their students' academic motivation.

The findings are presented in four sections. The first is an analysis of teachers' perceptions and understandings of the concept of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom. In the second section, teachers' perceptions and understandings of the relationship between teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom and boys' academic motivation are analysed. The third outlines students' experiences and understandings of the influence of teacher leadership on their academic motivation and particular aspects of teacher leadership that contribute to the phenomenon. Finally, teachers' and students' perceptions are compared.

Table 5.1

Overview of the presentation of findings

Section One	5.3. Teachers' perceptions and understandings of the concept of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom
Section Two	5.4. Teachers' perceptions and understandings of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom
Section Three	5.5. Students' perceptions and understandings
Section Four	5.6. Comparison

Teachers' and students' perceptions are outlined through discussion of the five categories of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school, identified in the review of the literature in Chapter 3. The five categories are: service; authenticity, which includes spirituality and shared values; transformation, which

requires a shared vision; empowerment, based on trust; and community. Teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings were based on the evidence stored in the database. Specifically, Sections One and Two of this chapter report the teachers' perceptions and understandings as generated from the two focus group interviews, conducted with the eight members of the Year 8 teaching team. Section Three reports students' perceptions and understandings gathered from responses to the student survey questionnaire (39 students) and references made in the five Year 8 key student informant interviews. It should be noted that the survey questionnaire and key informant interview questions were quite directed, and were constructed on the assumption that there is an identifiable link between students' motivation and teachers' approaches to leadership. Each question focused the students on certain types of leadership behaviours and asked them to respond to them. This approach required the students to explore the link, if any, between their academic motivation and teachers' leadership. Section Four compares and contrasts the evidence collected from teachers and students.

5.3 Teachers' Perceptions and Understandings of the Concept of Teacher Leadership in the Year 8 Classroom

5.3.1 Service

The comments of the Year 8 teachers at Christian Brothers College indicated that service is an important aspect of classroom leadership. On one level, teachers "serve students by accommodating for their safety and well-being in the class" and by developing "different testing styles". As one teacher explained:

If you find a student isn't competent at writing or something, you might orally test them or you try and find ways in which they can be successful but still be assessed on the same content as the other members of the class.

Teachers also serve students on a more personal level, by constantly interpreting actions and behaviours so that students can learn to behave appropriately. This could be after a particular incident, when, according to another teacher respondent, students:

look to the teacher for their interpretation of the action. What the teacher says and how he or she reacts, are very much examples of whether the teacher is going to help them to understand how they could have behaved, and whether the teacher can help (the students) to understand what they might do in light of (their actions).

Ultimately, according to the respondent, teachers are serving students when they “help them to understand how they might behave in the future”.

Linked with this is the notion that teachers serve students by role modelling appropriate actions, responses and behaviours. “For example”, explained a respondent, “if a visitor comes to the classroom and students are unsure how to behave, then the teacher can actually provide a model for that behaviour”. Similarly, in some subjects teachers can serve students on a “technical level”. An English teacher cited, as an example, the fact that she is able to serve students “as an editor would serve a client who gives you a manuscript to work with”. While this is not a visible public role, teachers can, “one to one, serve the students by telling them how it could be done or how to argue and expand it”, either through “discussion or through marking a piece of work”.

However, although service is evident in many fields, one respondent noted that it is a very demanding component of teacher leadership in the classroom. Although leadership conjures up images of “strength and dominance and power,

where else would one have to put up with the constant questions, constant enquiries and model tolerant behaviour to all and not be dismissive of any one child for fear of favouring another?” In his opinion, while service is crucial to successful teacher leadership, “it is high demand”.

5.3.2 Authenticity, including spirituality and shared values

The teacher respondents claimed that teachers must always be authentic leaders. Teachers “need to do what they say and say what they do”, otherwise students “will see through” them. For two respondents, being authentic means being “honest”, “committed” and “consistent”, which are also qualities that students can learn from teachers. For instance, one teacher suggested that if he is able to meet his own enforced deadlines, then he could expect the same level of commitment and honesty from his students. Students “learn from us in that way and if we can’t get something to them by a certain deadline, they might not feel the need to do it themselves”. For the other, “consistency” makes it “so much easier for everyone; and being authentic means being consistent. You’ve got to follow things through; because that is (at) the core of the fulfilment and meaning that I get out of my teaching”. Nonetheless, as another respondent noted, there is “another side to it. The kids see us as leaders but they mightn’t know us personally. We might be authentic leaders, yet we are still actors in a way”. This does not mean that teachers are “fake or that we are phoney”, but that teachers “have to act in a certain way in front of a group of students”. Teachers are “authentic leaders”, but they “can’t play all (their) cards in front of a certain group of kids all the time”.

Several teachers reinforced the connection between authenticity and spirituality in classroom leadership, by emphasising that the same set of core values, such as “the way you treat people”, “honesty”, “caring for others” and having “respect for other people”, underpins these approaches. As one described, leadership is “not all one-way traffic”. Students “expect us to listen to them when they’ve got to do the same”. For another, “it is the little things”, like being “tolerant to people’s differences” and “making sure that if somebody needs a helping hand or whatever, they are able to do that without being told to do that”, that make the difference. Again, the importance of honesty was emphasised. Teachers must model honesty, particularly when, for children, “it is far too easy to lie if (they) want to get out of trouble”. That way, teachers can “expect (honesty) back from them”.

While teachers acknowledged that formal occasions, such as Year Level masses, presented opportunities to both explicitly model authentic or spiritual leadership and promote shared values, much of this belonged in “a hidden curriculum” and was done “circumstantially”. For instance, one noted that teachers clarify important values - and encourage students to share them - “as events take place”. Just that day, the teacher had spoken to the class “about how important it is to show courtesy to one another”. He explained to the class:

It is not just a value that should be shared from a student to teacher but rather just person to person, and that when we listen, we listen because we respect the person speaking, because at some time, we are going to want to speak and we are going to want others to listen too.

In this way, the teacher emphasised that values are not something that “we can turn on and off when we feel like it”. However, the teaching and sharing of values are “not prescribed”; rather, they “sort of happen circumstantially”.

Since teachers and students “share a lot of experiences together over a lot of days”, there are plenty of opportunities for teachers to address the “hidden curriculum”. A teacher respondent noted that one of these is when teachers communicate with students. Often, teachers find it necessary “to explain about the accepted behaviour”, such as being “courteous” to people. Another believed that when classes “read novels together and decipher experiences from those readings” and when classes “pray together” - which usually leads to “a lot of discussion”, teachers are promoting and sharing values. Nevertheless, “there are times when values are taught in a prescribed way”, particularly when teachers look at certain topics in Religion and when students and teachers attend mass together. One teacher respondent believed that “adults and young people worshipping together right across the school, provides students a good example” and helps teachers “to explain things to the children”. The same respondent noted, however, “there are times when you fall back on your own values in your explanations of what you expect - whether it is honesty or whether it is whether you chew during the Eucharist”. In such cases, the students “see your reaction”, and “that it means something to you”, and “they have to decide then for themselves if they agree”.

This comment fuelled discussion about the difficulties that teacher leaders face when they try to promote shared values amongst some students “who have got different values” from those of the teacher. One teacher respondent explained that

teachers “have got to be able to have that communication with the students so that you can actually respect each other as well”. Occasionally, this can be difficult when students “have a different system that they’ve been brought up in within their family structure” and the teacher is “displaying one type of value system in the classroom which could oppose something that they have in theirs”. In such a case, the teacher has “to not downgrade that or anything but accept it somehow”, perhaps by having a “discussion with the class” and saying, “well, that’s not appropriate here, but it could be appropriate in another situation”.

Teachers seemed to agree that creating “an environment where there can be open discussion about things” and taking time to focus on values are critical factors in promoting and sharing values in the classroom. However, as one noted, something has to be left out. Teachers

are so focused on getting through the content of what you’ve got to teach, when there is an opportunity to discuss values - because it can take time - are you going to try to brush it to one side or, where there is an opportunity for them to learn something in relation to values that may not tie in with what you are teaching, do you go with it and work with it?

Another felt that when “controversial things, like an act of terrorism or an act of tragedy to somebody that is known” occur, time needs to be taken to “share things” and to answer the students’ questions, so that the facts can be understood.

But, despite the initial urgings of some of the teacher respondents, who believed that teachers try to promote and share a set of “core values common to all

classes”, such as “listening” and “respect”, one felt that, rather than sharing values, teachers and students share “protocols”.

Our classrooms are pluralistic. (Students) come from different families, they have different values, so what we share is a protocol. We actually share an ideal that we maybe accept each other and so forth, or we don’t react in a way towards each other, but I don’t think I expect the boys in my class to have my values, nor do I expect to have their values.

The teacher continued by suggesting that he was not

too sure that our students have respect. I think the protocol is ‘listen to each other’. If you ask, why am I doing this? Is it because I respect you? I am not too sure that’s true. I think there might be some fear in there, that if I don’t listen, then I’m going to lose my lunchtime, and it is just the way things go in this class. I am not sure that a thirteen year old has a value system that says; I am going to listen because I respect this person. I don’t think that’s true. I think that would be learned. I think it is a protocol that we make rules for the classroom, but I am not too sure that’s because of values.

However, another teacher felt that making such rules is “the first step or one of the steps on the way to them (the students) taking it on board as something in their value system. But to what degree that might be happening is different for every student”. For two others, Year 8 is the stage where teachers try to instil in their students an understanding of appropriate behaviours and shared values. Initially, in the first six months of learning in Year 8, if I’m a 13 year old and I’m sitting together with five others, I’m learning survival and I’m learning coping skills,

and by the end of the year, we know each other quite well and I might become better at adopting those things.

As far as the other is concerned:

The real test to see whether they have actually taken something is when you look at Years 11 and 12. That's when you know whether or not they've actually picked up values because, by that stage, they are able to model to you what they have taken. They are no longer talking to you, or doing something, out of fear of getting into trouble.

The teacher respondents agreed that learning how to behave for a group of teachers is “hard for kids, especially when they come into a secondary school at Year 8. In a primary school they've had the same teacher for so many different things”, and now “they are having to learn to adjust to the expectations of so many different people all the time”. One noted that this is even the case within each Home Room, where the boys have two teachers: “I know there are behaviours that the boys display with me and there are different behaviours they display with (my co-class teacher). That's not coming out of values. That's coming out of fear”. Two others felt that, rather than “fear”, students adapted to different classroom expectations and, as such, were modifying their behaviour all of the time. One described it this way. A student says: “in this circumstance, with this person, if I behave in this way, this will be the outcome”. This, he noted, is adhering to class “protocols”.

Importantly, teachers acknowledged that they “are not totally responsible for the value systems of these kids. If they get to Year 11 or 12, they've still had their school but, outside, their environment and their families have got a big impact upon

the value system”, so “it might be irrelevant what we model at school”. One put it this way: “we can’t say; right, we’ve taught these kids these values, because how do we know that” it has not been “all the other extra things outside the school that have impacted upon them?” Nonetheless, all believed that they have an important role to play in promoting shared values. As the teacher group highlighted, teachers need to “guide” students, “give them opportunities”, “show them examples” and “role model”, in the hope that students will “modify behaviour” and, ultimately, “adopt a value that you know is important to them in their later life”.

5.3.3 Transformation towards a shared vision

Transformational leadership is part of teachers’ classroom leadership. On a simple level, one teacher respondent stated that Year 8 students “come to us at the beginning of the year and they leave us at the end of the year, and I hope there is some sort of change in those students over the 12 month period”. However, three others were more specific, suggesting that teachers have a clear idea of how they actually seek to transform students. Some of their aims are to help students become “the best they can be”, “useful members of society”, and “to be independent - not just in their learning but their everyday living”. Another wondered if, perhaps unintentionally, teachers “subconsciously” tried to make students “more like us”, in terms of “the values and protocols that we are trying to impart to them”.

One teacher respondent identified that it is very important to have a “goal” in mind when trying to transform students, “otherwise it is very haphazard how you go about the job in the classroom”. This goal is to attempt to “lead students towards the ethos of the school” and, more obviously, towards a vision of the classroom. Another

felt that teachers, by their very nature, have a goal in mind that is consistent with the school's ethos, but they do not "necessarily try to teach toward a vision". He continued:

I think we are employed by a school because they see that we have attributes that are in tune, or aligned with, what the school's vision is. So it may appear that we're doing that although sometimes it is what we do. But I think it is just, you know, nature - it is the way we are. It is why we are here, isn't it?

Another teacher had a similar view.

Although the school may have an ethos, you do, I suppose it depends on your own background too obviously, but you do tend to put your own form of Catholicism or values or whatever. You know you are sort of subconsciously imparting that. You may not always intend to do it, but someone said or we spoke about it before, that we have protocols or core values and ways of being and acting and behaving, and each of us does it slightly differently although essentially the same.

However, the teacher group was more in agreement about the need for teachers to have a vision of the classroom, and of what they were looking for. According to one, the vision is of "a group of young men who can work collaboratively with one another with all the various facets, like the way they communicate, not only in terms of learning but in terms of their interaction". For another, it is to "create harmony within the classroom". Most teachers agreed that they seek qualities, such as "respect, trust and honesty with each other". Similarly, they want the boys "to be confident and successful", to "be able to live within society,

and the school is part of society”, to “be responsible for their own actions”, and to make “good decisions”.

In order to transform students towards their aims or vision, two teacher respondents acknowledged the significance of “modelling behaviours” and “reinforcing” those behaviours “every time an opportunity arises”, by “being consistent across the board, not just with one student, but to make sure that you are consistent with all students”. Teachers need to “live it out”, “reiterate guidelines and provide opportunities for practice”. They also need to ensure that their vision of the classroom is a shared vision. As one put it, this can be achieved “through reinforcement, both positive and negative”. Another felt that the key is to choose “what is important very carefully”, and then to “make it important to the students”. For him, it is marks in Mathematics: “If test results are important to me, then I have to make tests results important to the students in some way. Otherwise, if test results are not important to students then my vision won’t be fulfilled”. For another teacher respondent, it is a “vision of harmony and calmness”. To achieve this, he noted, he has to “reinforce to them (the students) what the behaviour brings”.

Nonetheless, although it was noted that teachers sometimes “forget that we do have a big impact on the children”, a teacher respondent reiterated that teachers “are only a small part of change though, and the kids around them and hopefully their parents at home - especially the parents at home - should have a much bigger influence on the kids than what we would”. As a result, the teacher indicated that “support for other parties” is an aspect that the “role” of teacher “needs to encompass”.

5.3.4 Empowerment, based on trust

The teacher respondents, generally, believed that they do try to empower their students. They do so by “providing them (the students) with tools that allow them to become leaders, each in their own way” and, more specifically, by “delegating jobs in the classroom”, generating “group work”, and giving opportunities to the “SRC” and “other students who aren’t in that SRC role”. The benefits of empowerment are clear. Comments included: “it gives them responsibility”, “makes them, in effect, responsible members of society”, gives students some “breathing space” and “helps the class to function better”. Underpinning empowerment is, as one put it, a “relinquishing of your own power to allow a child to do something - (and) that takes trust, doesn’t it?” Another agreed:

You have to be willing to realise that it may not turn out the way you want it to, but then that’s all part of growing up and learning to take responsibility - making mistakes and realising that it is quite possibly going to happen. Trust.

A teacher respondent indicated that the current Year 8 “zoo excursion is a good example of” empowerment, based on trust.

You can let the kids know that we’re going to the zoo and give them the information they need. They are aware of what the task is - we reinforce the need for responsibility because we are in amongst a larger society and they are also representing the school as well as themselves - and so, having done that, we then say: well, here’s a time frame to complete a task. We trust you not to go off and to not only complete that task, but to behave in a manner that is appropriate.

Similarly, the Year 9 city week is an example of empowering and trusting students. “We expect that they are doing the right thing”, noted the teacher respondent, “and that they are on track, and we expect them to submit a report at the end of it to show us that they do that. Now, that involves a great deal of trust”.

Yet, one teacher demonstrated initial doubts. He asked: “can trust have consequences? I guess when we have given them (students) that opportunity, we are assuming that they’ll do it in an appropriate fashion, but that doesn’t necessarily mean trust”. Another tried to narrow down the point of conjecture by clarifying the meaning of trust: “So, what is trust? I suppose we are almost defining the word”. One teacher respondent defined trust this way: “trust is where you are not holding them (the students) by the hand and being there to watch their every word and reaction”. So, according to another, giving students opportunities to behave appropriately - or empowering students - is showing them trust. In his mind, “what is it if it is not trust?” Three teachers tried to sum up the link between trust and consequences in this way: “we trust them to do the right thing”, but we give students “the opportunity whether they succeed or whether they don’t succeed”. “Just because” there is a “consequence that they don’t do the right thing doesn’t mean it is not trust. In fact, that’s why there is a consequence in the first place”.

Nonetheless, a teacher respondent questioned whether he fully trusted his students, “because whenever I set a task I have so many structures” and “scaffolds” for the students “to fall back on”, so “that they can’t go wrong in any way, and if they do, then it doesn’t come back to ‘haunt’ me”. However, others felt that this was a necessary part of empowerment and trust for young people, because it puts the boys

“in a position where they think they have been empowered” and, if a teacher were not “putting trust in them to go out and do that activity”, then he or she “wouldn’t let them do that activity”. As one teacher noted, “the vast majority do the right thing: those scaffolds are in place for the ones who don’t do the right thing”.

It was recognised, however, that while there are some students that teachers “don’t trust” to achieve certain tasks on their own, “you know they have to go and do it”. For one teacher:

That’s when we put them into groups. The ones that you don’t want to let go - the ones that you seriously can’t trust - you’d normally pair them up with someone that you’ve got complete faith in, because you know that they’re going to do the right thing and they can model that.

The same thing happens, according to another, “even with the groups that we put in class”. Teachers take “a couple of really good kids that they can rely on” and put them in a group “with one or two that you know are easily going to be off task or misled”. In a sense, this is empowering the trustworthy students to have some influence on their peers. “You are kind of hoping that they are going to mould and they are going to guide him, or that particular person, in the right direction”. So, at least for this particular teacher, teachers place trust in all students; “it is just a matter of how much”.

One teacher respondent noted that, despite the fact that the word “trustworthy” is rarely used today, “the kids have a fair understanding of who is working and who is not, and they do appreciate it when they are considered to be in a trustworthy group”. Many students “will comment on those instances, where they feel recognised as

responsible”. It “makes them feel trusted and it is a highlight for them and really valued by them”. On such occasions, students “don’t betray that trust”.

5.3.5 Community

Several teachers emphasised the communal or collaborative aspect of leadership in the classroom, by referring both to the support they receive from their colleagues and to their own efforts to “broaden” the leadership base in the classroom. As one put it, the support and guidance from colleagues makes the work of classroom leadership much easier.

I think it is knowing that you have a group of coordinated people above you supporting you. It always makes it very difficult for you in the classroom if you haven’t got support around you and feel you are doing it yourself.

Year 8 teachers do a variety of things to strengthen the communal aspect of their classroom leadership, especially identifying and rostering monitors for the daily activities and conducting class meetings. For one, the important thing is “rotating your responsibilities: we’ve mentioned using SRCs and changing them throughout the year. That would be broadening your base and style of leadership”. For another, it is “peer support; the Year 12s supporting the Year 8s”. For a third teacher, communal leadership is evident during the Year 8 transition programme, “where we’ve got our current Year 8s ‘buddying’ (*sic*) the Year 7s and taking responsibility for showing them around the school and, if I can use the word ‘trust’, trusting that they do the right thing and share the right information and not be so negative. We are not with the kids when they do that”.

5.4 Teachers' Perceptions and Understandings of the Relationship between Teacher Leadership and Boys' Academic Motivation in the Year 8 Classroom

5.4.1 Service and boys' academic motivation

The year 8 teachers indicated that service incorporates several aspects, namely teachers' own motivation, enthusiasm and inspiration, as well as the notion of modelling. Furthermore, the teacher respondents clearly identified a link between teachers' and students' motivation, even when students are, already, intrinsically academically motivated. Similarly, teachers noted that their own levels of enthusiasm and ability to inspire affected their students' academic motivation. One testified:

(There is) no doubt about it. If you're motivated about something when you are talking about those kids who are intrinsically motivated - well, OK, they are going to tend to be motivated all the time - but even they can be inspired and encouraged to give more than what they may just want to give off their own bat if the teacher is making what they are learning interesting, creative and challenging. The enthusiasm is infectious and I know in myself that when I teach I know when that moment is reached, I can feel it, and you can see it in the quality of the work that you get back from them.

Another seconded this.

Yes, the kids sense the passion. If you give something or deliver something with a passion, they'll see that it means a lot to you, and these kinds of (intrinsically academically motivated) kids will be the ones that give you something in return (and) really take it to heart and want to take on board whatever it is that you are giving.

For one teacher respondent, "if students" find a teacher inspirational, "they'll find a way to make sure they do the task, no matter how big". Another believed that:

A measure of how much you've inspired, too, is when you see certain kids in the class who will just give of their best simply because you know they don't expect something at the end of it. Then you know you've inspired them because they just want to try.

According to him, if teachers can inspire their students, they can positively influence the students' academic motivation.

I think most people would agree that when you feel inspired it is right up there with the best times that you can recollect, and I think they (the students) just want to be part of that and they want to feel like that as much as they possibly can.

A third teacher respondent believed that the resultant feeling is one of "well being". The classroom has a very "positive feeling" that generates a willingness to learn. Nonetheless, noted another, it is important, first, "to have a very good knowledge of the subject". Then, "the rest will follow".

If teachers 'model what they want', they give students "an example so that they know" what to expect. A teacher respondent described modelling this way.

If you have got consistency and say, well, this is what I need to see, you are putting a structure around them (the students) and you are going through it with them, so that they have got an understanding of what you are going to be looking at.

For two others, it is clearly outlining and explaining expectations. "If you actually put it on the board", noted the first, "and go through it and say, right, well these are the things that we expect", then students can understand what is being asked of them. For the second, modelling is "reflected in the way you do it - like the degree to which you

prepare or organise a task. Big kids learn through the way we deliver things as well”. Because students can identify the work requirements, “they can see what you are asking them to do”. Ultimately, this can only have a positive influence on boys’ academic motivation.

5.4.2 Authenticity, including spirituality and shared values, and boys’ academic motivation

Teacher respondents, generally, noted that several relational qualities, such as respect, tolerance and justice, together with teachers’ ability to manage behaviour in the classroom, epitomised both teacher leaders’ desires to practice authentic or spiritual classroom leadership - underpinned by core values - and their attempts to positively influence boys’ academic motivation.

For one teacher, in particular, “respect is one of the core values” that teachers want students “to take on board”. To help students to achieve this, teachers can simply “stop what they are doing” and take time to listen. Another continued:

We expect that, when we speak, a student will stop and listen. They might not actually register that, but I think that when students come to me because they need some help with something, it is helpful to stop what you are doing.

Many teacher respondents contended that when teachers are respectful to students, it gives them “positive reinforcement because” they “have been spoken to as a person”. As one described it, “being valued as a person” may have a positive influence on a boy’s academic motivation.

Teachers show tolerance to students by “taking an interest” in them, both in terms of their academic progress and their social well-being. The teacher group

offered the following examples of what being ‘tolerant’ encompasses. “We listen to them. Laugh at them and with them”; we “give them chances”; we have “different expectations”; we “negotiate”; “we don’t always say what we think”; and we “give them the benefit of the doubt”. These approaches, in turn, have a positive influence on boys’ academic motivation. They give students “a chance of success” and “allow them to make mistakes in safety” because “they don’t feel threatened by failure”. Ultimately, the teacher group noted, being tolerant of students “keeps alive” the students’ “hopes that you might believe” in them. Furthermore, teachers must also develop a “shared value of justice”. Being “just”, according to one of the participants, is a crucial aspect of authentic behaviour. Students need to see that teachers are fair, reasonable and consistent. If a teacher treats “every student justly”, then students will want to work for that teacher.

Teacher respondents noted that “by dangling the right carrots”, teachers can manage behaviour in the classroom so as to positively influence boys’ academic motivation.

They (the students) love to see good examples. If I take some really impressive work in, it doesn’t matter if it is Year 12 work or Year 8 work, and their eyes nearly fall out; they love it - it inspires them! They love to perform, I think.

Boys love performing: they love a stage.

For two respondents, managing behaviour is all about “boundaries”, “firm boundaries”, and about helping boys to develop personal responsibility for their actions. When “managing behaviour”, the first respondent explained, the teacher is providing people with a choice and that there is a consequence, so it becomes their responsibility to manage their own behaviour. If you do the right thing,

this will happen, but if you do the wrong thing, this will happen and you follow through. I think that following through is very important. You are setting up your guidelines, setting up your structure.

For the second,

often a chat in a one on one situation can help. You might have had to discipline the kid and it might have been in a big group situation, but if you follow it up with a one on one chat, you are telling that kid that it really matters to you and that they matter to you by taking up your time to speak to them.

As far as another teacher is concerned, students

expect you to manage the classroom. I think if something goes wrong, you don't find many kids who expect you to overlook it. They actually expect you to do something about it as the teacher and they know that if you do, then they can go on and do what they are there to do, which is to work and learn.

5.4.3 Transformation towards a shared vision and boys' academic motivation

Teacher respondents noted that transformational leadership towards a shared vision incorporates certain relational and task specific aspects. These are: an ability to look forward and to be competent; making work challenging; developing intrinsic interest and applying extrinsic methods; and incorporating learning and doing and learning and feeling. When teachers are able to include these as part of the transformational leadership approach, they can positively influence boys' academic motivation.

Teachers believe that students expect them to be forward looking. One described it this way: "The kids expect you to look ahead, and plan ahead, and know

what they are going to do. I know in our class, they expect me to be a step ahead of them". For some of the teacher respondents, when a teacher is able to look forward, it does positively influence boys' academic motivation, at least "to some extent". "For example", explained one:

I had a student just last week asking me whether or not we'd be making models for this particular unit because he was already planning ahead ready to start making a model, even though nothing had been said in class.

The notion of "there being a plan" is the critical component, according to another.

I think they (the students) also feel that if they have a sense of there being a plan, then what they are learning has more meaning and is more valuable. If there is no way of seeing a real plan or whatever, it is just another excuse for them to not try, because: 'why are we learning this?' 'What relevance does this have?' And 'when am I going to use it?' are questions they ask.

However, another teacher was unsure "whether students realise that we have a plan or not", although he did note that "planning makes us look competent and students want to be led by competent teachers". As for the other teacher respondents, the following comments were offered to describe competent teachers: "planning"; "organised"; the ability "to create the right environment. If the kids are running riot, you could be the best planner in the world, but nothing's going to happen"; and you have to be consistent: they can't cope if you say one thing and then it doesn't happen". For one respondent, competency is based on giving students "signs in advance of what's happening. I use the diary method and also the whiteboard - we've got Maths for the week on the board. I have the lessons for a week in the diary and that's full".

The above remarks indicated that the teachers tied together competency and being able to look ahead. Moreover, they also noted the relationship between competency and boys' academic motivation. Students

know where they are going and where they need to be before they need to be, or they've passed up their work before they need to. So it is a cue for them to organise themselves and to perform at whatever level they want, or to try something different, or to give them a chance to plan ahead.

Nevertheless, a teacher respondent mentioned that boys, too, still "need to be challenged". She continued:

I've got a really outstanding English student in my class this year, the best I've had for fifteen years, and constantly I think: what can I do to really make him work because he is so far above everybody else? If I don't do it, he just sits there cruising and that worries me, because I can imagine what he could be like if he was challenged.

When asked what they do in the classroom to develop intrinsic interest in a topic, the teacher group identified three key elements. They "try to find common ground", "listen to what the kids are talking about", and endeavour to "make work relevant". One noted that she likes also to spend time talking to "younger teachers, because they are closer now to the kids". This enables her to work with somebody else, in order to "come up with something quite different from what we would have done separately". Developing intrinsic interest is important because it helps teachers to "get to know the students" and what they "value". This makes learning appear relevant to students. In turn, students notice that teachers have made an effort to

“know where their interests lie” and show their appreciation by trying. Thus, there is a positive influence on boys’ academic motivation.

Several teachers noted that they also use a variety of extrinsic methods to positively influence boys’ academic motivation. The most common are “rewards: stickers and stamps”, which are integral components of the Secondary Middle School positive behaviour management policy. Two members of the teacher group used class-seating arrangements as a reward for good work and behaviour. One of these allows students to choose where they would like to sit, as a “reward for what they had established in the” previous “term”. The other allows “kids, when they (have) demonstrated that they can be trusted, to move” seats. Finally, a teacher commented that putting work on the notice board is an excellent reward for boys, because they “love seeing their own work on display” and it makes them feel “confident about themselves”. Overall, the teacher respondents commented that such rewards give students “a sense of pride” that “what they do is valued”.

The teachers, generally, acknowledged that they regularly attempt to incorporate learning and doing in the Year 8 classrooms. Just that morning, one had given the class an exercise in which they had to make

a story by cutting up newspapers. We had pictures and words and they had to layout a story with pictures and words on the desk. They were the most revolting stories that you could wish to see - all about theft or Martians and creatures - but they were physically ‘doing’. They were working out how you tell a story in sequence with pictures, and finding words from the death columns

and the car pages. Normally, I just ask them to write a story, so this was a good example of getting them to actually do a creative story.

Another uses “Bloom’s taxonomy and other strategies like that, where the communication of what they (students) understand occurs on various different levels”, to combine learning and doing.

Each student has a strength in terms of the way they are able to communicate understanding. If you tend to give them tasks where they only have one way of communicating, then you are only going to switch on a small percentage of the class, whereas if you try and make your tasks - or allow your tasks and what they understand and learn to be communicated in a variety of ways – (you) definitely motivate them to learn.

A teacher respondent believed that a recent Science project, a web-quest designed to teach students how to identify a mystery powder, had a significant effect on some boys’ academic motivation. According to him, “it seems to switch a greater number of kids on”, but “whether that is because it is just something different to what they normally do, or whether that is because they actually believe that by doing it in a manner that we did it they are going to learn more” is unclear.

However, another noted that ‘learning by doing’ has a positive influence on some boys’ academic motivation, but not all. “We noticed in the Maths project”, he explained, that some students

enjoy going out and doing activities outside the room rather than working with textbooks. I have also found that some of the brighter guys don’t like going out and doing it. They are more comfortable sitting inside and working with

textbooks. So we are probably enthusing some of the less bright ones and the brighter ones tend to be, well, concerned by it; I suppose with something different.

While one teacher offered a simple explanation for this: “Like we were saying before, each student has their (*sic*) own strength and what might turn some on will switch others off”, another felt that the key in any activity is to “advance a student’s prior knowledge”. When this occurs, all students, regardless of ability, want to learn by doing.

If you start a topic and only a quarter of the students know what you are talking about, you have lost three quarters already; the motivation is gone. So you start a topic at a level where they can physically find out their own data, so that then you can go on, and you have got everyone on the same level. The prior knowledge is very important. You learn better in the classroom because the students understand what you are talking about. (As for) brighter students not wanting to go outside, that is because they are already with you as far as prior knowledge is concerned. If you started to talk about things that are beyond their knowledge and you got them to do physical activities to get to that prior knowledge, then they would want to be out there.

The teacher respondents believed that, in some instances, they also seek to incorporate learning and feeling. One does this by “running through scenarios with the kids” and asking them: “what do you do when you are in this situation?” By doing this:

You are giving the students the opportunity to have a collection of responses that they might call upon if they were put in that position. That might be getting

into a car with a driver that has been drinking or situations that are common to adolescents. You are discussing how (students) feel, how you are going to get out of it, what are you going to do?

Because this is relevant to students, it has a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. Similarly, another noted that the Family Life Education (FLE) programme addresses students' emotional intelligence, such as "the decision making process, relating to marijuana, or cigarettes, or situations where there may be some sort of sexual relationship, or along those lines", which helps their learning. In the opinion of a third respondent, education is "about who(*sic*) the whole person is; his feelings and all those other things that we discuss". Students' feelings are an important link to learning.

An English teacher felt that her subject enabled her to incorporate learning and feeling because "the things we are looking at require it". But, according to another teacher, "if you have a student in the class who suffers from an emotional disturbance, there is some need to discuss that, sometimes with the student concerned out of the class, other times" with the rest of the class. So, for this particular respondent, it is important that both the student concerned - and his classmates - learn together, which, ultimately, will have a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. "There has to be an increase in understanding about why that behaviour happened, what they saw happen and what the triggers were for it. So they don't humiliate the person, you act it out in that way". This allows the class "to see it as part of" a student's

behaviour, not necessarily a good part - it might be the exact opposite to that - but to come to accept it as a possibility when they are in the company of that

boy, and they learn how to behave accordingly to minimise (the danger and damage).

5.4.4 Empowerment, based on trust, and boys' academic motivation

The teacher group noted that empowerment is underpinned by trust. They also drew attention to three strategies that are intertwined with the practice of empowerment, based on trust, in the classroom. These include: honesty, an ability to negotiate with students, and the adoption of a constructivist approach to curriculum. Moreover, it is the practice of these three aspects of teacher leadership, which enables teachers to positively influence boys' academic motivation.

By being honest, teachers can have a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. One teacher respondent explained that: "Most people want to do better and to impress. If you can't honestly discuss why they got a 'C' and not an 'A', then you are not probably helping the student to be where he wants to go". Similarly, echoing the sentiments of another, who stated that "honesty and fairness go hand in hand", a third respondent mentioned that teachers who deal honestly with students will get the best out of them.

We spoke before about setting clear boundaries, and even though sometimes a student knows (a teacher) is going to react in a certain way and they may not necessarily like that, I think they value the fact that there will be this level of consistency in the way that you will respond to that situation.

Year 8 teachers also regularly negotiate with students and, because it gives them some control over what, when and how they are learning, the approach has a

positive influence on boys' academic motivation. Teachers, generally, negotiate "timelines" and "consequences", "re-weight things to (suit) a certain individual", and give students "a chance to do things again". Students appreciate these opportunities. One teacher respondent successfully negotiates "homework", which relieves pressure from some students. You can "often negotiate or renegotiate, particularly when you realise that one night our kids might have four subjects - and they try and do it in one night - not knowing they don't have to and we renegotiate dates". "Parents", too, "help us in that situation". Ultimately, every one benefits.

According to several teacher respondents, it is extremely important that Year 8 teachers adopt a constructivist approach to the curriculum, because, as one described, students "construct their own learning" in "different ways". A constructivist approach "is not about teaching from the book, but rather it is about students assimilating data and constructing it in a way which they can then reuse the ideals of the data". Therefore, according to another, teachers "need to provide for lots of ways of learning at different levels". The "constructivist educator" needs "to trust a little bit more. And then you have got to be able to let them use that information. And that includes learning from each other; some people learn socially". This approach, in turn, "provides a chance for creativity" and enables students "to feel that there is something that they can achieve". "You can actually see the change in their reaction", explained a teacher respondent, when teachers "negotiate the curriculum" to suit particular students' needs. There is certainly a positive change in their academic motivation. In fact, he testified, "some kids are really in their element".

5.4.5 Community and boys' academic motivation

Various aspects were viewed as inextricably linked with the notion of communal leadership, namely being communicative, caring, friendly and collaborative, and being able to create a good learning environment and a smooth transition into high school. Moreover, it was noted, the practice of these aspects as part of teachers' communal leadership helps teachers positively influence boys' academic motivation.

Teacher respondents identified a relationship between communication and academic motivation. As one saw it, to "get the best out of boys", teachers should "tell them straight and make it clear". Similarly, another noted the importance of communicating "by your actions and" including "consequences as well". Again, planning is important, so there should be "discussions beforehand" and "planning with them ahead of time". One respondent explained that "effective communication" greatly contributes to teachers' chances of getting students to complete tasks.

You often find when students don't complete a task the way that you thought it would be done, (when) you actually stand back and look at how you delivered that work, whether that be in written or oral form, you can always trace back to the fact that it has got something to do with the way they were asked to do the task.

A teacher respondent noted that students "expect" teachers "to care". She contended that students sometimes even "indicate, by the look on their faces, that they think I should be more caring than I am". Students seem to expect "instant action". Nonetheless, another claimed that if teachers care for students, or "take an interest in

them outside the classroom”, it is well received by both “girls and boys” and, ultimately, positively influences academic motivation.

Although the teacher group can see the benefits of being ‘friendly’ to students, respondents can also see the complexities and potential pitfalls involved in the relationships between students and teachers. One suggested that “the teacher can be disarmed by students trying to be friendly”, because “the whole operation of friendliness is really not an easy thing to work out mutually”. One problem, as another put it, is that “the boys don’t know what the friendly version of you is”, particularly during Term 1 of high school.

If they are frightened or they think we are frightening, they won’t approach you. They go home and tell Mum and Dad what is upsetting them or worrying them, and then we will get a phone call, and once that communication starts, then they start to see what is the friendly version. But that is not an automatically disappearing fear.

Teachers need to be “approachable”; a point emphasised by at least two teacher respondents. Friendliness means being “friendly in a purely human way, not because you want to be liked by them, but just because you want them to see a human face, and that you have feelings and that you are no different to them”. Nonetheless, one also noted that there are “many different levels” of being ‘friendly’.

It is saying ‘hello’ in the yard. It is taking an interest in them. It is being here early, or staying here late, because they want you to help them and you are willing to offer it. It is not just about being nice.

These things may have a positive influence on boys’ academic motivation.

Several teacher respondents indicated that staff collaboration, particularly in the form of team teaching, has a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. One explained: "team teaching" works well, "because it is great for the kids to experience a different way of information being brought across to them" and "a variety of styles". Another noted that, "since kids learn differently, one person may deliver and another can help to motivate a greater cross-section of kids". Significantly, it was suggested that "some of" a student's "motivation and encouragement comes from adults in the room, so it doesn't matter who they are; it is your availability" that is the positive motivational influence.

It is beneficial, too, for teachers to empower students, by giving them roles to fulfil in the classroom. This is particularly the case for boys who are not able to "attain through their academics". These boys seek "opportunities to do things because it provides them with an opportunity to get positive reinforcement". This can also help to "motivate them more in their academics".

Teachers are responsible for creating a good learning environment for students, on a variety of levels. A good learning environment is, according to the teacher respondents, "safe", "colourful", and "alive". There has to be "enough room physically, where there is actually space for their bodies". Similarly, there needs to be "switching off time in a working classroom". One explained: "I like it after Phys Ed because they have chilled down and we all just read and it is perfect. Other times we like to be moving around and we like to be talking". "Block time", noted another, gives the "flexibility (that) creates a good classroom". Teachers can say: "OK, I will lose twenty minutes on Religion here today, but I can always make up for that in

another lesson and take a bit of time back”. Furthermore, students must be given “a sense of ownership” of the classroom, and teachers should provide opportunities for students to “celebrate their work”. There should be “working noise”, and teachers and students together need to “value every member of the class, so that the person feels important and part of an educational team themselves”. By building the notion of “an educational team”, teachers are simultaneously developing community and positively influencing boys’ academic motivation.

Finally, teacher respondents acknowledged the importance of creating a smooth transition into high school, so as to positively influence academic motivation. To support the transition, teachers help students to quickly adjust to their new environment. For one, the key is to teach “kids to organise themselves: how to get from A to B in week one. Not just once a day, eight times a day”. For another, it is “the simple things that you might not think of”. He continued:

Knowing where to go and when and what time to go there is really important to boys. They need structure and they want to know; they need to know where things are and so even just a tour around the school (is valuable. New Year 8 students need) opportunities to get to know each other. They need to feel that they can ask for help and that they know what is happening.

A teacher respondent summarised the difficulties that boys face during transition.

I often think that kids find it harder to adapt to moving from primary to secondary school. They come from primary school where they have one teacher for quite a significant amount of their day to then having as many as four or five

particular teachers in one day, and what they find the hardest to deal with is the expectations of different teachers. I find myself explaining in a fair bit of detail, how it is that you need to adapt to the expectations of different teachers, so that when it happens it is not a big shock. I tell them that some teachers are going to have very stringent guidelines and ways of doing things, and then they are going to have teachers a lot more laid back and jovial. (It is) moving from that teacher's room into the teacher who has got more definite guidelines that they need to adapt quickly. Because that is where they get into trouble.

Nonetheless, another teacher respondent indicated that students are ready for high school and for new teachers. In her opinion, "they love the variety. They love it".

The 'secret' is to support Year 8 students through the

adjustment phase. Once they feel familiar and more comfortable with being able to get around, I notice that there is an increase in their motivation just through the sheer fact that they are becoming more familiar with their surroundings and the teacher. They know the routine; they know what to expect.

However, two teacher respondents noted that Year 8 teachers also have a role in helping students to maintain their motivation after the period of transition, when the novelty of high school has worn off. One stated:

When kids get into the school, they are highly motivated because it is new, it is different, and I think once they have settled into the environment, then you get kids who drop off with their motivation. So I think that is an area or a part that we need to address. Why are we losing some of those kids after they start having really good and high motivation?

A third respondent attempted to answer this question. In his opinion, when students “start to fail, that is when they lose their motivation”. The solution, quipped another, is to “teach them (the students) how to not push the wrong buttons and they play!”

5.5 Students’ Perceptions and Understandings of the Relationship between Teacher Leadership and Boys’ Academic Motivation in the Year 8 Classroom

5.5.1 Service and boys’ academic motivation

When asked about servant leadership, the five Year 8 key student informants identified a series of behaviours. In his interview, Matthew described teachers’ servant leadership this way: “They give up their time to show us what to do”. For Mark, service is “making the work easier, explaining it a lot more”. John explained service in a little more detail. Teachers are “supportive of anything that’s gone wrong or right”. They are “encouraging” and help with writing by modelling what they want. According to Luke, teachers model this by saying: “This is what I want you to do. I want you to write your beginning, your middle part and your ending, and in each section, I want you to do this”. In this way, in Luke’s opinion, teachers “basically model what to do”, and the students “just follow that”. This process is particularly helpful for John because, even though teachers “don’t give away the answers, they really help you to understand what you are doing”. Andrew noted that, while modelling - both in terms of teachers’ own enthusiasm and motivation and their explanations of how to do work - is part of servant leadership, ultimately, servant leaders seek also to develop service within their followers. Teachers, “especially in a Catholic school”, are servant leaders. “They want you to become a Christian, to help out more, to give more”. Four of the five boys noted in the interviews that service positively influences their academic motivation. For Andrew, “it is positive. It is a little bit (of) encouragement”. For Matthew and John, it is an emphatic “yes”. Luke

finds service helpful, because it enables him to understand what he has to do in the classroom: if I know “what I’m doing, it makes it more enjoyable than if I am just stuck there and don’t know what I’m doing”. However, Mark did not see the influence of teachers’ servant leadership as significant. He just works anyway.

In the interviews and the written comments that complemented the survey questionnaire, the students reinforced the notion that service in the classroom is evidenced by various behaviours, attributes and actions of teachers. These are: “putting a lot of time and effort in to help” students; “making things easier”; “being interested”; “explaining the benefits of learning”; “giving (students) a boost”; “devoting themselves”; “paying attention”; and “helping” when there is a problem. Many Year 8 students identified in both the survey questionnaire and the interviews a clear relationship between their own levels of motivation and enthusiasm and those of their teachers. Furthermore, many students’ responses highlighted the positive influence of inspiration and successful role modelling, by and from teachers, on their academic motivation. However, some students saw no correlation between teachers and their own levels of academic motivation. Some comments from these students were: teachers “don’t interest me at all”; “my teachers’ work ethic does not affect me”; “my teacher doesn’t inspire me”; “they could be more interested”; and “they don’t seem motivated”. Thirty-nine Year 8 students completed the survey questionnaire. Five of these students also participated in the interviews.

The section of the survey questionnaire on ‘service’ provided students with five statements to be graded from 1 (does not describe at all) through to 7 (strongly describes), in terms of how accurately they described their willingness to learn. Three

statements obtained a mean above 5.10: “my teachers inspire me to want to learn” (5.26); “when my teachers model what they want, or show me what to do, I want to learn” (5.23); and “I want to learn because I appreciate the work my teachers put in to preparing classes and assignments” (5.13). The statement, “my teachers inspire me to want to learn” also recorded a mode of 7 (strongly describes). The statements “when my teachers model what they want from me, or show me what to do, I want to learn”, “I want to learn because my teachers are interested and motivated”, and “I want to learn because my teachers are enthusiastic about the work we do”, recorded a mode of 6 (describes). All of the statements recorded a mean above 4.82, indicating that the students believed there was a strong correlation between these aspects of teacher leadership and their academic motivation. Table 5.2 presents a statistical summary for each statement within the ‘service’ section of the student survey questionnaire, including mode, mean and standard deviation.

Table 5.2

Service and boys' academic motivation

Statement	Mode %	Mean	Standard Deviation
• I want to learn because I appreciate the work my teachers put in to preparing classes and assignments	Describes to some extent 25.64	5.13	1.64
• I want to learn because my teachers are interested and motivated	Describes 30.77	4.85	1.65
• I want to learn because my teachers are enthusiastic about the work we do	Describes 30.77	4.82	1.72
• My teachers inspire me to want to learn	Strongly describes 33.33	5.26	1.70
• When my teachers model what they want, or show me what to do, I want to learn	Describes 35.91	5.23	1.21

Note N = 39

Mode 1: Does not describe at all 2: does not describe 3: Does not describe to some extent 4: Uncertain 5: Describes to some extent 6: Describes 7: Strongly describes

The student interviews and survey questionnaire responses, on the whole, indicated that teachers' interest, enthusiasm and motivation have a significant influence on boys' academic motivation. According to Matthew, "if teachers are motivated it influences you to be motivated as well. You know that you are going to get something good out of it". Mark felt that "most" of his teachers are motivated. The impact of this motivation on him is that it "just makes (him) more interested". Luke noted that teachers' interest, enthusiasm and motivation "encouraged him to learn". Andrew and John were adamant that their teachers are interested, enthusiastic and motivated. "Yes, definitely", said Andrew. The Year 8 teachers seem to "like to be around kids and want to teach kids. When they like children more, they tend to get on with them more". This makes him "motivated to do something". When asked

why, Andrew explained that it “is just a feeling. If they (teachers) feel good about something, you know it is going to be something pretty good. If they’re a bit down about it, you don’t get a really good feeling about what’s coming up”. John can tell that his teachers are interested, enthusiastic and motivated, “because they care about the class and what’s around. One of the teachers sets up the classroom and puts it to what we’re doing for the term. If we’re doing Harry Potter, she’ll decorate it like” that. “Now the Olympics are on, she has got things for the Olympics and setting us Olympic work for the week, so she’s been enthusiastic about wanting to teach us about it”. When asked if this had a positive influence on his academic motivation, John said: “Yes. It makes you feel happier that they do care and that they take an interest in what you want to do”.

Participants’ responses to the survey questionnaire generally revealed the strong influence of inspirational teachers on their academic motivation. Three of the students interviewed also referred to at least one teacher whom they considered inspirational and, as such, someone who positively influenced their academic motivation.

Andrew acknowledged the “good example” set by his teachers. “There’s inspiration if you want to become something. A good example is what they (teachers) have done in their childhood years, and what they’ve come to: a teacher. That’s important”. This example has reinforced to Andrew to never give up. “I really want to become a pilot and I know it (requires) a lot of perseverance. You can’t give up and they (teachers) have taught me that”. John finds one teacher, in particular, inspirational, because “she is always happy and she’s always supportive of whatever

we're doing and will always talk to you, no matter what". Her "being like that, helps (him) get good grades and want to do the work, because (he) knows that she is being happy". John mentioned that he finds a particular teacher inspirational because he makes learning "enjoyable, but informative", through the use of "pictures". Referring principally to Astronomy, John explained that the use of pictures dramatically changed his impression of the topic.

I had no idea what Jupiter looked like, (but) the way he (the teacher) taught it made it easy to learn and easy to recognise. I used to think Astronomy was very dull and boring, but once I had that sort of information on the stars and planets, I am really interested now.

Nonetheless, both Mark and Matthew indicated that they do not consider teachers inspirational. When asked why, Matthew said he was not sure. Mark noted that inspiration was fairly uninfluential, as his academic motivation "is pretty good already".

Overall, responses to the survey questionnaire and the five key informant interviews indicated that 'modelling' what they wanted from students helped teachers positively influence boys' academic motivation. Comments in the survey questionnaire included: "it helps me to know what teachers are looking for"; "it makes it easier"; "teachers set out work well and explain it simply"; "I enjoy acquiring new knowledge"; "it makes work clearer, not necessarily interesting"; and "it makes me scared that I'm going to fail, so I try harder".

Luke noted in his interview, that modelling from teachers amounted to them explaining (work) in a way that you cannot forget it. Instead of just making us copy questions from a book and using examples from the book, he (the teacher) will actually go through the question and thoroughly explain it, so we know it off by heart.

This “knowledge” makes learning easier which, in turn, positively influences academic motivation. John saw modelling from teachers as “really good for students”. It means that students “know what the teacher wants and expects from them, and it makes it good”. Mark and Andrew agreed that modelling makes work expectations clearer, which is helpful both to them and to their willingness to learn. Matthew indicated that teachers modelling what they wanted also extended to behavioural expectations. “It is always well elaborated on what is expected from you, like what is bad behaviour and what’s good behaviour”. Students are “rewarded or punished depending on what you do”. When asked whether this has a positive influence on his academic motivation, Matthew said: “yes, because you always know what you are doing. It makes it easier to learn and you can get on with your work without worrying about what you’re supposed to be doing”.

5.5.2 Authenticity, including spirituality and shared values, and boys’ academic motivation

The interviewees supported the notion that authenticity, including spirituality and shared values, is an aspect of teacher leadership in the classroom. The students described authentic behaviour as ensuring that actions support words. All five acknowledged that the teachers at Christian Brothers College, on the whole, ‘do what they say and say what they do’, at least to some extent. John expressed it this way: “our teachers tell us we’re going to do this next week and we’re going to do that, and

it happens”. Mark agreed: “when he (the teacher) says the work must be done, it must be done”. Matthew noted that authenticity also relates to the manner in which teachers deal with behaviour management issues. “If you are told that you will get punished for bad behaviour, you get punished. If you are told you will be rewarded, then you get rewarded for it”. While Andrew “has noticed” authentic behaviour from his teachers, “sometimes if they tell you they’re going to do something, it may be a while down the track”. For example, if “they said they were going to give us a reward, we know it is just a reward, but you tend to wait a long time. You know you have to learn to be patient”. Luke claimed that teachers are authentic leaders “most of the time. Sometimes they don’t do” what they say they will do, “but most of the time they do it”.

The interview responses indicated the importance of authenticity, including spirituality and shared values, in the classroom. Luke noted that when “a person says that they’ll do something, you really want to believe them”. John concurred: “there’s no point promising something and not doing it”. Andrew, too, made his point quite strongly: “if I say something, I want to do it, because it is like a promise. You can’t break it, because it is just like lying”. Furthermore, the students saw an obvious relationship between authenticity, including spirituality and shared values, and boys’ academic motivation. Luke, Mark and Andrew simply answered, “yes” when asked if teachers’ authentic behaviour had a positive influence on their academic motivation. John mentioned, “when the teachers say they’re going to do something, it usually gets your hopes high, and then if you don’t do it, you feel like you’re let down”. However, when the teachers “do what they say they will do”, it has “a good effect”, because it makes the work “more enjoyable”. Matthew just likes to know where he stands.

If you know you are going to get rewarded, everybody likes to get rewarded. If you know you are going to get punished - (and) no one likes to get punished - you don't really want to get punished, so you keep doing the work properly.

In their interview and questionnaire responses, students identified various qualities and aspects of leadership associated with authenticity (including spirituality and shared values). These were: “respect”; “honesty”; “tolerance”; “trust”; being “fair”; and “caring” which, as John noted, help him to feel that he is “valued as a person”. Comments in the survey questionnaire included: “teachers are tolerant and true to their word”; “they treat everyone the same”; and “they don’t threaten us”. In both the survey questionnaire and the interviews, Year 8 boys noted that respect, tolerance and justice have a positive influence on their academic motivation. The students also indicated that the implementation of certain behaviour management strategies, particularly when teachers help students take personal responsibility for their behaviour, positively influences boys’ willingness to learn.

The section of the student questionnaire exploring the influence of ‘authenticity, including spirituality and shared values’ provided respondents with seven statements to be graded from 1 (does not describe at all) through to 7 (strongly describes), in terms of how accurately they described their willingness to learn. Three statements had a mean above 5.20: “I want to learn because my teachers respect me” (5.69); “I want to learn because my teachers are tolerant of me” (5.62); and “I want to learn because my teachers help me to take personal responsibility for my behaviour” (5.21). The statements: “I want to learn because my teachers respect me” and “I want to learn because my teachers help me to take personal responsibility for my

behaviour” also recorded a mode of 7 (strongly describes). The statements: “I want to learn because my teachers are tolerant of me” and “I want to learn because my teachers help me to share those values” obtained a mode of 6 (describes). Six of the seven statements recorded a mean above 4.44, indicating that the students believed there was a strong correlation between these items and their academic motivation. However, one of these statements: “I want to learn because my teachers are true to their values” (4.69) had a mode of 4 (uncertain). Table 5.3 presents a statistical summary for each statement within ‘authenticity, including spirituality and shared values’, including mode, mean and standard variation.

Table 5.3

Authenticity, including spirituality and shared values, and boys’ academic motivation

Statement	Mode %	Mean	Standard Deviation
• I want to learn because I appreciate the fact that my teachers always do what they say they will do	Describes to some extent 23.08	4.44	1.80
• I want to learn because my teachers are true to their values	Uncertain 30.77	4.69	1.43
• I want to learn because my teachers help me to share those values	Describes 25.64	4.92	1.60
• I want to learn because my teachers respect me	Strongly describes 41.03	5.69	1.39
• I want to learn because my teachers are tolerant of me	Describes 35.90	5.62	1.52
• I want to learn because my teachers are strict	Uncertain 25.64	3.64	2.05
• I want to learn because my teachers help me to take personal responsibility for my behaviour	Strongly describes 30.77	5.21	1.72

Note N = 39

Mode 1: Does not describe at all 2: does not describe 3: Does not describe to some extent 4: Uncertain 5: Describes to some extent 6: Describes 7: Strongly describes

When asked to comment on the influence of respect, tolerance and justice on his academic motivation, John's response reinforced the findings in the survey questionnaire.

Those three qualities have a really good effect on you - how you present and do your work and things like that. You don't feel like the teacher's just giving you work. You feel like you can talk to them about anything.

Matthew commented particularly on the influence of respect and tolerance:

If they (teachers) respect us as students, they will tolerate so much before they have to punish or reward you. I suppose if you were not respected at all, you would lose a bit of heart in your work. If you are punished for no reason and if there is no tolerance there, you start to lose your enjoyment, because you have to be able to muck around a little bit.

Andrew made the link between fairness and justice and explained that both are, in his opinion, evident in the classroom. Teachers "always try to be fair, that's definite. If you can't do something as well as someone else, they will help you more and try to keep it even; everything even". Luke claimed that respect, tolerance and justice create "an environment where people will help you", not "for the sake of helping you (but) because they want to".

Although the survey questionnaire responses indicated that Year 8 students are uncertain whether teachers remaining true to their values has a positive influence on boys' academic motivation, the interviewees emphasised both the importance of teachers remaining true to their values and, in turn, the positive influence that this has on their willingness to learn. When asked to identify the values that their teachers tried to remain true to, the following were mentioned: "determination", being

“respectful to everyone and kind”; being “reasonable (and) rewarding”; “justice and being fair”; being “honest and trustworthy”. Matthew and Mark noted that when teachers remain true to the values listed above, they “set a good example” and “demonstrate what to do”. This, according to Andrew, brings together as a “team” all of the students in the classroom. “You have a good feeling” when teachers are true to their values. “You want to learn. You know that if you respect (teachers), they will respect you back. You can trust them and they can trust you. You know you can do things better, so it is really a team”. Thus, according to the interview responses, by setting a good example, teachers also encourage students to share values in the classroom. Comments were: “he does it himself as well”; “he keeps his word”; “they put it plain and simple so you understand. Sometimes they’ll just say straight out about respect and justice and being fair”; and “by not talking down to us and not lying to us, and making sure that we are getting the best education by helping us with our work”. When asked if the sharing of values has a positive influence on their academic motivation, most simply answered “yes”. However, Luke said that the efforts of his teachers to share values “show us in your life you should be trustworthy and respectful”. John added the final word: “if you have a respectful class and behaviour is really good, it makes you work better and makes you want to come to school every day and have fun”.

John’s interview indicated that teachers’ ability to manage behaviour in the classroom has an influence on his learning. Poor behaviour

makes more homework for me and puts me under stress. I’ve got a plan that I’ve got to do this tonight, but then I’ve got Maths or whatever that night on top of that because of people misbehaving and not being controlled.

How, then, do Year 8 teacher leaders try to manage behaviour in the classroom?

The interview responses showed, on the whole, that teachers try to ensure that shared values underpin their approach to behaviour management in the classroom, although not always successfully. Andrew outlined the link between shared values and behaviour management: “respect, yes: they always try to keep it just, no matter what (and) yes, there is some tolerance”. Matthew and Andrew referred to teachers’ authentic behaviour and the significance of “staying true to their word”. “There are always a few warnings, because that’s just saying that you shouldn’t do it again and if you do it again, then you are giving me reason to punish you. If they’ve been given a warning and told to stop doing something”, when they do it again, they “suffer the consequences”. Matthew said that it is even simpler in his class. “It is always very strict. If you muck up, you’re going to get punished, or if you’re good, it doesn’t usually go unrewarded”. However, John and Mark both commented that students can “take advantage” of teachers, especially when they “scream” or “yell”. “When (the teacher) screams”, explained John, “it is noticeable that the students aren’t listening and they are taking a lot of advantage of that and just mucking around more, which means that we can’t get our work done as much”. Mark said that “in some classes, (teachers) yell at the students, then other students do the same thing and it gets out of hand”.

So, how should teacher leaders manage behaviour so that they also positively influence boys’ academic motivation? The survey questionnaire results indicated that teachers helping students to take personal responsibility for their behaviour has a positive influence on boys’ willingness to learn. Statements were: “they help me

improve my behaviour”; “when teachers give me responsibility, I feel good”; “they know we’re responsible and help us”; and when students “take responsibility for (their) actions, the problem stops”. In his interview, John offered some support: behaviour management is about being “real. The way” a behaviour management issue “should be dealt with is by discussing it with the person”. Nonetheless, despite indications in the survey questionnaire that students are uncertain about the influence that strict teachers have on their willingness to learn, when interviewed, Matthew indicated that he benefited from that type of approach. “If you’ve got other people being stupid around you, you can’t concentrate on your work, so you need the teacher to stop that, and if you are rewarded for doing good work, you are going to do it more often”. Mark agreed: “if (the teacher) is really strict, all the other students are silent and then I can work easier. When it is loud, I tend to lose concentration”.

5.5.3 Transformation towards a shared vision and boys’ academic motivation

When asked to discuss transformational leadership, the student participants noted in their interview and survey questionnaire responses that teachers try to transform students during the year, both in terms of their learning and their behaviour. In doing so, teachers have a clear vision of how the classroom should operate and, within that, how they want boys to learn and behave. According to Matthew, teachers “try to make sure you learn properly and (that) your behaviour will be good”. Mark noted that teachers present students with opportunities to develop “more knowledge, understanding and skills”. Further, he, like most of the other boys interviewed, emphasised that teachers, also, attempt to transform students’ maturity and behaviour. He explained: “They (teachers) are trying to make the students a lot more mature. You know, tell them what is right and wrong”. Andrew mentioned something similar.

I think every teacher wants to (transform) their students, because as you get older, you have to be mature, you want to do things, you have to grow. If you have a problem, they (the teachers) teach you how to be mature about it.

Luke tried to link together the notion of helping students to mature and developing them as people. “I reckon they try to change us in a way, (by) trying to change us from a person coming from juniors to seniors”. The rules have become stricter and tougher to the stage now where, basically, we have changed a whole lot from Year 7. We were allowed to talk in class - and when we came to Year 8 at first we were allowed to talk in class - (but) now we are silent in class, we don’t talk (or) muck around.

When asked about teachers and their vision of the classroom, the interview and survey questionnaire responses indicated that teachers clearly articulate a vision of the classroom and, within that, the expectations that they have of students regarding behaviour and learning. The following points were made in the interviews: “I think they like the class to be able to sit down and keep going with their work, and to show respect for each other and do what they’re told”; “they want the class to be very respectful of people who walk in, but also for the class to have fun but, at the same time, to do their work”; and “lots of happiness; everyone’s included so everyone’s friends and do (*sic*) things together. There’s no negative; everything’s positive and everyone respects and trusts each other, and everyone’s fair, just like they’re teaching us”. Comments in the survey questionnaire included: “teachers make it clear what they want and expect from students”; “teachers want to teach us how the classroom and school should look”; and “teachers do share their vision of the classroom”.

The interviews and survey questionnaire responses drew attention to the fact that teachers seek to have every student in the class share their vision. In a sense, this is akin to transforming students towards that vision. Matthew identified the link between vision and transformation: “If you have a vision of the classroom” that incorporates “good, hardworking students, you can try to transform them” to be even better students, “and that’s what will achieve that vision”. Teachers try to achieve this in a number of ways. Andrew stated that teachers “set the ground rules from the very start” and let students “have a say” in the way situations should be handled, which is “only fair”. John and Matthew referred to the fact that teachers want students to know more and to develop a range of skills. John said that he “can see” that teachers want students to improve

when they talk to us. They explain it to us and tell us what they expect or would like to see. If someone’s walked in and we haven’t shown them what they expect us to do, then they explain that to us and tell us that the next time it is expected that we will do it better.

Two similar remarks were made in the survey questionnaire, namely: “a teacher telling me where my skills can take me is a great compliment and encourages me to keep on trying”; and “my teachers want me to achieve to the best of my ability”. Matthew noted that teachers share their vision and transform students by “setting a good example” and “always elaborating what that vision is, not just leaving it to us (the students) to realise it”. Mark commented that the offer of rewards helps teachers create a shared vision in the classroom and has a positive influence on students’ willingness to learn. “First, there’s work, silently, and after that, there’s a reward - a bit of a break”, which makes it easier for us to share the teacher’s vision.

A comment in the survey questionnaire also drew attention to the benefits of rewards: “I want to learn because the school can offer various academic rewards”.

Interviews and survey questionnaire responses indicated that the notion of transformation towards a shared vision has a positive influence on students’ academic motivation. According to Matthew, it is just a natural progression: “if you are transformed into a good worker, you are going to do your work better and go better in school. And the better you go in school, the more motivated you’ll be because of your achievements”. Most of the other boys interviewed made a similar connection.

Luke said that transformation towards a shared vision helps to create “mutual respect” in the classroom and encourages him to come to school. “You want to come to school and enjoy it, so them (teachers) telling us what is wrong and good for us and other people, makes people more wary of how people want to be treated”. John saw transformation as a positive influence because “it has helped (him) to know that the teachers do care and want to transform (him) so that (he) is better for the next year”. Andrew saw that when teachers incorporate rewards, physicality and interest into work, it is easier for him to share in the vision of the classroom. Moreover, these things positively influence his academic motivation. “Little things, like rewards”, explained Andrew, “that’s (*sic*) always a good thing, especially in the subjects that some people don’t like. There are a few (other) things” that teachers can do. You “might play cards for Maths or, like earlier this year in fractions, we all got to bring in a cake and cut it up in fractions and ate all the cakes”. Nonetheless, Mark discounted the influence of transformation towards a shared vision on his academic motivation. “I’ve always put my work first”, he said. “So” the influence is “not much”. In fact,

he added, even if the teacher was not there supporting him, he would still put his work before any other influences.

The section of the student questionnaire exploring the influence of ‘transformation towards a shared vision’ provided students with eleven statements to be graded from 1 (does not describe at all) through to 7 (strongly describes), in terms of how accurately they described their willingness to learn. Eight statements recorded a mean of 5.10 or above: “I want to learn because my teachers want me to know more and to have a greater range of social and academic skills” (6.18); “I want to learn because the teachers make the work interesting” (5.79); “I want to learn because the curriculum integrates learning and doing” (5.51); “I want to learn because my teachers have a vision of what I can achieve” (5.49); “I want to learn because the curriculum integrates learning and feeling” (5.46); “I want to learn because my teachers make the work challenging” (5.33); “I want to learn because my teachers offer me rewards” (5.10); and “I want to learn because my teachers are forward looking” (5.10). Four statements (“I want to learn because my teachers want me to know more and to have a greater range of social and academic skills”; “I want to learn because the teachers make the work interesting”; “I want to learn because my teachers have a vision of what I can achieve”; and “I want to learn because my teachers offer me rewards”) also had a mode of 7 (strongly describes). All eleven statements recorded means above 4.85, indicating that the students perceived there to be a strong correlation between these aspects of teacher leadership and their academic motivation. Table 5.4 presents a statistical summary for each statement within ‘transformation towards a shared vision’, including mode, mean and standard variation.

Table 5.4

Transformation towards a shared vision and boys' academic motivation

Statement	Mode %	Mean	Standard Deviation
• I want to learn because my teachers want me to know more and to have a greater range of social and academic skills	Strongly describes 53.85	6.18	0.92
• I want to learn because my teachers are forward looking	Describes to some extent 33.33	5.10	1.34
• I want to learn because my teachers are competent	Describes to some extent 33.33	4.87	1.29
• I want to learn because my teachers make the work interesting	Strongly describes 48.72	5.79	1.40
• I want to learn because my teachers offer me rewards	Strongly describes 33.33	5.10	1.93
• I want to learn because my teachers make the work challenging	Describes 41.03	5.33	1.35
• I want to learn because the curriculum integrates learning and doing	Describes 30.77	5.51	1.14
• I want to learn because the curriculum integrates learning and feeling	Describes 28.21	5.46	1.17
• I want to learn because my teachers have a vision of what I can achieve	Strongly describes 30.77	5.49	1.31
• I want to learn because my teachers have a vision of how the classroom and school operate	Describes 30.77	4.92	1.81
• I want to learn because my teachers clearly share their vision of the classroom and the school	Describes 33.33	4.87	1.49

Note N = 39

Mode 1: Does not describe at all 2: does not describe 3: Does not describe to some extent 4: Uncertain 5: Describes to some extent 6: Describes 7: Strongly describes

The survey questionnaire responses drew attention to the positive influence of teachers' support for students' academic and social development. Similarly, they

indicated that aspects of teacher leadership, such as challenge and interest, influence boys' willingness to learn. Comments in the survey questionnaire included: "teachers make work hard for your own good"; "learning is interesting"; and "it is easier to learn when work is interesting". Overall, the survey questionnaire results showed the positive influence of teacher leaders' approach to the curriculum, namely integrating learning and doing, and learning and feeling. Student responses included: "the curriculum has all I need"; "through movies and stories, I interact with everyone"; "when a unit of work has some practical use it is more interesting"; and "learning can be improved by having interactive experiences like an excursion". Although the positive influence of a teacher's vision was identified, certain comments indicated that it is an area that teachers can still improve. Two such comments were: "teachers should discuss the environment and behaviour more with students"; and "I'm not sure teachers take a look at what we should/would/could achieve". Finally, the survey questionnaire showed that aspects of teacher leadership, such as competency and ability to look forward, positively influence boys' academic motivation.

5.5.4 Empowerment, based on trust, and boys' academic motivation

When questioned about empowerment, the interviewees, in general, aligned empowerment with "being trusted" and "being given responsibility". John noted that teachers empower students "with the morning jobs, like the bulletin, prayers, watering the plants in the classroom, or getting something they've forgotten from the staff room. They send you knowing they can trust you". Andrew, too, referred to teachers trusting students to complete "basic errands".

(Teachers) want you to do things for them and they know they can trust you.

For example, a few days ago I had all of these test papers that we had for the

end of the day. I knew I could have just taken them out and looked at (them) so I would know what to do. I could have looked at them and cheated, (but I did not).

Matthew saw “being an SRC (as) a good example of” empowerment based on trust. Furthermore, “even letting us do quiet work (is) trusting us to do that right, and giving us responsibility to be able to keep going on with that”. Mark mentioned that “only the SRCs” are empowered by teachers. However, he did add that his teacher “gives responsible (students) what they want sometimes” and trusts them to “look after the class or help friends with work”.

Empowerment, or “being trusted”, was viewed as having a positive influence on boys’ academic motivation. “Yes”, being empowered or trusted “makes it a more enjoyable time”, Matthew explained. “You are not always talked down to, so you don’t have to prove that you’re actually capable and that means the teachers will respect you more”. Ultimately, “it will give you more enjoyment because you’re treated as an equal”. Other interview responses to the question ‘does empowerment, or “being trusted”, positively influence your academic motivation?’ included: “Yes. If I know a teacher trusts me I feel good about it. Learning and wanting to learn (are) all about a good feeling, a good vibration, a good thing”; “Yes. It shows that he can trust me”; “Yes. It (makes) me feel good about myself, and knowing that they can trust me, makes (me) want to work and get (my) homework finished, because otherwise (I) might lose that trust”; and “Yes, because I know if I learn, they (teachers) will reward me”. Similar comments were made in the survey questionnaire: “trust is a must”; “it’s good to have a trusting teacher”; “when teachers trust me, they respect me”; and “if my teachers did not trust my work habits, there’s

no reason to go on”. The item in the survey questionnaire about the influence of trust, namely “I want to learn because my teachers trust me to achieve my goals” recorded a mode of 7 (strongly describes). Table 5.5 presents a statistical summary for each item within the dimension, ‘empowerment, based on trust’, including mode, mean and standard variation.

Table 5.5

Empowerment, based on trust, and boys’ academic motivation

Statement	Mode %	Mean	Standard Deviation
• I want to learn because my teachers trust me to achieve my goals	Strongly describes 35.90	5.62	1.49
• I want to learn because my teachers delegate responsibility	Uncertain 28.21	5.03	1.56
• I want to learn because my teachers are honest with me	Strongly describes 30.77	5.54	1.26
• I want to learn because my teachers encourage me to be a leader in the classroom	Describes to some extent 23.08	4.59	1.62
• I want to learn because my teachers allow me to negotiate what I can do	Describes to some extent 25.64	4.95	1.59
• I want to learn because my teachers negotiate deadlines	Describes to some extent 28.21	4.41	2.00
• I want to learn because my teachers modify the curriculum to suit me	Uncertain 25.64	4.59	1.80
• I want to learn because the curriculum is relevant	Describes 33.33	5.69	0.98
• I want to learn because the curriculum is skill based rather than knowledge based	Describes to some extent 38.46	4.87	1.56
• I want to learn because the curriculum builds on what I know	Describes 38.46	5.90	0.89

Note N = 39

Mode 1: Does not describe at all 2: does not describe 3: Does not describe to some extent 4: Uncertain 5: Describes to some extent 6: Describes 7: Strongly describes

Respondents were invited to grade ten statements from 1 (does not describe at all) through to 7 (strongly describes), in terms of how accurately these described their willingness to learn. Four statements had a mean above 5.50: “I want to learn because the curriculum builds on what I know”; “I want to learn because the curriculum is relevant”; “I want to learn because my teachers trust me to achieve my goals”; and “I want to learn because my teachers are honest with me”. The mode for the statements: “I want to learn because my teachers trust me to achieve my goals” and “I want to learn because my teachers are honest with me” was 7 (strongly describes). The statements: “I want to learn because the curriculum is relevant” and “I want to learn because the curriculum builds on what I know” had a mode of 6 (describes). All ten statements recorded a mean of at least 4.41, indicating that the students believed there was a strong correlation between these aspects of teacher leadership and their academic motivation.

Overall, the interview and survey questionnaire responses indicated that students regarded teachers’ honesty as part of empowerment, or “being trusted”, and, furthermore, as having a positive influence on their academic motivation. Comments in the survey questionnaire included: “a teacher needs to be honest or they (sic) won’t be trusted”; “the teachers are very honest”; and “most of my teachers are honest with me”. In their interviews, Matthew, Luke and John noted that teachers are honest when discussing grades and progress. “Grading is always honest”, remarked Matthew. “You don’t like to hear that you are better than what you are at the moment, or that you’re not as good as what you are”. Luke said that his teacher is “honest in the way (he) went in a test”. He explained: “when we do Maths, if I get a question wrong and I ask him about it, instead of just explaining it, doing the question

easily, he'll explain where I went wrong and how I can improve". John noted that honesty extends to parent and teacher interviews.

At parent/ teacher interview nights, they (teachers) are very honest with the parents when they tell the parents what they think about that particular student, and they want to tell that parent that information so that the student can work better.

When asked about the effect of teachers' honesty on their willingness to learn, the interviewees replied that it has a positive influence. Such comments included: "if the teachers aren't honest, you don't necessarily know what you're supposed to be doing because they are not telling you. If they're honest, you know what you're doing and you will keep trying"; "if you're doing badly, you want to do better. If you are doing well, you'll want to keep it up"; "if he (the teacher) says I did really badly in a test, he is being honest there and it helps me. It just makes me want to improve in that test and have another try at it"; and honesty has a positive influence on academic motivation "because it is all part of the good feeling".

Respondents acknowledged that encouragement to take up leadership roles in the classroom has a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. However, the survey questionnaire responses showed that boys were uncertain of the influence that teachers delegating responsibility to students has on their willingness to learn. Even so, the comments in the survey questionnaire supported the notion that encouragement of leadership, or delegation of responsibility, has a positive influence, at least to some extent, on boys' academic motivation. For example: "teachers give important roles to those they trust"; "it always helps when a teacher gets you to take more

responsibility”; “if you are a leader, you want to keep that position”; and “giving me encouragement and responsibility helps me to learn”.

Negotiation, particularly of deadlines, also has a positive influence on boys’ academic motivation, although some comments in the survey questionnaire indicated that at least a few teachers never negotiate deadlines. These responses included: “some teachers never extend the deadline”; “they don’t think about what the student is going through and if they can do the work”; and “some teachers won’t negotiate the deadline for assignments”. Nonetheless, the interviewees spoke of teachers regularly negotiating deadlines and the positive influence that this has on their willingness to learn. “Depending on the circumstances”, explained Matthew, teachers “will change deadlines. They are sensible”. Negotiation has a positive influence on Matthew’s willingness to learn, because it allows him to have some control over his learning. He continued: “If you have some say in it, you will enjoy it a bit more because it is not always left up to another person and you can do something about it”. John said that teachers “definitely” negotiate “because they understand that we haven’t had time to complete” work. Moreover, according to John, “if your teacher extends an assignment, you do it better because you know that he or she is going to expect better because it has been extended and you’ve got more time to work on it”. Mark saw negotiation as having a very positive influence on his academic motivation. “I like to negotiate, because I know that I’ll get a bit of what I want and they’ll (teachers) get a bit of what they want”. This makes me work better, because “at least I know I’ve got an extension” and that I have had a say in things.

Certain aspects of teacher leaders' approach to the curriculum have a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. Year 8 students, on the whole, identified these aspects as achieving 'relevance' and making the curriculum 'skill based' and 'constructivist'. In the questionnaire, some students highlighted the following: "having a good curriculum is helpful"; "the curriculum is good as it widens our knowledge"; "if you have skills it makes work easier and more interesting"; "teachers build on what you already know"; "the school modifies our learning by having HAP (High Achievement Programme) classes"; and "the curriculum helps me to learn more by having higher achievement programmes". Similar remarks were made in the interviews.

Andrew indicated that teachers try to find out as much as they can about students' interests and learning styles. "At the start of this year, he (the teacher) gave us a few sheets of paper and from those sheets, he could realise that this is a thinker, or this one needs a bit of help in some stuff, or this one's a good writer". If teachers "did not do that", explained Andrew, "they would be teaching us all the same thing", which, as Matthew and Mark reinforced, can be "a let down". Matthew said: "If they (teachers) don't know what level you're at, you might end up (doing) something you've already covered and it will be a waste of time". Mark noted that teachers "start with the basics and they'll test you on your basics, and if not everyone's ready, then there's a lot of revision. If everyone's ready, we will go onto the next stage". Rather than this method, he prefers "individual work", where the teacher builds on what he knows, because "there's a lot of benefit in" such an approach. Luke, too, indicated that the constructivist approach to teaching and learning has a positive influence on his academic motivation. He spoke particularly about a Maths

assignment using chronometers, when the class had to create a device and method that would enable them to measure the height of the school's flagpole. "I liked that because it gave us challenges, mentally and physically. We had to think about (the task) and not only use our knowledge, but our creativity knowledge and mental knowledge". When asked what influence the chronometers' task had on his willingness to learn, Luke replied: "I enjoyed it. I did not really like chronometers much, but it was a really fun way of learning. I reckon if it is fun, then it is just easier to learn".

5.5.5 Community and boys' academic motivation

When directed to discuss communal leadership, respondents, generally, referred to their teachers as collaborative, both with other teachers and with students in their classes. Moreover, the interview and survey questionnaire responses indicated that collaboration with staff and students has a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. Luke noted that teachers had recently collaborated on an "astronomy" unit, when "all five Year 8 classes got together (and) the teachers got together". Matthew found the astronomy unit - as well as an earlier Science unit on a mystery powder - an opportunity for teachers to "be collaborative with other teachers, (so) they can combine all the ideas together for each class". This is more effective than teachers working on their own, because "the whole unit runs together, which helps, because if they ran it all on their own, it would not be as full, because it is only (one teacher's) ideas". Andrew indicated that Year 8 teachers regularly collaborate. "They have to", he explained. "If they want to create a test paper or game or activity, they have to work together, so all the Year 8s or Year 9s and so on can do it together".

On the other hand, John said: “My two Home Room teachers work together, but I don’t think with other teachers so much”.

Most of the interviewees agreed that teachers working together with other teachers, positively influences academic motivation. Responses included: when teachers “work as a team, you know it’s something good. So you don’t want to just waste it, because everything they teach you is going to be something important”; “when they set up so that every Year 8 has a task, it is pretty good”; and:

It is good because they know what they’re doing together - not just one knows what’s going on and the other doesn’t - and they bring together ideas on how to work the class better, to do activities and stuff like that.

Teachers also collaborate with students in the classroom. The interviewees referred to various ways that teachers encourage students to share in classroom leadership and decision-making. John said that some are obvious, especially “SRC and Athletics’ Day”. In these situations, teachers leave “responsibility up to the SRC”. Andrew noted: “every week, a person reads out newsletters and a prayer, and everyone has a certain responsibility for that week and it just keeps changing”. Group work and class discussions are also examples of collaboration. “We have group or class discussions”, explained Luke, “where she (the teacher) tells us to speak our minds and things like that”. Mark, in particular, “likes group work, because everyone’s got a bit of responsibility and you depend on others”. Collaborating with students, by sharing classroom leadership and decision-making, is a means that teachers can use to positively influence boys’ willingness to learn. Comments in the survey questionnaire included: “when teachers allow me to contribute to class

discussions, I feel accepted”; “having some control over your learning can help you have a more enjoyable time”; “I think everyone should have a say”; and “I like to be accepted in a group”. In their interview and survey questionnaire responses, participants elaborated on the positive influence of collaboration.

Andrew recognised that “if there is no input from the students, it (work) becomes uninteresting. If there’s input from the students, it makes it more fun. It is not just following someone else; you can actually have some input yourself”. Certainly, continued Andrew, “having some responsibility in the class helps”. Luke viewed “the whole feeling of putting forward my point of view” as having a positive influence on his academic motivation. Getting a chance to collaborate in the classroom helps Luke “to put forward my point of view on the subject that we’re doing. We can argue on that subject and sometimes the point I put up changes totally”. John offered a similar view. “I find leading people fun. Also, sometimes students will listen to another student because it is from the same perspective. If you are talking to another student about something, they probably will listen a little better”. Matthew agreed: “if it is all run by the teacher, you have no input. If it (the class) is run by the students as well, some of it (the work) is what you want. It makes it just that bit more enjoyable”. Andrew, too, noted that sharing classroom leadership and decision-making “makes (him) feel that teachers trust (him)”. As a result, he added: “I try to do my best. You want to try to do your best for them (teachers), because they trust you”. The survey questionnaire results reinforced the positive influence that the feeling of belonging in the classroom community and encouragement to share classroom leadership and decision-making have on boys’ academic motivation.

In the student questionnaire, the section exploring the influence of ‘community’ on boys’ academic motivation, provided students with a series of statements to be graded from 1 (does not describe at all) through to 7 (strongly describes), in terms of how accurately they described their willingness to learn. Seven statements had a mean above 5.0: (“I want to learn because my teachers helped to make the transition into high school smooth for me” (5.85); “I want to learn because my teachers create a safe, friendly and supportive environment” (5.72); “I want to learn because my teachers communicate clearly and openly with me” (5.67); “I want to learn because my teachers are friendly” (5.49); “I want to learn because my teachers work together to support my progress” (5.33); “I want to learn because I feel I belong in the school community” (5.15); and “I want to learn because my teachers help me to feel that I belong in the classroom community”). Six of these (“I want to learn because my teachers helped to make the transition into high school smooth for me”; “I want to learn because my teachers communicate clearly and openly with me”; “I want to learn because my teachers are friendly”; “I want to learn because my teachers work together to support my progress”; “I want to learn because I feel I belong in the school community”; and “I want to learn because my teachers help me to feel that I belong in the classroom community”) had a mode of 7 (strongly describes). The remaining statement: “I want to learn because my teachers create a safe, friendly and supportive environment” had a mode of 6 (describes). All ten statements recorded a mean above 4.75, indicating that the students believed there was a strong correlation between these aspects of teacher leadership and their academic motivation. Table 5.6 presents a statistical summary for each item within the dimension, ‘community’, including mode, mean and standard variation.

Table 5.6

Community and boys' academic motivation

Statement	Mode %	Mean	Standard Deviation
• I want to learn because my teachers help me to feel that I belong in the classroom community	Strongly describes 28.21	5.03	1.76
• I want to learn because I feel I belong in the school community	Strongly describes 25.64	5.15	1.61
• I want to learn because my teachers work together to support my progress	Strongly describes 28.21	5.33	1.52
• I want to learn because my teachers encourage me to share in classroom decisions	Describes to some extent 30.77	4.79	1.37
• I want to learn because I like my teachers	Describes to some extent 25.64	4.97	1.44
• I want to learn because my teachers are friendly	Strongly describes 38.46	5.49	1.40
• I want to learn because my teachers care about me	Describes to some extent 25.64	4.90	1.58
• I want to learn because my teachers communicate clearly and openly with me	Strongly describes 30.77	5.67	1.06
• I want to learn because my teachers create a safe, friendly and supportive environment	Describes 41.03	5.72	1.02
• I want to learn because my teachers helped to make the transition into high school smooth for me	Strongly describes 43.59	5.85	1.35

Note N = 39

Mode 1: Does not describe at all 2: does not describe 3: Does not describe to some extent 4: Uncertain 5: Describes to some extent 6: Describes 7: Strongly describes

The survey questionnaire and interview responses indicated that when teachers possess or demonstrate certain attributes, namely friendliness, a caring attitude and an ability to communicate, they positively influence boys' academic motivation. When

asked to comment on both the prevalence and influence of these three attributes in his experiences of the Year 8 classroom, Andrew responded: teachers “are definitely caring because they care about you and how you learn. Most teachers (also) have to be really good at communicating to teach something. They have to be patient, otherwise no one will be able to learn properly”. Andrew saw “caring and communication” as the two most influential aspects of teacher leadership. He explained:

If you can talk to them (teachers) and they communicate well to you, it is friendly as well. If they’re friendly and they communicate to you, there’s a feeling that this is a good teacher. (It’s) nice and you’ll learn, because you’re happy about it. And (if) they’re caring for you, you can do well.

Luke offered something similar: “if there wasn’t any communication, then if we didn’t know the question or how to do it and we couldn’t communicate with our teacher, the subject becomes really hard to learn”. Furthermore, “a caring and friendly teacher is easy going. It is much easier (to learn) because you are more relaxed, more calm”.

Mark simply stated that he “can’t work without friendliness”. John proposed that “knowing you can communicate with a particular teacher, makes you not scared of asking questions or not scared of talking to them about an issue or homework”. This positively influences his willingness to learn, as does a friendly teacher. Having a friendly teacher “makes the class fun in lessons, which makes you want to do your work. And if you can have a joke with the teacher”, continued John, “the student’s going to respect them (*sic*) a lot more as a leader”. When asked to comment on the influence of teachers’ friendliness, caring attitude and ability to communicate,

Matthew offered the following remarks. “A teacher needs to be communicative because, if not, you don’t know what you’re doing with your work”. The ability to “communicate what you do with your work is the main task of a teacher. It makes it easier to do (the work), and that helps you”. Teachers “are always friendly if you stay on the right side of them. I suppose that ties in with respect as well: if you respect someone, you’ll be friends”. Finally, noted Matthew, “if teachers care about your learning and your work, you want to learn”.

Comments in the survey questionnaire supported the notion that communicative, friendly and caring teachers positively influence academic motivation. Statements about the influence of teachers’ communication included: “they tell us what items I need for a lesson”; “my teachers help me. They are open about what they want and expect from me”; and “I like the way the teachers were up front when talking about what I can expect from high school”. There were also a number of positive comments about the influence of having friendly and caring teachers: “friendly teachers make me feel welcomed and I am able to ask questions”; “all teachers have a soft side, although they may not show it”; “I don’t feel afraid of asking teachers questions”; “having friendly teachers makes them less intimidating, which helps you work better”; “my teachers are nice and always helping me”; “my teachers are not strict, which makes me relax and focus”; “having some connection with your teacher can help your learning”; “they will always help you no matter what they are doing”; “teachers help students to do more work and to have a better understanding”; and “if I like my teachers, I work a lot better”.

By creating a safe, friendly and supportive classroom environment, teachers positively influence Year 8 boys' willingness to learn. Andrew summed it up: "a good environment is a good place. You want to learn because you feel comfortable and safe, secure". So, what are the crucial elements of a "good" classroom environment?

Luke noted that the classroom environment should be "relaxed" and should make students "feel at home". He explained:

It would have lots of posters on the back wall, things like tigers, waves, snow boarding and things like that, not educational, but things that have a lot of meaning. The classroom should not only have books, but something that makes you feel at home, as if you're in a relaxed environment.

John said that teachers need to create "a fun learning environment; friendly, caring, social". Andrew expanded: "everyone's friends, everyone cares for each other, everyone helps out and everyone does things for each other. They trust and are honest - (these are) just basic key elements of a good classroom. Everyone has those and put (*sic*) them into action".

Boys also remarked on the noise level in the classroom. Mark saw "silent work and a lot of explanation from the teacher" as important. Luke viewed it slightly differently. "I wouldn't say totally silent but, ideally, being able to talk - in between whisper and quiet talk - and people should be well behaved". John said that the noise level

depends on the activity that you're doing at the time. If you're doing a colouring activity or working on a poster, I think a talking environment is

helpful in a way, but if you are doing Maths, you need to work in a quieter room.

Matthew likes “somewhere you are able to sit down and do your work and not be disturbed by other people, (where) everyone can work as a group as well, if you are doing group work”.

Music, too, can add to a successful learning environment. Luke explained: “sometimes (the teacher) puts on music and it is just easier when we do English or Social Science because you can talk in a more relaxed environment”. Mark referred to the benefits of “break times”. “If there can be break times, especially in double lessons”, I work better. “Whenever you finish your work”, he added, “you always get to go outside, play around. It just makes me feel better and then, next time, I am willing to learn a lot more”.

How, then, can Year 8 teacher leaders create a “good” learning environment? As Andrew suggested, expectations need to be clearly established at the beginning of the year. “At the start of the year, they (teachers) need to say, ‘I’d like to have a good class so we can all work together and all be friends and this how it is done’”. John noted: teachers should be “always thinking of ideas and not only just telling us what to do, but asking if there is something we think should happen”. He indicated that at least one of his teachers had recently sought input from the class, which had a positive influence on his academic motivation.

With the Olympics, she (the teacher) asked us if we’d rather have a booklet of sheets to do on each subject, or they would give us work to do on the day. We all chose to do the booklet with sheets because we thought we’d work better

with them. Including the students with their work helps. If they (teachers) include you, you feel welcome in the class, and it gives you confidence in what you are doing.

Mark viewed the opportunity for students to “pick their seats” as a simple thing that teachers can do to establish a good learning environment. “She (the teacher) lets people pick their seats first, and she lets you talk, but enough is enough. This makes me feel better”. Matthew explained that teachers could help group work to run more smoothly,

by actually assigning tasks to each person, and by keeping some order in the classroom, so that people who work better in a quiet environment can. If you are not able to work properly and it’s not quiet enough to concentrate, you won’t concentrate as well, your work starts to slip, and you don’t want to do it anymore.

Finally, Luke mentioned that sometimes teachers would be better served by moving “out of the way”! “It could be”, he stated, “that teachers are always talking when you’re trying to work. Sometimes, they should just get out of the way” so that we can get on with our work. “When it comes to school, you want to be in a relaxed environment”.

Overall, the respondents indicated that teachers helped to make the transition from primary to high school reasonably smooth. Nonetheless, as evident in the survey questionnaire responses, there were some exceptions. Such comments were: “the teachers did not explain things”; “changes in work habits in high school can make your experience less enjoyable”; and “the transition to high school was hard. I

did not know anyone and I was not used to the amount of homework”. In his interview, Mark, too, referred to homework expectations: “I guess the homework is (the hardest thing about the transition). There’s a lot more of it, but you have to show that you’re responsible”. Luke regarded the Year 8 workload as much greater than what he was used to. “In high school, you do a lot more work than in primary school. Basically, primary school and high school are totally different”.

Even so, many of the survey questionnaire and interview responses drew attention to the successful way teachers helped students to manage the transition into high school, and the subsequent positive influence that this has on boys’ academic motivation. Relevant comments in the survey questionnaire included: “the teachers were really welcoming when I came to this school and it made me feel I fitted in”; “I think if I was not treated so well in becoming part of the school community, I might have considered leaving”; and “the teachers make it (the transition) easy”.

Andrew referred to “the orientation in Year 7 before the actual year started” as useful. “It calmed you down, and you (realised) it’s not that hard. They welcome you openly and freely, and then they get to know you and you start from there”. Moreover, Andrew noted that the success of the transition had a very positive influence on his academic motivation. “Well, first impressions last. If you see a teacher’s friendly, you know it is a caring environment. You know that if you work with this person, you’ll do your work well, so you can learn”. John also spoke of the settling effect of the teachers.

At the start, I was kind of scared of what teachers I would get, but as soon as I got in there, they were very welcoming and friendly - always smiling that whole day - which made everyone feel comfortable with what they were doing.

Matthew, John and Luke found it beneficial that their teachers “gradually introduced” them to the rigours of Year 8. According to Luke:

The last thing you want is to come to high school on your first day and be bombarded with all the Year 8 rules and how it works in Year 8. They started off easy going, basically like a Year 7 teacher and pretended it was just another day of primary school, and then gradually introduced more Year 8 rules, Year 8 ways of learning and Year 8 standard of work.

The result of this approach, added Luke, “was the ideal way of what Year 8 should be: just really easy going”. Matthew mentioned that “keeping the work at the same level, not increasing it too much, but not patronising us and talking down to us”, enabled teachers to create a smooth transition for the Year 8 students. He continued: “by taking time to get to know us and actually finding out what we’re like”, the teachers have certainly helped. “If your teachers don’t work with you, you can’t work either. If they don’t help you to make the transition smoothly, your work will go down”.

John viewed the transition as “easier than (he) thought.

On the first or second day, they (the teachers) played a game with everyone. You had to get up, say your name and something that you liked doing, and then the next person would have to say what he said and then it continued on like that so we got to know everybody and what they liked doing. This calmed me down, made me feel really comfortable and made me think, yeah, I’ve got good teachers.

5.6 Comparisons

5.6.1 Teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom

Year 8 teachers (focus group interviews) and students (key informant interviews, survey questionnaire) referred to service as an aspect of teacher leadership. Teachers noted that, in practice, service includes accommodating for students' "safety and well being", developing "different testing styles", modelling appropriate behaviours and offering support on a "technical level", through "discussion or through marking work". According to teachers and students, servant leadership also incorporates being motivated, enthusiastic and inspirational. Students regarded "modelling what to do" as an aspect of teachers' servant leadership. Students also indicated that "showing (students) what to do", "giving up time", "making work easier", "putting a lot of time and effort into helping students" and wanting boys to become servants themselves, principally by encouraging them "to help out more, to give more", are characteristics of service.

Teachers and students perceived authenticity to be a necessary part of teacher leadership. The respondents identified the need for teachers to "do what they say and say what they do". Furthermore, inextricably linked with authenticity is the notion of spirituality, in that a set of core values underpins teachers' words and actions. Teachers described authenticity as being "honest", "committed" and "consistent". In turn, they identified the core values as "respect", "the way you treat people", "caring for others", "justice" and being tolerant. Students, too, viewed authenticity as incorporating the core values of "respect", "honesty", "tolerance", "trust", "justice", fairness and "caring".

Teacher and student participants agreed that teacher leaders seek to transform students towards a clear vision. Moreover, they saw students' learning and behaviour, and how the classroom should operate, as components of that vision. Teachers indicated that they seek to transform students into "the best they can be", "useful members of society" and "independent" learners and thinkers. Their vision of the classroom is "to create harmony" and, ultimately, a place where "young men can work collaboratively". Similarly, teachers wish students to be "confident and successful", "responsible for their own actions", and able to make sensible decisions. Students noted that teachers seek to transform boys' learning and behaviour, by helping them to mature and to begin to take more responsibility for decision-making and problem solving. Students, like teachers, perceived as crucial to the vision of the classroom, the notion of "lots of happiness", where "everyone's included" and able to work together.

Empowerment was identified as part of teachers' leadership role. Furthermore, teachers and students agreed that the notion of "trust" is at the core of empowerment. Teachers referred to a need to provide "students with tools to become leaders". As examples of empowerment, they identified the "SRC", "group work" and "delegating jobs in the classroom". Each of these requires a "relinquishing of (teachers') power - and that takes trust". Students aligned empowerment with "being trusted" and "being given responsibility". They noted, too, that teachers empowered students "with morning jobs", "basic errands" and "SRC" roles.

The communal aspect of classroom leadership was also emphasised. Teachers identified, in particular, the support of, and collaboration with, their colleagues, both

the “people above” them and their organised teaching teams, as embodying communal leadership. Similarly, teachers referred to attempts to “broaden” the leadership base in the classroom, by organising “monitors” and “peer support”, and supporting the “SRC” and “the transition programme”. Students also highlighted the fact that teachers collaborate in teaching teams and try to involve students in the classroom community. They, too, recognised the role of the “SRC” and “monitors”, as well as “group work” and class discussions, as elements of teachers’ communal leadership. Table 5.7 summarises the comparisons and contrasts between teachers’ and students’ perceptions of the characteristics of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom.

Table 5.7

Summary: Comparisons and contrasts of teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings of teacher leadership (not in rank order)

Teachers	Students
<p>Service <i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modelling • Accommodating for students' safety and well being • Developing different testing styles • Offering technical support • Being motivated, enthusiastic and inspirational 	<p>Service <i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modelling • Showing students what to do • Simplifying work • Helping students • Encouraging servant hood • Being motivated, enthusiastic and inspirational
<p>Authenticity, inc. spirituality and shared values <i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'Walking the talk' • Honesty • Commitment • Consistency • Respect • Caring for others • Justice • Tolerance 	<p>Authenticity, inc. spirituality and shared values <i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'Walking the talk' • Respect • Honesty • Tolerance • Trust • Justice • Fairness • Caring for others
<p>Transformation, towards shared vision <i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A vision of students' learning and behaviour <p><i>By supporting students to be:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Their best • Useful members of society • Independent learners and thinkers • Confident, successful, responsible • Sensible decision-makers <p><i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A vision of the classroom <p><i>By promoting:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Harmony • Collaboration 	<p>Transformation, towards shared vision <i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A vision of students' learning and behaviour <p><i>By supporting students to be:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mature • Responsible • Decision-makers • Problem-solvers <p><i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A vision of the classroom <p><i>By:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promoting happiness • Working together • Being inclusive

Table 5.7 (Cont)

Summary: comparisons and contrasts of teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings of teacher leadership (not in rank order)

Teachers	Students
<p>Empowerment, based on trust</p> <p><i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relinquishing power • Allow students to become leaders <p><i>Through:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SRC • Group work • Delegating classroom jobs 	<p>Empowerment, based on trust</p> <p><i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being trusted • Being given responsibility <p><i>Through:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Morning jobs • Basic errands • SRC
<p>Community</p> <p><i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collaboration with colleagues • Support from 'above' <p><i>Through:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Team teaching 	<p>Community</p> <p><i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collaboration with colleagues <p><i>Through:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching teams
<p><i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collaboration with students <p><i>Through:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organising monitors • Peer support • SRC • Transition programme 	<p><i>Incorporates:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collaboration with students <p><i>Through:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitors • SRC • Group work • Class discussions

5.6.2 Teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation

Teachers (focus group interviews) and students (survey questionnaire, key informant interviews) agreed that various aspects of what they considered to be 'service' have a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. Teachers identified modelling and their own motivation, interest, enthusiasm and inspiration as examples

of service that positively influence boys' academic motivation. Students confirmed the positive influence that each of these has on their academic motivation. Fifty-one percent (20 students) who completed the survey questionnaire indicated that they want to learn because their teachers model what they want and expect. More than 43% of students (17 students) revealed that they want to learn because their teachers are interested and motivated. Over 46% (18 students) indicated that they want to learn because their teachers are enthusiastic. Fifty-six percent (22 students) specified that their teachers inspire them to want to learn. In the five interviews, students also drew attention to the positive influence that these aspects of teacher leadership have on their academic motivation. Finally, over 69% of students (27 students) viewed appreciation of the work teachers put in to preparing classes and assignments as having a positive influence on boys' academic motivation, at least to some extent.

Teacher and student respondents agreed that authentic leadership, including spirituality and shared values, is underpinned by the notion of "saying what you do, and doing what you say". Fifty-six percent of the surveyed students (22) saw the fact that "teachers always do what they say" as having a positive influence on their willingness to learn. The boys interviewed also identified this as influential.

Teachers and students noted that, in the classroom, authenticity, including spirituality and shared values, is evidenced by several relational qualities, which also have a positive impact on boys' willingness to learn. Teachers perceived respect, justice and tolerance to be influential relational qualities. More than 64% of the survey sample (25 students) identified respect as positively influencing their academic motivation. More than 69% (27 students) specified that tolerance has a positive

influence on their willingness to learn. Students in the key informant interviews also referred to the positive influence of respect and tolerance, as well as justice. Significantly, both teachers and students noted that respect, justice and tolerance are also examples of shared, core values that provide a necessary foundation for behaviour management.

Both teachers and students suggested that authenticity, including spirituality and shared values, could be extended to behaviour management practices. Moreover, particular behaviour management strategies are regarded as having a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. Teachers identified providing good examples of work, setting firm boundaries, consistently applying consequences and helping boys to develop personal responsibility for their behaviour as particular behaviour management strategies that positively influence boys' willingness to learn. The survey questionnaire indicated that more than 51% of the students (20) believed that teachers helping students to take personal responsibility for their behaviour has a positive influence on their willingness to learn. The students interviewed also regarded this as an influential aspect of teacher leadership. Student interviewees contended that when teachers set boundaries and consistently apply consequences, these actions have a positive influence on their academic motivation. Finally, some students remarked in their interviews that a teacher being strict positively influences their willingness to learn. However, only 33% (13 students) indicated in the survey questionnaire that 'strictness' is an influential aspect of teacher leadership.

Teacher and student respondents agreed that various elements of what they considered to be transformational leadership (towards a shared vision) have a positive

influence on academic motivation. Teachers contended that certain relational qualities and task specific aspects of leadership are influential. Relational qualities identified were an ability to look forward and competency. Task specific aspects of transformational leadership included making work challenging, developing intrinsic interest, applying extrinsic methods, incorporating learning and feeling, and incorporating learning and doing. The five key student informants also drew attention to the positive influence of each of these. Furthermore, the student questionnaire responses as a whole reinforced the notion that these aspects of teachers' transformational leadership have a positive influence on some boys' willingness to learn.

Fifty-three percent of survey respondents (21 students) identified the notion of teachers having a vision of what students can achieve as a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. Fifty-one percent (20 students) saw teachers' vision of the classroom and the school as a positive influence. Sixty-six percent (26 students) indicated that teachers' attempts to share their vision of the classroom have a positive influence on their willingness to learn. Over 76% of students (30) noted that teachers' attempts to share their vision of what students can learn, particularly in terms of knowledge and social and academic skills, have a positive influence on their academic motivation.

Approximately 74% of respondents (29 students) viewed being able to look forward as a positive influence, at least to some extent, on boys' academic motivation. Sixty-one percent (24 students) believed that competency is an influential aspect of teacher leadership, at least to some extent. Sixty-four percent (25 students) identified

making work intrinsically interesting as an influential aspect of teacher leadership, and 51% of students (20) noted the positive influence of rewards. Fifty-nine percent (23 students) viewed teachers making work challenging as having a positive influence on boys' willingness to learn. Over 79% (31 students) believed that the integration of learning and doing has a positive influence, at least to some extent, on boys' academic motivation. Finally, over 53% of students (21) identified the integration of learning and feeling as a positive influence.

Teachers and students agreed that the practice of 'empowerment, based on trust' incorporates several leadership characteristics that positively influence academic motivation. These are trust, delegating responsibility, adopting a constructivist approach to the curriculum, honesty and negotiation. Sixty-six percent of survey respondents (26 students) believed that trust from their teachers has a positive influence on their academic motivation. Fifty-nine percent (23 students) agreed that delegation of responsibility has a positive influence on their willingness to learn, at least to some extent. Similarly, 53% (21 students) identified encouragement to be a leader in the classroom as having a positive influence on boys' academic motivation, at least to some extent. Negotiation of classroom activities was viewed by 66% (26 students) as an influential aspect of teacher leadership. Similarly, 59% percent of students (23) believed that the ability to negotiate deadlines has some influence on their willingness to learn.

Students, like teachers, noted that particular aspects of teacher leaders' approach to the curriculum have a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. Fifty-nine percent of the survey sample (23 students) identified achieving curriculum

relevance as an influential aspect of teacher leadership. Seventy-one percent (28 students) indicated that a skill-based curriculum has a positive influence on their willingness to learn. Sixty-nine percent (27 students) agreed that a constructivist approach has a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. The five key student informants also referred to trust, delegating responsibility, adopting a constructivist approach to the curriculum, honesty and negotiation as influential.

Both teachers and students agreed that various aspects of what they considered communal leadership have a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. Teachers listed being communicative, caring, friendly and collaborative, and being able to create a good learning environment and a smooth transition into high school as aspects of communal leadership in the classroom that positively influence boys' willingness to learn. Fifty-nine percent of the survey sample (23 students) viewed teachers' ability to communicate as significant. Sixty-one percent (24 students) identified being caring as influential, at least to some extent. Further, friendliness was regarded by 51% of the sample (20 students) as influential. The five key student informants also spoke of the positive influence of communication, caring and friendliness.

The student respondents viewed teachers collaborating with other teachers as positive, with 53% of the survey sample (21 students) indicating that the statement, "I want to learn because my teachers work together to support my progress" describes them or strongly describes them. The key student informants also referred to this as an influential aspect of teacher leadership. Collaboration with other students can also positively influence boys' academic motivation, at least to some extent. Students

listed belonging in the classroom community (43%), belonging in the school community (51%), and encouragement to share in classroom decision-making (61%) as influential. Again, comments from the key student informants reinforced the notion that collaboration with other students has a positive influence on boys' willingness to learn.

Finally, 86% of the student sample (34) agreed that the creation of a safe, friendly and supportive learning environment and a smooth transition into high school have a positive influence on boys' academic motivation, at least to some extent. The key student informants also identified a supportive learning environment and a smooth high school transition as influential. Table 5.8 summarises the comparisons and contrasts between teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school.

Table 5.8

Summary: comparisons and contrasts between teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation (not in rank order)

Teachers	Students
Service (aspect of teacher leadership) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modelling • Motivation • Interest • Enthusiasm • Inspiration 	Service (aspect of teacher leadership: mode 5-7) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modelling • Interest and motivation • Enthusiasm • Inspiration • Preparation of classes/ assignments
Authenticity, incl. spirituality and shared values <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "Saying what you do, and doing what you say" • Respect • Justice • Tolerance • Behaviour management strategies • Examples of good work • Setting firm boundaries • Consistently applying consequences • Encouraging personal responsibility 	Authenticity, inc. spirituality and shared values <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers doing what they say • Respect • Justice • Tolerance • Behaviour management strategies • Encouraging personal responsibility for behaviour • Setting firm boundaries • Consistently applying consequences • Strictness
Transformation towards shared vision <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Looking forward • Competency • Making work challenging • Developing intrinsic interest • Applying extrinsic methods • Incorporating learning/ feeling • Incorporating learning/ doing 	Transformation towards shared vision <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Looking forward • Competency • Challenging work • Intrinsic interest • Rewards • Integrating learning/ feeling • Integrating learning/ doing • Vision of achievement • Vision of the classroom/ school • Sharing a classroom vision • Sharing a student vision

Note N = 39

Mode 1: Does not describe at all 2: does not describe 3: Does not describe to some extent 4: Uncertain 5: Describes to some extent 6: Describes 7: Strongly describes

Table 5.8 (Cont)

Summary: comparisons and contrasts between teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation (not in rank order)

Teachers	Students
<p>Empowerment, based on trust (aspect of teacher leadership)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trust • Honesty • Delegating responsibility • Negotiating work expectations • Negotiating deadlines • Constructivism 	<p>Empowerment, based on trust (aspect of teacher leadership: mode 5-7)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trust • Honesty • Delegation • Encouraging leadership • Negotiation • Negotiation- deadlines • Curriculum relevance • Skill based curriculum • Constructivism
<p>Community</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication • Caring • Friendliness • Collaborating (teachers) • Collaborating (students) • Creating a good learning environment • Creating a smooth transition 	<p>Community</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication • Caring • Friendliness • Collaborating (teachers) • Collaborating (students) • Belonging in the classroom • Belonging in the school • Sharing decision-making • Safe, friendly and supportive environment • Smooth high school transition

Note N = 39

Mode 1: Does not describe at all 2: does not describe 3: Does not describe to some extent 4: Uncertain 5: Describes to some extent 6: Describes 7: Strongly describes

5.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, teachers' and students' perceptions and understandings of teacher leadership and its relationship to boys' academic motivation in the case study

school were analysed in order to present the initial findings of the research. Subsequently, these findings were compared and contrasted, to highlight specific themes and issues relating to teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom, and its relationship to boys' academic motivation. These themes and issues, together with the literature reviewed in Chapter 3, provide the basis to answer the three research questions in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6

REVIEW AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Purpose of the Research

The purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school. Underpinning this purpose are the assumptions that the classroom is an organisation (Cheng, 1994), all teachers are leaders in the classroom, and that part of their leadership is to positively influence boys' academic motivation.

6.2 Research Design

The methodology underpinning the research was case study. The chosen school was Christian Brothers College, Adelaide, which was researched in order to better understand the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom.

Data collection methods used in the case study included:

- a) Focus group interviews with eight members of the Year 8 'core' teaching team on issues pertaining to teacher leadership in the classroom and how this positively influences boys' academic motivation.
- b) A survey questionnaire about academic motivation, distributed to thirty-nine specially identified Year 8 students.
- c) Interviews with five key Year 8 student informants.

Two focus group interviews were conducted with eight members of the Year 8 ‘core’ teaching team, who teach the Year 8 Home Rooms in ‘blocks’ of time. The focus group interviews generated teachers’ self perceptions of leadership in the classroom, and its relationship to academic motivation. During the focus group interviews, teachers developed a shared understanding of what boys’ academic motivation ‘looks like’ in the classroom and, based on this understanding, identified students who demonstrated, or appeared to possess, academic motivation. This resulted in a group of specifically identified Year 8 students, who were then invited to complete a survey questionnaire. Within this group, staff also highlighted five particular students, one in each Year 8 class, whom they considered to be the most highly motivated in the Year level. The survey questionnaire and key informant interviews created students’ perceptions and understandings of their teachers’ classroom leadership and its subsequent influence on students’ willingness to learn. For convenience, the survey questionnaire was “group administered” (Lavery, 2003, p.88). Teacher and student participants were all volunteers.

Data were analysed using a “general analytic strategy” (Yin, 1994, p.102). This entailed following the three theoretical propositions that underpinned the study which, in turn, gave the study its purpose, shaped the data collection methods and identified elements of the data that were relevant (Yin, 1994). The first theoretical proposition is that the classroom is a small organisation (Cheng, 1994). The second is that all teachers are leaders in their respective classrooms. The third follows: teacher leaders are responsible, at least in some way, for positively influencing their students’ academic motivation. This course of action is illustrated in Figure 4.1. The researcher then adopted a method of “successive approximation” (Neuman, 1997,

p.427), which involved “repeated iterations or cycling through steps, moving toward a final analysis” (Neuman, 1997, p.427). The initial concept, or “general idea” (Neuman, 1997, p.428), of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom, provided five categories and various influential aspects of teacher leadership. This concept was subsequently modified over the course of four cycles, namely focus group interviews with Year 8 teachers, the student survey questionnaire, the key informant interviews and, finally, a comparison of teachers’ and students’ perceptions. Each time, the concept was refined to better reflect the evidence, until theory and evidence were more closely aligned (Figure 4.2).

6.3 Research Questions Answered

The research question comprised three related parts. What do Year 8 teachers and students understand by the concept of teacher leadership in the classroom? How do Year 8 teachers, in their role as classroom leaders, positively influence boys’ academic motivation? And what aspects of teacher leadership influence boys’ academic motivation?

Since the study attempted to explore and understand the lived experience of leadership and academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school of those who know it best - the Year 8 teachers and students, the research was interpretivist, and symbolic interactionism was an appropriate theoretical perspective to adopt. Focus group and key informant interviews “represent opportunities for the researcher to witness and record the interactions and interpretations individuals make to the research questions both as individuals and in a group setting” (Hard, 2002,

p.11) and, as a result, they are considered ideal for “studies that utilise a symbolic interactionist framework” (p.11). Thus, the phenomenon of psychological re-enactment (Schwandt, 1994), facilitated through a symbolic interactionist approach, enabled the researcher to understand and present how leadership and its impact on academic motivation were enacted and perceived by those directly involved. The three parts of the research question are now addressed.

6.3.1 What do Year 8 teachers and students understand by the concept of teacher leadership in the classroom?

Year 8 teachers and students at Christian Brothers College identified service as an aspect of teacher leadership in the classroom. Teachers noted that, in practice, service involved accommodating for students’ safety and well being, developing different testing styles and offering support on a technical level, through discussion or through marking work. Students indicated that showing them what to do, giving up time, making work easier, and putting a lot of time and effort into helping them, were characteristics of service. Further, they identified that teachers’ desire for boys to become servants themselves, principally by encouraging them to help out more, to give more, was also a feature of service. Teachers and students believed that servant leadership in the classroom required teachers to be motivated, enthusiastic and inspirational. Furthermore, servant leadership incorporated modelling appropriate behaviours and modelling what to do.

Teachers and students illustrated that authenticity is a necessary part of teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom. Teachers and students identified a need for teachers to ‘do what they say and say what they do’. Furthermore, inextricably linked with authenticity was the notion of spirituality, in that a set of core values

underpinned teachers' words and actions. Teachers and students described authenticity as being honest, committed and consistent. In turn, they identified the core values as respect, the way you treat people, caring for others, justice, fairness and tolerance.

Teachers and students highlighted that teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom incorporated a desire to transform students towards a clear vision, both immediate and long-term. Crucial components of the classroom leader's immediate vision were the manner in which the classroom should function and students' learning and behaviour. Such a vision involved creating harmony, happiness and, ultimately, a place where young men can work collaboratively. Teachers' long-term vision entailed supporting students to become useful members of society, confident, successful, and independent learners, thinkers and decision-makers.

There was strong agreement amongst teachers and students that empowerment was as an element of teachers' classroom leadership. Furthermore, teachers and students agreed that the notion of trust was at the core of empowerment. Teachers referred to a need to relinquish power, which required trust, and to provide students with tools to become leaders. Students aligned empowerment with being trusted and being given responsibility. Both identified the SRC, group work and delegating jobs in the classroom as practical examples of empowerment.

Finally, the communal aspect of classroom leadership was emphasised. Year 8 teachers and students identified, in particular, the notions of teachers collaborating with their colleagues, both the people above them and their organised teaching teams,

and encouraging collaboration with students, as characteristics of communal classroom leadership. Teachers and students believed that communal classroom leadership involved broadening the leadership base in the classroom, by organising monitors and peer support, and supporting the SRC and the transition programme.

6.3.2 How do Year 8 teachers, in their role as classroom leaders, positively influence boys' academic motivation?

Year 8 teachers and students at Christian Brothers College indicated that teacher leaders positively influence boys' academic motivation by enacting each, and all, of the five categories of classroom leadership. For instance, certain aspects of servant leadership were viewed as positively influencing boys' willingness to learn. Specifically, teachers positively influence boys' academic motivation when they model expectations and how to complete work, spend time preparing classes and assignments, and exhibit high levels of motivation, interest, enthusiasm and inspiration.

Similarly, there was strong belief that aspects of authentic leadership (including spirituality and shared values), positively influence boys' academic motivation. Most notable, was the notion of teachers 'saying what they do, and doing what they say', which was regarded by teachers and students as a positive influence on boys' willingness to learn. Furthermore, when teachers strengthen classroom relationships with students by being respectful, just and tolerant, they positively influence boys' academic motivation. Respect, justice and tolerance were also cited as examples of shared, core values that provide a necessary foundation for behaviour management. To this end it was asserted, that by adopting particular behaviour management strategies, teachers positively influence boys' willingness to learn. Such

strategies included providing examples of good work, setting firm boundaries, consistently applying consequences and helping boys to develop personal responsibility for their behaviour. Lastly, some boys mentioned that strict teachers positively influence their willingness to learn.

Various elements of what teachers and students considered to be transformational leadership (towards a shared vision) were regarded as having a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. First and foremost, was the assertion that teachers sharing their vision of the classroom, has a positive influence on boys' willingness to learn. Similarly, teachers' attempts to share their vision of what students can learn, particularly in terms of knowledge and social and academic skills, were viewed as having a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. Again, the importance of teachers looking to strengthen relationships was emphasised. Thus, teachers regarded as competent and able to look forward, positively influence boys' willingness to learn. Likewise, several task specific strategies were identified as positively influencing boys' academic motivation. Therefore, when teachers make work challenging, develop intrinsic interest, apply extrinsic methods, incorporate learning and feeling, and incorporate learning and doing, they positively influence boys' willingness to learn.

Teachers and students agreed that the practice of 'empowerment, based on trust' incorporated several leadership characteristics that positively influence academic motivation. Teachers regarded as trusting, trustworthy and honest, positively influence boys' willingness to learn. So do those who are perceived to delegate responsibility, negotiate deadlines and negotiate classroom activities.

Furthermore, teachers who take appropriate approaches to the curriculum, also positively influence boys' intrinsic motivation. Such approaches were identified as achieving relevance, focusing on skills, and adopting a constructivist method in the classroom.

Several aspects of communal leadership, both relational and task specific, also have a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. Teachers who are communicative, caring, supportive, friendly, encouraging of shared decision-making and collaborative, simultaneously strengthen classroom relationships and positively influence boys' willingness to learn. Further, when teachers help students to feel that they belong in the classroom and wider school communities, generate a good learning environment and create a smooth transition into high school, they positively influence boys' academic motivation.

6.3.3 What aspects of teacher leadership influence boys' academic motivation?

Year 8 teachers and students at Christian Brothers College identified five characteristics of classroom leadership, namely service, authenticity (including spirituality and shared values), transformation (towards a shared vision), empowerment (based on trust) and community (answer to Research Question 1). Several aspects of each of these leadership characteristics were viewed as positively influencing boys' academic motivation (answer to Research Question 2). Furthermore, in light of the four implications that emanated from the Chapter 1 definitions that provided a sound basis for understanding and discussing leadership in this study, it is also possible to categorise aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys' academic motivation into two categories. These are: relational aspects of

teacher leadership (implication 3), and task specific aspects of teacher leadership (implication 4). Thus, aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys' academic motivation are presented as a set of relational qualities that teacher leaders spend time developing and sustaining (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Wilcox, 1997), and a set of actions that teacher leaders instigate to help the class complete its tasks (Wilcox, 1997). (Table. 6.1)

Table 6.1 Aspects of teacher leadership that influence boys' academic motivation

Teacher leaders can strengthen relationships by being.....	Teacher leaders can help boys to complete tasks by...
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivated • Interested • Enthusiastic • Inspirational • Able to 'walk the talk' • Respectful • Just • Tolerant • Competent • Forward looking • Trusting • Trustworthy • Honest • Communicative • Supportive • Friendly • Encouraging of shared decision-making • Collaborative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modelling (expectations/ how to work) • Preparing work/ assignments • Providing examples of good work • Setting firm boundaries • Consistently applying consequences • Developing student personal responsibility for behaviour • Sharing a vision (classroom/ learning) • Making work challenging • Developing intrinsic interest • Applying extrinsic methods • Incorporating learning/ feeling/ doing • Achieving curriculum relevance • Focusing on skills • Adopting a constructivist curr. approach • Engendering feelings of belonging (class/school) • Generating a good learning environment • Creating a smooth high school transition

6.4 Conclusions

It is anticipated that this research has contributed to scholarly debate about the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom, which was perceived to be a lacuna in the literature pertaining to these phenomena. Nonetheless, certain findings in this study support previous research on

teacher leadership and motivation. For instance, teachers and students at Christian Brothers College (CBC) identified service, authenticity (including spirituality and shared values), transformation (towards a shared vision), empowerment (based on trust) and community as component of teachers' classroom leadership.

Service (Benjamin, 2002; McLaughlin, 2001), authenticity (Duignan, 2002), spirituality (Duignan, 1997; McLaughlin, 2001), transformation (Kelly, 2002; McLaughlin, 2001; Treston, 1998) and community (Benjamin, 2002; Congregation for Catholic Education, 1998; Duignan, 1998) were all listed as key features of Catholic school leadership. Furthermore, service, authenticity (spirituality and shared values), transformation (shared vision), empowerment (trust) and community were identified as facets of Jesus' model of leadership and Christian leadership (Benjamin, 2002; Cieslak, 2003; Heisler, 2003; Mark 10:44; Sofield & Juliano, 1995; Sofield & Kuhn, 1995; Terry, 1993; Treston, 1994).

Literature on organisational leadership drew attention to the concepts of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977; Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and authenticity (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Terry, 1993). Each of these was also an aspect of teacher leadership (Crowther, 1996; Guisinger, 2002; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Wilcox, 1997). The importance of developing shared values and a shared vision, and the notion of transformational leadership, were emphasised in literature on teacher leadership (Crowther, 1996; Guisinger, 2002; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Wilcox, 1997) and organisational leadership (Bass, 1997; Dubrin & Dalglish, 2003; Duignan, 1997; Greenleaf, 1997; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Treston, 1994). Further, empowerment (Bradford & Cohen, 1998; Greenleaf, 1977; Kouzes & Posner, 2002),

trust (Crowther, 1996; Houser & Frymier, 2000; Younger & Warrington, 1999; Shaw, 1997; Kouzes & Posner, 2002) and community (Crowther, 1996; Crowther et al, 2002; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Sofield & Juliano, 1995) were facets of teacher and organisational leadership.

The research highlighted certain aspects of teachers' classroom leadership that positively influence boys' academic motivation. These aspects of teacher leadership, generally, replicated earlier findings in boys' education, teacher leadership and motivation literature about the teacher qualities and teaching strategies that affect boys' willingness to learn.

The positive influence of teachers' motivation, enthusiasm, interest, caring attitude, respect, justice, tolerance, friendliness and inspiration, for example, was already implicit in the literature (Atkinson, 2000; Biddulph, 1995; Crowther, 1996; Patrick et al, 2000; Houser & Frymier, 2000; Younger & Warrington, 1999). Similarly, leadership qualities such as competence, modelling, communication skills, an ability to look forward, trustworthiness, collaboration and honesty were linked to successful group leadership and, therefore, the strengthening of relationships and the completion of tasks (Crowther, 1996; Guisinger, 2002; Houser & Frymier, 2000; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Wilcox, 1997). Further, the influence of behaviour management approaches on students' motivation, including extrinsic methods (Hanson, 1998; Samson & Challis, 1999; Scherer, 1999), the importance of developing intrinsic interest in a topic (Deci et al, 2001), and the creation of a good classroom environment (Wentzel, 1997), were established in the literature.

The literature also highlighted the positive influence of active learning (Kerssen-Griep, 2001; Vallance, 2002), the incorporation of learning and feeling (Goleman, 1996), a constructivist approach in the classroom (Fullan, 1993; Groome, 1998; Rinne, 1998), challenging work (Scherer, 1999) and a skills focus (Scherer, 1999), on academic motivation. Finally, the research highlighted the significant impact of a smooth high school transition on academic motivation, which replicated earlier studies (Eccles & Midgely, 1989; Maehr & Midgely, 1991; Simmons & Blyth, 1987).

As stated at the beginning of this section, the research findings also help to address a perceived gap in the literature on teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation. In so doing, the research contributes four previously understudied ideas to scholarly debate. The research:

1. introduces a notion of classroom leadership, pertaining, particularly, to the Catholic classroom. Year 8 teachers and students at CBC believed that teachers regularly exercise leadership in the classroom. Moreover, they identified service, authenticity (including spirituality and shared values), transformation (towards a shared vision), empowerment (based on trust) and community as component of teachers' classroom leadership. While each of these is referred to as a facet of Catholic school leadership per se (Benjamin, 2002; Congregation for Catholic Education, 1998; Duignan, 2002, 1998, 1997; Kelly, 2002; McLaughlin, 2001; Treston, 1998), none is apparently evident in literature on classroom leadership;
2. highlights practical ways in which the five components of classroom leadership are enacted and embodied by teachers in the Year 8 classroom;

3. explores their subsequent influence on boys' academic motivation; and
4. presents a framework for understanding and discussing the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school.

The research, then, promotes a notion that service is a component of teachers' classroom leadership. "The Catholic leader is one who ministers to others in a spirit of service, draws inspiration and strength from Christ, is able to share that inspiration with colleagues and draw them into active cooperation" (Benjamin, 2002, p.82). Thus, teachers enact service by modelling expectations, preparing work and assignments, accommodating for students' safety and well being, developing different testing styles, offering support on a technical level, giving up time, making work easier and wanting boys to become servants themselves, principally by encouraging them to help out more. Teachers embody service by being motivated, enthusiastic and inspirational. In turn, certain practical aspects of servant leadership positively influence boys' willingness to learn. Specifically, teachers positively influence boys' academic motivation when they model expectations and how to complete work, spend time preparing classes and assignments, and exhibit high levels of motivation, interest, enthusiasm and inspiration.

Classroom leadership also incorporates authenticity (including spirituality and shared values) which, ultimately, involves teachers 'doing what they say and saying what they do'. As Terry (1993) noted, authentic leaders need "to be true and real to themselves, and in the world" (p.151). Teachers embody authenticity by being honest and committed. They enact authenticity by being consistent. Further, they adhere to,

and share, the core values of respect, the way you treat people, caring for others, justice, fairness and tolerance, which are crucial facets of spiritual leadership (Duignan, 1997). Several aspects of teachers' authentic leadership positively influence boys' academic motivation. The most obvious is the notion of teachers 'saying what they do, and doing what they say'. Similarly, when teachers strengthen classroom relationships with students by being respectful, just and tolerant, they positively influence boys' academic motivation. The adoption of particular behaviour management strategies also provides a means for teachers to positively influence boys' willingness to learn. Such strategies include showing examples of good work, setting firm boundaries, consistently applying consequences and helping boys to develop personal responsibility for their behaviour.

Classroom teachers are also transformational leaders. Moreover, they seek to transform their students towards a shared vision, both immediate and long-term. Mulligan (1994) argued that "to be the conduit of the Church's social teaching, to propose a critical education with the purpose of transforming society - is...(a) credible *raison d'être* for Catholic education" (p.78). This broad mission is encapsulated in teachers' long-term vision, which entails supporting students to become useful members of society, confident, successful, and independent learners, thinkers and decision-makers. Nonetheless, teachers need also to have short term goals, for as Kouzes and Posner (2002) pointed out, leaders "have to make a change in 'business as usual'" (p.194). Crucial components of the classroom leader's immediate vision are the manner in which the classroom should function and students' learning and behaviour. Such a vision involves creating harmony, happiness and, ultimately, a place where young men can work collaboratively. Year 8 teachers and students at

CBC asserted that teachers sharing their vision of the classroom has a positive influence on boys' willingness to learn. Similarly, teachers' attempts to share their vision of what students can learn, particularly in terms of knowledge and social and academic skills, has a positive influence on boys' academic motivation. Again, the importance of teachers looking to strengthen relationships was emphasised. Thus, teachers who are competent and forward looking, positively influence boys' willingness to learn. Likewise, several task specific strategies positively influence boys' academic motivation, namely making work challenging, developing intrinsic interest, applying extrinsic methods, incorporating learning and feeling, and incorporating learning and doing.

Teachers' classroom leadership involves empowerment; at the core of which, is the notion of trust (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Empowerment requires teachers to relinquish power and to provide students with tools to become leaders. Practical ways that teachers can empower students in the classroom are involving the SRC, organising group work and delegating jobs. The practice of 'empowerment, based on trust' incorporates several leadership characteristics that positively influence boys' academic motivation. Teachers who are trusting, trustworthy and honest, positively influence boys' willingness to learn. So do those who are perceived to delegate responsibility, negotiate deadlines and negotiate classroom activities. Furthermore, teachers who take appropriate approaches to the curriculum, also positively influence boys' intrinsic motivation. Such approaches are achieving relevance, focusing on skills, and adopting a constructivist method in the classroom.

Finally, classroom leadership is communal, which is a “dimension (that) should be fostered” (Congregation for Catholic Education, 1998, par.20) above all else. Teachers enact communal leadership by helping students to feel that they belong in the classroom and wider school communities, generating a good learning environment and creating a smooth transition into high school. These aspects of communal leadership also positively influence boys’ academic motivation. Communal leadership is embodied by being communicative, caring, supportive, friendly, collaborative and encouraging of shared decision-making which, in addition, simultaneously strengthen classroom relationships and positively influence boys’ willingness to learn.

Since this research focused on the relationship between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school, it is now possible to present a framework for understanding and discussing this relationship. The framework also provides a means to address how a teacher leader can make *magic* in the classroom, so as to inspire a boy to want to learn.

6.5 Making “Magic” in the Year 8 Classroom

A significant portion of the motivation for this research was to find out how teacher leaders can make magic in the Year 8 classroom, so that they can inspire boys to want to learn. In light of this motivation, and as a result of this exploration of the relationship between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation, the framework that follows (Table 6.2) is presented as an answer to this question, with specific reference to the case study school, CBC.

The assertion is threefold.

- (a) Teacher leadership in the Year 8 classroom at a Catholic school is categorised by five components: service, authenticity (including spirituality and shared values), transformation (towards a shared vision), empowerment (based on trust) and community.
- (b) Each component involves an array of qualities that help teacher leaders strengthen relationships in the classroom (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Wilcox, 1997), and a set of actions that enable teacher leaders to help boys complete classroom tasks (Wilcox, 1997).
- (c) By adhering to the framework, teacher leaders can make magic in the Year 8 classroom.

Table 6.2 outlines the relationship between teacher leadership and boys’ academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom and, thus, offers teacher leaders a means to make magic.

Table 6.2 The relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom (from the research)

Classroom leadership is categorised by...	Teacher leaders can strengthen relationships by being...	Teacher leaders can help boys to complete tasks by...
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Service 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivated • Interested • Enthusiastic • Inspirational 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modelling (expectations/ how to work) • Preparing work/ assignments
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authenticity, inc. spirituality and shared values 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Able to 'walk the talk' • Respectful • Just • Tolerant 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing examples of good work • Setting firm boundaries • Consistently applying consequences • Developing student personal responsibility for behaviour
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transformation towards a shared vision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competent • Forward looking 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sharing a vision (classroom/ learning) • Making work challenging • Developing intrinsic interest • Applying extrinsic methods • Incorporating learning/ feeling/ doing
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empowerment, based on trust 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trusting • Trustworthy • Honest 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achieving curriculum relevance • Focusing on skills • Adopting a constructivist curr. approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicative • Supportive • Friendly • Encouraging of shared decision-making • Collaborative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engendering feelings of belonging (class/school) • Generating a good learning environment • Creating a smooth high school transition

6.6 Strengths, Weaknesses and Validity of the Framework

The research presents a framework for understanding and discussing the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom. Given the three assumptions underpinning the research, namely that the classroom is an organisation (Cheng, 1994), all teachers are leaders in the classroom, and that part of their leadership is to positively influence boys' academic motivation, an obvious strength of the framework is its practical utility, in that it can be used to develop strategies for good classroom leadership.

That being said, however, the framework also has inherent weaknesses. The first, ironically, is its reliance on the assumptions that classroom teaching is, in fact, organisational leadership and, furthermore, that there is a link between leadership and boys' academic motivation. These assumptions drive the research and help to shape the data produced. Yet, it remains possible that classroom teaching is not really leadership and, therefore, that there is no relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom. If this is indeed the case, the framework presented is completely invalid. Nonetheless, even adhering to the researcher's 'strategic choice' in order to advance scholarly debate about teacher leadership, comments in the study, together with the value of the standard deviation in certain instances, indicated that, at least for some of the participants, academic motivation was largely independent of teachers' leadership. Such comments included: "teachers don't interest me at all"; "my teachers' work ethic does not affect me"; "my teacher doesn't inspire me"; "they could be more interested"; and "even if the teacher was not there supporting (me), (I) would still put (my) work before any other influences".

Similarly, the original list of forty-one students represents only 27.33% of the Year 8 cohort. An obvious question is, what is happening to the other 72.67% of students, who experience the same classroom leadership? It is clear, then, that the framework does not extend to all Year 8 students at the case study school and, therefore, is not a blueprint for successful classroom leadership. Moreover, given the references in the survey questionnaire and key informant interviews to little, if any, link between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation, the framework is valid for only *some* of the Year 8 student participants.

A further weakness of the framework lies in its emphasis on transformational, rather than transactional, leadership. The discussion of transformational leadership in Chapter 3 highlighted that most leaders portray "a range of leadership that includes both transformational and transactional factors. However, those we call transformational do much more of the transformational than the transactional" (Bass & Stedlmeier, 1998, p.3). To this end, the framework implies that, at the case study school, teachers are more like transformational leaders than they are transactional leaders. Conversely, given that transactional leadership includes contingent reinforcement, in which "followers are motivated by the leaders' promises, praise and reward. Or, they are corrected by negative feedback, reproof, threats, or disciplinary actions" (Bass & Stedlmeier, 1998, p.2), it is also possible to present a claim that, based on the research, teachers do more of the transactional than the transformational. Because of the different standpoints, the validity of the framework is problematic.

Thus, the framework is not presented as the answer to the teacher leadership debate, nor as a panacea for the problems associated with boys' education outlined in

Chapter 2. Instead it provides, at best, a starting point for further research into the relationship between teacher leadership and boys' academic motivation in the Year 8 classroom.

6.7 Implications for the Profession

This research has implications for other researchers, universities, the teaching profession, particularly Catholic schools and teachers and, of course, for Christian Brothers College. Each of these areas is now addressed.

6.7.1 Implications for other researchers

This study has implications for other researchers interested in exploring the notions of teacher leadership in the classroom and/or boys' academic motivation. It may be that future research will address only teachers' classroom leadership or ways of positively influencing boys' academic motivation, without necessarily exploring the relationship between the two phenomena. Because of the prevalence of these topics in scholarly debate, such research would be useful.

However, if other researchers target the relationship between teacher leadership and academic motivation, the following variations may also prove to be constructive attempts to broaden the literature base. Since this research is situated in only one Catholic school, other researchers may seek to expand the results by focusing on a larger cross-section of schools, perhaps even by including schools from a variety of contexts: Catholic, state and Independent. Similarly, they may wish to focus their investigations on other Year levels in schools. Furthermore, it may be interesting to investigate whether the leadership approaches emanating from this

particular study will be equally effective with girls. Hence, there is an opportunity for future comparative studies. Finally, other researchers may seek to adopt different epistemologies, methodologies and data collection methods, in their attempts to further advance scholarly understanding of the relationship between teachers' classroom leadership and academic motivation.

6.7.2 Implications for universities

In light of the fact that universities are responsible for teacher training and development, this research has some key implications for Tertiary Education Faculties and Schools. The notion of classroom teachers as leaders suggests that teachers in pre-service university courses would benefit greatly from exposure to theories of educational leadership and management. Leadership theories provide identifiable frameworks, which help to clarify and direct the role of classroom teacher. Moreover, if teachers are leaders, then surely they need opportunities to develop their leadership, both in theory and practice. Thus, units on leadership and management should be integral components of pre-service teacher formation, and not just targeted at graduate teachers, who may be seeking formal leadership positions.

Just as significantly, this research highlights the positive impact of relationships in education. Students and teachers at CBC reinforced a notion that much of the learning that takes place in the classroom is relational (Otero, 2000). Although the assertion that boys learn teachers, not subjects (Biddulph, 1995) is a simplistic generalisation, this study drew attention to the positive influence of teachers' relational qualities. Given, then, that an ability to nurture group relationships is a necessary part of leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Wilcox, 1997)

– and, therefore, of teaching – it follows that pre-service teacher training should address relationship building. As a result, the inclusion in teacher training courses of specific units that address the significance of relationships in classrooms, and provide teachers with opportunities to recognise, develop and nurture fundamental relational qualities, seems logical.

6.7.3 Implications for the profession: Catholic schools

All Catholic school Principals and Deputies are aware of, and seek to encapsulate in their leadership, key characteristics of Catholic school leadership. For instance, all Principals and Deputies are initially required to address many of these key characteristics in their applications and, subsequently, their progress as Principals and/or Deputies is measured largely against their ability to enact these leadership characteristics. In South Australia, Principals and Deputies are required to be effective religious leaders, educational leaders, community leaders and administrative leaders. These are, of course, essential aspects of Catholic school leadership and, as such, it is not surprising that they are demanded from formally appointed leaders.

However, given that the Catholic school’s “fundamental duty to evangelise” (Congregation for Catholic Education, 1998, par.3) rests largely with teachers (Congregation for Catholic Education, 1998), responsibility for Catholic school leadership is not solely the domain of Principals and Deputy Principals. Hopefully, this research will help to reinforce this understanding, and offer Catholic schools a model of classroom leadership that will facilitate shared, school-wide responsibility for the fulfilment of their primary duty.

6.7.4 Implications for the profession: teachers

As well as the presumed benefits that this research will offer Catholic school teachers, it is anticipated that it will also have implications for all teachers. Firstly, the research reinforces that classroom teaching is, actually, leadership. Secondly, it provides a model of leadership for teachers to follow. Thirdly, the research offers some practical ways that leadership can be embodied and enacted in the classroom. And finally, since successful boys' education remains an issue of conjecture (Commonwealth Government, 2003), the research offers some strategies that teachers can implement in order to positively influence boys' willingness to learn.

6.7.5 Implications for the case study school, CBC

Given that CBC teachers and students facilitated this study, there are obvious implications for the school, its teachers and students. The most exciting, as far as I am concerned, is that Year 8 teachers recognise that the work they are doing in classrooms is really leadership and, moreover, that classroom leadership is exercised to the extent that students, too, acknowledge it as such. I find myself reminded of Crowther's (1996) assertion that only *some* teachers are leaders and, what is more, that some teachers *themselves* may not be aware that the work they are doing is actually leadership. This research offers a framework for CBC teachers to discuss and understand the notion of classroom leadership and, ultimately, a means to ensure that all CBC teachers see themselves as leaders.

There are also implications for the middle schooling project at CBC, given that Year 8 is the first year of the Secondary Middle School. The value that teachers and students obviously place on developing relationships in the classroom, together

with their subsequent positive influence on boys' academic motivation, reinforces the wisdom of the decision in 2000 to implement middle schooling, with an emphasis on building relationships. The changes in 2000 included the adoption of a block timetable, with core teachers becoming responsible for combinations of two or three subjects, and an implicit vision of boys' education, underpinned by a belief that teaching and learning are most effective when they are conducted within a strong, authentic relationship between teacher and student. This study lends support to this theory. Moreover, findings highlight that Year 8 teachers have successfully enacted this vision. In addition, the results emphasised the positive influence of rewards on boys' academic motivation. In 2001, Secondary Middle School teachers developed and implemented a Positive Behaviour Management Policy. It seems that this, too, has been effective. Nonetheless, this study may also encourage CBC teachers to actively seek ways of complementing their Policy.

As a boys' school with 127 years of tradition, CBC prides itself on leading the way in the education of boys. This research presents a list of actions that teacher leaders can take in the classroom to help boys complete tasks. This list provides discussion ideas and, possibly, suggestions for future professional development. The area of curriculum, for instance, is an avenue for such development. This might include looking at ways that teacher leaders can make the curriculum more relevant and skill-based, and exploring the notion of constructivism in the classroom.

Lastly, this research may support students' learning, by giving Year 8 voice. Through their survey questionnaire responses and key informant interviews, CBC students have made teachers aware of the strategies and qualities that positively

influence boys' academic motivation in the classroom. While the resultant framework is not a guaranteed blueprint for success, it does offer teachers an insight into the world of the Year 8 student. Hopefully, CBC teachers will be encouraged to refine and develop their practices, in light of this research.

6.8 Addendum

This research has already benefited CBC, in that the school was awarded a Stage 2 Boys' Education Lighthouse Schools (BELS) grant of \$80 000 to support boys' education, both at CBC and in four partner schools. The hypothesis that led to the grant was that five particular pedagogies: structured teaching (modelling); the incorporation of praise and positive reinforcement; a differentiated curriculum; formal and informal cooperative learning strategies; and team teaching, positively influence boys' academic motivation. The theoretical underpinnings of each of these strategies emanated from the current research. Moreover, the eight teachers who were involved in the research now lead the professional development of teachers at CBC, and in each partner school. It is gratifying to see the school recognised for its contribution to boys' education. More importantly, however, the BELS project has provided an avenue for the eight teachers who brought their expertise and experience to this study, to further explore and enhance their leadership, both within, and beyond, the classroom.

The research may yet provide a further benefit for CBC. The Principal has a wonderful vision of developing an external studies unit at CBC, which offers specific units for pre-service and graduate level teachers. The units will form part of universities' BEd, Dip Ed and MEd courses, but will be offered on site at the CBC

external studies unit. Two of the units proposed address teachers' classroom leadership and specific strategies that teachers can use to teach boys. Given the scholarly debate about these topics, the units would be particularly useful for classroom practitioners. When CBC applied for Stage 2 BELS funding, developing the external studies unit was a high priority, especially since it was viewed as offering long term benefits to boys' education. Dr Brendan Nelson, the current Federal Minister for Science, Education and Training, also saw merit in the idea. He visited CBC in May 2004, and presented the Principal with the BELS grant.

The project conveners, however, considered the development of the external studies unit to be outside the scope of Stage 2 of the BELS project, thus this aspect of the proposal has never eventuated. Nonetheless, to get so close to being part of a significant new initiative for CBC was exciting for the Principal, and also for me. Perhaps, one day, units that include reference to this research will be available for pre-service and classroom teachers. And, what is more, knowing the Principal as I do, perhaps one day they will be offered through CBC's external studies unit.

Appendix A

Australian Catholic University
Brisbane Sydney Canberra Ballarat Melbourne



Human Research Ethics Committee

Committee Approval Form

Principal Investigator/Supervisor: Dr Helga Neidhart Melbourne Campus

Co-Investigators: Dr Annette Schneider Ballarat Campus

Student Researcher: Mr Neil McGoran Melbourne Campus

Ethics approval has been granted for the following project:

Making magic: An exploration of teacher leadership and boys' academic intrinsic motivation in a year 8 classroom at a Catholic school.

for the period: 20.05.04-20.10.04

Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) Register Number: V2003.04-98

The following standard conditions as stipulated in the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans* (1999) apply:

- (i) that Principal Investigators / Supervisors provide, on the form supplied by the Human Research Ethics Committee, annual reports on matters such as:
 - security of records
 - compliance with approved consent procedures and documentation
 - compliance with special conditions, and
- (ii) that researchers report to the HREC immediately any matter that might affect the ethical acceptability of the protocol, such as:
 - proposed changes to the protocol
 - unforeseen circumstances or events
 - adverse effects on participants

The HREC will conduct an audit each year of all projects deemed to be of more than minimum risk. There will also be random audits of a sample of projects considered to be of minimum risk on all campuses each year.

Within one month of the conclusion of the project, researchers are required to complete a *Final Report Form* and submit it to the local Research Services Officer.

If the project continues for more than one year, researchers are required to complete an *Annual Progress Report Form* and submit it to the local Research Services Officer within one month of the anniversary date of the ethics approval.

Signed:  Date: 21/05/04
(Research Services Officer, Melbourne Campus)

Appendix B

Focus group interview questions

1. What do Year 8 teachers understand by the concept of teacher leadership in the classroom?
 2. In what ways are teachers leaders in the classroom?
 3. What are some of the various approaches to leadership that teachers take in the classroom?
- Is part of teacher leadership ‘serving’ students? In what ways do teachers serve their students in the classroom? Is this servant leadership? If so, why do teachers model this approach to leadership?
 - An important part of this type of leadership is being authentic to those things that matter to you and to the things that are important in a school. Are teachers authentic leaders? If so, how and in what ways?
 - Being authentic means remaining true to your values. In this manner, it is also referred to as spiritual leadership, because it refers to an approach to leadership that is underpinned by enduring core values, such as respect for the individual, tolerance of divergence, high personal conduct and commitment to renewal. How is spirituality an important part of your classroom leadership? Furthermore, what are the core values that are important to teacher leaders? How do teachers clarify these with their student followers? How do they make them shared values?
 - Leaders venture out and seek to change things, whether this is just a change in ‘business as usual’, or a more significant change. This is transformational leadership. Do teachers seek to transform their students? If so, what do they hope to transform them to? More importantly, once they know what they want to transform their students to, how do they seek to transform them?
 - Effective leaders seek to transform students and/or the classroom and/or the school in accordance with ‘their’ vision. Do teacher leaders have a vision of what students should be/do? Do they have a vision of the classroom and/or of the school? What is this vision? For this vision to be successful, it has to be shared. How do teacher leaders inspire this vision in their students?
 - Do teacher leaders actively seek to empower students? If so, why is this important? More importantly, how do they do this? In what ways do teachers actively empower students? Empowerment is often based on trust. How, from your experience, would you say that empowerment is related to trust? How do you show trust to your students?
 - Is leadership in the classroom a team effort? If so, who is on the ‘team’? What can and do teachers do to strengthen the communal aspect of their leadership in the classroom?

4. What other comments would you like to make about teacher leadership in the classroom?
 5. What is your understanding of academic intrinsic motivation?
 6. What does this 'look' like in the Year 8 classroom?
 7. Who are some Year 8 students that you can think of, who demonstrate academic intrinsic motivation?
 8. What aspects of these students make them identifiable?
- 9.
- (a) **Service**
1. How does a teacher's personal motivation positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why is this the case?
 2. How does a teacher's enthusiasm positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why is this the case?
 3. In what ways are teachers inspirational? How does inspiration positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why is this the case?
 4. What does 'model what you want' mean for teachers? How can teachers 'model what they want'? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
 5. Are there other elements of service, both relational and task specific, which positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation?

(b) **Authenticity, spirituality and shared values**

1. What does 'teachers being respectful to students' mean? How does being respectful positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
2. In what ways are teachers tolerant of students? How does being tolerant positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
3. How do teachers manage behaviour so as to positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation?
4. Are there other elements of authenticity, spirituality and shared values, both relational and task specific, which positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation?

(c) Transformation and vision

1. What does being 'able to look forward' mean for teachers/leaders? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
2. What makes a teacher 'competent'? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
3. How do teachers develop intrinsic interest in a topic? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
4. How do teachers incorporate extrinsic methods? What are these methods? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
5. How do teachers incorporate learning and doing? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
6. How do teachers incorporate learning and feeling? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
7. Are there other elements of transformation and vision, both relational and task specific, which positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation?

(d) Empowerment and trust

1. In what ways are teachers honest with their students? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
2. What does it mean for teachers to negotiate with students? When and how do teachers negotiate with students in the classroom? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
3. How do teachers adopt a constructivist approach to the curriculum? What are the benefits of this? What are the obstacles? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
4. Are there other elements of empowerment and trust, both relational and task specific, which positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation?

(e) Community

1. Why are communication skills so important for teachers? How do they positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
2. In what ways do teachers 'care' for their students? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?

3. In what ways are teachers 'friendly' to their students? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
4. In what ways is classroom leadership 'collaborative'? When does this specifically include other teachers? When does this specifically include students? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
5. What makes a good learning environment? How do teachers develop a good learning environment? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
6. What makes the high school transition as 'smooth' as possible? How do Year 8 teachers specifically help to achieve this? How does this positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation? Why?
7. Are there other elements of community, both relational and task specific, which positively influence boys' academic intrinsic motivation?

Appendix C

Student questionnaire

Read each question carefully, and choose the number that best describes you. There are no right and wrong answers, simply choose 1 if the sentence does not describe you at all; 7 if the sentence strongly describes you. If you describe yourself as somewhere in the middle, please rate yourself accordingly.

Key:

1 Does not describe at all; 2 Does not describe; 3 Does not describe to some extent; Uncertain; 5 Describes to some extent; 6 Describes; 7 Strongly describes

Please use the space below each question block to comment further.

1. Leadership approaches

(service)

I want to learn because I appreciate the work my teachers put in to preparing classes and assignments

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers are interested and motivated

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers are enthusiastic about the work that we do

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

My teachers inspire me to want to learn

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

When my teachers ‘model’ what they want from me, or show me what to do, I want to learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

(authenticity, spirituality and values)

I want to learn because I appreciate the fact that my teachers always do what they say they will do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers are true to their values	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers help me to share those values	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers respect me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers are tolerant of me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers are strict	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers help me to take personal responsibility for my behaviour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

(transformation and vision)

I want to learn because my teachers want me to know more and to have a greater range of social and academic skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers are forward looking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers are competent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers make the work interesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers offer me rewards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers make the work challenging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because the curriculum integrates learning and doing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because the curriculum integrates learning and feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers have a vision of what I can achieve	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers have a vision of how the classroom and the school should operate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers clearly share their vision of the classroom and the school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

(empowerment and trust)

I want to learn because my teachers trust me to achieve my goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers delegate responsibility to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers are honest with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers encourage me to be a leader in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers allow me to negotiate what I can do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers allow me to negotiate deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers modify the curriculum to suit me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because the curriculum is relevant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because the curriculum is skill based rather than knowledge based	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because the curriculum builds on what I know	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

(Community)

I want to learn because my teachers help me to feel that I belong in the classroom community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because I feel I belong in the school community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers work together to support my progress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers encourage me to share in classroom decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because I like my teachers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers are friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers care about me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers communicate clearly and openly with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers create a safe, friendly and supportive learning environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I want to learn because my teachers helped to make the transition into high school smooth for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Please use the space below to write a short response to the following question, using the definition provided as a guide.

Question: Your teachers are the leaders in the classroom. How do your teachers, as leaders in the classroom, positively influence your academic intrinsic motivation?

Is there anything that you would like to add to this questionnaire? If so, use the reverse side of this page. Thank you for your time.

Appendix D

Key informant interview questions

1. Your teachers have identified you as a student who demonstrates academic intrinsic motivation. Why do you think you were identified? How much of a role do your teachers play, in positively influencing your academic intrinsic motivation?
2. Teachers identify themselves as servant leaders. That is, they are people who serve their students and hope that their students will become servants themselves. Do you notice this aspect in your teachers?
3. What sort of ways do you notice it? Is it in their giving up their time to help you? Does it positively influence your willingness to learn? Why/ why not?
4. When your teachers are motivated and enthusiastic does that have any effect on you?
5. Do you find many of your teachers inspirational? That is they inspire you to want to learn more or know more?
6. Do teachers model what they want from you?
7. Teacher leaders have strong principles. When they say something, they mean it. Have you noticed this aspect in your teachers? If so, when? What influence does this aspect have on your willingness to learn in the classroom?
8. In particular, where is an example where they have actually followed through in what they said they are going to do?
9. I am going to give you three key words: respect, tolerance and justice. I want you to think about your classroom and the way the teachers interact with students in the classroom. Do you see those three words in action?
10. Do any of those have a positive influence on your willingness to learn?
11. How do you teachers manage behaviour in your class? Do you think that a way that a teacher manages behaviour has an influence on your own learning?
12. Teacher leaders remain true to their values. What values do your teachers have? How do they communicate these values to you? How do they ensure that you share them? Do these values, and the fact that you share them, have a positive influence on your academic intrinsic motivation?
13. Do your teachers have a vision of the classroom and of the school that they share with you? How do they get you to share the vision? Does the vision, and the fact that you share it, positively influence your academic intrinsic motivation?

14. Do your teachers wish to transform you in any way, whether that is as a learner or as a person or both? How do they do this? Do you think that they try to transform you towards that vision?
15. Does this influence your willingness to learn in the classroom?
16. Do your teachers empower you? When and how? Does it make you feel good that the teacher is prepared to put some trust in you?
17. In what ways are your teachers honest?
18. Does this influence your willingness to learn?
19. Do you get to share in the leadership in the classroom? If so, when and how?
20. I want to talk now about collaboration, or working together. Do you think your teachers are collaborative in the way they work with other teachers?
21. What about collaborating with other students in your classroom; do your teachers share leadership roles around?
22. Do you think that collaboration, or shared leadership, has a positive effect on your willingness to learn?
23. Do your teachers ever negotiate with you, perhaps deadlines or expectations of assignments and things like that? What influence does this have on your academic intrinsic motivation?
24. Think about how your teachers teach in the classroom. Sometimes it is really important that teachers find out where the students are at, their level of understanding so to speak, so that they can build on that directly, rather than just assuming that everyone knows a particular topic. Finding the starting point, and then building on it, is part of teaching. Is that how your teachers teach you?
25. Do you think if the teacher could find out exactly what you know and then build on that directly it would be more beneficial to you? Why?
26. This time I've got three more key words: communicative; caring and friendly. Do they describe your teachers? How?
27. Do those three words: communicative, caring and friendly, and the way that your favourite teacher acts them out, have a positive influence on your intrinsic academic motivation?
28. What is a good learning environment for you?
29. How does your teacher go about setting up that learning environment? Do you think that learning environment positively influences your academic motivation?

30. How did your teachers help to make that transition into high school a smooth one? Do you think that had an influence on your academic motivation?
31. Is there anything that I haven't covered that you'd like to say?

Appendix E

Australian Catholic University Limited
ABN 15 050 192 660
Melbourne Campus (St Patrick's)
115 Victoria Parade Fitzroy VIC 3065
Locked Bag 4115 Fitzroy MDC VIC 3065
Telephone 613 9953 3000
Facsimile 613 9953 3005
www.acu.edu.au

INFORMATION LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

TITLE OF PROJECT: MAKING MAGIC: AN EXPLORATION OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP AND BOYS' ACADEMIC INTRINSIC MOTIVATION IN THE YEAR 8 CLASSROOM AT A CATHOLIC SCHOOL

NAMES OF STAFF SUPERVISORS: DR HELGA NEIDHART, DR ANNETTE SCHNEIDER

NAME OF STUDENT RESEARCHER: NEIL MCGORAN

NAME OF PROGRAMME IN WHICH ENROLLED: DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Dear Teacher Participant

My name is Neil McGoran and I am a Doctoral student at Australian Catholic University, in the School of Educational Leadership. My project is an exploration of the relationship between teacher leadership in the classroom and boys' academic intrinsic motivation. It is a case study, situated at Christian Brothers College, Wakefield Street Adelaide. The research methods to be used are focus group interviews, survey questionnaire and key informant interviews. I am inviting Year 8 Home Room teachers to participate in the project.

You are invited to be involved in two one-hour focus group interviews, conducted after school. Each focus group interview will be audio taped, and full transcriptions will be offered to you for checking. You will be asked to discuss your understanding of, and approach to leadership in the classroom, your understanding of academic intrinsic motivation, and how you, as a leader, attempt to positively influence academic intrinsic motivation in students. You will also be asked to identify students who, in your opinion, demonstrate a high level of academic intrinsic motivation, based on the group's shared understanding of academic intrinsic motivation and your experience with Year 8 students this year. The identified students will be invited to complete a survey questionnaire about academic intrinsic motivation. You will also be asked to identify five students from this group, whom you believe demonstrate a high degree of academic intrinsic motivation. The five students will be invited to participate in a one-hour, semi-structured interview.

Research into teacher leadership in the classroom, and the subsequent impact on boys' academic intrinsic motivation, is important in a school. Teachers and students at Christian Brothers College may directly benefit from this study, and it may be beneficial to the teaching profession. Finally, this study may encourage other researchers to examine a similar phenomenon in other contexts. Results will be published in the thesis and, possibly, in publications related to leadership and boys' education.

Participation in the study is voluntary. Therefore, you are free to refuse consent altogether without having to justify that decision, or to withdraw consent and discontinue participation in the study at any time without giving a reason. Withdrawal from the research will not prejudice, in any way, your professional or personal relationship with me.

Australian Catholic University Limited
ABN 15 050 192 660
Melbourne Campus (St Patrick's)
115 Victoria Parade Fitzroy VIC 3065
Locked Bag 4115 Fitzroy MDC VIC 3065
Telephone 618 9953 3000
Facsimile 613 9953 3005
www.acu.edu.au

To ensure confidentiality, data and results in the thesis will be presented using pseudonyms. This will also pertain to any future publications that arise during and after the writing of the thesis. Only my supervisors and I will have access to the data collected using any of the research methods. However, you must be aware that statements made in the focus group interviews will be audible to other members of the focus group. As a result, you are asked to keep confidential any matters raised in the interviews, and data will be presented using pseudonyms. Data will be stored in a locked cabinet in my supervisor's office at ACU, but I will store one copy in my home office for the duration of the study. On completion of the study, I will destroy my copy of the data, but the original copy will remain in the office of the principal supervisor for the required period of five years.

Any questions regarding this project should be directed to the Principal Supervisor:
Dr Helga Neidhart rsc
Telephone number 03 9953 3267
School of Educational Leadership
Australian Catholic University
115 Victoria Pde. Fitzroy. 3065. Australia

You will receive feedback on the project on request, as well as a summary of results.

The Human Research Ethics Committee at Australian Catholic University has approved this study. However, in the event that you have any complaint or concern about the way you have been treated during the study, or if you have any query that the Supervisor has not been able to satisfy, you may write to the Chair of the Human Research Ethics Committee care of the nearest branch of the Research Services Unit.

VIC: Chair, HREC
C/o Research Services
Australian Catholic University
Melbourne Campus
Locked Bag 4115
FITZROY VIC 3065
Tel: 03 9953 3157
Fax: 03 9953 3315

Any complaint or concern will be treated in confidence and fully investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree to participate in this project, you should sign both copies of the Consent Form, retain one copy for your records and return the other copy to the Student Researcher.

Yours sincerely

Neil McGoran
Student Researcher

Dr Helga Neidhart
Principal Supervisor

Appendix F

Australian Catholic University Limited
ABN 15 050 192 660
Melbourne Campus (St Patrick's)
115 Victoria Parade Fitzroy VIC 3065
Locked Bag 4115 Fitzroy MDC VIC 3065
Telephone 613 9953 3000
Facsimile 613 9953 3005
www.acu.edu.au

CONSENT FORM

TITLE OF PROJECT: MAKING MAGIC: AN EXPLORATION OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP AND BOYS' ACADEMIC MOTIVATION IN THE YEAR 8 CLASSROOM AT A CATHOLIC SCHOOL

NAMES OF SUPERVISORS: DR HELGA NEIDHART, DR ANNETTE SCHNEIDER

NAME OF STUDENT RESEARCHER: NEIL MCGORAN

I (*the participant*) have read and understood the information provided in the Letter to Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this activity, realising that I can withdraw at any time. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify me in any way. I agree to be audio taped during the focus group interviews.

NAME OF PARTICIPANT:
(block letters)

SIGNATURE DATE

SIGNATURE OF PRINCIPAL SUPERVISOR:.....

DATE:.....

SIGNATURE OF STUDENT RESEARCHER:

DATE:.....



Australian Catholic University Limited
ABN 15 050 192 660
Melbourne Campus (St Patrick's)
115 Victoria Parade Fitzroy VIC 3065
Locked Bag 4115 Fitzroy MDC VIC 3065
Telephone 613 9953 3000
Facsimile 613 9953 3005
www.acu.edu.au

INFORMATION LETTER TO STUDENT PARTICIPANTS

TITLE OF PROJECT: MAKING MAGIC: AN EXPLORATION OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP AND BOYS' ACADEMIC INTRINSIC MOTIVATION IN THE YEAR 8 CLASSROOM AT A CATHOLIC SCHOOL

NAMES OF STAFF SUPERVISORS: DR HELGA NEIDHART, DR ANNETTE SCHNEIDER

NAME OF STUDENT RESEARCHER: NEIL MCGORAN

NAME OF PROGRAMME IN WHICH ENROLLED: DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Dear Student Participant

My name is Neil McGoran and I am a Doctoral student at Australian Catholic University in the School of Educational leadership. My project is an exploration of the relationship between teacher leadership in the classroom and boys' academic intrinsic motivation. For the purposes of this study, a boy who demonstrates academic intrinsic motivation is defined as one who "wants to learn, likes learning-related activities, and believes school is important".

It is a case study, situated at Christian Brothers College, Wakefield Street Adelaide. The research methods to be used are focus group interviews, survey questionnaire and key informant interviews.

I am inviting Year 8 students to participate in the study, namely those who, according to the Year 8 teachers, "want to learn, like learning-related activities, and believe school is important".

You are invited to complete a survey questionnaire about academic intrinsic motivation. The aim of the questionnaire is to gather your perspective of the relationship between teacher leadership and your willingness to learn, and to identify the factors that influence your willingness to learn in the classroom. The questionnaires will be administered during school time, and should take approximately forty minutes to complete. You have also been nominated by your teachers to participate in a semi-structured interview, conducted after school. Hence, I am also inviting you to participate in an interview at an agreeable time after school. The interview will be audio taped, and you will be offered a full transcription for checking. The interview will take approximately one hour.

Research into teacher leadership in the classroom, and its impact on boys' willingness to learn, is important in a school. Teachers and students at Christian Brothers College may directly benefit from this study, and it may also be beneficial to the teaching profession. Finally, this study may encourage other researchers to examine a similar phenomenon in other contexts. Results will be published in the thesis and, possibly, in publications related to leadership and boys' education.

Participation in the study is voluntary. Therefore, you are free to refuse consent altogether without having to justify that decision, or to withdraw consent and discontinue participation in the study at any time without giving a reason. Withdrawal from the research will not prejudice, in any way, your future care or academic progress.

Appendix G



Australian Catholic University Limited
ABN 15 050 192 660
Melbourne Campus (St Patrick's)
115 Victoria Parade Fitzroy VIC 3065
Locked Bag 4115 Fitzroy MDC VIC 3065
Telephone 613 9953 3000
Facsimile 613 9953 3005
www.acu.edu.au

To ensure confidentiality, data and results in the thesis will be presented using pseudonyms. This will also pertain to any future publications that arise during and after the writing of the thesis. Your survey questionnaire will be completed anonymously, and only my supervisors and I will have access to the data collected using any of the research methods. Data will be stored in a locked cabinet in my supervisor's office at ACU, but I will store one copy in my home office for the duration of the study. On completion of the study, I will destroy my copy of the data, but the original copy will remain in the office of the principal supervisor for the required period of five years.

Any questions regarding this project should be directed to the Principal Supervisor:

Dr Helga Neidhart rsc
Telephone number 03 9953 3267
School of Educational Leadership
Australian Catholic University
115 Victoria Pde. Fitzroy. 3065. Australia

You will receive feedback on the project on request, as well as a summary of results.

The Human Research Ethics Committee at Australian Catholic University has approved this study. However, in the event that you have any complaint or concern about the way you have been treated during the study, or if you have any query that the Supervisor and Student Researcher have not been able to satisfy, you may write to the Chair of the Human Research Ethics Committee care of the nearest branch of the Research Services Unit.

VIC: Chair, HREC
C/o Research Services
Australian Catholic University
Melbourne Campus
Locked Bag 4115
FITZROY VIC 3065
Tel: 03 9953 3157
Fax: 03 9953 3315

Any complaint or concern will be treated in confidence and fully investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree to participate in this project, you should sign both copies of the Consent Form, retain one copy for your records and return the other copy to the Student Researcher.

Yours sincerely

Neil McGoran
Student Researcher

Dr Helga Neidhart
Principal Supervisor

Appendix H

Australian Catholic University Limited
ABN 15 050 192 660
Melbourne Campus (St Patrick's)
115 Victoria Parade Fitzroy VIC 3065
Locked Bag 4115 Fitzroy MDC VIC 3065
Telephone 613 9953 3000
Facsimile 613 9953 3005
www.acu.edu.au

ASSENT OF PARTICIPANTS AGED UNDER 18 YEARS

I (*the participant aged under 18 years*) understand what this research project is designed to explore. What I will be asked to do has been explained to me. I agree to take part in the project, realising that I can withdraw at any time without having to give a reason for my decision. I agree to my interview being audio taped.

NAME OF PARTICIPANT AGED UNDER 18:
(block letters)

SIGNATURE DATE.....

SIGNATURE OF PRINCIPAL SUPERVISOR:.....

DATE:.....

SIGNATURE OF STUDENT RESEARCHER:

DATE:.....

Appendix I



Australian Catholic University Limited
ABN 15 050 192 660
Melbourne Campus (St Patrick's)
115 Victoria Parade Fitzroy VIC 3065
Locked Bag 4115 Fitzroy MDC VIC 3065
Telephone 613 9953 3000
Facsimile 613 9953 3005
www.acu.edu.au

INFORMATION LETTER TO PARENTS OF STUDENT PARTICIPANTS

TITLE OF PROJECT: MAKING MAGIC: AN EXPLORATION OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP AND BOYS' ACADEMIC INTRINSIC MOTIVATION IN THE YEAR 8 CLASSROOM AT A CATHOLIC SCHOOL

NAMES OF STAFF SUPERVISORS: DR HELGA NEIDHART, DR ANNETTE SCHNEIDER

NAME OF STUDENT RESEARCHER: NEIL MCGORAN

NAME OF PROGRAMME IN WHICH ENROLLED: DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Dear Parent(s)

My name is Neil McGoran and I am a Doctoral student at Australian Catholic University in the School of Educational leadership. My project is an exploration of the relationship between teacher leadership in the classroom and boys' academic intrinsic motivation. For the purposes of this study, a boy who demonstrates academic intrinsic motivation is defined as one who "wants to learn, likes learning-related activities, and believes school is important". It is a case study, situated at Christian Brothers College, Wakefield Street Adelaide. The research methods to be used are focus group interviews, survey questionnaire and key informant interviews.

I am inviting Year 8 students to participate in the study, namely those who, according to the Year 8 teachers, "want to learn, like learning-related activities, and believe school is important".

Your son is invited to complete a survey questionnaire about academic intrinsic motivation. The aim of the questionnaire is to gather his perspective of the relationship between teacher leadership and his willingness to learn, and to identify the factors that influence his willingness to learn in the classroom. The questionnaire will be administered during school time, and should take approximately forty minutes to complete. Your son has also been nominated by his teachers to participate in a semi-structured interview, conducted after school, for approximately one hour. Hence, I am also inviting your son to participate in an interview at an agreeable time after school. The interview will be audio taped, and he will be offered a full transcription for checking.

Research into teacher leadership in the classroom, and its impact on boys' willingness to learn, is important in a school. Teachers and students at Christian Brothers College may directly benefit from this study, and it may also be beneficial to the teaching profession. Finally, this study may encourage other researchers to examine a similar phenomenon in other contexts. Results will be published in the thesis and, possibly, in publications related to leadership and boys' education.

Participation in the study is voluntary. Therefore, you, or your son, are free to refuse consent altogether without having to justify that decision, or to withdraw consent and discontinue participation in the study at any time without giving a reason. Withdrawal from the research will not prejudice, in any way, your son's future care or academic progress.

Appendix I



Australian Catholic University Limited
ABN 15 050 192 660
Melbourne Campus (St Patrick's)
115 Victoria Parade Fitzroy VIC 3065
Locked Bag 4115 Fitzroy MDC VIC 3065
Telephone 613 9953 3000
Facsimile 613 9953 3005
www.acu.edu.au

To ensure confidentiality, data and results in the thesis will be presented using pseudonyms. This will also pertain to any future publications that arise during and after the writing of the thesis. Your son's survey questionnaire will be completed anonymously, and only my supervisors and I will have access to the data collected using any of the research methods. Data will be stored in a locked cabinet in my supervisor's office at ACU, but I will store one copy in my home office for the duration of the study. On completion of the study, I will destroy my copy of the data, but the original copy will remain in the office of the principal supervisor for the required period of five years.

Any questions regarding this project should be directed to the Principal Supervisor:

Dr Helga Neidhart rsc
Telephone number 03 9953 3267
School of Educational Leadership
Australian Catholic University
115 Victoria Pde. Fitzroy. 3065. Australia

You will receive feedback on the project on request, as well as a summary of results.

The Human Research Ethics Committee at Australian Catholic University has approved this study. However, in the event that you have any complaint or concern about the way your son has been treated during the study, or if you have any query that the Supervisor and Student Researcher have not been able to satisfy, you may write to the Chair of the Human Research Ethics Committee care of the nearest branch of the Research Services Unit.

VIC: Chair, HREC
C/o Research Services
Australian Catholic University
Melbourne Campus
Locked Bag 4115
FITZROY VIC 3065
Tel: 03 9953 3157
Fax: 03 9953 3315

Any complaint or concern will be treated in confidence and fully investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree for your son to participate in this project, you should sign both copies of the Consent Form, retain one copy for your records and return the other copy to the Student Researcher.

Yours sincerely


Neil McGoran
Student Researcher

Dr Helga Neidhart
Principal Supervisor

Appendix J

Australian Catholic University Limited
ABN 15 050 192 660
Melbourne Campus (St Patrick's)
115 Victoria Parade Fitzroy VIC 3065
Locked Bag 4115 Fitzroy MDC VIC 3065
Telephone 613 9953 3000
Facsimile 613 9953 3005
www.acu.edu.au

PARENT/GUARDIAN CONSENT FORM

TITLE OF PROJECT: MAKING MAGIC: AN EXPLORATION OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP AND BOYS' ACADEMIC MOTIVATION IN THE YEAR 8 CLASSROOM AT A CATHOLIC SCHOOL

NAMES OF STAFF SUPERVISORS: DR HELGA NEIDHART, DR ANNETTE SCHNEIDER

NAME OF STUDENT RESEARCHER: NEIL MCGORAN

I (*the parent/guardian*) have read (*or, where appropriate, have had read to me*) and understood the information provided in the Letter to the Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree that my child, nominated below, may participate in this activity, realising that I can withdraw my consent at any time. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify my child in any way. I agree that his interview will be audio taped.

NAME OF PARENT/GUARDIAN:
(block letters)

SIGNATURE DATE.....

NAME OF CHILD
(block letters)

SIGNATURE OF PRINCIPAL SUPERVISOR:

..... DATE:.....

SIGNATURE OF STUDENT RESEARCHER:

.....DATE:



Australian Catholic University Limited
ABN 15 050 192 660
Melbourne Campus (St Patrick's)
115 Victoria Parade Fitzroy VIC 3065
Locked Bag 4115 Fitzroy MDC VIC 3065
Telephone 613 9953 3000
Facsimile 613 9953 3005
www.acu.edu.au

REFERENCES

- Atkinson, S. E. (2000, March). An investigation into the relationship between teacher motivation and pupil motivation. *Educational Psychology*. Dorchester-on-Thames.
- Bachor, D. G. (2000). Rethinking case study research methodology. Paper presented at the Special Education Research Forum, Helsinki, Finland. Retrieved March 19, 2002, from ProQuest database.
- Badaracco, J. L. Jr., & Ellsworth, R. R. (1989). Leadership from the inside out on becoming a leader in life. Provo, UT.: Executive Excellence Publishing.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W.H. Freeman.
- Barone, T. (1990). Using the narrative text as an occasion for conspiracy. In E. Eisner & A. Peshkin (Eds), *Qualitative inquiry in education: The continuing debate* (pp. 305-326). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Barth, R. S. (2001). *Learning by heart*. San Francisco. Jossey-Bass.
- Bass, B. M. (1997). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership theory, research and managerial application*. New York: Macmillan.
- Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (1998). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership. Retrieved March 1, 2002, from ProQuest database.
- Baylis, A. (2004). Introducing High Order Thinking (HOT) into pedagogy and assessment. Paper presented at the 5th National Conference, 'Improving Outcomes in Boys' Education: A Work in Progress'. 31 May – 1 June. Sydney.

- Benjamin, A. (2002). Leaders in Catholic schools in the third millennium: Engaging with hope. In D. J. Duncan & D. Riley (Eds), *Leadership in Catholic education* (pp. 73-85). Harper Collins Publishers.
- Benzies, K. M., & Allen, M. N. (2001). Symbolic interactionism as a theoretical perspective for multiple method research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 33, 4, 541-548.
- Biddulph, S. (1995). *Manhood*. Sydney: Finch Press.
- Binney, G., & Williams, C. (1997). *Learning into the future*. London: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.
- Blair, H. A. (2000). Genderlects: Girl talk and boy talk in middle years classrooms. Retrieved March 1, 2002, from ProQuest database.
- Bradford, W. (1999). Raising boys' achievement. Secondary Version. Kirkless: The Education Advisory Service.
- Bradford, D. L., & Cohen, A. R. (1998). *Transforming organisations through shared leadership*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Brown, M. B., & Keith, P. B. (1998). Academic motivation: A handout for parents. National Association of School Psychologist. Retrieved March 24, 2004, from ERIC database.
- Bucknor, K. C., & McDowelle, J. O. (2000, May). Developing teacher leaders: Providing encouragement, opportunities and support. Retrieved March 14, 2005, from University of Oregon, College of Education Web site: http://eric.uoregon.edu/trends_issues/rolelead/selected_abstracts/teacher_leadership.htm
- Burgess, J. (1996). Focusing on fear. In *Area 28*, 2. Retrieved August 12, 2002, from ProQuest database.

- Burn, E. (1999). *Becoming mum: Dialogues with male and female primary teachers*.
Paper presented to the British Educational Research Conference.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York. Harper & Row.
- Burns, R. B. (1994). *Introduction to research methods* (3rd ed). Melbourne. Longman.
- Byrne, M. (2004). Evaluating the findings of qualitative research. *AORN Online Journal*. Retrieved February 1, 2005, from
<http://www.aorn.org/journal/2001/marcc.htm>
- Callaghan, S. (1996). Using portfolios for accountability: The ethics of care collide with the need for judgement. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and communication. Milwaukee, WI.
(ERIC Document Reproduction Services No. ED 397419).
- Campbell, T. (1996). Technology, multimedia, and qualitative research in education. *Journal of Research on Computing in Education*, 30, 9, 122-133.
- Chandler, R. (2004). Improving boys' learning – the research, key strategies and the missing link of professional development. Paper presented at the 5th National Conference, 'Improving Outcomes in Boys' Education: A Work in Progress'.
31 May – 1 June. Sydney.
- Cheng, Y. C. (1994). Teacher leadership style: a classroom-level study. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 32, 3.
- Childs-Bowen, D., Moller, G., & Scrivner, J. (2000). *Principals: Leaders of leaders*.
Retrieved March 14, 2005, from University of Oregon, College of Education
Web site:
http://eric.uoregon.edu/trends_issues/rolelead/selected_abstracts/teacher_leadership.htm

Christian Brothers College Secondary Middle Schooling Handbook and Diary.

Unpublished College document.

Christian Brothers College Vision Statement. (2002). Unpublished College document.

Cieslak, M. (2003). An overview of leadership. Retrieved June 25, 2004, from Web site: http://www.cppcd.org/crf/rra_papers.htm

Commonwealth Government. (2003). Meeting the challenge: Summary report.

Retrieved July 13, 2004, from Boys' Education Lighthouse Schools

Programme Web site: <http://www.boyslighthouse.edu.au>

Conger, R. N. (1999). *Building leaders*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Congregation for Catholic Education. (1982). Lay Catholics in schools: Witnesses to faith. Retrieved April 4, 2004, from

http://www.vatican.va/roman_curia/congregations/ccatheduc/index.html

Congregation for Catholic Education. (1998). The Catholic school on the threshold of the third millennium. Pauline: Boston. (a) McLaughlin, D. (2000). The Catholic School: avenue to authenticity. *Catholic Education: Journal of Inquiry & Practice*, 3, 3. 274-292.

Connole, H. (1990). The research enterprise. In H. Connole, B. Smith, & R. Wisemen (Eds), *Issues and methods in research: Study guide*. Distance Education Centre, University of South Australia, Underdale.

Cortis, N., & Newmarch, E. (2000). Boys in schools: What's happening? Paper presented at the International Interdisciplinary Masculinities Conference, 1 December, 2000. Queensland. Retrieved 13 July, 2004, from Boys' Education Lighthouse Schools Programme Web site: <http://www.boyslighthouse.edu.au>

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research*. London. Sage

- Crowther, F. (1996). The William Walker oration. Unsung heroes: The leaders in our classrooms. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 35, 1.
- Crowther, F., Hann, L., & Andrews, D. (2002). Rethinking the role of school principal: Successful school improvement in the post industrial era. *The Practising Administrator*, 2.
- Deci, E. L. (1971). Effects of externally mediated rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 18, 105-115.
- Deci, E. L., Koestner, R., Ryan, R. M., & Cameron, J. (2001, Spring). Extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation in education: Reconsidered once again: Comment/ Reply. *Review of Educational Research*. Washington.
- Denzin, N. K. (1989). *Interpretive interactionism*. Newbury Park: Sage.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 1-18). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 1-18) (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dev, P. (1997). Intrinsic motivation and academic achievement: what does their relationship imply for the classroom teacher? *Remedial and Special Education*, 18, 12-19.
- Dey, I. (1993). *Qualitative data analysis: A user friendly guide for social scientists*. London: Routledge.
- Dubrin, A. J., & Dalglish, C. (2003). *Leadership: An Australian focus*. Queensland. John Wiley & sons.

- Duignan, P. (1997). *The dance of leadership: At the point of a turning world*. Hawthorn: ACEA Monograph Series.
- Duignan, P. (1998). The challenges and paradoxes of leadership in times of uncertainty and unpredictability. A titanic view. Paper presented at the International Seminar on Catholic Leadership, Mount Saint Mary Campus, Australian Catholic University.
- Duignan, P. (2002). Formation of authentic educational leaders for Catholic schools. In D. J. Duncan & D. Riley (Eds), *Leadership in Catholic education* (pp. 172-184). Harper Collins Publishers.
- Eccles, J. S., & Midgley, C. (1989). Stage/environment fit: developmentally appropriate classrooms for early adolescents. In R. E. Ames & C. Ames (Eds), *Research on Motivation in Education*, 3, 139-186. New York: Academic.
- Education and Training Committee. (2002). Boys: Getting it right. Retrieved May 3, 2004, from <http://www.aph.gov.au/house/committee/edt/eofb/report.pdf>
- English, F. W. (2000). Psssst! What does one call a set of non-empirical beliefs required to be accepted on faith and enforced by authority? [Answer: a religion, aka the ISLLC standards]. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 3, 2.
- Epstein, D., Elwood, J., Hey, V., & Maw, J. (1998). Schoolboy frictions: Feminism and 'failing boys'. In D. Epstein (Ed), *Failing boys?: Issues in gender and achievement* (pp. 3-18). Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Evans, K. S. (2001, March). Will you still play with me if I stop making nice? Conflicting discourses in collaborative feminist literacy research. *Journal of Literacy Research*. Retrieved January 21, 2005, from ProQuest database.

- Ferguson, P. M., Ferguson, D. L., & Taylor, S. J. (1992) Conclusion: The future of interpretivism in disability studies. *Interpreting disability: A qualitative reader*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Fidishun, D. (2001). Symbolic interactionism and library research: Using qualitative methodology to understand library interchange. *Libraries and the Academy*, 2, 3, 443-453.
- Fletcher, R. (1995). Looking to fathers. In R. Browne & R. Fletcher (Eds), *Boys in schools: Addressing the real issues – behaviour, values and relationships* (pp. 114-122). Sydney: Finch.
- Foster, R. (1998). Profile of a group of “successful” bilingual senior high school students. *Bilingual Research Journal*. Washington.
- Fullan, M. (1993). *Change forces: Probing the depths of educational reform*. Bristol: Falmer.
- Galley, M. (2002). Research: Boys to men. *Education Week*, 21, 19, 26-27.
- Gardner, H. (2000a). Howard Gardner on making the most of young minds. *The Educational Digest*. 65 (6), 4-6. Retrieved March 3, 2002, from Web site: <http://global.umi.com/pqdweb>
- Gardner, H. (2000b). Technology remakes the school. *The Futurist*, 34, 2, 30-32. Retrieved March 3, 2002, from Web site: <http://global.umi.com/pqdweb>
- Gardner, J. (1986). *The nature of leadership*. Washington: Independent sector.
- Gilligan, C. (1993). *In a different voice: Psychological theory and women’s development*. Cambridge, Mass. Harvard University Press.
- Gibbs, A. (1997). Focus Groups. *Social Research Update*, 19. Retrieved May 27, 2003, from Web site: <http://www.soc.surrey.ac.uk/sru19.html>

- Glesne, C., & Peshkin, A. (1992). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction*. White Plains, New York: Longman.
- Goleman, D. (1996). *Emotional intelligence. Why it can matter more than IQ*. London: Bloomsbury.
- Gorski, P. (1998). Racial and gender identity development in white male multicultural educators and facilitators: toward individual processes of self development. Retrieved February 7, 2005, from Web site: <http://home.earthlink.net/~gorski/dissertation/method.html>
- Gottfried, A. E. (2001). Continuity of academic intrinsic motivation from childhood through late adolescence: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93, 3-13.
- Gough, N. (2002, March). Blank spots, Blind spots and methodological questions in educational inquiry. Paper presented at the Higher Degrees by Research Summer School, Faculty of Education, Deakin University.
- Greenleaf, R. (1977). *Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness*. New York: Paulist press.
- Gronn, P. (2003). *The new work of educational leaders: Changing leadership practice in an era of school reform*. Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Groome, T. (1998). *Educating for life*. Allen, Texas: Thomas Moore.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1985). *Effective evaluation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S Lincoln (Eds), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Guisinger, C. M. (2002). Teacher leadership: The attributes, characteristics and strategies of teacher-leaders. Unpublished Master's dissertation. Pacific Lutheran University.
- Gullatt, D. E. (1995, November). Effective leadership in the middle school classroom. Paper presented at the Annual conference of the National Middle School Association, New Orleans, L.A. Retrieved March 7, 2002, from ProQuest database.
- Hallinger, P., & Hausman, C. (1987). From Attila the Hun to Mary had a little lamb: Principal role ambiguity in restructured schools. In W. Greenfield (Ed), *Instructional leadership: Concepts, issues and controversies*. Retrieved May 19, 2003, from ERIC database.
- Hanson, K. K. (1998, September). Get students going: Motivation in the middle grades. *School in the Middle* [H W Wilson-Educ].
- Hard, L. (2002). Leadership in early childhood education and care. What is the state of play? Retrieved January 24, 2005, from <http://www.qut.edu/dresa/CPE/ProfDocs/Papers/Hardpaper.doc>
- Harris, A. & Muijs, D. (2002). Teacher leadership: Principles and practice. Retrieved March 12, 2002, from ProQuest database.
- Head, J. (1999). *Understanding the boys: Issues of behaviour and achievement*. London: Falmer Press.
- Heisler, W. (2003). *Three essentials of Christian leadership*. Business Review. Regent.
- Higgs, P. (1997). Education for self-empowerment. *Education and Society*, 15, 2.
- Hoepfl, M. C. (1997). Choosing qualitative research: A primer for Technology Education researchers. *Journal of Technology Education*, 9, 1. Retrieved

February 9, 2004, from Web site:

<http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/ejournals/JTE/v9n1/hoepfl.html>

Hoppe, M. J., Wells, E. A., Morrison, D. M., Gilmore, M. R., & Wilsdon, A. (1995).

Using focus groups to discuss sensitive topics with children. *Evaluation*

Review, 10, 1. Retrieved May 15, 2004, from ProQuest database.

Houser, M. L., & Frymier, A. B. (2000). The teacher-student relationship as an

interpersonal relationship. Retrieved May 16, 2004, from ProQuest database.

John Paul II. (1991). Address to the I National Meeting of the Catholic School in

Italy. *L'Osservatore Romano*. Retrieved July 7, 2004, from

http://www.vatican.va/roman_curia/congregations/ccatheduc/documents/rc

Kagan, S. (1999). *Cooperative learning*. Kagan Publishing.

Katzenmeyer, M., & Moller, G. (2001). *Awakening the sleeping giant. Helping*

teachers develop as leaders. Thousand Oaks, California. Corwin Press.

Kelly, T. (2002). Grace, meaning and Catholic education. In D. J. Duncan & D. Riley

(Eds), *Leadership in Catholic education* (pp. 1-16). Harper Collins Publishers.

Kerssen-Griep, J. (2001, July). Classroom framework and instructional

communication competence. Annandale. Communication Education.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1999). *Encouraging the heart: A leader's guide to*

rewarding and recognizing (1st ed). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kouzes, J. M, & Posner, B. Z. (2002). *The leadership challenge*. (3rd ed). CA. Jossey-

Bass.

Kreuger, R. A. (1988). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research*.

London: Sage.

- Lavery, S. (2003). *Why bother to be a student leader? An exploration of the school experiences and self-perceptions of Year 12 students in three Catholic schools*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Australian Catholic University, Fitzroy.
- Leithwood, K., & Duke, D. (1999). A century's quest to understand school leadership. In J. Murphy & K. Louis (Eds), *Handbook of research on educational administration* (pp. 45-72) (2nd ed). San Francisco. Jossey-Bass.
- Leithwood, K., & Riehl, C. (2003). *What we know about successful school leadership*. Philadelphia, PA: Laboratory for Student Success, Temple University.
- Lieberman, A., Saxl, E. R., & Miles, M. B. (2000). Teacher leadership: ideology and practice. *The Jossey-Bass reader on educational leadership* (pp. 346-365). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Lillico, I. (1998). *Boys' learning in Western Australia*. Western Australia. I. Lillico.
- Lillico, I. (2003, November). Boys' education. Paper presented at Christian Brothers College, Adelaide.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (2000). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluence. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 163-168) (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Loader, D. (1997). *The inner principal*. London: Falmer Press.
- Ludwig, R. (1995). *Restructuring Catholicism*. New York: Crossroad.
- Maehr, M. L., & Midgley, C. (1991). Enhancing student motivation: A school-wide approach. *Educational Psychologist*, 26, 399-427.
- Martin, A. J. (2002). Improving the educational outcomes of boys. Final report to the ACT Department of Education, Youth and Family Services. Retrieved 13 July,

- 2004, from Boys' Education Lighthouse Schools Programme Web site:
<http://www.boyslighthouse.edu.au>
- McGoran, N. (2001). *Turning theory into practice: Middle schooling at Christian Brothers College*. Unpublished Master's dissertation. Deakin University.
- McKay, P., & Oliver, R. (1997). Three Australian Case studies: Introduction to the bilingual interface project. Retrieved August 3, 2002, from
www.gu.edu.au/school/cls/clearinghouse/1997_bilingual
- McLaughlin, D. (2001). Catholic education and the church's evolving mission in the world. In D. McLaughlin (Ed), *The defining features of Catholic schools: What the literature says* (pp. 1-16). The Queensland Bishops' Catholic schools research project.
- Mark. 10: 44.
- Morgan, D.L. (1988). *Focus groups as qualitative research*. London: Sage.
- Morgan, D.L. (1997). *Focus groups as qualitative research*. London: Sage.
- Mulligan, J. (1994). *Formation for evangelisation: Reflections of a Catholic educator*. Ottawa: Novalis.
- National Planning Committee for Schools' Governance. (2004). *Edmund Rice Education, Australia: The Charter. A proclamation of an authentic expression of Edmund Rice education as applied to Catholic schools in the Edmund Rice tradition*. Christian Brothers Australia.
- Nelson, B. (2004). "An additional \$1.3 million to expand 'Boys' Education Lighthouse Schools'". Media release. Retrieved July 19, 2004, from
<http://www.dest.gov.au/Ministers/Media/Nelson/2004/06/n730100604.asp>
- Neuman, W. L. (1997). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

- Nichols, A. (1999). *Christendom awake!: On reenergising the Church in culture*.
Edinburgh, T & T Clark.
- Nielsen, J. (1997). The use and misuse of Focus Groups. Retrieved April 15, 2004,
from Web site: <http://www.useit.com/papers/focusgroups.html>
- Non-Government Schools' Registration Board. (2004). Unpublished report to
Christian Brothers College, Adelaide.
- Otero, G. (2000, November). Relational learning: Towards a human ecology in 21st
Century schools. Retrieved May 13, 2002, from ProQuest database.
- Pallotta-Chiarolli, M. (1997). We want to address boys' education but... In J. Kenway
(Ed), *Will boys be boys: Boys' education in the context of gender reform* (pp.
17-21). Deakin West ACT. Australian Curriculum Studies Association.
- Patrick, B. C., Hisley, J., & Kempler, T. (2000). "What's everybody so excited
about?": The effects of teacher enthusiasm on student intrinsic motivation and
vitality. *The Journal of Experimental Education*. Retrieved April 10, 2002,
from ProQuest database.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative education and research methods*. Newbury Park,
CA: Sage Publications.
- Paul VI. (1965). Declaration on Christian Education. Retrieved March 2, 2003, from
[http://www.vatican.va/.../ii_vatican_council/documents/vat_ii_decl_19651028_](http://www.vatican.va/.../ii_vatican_council/documents/vat_ii_decl_19651028_gravissimum_educationis_en.html)
[_gravissimum_educationis_en.html](http://www.vatican.va/.../ii_vatican_council/documents/vat_ii_decl_19651028_gravissimum_educationis_en.html)
- Paul VI. (1967). Popularum progression. Retrieved March 2, 2003, from
<http://stthomas.edu/cathstudies/cst/mgmt/Bilbao/papers/McCann.pdf>
- Paul VI. (1975). Evangelii Nuntiandi. Retrieved March 2, 2003, from
http://goingforth.org/plandoc_part1p3.html

- Peshkin, A. (1992). Personal communication to Stake, R., October. In Stake, R. (2000). Case Studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 236-248) (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pintrich, P. R., Roeser, R. W., & de Groot, E. A. M. (1994). Classroom and individual differences in early adolescents' motivation and self regulated learning. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 14, 2, 139-152.
- Powell, R. A., & Single, H. M. (1996). Focus groups. *International Journal of Quality in Health Care*, 8, 5. Retrieved March 1, 2002, from ProQuest database.
- Punch, K. F. (1998). *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. London: Sage.
- Ramazanoglu, C., & Holland, J. (2002). *Feminist methodology: Challenges and choices*. London: Sage.
- Ressel, L. B., Gualda, D. M. R., & Gonzales, R. M. B. (2002, Spring). Focus group as a method of data collection in nursing research: An experiential report. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 1, 2.
- Richmon, M. J., & Allison, D. J. (2003). Toward a conceptual framework for leadership inquiry. *Journal of Educational Management and Administration*, 31, 1.
- Rinne, C. H. (1998, April). 'Motivating students is a percentage game.' Phi Delta Kappan: Bloomington.
- Rowe, K. (2000, November). Gender differences in students' experiences and outcomes of schooling? Exploring "real" effects from recent and emerging evidence-based research in teacher and school effectiveness. Paper presented at the meeting of the Conference of Education System Chief Executive Officers. Australian Council for Educational Research.

- Rowland, T. (2003). *Culture and Thomist tradition: After Vatican II*. Melbourne. Routledge.
- Ryan, L. (1997). The education of boys. Unpublished Master's dissertation. Australian Catholic University, Fitzroy.
- Samson, D., & Challis, D. (1999). *Patterns of excellence*. Great Britain: Person Education Ltd.
- Scherer, M. (1999). The understanding pathway: A conversation with Howard Gardner. *Educational Leadership*, 57, 3, 13. Retrieved March, 7, 2002, from <http://global.umi.com/pqdweb>
- Schultz, W. (2001). Leadership: An overview. Retrieved August, 19, 2003, from Web site: Leadershiphtml
- Schwandt, T. A. (1993). Theory for the moral sciences: Crisis of identity and purpose. In G. Mills & D. J. Flinders (Eds), *Theory and concepts in qualitative research* (pp. 5-23). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Schwandt, T. A. (1994). Constructivist, interpretivist approaches to human inquiry. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 138-157). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Schwandt, T. A. (2000). Three epistemological stances for qualitative inquiry: Interpretivism, hermeneutics, and social constructionism. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 189-213) (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Seale, C. (1999). Quality in qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 5, 4, 465-478.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (1992). *Moral leadership: Getting to the heart of school improvement*. San Francisco. Jossey-Bass.

- Sergiovanni, T. J., & Starratt, R. J. (1993). *Supervision: A redefinition*. New York. McGraw-Hill.
- Shaw, R. B. (1997). *Trust in the balance*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Shen, J. (2001). Teacher and principal empowerment: National, longitudinal comparative perspectives. Retrieved March 14, 2005, from University of Oregon, College of Education Web site:
http://eric.uoregon.edu/trends_issues/rolelead/selected_abstracts/teacher_leadership.htm
- Shia, R. M. (1998). Assessing academic intrinsic motivation: A look at student goals and personal strategy. Centre for Educational Technologies. Retrieved March 27, 2004, from ERIC database.
- Simmons, R. G., & Blyth, D. (1987). Moving into adolescence: The impact of pubertal timing and physical characteristics. Retrieved April 2, 2002, from ProQuest database.
- Slade, M., & Trent, F. (2000). What the boys are saying: An examination of the views about declining rates of achievement and retention. *International Educational Journal*, 1, 3. Retrieved 3 May, 2004, from Web site:
<http://www.flinders.edu.au/education/iej>
- Smith, R. W. (1995). *Servant-Leadership: A pathway to the emerging territory*. Retrieved April 9, 2003, from ProQuest database.
- Sofield, L., & Juliano, C. (1995). *Collaborative ministry: Skills and guidelines*. Indiana. Ave Marie Press.
- Sofield, L., & Kuhn, D. H. (1995). *The collaborative leader: Listening to the wisdom of God's people*. Indiana. Ave Marie Press.

- Stake, R. (2000). Case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 236-248) (2nd edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership* (1st ed.). New York: Free Press.
- Terry, R.W. (1993). *Authentic leadership: Courage in action*. San Francisco. Jossey-Bass.
- Tomlinson, C. A. (1999). The differentiated classroom: Responding to the needs of all learners. *The School Administrator*. Retrieved October 9, 2003, from <http://www.aasa.org/publications/sa/199910tomlinsonhtm>
- Trent, F. (2001). Aliens in the classroom or: The classroom as an alien place? Paper presented at the Association of Independent Schools, NSW, Sex, Drugs and Rock 'N' Roll Conference. Retrieved 13 July, 2004, from Boys' Education Lighthouse Schools Programme Web site: <http://www.boyslighthouse.edu.au>
- Treston, K. (1994). *Following the heart: Reflections on Christian leadership*. Samford, Queensland. Creation Enterprises.
- Treston, K. (1998). The school as an agenda in evangelisation. In M. Feheney (Ed.), *From ideal to action: The inner nature of a Catholic school today* (pp.57-71). Dublin: Veritas.
- Tyrrell, C. (1998). What are the strengths and weaknesses of the focus group interview? Retrieved March 1, 2004, from Web site: <http://www.spinworks.demon.co.uk/pub/focus.html>
- Vallance, R. (2002, December). Empirical study of a boys' school and boys' motivation. Paper presented at the Australian Association for Research in Education (AARE) Conference, Brisbane.

- Victorian Association of Principals. (1998). Improving the school performance of boys. Retrieved July 13, 2004, from Boys' Education Lighthouse Schools Programme Web site: <http://www.boyslighthouse.edu.au>
- Waldman, D. A, Bass, B. M, & Yammarino, F. J. (1990). Adding to contingent reward behaviour: The augmenting effect of charismatic leadership. *Group & Organisational Studies*, 15, 381-394.
- Walker, R. (1983). Three good reasons for not doing case studies. Retrieved February 20, 2003, from ProQuest database.
- Wentzel, K. R. (1997). Student motivation in middle school: The role of perceived pedagogical caring. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 89, 411-419.
- Wentzel, K. R. (1998, June). Social relationships and motivation in middle school: The role of parents, teachers, and peers. *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90, 2, 202-209.
- West, P. (2000). Inquiry into the education of boys. Retrieved June 16, 2004, from ProQuest database.
- White, H. C. (1992). Cases are for identity, for explanation, or for control. In C.C. Ragin & H. S. Becker (Eds), *What is a case? Exploring the foundations of social inquiry*. Retrieved May 9, 2003, from ProQuest database.
- Wiersma, W. (1995). *Research methods in education: An introduction* (6th ed). Allyn and Bacon.
- Wilcox, S. (1997). Leadership in the classroom. Instructional Development Centre, Queen's University. Retrieved August 12, 2002, from ProQuest database.
- Wright, J. (2001). Encouraging student academic motivation. Intervention ideas. Retrieved March 27, 2004, from ERIC database.

Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case study research, design and methods* (2nd ed). Newbury Park, Sage.

Younger, M., & Warrington, M. (1999). "He's such a nice man, but he's so boring, you have to really make a conscious effort to learn": The views of Gemma, Daniel and their contemporaries on teacher quality and effectiveness.

Educational Review. Retrieved August 2, 2002, from ProQuest database.

Yukl, G. (1998). *Leadership in organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ. Prentice-Hall,

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Year 8 LAP room	This is a room built on the Year balcony, to provide a space for the Learning Assistance Programme. The room is also used for Secondary Middle School meetings. The room was used for the two focus group interviews in this study.
SRC	Student Representative Council. Two students in each Year 8 Home Room are elected onto the SRC each semester.
NAIDOC week	National Aboriginal and Islander Day Organising Committee week: the last week of Term 2 is devoted to NAIDOC activities.