

AN ANALYSIS OF PRINCIPAL BURNOUT AND JOB-PERSON FIT AMONG
ELEMENTARY, MIDDLE, AND HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN ALABAMA

by

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Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

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ABSTRACT

This causal-comparative, quantitative study examined the relationship between elementary, middle, and high school principals' level of burnout and job-person fit. The purpose of this study was to identify the congruence of school principal burnout by examining the dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. Job-person fit was explored by comparing the principal and his or her work environment. The six key domains of worklife (i.e., workload, control, community, reward, fairness, and values) were examined using the Areas of Worklife Survey, and data on the level of burnout were collected using the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator's Survey. The data in the present study were collected from 119 school principals. Data were analyzed using a multivariate analysis of variance to test difference among the domains of burnout and job-person fit at different administrative levels (i.e., elementary, middle, high). The results for the multivariate analysis of variance indicated elementary, middle, and high school principals had similar self-reported Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator's Survey domains and Areas of Worklife Survey domains and no difference was found among the groups. The results for the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator's Survey were $F(6,228) = 1.428, p = .205, \eta^2 = .036$, and results for the Areas of Worklife Survey were $F(12,222) = 1.056, p = .398, \eta^2 = .054$. The researcher also provided additional discussion, implications, and suggestions for further research.

Keywords: Burnout, principal, worklife, stress, fit, exhaustion

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my amazing family who has been supportive through all my academic endeavors. Without their support throughout the years, I would not be where I am currently, both personally and professionally. I would also like to dedicate this dissertation to my mother, Joyce West, who has been my biggest cheerleader since the time I was born and to my daughter Raegan. Anything is possible with hard work and dedication!

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List of Abbreviations

Areas of Worklife Survey (AWS)

Job Demand-Resources (JD-R)

Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)

Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator's Survey (MBI-ES)

Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS)

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

Principal burnout is a well-documented problem in the field of education (Beausaert, Froehlich, Devos, & Riley, 2016). School principals today are under enormous stress as they face accountability pressures imposed by local, state, and national mandates, as well as new expectations for supervision and evaluation (Wells, 2013; West, Peck, Reitzug, & Crane, 2014). This high level of continual stress can lead to job burnout in principals and cause health issues, high turnover rates, teacher and student stress, and lead to lower student achievement (Klocko & Wells, 2015). Through on the job social interactions, burnout can be contagious and affect the larger workgroup (Bakker, LeBlanc, & Schaufeli, 2005; Gonzalez-Morales, Peiro, Rodriguez, & Bliese, 2012). Examining principal burnout is essential because of the impact a principal has on a school and the influence his or her burnout can have on the educational outcomes of all students. In this chapter, the background of the study was overviewed, the problem and purpose of the study were examined, and the significance of the study was articulated. In addition, the research questions and definitions are also included in this chapter.

Background

The term burnout was originally coined by psychoanalyst Herbert Freudenberger in 1974 to describe a set of traits that include negativism, cynicism, unhappiness, inflexibility, and boredom (Shepherd, Tashchian, & Ridnour, 2011). According to Maslach and Schaufeli (1993), burnout was initially viewed as pop psychology; however, empirical research suggests the concept of burnout is worthy of study in multiple disciplines. As burnout continues to be studied extensively, it has been recognized as an occupational hazard for workers in professions such as education, human services, and healthcare (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). School principals are

included in the risk group for workplace burnout because of their leadership roles and increasing problems within schools (Karakose, Kocabas, Yirci, & Celik, 2016). Burnout in principals is a widespread problem that can lead to reduced performance, reduced creativity, and increased absenteeism (Timms, Brough, & Graham, 2012).

The burnout phenomenon was first established by Freudenberger while he was employed in an alternative health care agency (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). During his work, Freudenberger observed that many volunteers experienced a gradual emotional depletion and a loss of motivation and commitment. Freudenberger noted this process generally took about a year and was accompanied by a variety of physical and mental symptoms (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). The word burnout was used by Freudenberger to describe this particular mental state of exhaustion because it was colloquially used to refer to the effects of chronic drug abuse (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). Practitioners recognized burnout as an important social problem long before it became a focus of systematic study by researchers (Leiter & Maslach, 2004).

Prior to the emergence of the term burnout in the 1970s, several broad social, cultural, and economic developments took place. Presidents John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson ignited a vision of public service as they challenged Americans to serve. This call to service and war on poverty caused a large influx of idealistically-motivated young people to enter human-services professions (Schaufeli, Leiter, & Maslach, 2009). This frustrated idealism of service and struggles to eradicate poverty for a decade led to the defining quality of burnout experience (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

Maslach and Leiter (2016) described burnout as “a psychological syndrome emerging as a prolonged response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job” (p. 103). Initial concern about burnout emerged from health and human service professions and the measures developed

in the 1980s tended to reflect the experience of those occupations (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). According to Valcour (2016), “Hard data on the prevalence of burnout is elusive since it’s not yet a clinical term separate from stress” (p. 98). Wells (2013) asserted the stressors and job duties of a principal are not new; a review of research from three decades revealed the principalship is filled with daily levels of stress. Several studies have identified specific stressors that are unique to school principals and job-related burnout (Friedman, 1995; Mutchler, Schwab, & Langenfeld, 1996).

Research on burnout has been led by social psychologist Maslach along with other collaborators. In the mid-1970s, Maslach began researching burnout in relation to emotions in the workplace (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). Maslach provided a theoretical framework for burnout syndrome that consists of three components (i.e., exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy) that arise in response to chronic occupational stressors (Valcour, 2016). Empirical evidence continues to provide more support for a multidimensional conception of burnout than it does for a unidimensional approach (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). This multidimensional model does not go against a simpler approach to burnout, but it does incorporate the dimension of exhaustion and couples it with two other dimensions: response toward others, or depersonalization, and response toward self, or reduced personal accomplishment (Schaufeli, Maslach, & Marek, 1993). Most of the various definitions of burnout contain these three components, even if they have not been considered within a multidimensional framework (Schaufeli & Taris, 2005; Schaufeli et al., 1993).

In 1981, within this framework, Maslach created the MBI. During the time of its development, there was an increased interest in the burnout phenomenon, but very little in guiding theory or empirical research (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Maslach’s research led

to the emergence of three aspects of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization or cynicism, and lack of personal accomplishment or professional efficacy (Leiter, Bakker, & Maslach, 2014). The qualities of energy, efficacy, and involvement underlie each of the three aspects of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). The MBI has been used throughout the world and is now recognized as the leading measure of burnout (Maslach et al., 1996).

In 1999, the areas of worklife model of burnout was introduced and identified areas of organizational life that tend to be related to the three aspects of burnout (Leiter & Maslach, 1999). The areas of worklife model frames job stressors in terms of six key areas where imbalances take place: workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). A common theme throughout research literature on burnout has focused on the problematic relationship between the environment and the person, which is often described in terms of imbalance or misfit (Leiter & Maslach, 2011). Leiter et al. (2014) asserted “the areas of worklife model emphasizes the fit between employee’s social motivations and the opportunities within the work environment” (p. 61). Both Leiter and Maslach were instrumental in developing the AWS as a means of assessing these six areas of worklife constructs (Leiter & Harvie, 1998; Maslach & Leiter, 1997). The developmental research found the AWS showed consistently high correlations with the three burnout constructs measured by the MBI (Leiter & Maslach, 2011).

The job demands-resources (JD-R) model also complements the framework of Maslach’s areas of worklife model and multidimensional burnout theory. The JD-R model, developed by Bakker and Demerouti, initially proposed job demands could lead to exhaustion and positive work resources could lead to increased engagement (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). Later, this model was expanded to highlight the dual processes of demands leading to strain and resources increasing motivation (Leiter et al., 2014). This model

emphasizes the utility of social relationships and views working relationships as a demand or a resource, depending on the quality of the relationship (Leiter et al., 2014). The JD-R model has articulated a framework identifying distinct and shared qualities of engagement and burnout (Bakker, & Demerouti, 2007). According to Bakker and Demerouti (2007), the central assumptions of this model are supported by longitudinal and cross-sectional evidence. The JD-R model has been useful in predicting burnout but has been limited mainly to the study of environmental work factors (Fernet, Guay, Senecal, & Austin, 2012).

Problem Statement

Recent studies have examined burnout in the health care profession, teachers, and service providers (Arvidsson, Hakansson, Karlson, Bjork, & Persson, 2016; Fernet, et al., 2012; Genly, 2016; Hozo, Sucic, & Zaja, 2015; Maslach & Leiter, 2016). However, there is limited research on principal burnout in the age of accountability. According to Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005), the principal accounts for 25% of a school's total impact on student learning. With the principal's integral role and effects on student achievement, retaining effective principals is imperative. Various studies on school leadership shortages found many districts were dealing with large numbers of individuals leaving school administration and were experiencing difficulty finding highly-skilled replacements (Hine, 2013; Owings, Kaplan, & Chappell, 2011; Richardson, Watts, Hollis, & McLeod, 2016). According to MetLife (2013), 75% of principals agreed the job of the principal had become too complex and job satisfaction had declined to its lowest point in over a decade. The workload principals are under has continued to increase with mounting accountability pressures, changing mandates, and new expectations for evaluation and supervision (Wells, 2013; West et al., 2014).

The problem is principal burnout affects more than principals; it affects everything associated with the school, including principal retention and health. When principals experience burnout, school productivity drops, which can cause student achievement and morale to plummet (Wells, 2013). Although the topic of burnout has been researched extensively with teachers, medical professionals, and social service workers, there are limited studies exploring burnout and job-person fit in school principals. There is also limited data to identify critical factors that influence burnout among school leaders because of limited research. As school accountability continues to increase, additional pressure on principals will also continue to increase. In other professions, burnout has had a direct effect on employee health and retention. This research provided data that help identify burnout and job-person fit in principals and possibly identify ways to reduce burnout and increase principal retention and overall job satisfaction. The problem is very little research on principal burnout currently exists although burnout affects overall principal effectiveness, can cause health issues, and adversely influences student achievement and school success.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this causal-comparative, quantitative study was to compare the level of burnout and job-person fit among elementary, middle, and high school principals. The objective of this study was to determine if there was a significant difference in burnout and person-job fit between principals at each of these school levels. The analysis centered upon principals throughout the state of Alabama and their self-reported levels of burnout based on three dimensions: (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) depersonalization, and (c) personal accomplishment. This study examined job-person fit by examining the congruence between the principal and six

domains of his or her work environment: (a) workload, (b) control, (c) reward, (d) community, (e) fairness, and (f) values.

In this study, the level in which the principal served, either elementary, middle, or high school, was the independent variable and the level of burnout based on the three constructs (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) were the dependent variables. The other dependent variables were the six key job-environment domains (i.e., workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values) used to determine congruence. Maslach and Leiter (2016) defined burnout as “a psychological syndrome emerging as a prolonged response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job” (p. 103). Job-person fit or job-environment fit focuses on the perceived gap between the person and the job or environment, which increases the likelihood of burnout as the gap increases (Leiter & Maslach, 2011).

Significance of the Study

The job demands of a principal are never-ending, complex, and stressful, which can lead to principal burnout. The day-to-day responsibilities and duties of a principal can be described as multifaceted, daunting, and unpredictable. Increased accountability, state and national mandates, initiatives, personnel and funding concerns, and overall responsibility of a school all contribute to principal stress. Sogunro (2012) described the challenges principals face as stressful, and the stress is impactful because of the enormous responsibility of educating all the students under their watch. According to Wells (2013), principals who leave the profession leave due to being overwhelmed with their job duties. Principal burnout is a well-documented problem in the educational sector and sometimes has extreme consequences (Beausaert et al., 2016).

The stresses principals encounter today are much greater than in the past and affect their job performance as well as their personal lives (Sogunro, 2012). This stress can cause principal burnout, which can lead to reduced performance, reduced initiative and creativity, and increased absenteeism (Timms et al., 2012). In addition to lower work productivity, stress and burnout can cause health problems and create a lower quality of life. Wells (2013) asserted occupational stress might lead to high blood pressure, headaches, heart issues, depression, anxiety, and sleeping difficulties. Dewe and Trenberth (2005) found 89.6% of the principals studied reported their stress level as high. The study went on to state more than 92% of all principals who participated reported stress resulting from personal conflicts among teachers and between teachers and principals was responsible for the most significant source of stress (Dewe & Trenberth, 2005).

This study measured the level of burnout in public school principals in the state of Alabama as well as examined job-person fit. The findings from this study may be used to improve work conditions in local schools, inform local, state, and national policymakers, and also be used to develop a plan to better train and retain high-quality and effective principals. Results of this study contribute to the limited body of research on principal burnout. This study is significant because the overall workload and demands placed upon principals continue to increase and principals encounter more stress today than ever before (Sogunro, 2012). Even though there are many studies pertaining to burnout, there is limited research on principal burnout and the strategies to reduce burnout. Further research on principal burnout appears to be warranted.

Research Questions

This study was based on the following research questions:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in the level of burnout, as measured by the three domains of the MBI-ES, among principals at different administrative levels (elementary, middle, and high)?

RQ2: Is there a significant difference in the level of job-person fit, as measured by the six domains of the AWS, among principals at different administrative levels (elementary, middle, and high)?

Definitions

1. *Burnout* - Burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a reduced sense of accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1986).
2. *Community* - Community is the overall quality of social interaction in the workplace, including issues of conflict, closeness, and the ability to work as a unit (Leiter & Maslach, 2004).
3. *Control* - Control is the perceived capacity to influence decisions (Leiter & Maslach, 2011).
4. *Cynicism* - Cynicism consists of negative or inappropriate attitudes toward clients, irritability, withdrawal, and loss of idealism (Leiter & Maslach, 2011).
5. *Depersonalization* - Depersonalization is unfeeling and uncaring responses toward people (Maslach & Jackson, 1986).
6. *Emotional exhaustion* - Emotional exhaustion is feelings of being emotionally overextended and drained by one's contact with people (Maslach & Jackson, 1986).

7. *Engagement* - Engagement is an energetic state where a person is dedicated to excellent work performance and confidence in one's effectiveness (Maslach et al., 1996).
8. *Fairness* - Fairness is the extent to which work decisions are perceived equal and people are treated with respect (Leiter & Maslach, 2004).
9. *Reward* - Reward is the financial, social, and intrinsic recognition from colleagues, managers, service recipients, and external stakeholders (Leiter & Maslach, 2004).
10. *Stress* - Stress is an individual's physiological and psychological response to situations that approach or exceed a person's perceived coping resources (Hiebert & Mendaglio, 1988).
11. *Inefficacy* - Inefficacy is reduced productivity or capability, low morale, and an inability to cope (Leiter & Maslach, 2011).
12. *Values* - Values are the motivations and ideals that initially attracted a person to a job (Leiter & Maslach, 2004).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The concept of burnout syndrome was first introduced to America via psychological literature over 40 years ago. Schaufeli et al. (2009) estimated there are approximately 6,000 dissertations, journal articles, and books published on burnout syndrome. Recent studies on burnout among educators have primarily focused on teachers (Karakose et al., 2016), even though principals also have a primary role in school success (Marzano et al., 2005; Met Life, 2013). Principals are tasked with leading schools with increased expectations, diminished budgets, more accountability, and around the clock access (Wells, 2013). These work demands and expectations can create stress and lead to burnout, which is a psychological syndrome that comes from a prolonged response to chronic interpersonal job stressors (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). There is extensive research on burnout dating back to 1974, but there is limited research on burnout specific to school principals. The following literature review provides an overview of the theoretical framework on burnout and related literature on job-person fit, work engagement, the role of principal, symptoms of burnout, burnout characteristics, recent studies on burnout, and principal burnout.

Theoretical Framework

Maslach's Development of Burnout

Maslach is well known as a leading researcher in the field of burnout. Maslach's research as a social psychologist began in the mid-1970s with studying burnout in relation to emotions in the workplace (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). Maslach's work led to interviews of workers in helping professions and service industries about their dealing with stress and strain (Leiter et al., 2014). After interviewing a large number of human service workers about job

stress, Maslach learned these workers often felt emotionally exhausted, developed negative feelings and perceptions about clients, and experienced crises in professional competence as a result of the emotional turmoil (Maslach, 1976; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Burnout syndrome has been identified as a response to chronic occupational stress over an extended period (Lee, Cho, Kissinger, & Ogle, 2010; Lent & Schwartz, 2012; Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Valcour, 2016). Maslach identified exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment as the three dimensions to measure burnout (Lee et al., 2010; Leiter et al., 2014; Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Maslach utilized surveys, interviews, and observations to track burnout behaviors and to standardize and develop what is today known as the MBI.

The central symptom of burnout is exhaustion. Exhaustion is a profound cognitive, physical, and emotional fatigue that negatively affects a person's ability to work and effectively feel positive about what he or she is doing (Valcour, 2016). The significant sources of exhaustion are personal conflict at work and work overload (Cooper, 1998). Depersonalization, also referred to as cynicism, was the second dimension of burnout in this framework. Maslach and Leiter (2016) described cynicism as inappropriate or negative attitudes toward others, withdrawal, and irritability. Lack of personal accomplishment, or inefficacy, is the last dimension of burnout in this framework. People experiencing reduced personal accomplishment have reduced productivity or capability, low morale, and have an inability to cope (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Reduced personal accomplishment also refers to a decline in a person's successful achievement and feelings of competence in the workplace (Maslach & Jackson, 1986; Maslach & Leiter, 2008). According to Maslach's multidimensional theory, burnout is a person's stress experience in a context of complex social relationships and involves the individual's conception of self and others (Cooper, 1998).

Areas of Worklife Model

The areas of worklife model of burnout identifies six areas of organizational life that tend to be related to the three aspects of burnout (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). This model frames job stressors in terms of six key areas where imbalances take place: workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). The areas of worklife model emphasizes employee fit regarding social motivation and the opportunity within the work environment (Leiter et al., 2014). In this model, burnout stems from chronic mismatches between individuals and their work setting in terms of some or all of the six areas (Mojsa-Kaja, Golonka, & Marek, 2015). The areas of worklife model identifies problematic aspects of the workplace by contrasting burnout and work engagement, which are on opposite poles of a three-part continuum of involvement, energy, and efficacy (Leiter & Shaughnessy, 2006).

The workload area is the most obvious and most commonly discussed source of burnout (Leiter & Maslach, 2000). There is a consistent relationship between burnout and increased workload, especially with the exhaustion dimension (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Leiter & Shaughnessy, 2006; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Workload is considered one of the most important job demands and is a consistent and robust predictor of burnout (Bakker et al., 2005; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). According to Leiter and Shaughnessy (2006) “Workload mismatches drain energy through excessive, unwelcome demands, and interfere with recovery by invading personal time or generating anxiety that continues beyond the workday” (p. 328). Control refers to any employee’s perceived capacity to influence decisions in the workplace, exercise professional autonomy, and gain access to necessary resources (Leiter et al., 2014). Issues with control occur when workers lack sufficient authority over their work or are unable to shape their work environment to fit their values (Leiter &

Maslach, 2011). The reward area of worklife addresses the extent to which workers receive sufficient recognition and compensation for work (Leiter et al., 2014). When there is a lack of recognition from colleagues, managers, and stakeholders, workers believe they and their work are devalued and can produce a feeling of inefficacy (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach et al., 1996). Workers who feel neglected by the material and social reward system of an organization also feel out of sync with its values (Leiter & Maslach, 2011). The community dimension refers to the overall quality of social interaction at work, which includes issues of conflict, closeness, and mutual support (Leiter & Maslach, 2000). Leiter and Maslach (2004) identified a key source of burnout in the area of community, which involves the social relationship between people in the workplace. The areas of worklife model uses community to makes direct reference to the quality of working relationships (Leiter et al., 2014). Community captures all the work on interpersonal conflict and social justice while fairness emerges from the literature on social justice and the area of values come from the cognitive-emotional power of job goals and expectations (Leiter & Maslach, 2011). The fairness dimension is the extent to which workers experience an appropriate level of fairness, mutual respect, and relational justice at work (Leiter et al., 2014).

According to Leiter and Maslach (2000), a consistent theme in the research literature on burnout is the problematic relationship between the environment and the person, which is often referred to as imbalance or misfit. Imbalance in workload can contribute to burnout by depleting the capacity to meet work demands (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Leiter and Maslach (2011) asserted the most commonly discussed source of burnout is a heavy workload where the demands of the job exceed human limits. Empirical findings in general workplace literature have supported the theoretical position that job stress leads to job burnout (Cordes & Dougherty,

1993; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Lee, Lim, Yang, & Lee, 2011; Lee, Seo, Hladkyj, Lovell, & Schwartzmann, 2013; Ortqvist & Wincent, 2006) and there is a correlation between workload and burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Shirom and Melamed (2006) found burnout is a consequence of stress as well as the lack of ability to adapt to an environment where stress factors occur. The AWS was developed based on a need to determine the individual experiences in relation to employees' work environment (Leiter & Maslach, 1999; Maslach et al., 2001).

Job Demands-Resources Model

The JD-R model is an articulated framework for identifying distinct and shared qualities of burnout and engagement (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014). The JD-R model emphasizes job demands and resources as workplace factors (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). According to Demerouti et al. (2001), job demands are the social, physical, psychological, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained psychological or physical effort and therefore cost. The job demands at school include several elements such as work overload, climate, policies, interpersonal conflict, and student behavior problems (Beausaert et al., 2016; Fernet et al., 2012). Job resources are the physical, social, psychological, or organizational aspects of the job that reduce job demands and stimulate personal learning, growth, and development (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources include leadership, decision latitude, recognition, and skill utilization (Beausaert et al., 2016; Rudow, 1999).

The JD-R model has provided a primary role of job demands and resources related to burnout (Fernet et al., 2012). Demerouti et al. (2001) suggested burnout development in the JD-R model follows two independent psychological processes. The first process is health impairment, which consists of the demanding aspects of the job that lead to constant overtaxing,

which causes exhaustion (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001; Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Leiter et al., 2014). Schaufeli (2017) described the first process as a stress process, which is sparked by lacking resources and excessive job demands, which lead to adverse outcomes such as poor performance, low organizational commitment, and sickness. The lack of environmental resources hampers goal attainment and further leads to withdrawal behaviors (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001; Hakanen et al., 2006; Leiter et al., 2014).

The second independent psychological process is a motivational process triggered by the abundance of job resources and may lead to positive outcomes such as superior work performance, organizational commitment, and intention to stay (Schaufeli, 2017). According to Schaufeli (2017), job resources have an inherent motivational quality, which makes employees feel engaged and spark the energy of workers, leading to better work outcomes. In the JD-R model, the burnout process includes the lack of these job resources (Demerouti et al., 2001). Burnout is most likely to occur in the workplace when low levels of resources are combined with high demands effectively because employees cannot deal with these demands (Leiter et al., 2014). Cooper and Leiter (2017) described workplace resources as money, workforce, and schedules and suggested that changes in the work environment that do not carefully consider these resources could be short-lived or cause unintended stress.

The JD-R model assumes job characteristics affecting burnout are either categorized as job demands or job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2013; Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Alarcon (2011) conducted a meta-analysis that validated the crucial role job demands play in predicting burnout. This study used between 37 and 86 different samples from various occupations and found workload, role conflict, and role ambiguity were important predictors of burnout, particularly of cynicism and exhaustion. According to Schaufeli (2017),

the JD-R model is an empirically validated and straightforward model that specifies relationships between job characteristics, employee well-being, leadership, and outcomes. The JD-R model is considered a robust model in predicting job burnout and has been supported by several substantial cross-sectional studies (Alarcon, 2011; Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), as well as several longitudinal studies (Hakanen, Schaufeli, & Ahola, 2008; Lizano & Mor Barak, 2012). The JD-R model states merely that when job demands decrease, job and personal resources increase and stimulating leadership increases work engagement and prevents burnout (Schaufeli, 2017).

Related Literature

Job-Person Fit

In psychology, there is a long history of trying to explain the behavior and interaction of people and their environment (Chartrand, Strong, & Weitzman, 1995; Walsh, Craik, & Price, 1992). According to Leiter and Maslach (2011), many interactional models view person and environment as independent entities but characterize them along corresponding dimensions so the degree of congruence, or fit between person and environment, can be measured. Research on job-person fit has evolved from earlier models, which assumed better fit predicted better adjustment and less stress (French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982). Job-person fit was also theorized to highlight the importance of individual and contextual factors (Kahn & Byosiére, 1992), and more recent research continues to use the person-environment approach (Finegan, 2000; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). Even though there are limitations in prior conceptualizations of job-person fit, a model of job-person fit would seem to be appropriate for understanding burnout (Leiter & Maslach, 2011).

In job-person fit, the person is usually framed in terms of personality or an accurate understanding of the job, and not motivations, emotions, or stress (Leiter & Maslach, 2011). The job is often defined regarding specific tasks, and the notion of fit is presumed to predict choice outcomes in terms of the occupation and organization, or job adjustment issues (Leiter & Maslach, 2011). Rogelberg (2006) defined person-job fit as the compatibility between a person and the jobs they perform in the workplace. Employee needs and the available job resources to meet those requirements, as well as work demands and workers' abilities to meet those job demands are included in this definition (Rogelberg, 2006). Sekiguchi and Huber (2011) described person-job fit as the match between job requirements and qualifications of their knowledge, skills, and abilities. Edwards (1991) defined person-job fit as the fit between the demand of a job and the abilities of a person or the needs of an individual and the supplied attributes of the job.

The concept of person-job fit is the traditional foundation for employee selection (Werbel & Gilliland, 1999). Tak (2011) investigated the relationship between person-environment fit types and employees' withdrawal attitudes and behaviors. The researcher collected the initial survey data from 901 newcomer employees who had been with their organizations less than six months. Only 297 participants responded to a second survey distributed to the 901 employees six months after the first survey. Of the 297 respondents, 80 had left their organizations. Tak (2011) found that mismatch between a new employee and the job, or person-job fit, can be related to turnover intentions early on. When employees have skills that match job requirements defined by organizational goals, they have fewer difficulties accomplishing multiple job goals (Sun, Peng, & Pandey, 2014). In a challenging work environment, person-job fit is the key to maintaining a committed workforce (Bowen, Ledford, & Nathan, 1991; Kristof, 1996).

According to Cooper and Leiter (2017), proactive employees are also more likely to achieve better job-person fit and adapt to threatening conditions. Workers today are more likely to expect jobs to fulfill economic, psychological, and social needs (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesnieski, 2010).

According to Bednarska (2016), service organizations should ensure applicants have sufficient information about a potential job to evaluate their own person-job fit. Bretz, Rynes, and Gerhart (1993) examined how organizational recruiters assess applicant fit. The study involved 54 recruiters who conducted on-campus interviews at four colleges. In an examination of the interview transcripts, the researchers found job-related coursework or experience was the most frequently mentioned determinant of person-job fit (Bretz et al., 1993). When perceived fit between job tasks to be performed at work and individual characteristics increases, the quantity of the applicant pool increases as well as the likelihood of hiring a high-quality candidate (Bednarska, 2016). Individuals who have a perceived fit with their job and organization tend to perform their jobs effectively and engage their role within the organization's mission (Hamid & Yahya, 2011). A good fit between the person and the environment results in higher levels of satisfaction as well as better mental and physical well-being (Tinsley, 2000). More satisfied workers adjust better and have more job satisfaction with jobs that align with their career and personality types (Tinsley, 2000). Holtom, Mitchell, and Lee (2006) defined fit as the employee's perceived compatibility or comfort level with the environment, job, organization, or community.

Edwards (1991) asserted person-job fit should be classified into a needs-supplies fit and demands-abilities fit. Demands-ability fit can be achieved when individuals bring sufficient knowledge, skills, and abilities to match work demands and needs-supply fit can be achieved

when an organization's values, policies, procedures, and rewards are congruent with the needs and preferences of employees (Chuang, Shen, & Judge, 2016; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Lievens and Wesseling (2015) examined generic competencies, person-job fit, and job satisfaction through a longitudinal study involving 149 trainees and their supervisors. A MANOVA and t-test for independent samples were performed to test for group difference on competence scores and person-job fit. The researchers found it is vital to ensure the right person-job fit in terms of the level of education, the field of education, and competences (Lievens & Wesseling, 2015). Cedefop (2010) argued these matches are related but distinct; a good match in educational qualifications does not mean an individual has the required job skills or that mismatches will not occur over time. Employee engagement is also a factor in person-job fit.

Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) used a meta-analysis procedure to measure engagement. The research was composed of 91 studies resulting in 770 effect sizes. The researchers examined differences among engagement measures by comparing the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), the most frequently used measure of engagement to other measures. Christian et al. (2011) found engaged employees who fully invest in their jobs might begin to develop a stronger job-person fit by increasing or changing their abilities to meet job demands, adjusting their needs, or by actively changing the job, so it is a better fit. Job-person fit is important because employees with better person-job fit are more motivated to do better at their job (Hamid & Yahya, 2011). It also means increased company revenues and reduced cost associated with employee turnover (Katsikea, Theodosiou, & Morgan, 2015). Individuals who have a perceived fit with their job and organization tend to perform their jobs effectively and engage their role in the organization's mission (Hamid & Yahya, 2011). According to Peng and

Mao (2015), job-person fit has also been significantly correlated to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is defined as the intensity of positive emotional and pleasant experiences or how much individuals like their jobs (Millan, Hessels, Thurik, & Aguado, 2013; Peng, Zhang, Tian, Miao, Xiao, & Zhang, 2014). According to Maslach and Leiter (2008), when there is a perceived mismatch between the person and the job, the likelihood of burnout increases.

Maslach and Leiter (1997) chose to address job-person fit by formulating a model focusing on the congruence between the person and six domains of their job environment. In this model, workers identify their level of job-person fit by self-identifying a level of match or mismatch for each domain. These six worklife domains have been identified as workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values. The AWS measures multiple job stressors that contribute to burnout and can provide useful diagnostic information to organizations interested in burnout interventions (Leiter & Maslach, 2000). The AWS has become a companion tool of the MBI, and there is a growing body of research supporting its use to examine job-person fit in various professions.

Laschinger, Borgogni, Consiglio, and Read (2015) examined the effects of authentic leadership, six areas of worklife, and occupational coping self-efficacy on new graduate nurses' burnout and mental health. This study used a cross-sectional survey and found authentic leadership had a positive effect on areas of worklife, which in turn, had a positive effect on occupational coping self-efficacy that resulted in reduced burnout. Another study involving 141 Austrian workers examined the buffering effects of workplace resources on the relationship between the areas of worklife and burnout (Jimenez & Dunkl, 2017). Researchers found workload and reward dimensions seemed to be the most important predictors of burnout. Workload has been associated with emotional exhaustion and reward has been correlated to

cynicism or depersonalization. High workload levels have been correlated with emotional exhaustion (Jimenez & Dunkl, 2017; Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Maslach et al., 2001). Jimenez and Dunkl (2017) also found the reward dimension related to all dimensions of burnout, as well as a robust preventive factor for depersonalization.

Work Engagement

The concept of engagement was introduced by Kahn in 1990. Kahn (1990) referred to the concept of engagement as the “harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances” (p. 694). According to Kahn (1992), a dynamic relationship exists between the person who drives personal energies (i.e., physical, emotional, and cognitive) into his or her work role and the work role that allows workers to express themselves. The physical aspect of the work engagement deals with the physical energies expended by workers to engage in behaviors related to the work environment at increased levels over an extended time. Emotional energies of the work engagement relate to how employees feel about their work and the emotional energy needed to meet emotional work demands. The cognitive aspect of work engagement concerns worker attention to work roles, mindfulness, and vigilance (Kahn, 1990).

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2008), research on burnout has stimulated most contemporary research on work engagement. Engaged workers have a sense of productive and energetic connections with their job and view their work as a challenge, unlike workers who suffer from burnout who view work as demanding and stressful (Bakker et al., 2014). Work engagement can also be viewed as a distinct independent concept that is adversely related to burnout (Bakker et al., 2014; Leiter & Shaughnessy, 2006). Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-

Roma, and Bakker (2002) defined work engagement as a positive, work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, absorption, and dedication.

Vigor is characterized by mental resilience and high levels of energy at work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Shirom (2010) described vigor as being physically, mentally, and interpersonally energetic and argued vigor is a necessary precursor for individuals to dedicate themselves to their job. Work engagement is composed of a synthesis of vigor and dedication (De Bruin & Henn, 2013; De Bruin, Hill, Henn, & Muller, 2013; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Langelan (2007) asserted absorption could be observed as a result of work engagement. Demerouti, Mostert, and Bakker (2010) identified work engagement as a high level of energy and strong work identification and characterized burnout as low energy and poor identification with work. Maslach and Leiter (1997) characterized engagement by involvement, energy, and efficacy, which are direct opposites of the burnout dimensions. Maslach and Leiter (1997) argued burnout dimensions and engagement are inversely related because energy turns into exhaustion, involvement into cynicism, and efficacy into ineffectiveness.

Many factors contribute to work engagement. Bakker et al. (2014) outlined both situational and individual factors that were precursors of engagement. Halbesleben (2010) identified job demands as the most important predictors of burnout and job resources as the most important predictors of work engagement. Christian et al. (2011) confirmed in a meta-analysis that job resources are the most important predictors of work engagement. Job resources correlated more strongly with engagement than did job complexity, work conditions, and job demands. Research conducted by Christian et al. (2011) aligned with the findings of Halbesleben (2010) who also found job resources were positively related to work engagement. Halbesleben (2010) also found job demands were significantly inversely related to engagement,

but the correlation of job resources with engagement was much stronger than the relationship of job demands with engagement. In a study of Finnish health care professionals, Mauno, Kinnunen, and Ruokolainen (2007) found those workers with a higher level of job control in 2003 reported increased levels of dedication, absorption, and vigor in 2005.

Work engagement may also be related to personality because individuals with a specific personality profile may be better able to use their job resources than workers with a different personality profile (Albrecht, 2010; Macey & Schneider, 2008). Research has also shown work engagement is positively associated with reduced turnover intention as well as with desired organizational outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Hakanen et al., 2006). Mäkikangas, Feldt, Kinnunen, and Mauno (2013) found emotional stability, conscientiousness, and extraversion were consistently related to higher work engagement. Individuals with high self-efficacy, high emotional stability, and optimism deal with reality in a particular way. Mäkikangas et al. (2013) described this personality type as those who interpret their environment as benign. According to Mäkikangas et al. (2013), “They expect things to go well, they accept setbacks and failures as normal, and not as indicative of their own lack of worthiness, and they tend to see life as something that can be influenced and acted upon” (p. 134). Findings from Mäkikangas et al. (2013), Halbesleben (2010), and Christian et al. (2011) indicated positive and proactive personalities were positively related to engagement. Bakker, Tims, and Derks (2012) also asserted employees with proactive personalities were most likely to craft their jobs, which involved actively customizing or changing their work task and job interactions. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) found more than 100 studies on burnout that included one or two constructs from lower-level personality variables. These personality variables included locus of control, self-esteem, hardiness, and type A behavior. Alarcon, Eschleman, and Bowling (2009) found

personality may influence burnout through the objective and perceived nature of one's work environment.

Work engagement has been associated with better overall health, including healthy cardiac autonomic activity (Seppala et al., 2012). It has been argued that engaged workers are more likely to participate in leisurely activities such as sports, social activities, exercise, and hobbies that foster relaxation and psychological detachment from work (Sonnentag, Mojza, Demerouti, & Bakker, 2012). Rodriguez-Munoz, Sanz-Vergel, Demerouti, and Bakker (2014) conducted research involving a diary study among 50 Spanish dual-earner couples to examine work engagement. The study involved 100 participants filling a diary booklet over five consecutive days. Rodriguez-Munoz et al. (2014) found employees and their intimate partners were happier at home on days the employee experienced high work engagement. Researchers used the UWES to measure work engagement and data were analyzed using the actor-partner interdependence model (Rodriguez-Munoz et al., 2014). According to Bakker and Xanthopoulou (2013), female principals with higher levels of work engagement were rated as more creative by teachers. Wellins, Bernthal, and Phelps (2011) identified work engagement as the extent workers enjoy and believe in what they do and feel valued for their contribution.

Role of the Principal

The role of the principal has always been regarded as complex but has shifted from primarily addressing managerial issues to a focus on instructional and transformational leadership issues (Catano & Stronge, 2006; Hallinger, 2005; Wells, 2013). Principals have the complex responsibility for managing the school, guiding teachers, networking with external partners, and communicating with stakeholders (Beausaert et al., 2016; Ozer, 2013). Principals are routinely in charge of finances, personnel management, legal issues that arise in their

schools, and student learning (Beausaert et al., 2016). The job of a school principal is now seen as considerably less desirable than it once was (Catano & Stronge, 2006; Owings et al., 2011). According to a national survey conducted by MetLife (2013), most principals report the complexity of the job and their responsibilities today have changed compared to five years ago. This is a significant shift from principals in the 1960s, who primarily focused on the “Bs” – buses, boilers, and books, which include managing staff, overseeing operations, and creating rules and procedures (Wallace Foundation, 2012). Ubben and Hughes (1992) described a good principal as a leader, professional educator, and a successful manager. For today’s principals to be successful, they must be able to be a manager and supervisor of every aspect of the physical school as well as be an instructional leader.

Several studies have found a positive relationship between the practices of principals and student achievement (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008; Sebastian & Allensworth, 2012). According to Brazer and Bauer (2013), aspiring school leaders must be prepared not only to manage schools, but they must also lead instruction. In a review of both quantitative and qualitative research on school leadership, Leithwood et al. (2004) found leadership is second only to classroom instruction among school-related factors in influencing student learning. Principal leadership is a vital component needed for sustaining school success. Scholars in the field of educational leadership continue to examine the effectiveness of school administrators in the area of instructional leadership. Studies have supported that principal instructional leadership practices have positively influenced student achievement (Hallinger, 2005).

During the effective school movement in the 1970s, the term instructional leadership was created. Currently, instructional leadership is widely accepted by educators and policymakers as

essential elements of management practice in schools (Hallinger, 2011). Even though there has not been a consensus on the exact definition of instructional leadership, researchers have developed a large body of work linking instructional leadership to school success (Robinson et al., 2008). Most research on instructional leadership has been conducted at the elementary level, with limited research conducted at the secondary level (Sebastian & Allensworth, 2012). Today's principals must develop good teachers, collaborate with stakeholders, and foster teacher leaders within their schools to be effective. According to the Wallace Foundation (2012), research over the last decade has established an empirical connection between principal leadership and student achievement. Bendikson, Robinson, and Hattie (2012) described principal instructional leadership as either direct, which focuses on improving teaching and instruction, or indirect, which has a focus on creating an atmosphere optimal for teaching and learning. School leaders are charged with guiding the teaching and learning within their schools, which now includes the implementation of Common Core State Standards. With the implementation of these new standards, teachers and students are likely to experience frustration and failure without the guidance of a skilled leader (Eilers & D'Amico, 2012).

In an analysis of principal licensing standards throughout the United States, considerably more emphasis was placed on general organizational knowledge and skills such as communicating, managing, and mentoring (Adams & Copland, 2007). Researchers from Vanderbilt University examined 66 leadership assessment instruments used in 17 school districts across the United States. The researchers found a greater emphasis on instructional leadership as opposed to management (Goldring, Porter, Murphy, Elliot, & Cravens, 2009). Even though the researchers provided findings that supported the assessment's emphasis on instructional leadership, they were critical of the data and called it "a mile wide and an inch deep" (Goldring

et al., 2009, p. 25). According to Hallinger (2005), effective instructional leaders must lead and manage and be able to align the strategies and activities of the school with the school's academic mission.

Valentine and Prater (2011) conducted a statewide study in Missouri examining the relationship between student achievement and principal leadership. The research included a population of 155 high school principals and teachers from 131 schools. An examination of the data revealed a significant positive relationship between principal education level and perceived effectiveness, principal leadership behaviors differ significantly in schools with higher and lower levels of student achievement, school and principal demographics are linked to student achievement, and principal leadership is linked to student achievement. The researchers suggested daily managerial skills such as developing rules and procedures, evaluating staff, organizing personnel and task, and providing information to stakeholders are vital to a successful school operation (Valentine & Prater, 2011). Organizational management is an essential attribute needed to be an effective school principal. Horng and Loeb (2010) reported findings that schools with strong organizational managers as principals are more likely to demonstrate academic improvements. There has been an abundance of research that connects school success with effective organizational managers (Horng & Loeb, 2010).

Rigby (2013) outlined three logics of instructional leadership as prevailing, entrepreneurial, and social justice. Prevailing logic focuses on the role of a principal as an instructional leader and a manager, whereas entrepreneurial and social justice logics focus on inequitable outcomes. According to this research, the traditional principal role, which focused primarily on school management, has shifted to teaching and learning with prevailing logic (Rigby, 2013). Since the effective school movement, principal leadership has become more

focused on instruction, but research continues to suggest organizational management is still needed. DuFour (2002) suggested schools need to view principals as the learning leader and not just as an instructional leader.

As instructional leaders implementing Common Core State Standards, principals need to understand pedagogical changes in the standards and recognize many other potential changes such as implications for students with disabilities, scheduling, grading, and technology (Gewertz, 2012). Principals have the responsibility of moving their schools forward while aligning curricula to national standards and deciding how best to implement these new standards (Manley & Hawkins, 2012). Eilers and D'Amico (2012) challenged school leaders to consider six essential elements as they guide teachers and students toward successful implementation of Common Core State Standards. These six essential elements, which have been identified by school leadership experts, are (a) establishing a purpose, (b) setting priorities, (c) aligning personnel with curricular needs, (d) practicing professional discourse, (e) encouraging risk-taking, (f) and providing feedback (Eilers & D'Amico, 2012). Pierce (1935) described the roles of the principal as a building and resource manager, fundraiser, manager of discipline, overseeing school finances, community relations, and handling busing and meals.

The role of a principal is now much more complicated, and principals are directly accountable for student achievement. Principals have reported diminished resources as their primary stress, followed by personal stress related to insufficient time to complete workload, job expectations, loss of personal time, and feeling overwhelmed with job responsibilities (Wells, Maxfield, & Klocko, 2011). The workload of the principal continues to increase with changing legislative mandates, mounting accountability pressures, and new expectations for supervision and evaluation (Wells, 2013; West et al., 2014). The complex nature of being a school principal

can lead to increased stress and possibly burnout. Since the authorization of the No Child Left Behind Act in 2001, the stress of educational leaders has been well-documented and understood (Browne-Ferrigno, 2003; Cooley & Shen, 2003; Friedman, 2002; Grubb & Flessa, 2006; Petzko, 2008; Wells, 2013; Wells et al., 2011). Recent changes in the political landscape, legislative mandates, and more accountability are also factors that may lead to increase stress and burnout in principals.

Burnout

The first public use of the term burnout appeared in 1961 in a book where a disillusioned architect withdrew from society by quitting his job and moving into an African jungle (Maslach et al., 2001). In the 1970s, Freudenberger coined the term and described burnout as gradual emotional depletion and loss of motivation (Bakker et al., 2014). Freudenberger observed this phenomenon among volunteers who had worked with enthusiasm and dedication for several months before the onset of burnout symptoms (Langle, 2003). Freudenberger (1974) defined burnout as a state of physical and mental exhaustion caused by a person's professional life. Current research has defined burnout as a prolonged response to chronic interpersonal and emotional stressors on the job (Lent & Schwartz, 2012; Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Early descriptive research on burnout has produced three widely accepted dimensions on this syndrome. These three critical dimensions of burnout are overwhelming exhaustion, detachment from the job, and a sense of ineffectiveness and lack of accomplishment (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Burnout has been linked to many adverse mental and physical health conditions including depression, anxiety, hypertension, as well as increased alcohol and drug use (Leiter et al., 2014; Valcour, 2016). In addition to the health concerns, a person experiencing burnout can

adversely affect colleagues by causing greater personal conflict and by disrupting work-related tasks (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

Burnout was initially thought to be exclusively found in the human-services professions, but research rejected that idea and confirmed burnout is a slow process of progressive loss of enthusiasm and energy that applies to workers in various occupations (Leiter & Maslach, 2006). Burnout is a syndrome composed of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment known to occur among individuals who work with others in some capacity (Maslach et al., 1996). Fowler (2015) defined exhaustion as fatigue or tiredness resulting from over-demanding conditions at work. Stress symptoms such as headaches, muscle tension, hypertension, chronic fatigue, and sleep disorders are typically associated with exhaustion (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Emotional exhaustion may result in a cynical attitude toward work and colleagues and workers may become dissatisfied with their job performance (Fernet et al., 2012). People who experience exhaustion are unable to concentrate or see the big picture, and tasks that were once enjoyable and routine seem difficult (Valcour, 2016).

Depersonalization, or cynicism, is another dimension of burnout, which consists of a distant attitude toward work and lack of pleasure in once pleasurable activities (Fowler, 2015). Maslach and Leiter (2016) described depersonalization as inappropriate and negative attitudes toward work, withdrawals, and irritability. Fatigue and cynicism are thought to be a link to a lack of efficacy in the workplace and diminish the ability to solve problems (Fowler, 2015). Cynicism is related to the development of negative attitudes toward a person's work that can best be described as a gradual loss of concern and dysfunctional disengagement (Leiter et al., 2014). According to Valcour (2016), "Cynicism can be the result of work overload, but it is also likely to occur in the presence of high conflict, unfairness, and lack of participation in decision

making” (p. 99). The final dimension of burnout is a lack of personal accomplishment, which is often referred to as reduced personal accomplishment. This dimension is a decline in a person’s actual productivity within the work environment and the reduced feeling of competence (Lent & Schwartz, 2012). Maslach et al. (2001) identified reduced personal accomplishment in relation to the self-evaluation dimension.

Professional burnout plays a significant role in the workplace. Burnout was initially thought to be a response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors at work (Etzion, 1984; Maslach et al., 2001). Genly (2016) asserted burnout is widespread and can cause severe injury, workplace errors, affect safety, lead to absenteeism, and create a decreased level of life satisfaction. In many European countries, such as the Netherlands and Sweden, burnout syndrome is widely accepted and considered a standard medical diagnosis (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Burnout can produce feelings of alienation, undermine the quality of relationships, and have an adverse effect on long-term career prospects (Valcour, 2016). According to the vast number of studies reported on this topic, burnout poses a heavy burden on society and individuals, and is related to many health problems and decreased work capacity (Leiter et al., 2014). Consequences associated with professional burnout include impaired physical health, reduced productivity, loneliness, job dissatisfaction, emotional problems, reduced quality of life, marital conflict, and loss of purpose (Ayala & Carnero, 2013; Guntupalli, Wachtel, Mallampalli, & Surani, 2014).

According to Lent and Schwartz (2012), prolonged stress can contribute to burnout, and it is important to identify the phases of stress that lead to burnout. Lazarus (1974) described positive stress, or eustress, as the optimal variety that facilitates achievement and productivity. The opposite of stress is distress. According to Sosin and Thomas (2014), when distress is

perceived by the body as a threat, a physiological process begins that causes blood pressure to rise, breathing to increase, and rapid heart rate. Seaward (2006) identified eustress, nuestress, and distress as the three kinds of stress. Any non-threatening situation or circumstance a person finds enjoyable, motivating, or inspiring is classified as eustress (Seaward, 2006). Neustresses are sensory stimuli that are not considered good or bad and have no consequential effects (Seaward, 2006). Distress is considered harmful and often referred to as stress. Seaward (2006) noted distress is classified as acute stress, which surfaces intensely and disappears quickly, and chronic stress, which may not appear intensely but lingers for a prolonged period of time. According to Schaufeli, Maslach, and Tadeusz (2017), there are no distinct boundaries between burnout and other related concepts. However, a relative distinction can be made between burnout and stress, with respect to time and between burnout and both satisfaction and depression, with respect to the domain (Schaufeli et al., 2017).

Schneider (2007) identified warning signs, mild symptoms, entrenched symptoms, and debilitating symptoms like the four phases of stress reaction that can lead to burnout. Warning signs include anxiety, boredom, fatigue, and job disinterest. Warning signs escalate to mild symptoms, which include body aches, loss of energy, sleeping difficulties, and nausea. When stress is not addressed, it can become entrenched symptoms that are more extreme and visible. In this phase, a person may experience health issues such as severe migraines, skin rashes, social withdrawal, loss of appetite, and high blood pressure (Schneider, 2007). Workers with debilitating symptoms can exhibit serious health problems such as heart attack, tension, diabetes, suicidal thoughts, and asthma. Burnout is experienced at this point, and individuals experience mental, emotional, and physical distress (Schneider, 2007). According to Clay (2013), the

warning signs of chronic, debilitating stress and burnout include medical problems, anxiety, lowered immunity, interpersonal problems, and depression.

Murray (2010) has identified five burnout symptoms: physical, emotional, behavioral, interpersonal, and attitudinal. Lambie (2007) and Murray (2010), identified fatigue, physical exhaustion, headaches, gastrointestinal problems, and low energy as the most common symptoms. An individual experiencing emotional symptoms feels helpless, irritable, and anxious (Murray, 2010). Interpersonal symptoms include withdrawal from those around them, and attitudinal symptoms include lack of work ethic, negativity, and avoidance (Lambie, 2007; Murray, 2010). Schaufeli (2017) asserted engaged leaders reduce their followers' job demands and increase their job resources, which reduces their burnout level and increases the level of work engagement.

According to Maslach et al. (2001), chronic strain without physical and mental recovery depletes a person's energy and can lead to burnout. Burnout syndrome is one of the most important occupational health problems in professions that involve working with others (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Most studies on burnout examine specific occupational groups where the prevalence of burnout is high (Mateen & Dorji, 2009). Studying burnout across occupations as well as countries has challenges because of differences in measurement and definition (Roelen et al., 2015), but the MBI, the most widely used instrument to assess burnout in helping professions, has been used in a plethora of studies (Maslach et al., 1996). The MBI categorizes burnout intensity into low, medium, or high levels for each subscale. Burnout scores are higher when the depersonalization and emotional exhaustion subscales are higher and personal accomplishment scores are lower (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Recent studies on burnout. The burnout phenomenon is widely researched by working professionals (Shaheen & Mahmood, 2016). There have been several recent studies on burnout covering various fields of study. The majority of burnout studies have focused on those in healthcare professions, students, athletes, business professionals, social workers, and teachers. Each of these areas has high burnout levels because of the high demands and stressful working conditions. According to Mealer, Moss, Good, Gozal, and Kleinpell (2016), organizational risk factors for burnout syndrome include heavy workload, lack of control or input, understaffing, diminished resources, and rapid institutional changes.

Healthcare has seen a number of recent studies related to burnout, especially with nurses, doctors, and social workers. In a meta-analysis examining 82 studies, which included 210,669 healthcare providers, a relationship between professional burnout and quality and safety in healthcare was explored (Salyers et al., 2017). Results from this meta-analysis revealed a statistically significant negative correlation between burnout and quality and safety. The negative relationship in the findings implied higher burnout among healthcare providers was associated with a lower quality of healthcare and reduced safety for patients (Salyers et al., 2017). In another healthcare study conducted in 2016, the relationship between burnout syndrome and emotional intelligence was studied in doctors, nurses, psychologists, physiotherapists, and speech therapists (Vlachou et al., 2016). Results of this study revealed a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout syndrome because emotional intelligence acts protectively against and reduces burnout syndrome.

In a meta-analysis on clergy, burnout researchers examined various burnout studies involving clergy, social workers, counselors, police, emergency personnel, and teachers. This research involved 84 studies and compared the ranges of burnout scores between clergy and

other helping professions using the MBI. The study was composed of research across these helping professions using the MBI. Results from this study revealed emotional exhaustion levels of teachers were higher than the other professions (Adams, Hough, Proeschold-Bell, Yao, & Kolkin, 2017). Shaheen and Mahmood (2016) found gender, location, qualification, and level of teaching were significant factors in the progression of burnout among public school teachers. This study of 424 teachers from 22 public schools measured the emotional involvement based on the three burnout dimensions. Age, marital status, and job status were found to be non-significant factors in the prevalence of burnout. Another study on teacher burnout found no association between gender and rising levels of burnout (Arvidsson et al., 2016). In a sample of 490 teachers, 15% of the participants had high burnout in at least two of the three dimensions of burnout, and 4% reported high burnout in all three dimensions. Arvidsson et al. (2016) found low self-esteem, poor leadership, high job demands, and teaching in higher grades were variables mostly associated with burnout.

A study involving elementary and secondary teachers found no significant differences in ages or gender in relation to the three burnout dimensions (Kokkinos, 2006). Female teachers appeared to be more emotionally exhausted than male teachers and primary teachers scored higher on emotional exhaustion, but secondary teachers had higher depersonalization. Johnson et al. (2005) found educators had the highest burnout and stress levels compared to workers in other human-services professionals. Hozo et al. (2015) also asserted the specifics of the job make education extremely stressful. Teachers show higher levels of exhaustion and cynicism, the crucial burnout dimensions, when compared to other professions (Maslach et al., 2001).

Herman, Hickmon-Rosa, and Reinke (2018) studied teacher stress, burnout, self-efficacy, and coping in comparison to associated student outcomes. Participates in this study were 121

teachers and 1,817 students in grades kindergarten to fourth grade in nine elementary schools. Latent profiles analysis was used to determine patterns of teacher burnout, stress, coping, and efficacy. These latent profiles were then linked to student academic and behavioral outcomes. Teacher adjustment was categorized into four profiles, which included stressed/low coping, stressed/moderate coping, stressed/high coping, and well adjusted. Nearly all teachers (93%) fell into a category characterized by high levels of stress, and only 7% of teachers were in a well-adjusted class. Findings also indicate student outcomes in terms of behavior and academic achievement. Across nearly all outcomes of behavior and academic achievement, the classrooms where teachers were categorized as stressed/low coping demonstrated the highest rates of student behavior problems and lowest academic achievement (Herman et al., 2018).

According to Maslach et al. (1996), the teaching profession is one of the largest and most visible and is subject to increased pressure. Educators enter the profession to help students learn and grow but are vulnerable to experiencing profound disappointment and burnout when they believe they are no longer contributing to the development of students. Unlike other professions, teachers rarely have the option of working more hours to make more money, and some choose to pursue administrative careers. In the mid-1990s, researchers began to explore job-related burnout in school principals and identified stressors unique to their work environment (Friedman, 1995). Maslach et al. (1996) asserted there has also been a general belief that burnout was caused by administrators rather than administrators being victims of burnout and job-related stress. According to Maslach and Leiter (1995), burnout has a personal effect on educators, and it may also affect student well-being and educational performance. Maslach et al. (1996) suggested burnout research also needs to be expanded to other school administrators including assistant principals, central office personnel, and superintendents.

Many studies have been conducted examining the phenomenon of burnout, but there have been a conspicuously small number of studies on burnout among managers, which includes school principals (Cooper & Kelly, 1993; Friedman, 1995; Whitaker, 1995). There is much research showing teachers have a significantly high level of burnout (Arvidsson et al., 2016; Kokkinos, 2006), higher than other service professions (Adams et al., 2017). Most principals come from the traditional ranks of classroom teachers and transition into school administration. The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators' Survey (MBI-ES) is the instrument most commonly used in teacher burnout research and is used to measure burnout in school principals.

Principal burnout. For decades, researchers have examined burnout and stress affecting school principals. The daily responsibilities principals face can be demanding and ever-changing (Richardson et al., 2016). Friedman (2002) described the principal's professional world as "overwhelming responsibilities, information, perplexities, and emotional anxiety" (p. 229). According to a survey conducted by MetLife (2013), 48% of principals feel under great stress several days per week or more. According to Beteille, Kalogrides, and Loeb (2012), more than one of every five principals leaves his or her school each year. Many schools with disadvantaged student populations face high rates of principal turnover because of the desire to move to more appealing schools (Loeb, Kalogrides, & Horng, 2010).

During the 2011-2012 school year, the estimated 115,540 public school principals worked an average of 58.1 hours a week (Bitterman, Goldring, & Gray, 2013). The year-round work of principals includes supervised activities during the school day as well as activities at night and on the weekends, addressing new policies, attaining educational goals, addressing school violence, and managing socioeconomic issues (Sogunro, 2012). Principals reported leaving the profession for many reasons including: workload, long hours, limited decision-

making, and isolation (News Briefs, 2015). Research conducted by Wells et al. (2011) found principals stated diminished resources as their primary stress, followed by personal stressors such as insufficient time to get tasks accomplished, staying current with email communication, job expectations, work-life balance, and the loss of personal time. The study also reported of the four categories included in the study (i.e., professional task management, instructional demands, handling conflict, and personal task management), personal task management had the highest mean scores (Wells et al., 2011). Sogunro (2012) explored the causes of stress in school administration and found all the principals involved in the study expressed at least one form of conflict or unpleasant relationship. More than 92% of the respondents claimed the most significant source of stress regarding people involved conflict between teachers and conflicts between teachers and the principal. The study also revealed 98% of school principals viewed time constraints as the most significant cause of stress, followed by school crises and challenges at 96% and 90% respectively. Interpretational analysis was made of the field notes and interviews with 52 principals in Connecticut for approximately 2.5 years; various causes of stress as well as coping techniques were discovered (Sogunro, 2012). Fogg (2009) asserted distress over time that goes unattended or accumulated has the potential for adverse consequences, including burnout.

Social support has been explored in several studies examining principal burnout (Basol, 2013; Stephenson & Bauer, 2010; Tomic & Tomic, 2008). A 2010 study examined the mediating role of isolation between social support and burnout in 196 elementary and secondary school principals in Louisiana (Stephenson & Bauer, 2010). The findings revealed isolation did mediate social support and, therefore, levels of physical burnout. Studies examining the relationship between social support and burnout in principals found principals who were less

isolated were less likely to suffer burnout (Stephenson & Bauer, 2010; Tomic & Tomic, 2008). Basol (2013) conducted a study comparing levels of burnout among 306 school administrators in Turkey using gender and with social support as covariates. The study revealed social support was the difference in burnout levels among administrators and increased social support led to a decrease in occupational burnout (Basol, 2013). Tomic and Tomic (2008) asserted burnout could occur from high self-imposed expectations, increasing work demands, role ambiguity, and decreased autonomy.

Ozer (2013) conducted a study exploring the trust between students and parents as well as examining the relationships between principals' level of burnout and their trust in students and parents. This study included 119 primary school principals in the Turkish city of Malatya. According to Ozer (2013), principals at smaller schools (less than 500 students) were less likely to experience a feeling of burnout than principals working in larger schools (over 1000 students). Principals in larger schools had a higher workload, which weakened their interpersonal communication with stakeholders and levels of autonomy, collaboration, and relationships decrease (Ozer, 2013).

Principal burnout also has been correlated with job satisfaction and principal self-efficacy. Research to explore the relationship between principal self-efficacy, job satisfaction, motivation to quit, and burnout was conducted with 1,818 Norwegian principals (Federici & Skaalvik, 2012). Findings from this study revealed principal self-efficacy was positively related to motivation to quit and job satisfaction and negatively related to burnout (Federici & Skaalvik, 2012). Job satisfaction and burnout were negatively related; however, burnout was positively related to motivation to quit (Federici & Skaalvik, 2012). Karakose et al. (2016) explored administrator burnout and life satisfaction levels in 92 school administrators in Turkey. The

research examined the relationship between school principals and vice principals. Findings from this study revealed school principal gain scores were below average in emotional burnout and depersonalization dimensions, but the gain scores were above average in the personal success dimension (Karakose et al., 2016). Karakose et al. (2016) found burnout in school principals was at a low level and life satisfaction levels of principals and vice principals were above average.

There are several sources of school principal burnout and stress. Research has shown the fast-paced job with increased responsibilities and external pressures are significant precursors for school principal work stress (Boyland, 2011; Earley & Bubb, 2013; Tucker, 2010). Boyland (2011) asserted accountability for student achievement is also a significant stressor. Work stress among principals is associated with low teacher performance and poor relationships with parents (Friedman, 2002; Van der Merwe & Parsotam, 2012). Martin and Willower (1981) identified 149 disparate tasks that school principals performed each day with frequent interruptions, and the demands placed on principals has continued to increase. According to Hakanen et al. (2008), increased job demands require sustained psychological and physiological efforts that lead to stress, burnout, and erosion of job satisfaction and job involvement.

Klocko and Wells (2015) examined stressors associated with leading an educational enterprise and found the perceptions of work-associated occurrences increased significantly from 2009 to 2012. This research examined stressors faced by principals with interest in determining whether they perceived teacher leadership could help relieve some stress. Principals identified time, continual interruptions, and paperwork as primary work stressors in 2012 (Klocko & Wells, 2015). Distributed leadership was determined not to alleviate these stressors identified by principals because they were linked to individual responsibility (Klocko & Wells, 2015).

Teacher leadership has also been examined in relation to principal stress. Principals from rural, suburban, and urban schools reported they encountered significant levels of stress with little connection between roles that teachers play (Klocko & Wells, 2015). Rural and urban principals reported similar levels of stress, and female principals reported more significant concerns about the extensive amount of paperwork and insufficient time to complete it.

Research investigating principal stress in independent Christian schools was conducted using a mixed methods approach (Shields, 2007). This study examined 47 principals covering a broad range of ages, experience, qualifications, and types of Christian schools. The principals in this study experienced high levels of job satisfaction, but a larger majority experienced moderate or high levels of stress (Shields, 2007). Heavy workload was identified as the most significant work-related stress factor with additional stressors including home and parenting responsibilities, particularly for female principals. This study did identify female principals and young principals as most vulnerable to work-related stress (Shields, 2007). Research has found burnout in women has been associated with worklife conflict (Etzion & Pines, 1986; Shields, 2007). Etzion (1987) also found women tended to burn out more frequently than men across the professional board.

In research conducted by Friedman (1995), a sample of 821 elementary and secondary principals self-reported a burnout scale and a role-pressure scale. Findings revealed burnout was mostly affected by parent and teacher pressures and principals who thought their leadership was rejected or challenged felt stress and eventually burn out. Among principals, negative feelings toward others were found and were expressed by a strong sense of discontentment, but principals were not found to have a sense of non-accomplishment (Friedman, 1995). In an Australian study of principal burnout from 2011 to 2014, researchers investigated whether changes in social support from colleagues, supervisors and the broader community affected levels of principal

stress and burnout (Beausaert et al., 2016). Approximately 26% of Australia's principals took part in the study, which included both primary and secondary principals. The average leadership experience was 12 years, and principals ranged between 46 and 55 years of age. This study, which included 3,572 principals, found social supports predicted decreased stress and burnout in principals (Beausaert et al., 2016).

According to Sogunro (2012), the stress principals encounter today is much greater than in the past and affects their job performance as well as their personal lives. In a study conducted by Dewe and Trenberth (2005), examining the role of leisure and coping with work-related stress, 89.6% of the principals studied reported their stress level as high or very high. A sample of 695 principals and deputy principals of secondary schools in New Zealand were involved in this study. Over 92% of the respondents reported working an average of 62 hours per week and identified stressors as heavy workload, staff relationship issues, and continual changes from educational reforms. Many studies on principal burnout have indicated sources of burnout included heavy workload, excessively high expectations, decreased autonomy, compliance with organizational policies, and lack of recognition (Friedman, 1995; Sari, 2004; Tomic & Tomic, 2008; Whitaker, 1995; Whitehead, Ryba, & O'Driscoll, 2000).

Summary

The Maslach Development of Burnout, areas of worklife model, and job demands-resource model provided a theoretical framework for measuring burnout syndrome. Research on principal burnout has been limited, but there is a prevalence of burnout studies within other helping professions (Cooper & Kelly, 1993; Friedman, 1995; Whitaker, 1995). Many of the principal burnout studies have been conducted outside the United States, and the research consistently shows a high level of burnout among educators. There are no current studies

examining burnout levels and job-person fit among school principals. The results of this study may help identify levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment, as well as areas of work engagement, which includes workload control, reward, community, fairness, and values. Further research on principal burnout is needed and will add to the narrow body of existing literature.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

The purpose of this study was to examine the level of burnout and job-fit for school principals. The analysis examined principals throughout the state of Alabama and their self-reported level of burnout based on emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. This study also examined job-person fit by examining the congruence between the principal and six domains of his or her work environment: workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values. This study analyzed the administrative level in which the principal served; elementary, middle, or high school; gender; years of experience; and background. This chapter outlines the study design, research question, hypotheses, participants, setting, procedures, instrumentation, and data analysis.

Design

The purpose of this quantitative, causal-comparative research was to examine the level of burnout and job-person fit in principals at the elementary, middle, and high school levels. Causal-comparative studies identify associations among variables and determine consequences or differences that exist between or among groups of individuals (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). According to Gall et al. (2007), this design is the most appropriate because the researcher investigated the differences in the independent variables and then determined whether the groups differed on the dependent variable. In this study, the administrative level in which the principal served, elementary, middle, or high school, was the independent variable and the level of burnout measured by three scales (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) and the congruence of six key job-environment domains (i.e., workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values) were the dependent variables. An analysis was

conducted by utilizing a MANOVA to determine the differences in each of the domains between elementary, middle, and high school principals.

Research Questions

The study was based on the following research questions:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in the level of burnout, as measured by the three domains of the MBI-ES, among principals at different administrative levels (elementary, middle, and high)?

RQ2: Is there a significant difference in the level of job-person fit, as measured by the six domains of the AWS, among principals at different administrative levels (elementary, middle, and high)?

Hypotheses

The null hypotheses for this study were:

H₀1: There is no significant difference in the level of burnout, as measured by the three domains of the MBI-ES, among principals at different administrative levels (elementary, middle, and high).

H₀2: There is no significant difference in the level of job-person fit, as measured by the six domains of the AWS, among principals at different administrative levels (elementary, middle, and high).

Participants and Setting

The participants for this study were drawn from a convenience sample of elementary, middle, and high school principals located in Alabama during the spring semester of the 2017-2018 school year. The population consisted of all 1467 public school principals in Alabama who served students in kindergarten through grade 12. Names and email addresses of every public

school principal in Alabama were acquired from the Alabama State Department of Education directory located on their publicly-accessible website. All public school principals in the state of Alabama were emailed information about the study, invited to participate, and provided a link to the surveys. The entire population of public school principals in Alabama were invited to participate in the study to provide the best opportunity for a higher response and to have population validity.

Of the 1467 public schools in Alabama, 1063 are identified as elementary schools, 522 are identified as middle schools, and 499 are identified as high schools (the total number of principals reported by the Alabama State Department of Education is lower than the combined total due to some schools being represented in more than one category due to an overlap in grade levels). For the purpose of this study, elementary schools were identified as any school the primary grades of which were kindergarten through grade five. Middle schools were identified as schools with grades six through grade eight. High schools were identified as any school the primary grades of which were ninth through twelfth.

Participants from the state of Alabama were used for this study due to the proximity of the researcher and accessibility. At the time of the study, the researcher was a public school principal in Alabama. During the 2015-2016 school year, the state of Alabama had 743,893 public school (Pre-K-12) students (Alabama State Department of Education, 2016). According to Hill, Ottem, and DeRoche (2016), during the 2011-2012 school year, there were 115,540 principals of K-12 schools in the United States. Of that number, 89,810 were public school principals, and private school principals accounted for 25,730. In 2012, the average salary for public elementary school principals was \$92,600, and the average salary for secondary school principals was \$96,000 (Hill et al., 2016). During the 2011-2012 school year, public school

principals averaged 7.2 years of experience as a principal, female principals made up 52% of the public school principal workforce, and the average principal age was 48. The majority of public school principals held a master's degree as their highest degree, 26% had earned an educational specialist degree, and 10% had a doctorate degree. Approximately 80% of all public school principals were White, 9% were Black, and 7% were Hispanic (Hill et al., 2016).

In Alabama, the median household income in 2015 was \$43,623, and 18.5% of the population lived below the poverty line (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). The state of Alabama spent \$9,098 per student during the 2014-2015 school year (Alabama State Department of Education, 2016). The population of the state of Alabama was 4,863,300, more than 84% of the population above the age of 25 had completed high school or higher, and 23.5% had a bachelor's degree or higher (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). According to the Center for Business and Economic Research (2017), the top five industries in the state of Alabama were manufacturing, health care and social assistance, retail trade, accommodation and food services, and educational services.

To achieve a statistical power of 0.70, at an alpha of 0.05, and with a large effect size, a minimum of 81 participants was needed (Gall et al., 2007). A total of 119 principals participated in this study, exceeding the minimum requirement. The sample for this study consisted of 61 (51%) male principals and 58 (49%) female principals. In addition, 89 (75%) of the principals in the sample were of Caucasian ethnicity, 27 (23%) of African-American ethnicity, one of Asian ethnicity, and two of other ethnicities (see Table 1). Elementary principals made up 65 (55%) of the participants, 25 (21%) were middle school principals, and 29 (24%) were high school principals (see Table 2). Thirty-nine (33%) participants reported having a master's degree, 55 (46%) reported a specialist degree, and 25 (21%) reported an earned doctorate degree as their highest degree obtained (see Table 3). The sample also consisted of four (3%) principals

between the ages of 25-34, 44 (37%) principals between the ages of 35-44, 45 (38%) principals between the ages of 45-54, 25 (21%) principals between the ages of 55-64, and one principal over the age of 65 (see Table 4). The overall response rate for this study was 8%.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Participants' Demographics

| Demographics | N | % |
|------------------|----|----|
| Male | 61 | 51 |
| Female | 58 | 49 |
| African-American | 27 | 23 |
| Asian | 1 | <1 |
| Caucasian | 89 | 75 |
| Hispanic | 0 | 0 |
| Other | 2 | 2 |

Of the 65 elementary school principals included in this sample, 54 (83%) were of Caucasian ethnicity and 11 (17%) of African-American ethnicity. The sample of elementary principals consisted of two (3%) between the ages of 25-34, 25 (38%) between the ages of 35-44, 21 (32%) between the ages of 45-54, 16 (25%) between the ages of 55-64, and one over the age of 65. The sample of elementary school principals consisted of 24 (37%) males and 41 (63%) females. Of the elementary principals participating in the study, 21 (32%) reported a master's degree, 33 (51%) reported a specialist degree, and 11 (17%) reported an earned doctorate as their highest degree earned.

The sample included 25 middle school principals. The middle school principals were composed of 13 (52%) principals of Caucasian ethnicity, 10 (48%) of African-American ethnicity, one of Asian ethnicity, and one of other ethnicities. The sample of middle school principals consisted of one between the ages of 25-34, 10 (48) between the ages of 35-44, nine

(36%) between the ages of 45-54, and five (20%) between the ages of 55-64. The sample of middle school principals consisted of 14 (56%) males and 11 (44%) females. Of the middle school principals participating in the study, 11 (44%) reported a master's degree, nine (36%) reported a specialist degree, and five (20%) reported an earned doctorate as their highest degree earned.

There were 29 high school principals included in this sample. Of the high school principals, 22 (76%) were of Caucasian ethnicity, 6 (21%) of African-American ethnicity, and 1 (3%) of other ethnicities. The sample of high school principals consisted of 1 between the ages of 25-34, nine (31%) between the ages of 35-44, 15 (52%) between the ages of 45-54, and four (14%) between the ages of 55-64. The sample of high school principals consisted of 23 (79%) males and six (21%) females. Of the high school principals participating in the study, 7 (24%) reported a master's degree, 13 (45%) reported a specialist degree, and 9 (31%) reported an earned doctorate as their highest degree achieved.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Participants' Administrative Levels

| Administrative Levels | N | % |
|-----------------------|----|----|
| Elementary | 65 | 55 |
| Middle | 25 | 21 |
| High | 29 | 24 |

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Participants' Highest Degree Completed

| Degree | N | % |
|-------------------|----|----|
| Master's Degree | 39 | 33 |
| Specialist Degree | 55 | 46 |
| Doctorate | 25 | 21 |

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Participants' Age Range

| Age Range | N | % |
|-----------|----|----|
| Under 25 | 0 | 0 |
| 25-34 | 4 | 3 |
| 35-44 | 44 | 37 |
| 45-54 | 45 | 38 |
| 55-65 | 25 | 21 |
| Over 65 | 1 | <1 |

Instrumentation**Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey**

The MBI-ES was developed by Maslach and Jackson in 1986. The MBI is recognized as the leading measure of burnout and was originally used in research in the United States and Canada (Maslach et al., 1996). Since its development, the MBI has widely been used in research studies throughout the world and translated into several languages (Maslach et al., 1996). The original MBI was designed for professionals in the human-services field with a later adaptation to use with educators. The MBI-ES consists of 22 questions that measure emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. Responses for the MBI-ES were recorded on a seven-point Likert-type scale that ranges from never to every day. Responses were as follows: Never = 0, A few times per year or less = 1, Once per month or less = 2, A few times per month = 3, Once per week = 4, A few times per week = 5, and Every day = 6. The emotional exhaustion subscale, which accesses feelings of emotional exhaustion at work, consists of nine items. Depersonalization consists of five items and describes feelings of impersonal responses to co-workers. The personal accomplishment subscale, which describes feelings of competence and success about personal achievements, consists of eight items (Maslach et al., 1996).

Mean scores from each subscale determined the degree of burnout and scores ranged from high to low (see Table 5). The higher the mean scores of the depersonalization and emotional exhaustion constructs the greater the level of burnout. The emotional exhaustion scores ranges were high (27 or above), moderate (17-26), or low (0-16). The score ranges for depersonalization were high (13 or above), moderate (7-12), or low (0-6). The score ranges for personal accomplishment were high (0-31), moderate (32-38), or low (39 or above) (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005; Sari, 2004). The higher the mean scores of the depersonalization and emotional exhaustion subscales, the higher the level of burnout. A low degree of burnout is reflected in low scores on depersonalization and emotional exhaustion and high scores on the personal accomplishment subscales. An average of all three subscales indicates a moderate level of burnout (Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, & Kantas, 2003; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). The reliability coefficients measured by Cronbach's alpha procedure were 0.90 for exhaustion, 0.90 for depersonalization, and 0.84 for personal accomplishment. Test-retest reliability had a small range from 0.53 to 0.89 between each construct and was significantly beyond the 0.001 level, which was sufficient for research purposes (Sari, 2004). Internal consistency was estimated by Cronbach's coefficient alpha ($n = 1,316$) with an overall reliability coefficient for the subscales as follows: 0.90 for emotional exhaustion, 0.79 for depersonalization, and 0.71 for personal accomplishment (Maslach, et al., 1996).

Table 5

MBI-ES Interpretation of Scores

| Subscale | Low Burnout | Moderate Burnout | High Burnout |
|-------------------------|-------------|------------------|--------------|
| Emotional Exhaustion | 0-16 | 17-26 | 27+ |
| Depersonalization | 0-6 | 7-12 | 13+ |
| Personal Accomplishment | 37+ | 31-36 | 0-30 |

Notes. The scale is reversed for personal accomplishment. The low burnout category scores indicate low levels of dissatisfaction with personal accomplishment.

The MBI-ES instrument was chosen because it was the leading instrument used to assess burnout in teachers and educational administrators (Maslach, Jackson, & Schwab, 1986). The MBI-ES also had strong internal consistency and a wide usage over a 30-year period. Studies by Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) and Gold (1984) validated the three-factor structure of the instrument. Iwanicki and Schwab's (1981) measure of internal consistency yielded a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.90 for emotional exhaustion, 0.76 for depersonalization, and 0.76 for personal accomplishment. Gold's (1984) Cronbach's coefficient yielded 0.90 for emotional exhaustion, 0.74 for depersonalization, and 0.72 for personal accomplishment. Croom's (2003) study yielded 0.90 for emotional exhaustion, 0.75 for depersonalization, and 0.77 for personal accomplishment. The MBI-ES is not designed to label individuals as "burned out" but is designed to identify areas within a school that would help improve working conditions (Maslach et al., 1996). The estimated time of completion for the MBI-ES was 10 minutes. The researcher's permission from Mind Garden to use the identified instrument is located in Appendix A, and five sample questions from the MBI-ES are located in Appendix B.

Areas of Worklife Survey

The AWS was developed by Leiter and Maslach (Maslach et al., 1996) and is the companion piece to the MBI. The AWS was created to assess six areas of the work environment

that play a role in work engagement or burnout. The AWS consists of 28 items that produce distinct scores for each of the six areas of worklife: (a) workload, (b) control, (c) reward, (d) community, (e) fairness, and (f) values. Each scale has both positively and negatively worded items, and respondents indicated their degree of agreement on a five-point Likert-type scale. The scales ranged from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Responses were as follows: Strongly Disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, Hard to Decide = 3, Agree = 4, and Strongly Agree = 5. The AWS defined a job-person fit or match as a high score (greater than 3.00), indicating a higher degree of congruence between the workplace and the respondent's preferences; it defined a mismatch as a low score (less than 3.00), indicating more congruence between the worker and the workplace (Leiter & Maslach, 2011).

The items on the AWS were initially developed from a series of staff surveys conducted by the Centre for Organizational Research & Development (Leiter & Harvie, 1998; Maslach & Leiter, 1997). The development research found the AWS had a consistent factor structure across initial samples and showed high correlations with the three burnout dimensions measured by the MBI (Leiter & Maslach, 2011). A qualitative analysis was conducted of the 1,443 comments that contained complaints. The normative sample ($N = 22,714$) for the AWS was drawn from a variety of work settings throughout many developed countries (Leiter & Maslach, 2011). The validity of the items was established by examining correspondence of scores on the AWS measure along with written comments provided by participants in a hospital study (Leiter & Maslach, 2003). The reliability coefficients measured by Cronbach's alpha procedure were 0.666 for workload, 0.827 for control, 0.781 for reward, 0.803 for community, 0.799 for fairness, and 0.726 for values. AWS scales have a strong level of consistency determined by test retest correlations. The correlations were of a similar size ranging from 0.51 to 0.62, confirming the

six AWS scales were equally responsive to their respective qualities of work setting (Leiter & Maslach, 2011). The AWS has been used recently in several studies involving nurses, public service employees, athletes, and teachers (Bamford, Wong, & Laschinger, 2013; Boamah, & Laschinger, 2015; Brom, Buruck, Horváth, Richter, & Leiter, 2015; DeFreese, & Smith, 2013; Laschinger et al., 2015). The estimated time of completion for the AWS was 10 minutes. The researcher's permission from Mind Garden to use the identified instrument is located in Appendix C, and five sample questions from the AWS are located in Appendix D.

Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire was created by the researcher. It asked participants for information related to age, gender, race, highest degree earned, years of experience, school level, and school enrollment. The following are the questions included in the demographic questionnaire: highest level of education attained (i.e., bachelors, masters, specialist, or doctorate), number of years served as a classroom teacher (i.e., 0-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, or over 20), primary subject taught as a classroom teacher (i.e., elementary education, secondary education, physical education, special education, or other), number of overall years as an administrator (i.e., 0-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, or over 20), number of years as a principal (i.e., 0-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, or over 20), level of school (i.e., elementary, middle, or high school), current school enrollment numbers (i.e., 1-500, 501-1000, 1001-1500, or over 1500), poverty level of school based on free and reduced priced lunch (i.e., 0-25%, 26-50%, 51-75%, or above 75%), is school identified as Title I school (yes or no), approximate number of hours worked weekly (i.e., less than 40, 41-50, 51-60, 61-70, or over 70), gender (male or female), age (i.e., under 25, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, and age 65 or older), ethnicity (i.e., African-American, Asian, Caucasian, Hispanic, or other), and marital status (i.e., single, married, or divorced). These 14

demographic questions were used to compile descriptive statistics for all respondents. All questions were in closed form and respondents were surveyed using a secure platform. The estimated time of completion for the demographic survey was five minutes. The demographic questionnaire used in this study is located in Appendix E.

Procedures

Upon Liberty University Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval (see Appendix F), all subjects in the population ($N = 1467$) were emailed an initial recruitment letter (see Appendix G) and consent form (see Appendix H). Names and email addresses of every public school principal in Alabama were acquired from the Alabama State Department of Education directory located on their publically-accessible website. The researcher was granted permission to use the Education Directory from the Alabama State Department of Education (see Appendix I). A link to the MBI-ES, AWS, and demographic questionnaire was provided through Transform. Transform is a secure survey hosting system that allows individuals to assess themselves using Mind Garden's self-rating instruments. The Transform platform was designed based on research method practice at the Institute of Personality Assessment and Research model. The email from the researcher explained the purpose of the study, emphasized participation was voluntary, and gave participants a general idea on the time it would take to complete the survey. A statement regarding no risk or cost to participate was also included. Participants were encouraged to complete the survey by May 31, 2018. Participants were also thanked for their participation. All participants who completed the survey by this date were included in a drawing to receive a \$25 Amazon gift card. Eight Amazon gift cards were given out by the researcher. The MBI-ES, AWS and demographic questionnaire take approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete.

For subjects who did not respond to the initial email, a second email (see Appendix J) containing the MBI-ES, AWS, and demographic questionnaire was sent approximately three weeks after the initial email. Two weeks prior to the survey deadline, a third and final email (see Appendix K) was also sent to those participants who had not responded. The research was conducted over a period of eight weeks. Consent was assumed because the survey was voluntary in nature. All information is held in strict confidence, and no personal demographic information will be released or shared. Each participant was assigned a participant identification number, and the corresponding email and identification sheets are stored in a secure location inside the researcher's residence. Participant email addresses were used to assist with follow-up emails, keep the researcher aware of the rate of return, and to select eight participants randomly for the gift cards.

Every effort was made to protect participant anonymity. All responses were saved electronically and are only accessible to the researcher. The data collected are stored on the researcher's personal computer in his home office and are password and firewall-protected at all times. Data were analyzed, and findings were reported in Chapter Four. Upon the completion of the study, data will be stored for a period of three years. All files collected throughout the research study are locked in a fireproof file cabinet located in the researcher's home office. After three years have passed, the researcher will destroy the data and all related documents.

Data Analysis

Statistics Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to organize and analyze the data collected in this study. SPSS is a statistical software program that facilitates data management and analysis of data collected. Survey responses from elementary, middle, and high school principals were compared. The research involved three independent groups of participants and

nine dependent variables, so a MANOVA was used to determine the statistical differences between the mean scores of the independent variable on the dependent variables. According to Gall et al. (2007), a MANOVA was the most suitable statistical test for this research because this statistical technique is used to determine group differences on more than one dependent variable. This statistical analysis determines whether there are statistically significant differences between the centroids of different groups. In this study, the school level in which a principal served was the independent variable and the independent variable was analyzed for differences among the dependent variables, burnout domains, and job-person fit domains. Descriptive statistics were used to measure central tendencies, measures of variability, and standard deviation. All demographic data are presented in charts and graphs for comparison and analysis.

The MANOVA required several assumption tests to be conducted (Green & Salkind, 2008; Warner, 2008). The researcher checked for normality by using histograms and a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test since the sample size was larger than 50. A scatterplot matrix was used to check for multivariate normal distribution. Box's M test was then conducted to check for homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. The researcher used Pearson's product moment test to check for the absence of multicollinearity and used observation to meet the assumptions of the level of measurement and independent observations (Green & Salkind, 2008; Warner, 2008).

The MANOVA was assessed at the 95% confidence level using Wilk's Lambda with an alpha level, $p < 0.05$. The effect size for this study was interpreted using eta-squared. The MANOVA was not found to be statistically significant; thus, post hoc analyses were not conducted.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a statistically significant difference in the level of burnout and job-person fit in principals at the elementary, middle, and high school levels. This study identified the congruence of school principal burnout and job-person fit by exploring the dimensions of burnouts and the areas of worklife. This chapter presents an analysis of the data collected during the research phase of the study. The statistical results and accompanying graphical representations are organized according to the research hypotheses.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in the level of burnout, as measured by the three domains of the MBI-ES, among principals at different administrative levels (elementary, middle, and high)?

RQ2: Is there a significant difference in the level of job-person fit, as measured by the six domains of the AWS, among principals at different administrative levels (elementary, middle, and high)?

Null Hypotheses

H₀1: There is no significant difference in the level of burnout, as measured by the three domains of the MBI-ES, among principals at different administrative levels (elementary, middle, and high).

H₀2: There is no significant difference in the level of job-person fit, as measured by the six domains of the AWS, among principals at different administrative levels (elementary, middle, and high).

Descriptive Statistics

Data were obtained for the three dependent variables of burnout and six dependent variables of job-person fit. Burnout was measured using the MBI-ES (see Table 6) and job-person fit was assessed using the AWS. Data were collected from elementary, middle, and high school principals. For the MBI-ES, the reported mean and standard deviation scores for elementary school principals ($N = 65$) were as follows: emotional exhaustion ($M = 24.68$, $SD = 12.89$), depersonalization ($M = 5.51$, $SD = 5.03$), and personal accomplishment ($M = 40.69$, $SD = 4.54$). The reported mean and standard deviation scores for middle school principals ($N = 25$) were as follows: emotional exhaustion ($M = 24.12$, $SD = 13.52$), depersonalization ($M = 6.80$, $SD = 6.36$), and personal accomplishment ($M = 40.80$, $SD = 5.69$). The reported mean and standard deviation scores for high school principals ($N = 29$) were as follows: emotional exhaustion ($M = 21.66$, $SD = 10.67$), depersonalization ($M = 5.76$, $SD = 5.30$), and personal accomplishment ($M = 38.34$, $SD = 7.68$).

Data for the MBI-ES were also examined based on the interpretation of scores (see Table 5). Forty-eight (40%) principals in this study reported having a high level of burnout based on the emotional exhaustion domain. High burnout was reported as a subscale score of 27 or above. Of the sample, 28 (43%) elementary principals, 10 (40%) middle school principals, and 10 (34%) high school principals reported a high degree of burnout. Based on the depersonalization domain, 16 (13%) principals reported having a high degree of burnout. Scores 13 or above constituted high burnout in the depersonalization domain. Of the sample, 8 (12%) elementary principals, 3 (12%) middle school principals, and 5 (17%) high school principals reported a high degree of burnout. There were 12 (10%) of the sample who had both high emotional exhaustion and high depersonalization. Seven (11%) elementary principals, 2 (8%) middle school

principals, and 3 (10%) high school principals reported both high emotional exhaustion and high depersonalization (see Table 7).

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for MBI-ES Domains

| | Group | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>N</i> |
|-------------------------|------------|----------|-----------|----------|
| Emotional Exhaustion | Elementary | 24.676 | 12.890 | 65 |
| | Middle | 24.120 | 13.519 | 25 |
| | High | 21.655 | 10.671 | 29 |
| | Total | 23.823 | 12.485 | 119 |
| Depersonalization | Elementary | 5.507 | 5.034 | 65 |
| | Middle | 6.800 | 6.363 | 25 |
| | High | 5.758 | 5.302 | 29 |
| | Total | 5.840 | 5.377 | 119 |
| Personal Accomplishment | Elementary | 40.692 | 4.544 | 65 |
| | Middle | 40.800 | 5.693 | 25 |
| | High | 38.344 | 7.677 | 29 |
| | Total | 40.142 | 5.730 | 119 |

Table 7

High Burnout Levels based on Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization

| | High Emotional Exhaustion | % | High Depersonalization | % | High Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization | % |
|------------|---------------------------------|-----|---------------------------|-----|---|-----|
| Elementary | 28 | 43% | 8 | 12% | 7 | 11% |
| Middle | 10 | 40% | 3 | 12% | 2 | 8% |
| High | 10 | 34% | 5 | 17% | 3 | 10% |
| Total | 48 | 40% | 16 | 13% | 12 | 10% |

Data for the MBI-ES domains were also examined to determine low burnout levels in principals at different administrative levels. For the emotional exhaustion domain, low burnout was determined by scores at or below 16, and for the depersonalization domain, low burnout scores were determined by a score at or below 6. Thirty-eight (32%) principals reported low burnout scores on the emotional exhaustion subscale. There were 19 (29%) elementary

principals, 9 (36%) middle school principals, and 10 (34%) high school principals who reported low levels of burnout on the emotional exhaustion subscale. Seventy-six (64%) in the sample reported low depersonalization. Forty-two (65%) elementary principals, 15 (60%) middle school principals, and 19 (66%) high school principals reported low depersonalization subscale scores. There were 37 (31%) in the sample who had both low emotional exhaustion and low depersonalization. Nineteen (29%) elementary principals, nine (36%) middle school principals, and nine (31%) high school principals reported both low emotional exhaustion and low depersonalization (see Table 8).

Table 8

Low Burnout Levels based on Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization

| | Low Emotional Exhaustion | % | Low Depersonalization | % | Low Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization | % |
|------------|--------------------------------|-----|--------------------------|-----|--|-----|
| Elementary | 19 | 29% | 42 | 65% | 19 | 29% |
| Middle | 9 | 36% | 15 | 60% | 9 | 36% |
| High | 10 | 34% | 19 | 66% | 9 | 31% |
| Total | 38 | 32% | 76 | 64% | 37 | 31% |

Data collected for the AWS from elementary, middle, and high school principals included mean and standard deviation scores for each of the six scales (see Table 9). For elementary school principals ($N = 65$), the following data were reported: workload ($M = 2.30$, $SD = 0.71$), control ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 0.78$), reward ($M = 3.25$, $SD = 0.73$), community ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 0.68$), fairness ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 0.87$), and values ($M = 4.02$, $SD = 0.75$). AWS data were collected from middle school principals ($N = 25$), and reported mean and standard deviation scores for each scale were as follows: workload ($M = 2.41$, $SD = 0.71$), control ($M = 3.70$, $SD = 0.59$), reward ($M = 3.04$, $SD = 0.87$), community ($M = 3.96$, $SD = 0.66$), fairness ($M = 3.29$, $SD = 0.83$), and values ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 0.85$). Data collected from high school principals ($N = 29$) for the

AWS reported mean and standard deviation scores for each scale were as follows: workload ($M = 2.20$, $SD = 0.81$), control ($M = 3.38$, $SD = 0.70$), reward ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 0.90$), community ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 0.70$), fairness ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 0.81$), and values ($M = 3.888$, $SD = 0.78$).

The AWS has six subscales that measure from 1.00 (extreme mismatch) to 5.00 (extreme match) with a midpoint at 3.00 and a range of 4.00. The AWS subscales were designed to have one score for each subscale, and it was not possible to combine the six subscale scores into one overall score. This was a normative sample ($N = 22,714$) from a variety of work-settings, with the majority of respondents being hospital ($N = 15,260$) and university ($N = 4,338$) employees. The researcher examined the principals' reported responses on the AWS subscale in this study and found the level of workload was more of a mismatch than the normative sample. The reported level of workload for all principals in this study was 2.31. The reported level of reward for principals was 3.19, which was identical to the normative sample. Each of the other subscales for the sample in this study was a higher level of a match than the normative sample (see Table 10).

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for AWS Domains

| | Group | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>N</i> |
|-----------|------------|----------|-----------|----------|
| Workload | Elementary | 2.307 | .712 | 65 |
| | Middle | 2.241 | .711 | 25 |
| | High | 2.206 | .809 | 29 |
| | Total | 2.305 | .809 | 119 |
| Control | Elementary | 3.716 | .780 | 65 |
| | Middle | 3.700 | .588 | 25 |
| | High | 3.675 | .700 | 29 |
| | Total | 3.703 | .719 | 119 |
| Reward | Elementary | 3.246 | .732 | 65 |
| | Middle | 3.040 | .872 | 25 |
| | High | 3.206 | .895 | 29 |
| | Total | 3.193 | .801 | 119 |
| Community | Elementary | 3.861 | .680 | 65 |
| | Middle | 3.960 | .660 | 25 |
| | High | 3.758 | .697 | 29 |
| | Total | 3.857 | .674 | 119 |
| Fairness | Elementary | 3.203 | .870 | 65 |
| | Middle | 3.292 | .827 | 25 |
| | High | 3.410 | .806 | 29 |
| | Total | 3.272 | .844 | 119 |
| Values | Elementary | 4.020 | .754 | 65 |
| | Middle | 3.816 | .848 | 25 |
| | High | 3.879 | .786 | 29 |
| | Total | 3.942 | .780 | 119 |

Table 10

AWS Subscales Comparison to Normative Sample

| | Normative Sample* | Elementary N = 65 | Middle N = 25 | High N = 29 | Sample Average N = 119 |
|-----------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------|----------------|------------------------------|
| Workload | 2.96 | 2.30 | 2.42 | 2.21 | 2.31 |
| Control | 3.31 | 3.72 | 3.70 | 3.68 | 3.70 |
| Reward | 3.19 | 3.25 | 3.04 | 3.21 | 3.19 |
| Community | 3.38 | 3.86 | 3.96 | 3.76 | 3.86 |
| Fairness | 2.78 | 3.20 | 3.29 | 3.41 | 3.27 |
| Values | 3.24 | 4.02 | 3.82 | 3.88 | 3.94 |

Note. *Leiter & Maslach (2011).

Results

Data Screening

Data screenings for this research study were conducted on each level of the principals' dependent variable. Burnout was measured using three constructs (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) and job-person fit was examined by the congruence between the principal and six domains of his or her work environment: workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values. The researcher scanned the data for inconsistencies after sorting data for each variable. No data errors or inconsistencies were recognized. The researcher used a box and whisker plot (see Figure 1) to detect outliers for the dependent variables of the MBI-ES. Outliers were identified for six cases, and one was an extreme outlier for the MBI-ES domains. A box and whisker plot was also used for the dependent variables of the AWS (see Figure 2). Outliers were identified for 21 cases, and 11 were extreme outliers for the AWS domains. Though outliers can have an adverse effect on the results of the MANOVA due to their influence on mean and standard deviations of the groups (Gall et al., 2007), the researcher made the decision to include all outliers in the statistical analysis. This decision was made, as the elimination of the 10 extreme outliers had no effect on

the overall MANOVA results, and no significant difference was noted between the sample groups.

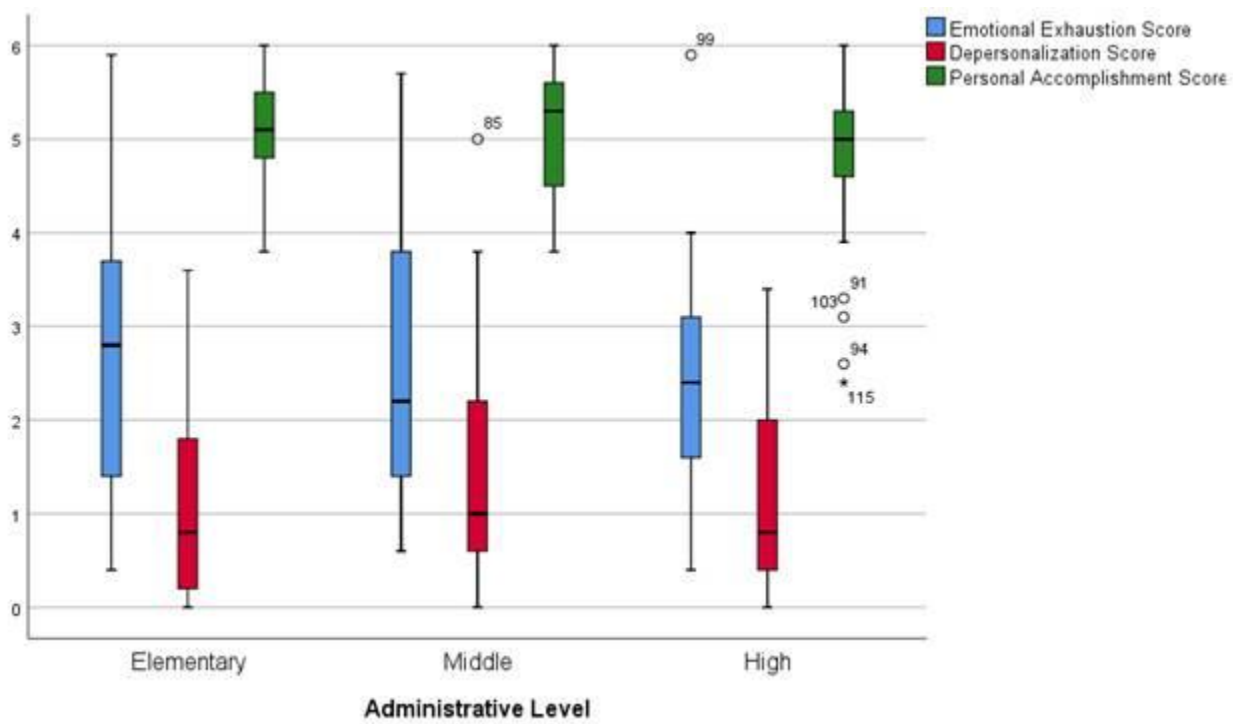


Figure 1. Box and whisker distribution for MBI-ES domain scores.

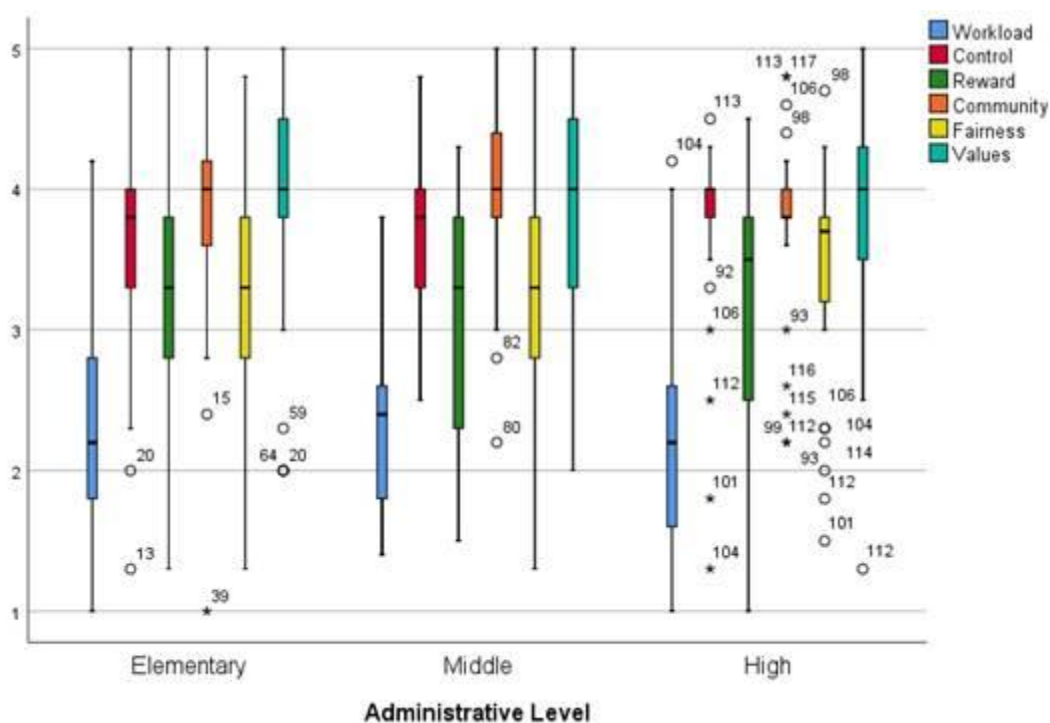


Figure 2. Box and whisker distribution for AWS domain scores.

Assumptions

A one-way MANOVA was used to test the null hypothesis examining the differences among emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment as well as workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values in principals at the elementary, middle, and high school levels. The MANOVA test required the assumptions of normality, multivariate normal distribution, the absence of multicollinearity, homogeneity of variance-covariance, and independence of scores to be met. The researcher used a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test to assess normality, as the total size was greater than 50 ($N = 119$). In addition, the researcher utilized histograms to detect normality for all sample groups (see Figures 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11). For the MBI-ES domains (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment), the assumption of normality was violated for all groups as evaluated by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, as a significance of less than 0.05 was reported for each

sample group with the exception of emotional exhaustion (see Table 11). The assumption of normality was violated for the AWS domains (i.e., workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values) as evaluated by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, as a significance of less than 0.05 was reported for each subscale (see Table 12). The researcher made the decision to continue with the MANOVA test, as it is fairly robust against deviations from normality.

Table 11

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality for MBI-ES Domains

| | Statistic | df | Sig. |
|-------------------------|-----------|-----|-------|
| Emotional Exhaustion | .070 | 119 | .200* |
| Depersonalization | .167 | 199 | .000 |
| Personal Accomplishment | .129 | 119 | .000 |

Notes. * = a lower bound of the true significance, a = Lilliefors significance correction.

Table 12

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality for AWS Domains

| | Statistic | df | Sig. |
|-----------|-----------|-----|------|
| Workload | .095 | 119 | .010 |
| Control | .175 | 199 | .000 |
| Reward | .136 | 119 | .000 |
| Community | .197 | 119 | .000 |
| Fairness | .127 | 119 | .000 |
| Values | .201 | 119 | .000 |

Notes. a = Lilliefors significance correction.

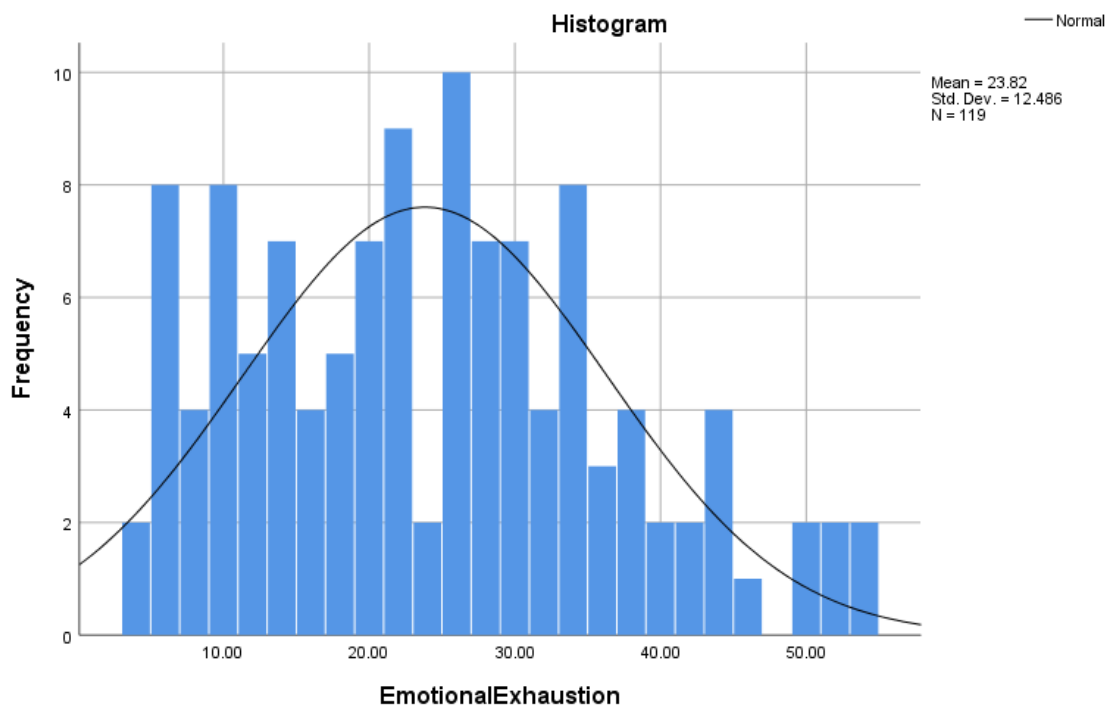


Figure 3. Histogram of emotional exhaustion scores from principals' MBI-ES.

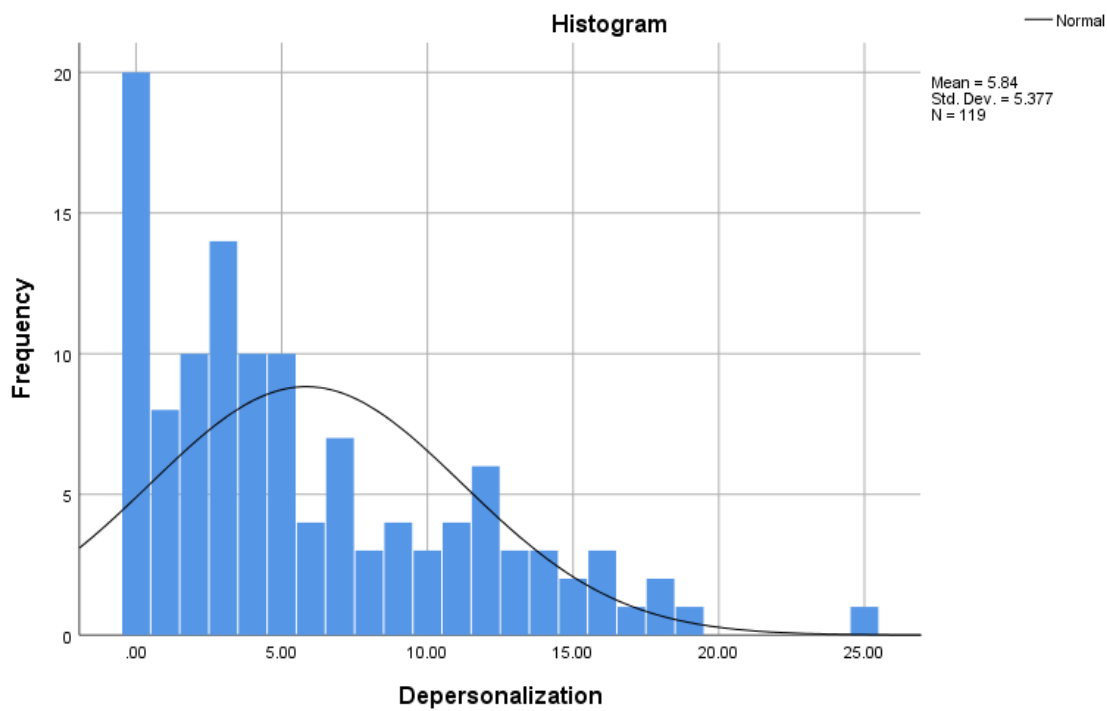


Figure 4. Histogram of depersonalization scores from principals' MBI-ES.

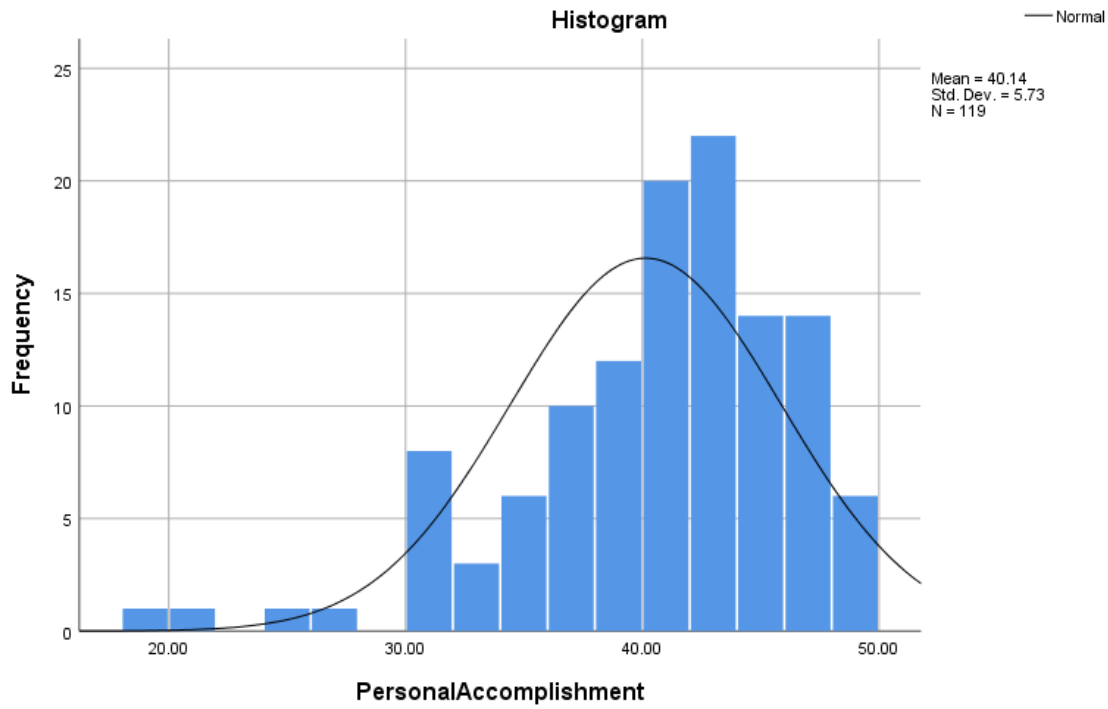


Figure 5. Histogram of personal accomplishment scores from principals' MBI-ES.

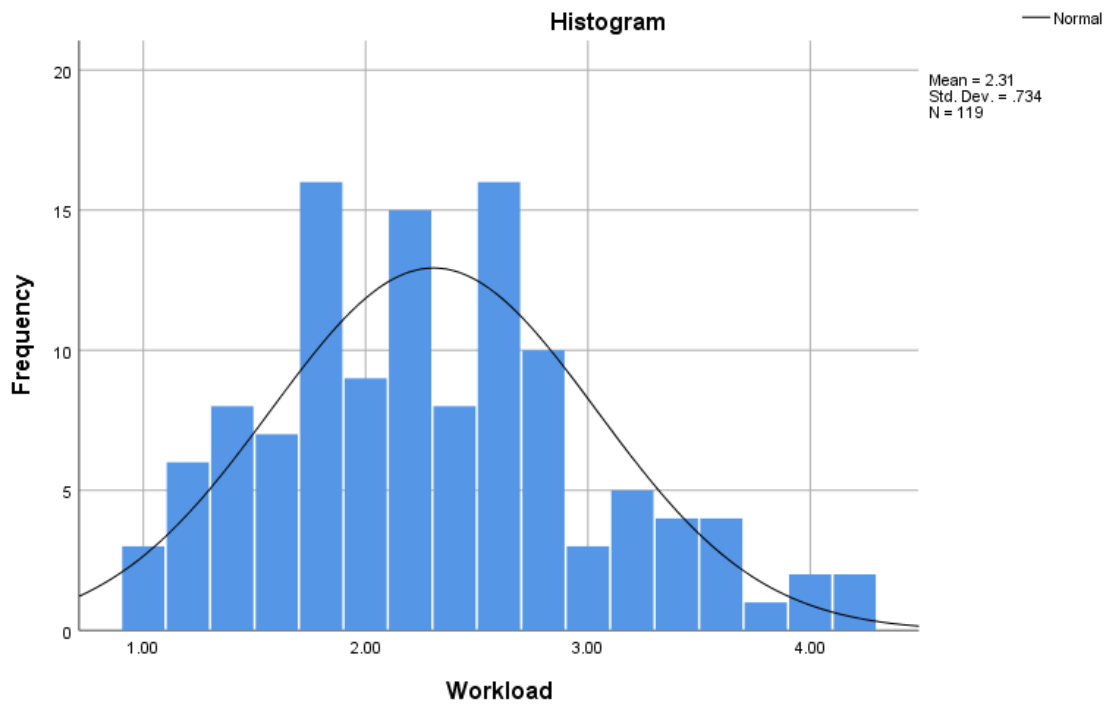


Figure 6. Histogram of workload scores from principals' AWS.

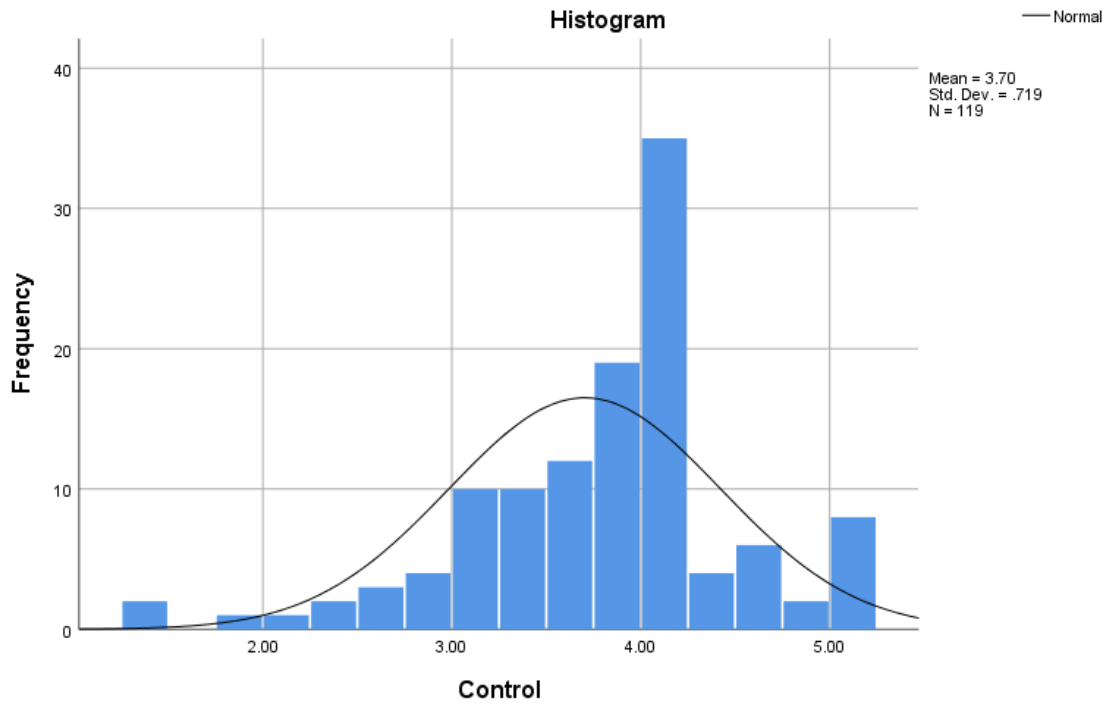


Figure 7. Histogram of control scores from principals' AWS.

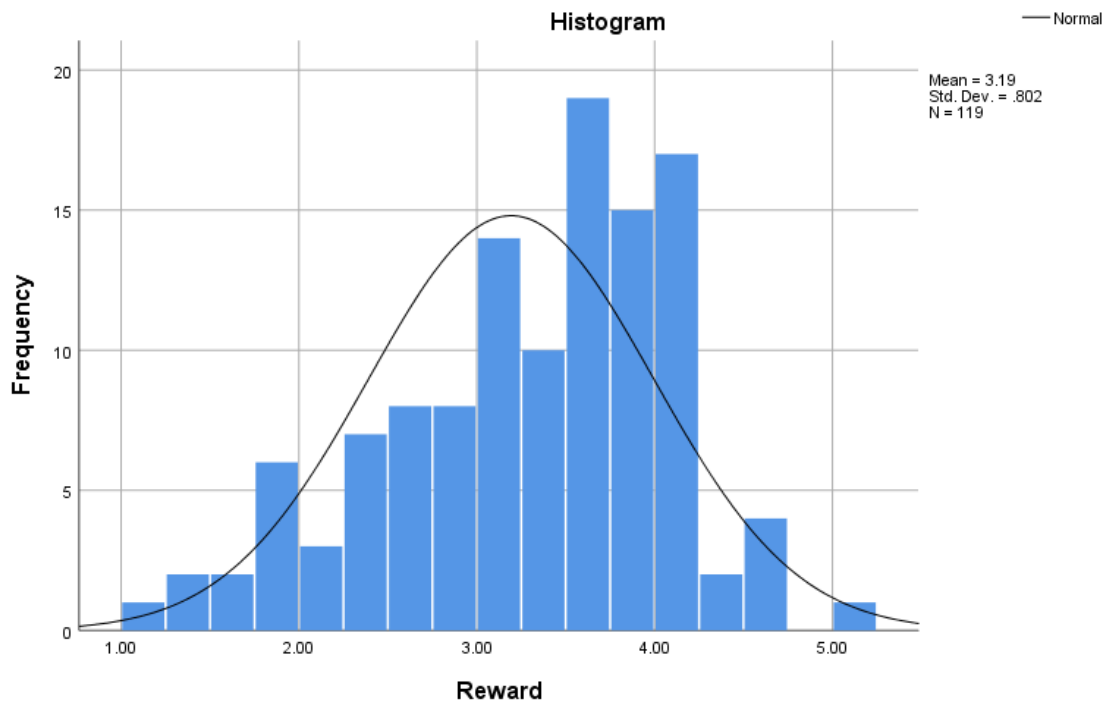


Figure 8. Histogram of reward scores from principals' AWS.

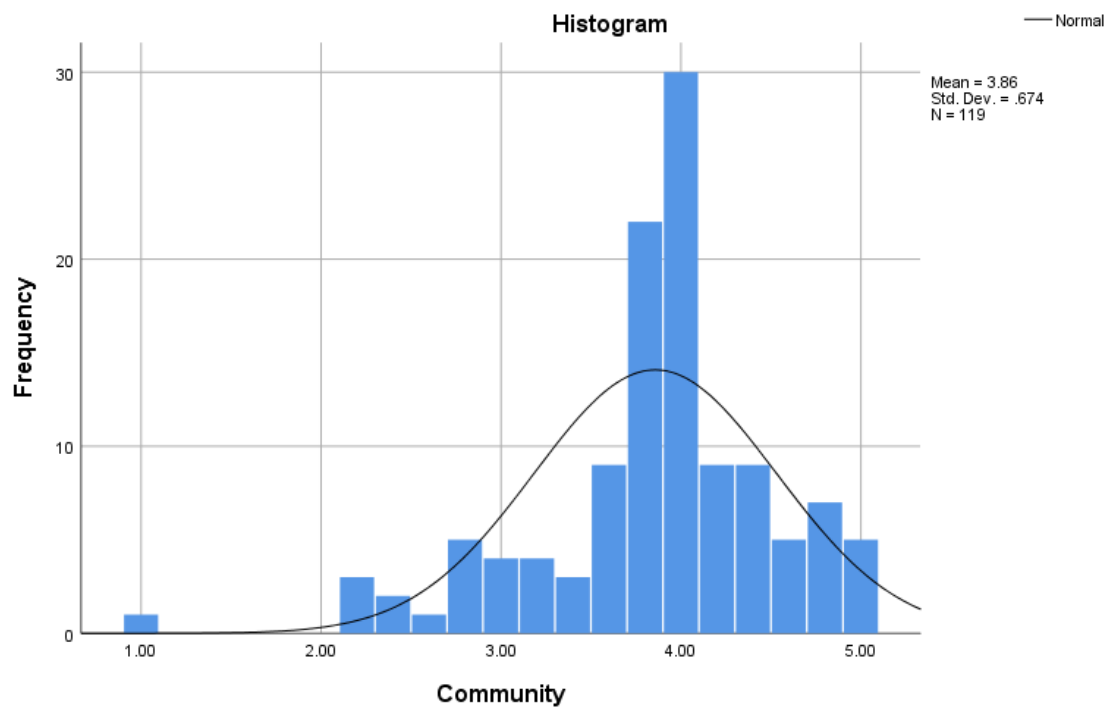


Figure 9. Histogram of community scores from principals' AWS.

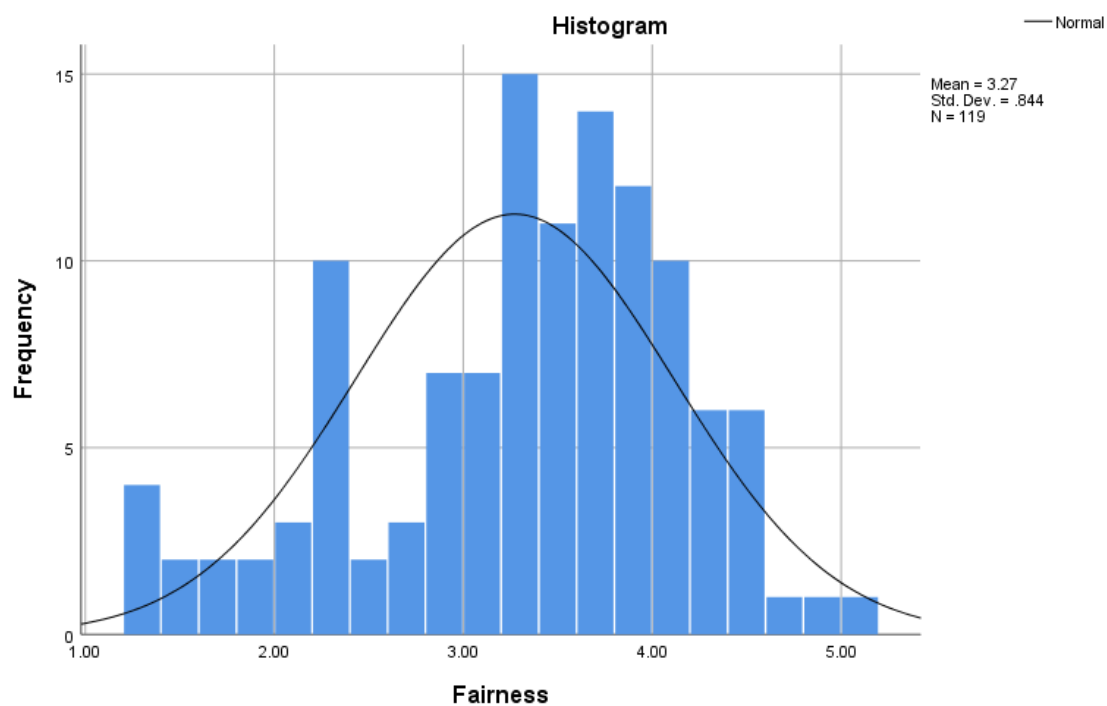


Figure 10. Histogram of fairness scores from principals' AWS.

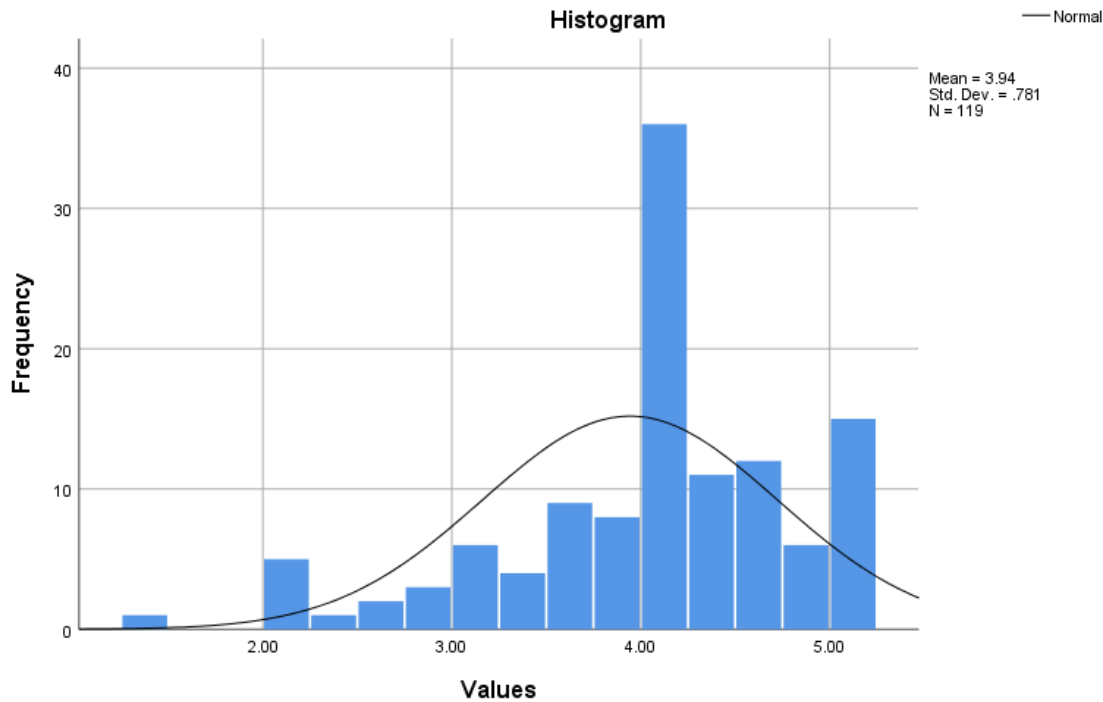


Figure 11. Histogram of values scores from principals' AWS.

The researcher examined the homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices for the MBI-ES subscales (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) using Box's M test at a level of statistical significance $\alpha = 0.001$ (Warner, 2008). As results for Box's M were not significant ($p = 0.002$), equal variances-covariance was assumed. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices was met for the MBI-ES domains (see Table 13). The subscales for the AWS (i.e., workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values) were also examined. The researcher also examined the homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices of these domains using Box's M test at a level of statistical significance $\alpha = 0.001$ (Warner, 2008). As results for Box's M were not significant ($p = 0.002$), equal variances-covariance was assumed. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices was met for the AWS domains (see Table 14).

Table 13

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance for MBI-ES Domains

| Box's M | <i>F</i> | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---------|----------|-----|-----------|------|
| 21.592 | 1.716 | 12 | 24914.538 | .057 |

Table 14

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance for AWS Domains

| Box's M | <i>F</i> | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|---------|----------|-----|-----------|------|
| 53.069 | 1.147 | 42 | 16851.823 | .237 |

Note. Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

The researcher used scatterplot matrices to examine the dependent variables to address the assumption of multivariate normal distribution. Upon observation of the scatterplots, the classic cigar shape was evident for the distribution. Thus, the assumption of multivariate normal distribution was tenable (see Figure 10 and 11).

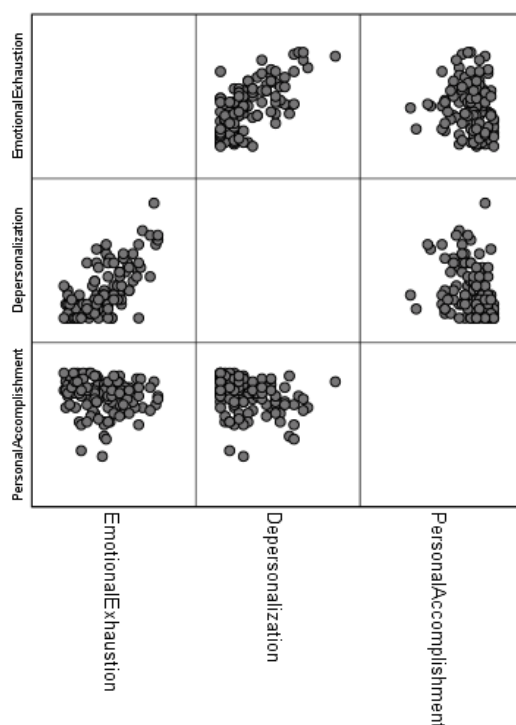


Figure 12. Scatterplot distribution for MBI-ES domain scores.

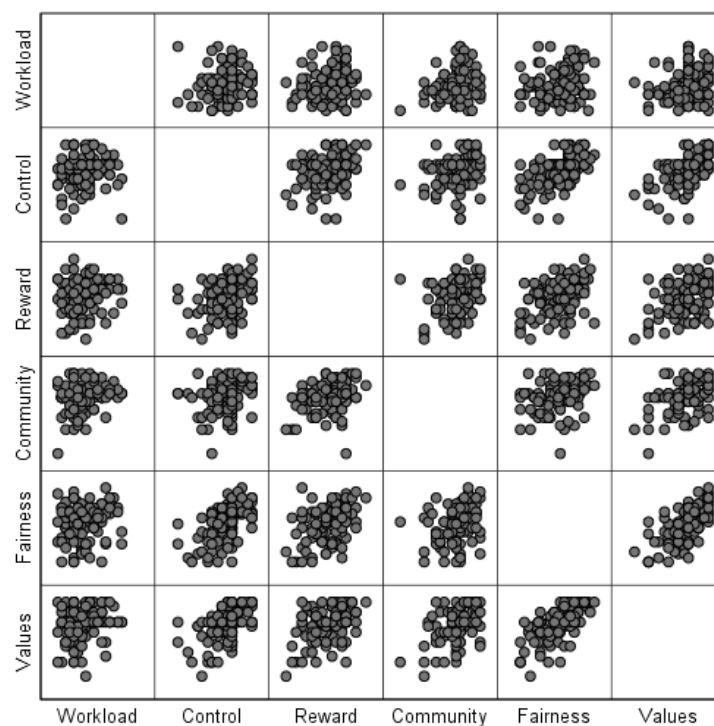


Figure 13. Scatterplot distribution for AWS domain scores.

Pearson's product moment correlations were used to test associations between variables. Correlations for the MBI-ES domains ranged from medium negative association to large association, though no variables were correlated at the 0.80 or 0.90 level. Correlation between all subscales for the MBI-ES was significant at $p < 0.01$ for all correlations. Thus, the assumption of multicollinearity was met (see Table 15). The absence of multicollinearity was also examined for the AWS domains by the use of Pearson's product moment test. Correlations between all subscales did not violate the assumption. Thus, there was no multicollinearity (see Table 16).

Table 15

Pearson's Product Correlations for MBI-ES Domains

| | | Emotional Exhaustion | Depersonalization | Personal Accomplishment |
|----------------------------|---|-------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| Emotional Exhaustion | Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) | | | |
| Depersonalization | Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) | .685** .000 | | |
| Personal Accomplishment | Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) | -.142 .122 | -.269** .003 | |

Note. **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Table 16

Pearson's Product Correlations for AWS Domains

| | | Workload | Control | Reward | Community | Fairness | Values |
|-----------|---------------------|----------|---------|--------|-----------|----------|--------|
| Workload | Pearson Correlation | | | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | | | | | |
| Control | Pearson Correlation | .087 | | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .349 | | | | | |
| Reward | Pearson Correlation | .191* | .275** | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .038 | .002 | | | | |
| Community | Pearson Correlation | .233* | .247** | .315** | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .011 | .007 | .000 | | | |
| Fairness | Pearson Correlation | .154 | .530** | .457** | .300** | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .094 | .000 | .000 | .001 | | |
| Values | Pearson Correlation | .189* | .517** | .436** | .476** | .668** | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .040 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | |

Notes. *Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Results for Null Hypothesis One

A one-way MANOVA was used to determine the level of burnout domains among elementary, middle, and high school principals. Emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment were the three constructs measured using the MBI-ES. The differences between the three groups on the dependent MBI-ES variables were not found to be statistically significant at the 95% confidence level as Wilk's $\Lambda = .929$, $F(6, 228) = 1.428$, $p = .205$, $\eta^2 = .036$ (see Table 17). Because results for the MANOVA for both the MBI-ES domains

were not statistically significant, no post hoc analysis was conducted. Since the results were not significant, the researcher accepted the null hypothesis. As stated earlier in the text, one extreme outlier was noted during data screening for the MBI-ES domains. The researcher made the decision to keep them in the total sample as the results of the MANOVA without the outliers were also not significant at the 95% confidence level as Wilk's $\Lambda = .926$, $F(6, 226) = 1.469$, $p = .5190$, $\eta^2 = .038$ (see Table 18).

Table 17

Multivariate Test for MBI-ES Domains

| Effect | | Value | <i>F</i> | Hyp df | Error df | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-----------|--------------------|--------|-----------------------|--------|----------|------|---------------------|
| Intercept | Pillai's Trace | .981 | 2000.108 ^b | 3.000 | 114.000 | .000 | .981 |
| | Wilks' Lambda | .019 | 2000.108 ^b | 3.000 | 114.000 | .000 | .981 |
| | Hotellings's Trace | 52.634 | 2000.108 ^b | 3.000 | 114.000 | .000 | .981 |
| | Roy's Largest Root | 52.634 | 2000.108 ^b | 3.000 | 114.000 | .000 | .981 |
| | | | | | | | |
| Group | Pillai's Trace | .072 | 1.436 | 6.000 | 230.000 | .202 | .036 |
| | Wilks' Lambda | .929 | 1.428 ^b | 6.000 | 228.000 | .205 | .036 |
| | Hotellings's Trace | .075 | 1.420 | 6.000 | 226.000 | .208 | .036 |
| | Roy's Largest Root | .053 | 2.040 ^c | 3.000 | 115.000 | .112 | .036 |
| | | | | | | | |

Notes. *b* = exact statistic, *c* = statistic is an upper bound on *F* that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

Table 18

Multivariate Test for MBI-ES Domains without Extreme Outlier

| Effect | | Value | <i>F</i> | Hyp <i>df</i> | Error <i>df</i> | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-----------|--------------------|--------|-----------------------|---------------|-----------------|------|---------------------------|
| Intercept | Pillai's Trace | .982 | 2031.126 ^b | 3.000 | 113.000 | .000 | .982 |
| | Wilks' Lambda | .018 | 2031.126 ^b | 3.000 | 113.000 | .000 | .982 |
| | Hotellings's Trace | 53.924 | 2031.126 ^b | 3.000 | 113.000 | .000 | .982 |
| | Roy's Largest Root | 53.924 | 2031.126 ^b | 3.000 | 113.000 | .000 | .982 |
| | | | | | | | |
| Group | Pillai's Trace | .075 | 1.476 | 6.000 | 228.000 | .187 | .037 |
| | Wilks' Lambda | .926 | 1.469 ^b | 6.000 | 226.000 | .190 | .038 |
| | Hotellings's Trace | .078 | 1.462 | 6.000 | 224.000 | .192 | .038 |
| | Roy's Largest Root | .057 | 2.185 ^c | 3.000 | 114.000 | .094 | .054 |
| | | | | | | | |

Notes. *b* = exact statistic, *c* = statistic is an upper bound on *F* that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

Results for Null Hypothesis Two

A one-way MANOVA was used to determine the level of job-person fit among elementary, middle, and high school principals. Job-person fit domains were examined using the six work environment domains (i.e., workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values) measures using the AWS. The differences between the three groups on the dependent AWS variables were not found to be statistically significant at the 95% confidence level as Wilk's $\Lambda = .895$, $F(12, 222) = 1.056$, $p = .398$, $\eta^2 = .054$ (see Table 19). Because results for the MANOVA for the AWS domains were not statistically significant, no post hoc analysis was conducted. The researcher accepted the null hypothesis since the findings were not significant. The extreme

outliers of the AWS domains were also included in the sample as the results of the MANOVA.

The MANOVA without the outliers was also not significant at the 95% confidence level as

Wilk's $\Lambda = .876$, $F(12, 200) = 1.139$, $p = .330$, $\eta^2 = .064$ (see Table 20).

Table 19

Multivariate Test for AWS Domains

| Effect | | Value | <i>F</i> | Hyp df | Error df | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-----------|--------------------|--------|----------------------|--------|----------|------|---------------------------|
| Intercept | Pillai's Trace | .978 | 830.439 ^b | 6.000 | 111.000 | .000 | .978 |
| | Wilks' Lambda | .022 | 830.439 ^b | 6.000 | 111.000 | .000 | .978 |
| | Hotellings's Trace | 44.889 | 830.439 ^b | 6.000 | 111.000 | .000 | .978 |
| | Roy's Largest Root | 44.889 | 830.439 ^b | 6.000 | 111.000 | .000 | .978 |
| | | | | | | | |
| Group | Pillai's Trace | .108 | 1.061 | 12.000 | 224.000 | .394 | .054 |
| | Wilks' Lambda | .895 | 1.056 ^b | 12.000 | 222.000 | .398 | .054 |
| | Hotellings's Trace | .115 | 1.052 | 12.000 | 220.000 | .403 | .054 |
| | Roy's Largest Root | .081 | 1.503 ^c | 6.000 | 112.000 | .183 | .075 |
| | | | | | | | |

Notes. b = exact statistic, c = statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

Table 20

Multivariate Test for AWS Domains without Extreme Outliers

| Effect | | Value | <i>F</i> | Hyp df | Error df | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|-----------|--------------|--------|----------------------|--------|----------|------|---------------------------|
| Intercept | Pillai's | .979 | 770.116 ^b | 6.000 | 100.000 | .000 | .979 |
| | Trace | | | | | | |
| | Wilks' | .021 | 770.116 ^b | 6.000 | 100.000 | .000 | .979 |
| | Lambda | | | | | | |
| | Hotellings's | 46.207 | 770.116 ^b | 6.000 | 100.000 | .000 | .979 |
| Group | Trace | | | | | | |
| | Roy's | 46.207 | 770.116 ^b | 6.000 | 100.000 | .000 | .979 |
| | Largest | | | | | | |
| | Root | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| Group | Pillai's | .127 | 1.141 | 12.000 | 202.000 | .329 | .063 |
| | Trace | | | | | | |
| | Wilks' | .876 | 1.139 ^b | 12.000 | 200.000 | .330 | .064 |
| | Lambda | | | | | | |
| | Hotellings's | .138 | 1.137 | 12.000 | 198.000 | .332 | .064 |
| Group | Trace | | | | | | |
| | Roy's | .104 | 1.743 ^c | 6.000 | 101.000 | .119 | .094 |
| | Largest | | | | | | |
| | Root | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | |

Notes. *b* = exact statistic, *c* = statistic is an upper bound on *F* that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

Summary

As described in this chapter, a one-way MANOVA was used to analyze the domains of burnout and job-person fit from data collected from 119 school principals. Results indicated there was no statistically significant difference between the three burnout domains (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) at $p = 0.205$. Results also indicated there was no statistically significant difference between the six job-person fit domains (i.e., workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values) at $p = 0.398$. Prior to conducting a MANOVA for the burnout and job-person fit domains, data screening indicated one extreme outliers in the burnout subscales dataset and nine extreme outlier in the job-person-fit

subscales dataset. The researcher decided to include these as the results of the MANOVA. However, the MANOVA still indicated no statistically significant difference between the control and experimental treatment groups when the extreme outliers were removed from the dataset. The researcher also reported the descriptive statistics for each of the sample groups across the three burnout constructs and six job-person fit constructs. In addition, assumption testing was conducted for normality, multivariate normal distribution, the absence of multicollinearity, homogeneity of variance-covariance, and independence of scores. All assumptions were met for the MANOVA. Post hoc testing was not conducted, as the MANOVA did not indicate the statistically significant difference between groups.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

Chapter Five provides a summary, discussion and interpretations of the research findings, implications of the study in terms of relevant research, limitations associated with this study, and recommendations for future studies on the topic of burnout and job-person fit.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine burnout and job-person fit domains among school principals at different administrative levels. Results suggested the burnout and job-person fit levels were not statistically significant among principals at different administrative levels. The burnout subscales measured were emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment and the job-person fit subscales measured were workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values. These variables were measured using the MBI-ES and AWS with 119 school principals. The findings in this study revealed similar levels of burnout and job-person fit domains among principals and the data gained align to Maslach's development of burnout and the areas of worklife model of burnout.

According to Maslach's development of burnout, the central symptom of burnout is exhaustion. Cooper (1998) found major sources of exhaustion to be personal conflict at work and work overload. Findings from this study revealed principals had moderate burnout levels in the emotional exhaustion domain and low burnout levels in the depersonalization and personal accomplishment domains. Maslach and Leiter (2016) described depersonalization as negative attitudes toward others, irritability, and withdrawal and described lack of personal accomplishment as reduced productivity, low morale, and the inability to cope. According to Maslach's burnout theory, principals in this study did not possess these negative attributes, but were emotionally overextended and exhausted by their work.

The areas of worklife model of burnout frames job stressors in terms of the six areas of organizational life and these constructs tended to be related to the three aspects of burnout. This model emphasized employee fit in terms of opportunities within the workplace and social motivation (Leiter et al., 2014). Leiter and Maslach (2000) found the workload domain the most commonly discussed source of burnout. Research also found a correlation between workload and the exhaustion dimension (Maslach et al., 2001; Leiter & Shaughnessy, 2006; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Findings from this study revealed a mismatch in workload and higher than average emotional exhaustion levels in principals, which aligned with previous research.

Summary of Results

Two research questions were used in this study:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in the level of burnout, as measured by the three domains of the MBI-ES, among principals at different administrative levels (elementary, middle, and high)?

RQ2: Is there a significant difference in the level of job-person-fit, as measured by the six domains of the AWS, among principals at different administrative levels (elementary, middle, and high)?

Research Question One

Test results revealed no statistically significant differences between elementary, middle, and high school principals on the MBI-ES domains that measured burnout. The results suggested the overall emotional exhaustion level of principals in this study were at the average high level for emotional exhaustion, lower third for depersonalization, and lower third for personal accomplishment. These scores reflect average scores on all three domains, which are recognized as an average degree of burnout. Further examination of the data collected revealed 40% of the principals reported having a high level of burnout on the emotional exhaustion

subscale and 13% reported having a high level of burnout based on the depersonalization subscale. Just over 10% reported high levels of burnout on both the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales. Examining principals and assistant principals, Karakose et al. (2016) had similar findings with participants experiencing a moderate level of burnout. Findings from this study were also closely aligned to MetLife (2013), which found 48% of principals were under high stress and Shields (2007) reported a majority of principals experienced moderate or high levels of stress. Based on the results of the analysis, null hypothesis one was not rejected.

Research on teacher burnout was also comparable to the findings in this study. Arvidsson et al. (2016) found 15% of the teachers had high burnout in at least two of the three MBI-ES domains and 4% reported high burnout in all three domains. These findings are similar to this study, which found 10% of the sample reported high burnout levels in at least two MBI-ES domains and 2% of the sample reported a high level of burnout in all three domains. Research has also found emotional exhaustion levels of teachers were higher than other professionals (Adams et al., 2017). The researcher found emotional exhaustion levels of principals in this study were higher than other occupations, which included teachers, social sciences, medicine, postsecondary education, and mental health (Maslach et al., 1996). When examining the results of this study compared to the existing body of literature on the topic, it is important to note burnout has been conceptualized as a continuous variable ranging from low to moderate to high degrees of experienced feeling. Burnout is not viewed as either present or absent (Maslach et al., 1996).

Research Question Two

Analysis of elementary, middle, and high school principals revealed no statistically significant differences between each group and the level of job-person fit on the AWS domains.

The results suggested the six job-person fit subscales were very similar across the three administrative levels. Results also revealed AWS subscales in this study were also similar to normative sample scores. In addition, it is important to note the greater perceived gap between the person and the job, the more likely the person will experience burnout; conversely, the greater the consistency, the higher the likelihood of work engagement (Leiter & Maslach, 2011). Based on the results of the analysis, null hypothesis two was not rejected.

The AWS model, which addresses job-person fit, focuses on the congruence between the person and six domains of the environment (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Each domain is scored separately and ranges from extreme match to extreme mismatch. Leiter and Maslach (2000) provided a normative sample of the AWS based on a sample size of 22,714 participants. The researcher compared findings from this study to findings from the normative sample. These findings revealed the control, community, fairness, and values domains were more of a match among principals in this study than in the normative sample with mean scores being below the normative mean. Reported workload levels for all principals in this study were more of a mismatch than the normative sample, and the reward domain in this study was identical to the normative sample. Data from this study aligned with findings from other researchers who found workload and reward dimensions appeared to be predictors for burnout (Jimenez & Dunkl, 2017; Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Maslach et al., 2001). The reward dimension was also found to be strongly related to all dimensions of burnout (Jimenez & Dunkl, 2017).

Implications

Though data analysis results did not indicate a statistically significant difference between elementary, middle, and high school principals on the MBI-ES subscales or the AWS subscales, this study did fill a significant gap in the literature on the burnout and job-person fit domains.

The study alone, examining these constructs among principals, provided additional data in a very limited field. Previous studies on principal burnout conducted in the United States are relatively few in number compared to studies conducted abroad. Given that this research found 40% of principals reported high emotional exhaustion levels, it would benefit administrators and programs that prepare administrators to continue to examine factors influencing burnout and look for ways to reduce the phenomenon.

The results of the job-person fit domains also add to the literature on the six key worklife domains, since there are no known published studies using the AWS with school principals. By examining factors such as the six area of worklife, principal burnout can be avoided or reduced. Reduced principal burnout can lead to better retention of principals and other school staff, increase morale within the school, increase student achievement, help with principal overall health, and lower school system costs associated with principal and staff turnover. Additionally, this study served the purpose of providing some empirical evidence to inform school systems, policymakers, colleges of education, and schools. As noted earlier, the results of the MANOVA did not show a statistically significant difference in the burnout domains or job-person fit levels among principals, but the study did reveal a moderate to high level of burnout among many principals. Since results of the MBI-ES showed a higher than average level of burnout and the AWS showed a higher than average match in the workload domain, it can be argued that the higher than average burnout levels were a result of a mismatch in principal workload.

The results of this study can affect the field of education in many ways. First, school systems should focus more resources on addressing high emotional exhaustion levels in principals. One way to address this is through system leadership development. Most principals move up in the ranks from teacher, to assistant principal, to principal. Often, this is done within

the same school system. School systems could invest in their educators by preparing leaders to become principals. This study can also affect the field of education by providing colleges of education with empirical data that may lead to more extensive studies on burnout. Colleges of education are also responsible for the graduate programs that lead to educators being certified as school administrators. Graduate programs in school administration can focus on ways to reduce workload since a mismatch in workload can lead to higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Results of this study can also be used by individual principals.

Research continues to show the field of education is complex, ever-changing, demanding, stressful, and can lead to burnout. There are data to support teacher burnout levels are higher than those in other helping professions. Research has also found the burnout levels in principals are even higher than for teachers. Equipping principals and other educators with the tools to identify burnout and ways to prevent burnout could benefit everyone involved in the educational process. Reducing principal burnout might increase school morale and student achievement and decrease burnout levels in teachers.

Limitations

A number of limitations related to the self-reporting survey design, generalization, and the administration of the survey were identified during this research. Even though the survey instruments used in this study were carefully selected, they still contained certain limitations. For example, the instruments were not normed using a population as unique as school principals. Both instruments were normed using various helping professionals, which included occupational groups such as nurses, social service, teaching, and mental health. Another major limitation of this study was related to participant completion. Since the study involved the use of a convenience sample and invitation, school principals made a choice to participate in the study.

There is a possibility that those who chose not to participate were experiencing a higher degree of burnout than those who participated. The use of convenience sampling reduced the ability to generalize the finding of the study to the population. Consequently, caution should be used when interpreting findings and the resulting sample may not accurately reflect the actual status of burnout and job-person fit among school principals. The researcher acknowledges the intention of the study was to obtain findings that could be generalized, but limitations did exist based on study design.

Another limitation of the study was the response rate of those invited to participate. The response rate for this study was extremely low at 8%. The researcher attempted to recruit participants through three rounds of individual emails. An effort was made to include all public school principals in the state of Alabama through the Alabama State Department of Education school principal database. A small number of email addresses in the database were inaccurate. The researcher made an attempt to find accurate email addresses for all inaccurate email addresses in the database. The final limitation that must be noted was the timing of this study. The researcher considers the time of the year a significant factor because the study was conducted during the last month of school. School principals are typically very busy during the last month of school.

Recommendations for Future Research

There are several recommendations for future research that would add to the body of knowledge on the subject of burnout and job-person fit. First, since this was the first known study to examine differences among principals in the burnout and job-person fit domains, a replication of this study would be appropriate. A replication could include longitudinal data where the MBI-ES and AWS are administered more than once throughout the school year

possibly exploring differences in gender, school size, student achievement, and poverty. A study with a larger sample size would help generalize any findings. Another recommendation would be to examine other educational administrators who are not principals. Maslach et al. (1996) suggested burnout research be expanded to include assistant principals, central office personnel, and superintendents. The researcher would also recommend a qualitative study or mixed methods research to examine principal burnout. The researcher believes much useful data could be gained from the sources of burnout that could possibly lead to solutions and recommendations on how to reduce and eliminate burnout.

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APPENDIX A:

Permission to Use MBI-ES

For use by David West only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on March 12, 2018

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This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material for his/her thesis or dissertation research:

Instrument: *Maslach Burnout Inventory, Forms: General Survey, Human Services Survey & Educators Survey*

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Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

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APPENDIX B:

MBI-ES Questions (limit to 5 questions per Mind Garden)

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work?
2. I can easily understand how my students feel about things?
3. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job?
4. I feel very energetic?
5. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly?

APPENDIX C:

Permission to Use AWS

For use by David West only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on March 12, 2018
Permission for David West to reproduce 350 copies
within one year of March 12, 2018



To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material for his/her thesis or dissertation research:

Instrument: *Areas of Worklife Survey*

Authors: Michael P Leiter & Christina Maslach

Copyright: 2000, 2011 by Michael P. Leiter & Christina Maslach.

Three sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any published material.

Sincerely,



Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

APPENDIX D:

AWS Questions (limit to 5 questions per Mind Garden)

1. I have enough time to do what's important in my job?
2. I have professional autonomy / independence in my work?
3. My work is appreciated?
4. Members of my work group cooperate with one another?
5. Resources are allocated fairly here?

APPENDIX E:

Demographic Questionnaire

1. Age? Under 25, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, and age 65 or older
2. Gender? Male or Female
3. Race? African-American, Asian, Caucasian, Hispanic, or other
4. Marital Status? Single, Married, or Divorced
5. Highest Degree Earned? Bachelors, Masters, Specialist, or Doctorate
6. Number of Years as a Classroom Teacher? 0-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, or over 20
7. Primary Subject Taught as Classroom Teacher? Elementary Education, Secondary Education, Physical Education, Special Education, or Other
8. Number of Overall Years as an Administrator? 0-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, or over 20
9. Number of Years as a Principal? 0-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, or over 20
10. Current Level of School? Elementary, Middle, or High School
11. Current School Enrollment? 1-500, 501-1000, 1001-1500, or over 1500
12. School Poverty Level (free/reduced price lunch)? 0-25%, 26-50%, 51-75%, or above 75%)
13. Title I? Yes or No
14. Approximate Hours Worked Each Week? Less than 40, 40-50, 51-60, 61-70, or over 70

APPENDIX F:

Liberty University IRB Approval

LIBERTY UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

April 4, 2018

David D. West

IRB Exemption 3166.040418: An Analysis of Principal Burnout and Job-Person Fit Among Elementary, Middle, and High School Principals in Alabama

Dear David D. West,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under exemption category 46.101(b)(2), which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46.101(b):

- (2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:
- (i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any changes to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by submitting a change in protocol form or a new application to the IRB and referencing the above IRB Exemption number.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible changes to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,



G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP
Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
The Graduate School

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APPENDIX G:

Initial Recruitment Email

Dear Principal:

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctorate in education degree (Ed.D.). The purpose of my research is to examine principal burnout and job-person fit, and I am writing to invite you to participate in my study.

If you are currently a public school principal in the state of Alabama, are 18 years of age or older, and are willing to participate, you will be asked to complete two surveys and a demographic questionnaire. It should take approximately 20-25 minutes for you to complete the procedures listed. Your participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

To participate, click on the invitation link below. You will be asked to log in to the Transform platform by entering your email address and creating a password. The surveys will consist of a burnout inventory, job-person fit survey, and demographic questionnaire.

A consent document is provided as the first page you will see after you log in to the Transform platform. The consent document contains additional information about my research; please click on the survey link at the end of the consent information to indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey.

If you choose to participate, your email address will be provided to the researcher in a separate data form and you will be entered in a raffle for a chance to win one of eight \$25 Amazon gift cards. If you have any questions or comments, please feel free to contact me at dwest1@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

David West
Doctoral Candidate
Liberty University
School of Education

APPENDIX H:

Informed Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

An Analysis of Principal Burnout and Person-Job Fit Among Elementary, Middle, and High School Principals in Alabama

David D. West
Liberty University
School of Education

You are invited to be in a research study on principal burnout and job-person fit. You were selected as a possible participant because you are 18 years of age or older and are a public school principal in the state of Alabama. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

David D. West, a doctoral candidate in the School of Education at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to determine if there is a significant difference in burnout and person-job fit among principals at different school levels (elementary, middle, and high).

The primary research question for this study is: Is there a significant difference in the level of burnout and job-person fit among principals at different school levels (elementary, middle, and high)?

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to do the following things (please read all procedures before beginning):

1. Complete the Areas of Worklife Survey (AWS) – approximately 10 minutes.
2. Complete the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educator Survey (MBI-ES) – approximately 10 minutes.
3. Complete a demographic questionnaire – approximately 5 minutes.

Risks: The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

Benefits: Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study. Benefits to society include the increased research on school principal burnout and job-person-fit. This will allow schools, school systems, and policymakers to make informed decisions as they relate to principals in order to better address and prevent these issues. This research will possibly directly affect school principals, but it also has the ability to help schools get better because of the principals' direct and significant influence in the schools in which they lead.

Compensation: As a bonus for participating, participants will be entered into a random drawing for a \$25 Amazon gift card. The researcher will randomly select eight participant emails and each of those participants will be given a \$25 Amazon gift card. Participant emails will be collected at the beginning of this study and provided to the researcher in a separate data form from survey responses. The drawing of the Amazon gift cards will take place at the conclusion of data collection and will include all participants who complete the surveys. Incomplete surveys and surveys received outside the data collection dates or with inaccurate email addresses will be disqualified from the drawing.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report I might publish, I will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records. Email addresses will be the only personally identifiable information collected during this study, and the researcher will be provided participant email addresses in a separate data form so participant identities will not be linked to their survey responses. Participant email addresses will only be used to contact random prize drawing winners. The data gathered during this research may be used in additional research. The researcher will retain survey data on a password-protected computer for a period of three years. After three years, the researcher will completely destroy all data files using a data-shredding program. Limits to confidentiality are limited to those posed by outside malicious or deliberate attempts to gain access to the data.

- Data will be collected using the Transform platform. Transform is a secure platform used by Mind Garden, a leading international publisher of psychological assessments.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time prior to submitting the survey without affecting those relationships.

How to Withdraw from the Study: If you choose to withdraw from the study, simply exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your data will not be recorded or included in the data analysis.

Contacts and Questions: The researcher conducting this study is David D. West. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you are encouraged to contact him at dwest1@liberty.edu. You may also contact the researcher's faculty advisor, Dr. Rebecca Lunde, at



If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, you are encouraged to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 1887, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

Please notify the researcher if you would like a copy of this information for your records.

(NOTE: DO NOT AGREE TO PARTICIPATE UNLESS IRB APPROVAL INFORMATION WITH CURRENT DATES HAS BEEN ADDED TO THIS DOCUMENT.)

Liberty University IRB Approval
4/4/2018-4/4/2019
Protocol #3166.040418

Statement of Consent: I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers.

By selecting YES and clicking the NEXT button below, I acknowledge that I meet the aforementioned criteria for participation:

- A current public school principal in Alabama in an elementary, middle, or high school.

I consent to participate in the study.

APPENDIX I:

Permission to Use ALSDE Education Directory

2/22/2018

Mail - dwest1@liberty.edu

RE: Request to Use School Information Directory

Thacker Tony [REDACTED]

Thu 2/22/2018 8:12 AM

To: Vandiver Marcus [REDACTED]; West, David <dwest1@liberty.edu>;

Good Morning Mr. West,

The ALSDE cannot refuse to allow you to utilize a public document to conduct your research. Accordingly, please allow this to constitute our agreement for you to utilize the information found in the Education Directory located on our public website. However, this statement does not in any way constitute a department level endorsement of your study. It simply means we will not stand in the way of your study.

I wish you the best of luck and hope that information gleaned from your work provides additional insight into the challenges facing principals today.

Have a blessed day!

Tony Thacker
Assistant State Superintendent
Evaluation and Innovation

From: West, David [mailto:dwest1@liberty.edu]

Sent: Wednesday, February 21, 2018 4:33 PM

To: Thacker Tony [REDACTED]

Cc: Vandiver Marcus [REDACTED]

Subject: Request to Use School Information Directory

Dear Dr. Thacker:

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The title of my research project is An Analysis of Principal Burnout and Job-Person Fit Among Elementary, Middle, and High School Principals and the purpose of my research is to compare the level of burnout and job-person fit among school principals.

I am writing to request your permission to utilize the public ALSDE School Information Directory to obtain the email addresses of public school principals in order to recruit participants for my research.

Participants will be asked to click on the link provided in my email invitation and complete surveys on burnout and job-person fit. Participants will be presented with informed consent information prior to participating. Taking part in this study is completely voluntary, and participants are welcome to discontinue participation at any time.

Thank you for considering my request. If you choose to grant permission, please respond by email to dwest1@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

David West
Doctoral Candidate

<https://outlook.office.com/owa/?realm=liberty.edu>

1/2

APPENDIX J:

Second Recruitment Email

Dear Principal:

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctorate in education degree (Ed.D.). The purpose of my research is to examine principal burnout and job-person fit, and I am writing to invite you to participate in my study.

If you are currently a public school principal in the state of Alabama, are 18 years of age or older, and are willing to participate, you will be asked to complete two surveys and a demographic questionnaire. It should take approximately 20-25 minutes for you to complete the procedures listed. Your participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

To participate, click on the invitation link below. You will be asked to log in to the Transform platform by entering your email address and creating a password. The surveys will consist of a burnout inventory, job-person fit survey, and demographic questionnaire.

A consent document is provided as the first page you will see after you log in to the Transform platform. The consent document contains additional information about my research; please click on the survey link at the end of the consent information to indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey.

This is a follow-up to an email first sent out on April 13, 2018 inviting you to participate in a dissertation study on principal burnout and job-person fit. This survey will close on May 31, 2018.

If you choose to participate, your email address will be provided to the researcher in a separate data form and you will be entered in a raffle for a chance to win one of eight \$25 Amazon gift cards. If you have any questions or comments, please feel free to contact me at dwest1@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

David West
Doctoral Candidate
Liberty University
School of Education

APPENDIX K:

Final Recruitment Email

Dear Principal:

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctorate in education degree (Ed.D.). The purpose of my research is to examine principal burnout and job-person fit, and I am writing to invite you to participate in my study.

If you are currently a public school principal in the state of Alabama, are 18 years of age or older, and are willing to participate, you will be asked to complete two surveys and a demographic questionnaire. It should take approximately 20-25 minutes for you to complete the procedures listed. Your participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

To participate, click on the invitation link below. You will be asked to log in to the Transform platform by entering your email address and creating a password. The surveys will consist of a burnout inventory, job-person fit survey, and demographic questionnaire.

A consent document is provided as the first page you will see after you log in to the Transform platform. The consent document contains additional information about my research; please click on the survey link at the end of the consent information to indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey.

This is a second follow-up to an email first sent out on April 13, 2018 inviting you to participate in a dissertation study on principal burnout and job-person fit. This survey will close in two weeks on May 31, 2018.

If you choose to participate, your email address will be provided to the researcher in a separate data form and you will be entered in a raffle for a chance to win one of eight \$25 Amazon gift cards. If you have any questions or comments, please feel free to contact me at dwest1@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

David West
Doctoral Candidate
Liberty University
School of Education