A CORRELATIONAL STUDY OF TEACHER BURNOUT IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA

by

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Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

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ABSTRACT

Educational research has identified the importance of understanding the relationship between teacher burnout and teacher self-efficacy. Previous studies examined the relationship of teacher burnout to teacher self-efficacy, more focused research is needed in order to understand the relationship in regards to teaching in Title I and Title I Focus schools. This quantitative correlational study examined the relationship between teacher burnout and self-efficacy for teachers working in Title I and Title I Focus schools. This study also investigated which factors predicted burnout. A convenience sample of 87 teachers from four urban Georgia elementary Title I and Title I Focus schools with similar demographics during the 2017-2018 school year participated in the study by taking the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) to measure self-efficacy and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) to measure burnout. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations and standard multiple regression analyses were used to determine the factors that predicted burnout on the dimensions of emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA) in elementary teachers. The study found a significant correlation between teacher burnout and self-efficacy for teachers working in Title I and Title I Focus schools. Significant relationships were determined through the data analysis of teacher burnout and self-efficacy, Title I schools, and Title I Focus schools. Results of the study support additional research to deepen the understanding of teacher burnout and self-efficacy in schools.

Keywords: depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment, self-efficacy, teacher burnout, Title I Focus school, Title I school

Copyright Page

Dedication

"With God all things are possible." Matthew 19:26

This work is dedicated to my family. Each one has been critical to my successful completion of this mammoth journey I have been on for the last several years. My mom, Ann Tucker has been a rock of encouragement to help me stay focused and energized to stay on course. My husband, Doug Hancock, has been so supportive over the years. My children, Matt Hancock and Melissa Erickson, have continually inspired me to stay the course and complete what I started. I love each so very much and am truly blessed to have them in my life.

Finally, I dedicate this paper to my heavenly Father, because without Him, I would not have made it. He is my rock, my fortress, my provider. He has my name written in the palm of his hand, and I am so thankful to Him and the lessons learned from this journey.

To God be the Glory.

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"Whatever you do, work at it with all your heart, as working for the Lord." Colossians 3:23

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I share this accomplishment with my family who has faithfully supported and encouraged me throughout this journey. Their love and support are my greatest strength. They each are the reason I began this voyage and are undoubtedly the reason I finished. They are my heart.

Table of Contents

ABSTRACT....3

Copyright Page....4

Dedication....5

Acknowledgements....6

List of Tables....11

List of Figures....12

List of Abbreviations....14

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION....15

Overview....15

Background....15

Problem Statement....20

Purpose Statement....23

Significance of the Study....23

Research Questions....24

Definitions....25

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW....27

Overview....27

Theoretical Framework....27

Burnout Theory....27

Social Cognitive Theory....31

Self-Efficacy....32

Related Literature....34

Impact of the Teacher 34
Job Satisfaction 36
Teacher Attrition 36
Teacher Burnout 38
Teacher Shortage in Georgia 43
Elementary and Secondary Education Act 44
Title I 46
Title I in Georgia Schools 47
School Improvement: Focus Schools 48
Teacher Self Efficacy 52
Summary 54
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS 58
Overview 58
Design 58
Research Questions 60
Hypotheses 61
Participants and Setting 61
Instrumentation 62
The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) 63
Teachers Sense of Self Efficacy Scale (TSES) 64
Procedures 66
Data Analysis 67
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS 70

Overview 70

Research Questions 70

Null Hypotheses 71

Descriptive Statistics 71

Results 74

Null Hypothesis One 74

Null Hypothesis Two 79

Null Hypothesis Three 83

Subscale: Emotional Exhaustion 84

Assumption Tests 85

Emotional Exhaustion Results 88

Subscale: Depersonalization 89

Assumption Tests 89

Depersonalization Results 92

Subscale: Personal Accomplishment 93

Assumption Tests 94

Personal Accomplishment Results 96

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS 98

Overview 98

Discussion 98

Hypothesis One 98

Hypothesis Two 99

Hypothesis Three 100

Implications 101

Limitations 103

Recommendations for Future Research 104

REFERENCES 105

APPENDICES 126

Appendix A: IRB Approval 126

Appendix B: Permission to use the Maslach Burnout Inventory 127

Appendix C: Teacher Sense of Efficacy Permission 128

Appendix D: Directions for Administration of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale 129

Appendix E: Informed Consent 131

Appendix F: Survey Reminder Email 135

Appendix G: Thank You Letter 136

List of Tables

Table 1: Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Subscale Scores 53

Table 2: Participant Demographics 73

Table 3: Title I Teachers' Descriptive Statistics (N = 39) 74

Table 4: Title I Shapiro-Wilk's Test 77

Table 5: Title I Focus Teachers' Descriptive Statistics (N = 48) 79

Table 6: Title I Focus Shapiro-Wilk's Test 81

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics (N = 87) 83

Table 8: Correlational Matrix 84

Table 9: Regression Model for Emotional Exhaustion 88

Table 10: Regression Model for Depersonalization (N = 87) 93

Table 11: Contributions of Independent Variables for Personal Accomplishment (N = 87) 97

List of Figures

Figure 2: Participant Type of Title I School 72

Figure 3. Boxplot Title I School MBI: Emotional Exhaustion (EE) 75

Figure 4. Boxplot Title I School MBI: Depersonalization (DP) 76

Figure 5. Boxplot MBI: Personal Accomplishment (PA) 76

Figure 6. Boxplot Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) 77

Figure 7. Scatterplots Title I School 78

Figure 8. Title I Focus School: MBI Emotional Exhaustion (EE) 80

Figure 9. Title I Focus School: MBI Depersonalization (DP) 80

Figure 10. Title I Focus School: MBI Personal Accomplishment (PA) 80

Figure 11. Title I Focus School: Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) 81

Figure 12. Scatterplots Title I Focus School 82

*Figure 13:*Scatterplot of Studentized Residual by Unstandardized Predicted Value on Emotional Exhaustion (EE) 85

Figure 14: Scatterplot of Studentized Residual by TSES on Emotional Exhaustion (EE) 86

Figure 15. Partial Regression Plot MBI Emotional Exhaustion 86

Figure 16: Histogram of Regression of Standardized Residual MBI Emotional Exhaustion 87

Figure 17. *P*-Plot of Regression Standardized Residual for Emotional Exhaustion 88

Figure 18. Scatterplot of Studentized Residual by Unstandardized Predicted Value 90

Figure 19. Partial Regression Plot for Depersonalization and TSES 90

Figure 20. Partial Regression Plot for Depersonalization and Type of School 91

Figure 21. Histogram of Regression of Standardized Residual for Depersonalization 92

Figure 22. P-Plot of Regression Standardized Residual for Depersonalization 92

Figure 23. Scatterplot of Studentized Residual by Unstandardized Predicted Value 94

Figure 24. Partial Regression Plot for Personal Accomplishment and TSES 95

Figure 25. Partial Regression Plot for Personal Accomplishment and Type of School..... 95

Figure 26. Histogram of Regression of Standardized Residual for Personal Accomplishment... 96

Figure 27. P-Plot of Regression Standardized Residual for Personal Accomplishment..... 96

List of Abbreviations

Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)

College and Career Ready Performance Indicators (CCRPI)

Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)

Georgia Milestones (GMAS)

Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)

No Child Left Behind (NCLB)

Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

Every child deserves an effective teacher who creates a warm and caring classroom environment that is conducive to learning. Effective teachers have been found to break the barriers of poverty and apathy by producing up to three years of growth at the end of one academic year (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Loes, Salisbury, & Pascarella, 2015). Since 2000 there has been a mass exodus of teachers leaving the field, due to retirement, changing careers, and a lack of teacher candidates entering the profession (Stronge, Ward, & Grant, 2011). Of those remaining in education, many report feeling chronically stressed and overwhelmed due to job responsibilities, working conditions, and expectations (Abenavoli, Jennings, Greenberg, Harris, & Katz, 2013). The examination of teacher burnout and its relation to self-efficacy beliefs is critical to the field of education as it may provide insights and understanding into how to reduce the number of teachers becoming burned-out and leaving the field. This study will examine the relationship between teacher burnout and self-efficacy for teachers working in Title I and Title I Focus schools. The following chapter presents the background for the study, the significance of the research, problem statement, and purpose statement. The research questions are introduced, and terminology is defined.

Background

A mass exodus is occurring across the United States each year, with almost 500,000 teachers leaving the education profession (Buchanan et al., 2013; Owens, 2015; Roloff & Brown, 2011). Within the first five years of teaching, approximately 50% of all new teachers will leave the field to pursue other career choices, with the most significant shifts occurring in Title I public schools (Amos, 2014; Ingersoll, 2011; Ingersoll & May, 2012; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004).

Ingersoll (2012) found teacher burnout to be a significant factor in his research on why teachers were leaving the field of education. Thousands of teachers exiting the profession leave positions in which they began with high hopes and expectations, only to have become disillusioned and burned out over time due to the demanding role and job requirements (Ingersoll, 2012). Byrne (1993) defined burnout as "the inability to function effectively in one's job as a consequence of prolonged job-related stress" (p. 197). Burnout has also been defined as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity" (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996, p. 4). This study will be guided by burnout theory and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977; Maslach, 1976).

The term *job burnout* was first used in writings by Herbert Freudenberger in 1974 as he observed a group of volunteers in service roles. He noted in his observations that the group gave themselves entirely to the service project, ultimately overextending themselves to the point of emotional exhaustion. He defined the term burnout as "the state of physical and emotional depletion resulting from conditions of work" (Freudenberger, 1975, p. 160). His research on the subject provided a description of the characteristics and traits of burned out individuals, including emotional depletion and a sense of low personal accomplishment. He concluded that several of his patients had developed a reduced sense of personal accomplishment due to being exhausted and detached from their jobs (Freudenberger, 1975).

Maslach (1976) further researched the subject through interviews with service workers regarding the stressors of their jobs. She found that burnout occurs more often in individuals who work in public service industries that have high levels of job demands and are associated with ongoing, chronic stress (Bianchi, Truchot, Laurent, Brisson, & Schonfeld, 2014). Maslach

and Jackson (1981) identified burnout as having three critical elements: a) Emotional exhaustion (EE), b) depersonalization (DP), and c) personal accomplishment (PA). Emotional exhaustion (EE) is the first stage of burnout and is described as being physically weary, overemotional, and lacking enthusiasm towards one's job. As a reaction to daily stressors, emotional exhaustion occurs in individuals, due to prolonged job pressures and life changes. Teachers who experience emotional exhaustion typically separate themselves emotionally from other staff members in the school, by working in a silo in which they are on their own. This silo mentality adds to feelings of isolation and negativity (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

The second element of burnout is depersonalization (DP) which exhibits itself through a negative, pessimistic attitude towards other people, including students, staff members, and administrators. The negative attitude is evident in the handling of work-related duties and responsibilities. Depersonalization has been associated with destructive effects on the overall health of individuals, which can often include depression, high blood pressure, and heart disease (Maslach et al., 1996).

The third element of burnout is reduced personal accomplishment (PA) which is a negative self-assessment of an individual that leads to decreased performance in one's job. Teachers experiencing burnout in personal accomplishment typically lose confidence in their ability to effectively engage and teach students enrolled in the classroom. Teachers afflicted with this element of burnout do not feel that they are able to contribute to the academic growth of their students. Farber (1991) stated, "I'll try but it's a losing cause" (p. 82) is the tone of a teacher experiencing reduced personal accomplishment.

In 1981 Christina Maslach and Susan Jackson developed the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) to measure the burnout levels of individuals. It assesses burnout across the three domains:

emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and lack of personal accomplishment (PA). It has become a standard measure for determining burnout levels and has been used in numerous studies (Akbaba, 2014; Poghosyana, Aiken, & Sloane, 2009; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). In a teacher poll conducted by Hancock and Scherff (2010), it was found that only 39% of teachers reported feeling very satisfied with their jobs, and 51% stated they felt stressed several times a week.

Numerous studies have found that exposure to ongoing chronic stress has been strongly correlated to teacher burnout and job dissatisfaction (Abenavoli et al., 2013; Bellingrath, Weigl, & Kudielka, 2009; Carson, Baumgartner, Matthews, & Tsouloupas, 2010; McLean & Connor, 2015). Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011) found a correlation between increased teacher accountability and job dissatisfaction due to growing workload demands, challenging student behavior, poor school climate, lack of administrative support, and autonomy within the school. Kyriacou (2001) found that teachers experienced job dissatisfaction from teaching unmotivated students, classroom management challenges, time management issues, workload demands, isolation, and poor working conditions.

For teachers working in high poverty Title I schools, the condition could be compounded. The Title I school program was originated by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) in 1965 as a policy to assist in the reduction of academic achievement gaps between students of poverty and other subgroups of students, including black, white, and students with disabilities. The program provides supplemental federal funds to schools based on the numbers of students on free and reduced lunch. Students are eligible to participate in the free and reduced lunch program based upon their guardians' total income and the number of children living in the household (Federal Register, 2016).

Schools in the state of Georgia are rated annually by the College and Career Ready Performance Index (CCRPI) with a score of up to 100. In 2011, the state was granted a waiver from the United States Department of Education from the strict dictates of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) performance requirements; the Georgia waiver designated three types of low-performing Title I schools to be identified: a) Priority, b) Focus, and c) Alert (Georgia Department of Education, 2015). The Georgia Department of Education identified schools based on low student performance. *Priority* schools were Title I schools identified due to the low overall performance of students in a school. *Focus* schools were Title I identified schools based on an achievement gap within the school between two subgroups of students. *Alert* schools did not have to be Title I schools and were identified based on the graduation rate, subgroup achievement level, or subject area achievement falling three standard deviations below the state norm.

All the Priority and Focus schools identified in 2014 had CCRPI scores of 60 or below, with five percent of Title I schools designated as Priority schools and 10% designated as Focus schools (Georgia Department of Education, 2014). For this study, the researcher will examine Title I and Title I Focus schools identified for school reform in the 2017-2018 school year in a large urban district in the state of Georgia (Georgia Department of Education, 2015). After identification as a Title I Focus school, the school district evaluates the leadership ability of the current school principal with the principal either being removed from the position or allowed to remain based upon a review of school data. State school improvement specialists are assigned to each Focus school for three years to provide support and guidance to the school and administrators. Focus schools are also provided with supports to enhance the education of

students and improve the quality of staff. Teachers working at Focus schools are involved in intensive, on-going professional development, and state monitoring.

Teachers who work at Title I Focus schools face additional pressure and stress that comes from being on a state list of low performing schools. The on-going chronic stress may lead some to experience burnout, which could have devastating effects on students in the classroom. It is crucial to the educational system to understand the underlying factors and causes of teacher burnout in order to provide the supports needed to intervene successfully. The outcomes of teacher burnout have grave implications for both the affected teachers and the education profession as a whole, with student achievement, school climate, and teacher turnover rates all having been found to be negatively impacted by the condition (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Droogenbroeck, Spruyt & Vanroelen, 2014; Inandi & Buyukozkan, 2013). Teachers are affected by the condition across the country in all types of schools including Title I, non-Title I, public, and private. With teacher quality being the number one factor in student achievement, it is crucial to the field of education to understand teacher burnout, its causes, treatment, and prevention.

Problem Statement

Numerous studies have found that the teacher is the most significant influence on student achievement having lasting cumulative effects on student learning (Aaronson, Barrow, & Sander, 2007; Amrein-Beardsley & Berliner, 2004; Chetty, Friedman, & Rockoff, 2014; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005; Rockoff, 2004; Sanders & Rivers, 1996; Vandevoort, Amrein-Beardsley, & Berliner, 2004). Low achieving students have been found to benefit the most academically from having an effective teacher (Rivkin et al., 2005). Within one academic year, effective teachers have been found to significantly influence the annual growth measures of

students by more than one grade level (Hanushek, 1992; Huddleston, 2015). With teacher quality having a lasting impact on student achievement, the effects of teacher burnout on student learning are devastating, especially in low-performing, high poverty schools where students often enter school significantly behind their peers (Jacobson, 2011).

Some teachers experiencing the same work challenges that lead to teacher burnout have been found to react entirely differently to them due to personal self-efficacy beliefs about themselves (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1992). Self-efficacy is defined as an inner ability to adjust and control one's actions, regardless of outside influences (Bandura, 1997). It has also been described as a personal sense of self-assurance in one's abilities to adapt to new and challenging circumstances (Friedman, 2000). A person's self-efficacy frames the way opportunities and obstacles are perceived (Schwarzer, Schmitz, & Tang, 1999).

A correlation has been found between a person's perceived self-efficacy and burnout (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005; Gunduz, 2012). Research studies have shown that teachers with high self-efficacy perform more effectively and have a higher job satisfaction rate than a teacher with a low rate of self-efficacy (Bodenhorn, Wolfe, & Airen, 2010; Gunduz, 2012). Hong (2012) found that teachers who left the education profession within the first five years had weaker self-efficacy beliefs and administrative support in comparison to teachers who continued in the teaching profession.

Teacher burnout has a significant impact on the quality of education children receive in classrooms. It affects teachers, students, and school systems. Numerous studies have found it to be a significant factor in teachers leaving the field of education (Akbaba, 2014; Friedman, 2000; Weisberg & Sagie, 1999). Teacher burnout has been shown to be associated with teacher self-

efficacy (Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers, 2004; Friedman & Farber, 1992). There is a need for more studies to explain the relationship between the two (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007).

While some teachers become burned out, others who work under the same conditions can handle the stressors of teaching and are effective in working with students. Having a positive sense of self-efficacy, a personal belief in their own abilities to effectively teach enables many to overcome the daily challenges (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). These teachers demonstrate a growth mindset and a flexible attitude. They can start fresh each day, not holding on to the challenges of previous days (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001).

With almost 500,000 teachers leaving the field each year and the most extensive shifts exiting from Title I schools, it is critical to the education profession to thoroughly understand teacher burn-out and self-efficacy in order to keep teachers in the profession and provide students a quality education (Amos, 2014; Buchanan et al., 2013; Ingersoll, 2011; Owens, 2015; Roloff & Brown, 2011). The Georgia Department of Education conducted a study of public school teachers in Georgia; they found that 44% of teachers who worked in public education within the state were leaving the field of education within the first five years of teaching (Owens, 2015).

Teacher burn-out has many negative effects on the education profession, including increased teacher absenteeism, low student achievement, and an adverse effect on the morale of the school (Amos, 2014). The problem is the education of students suffers when teachers become burned-out. Additionally, there is a gap in the knowledge base on the relationship between elementary teacher burnout and self-efficacy, for teachers working in Title I and Title I Focus schools.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between teacher burnout of elementary teachers working in an urban Georgia school district on the dimensions of emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA), and the independent variables of self-efficacy, working in Title I school, and working in a Title I Focus school. This study also examined which factor(s) (self-efficacy, employment in a Title I school, or employment in a Title I Focus school) predicted burnout on the dimensions of emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA) among elementary teachers.

The independent variables in the study were teacher self-efficacy, teachers working in a Title I school, and teachers working in a Title I Focus school. The dependent variable in this study was teacher burnout. The two instruments that were used in the study were the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). Eighty-seven elementary school teachers, who taught in grades K-5, from four elementary Title I schools in an urban Southeast Georgia school district were included in the study.

Significance of the Study

The study is significant to the education profession for several reasons. There have been previous studies on the relationship between teacher burnout and self-efficacy (Abenavoli et al., 2013; Akbaba, 2014; Carson et al., 2010). However, there are a limited number of studies on the relationships between teacher burnout and self-efficacy in Title I and Title I Focus schools (McLean & Connor, 2015). Limited research also exists on the contributing factors of stress, teacher workloads, and demographic backgrounds on teacher burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Mukundan & Khandehroo, 2010; Ozan, 2009). The findings of the study examined the

relationships between teacher burnout and self-efficacy, specifically regarding teachers who worked in Title I and Title I Focus schools. This study will add to the literature base on the relationship of teacher burnout to self-efficacy for teachers working in Title I and Title I Focus schools.

Research on burnout has been mostly connected to service professions (Butler & Constantine, 2005; Maslach et al., 1996). Self-efficacy theory and research conducted suggest that self-efficacy may be a predictor of teacher burnout (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Vandenberghe & Huberman, 1999). The overarching goal of this study is to increase the level of knowledge on teacher self-efficacy in relation to burnout for elementary teachers.

This study is significant to the field of education because although there have been studies on the causes of teacher burnout and its negative impact on the educational system, there is currently little research on the relationship among teacher burnout, teachers' self-efficacy and teaching in a Georgia identified elementary Title I or Title I Focus school. The results of this study will add to the literature and help to fill in the gaps concerning the adverse emotional and physical impacts associated with teacher burnout of elementary teachers working in a Title I schools. The results of this study could have a lasting impact in teacher professional development and the development of strategies to address teacher burnout in high needs schools which could positively impact the current crisis of teacher shortages across the nation.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a statistically significant relationship between elementary Title I school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)?

RQ2: Is there a statistically significant relationship between elementary Title I Focus school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)?

RQ3: Which factors (i.e., self-efficacy, teaching in a Title I school or a Title I Focus school) predict each of the three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) among elementary school teachers as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)?

Definitions

The following section contains definitions that used in the correlational study:

1. *Burnout* - is categorized into three areas: Emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach et al., 1996).
2. *Depersonalization* - the burnout component connected with a pessimistic viewpoint and a reduction in teacher effectiveness (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).
3. *Emotional exhaustion* - the burnout component related to feeling weary and overextended (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).
4. *Personal Accomplishment* - a sense of success in working with others (Wu, He, Liang, Cai, & Lewis, 2013).
5. *Self-efficacy* - Self-efficacy is beliefs about one's own ability to successfully perform given behaviors and goals (Bandura, 1997; Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005).
6. *Title I School* - A school with a high number of low-income students (United States Department of Education, 2008).

7. *Title I Focus School* - a school with a large number of low-income students and low CCRPI scores (Georgia Department of Education, 2015).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between teacher burnout and the self-efficacy of teachers working in elementary Title I and Title I Focus schools. The goal of public education is to provide every child with a high-quality education that equips each with the skills and knowledge to be successful in life. Across the nation, school districts are facing a teacher shortage which is having a severe impact on the quality of education provided to children. Fewer teachers are entering the workforce, and the few who enter are not remaining due to many factors including teacher burnout. This chapter presents the conceptual framework, a review of the literature, and a summary.

Theoretical Framework

Burnout Theory

The theoretical base for this study is burnout theory which has its roots in human service professions (Farber, 1984; Maslach, 1976; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Burnout is most commonly referred to in the literature as a psychological condition connected to a working relationship, resulting from long-term occupational stress (Jennett, Harris, & Mesibov, 2003; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Schaufeli, Martinez, Pinto, Salanova, & Bakker, 2002). Byrne (1993) defined burnout as "the inability to function effectively in one's job as a consequence of prolonged job-related stress" (p. 197). Burnout has also been defined as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity" (Maslach et al., 1996, p. 4).

The term *job burnout* was first used in writings by Herbert Freudenberger in 1974 as he observed a group of volunteers in service roles who were exhibiting a state of exhaustion and feelings of incompetence. He noted in his observations that the group gave themselves entirely to the service project, ultimately overextending themselves to the point of being emotionally exhausted. He defined the term burnout as "the state of physical and emotional depletion resulting from conditions of work" (Freudenberger, 197, p. 160). His research on the subject provided a description and an understanding of the characteristics and traits of feelings of burned out individuals, including emotional depletion and a sense of low personal accomplishment. Freudenberger was also the first to describe burnout as a syndrome (1974). He concluded that people demonstrating specific character traits including ones of compassion, thoughtfulness, and kindness were more susceptible to the syndrome. He described those suffering from burnout syndrome as having feelings that were remote, detached, critical, and angry, with a reduced focus on success, achievement, and fulfillment in the workplace. The physical symptoms that were found to accompany burnout syndrome were insomnia, headaches, and digestive ailments (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

Social psychologist Christina Maslach began studying burnout in 1976 to try to understand the coping mechanisms of people due to work-related stress. Through interviews with healthcare workers, including doctors, nurses, and teachers, three significant commonalities emerged: feelings of disconnectedness with patients, symptoms of exhaustion, and a questioning of whether their choice to enter the healthcare profession was the right one for each of them. Her research led to the development of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), a survey designed to measure the level of burnout in individuals, by Maslach and Jackson (1981). It also introduced the start of systematical empirical inquiry by researchers into employee burnout. Because of the

research of Freudenberger and Maslach, teacher burnout came to the forefront of educational research with specific, focused attempts to understand its components and symptoms (Adams, 2001; Freudenberger, 1974; Maslach, 1976).

According to Maslach and Jackson (1981), burnout has three critical elements: emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA). Emotional exhaustion (EE) is the first stage of burnout and is described as a physical weariness, emotional overload, and an absence of zeal. It occurs as a reaction to the stressors of job pressures and life changes. Individuals who are exhausted typically take part in actions intended to produce mental and emotional separateness between themselves and others in the workplace (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). They assume an indifferent and aloof attitude towards work, reducing their contributions on the job. Also, they begin to doubt their capabilities and feel that they are unable to be effective in their chosen profession (Friedman, 2000).

Another element of burnout is depersonalization (DP) which manifests itself through a cynical attitude towards people and situations. It is necessary for some professions to have a degree of depersonalization to be useful; however, too much depersonalization is connected to increased feelings of heartlessness and contempt (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986). Depersonalization can have destructive effects on a person's health and well-being, causing them to become insensitive and be intensely negative towards others, and in some cases self-destructive (Maslach et al., 1996). Because of depersonalization, a sense of detachment is developed to protect and shield the afflicted person from the strain of close involvement, which results in a cold feeling of detachment. As the detachment increases, the individual develops an attitude of indifference and a callous disregard for the feelings of others, which results in the person having negative expectations, attitudes, and reactions (Maslach et al., 1996).

The final component of burnout is a negative self-assessment of one's abilities. This component leads to reduced performance or personal achievement in one's job. Individuals with a negative self-assessment have a negative outlook towards themselves and others (Maslach et al., 1996). The signs and symptoms of a negative outlook include a lack of desire to complete job duties and responsibilities, neglect of personal needs, depression, withdrawal from others, and exhaustion (Freudenberger, 1974).

The research of Freudenberger (1974) and Maslach (1976) on the effects of burnout concluded that individuals suffering from the malady developed feelings of emotional depletion and low personal accomplishment. Numerous studies have been conducted in service professions which included doctors, nurses, and lawyers on burnout that focused on the outcomes of stress and burnout (Hellhammer & Kirschbaum, 1999; Maslach, 1976). One commonality found among these professions is the demanding nature of the service position (Maslach, 1976). The person experiencing burnout was found to have a diminished interest in work and began to view co-workers in an extremely negative fashion (Maslach, 1976). In his paper on teacher burnout, Mei-Lin Chang (2009) stated, "Burnout happens when exhaustion replaces feeling energized, cynicism [or depersonalization] replaces being hopeful and being involved, and ineffectiveness replaces feeling efficacious" (p. 195).

Burnout has been recognized as a syndrome that touches professionals in the public service industries of education, healthcare, and social work (Ballantine & Spade, 2008; Chang, 2009). Public service professions have high levels of job demands which are associated with stressors (Bianchi et al., 2014; Pines, 1993). Maslach (1976) further researched the subject through interviews with service workers regarding the stressors of their jobs. She found that burnout occurs more often in individuals who work in the public service industry and have high

levels of job demands associated with ongoing, chronic stressors which include working with people, low pay, and demanding workloads (Bianchi et al., 2014).

Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory is a primary theory in this study due to the study of self-efficacy originating from it. Social cognitive theory is built upon the belief that behavior is shaped and controlled by self-discipline, influence, and observation (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Bandura (1996) stated that human behavior is affected by numerous internal and external factors. He stated that each person is a contributor to what happens to them, rather than the result of what happens to them (Bandura, 1997).

Social cognitive theory has been defined as a behavioral theory that identifies people as leaders of their own lives who take active roles in the creation of their own thoughts and emotions. Each person is an active agent in their life as they produce thoughts, feelings, and actions of their choosing (Martin & Kulinna, 2004). It is comprised of three major components: people, environment, and behavior. The principles of this theory state that students learn through observation, modeling, and personal motivation (Bandura 1986, 2011).

The theoretical framework for self-efficacy was also created by Albert Bandura (2004) through his research on social cognitive theory and his interest in how individuals develop reliance and grit in dealing with stressful situations and experiences. His model includes two attributes of expectancy: outcome and efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Outcome expectancy is built on the premise that specific behaviors will lead to specific consequences. Efficacy expectancy is based on the belief that anyone can be successful in his or her endeavors, leading to the attainment of desired consequences. Self-efficacy can be equated to having confidence in one's

own abilities which allows a person to successfully pursue and attain individualized goals and outcomes (Bandura, 2004).

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is described as a person's belief in their own capacity to perform tasks in order to deliver specific results (Bandura, 1996). It has been defined as an individual's personal belief in their own abilities to be successful in the performance of their job (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005). Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as "a belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3). The belief that one holds about themselves and their abilities plays a significant impact on their lives. It impacts their dreams, goals, and efforts to achieve. It also impacts their grit, their success in overcoming adversity, and how long they will persevere to achieve their objective (Bandura, 1994; Bandura, 2006). Napolean Hill (1925), described self-efficacy very simply as, "You can do it if you believe you can" (p. 18).

In 2004, Bandura developed the theory of self-efficacy after completing experiments in which he observed how people with phobias attempted to overcome negative experiences and how past experiences affected performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1993, 1994, 1997). Bandura observed a group of people with snake phobias. He gathered the group of snake-phobic adults and conducted observations with them completing self-directed performance objectives with the snakes. He observed two groups completing the tasks, one was given self-directed performance tasks with the snakes, while the control group was given no task interactions with the snakes. The observations clearly showed that the people with the self-directed performance tasks made positive gains with their snake phobia and were more likely to maintain the gains

over time. The experimental group also demonstrated positive effects in other parts of their lives by becoming more confident (Bandura, 1993, 1994, 1997, 2004).

Self-efficacy is developed through four types of experiences: emotional, psychological, vicarious, and mastery (Bandura, 2004). The emotional and psychological state of an individual influences self-efficacy. Vicarious experiences are those that are observed and learned from others. Mastery experiences are when an individual learns, practices, and successfully completes a task. Social persuasion also plays a crucial role in the development of self-efficacy. It is when outside influences affect an individual's outlook on their abilities in a positive or negative fashion. These outside influences can take the form of feedback, coaching conversations, and hearing others talk about them in a critical manner (Bandura, 2004).

The efficacy of a teacher has powerful implications for student learning. The belief system that a teacher holds of their own abilities to work with children to bring about targeted outcomes is teacher efficacy (Armor et. al, 1976; Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 2004). The teacher knows and understands who they are as an educator and is confident in their abilities to produce results. Each teacher with a high self-efficacy can overlook barriers and negatives to see the potential in students and is able to produce positive student academic outcomes. Satisfaction with one's job has been linked to a person's level of self-efficacy. Bodenhorn (2010) stated, "People with higher levels of self-efficacy in a particular area of their behavior set higher goals; exhibit stronger commitment, motivation, resilience, and perseverance; and are therefore more likely to meet their goals" (p. 168).

The theoretical frameworks for this study were Maslach's burnout theory and Bandura's social cognitive theory. The history of burnout theory and characteristics of the affliction were examined in relation to the education field. Additionally, the history and development of self-

efficacy through Bandura's social cognitive theory was presented. This study will focus on the concept of teacher burnout in relation to self-efficacy for teachers teaching in high, poverty Title I and Title I Focus schools. This study will add to the knowledge base for teacher burnout, self-efficacy, and teaching in high, poverty schools. It will potentially add to the theory for teacher burnout and self-efficacy for educators.

Related Literature

Impact of the Teacher

Each day teachers work with diverse groups of students with the purpose of imparting knowledge and in-depth understanding of learning. Students enter these teachers' classrooms with varying levels of socioeconomic status, academic ability, background knowledge, and experiences. The expectation for each student is that under the instruction of a highly qualified teacher, each will achieve at least one year of academic growth during the school year. For students not meeting grade level standards, the expectation rises for the teacher, with increased measures and pressure to have each child reach grade level performance targets by the end of the school year.

Having an effective teacher in classrooms has been identified as being critical to high student engagement and achievement (Hanushek, 1986; Harris & Sass, 2011). While every child is afforded the same opportunity to learn and grow under the guidance of a teacher, not every child will have the same level of instruction or academic achievement results, due to the varying levels of instructional abilities of educators (Clotfelter, Ladd, Vigdor, & Wheeler, 2007; Hanushek, 1986; Schuster, 2012). The instructional performance ability of the teacher has been found to be the most significant influence factor on the rate of academic achievement growth for

students (Harris & Sass, 2011). The effects for student outcome measures have been found to be cumulative over time (Sanders, Wright, & Horn, 1997).

Within one school, the annual student growth measures of teacher performance can vary widely with teachers having varying degrees of effectiveness. Highly effective teachers overcome the influence of poverty and offer quality education for each child placed in their classrooms. Teachers who are highly successful in the craft of teaching have been found to have a significant influence on the annual growth measures of students by more than one grade level during one school year (Hanushek, 1992; Ross, 1992). Low achieving students benefit the most from time spent with these teaching experts, with many at-risk students achieving academic growth equivalent of up to three or more grade levels within one academic year (Huddleston, 2015).

For students who have a low performing, ineffective teacher, the results are often devastating with remediation taking up to three years to counter the effects from one year in their classroom (Shukla, Konold, & Cornell, 2016). Santoro (2011) found that teachers who worked in high poverty, low-performing schools were more prone to burnout due to their frustrations with student performance outcomes, student behavior, work demands, and school climate. With the current teacher shortages facing schools, these factors often compound the situation for students in a high poverty school. With teacher quality having a lasting impact on student achievement, the effects of teacher burnout on student learning is devastating, especially in low-performing, high poverty schools where students often enter school significantly behind their peers (Jacobson, 2011).

The most influential factor in student achievement is the teacher (Darling-Hammond, 2000). The research clearly shows that teachers have a significant impact on individual student

academic achievement and learning (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Loes et al., 2015; Stronge et al., 2011). The direction of the student data, whether positive or negative, is clearly dependent upon the instructional skills and abilities of the teacher in the classroom. It is evident that for optimum student learning to occur, each classroom must have an effective teacher that is highly skilled in the art of teaching (Jacobson, 2011; Strone, Ward, & Grant, 2011).

Job Satisfaction

Hancock and Scherff (2010) found that 39% of teachers reported feeling very content with their jobs, and 51% stated that stress was felt several times a week. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011) found that job dissatisfaction was due to teachers having increased workloads, dealing with challenging student behavior, having conflict among colleagues and parents, lacking administrative support, and a lack of autonomy within the school (Carson et al., 2010; McLean & Connor, 2015). Kyriacou (2001) found that job dissatisfaction occurred from teaching unmotivated students, classroom management challenges, time management issues, workload demands, isolation, and working conditions. Exposure to ongoing chronic stress has been strongly correlated to teacher burnout and job dissatisfaction (Abenavoli et al., 2013; Bellingrath et al., 2009; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011).

Teacher Attrition

Every child deserves a highly qualified, effective teacher who creates a warm and caring classroom environment that is highly conducive to learning. Classrooms should reflect engaging learning experiences which allow students hands-on opportunities to learn at high levels. Teachers should be content experts that understand and are able to break down learning for students to master the curriculum. The goals of education are clearly that, goals. While across the country there are numerous classrooms that are reflective of the goals, the current reality of

public education in the 21st Century is that it is in a state of crisis due to teachers leaving the profession in record numbers in combination with the rise of teachers becoming burned out and ineffective.

The education profession has long attracted public service-oriented individuals who want to make a difference in the lives of children, the local community, and on society. Many entering the field have a love for children, learning, or academic content. The profession of education, which was once a highly desired field in colleges and universities, is now finding that fewer candidates are choosing to enter the profession. (Struyven, Dochy, Janssens, & Gielen, 2006). Additionally, fewer teachers are entering the field of education, while more are leaving (Ingersoll & May, 2012). The reasons the number of teachers in the workforce across the country is shrinking are complicated and are since fewer students are entering the field, high numbers of teacher are retiring, and many others are deciding to leave the profession entirely.

Colleges around the country are reporting fewer teacher candidates enrolled in programs (Sutcher, Darling-Hammond, & Carver-Thomas, 2016). The Alliance for Excellence (2005) reported that 33% of new and novice teachers left the education profession during the first three initial years of service. Within five years the number will increase to 50% of new teachers leaving to pursue other careers, with the most substantial moves taking place in high poverty schools (Amos, 2014; Ingersoll, 2011; Ingersoll & May, 2012; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). The reasons reported by teachers for leaving the field were a) teacher burnout, b) workload, c) lack of preparation, and d) classroom management (Hancock, 2016; Hancock & Scherff, 2010). Additionally, record numbers of teachers are reaching the retirement criteria of 30 years of service or age 60 (Buchanan et al., 2013; Loonstra, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2009; Lynch, 2012). Across the United States, teachers are leaving the profession at a rate of 13% each year (Haynes,

2014). In total, almost 500,000 teachers leave the education profession each year due to a change in career or retirement (Buchanan et al., 2013; Owens, 2015; Roloff & Brown, 2011). With fewer teachers in the workforce, the demands for keeping those who enter the field and developing each into highly effective teachers has never been higher (Lambert, Cartledge, Heward, & Lo, 2006). This study will fill in the gaps in the literature by examining teacher burnout, its history, causes, effects on teachers and students, and its relation to teacher self-efficacy. It will aid in the understanding of teacher burnout and the development of supplemental supports for educators experiencing the condition.

Teacher Burnout

Burnout plays a significant role in the current state of teacher shortages (Ingersoll, 2002). Thousands of the teachers exiting each year will leave positions in which they began with high hopes and expectations, only to have become disillusioned and stressed due to becoming burned out (Ingersoll, 2012). Most school districts consider teacher burnout to be a severe personnel problem (Blandford, 2000). Teachers who experience burnout are often exhausted, pessimistic, and feel ineffective in their ability to work with students (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). Numerous factors are related to increasing teacher burnout including: increasing class sizes, non-teaching tasks and paperwork, low salaries, insufficient administrative support, challenging student behaviors, inadequate preparation for the position, along with increased pressure and accountability (Billingsley, 2004; Eggers & Calegari, 2011; Pines 2002; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). Cherniss (1995) identified the following factors in his book, *Beyond Burnout*, that lead to teacher burnout: lack of preparation, lack of autonomy, lack of support, classroom management, and boredom. According to Ingersoll (2002), “The image these data suggest is one of a revolving door: an occupation in which there are relatively large flows in, through, and out of

schools in recent years" (p. 21). Burned out teachers have been found to have high absenteeism rates and short tenures of employment in addition to having an adverse effect on their personal lives by the condition (Carson, Plemmons, Templin, & Weiss, 2011; Whipp, Tan, & Yeo, 2007).

Dorman (2003) believes teachers are often placed in positions that leave them in vulnerable states with susceptibility to becoming a victim of teacher burnout due to the conditions in which they work including overcrowded classrooms, managing difficult student behavior, increasing workloads, and demands for time. Through his studies on burnout, he described a burnout victim as angry and isolated. Researchers have found that teachers who report high burnout symptoms receive low student climate survey ratings on classroom management, instructional ability, and pacing of lessons (Evers et al., 2004).

The field of teaching lends itself to isolation and an increased sense of disconnectedness, with teachers spending the majority of their day alone with students with little time left to collaborate with colleagues (Bennett & LeCompte, 1990; Wood & McCarthy, 2002). Burned out teachers tend to display pessimistic attitudes towards their role and students in the classroom through the use of sarcasm, derogatory comments, and their lack of responsiveness to student needs (Anbar & Eker, 2007). For the burned-out teacher, there is little evidence of love for learning or students; instead, there is blame and criticism, which leads to poor teaching practices (Wood & McCarthy, 2002).

The workload of teachers has steadily risen since the passing of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, while the time allotted to accomplish assigned tasks in addition to teaching students remains the same, many come into the profession with little preparation for the challenges they will face (Bain, Lancaster, Zundans, & Parkes, 2009). This lack of readiness in combination with increased pressure to perform has created an environment of prolonged stress in classrooms

across the country for teachers in public school settings (Leiter & Maslach, 2001; Roettger, 2007). Gold (1984) found that an increased risk of burnout exists for teachers who work in urban, secondary schools, and Title I schools due to insufficient coping mechanisms, increased pressure for performance, and challenging student behavior.

With teachers facing a myriad of challenges daily including overcrowded classrooms, challenging student behavior, on-going changing curriculums, in addition to being evaluated by building administrators on student achievement outcomes, it is challenging for many not to become burned out in their chosen profession (Kyriacou, 2001). Teachers who are experiencing burnout will feel that they can no longer teach effectively or contribute to the academic growth of the students. For teachers, low morale and a sense of insignificance associated with working with students are evident as burned out teachers appear to have no fulfillment in working with students who are assigned to them or contributing to the overall school climate in a positive fashion (Friedman, 2000).

Teachers face a complicated world of social and emotional issues that require a great deal of skill, expertise, and flexibility on their part to handle (Kegan, 1995). Their work environment is dedicated to meeting the individual needs of children who are assigned to their class with differing levels of abilities and life experiences. The average teacher works well beyond a typical 40-hour work week. Many find that they may work up to 50 hours per week due to after-school obligations, grading papers, and planning for lessons (Rosales, 2011). Long hours in addition to the prolonged stress associated with the position places teachers at risk to develop burnout which could lead to numerous health conditions including depression, emotional exhaustion, and heart disease (Cunningham, 1983).

For teachers working in high-poverty schools, the stress conditions can be even higher due to the needs of the students, the pressure to rapidly improve student achievement, and chronic teacher shortages (Howard, 2003). Psychologically, teachers experiencing burnout demonstrate feelings and symptoms of anxiety, low self-esteem, and depression (Schonfeld, 2002). It also can have a devastating effect on the health of the individual with the condition, including stomach issues, nausea symptoms, extreme fatigue, and flu-like symptoms. Teacher attendance is concerning for teachers with teacher burnout syndrome due to the varying nature of emotional and physical symptoms of the syndrome on the individual (Owens, 2015). Teachers on average miss six percent of the days that students attend school (Podgursky, 2003).

Teacher burnout has been found to have an adverse impact on the effectiveness of the teacher in the classroom (Inandi & Buyukozkan, 2013). Students in the classroom of a burned-out teacher pay the ultimate price for their education due to the loss of instructional engagement opportunities. The outcomes of teacher burnout have grave implications for both the affected teachers and the education profession, with student achievement, school climate, and teacher turnover rates all impacted by the condition (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Droogenbroeck et al., 2014). The negative impact of teacher burnout affects students, teachers, and schools.

One of the critical factors of highly successful teachers has been found to be in the building of relationships with students (Rudasill, Reio, Stipanovic, & Taylor, 2010). The better the relationship, the higher student achievement rates become. For burned-out teachers who have distanced themselves from their emotions and students, the area of building relationships and connecting with others is difficult. There is little compassion or empathy shown to parents of students as well as children experiencing difficulties with learning or behavioral deficits (Schonfeld, 2002). These burned out teachers make it evident through their verbal and nonverbal

behavior to students and others that they do not care for the children whom they teach. As a result, the relationship that develops between the teacher and students is complicated and often negative with students tending to do very poorly academically and behaviorally in their classrooms (Schonfeld, 2002).

In 2015 Shen et.al, found a relationship between low student motivation and high teacher burnout. Parent conferences are often difficult, and administrators must be called into meetings to facilitate communication and understanding. Burned out teachers typically have a high number of failing students, discipline rates, and parental complaints (Anbar & Eker, 2007). Many administrators do not understand teacher burnout theory and simply associate these teachers as ineffective, negative, and challenging. Because of the negativity associated with the condition, these teachers can have an effect on the overall climate of the school building with other teachers quickly exhibiting low morale as well (Anbar & Eker, 2007).

Prior studies on teacher burnout examined several elements that influenced the burnout of teachers (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Coulter & Abney, 2009; Hong, 2012; Inandi & Buyukozkan, 2013; Pucella, 2011). Brouwers and Tomic (2000) conducted research on effective teachers who experienced low levels of burnout to determine if there were similarities. They determined that teachers who felt competent in the area of classroom management had lower levels of burnout than those who did not feel competent.

A study conducted by Hong (2012) found that teachers who left the education profession within the first five years had weaker self-efficacy beliefs and administrative support in comparison to teachers who continued teaching. Coulter and Abney (2009) examined the burnout levels of teachers working in international schools and teachers working in their country of origin. In their study, they found that there was a statistically lower level of burnout for

international teachers than those working in their country of origin. Inandi and Buyukozkan (2013) found in a study of over 1600 teachers that those who had engaged in service to assist others had lower levels of burnout than those who did not.

Teachers who experience emotional exhaustion typically separate themselves emotionally from other staff members in the school which add to their feelings of isolation and negativity (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). This is seen when a teacher has lost all confidence in his or her ability to effectively engage and teach students enrolled in the classroom. Teachers afflicted with this element of burnout do not feel that they are able to contribute to the academic growth of students. Farber (1991) stated, "I'll try, but it's a losing cause" (p. 82) as the tone of a teacher experiencing reduced personal accomplishment.

Teacher Shortage in Georgia

The 2015 United States Department of Education Teacher Shortage Areas (TSA) annual publication identified the shortage of teachers in the state of Georgia as having had a continued steady decline in the numbers of qualified teachers for Georgia classrooms, with an increase of more than 50% by subject area since 1990. There has also been a decline of more than 30% of teacher applicants applying for Georgia teaching certificates from 2008 to 2014 (Owens, 2015). Schools of high poverty typically encounter even more significant difficulties in filling vacant teaching positions with another variable contributing significantly to the ongoing teacher shortage: veteran teachers transferring within school districts to higher performing, lower poverty schools leaving many with inexperienced, novice teachers working with students (Adamson & Darling-Hammond, 2011). Most first-year teachers will start their educational careers with significant challenges in the areas of curriculum, instructional delivery, classroom management, and time management. For many novice teachers, they also face the difficulty of

beginning their careers in challenging schools; when considering the combination of inexperience with a highly challenging environment, novice teachers are often ill-prepared to be successful during their early formative years of teaching (Buchanan et al., 2013; Owens, 2015; Roloff & Brown, 2011).

The trends in the teacher shortage demonstrate that the condition of public education in the state of Georgia is facing a crisis due to the high teacher attrition rate attributed to teachers leaving the field, on-going retirement, and a lack of teacher candidates entering into universities studying education. Many school systems are forced to fill vacancies with substitute teachers as stopgap measures to provide educational services to children while searching for certified candidates. The effects on public education have been disturbing; in 2014, less than 60% of students demonstrated proficiency across all grades and content areas on the state-mandated test, the Georgia Milestones Assessment System (Georgia Department of Education, 2016).

Elementary and Secondary Education Act

On April 11, 1965, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) became a federal statute. The primary purpose of the statue was to provide federal funding for K-12 public education. It revolutionized the role of the federal government in public education through its provision of providing federal funding to states for the first time. Prior to the act, funding for education from the government was specific to land and specialized programs but remained separate from becoming involved in the rights of states' in making curriculum decisions and school operations. The federal funding provided under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) focused on reducing the achievement gap for schools with large numbers of students living in poverty. Funding can be used to purchase instructional materials, additional staffing, professional development, and to increase parental involvement. The Elementary and Secondary

Education Act (ESEA) significantly increased the number of federal funding dollars provided to schools of high poverty. There was soon a call for increased accountability tied to the additional federal dollars. As a result, in 1960 the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) was created as a measure to assess the learning of students.

In 1980 the National Commission on Excellence in Education's report, A Nation at Risk, was released. It depicted a picture of failing schools across the United States which called for corrective measures to be taken to improve student achievement. As a result of the dismal report on education across the United States, there was a sharp decline in federal funding for public education from 1980 to 1985 (National Center for Education Statistics, 1985). During the mid-1980's the Alexander-James study group was commissioned by U.S. Secretary of Education, William Bennett to analyze the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) and make recommendations on how it could be enhanced to allow comparison data to be reviewed between states' results as a measure of accountability for schools.

In 1989 an educational summit was held by the National Governors' Association and President George H. W. Bush which led to a commitment to develop content standards on a national level for all core subjects. The commitment to national content standards was continued through President Bill Clinton's presidency in the 1990s with the reauthorization of Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) as Goals 2000 Educate America Act which required states to create academic standards in core areas with assessments. President George W. Bush signed the reauthorization of ESEA as the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in on January 8, 2002 (United States Department of Education, 2002). The goals of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) were to create reform in elementary and secondary education for economically disadvantaged students. It required states to have academic standards for students with a state

assessment to measure proficiency on content standards, improve teacher quality, and provide school choice. Students in grades 3 through 8 were required to take mandated assessments in content areas each year with the goal that 100% would be proficient by the end of the 2013-2014 school year (United States Department of Education, 2002).

Based upon the outcomes of the state assessments, schools were rated on making "adequate yearly progress" (AYP) towards the proficiency targets based on the overall population of the school and subgroup targets. Public schools progress towards students meeting proficiency standards (AYP) by the 2013-2014 school year were publicly reported by the state. Schools not meeting AYP faced increasing consequences based on the number of years not meeting the measures (United States Department of Education, 2002).

Title I

The Title I program was originated by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) in 1965 as a policy to assist in the reduction of academic achievement gaps between students of poverty and other subgroups of students, including black, white, and students with disabilities. The program provides supplemental federal funds to schools based on the number of students on free and reduced lunch (Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965). The federal funds are provided to assist school districts to ensure that all students have the opportunity to meet state academic proficiency standards (The Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965).

Local school districts determine the formula for being identified as a Title I school based upon the threshold of a minimum of 40% of a school's students qualifying for the federal free and reduced lunch program. Eligibility for students to participate in the free and reduced lunch program is based on the families' income and the number of children living in the household

(Federal Register, 2016). Title I schools are identified based on the percentage of students who receive free and reduced meals. There are two designations for Title I schools: Targeted Assistance (TA) and Schoolwide. Targeted assistance schools designate specific students who meet Title I criteria to be worked within the program, whereas schoolwide Title I designation allows all students in the building to benefit from the supplemental funds (Federal Register, 2016). Each Title I school receives supplemental Title I dollars to aid and assist, with the instruction of students based upon the percentage of free and reduced lunches it serves (Federal Register, 2016).

The supplemental funds are allotted for improvement of student academic achievement. The funds can range from $40,000 to $500,000. Typically, the higher poverty rate of a school results in a higher Title I allocation funding that can be used to supplement the educational programming of each (United States Department of Education, 2002). This money attempts to level the playing field between a high poverty school and a low poverty school. Schools create a school improvement plan determined by their academic achievement and through an analysis of a school-based needs assessment (Federal Register, 2016). Title I funds can be used to fund additional teachers, parent facilitators, in addition to reducing class size, and purchasing learning materials including books, software, computers, iPads, interactive whiteboards, and learning manipulatives.

Title I in Georgia Schools

Many students who attend Title I schools begin their educational lives at a disadvantage due to coming into the early grades with little vocabulary or academic skills. While Pre-Kindergarten is offered across the state of Georgia for free, many disadvantaged students may not attend the program. According to the Governor's Office of Student Achievement (2013),

Georgia serves only 60% of eligible students in Pre-Kindergarten. For many young children in Title I schools, there is a learning gap that begins in Kindergarten and will continue to grow as students mature through elementary school (Georgia Department of Education, 2015).

School Improvement: Focus Schools

Every school within the state of Georgia is measured and rated on the College and Career Ready Performance Index (CCRPI). Each school receives a score of up to 100 based on their performance on school indicators. In 2011, the state was granted a waiver from the United States Department of Education from the strict dictates of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) performance requirements. The Georgia waiver designated three types of low-performing schools to be identified: (a) Priority, (b) Focus, and (c) Alert (Georgia Department of Education, 2015).

The Georgia Department of Education (2015) identified schools based on low student performance. *Priority* schools were Title I schools identified due to the low overall performance of students in a school, and *Focus* schools were Title I identified schools based on an achievement gap within the school between two subgroups of students. *Alert* schools do not have to be Title I schools but were schools that demonstrated student achievement issues in a subject, subgroup, or graduation rate. All the Priority and Focus schools identified in 2015 had CCRPI scores of 60 or below, with five percent of Title I schools designated as Priority schools and 10% of Focus schools (Georgia Department of Education, 2015). For this study, the researcher will focus on elementary Title I and Title I Focus schools identified in the 2017-2018 school year.

Completion of a Georgia Assessment of Performance on School Standards (GAPSS) analysis occurs within the first year to identify strengths and weaknesses of the school's

performance (Georgia Department of Education, 2015). The GAPSS analysis is conducted by a team of six to eight educators from the Georgia Department of Education, local Regional Education Service Area (RESA), and voluntary certified educators from different school systems. The GAPSS occurs over two days and includes observations of teaching practices in addition to reviews of artifacts the school has submitted. The artifacts include recent school improvement plans, CCRPI data, local assessment data, school leadership, and team meeting minutes, copies of master schedules, intervention materials, lesson plan templates, student handbooks, and staff interviews (http://www.gadoe.org/School-Improvement/School-Improvement-Services/Pages/System-for-Effective-School-Instruction.aspx). The team analyzes all of the artifacts and data to determine the school's level of implementation of the Georgia School Keys (Georgia Department of Education, 2015).

The Georgia School Keys are the state's roadmap for schools to guide the school improvement process (Georgia Department of Education, 2008). They are research-based, high impact school improvement practices identified for school effectiveness. It is comprised of eight strands: (a) curriculum, (b) assessment, (c) instruction, (d) planning and organization, (e) student, family, and community support, (f) professional learning, (g) leadership, (h) and school culture. The GAPSS team determines the level of implementation of each strand. The levels of implementation include: not addressed, emergent, operational, and fully operational (Georgia Department of Education, 2008).

Once the levels of implementation of each strand have been identified, the team works collaboratively to identify areas of commendations and growth with identified next steps for the school to work towards (Georgia Department of Education, 2008). Using the information gleaned from the GAPSS analysis, school achievement data, and guidance from the School

Improvement Specialist, the school leadership team, devises a strategic plan for school improvement for the Focus school (Georgia Department of Education, 2008). The plan includes smart goals, specific actions, timelines, and provisions for monitoring. School districts determine whether the principal will remain at the Focus school for the following year or be reassigned to another position within the district, based upon the length of time the principal has led the school, results of the GAPSS analysis, and other various district based factors. Each Focus school leader will have a three-year strategic plan of supports provided by the Georgia Department of Education to assist in improving student achievement (Georgia Department of Education, 2015). Focus schools are assigned a state school improvement specialist whose role is to provide guidance and support to the school leader and leadership team. They will also be required to participate in state leadership training while designated a Focus school (Georgia Department of Education, 2015).

School districts with identified Focus schools are required to set aside five percent of their total Title I budget to use in offering at-risk, economically disadvantaged students extended learning time or a flexible learning program (FLP) to help remediate student learning (Georgia Department of Education, 2014). These additional learning opportunities are in addition to students' regular educational day. They can occur afterschool or can be scheduled throughout the school day, during a resource block. The focus of the flexible learning program is for students to receive small group differentiated learning designed to meet their individual needs (Georgia Department of Education, 2015).

The purpose of the Georgia initiative for the identified Focus schools is to lessen the learning gap between disadvantaged students and those on grade level through research-based intensive interventions, extended learning time for students, and professional development for

staff. (Georgia Department of Education, 2015). School staff involved in this process are required to do a substantial amount of work in addition to their regular duties and responsibilities; for many teachers, this will require extended hours at school, intensive professional development, and more significant stress. These factors, in addition to the culture within the school, may lead to an increase in the burnout rate of teachers which could have a significant impact on teachers leaving the field of education (Sass, Semykina, & Harris, 2014).

Students attending Georgia Department of Education identified elementary Focus schools in many cases come from poverty (Georgia Department of Education, 2014). Previous studies have found correlations between poverty and academic achievement, mental health, and juvenile delinquency (Hsieh & Pugh, 1993; Kessler & Cleary, 1980). Children living in poverty may experience social and developmental challenges due to exposure to life traumas with little means to mitigate the impact on the child's growth and development (Paxton, Robinson, Shah, & Schoeny, 2004). They come to school academically behind their peers and may exhibit severe behavioral issues. Their parents may not be as involved in the school activities as a parent of a non-Title I school and may exhibit frustration when their child experiences academic or behavioral difficulties (Owens, 2015). High poverty Title I schools typically have a high teacher turnover rate with one-fifth of the staff turning over each year (Aud, Fox, & Kewal-Ramani, 2010; Ingersoll, 2004).

Numerous studies (Caglar, 2011; Hinds, Jones, Gau, Forrester, & Biglan, 2015; Mee & Haverback, 2014) indicate that the average teacher experiences stress several times throughout the school day. Teachers who work in Title I Focus schools may experience higher stress levels due to the pressure to raise student achievement. This may have an impact on the number of burned out teachers in schools and have a long-lasting, negative impact on student achievement

(Owens, 2015). According to Guin (2004) low-performing, high poverty schools have a higher teacher turnover rate than high performing, low poverty schools and have reported more teacher burnout. Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, and Kaplan (2007) stated that the emotional exhaustion, negative traits, and tendencies could transmit from teachers to students, impeding their academic achievement, and tainting their attitude about learning.

Teacher Self Efficacy

Each teacher has a sense of self-efficacy that is their personal belief in their own abilities to effectively instruct and engage students (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). A teacher's sense of confidence in their abilities has been found to have a strong correlation with student achievement and motivation (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). Self-efficacy has been linked to each teacher's sense of ownership in their profession. Teachers with high levels of self-efficacy have been identified as having better organization and planning skills (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001).

Teachers who have a strong sense of self-efficacy demonstrate a flexible attitude and a growth mindset that allows them to be open to new ideas and instructional methodologies to meet the needs of students in their classrooms (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk- Hoy, 2001). The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) was developed to assess the self-efficacy levels of teachers. The scales went through three revisions to test for validity and reliability (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). Two forms were created as a result, a short form and a long form. This study used the long form consisting of 24 items. The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy scale measures teaching efficacy in three subscales: student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. Table 1 lists the subscale scores when using the long form (Tschannen Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001).

Table 1

Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Subscale Scores

Long Form
Efficacy in Student Engagement Items 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 12, 14, 22
Efficacy in Instructional Strategies Items 7, 10, 11, 17, 18, 20, 23, 24
Efficacy in Classroom Management Items 3, 5, 8, 13, 15, 16, 19, 21

Summary

Burnout (Maslach, 2003 p. 176)

I used to care,

But I don't care much anymore,

I used to care,

That children had to sit still and be quiet,

And read pages 9 to 17,

And answer the odd numbered questions at the end of the chapter;

But I don't care much anymore.

I used to care,

That finishing the assignment is more important than learning the skill.

And getting the right answer is more important than understanding,

And apologizing is more important than being penitent;

But I don't care much anymore.

I used to wake up in the night,

And think about ways to teach children

To set goals and work toward them,

To make decisions and live with the results,

To work together.

But there were those who felt threatened,

And those who felt frightened,

Because my classroom was different.

Parents did not understand.

They listened to the evil insinuations and confidential criticisms.

Their protests overwhelmed my sand-based supports.

I used to care,

But I don't care much anymore.

Now I say,

Sit down,

Be quiet,

Read pages 9 to 17,

No exciting ideas disturb my sleep,

I haven't had a complaint in over a year.

Nobody seems to care,

That I don't care much anymore.

As depicted in the poem, "Burnout by Maslach," the burned-out teacher was at one time a caring, enthusiastic teacher. Over time the teacher became cynical and uncaring towards students and their learning. As a beginning educator, this teacher would wake up in the night excited about helping students understand the content and the importance of learning; but once burned out, the classroom changed to one of little enthusiasm and children involved in busy work throughout the day. The depiction is a sad picture of the effects of teacher burnout. In the state of Georgia, professional development requirements, increasing accountability measures, the Georgia Teacher Keys evaluation system, challenging student behavior, lack of administrative support, and the Response to Intervention process often leave teachers feeling overwhelmed and stressed (Owens, 2015). Gavish and Friedman (2010) described teacher burnout as a slow

progression that develops over time due to prolonged and on-going stress directly related to the daily challenges of being a classroom teacher.

The feelings of self-efficacy that one holds about themselves and their effectiveness in the work environment significantly impacts their outlook and effectiveness in their jobs. With most teachers beginning a career in education with enthusiasm and excitement about making a difference in the life of a child, it is difficult to understand how quickly each can become burned out. When stress becomes chronic and overwhelming, it will negatively affect the outlook and performance of the teacher, which in turn influences student academic achievement and the overall school climate of the building (Akbaba, 2014; Bianchi et al., 2014).

The theoretical frameworks of this study were burnout theory and social cognitive theory. Burnout theory identifies three different components: emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA). Bandura's social cognitive theory explains learning through observation and experiences. Self-efficacy, how one feels about their abilities to be successful, evolved out of social cognitive theory.

Having an effective teacher has been identified as being a crucial element for high student achievement (Hanushek, 1986; Harris & Sass, 2011). With teacher effectiveness being critical to achievement and teachers leaving the field in high numbers reporting being burned out, it is imperative that more studies are needed on teacher burnout, its causes, effects, and treatment. In addressing teacher burnout, the literature clearly shows that it is crucial to assess teacher working conditions and overall classroom environments through a climate/work survey in addition to offering teachers professional development in coping techniques, including time management and how to handle stress (Cherniss, 1995). By supporting teachers through improving their coping skills through professional development and mentoring, it may help them

to combat teacher burnout and keep a positive outlook which will allow them to remain in the field of education. The teachers who remain and learn to handle the stressors and challenges of being a teacher effectively will have the opportunity for continued growth as an educator and to make a difference in the lives of children.

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between teacher burnout and the self-efficacy of teachers working in elementary Title I and Title I Focus schools. Chapter two presented the conceptual framework of the study, a review of the literature, and a summary of the chapter. Chapter three will present the research questions, a description of the participants, setting, instruments, methodology, and discussion of the data analysis that will be used in the study.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

This study seeks to determine if there is a significant statistical relationship between teacher burnout and self-efficacy for elementary teachers working in Title I and Title I Focus schools. This quantitative correlational research design will be conducted using a convenience sample of certified elementary teachers within a large urban South Georgia school district. Participants will complete the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) to determine if there is a statistically significant relationship between teacher burnout and self-efficacy for elementary teachers working in Title I and Title I Focus schools. This chapter presents research questions, a description of the participants and setting, along with a description of the instruments, methodology, and data analysis that will be used in this study.

Design

The study design was a quantitative correlational design that examined the relationship between teacher burnout and self-efficacy for teachers working in public elementary Title I schools in Georgia. The schools included Title I schools and designated Title I Focus schools. Creswell (2009) found that a correlational design was best suited for this type of study because it determines the statistical relationships between two or more variables or it uses those relationships to make predictions. Variables in this study were not be manipulated as would be appropriate in an experimental design. Instead, the study was based on the results of self-reported surveys by participants (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). Likert-type scale ratios were used in the surveys to obtain data (Creswell, 2013).

The two survey instruments that were used in the study were the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001). The quantitative value of teacher burnout was determined by using the Maslach Teacher Burnout Inventory (MBI), and the quantitative value of teacher self-efficacy was identified by using the Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES). The independent variables in the study were the teacher's sense of self-efficacy, teaching in elementary Title I schools, and teaching in elementary Title I Focus schools. The dependent variable in the study was teacher burnout as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). The researcher gained permission to use the instrument for this study by purchasing rights to use from Mind Garden (See Appendix C). The study measured the relationship between the independent variables of teachers' sense of self-efficacy, teaching in elementary Title I schools, and teaching in elementary Title I Focus schools, and the dependent variable of teacher burnout.

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between teacher burnout on the dependent variable dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment, and the independent variables of self-efficacy, teaching in an elementary Title I school, and teaching in an elementary Title I Focus school (Maslach, 1981; Maslac & Jackson, 1981). Maslach and Leiter (2008) defined emotional exhaustion as a burnout component found in individuals who were feeling tired, overstretched, and emotionally drained. Depersonalization has been associated with individuals who have withdrawn socially from others around them and have a negative view of the world (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). The third domain of burnout, personal accomplishment, is defined as the sense of success one has in working with others (Wu et al., 2013). This study also examined which factors (i.e., self-efficacy, teaching in

an elementary Title I school or teaching in a Title I Focus school) predict burnout on the three dimensions of burnout: (a) emotional exhaustion (EE), (b) depersonalization (DP), and (c) personal accomplishment (PA) (Maslash, 1981; Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Pearson product-moment correlation was used to create a correlational matrix to determine if there was a significant relationship between teacher burnout on the dimensions of emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA) and self-efficacy, teachers working in an elementary Title I school, and teachers working in a Title I Focus school. Multiple regression analyses were used to determine which factors (i.e., self-efficacy, teaching in an elementary Title I school or teaching in an elementary Title I Focus school) predicts burnout on the dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment among elementary school teachers.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a statistically significant relationship between elementary Title I school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)?

RQ2: Is there a statistically significant relationship between elementary Title I Focus school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)?

RQ3: Which factors (i.e., self-efficacy, teaching in a Title I school or a Title I Focus school) predict each of the three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) among elementary school teachers as measured

by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)?

Hypotheses

The null hypotheses for this study are:

$H_0$1: There is no statistically significant relationship between elementary Title I school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., personal accomplishment, depersonalization, and emotional exhaustion) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

$H_0$2: There is no statistically significant relationship between elementary Title I school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., personal accomplishment, depersonalization, and emotional exhaustion) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

$H_0$3: Self-efficacy, working in a Title I school, or Title I Focus school will not predict burnout in each of the three dimensions of burnout (i.e., personal accomplishment, depersonalization, and emotional exhaustion) in elementary teachers as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

Participants and Setting

The participants for the study were drawn from a convenience sample of teachers who taught in elementary Title I and Title I Focus schools in a large urban Georgia public school district in the 2017-2018 school year. The participants were a convenience sample of 87 teachers who taught in two Title I schools and two Title I Focus schools.

A convenience sample is a study of subjects taken from a group that is conveniently accessible to a researcher (Howell, 2011). The groups in this study will include participants who taught in Georgia Title I and participants who taught in Title I Focus public elementary schools.

For this study, the number of participants sampled was 87 teachers, which according to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) exceeded the required minimum of 66 participants for a medium effect size with the statistical power of .7 at the .05 alpha level.

The sample consisted of 13 males and 74 females from elementary Title I schools and Title I Focus schools. The sample consisted of 43 teachers with an Undergraduate Degree and 44 teachers with a Graduate Degree from elementary Title I schools and Title I Focus schools. The participants in the study included the following ethnicity groups: Caucasian, Hispanic, African-American, and other. The sample consisted of 24 Caucasians, three Hispanics, 56 African-Americans, and four other ethnicities from elementary Title I schools and Title I Focus schools.

The sample consisted of 87 teachers. There were of 18 teachers with 0-3 years of experience, 33 teachers with 4-8 years of experience, 21 teachers with 9-12 years of experience, and 15 teachers with 13 or more years of experience who taught in elementary Title I schools and Title I Focus schools. The number of teachers in the sample was 87. The sample consisted of 15 teachers from the age of 22-25 years old, 23 teachers from the age of 26-30 years old, 27 teachers in the age range of 31-40 years old, and 22 teachers in the age range of 41 years or higher who taught in elementary Title I schools and Title I Focus schools.

Instrumentation

There were two instruments used in the study. They were the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), developed by Maslash and Jackson (1981) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), developed by Tschannen-Moran, & Woolfolk-Hoy (2001). The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teacher's Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) are frequently used instruments employed in educational studies (Brown, 2012; Byrne, 1993; Chang, 2009).

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) was developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) to gauge the burnout levels of employees. It was initially created as an assessment of burnout indicators in healthcare settings in 1981 (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The Educators Survey for the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) was created 10 years later due to the need for an inventory to assess the burnout levels of educators (Maslach et al., 1996). Minor modifications were made to the original instrument to adjust to the constructs of a school setting (Maslach et al., 1996). Several studies were then conducted in the education field, including one in California with over 400 teachers that supported the validity of the revised instrument (Maslach et al., 1996).

The purpose of the instrument is to be a reliable and valid instrument which can be used to assess the burnout levels of individuals. It has been used in numerous studies to measure teacher burnout (Folk, 2015; Maslach et al., 1996). It is comprised of 22 items that form three subscales of nine items for the emotional exhaustion subscale, five items for the depersonalization subscale, and eight items for the personal accomplishment subscale. Each item is rated on the frequency and intensity of feelings which produces six dimensions. The range of the frequency scale is from 1 - *not often* to 6 - *every day*. The participant rates 0 if it is not applicable.

The MBI has been tested for reliability ($\alpha = .91$) demonstrating average reliability including emotional exhaustion (EE) ($\alpha = .88$, $SD = 0.05$), depersonalization (DP) ($\alpha = .71$, $SD = 0.09$) and personal accomplishment (PA) ($\alpha = .78$, $SD = 0.08$) (Aguayo, Vargas, de la Fuente, & Lozano, 2011). The validity and reliability of the three-subscale structure of the MBI reported in the *MBI Manual* (Maslach et al., 1996) are 115 recent factor analysis studies (Schaufeli, Bakker, Hoogduin, Schaap, & Kladler, 2001). Cronbach alpha estimates of .90 (emotional exhaustion),

.76 (depersonalization), and .76 (personal accomplishment) were reported by Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) for the ratings for the subscales.

Participants respond to items on the MBI scale using the following seven-point Likert-type scale: 0 = never, 1 = a few times a year or less, 2 = once a month or less, 3 = a few times a month, 4 = once a week, 5 = a few times a week, and 6 = every day. The scores can range from 0-54 on the emotional exhaustion subscale, 0-30 on the depersonalization subscale, and 0-48 on the personal accomplishment subscale. Levels of emotional exhaustion were categorized within ranges of 0-16 (low), 17-26 (moderate), and 27 or over (high), whereas levels of depersonalization ranged from 0-6 (low), 7-12 (moderate), and 13 or over (high) (Maslach et al., 1996).

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) can be completed online through Survey Monkey in approximately 10 minutes. The researcher obtained permission (see Appendix B) to access the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) instrumentation manual which provides clear directions on scoring the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). The instrument was rated by the researcher according to the instrumentation manual which the researcher was granted access rights through the purchase of instrument usage (see Appendix B).

Teachers Sense of Self Efficacy Scale (TSES)

The second instrument that was used in the study is a broadly utilized measure of teacher efficacy, the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). The purpose of the instrument is to measure teacher efficacy. It was developed by Megan Tschannen-Moran and Anita Woolfolk-Hoy (2001). See Appendix C for permission to use the instrument. The development of the instrument was brought about because of on-going measurement debates associated with measuring teacher efficacy. It has been used in numerous studies on teacher efficacy (Brown,

2012; Page, Pendergraft, & Wilson, 2014; Putnam, 2012). See Appendix D for a copy of the instrument.

The instrument measures the self-perceptions of teachers on self-efficacy in three areas: student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. It consists of 24 items and is scored on a nine-point Likert-type scale. The scale is rated from 1 (nothing) to 9 (a great deal). Each category provides an understanding of a teacher's personal competency beliefs in their ability to motivate apathetic learners while growing professionally as an educator. The scores for each subscale range from 8 to 72 for the long form and 4 to 36 for the short form.

The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale has high reliability and validity scores that include Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability resulting in (.94), student engagement (.87), efficacy in instructional strategies (.91), and efficacy in classroom management (.90). Additionally, the factor analysis maintained construct validity with the following items: collegial leadership of .56 to .91, teacher professionalism of .66 to .83, and academic press and community engagement of .53 to .83 (DiPaola, Tarter, & Hoy, 2005; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). Anita Woolfolk-Hoy, Ph.D., has made the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale and explicit details on scoring the instrument available for download and use for researchers (see Appendix E).

The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) was originally called the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale and was designed as a measure to assess teacher efficacy (Tschannen Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). Table 1 contains an item by item analysis for the computations of subscale scores on the long form (Tschannen Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). The 24-item scale was rated a 0.94 for reliability (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). The reliability coefficients are as follows: (a) instruction (.91), (b) management (.90), and (c) engagement (.87)

(Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale has a Cronbach Alpha .90 reliability (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001).

The researcher input the survey questions in Survey Monkey to distribute to participants electronically. The instrument took approximately 10 minutes to complete online. The researcher obtained access to the scoring guide for the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale. See Appendix E for instructions on how to administer the instrument and the scoring guidelines.

Procedures

The Researcher obtained IRB approval. See Appendix A for IRB approval. The researcher obtained written permission from the school superintendent to complete the research. The Researcher purchased the rights to use 200 Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) online surveys. See Appendix B for permission to use the instrument. The researcher selected Title I and Title I Focus schools for the survey from the Georgia Department of Education website and gathered email information for all faculty members from the urban school district in Georgia.

An introductory email was sent to all teachers in the selected Title I and Title I Focus schools to explain the reason and significance of the study, along with an invitation and consent letter to take part in the study. See Appendix F for email and participant consent letter. On day one of the open 14-day window, the survey and directions for completion were sent electronically to each participant. On day seven a reminder email was sent to all participants to complete the survey. See Appendix G for a reminder email. On day 15 of the window, the survey was closed, and the researcher sent a thank you email to the participants and extracted the data from the online instrument. See Appendix H for the thank you email. The data was entered into the statistical SPSS® system by the researcher.

Data Analysis

Correlational research analysis is a quantitative method used to determine whether associations exist between two or more variables and to what degree. Pearson product-moment bivariate correlation analyses were used to answer research questions one and two to determine the strength and direction of a linear relationship between the two variables of interest. Standard multiple regression analyses were used to examine research question three to examine self-efficacy and the three dimensions of burnout. All data from surveys including the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) were gathered and input into the SPSS® program by the researcher. For the analyses, a *p*-value of .05 was set to determine the statistical significance. The Pearson correlation coefficient, denoted as *r*, was the effect size reported.

A commonly used measure for correlation in educational studies is the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient, or Pearson *r* (Gall et al., 2007). It measures the strength of a linear association between two variables, is used when both variables are expressed as data measured at the interval or ratio level and have a small standard of error (Gall et al., 2007). In this study, the correlation analyses between the teachers' three dimensions of burnout score and the teachers' efficacy score for Title 1 and Title 1 Focus schools, both all of which are expressed as interval scores, will be determined using the Pearson *r*. Cohen's (1988) conventions were used to interpret effect sizes, which were .10 to. 29 = a small relationship; .30 to .49 = a medium relationship; and .50 to 1.0 = large relationship. After data collection has been completed, the correlation coefficient will be determined through statistical analyses. The correlation coefficient is a measure that determines if a relationship exists between two variables, the strength of the relationship, and the direction of the relationship.

Prior to conducting the analyses, the assumption of normality (e.g., using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov), no extreme outliers (e.g., using boxplot), linearity (e.g., using a scatterplot), and homoscedasticity (e.g., using a scatterplot) were tested to ensure that there were no major assumption violations. No gross assumption violations were found. Gay (2000) found that a high correlation coefficient resulted in a strong relationship between variables.

To examine research question three, multiple regression analyses were used to determine whether perceptions of teachers' self-efficacy, working in a Title I school, or working in a Title I Focus school to explain any variability or predictability of the three dimensions of teacher burnout. Multiple regression analysis is widely used in statistical procedures in educational research to identify predictive relationships between variables and to further analyze in correlational studies (Gall et al., 2007; Howell, 2008). It seeks to describe the variability of the dependent variable resulting from the independent variables being studied (Gall et al., 2007; Howell, 2008). Further, the researcher will not be manipulating the variables, which makes the multiple regressions appropriate for the study.

Standard multiple regression analyses were conducted to evaluate the null hypotheses and determine whether a predictive relationship exists for the scores on the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), the teachers' type of school, and the subscale scores on the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Gall et al., 2007). All data were entered using the SPSS® program, and scores were compiled by the researcher. The significance level of $p < .05$ was used to determine whether to reject the null hypothesis.

Multiple regression analyses required several assumptions to be tested prior to beginning analyzation of data that include dependent and independent variables are quantitative. There are six assumptions for a hierarchical multiple regression that will be conducted: (1) Independence

of Observations, (2) Linearity, (3) Homoscedasticity, (4) Multicollinearity, (5) No Significant Extreme Outliers and (6) Normality. Independence of observations (i.e., independence of residuals) was assessed using the Durbin-Watson statistic. Scatter plots and partial regression plots were used to identify the presence of linear relationships. Another test was for homoscedasticity was examined using a single scatterplot of the studentized residuals against the unstandardized predicted values. Multicollinearity was also tested using correlation coefficients and Tolerance values. Casewise diagnostics, studentized deleted residuals, PP plots, and Cook's Distance were utilized to check for significant outliers and normality. All data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS®) to answer the research questions and test the null hypotheses for this study.

Chapter Three presented the research questions, a description of the participants and setting, instruments, and methodology. It concluded with the analysis of the data from the study. Chapter Four will present the research questions, hypotheses, descriptive statistics, and results of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

Chapter Four presents the data results of the study investigating the relationship between teacher burnout on the dependent variables of elementary teachers working in an urban Georgia school district on the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) dimensions of emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA), and the independent variables of self-efficacy, teachers working in Title I schools, and teachers working in Title I Focus schools. Eighty-seven elementary teachers teaching in a Title I or Title I Focus school completed two surveys, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). This chapter reviews the research questions, hypotheses, descriptive statistics, and results of the study.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a statistically significant relationship between elementary Title I school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)?

RQ2: Is there a statistically significant relationship between elementary Title I Focus school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)?

RQ3: Which factors (i.e., self-efficacy, teaching in a Title I school or a Title I Focus school) predict each of the three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) among elementary school teachers as measured

by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)?

Null Hypotheses

$H_0$1: There is no statistically significant relationship between elementary Title I school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

$H_0$2: There is no statistically significant relationship between elementary Title I Focus school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

$H_0$3: Self-efficacy, working in a Title I school, or Title I Focus school will not predict burnout in each of the three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) in elementary teachers as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

Descriptive Statistics

The study was conducted within four public elementary Title I schools located in a largely urban school system in Georgia. Two of the four Title I elementary schools were identified by the state of Georgia as Title I Focus schools. The participants of the study were limited to teachers teaching at the designated schools during the school year of 2017-2018.

Eighty-seven (N = 87) elementary teachers teaching in Title I and Title I Focus schools in a large urban Georgia school district completed the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). Of the total participants (N = 87), 44.83% were

teachers teaching in Title I schools (*n* = 39) and 55.17% (*n* = 48) were teachers teaching in Title I Focus schools (see Figure 2).

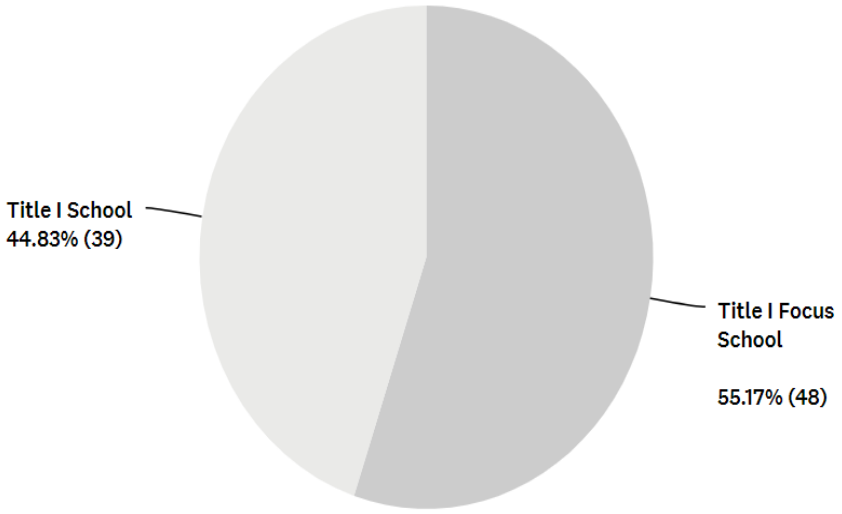

Figure 1: Participant Type of Title I School

The demographics of the sample population are presented in Table 2. The data set for the study was comprised of survey information from 87 teachers from elementary Title I and Title I Focus schools. There were 74 females and 13 males with females comprising of 85.06% of the respondents. The data revealed that 54 (63.53%) of the teachers had between four and nine years of teaching. The average level of education for teachers in the study was a Bachelor's Degree with 49.43% (*n* = 43) reporting. A little over half of the participants 56% (*n* = 48) were age 31 or higher. A majority of the participants identified themselves as African American, 64.37% (*n* = 56).

Table 2

Participant Demographics

Demographic Variables		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	13	14.94
	Female	74	85.06
	Total	87	100
Years of Teaching Experience	0-3 years	18	20.68
	4-8 years	33	37.93
	9-12 years	21	24.13
	13 or more years	15	17.26
	Total	87	100
Education Level	Bachelor's Degree	43	49.43
	Master's Degree	31	35.63
	Education Specialist	11	12.64
	Doctorate	2	2.3
	Total	87	100
Age of Participant	22-25 years of age	15	17.24
	26-30 years of age	23	26.43
	31-40 years of age	27	31.05
	41 years of age or more	22	25.28

	Total	87	100
Race of Participant	Caucasian	24	27.59
	African American	56	64.37
	Hispanic	3	3.45
	Other	4	4.59
	Total	87	100

Results

Null Hypothesis One

Null Hypothesis One stated that there was no statistically significant relationship between elementary Title I school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

Three Pearson product-moment bivariate correlation analyses were conducted to evaluate the null hypotheses related to research question one that asked about the significant relationship between elementary Title I school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment). The three dimensions of burnout were measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), and teachers' self-efficacy was measured using the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). The sample consisted of 39 teachers (See Table 3).

Table 3

Title I Teachers' Descriptive Statistics (N = 39)

	M	*SD*
TSES	124.94	57.22
MBI.EE	32.05	11.15
MBI.DP	16.66	7.34
MBI.PA	35.43	9.59

Prior to conducting the three Pearson product-moment bivariate correlation analyses, assumption testing was conducted. Assumption testing for Pearson product-moment bivariate correlation analysis requires five assumptions be met: (1) there should be no significant outliers, (2) an assumption of bivariate normality, (3) the two variables must be paired and measured on a continuous scale, (4) the continuous variables must be paired, and (5) there must be homoscedasticity and a linear relationship between the continuous variables. The assumption that there were no extreme outliers was evaluated using boxplots. While the data set had outliers (see Figures 3, 4), no extreme outliers were found (see Figures 3, 4, 5, 6).

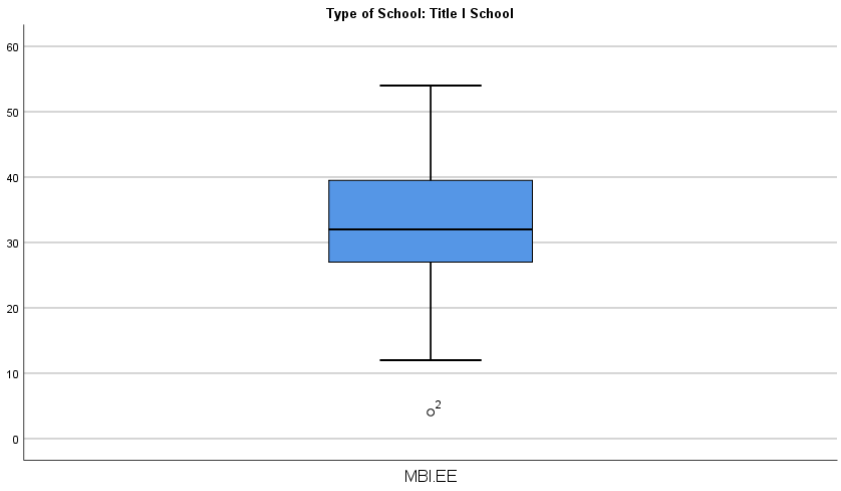

Figure 2. Boxplot Title I School MBI: Emotional Exhaustion (EE)

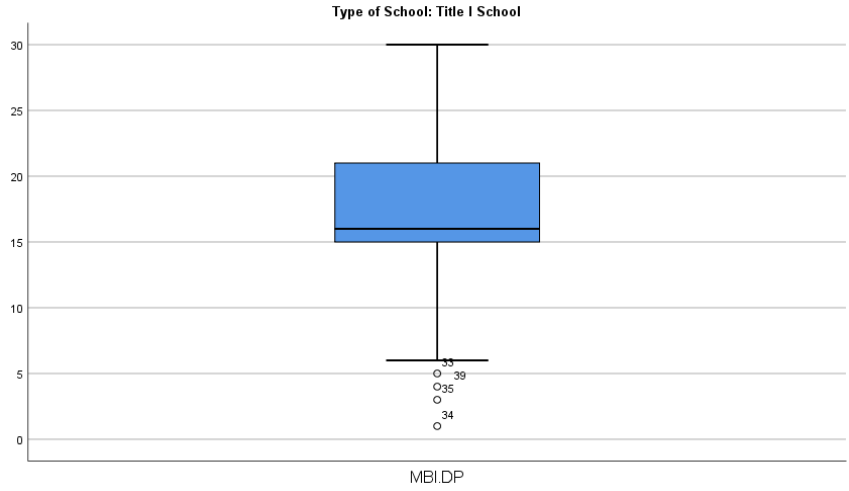

Figure 3. Boxplot Title I School MBI: Depersonalization (DP)

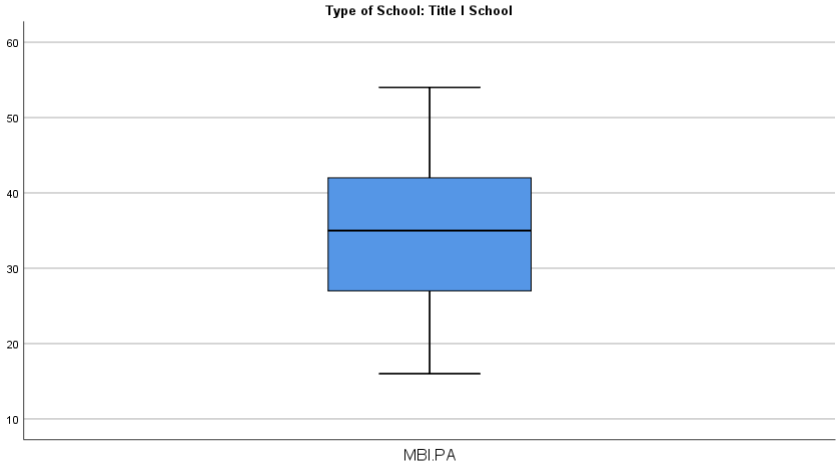

Figure 4. Boxplot MBI: Personal Accomplishment (PA)

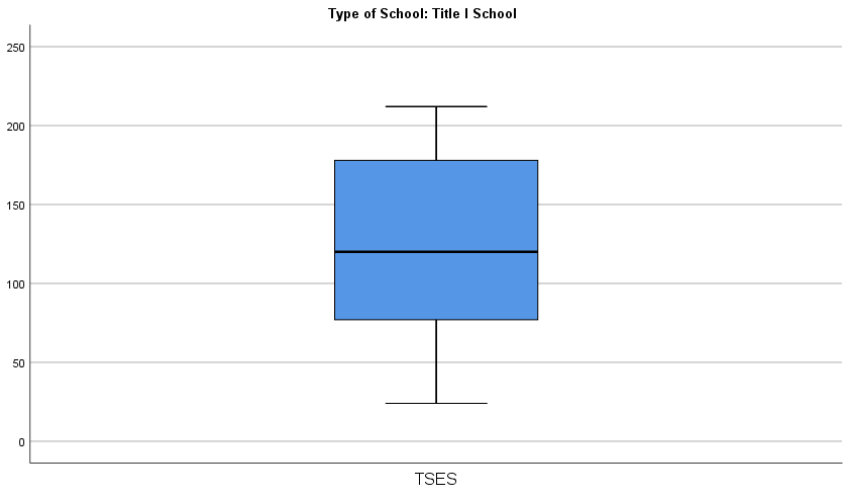

Figure 5. Boxplot Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)

The assumption of normality was evaluated using the Shapiro-Wilk's test. The normality assumption was not violated for the three dimensions of burnout. However, the *p*-value for the Shapiro-Wilk's tests for teacher self-efficacy is .03, indicating the normality assumption was violated (see Table 4).

Table 4

Title I Shapiro-Wilk's Test

Variable	Value	*p*
TSES .	.94	.03
MBI.EE	.98	.62
MBI.DP	.97	.29
MBI.PA	.97	.42

Scatter plots (see Figure 7) were created to assess the assumptions of homoscedasticity and linearity. Visual inspection of the scatter plots indicated a linear relationship between each

pair of variables and homoscedasticity was tenable.

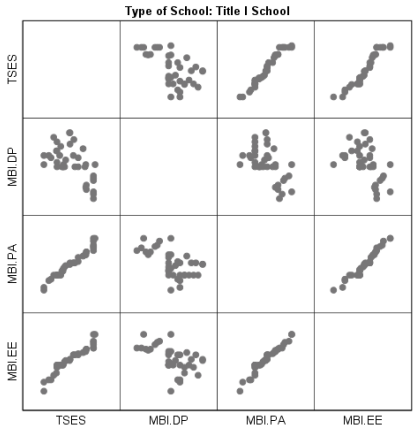

Figure 6. Scatterplots Title I School

No gross violation of assumptions indicated that Pearson product-moment correlation analyses were not appropriate to conduct. Therefore, three Pearson product-moment correlation analyses were conducted. The results of the three Pearson correlation analyses were all statistically significant. A strong, positive correlation association was found of teachers' self-efficacy and emotional exhaustion, $r(38) = .96$, $p < .001$, indicating that as teachers' self-efficacy increased their emotional exhaustion, or burnout, increased ($M = 32.21$, $SD = 11.16$). Conversely, a strong, negative correlation was found between elementary Title I teachers' self-efficacy and depersonalization, $r(38) = -.59$, $p < .001$. As teachers' self-efficacy increased ($M = 124.95$, $SD = 57.22$) their depersonalization, or burnout, decreased ($M = 16.67$, $SD = 7.35$). Moreover, as teachers' self-efficacy increased their personal accomplishment increased ($M = 35.44$, $SD = 9.59$); the relationship between these variables was also strong and positive, $r(38) = .98$, $p < .001$. Null Hypothesis One was rejected due to the significant relationships observed from the correlation analysis.

Null Hypothesis Two

Null Hypothesis Two stated that there was no statistically significant relationship between elementary Title I Focus school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

Another three Pearson product-moment bivariate correlation analyses were conducted to evaluate the null hypotheses related to question two that asked about the significant relationship between elementary Title I Focus school teachers' self-efficacy and three dimensions of burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment). As with research question one, the three dimensions of burnout were measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), and teachers' self-efficacy was measured using the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). The sample consisted of 48 teachers. Table 5 provides the descriptive statistics for the variables.

Table 5

Title I Focus Teachers' Descriptive Statistics (N = 48)

	M	*SD*
TSES	128.50	38.54
MBI.EE	32.25	10.96
MBI.DP	15.35	7.35
MBI.PA	32.43	10.13

Prior to conducting the three Pearson product-moment bivariate correlation analyses, assumption testing was conducted. The assumption that there were no extreme outliers was evaluated using boxplots. While the data set had one outlier in the TSES data (see Figure 11), no extreme outliers were found (see Figures 8, 9, 10, 11).

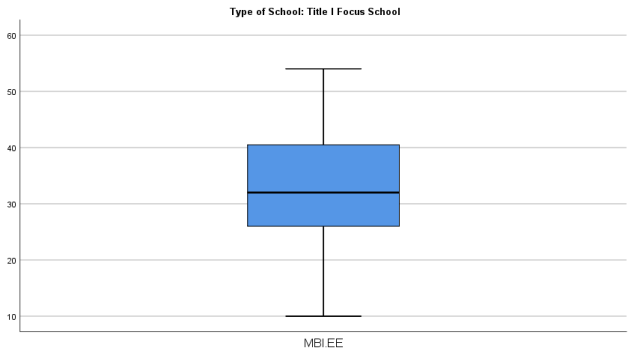

Figure 7. Title I Focus School: MBI Emotional Exhaustion (EE)

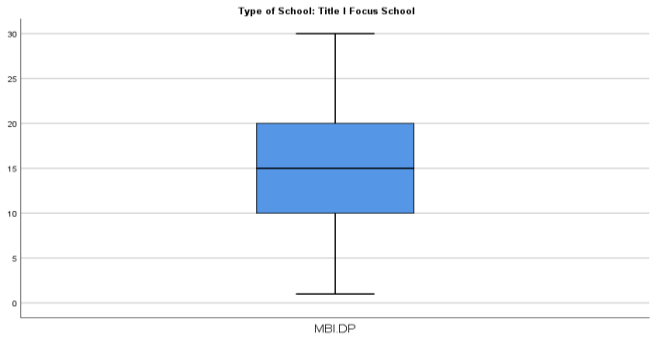

Figure 8. Title I Focus School: MBI Depersonalization (DP)

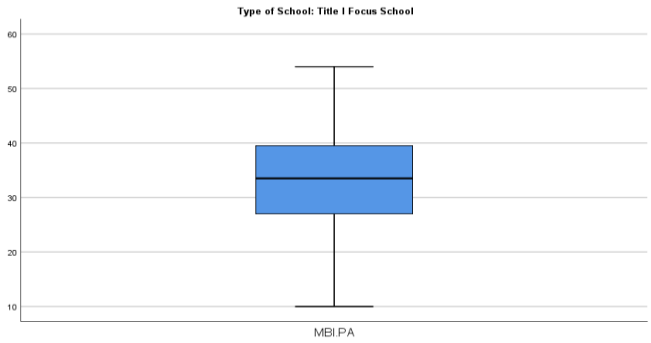

Figure 9. Title I Focus School: MBI Personal Accomplishment (PA)

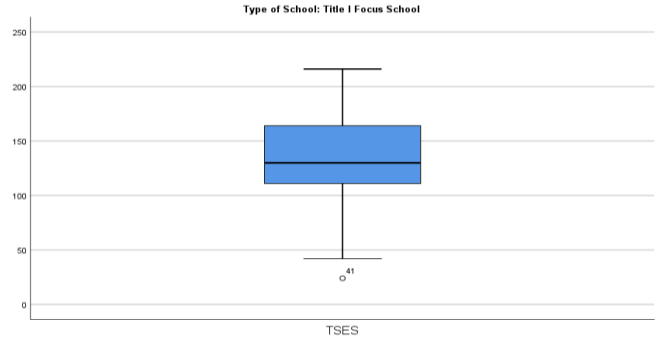

Figure 10. Title I Focus School: Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)

The assumption of normality was evaluated using the Shapiro-Wilk's test. The normality assumption was not violated for any of the four variables (see Table 6).

Table 6

Title I Focus Shapiro-Wilk's Test

Variable	Value	*p*
TSES	.96	.07
MBI.EE	.98	.52
MBI.DP	.98	.45
MBI.PA	.98	.59

Visual inspection of the scatterplots (see Figure 12) indicated that there was a linear relationship between each pair of variables and homoscedasticity was tenable.

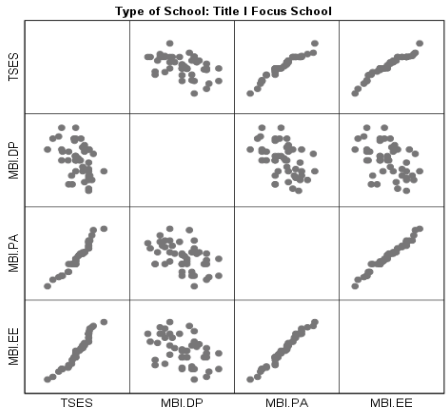

Figure 11. Scatterplots Title I Focus School

Again, with no gross violation of assumptions, it was deemed appropriate to conduct the Pearson product-moment correlation analyses. The results of the three Pearson correlation analyses were all statistically significant and very similar to the finding of research question one. A moderate to strong, negative correlation was found between elementary Title I Focus teachers' self-efficacy and depersonalization, $r(38) = -.441$, $p < .002$. The association of teachers' self-efficacy with emotional exhaustion was strong and positive, $r(38) = .97$, $p < .001$, indicating that as teachers' self-efficacy increased their emotional exhaustion, or burnout, increased. Furthermore, as teachers' self-efficacy increased their depersonalization, or burnout, decreased. Finally, as teachers' self-efficacy increased their personal accomplishment increased; the relationship between these variables was also strong and positive, $r(38) = .96$, $p < .001$. Null Hypothesis Two was rejected due to the significant relationships observed from the correlation analysis.

Null Hypothesis Three

Null Hypothesis Three stated that self-efficacy, working in a Title I school, or Title I Focus school would not predict burnout in elementary teachers as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

Table 7 provides the descriptive statistics, and Table 8 presents the correlational matrix for research question three. The researcher conducted three standard regression analyses to examine the null hypothesis associated with research question three. Results of the standard regression data are provided in Tables 9-11.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics (N = 87)

	M	*SD*
TSES	126.90	47.56
MBI.EE	32.22	10.98
MBI.DP	15.94	7.33
MBI.PA	32.78	9.95

Table 8

Correlational Matrix

		TSES	MBI.DP	MBI.PA	MBI.EE	Type of School
TSES	Pearson Correlation	1	-.516**	.935**	.945**	.037
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.731
	Sum of Squares	194531.264	-15483.46	38072.253	42476.839	76.414
	Cross-products Covariance	2261.991	-180.040	442.701	493.917	.889
MBI.DP	Pearson Correlation	-.516**	1	-.474**	-.465**	-.089
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.410
	Sum of Squares	-15483.460	4630.713	-2978.092	-3225.851	-28.241
	Cross-products Covariance	-180.040	53.845	-34.629	-37.510	-.328
MBI.PA	Pearson Correlation	.935**	-.474**	1	.969**	-.151
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.164
	Sum of Squares	38072.253	-2978.092	8522.851	9114.368	-64.517
	Cross-products Covariance	442.7012	-34.629	99.103	105.981	-.750
MBI.EE	Pearson Correlation	.945**	-.465**	.969**	1	.002
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.985
	Sum of Squares	42476.839	-3225.851	9114.368	10381.402	.966
	Cross-products Covariance	493.917	-37.510	105.981	120.714	.011
Type of School	Pearson Correlation	.037	-.089	-.151	.002	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.731	.410	.164	.985	
	Sum of Squares	76.414	-28.241	-64.517	.966	21.517
	Cross-products Covariance	.889	-.328	-.750	.011	.250

Subscale: Emotional Exhaustion

The first standard multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine which factors (i.e., self-efficacy, teaching in a Title I school or a Title I Focus school) predicted burnout on the dimension of emotional exhaustion. Assumption testing was performed to confirm that all data sets met the criteria requirements for standard multiple regression. Assumption testing was completed prior to the execution of the standard multiple regression analysis.

Assumption Tests

The independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic, was 1.37, which indicates the assumption of independence of observations is tenable. The assumption that a linear relationship exists between the dependent variable and each independent variable was examined using partial regression plots. The assumption of homoscedasticity and that a linear relationship exists between the dependent variable and the independent variables collectively was assessed via a scatterplot of the studentized residuals against the (unstandardized) predicted values. Visual inspection of these plots demonstrated no violations in the assumptions of homoscedasticity or linearity (see Figures 13, 14, 15, 16).

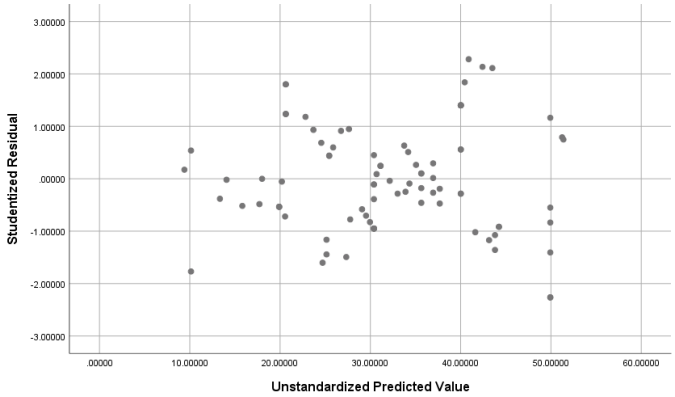

*Figure 12:*Scatterplot of Studentized Residual by Unstandardized Predicted Value on Emotional Exhaustion (EE)

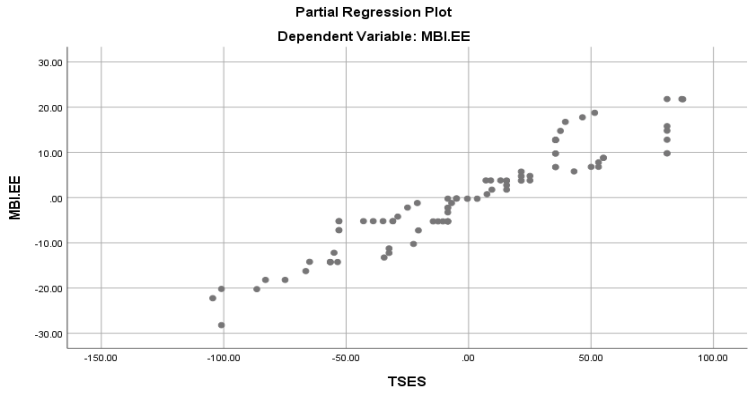

Figure 13: Scatterplot of Studentized Residual by TSES on Emotional Exhaustion (EE)

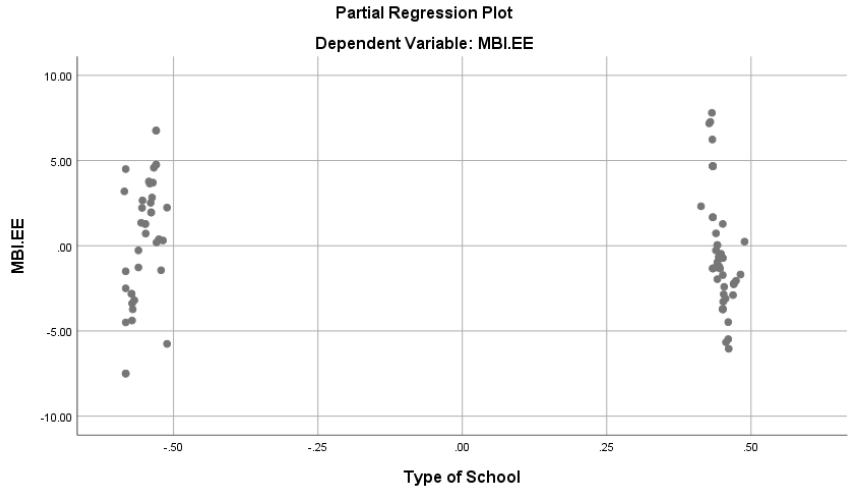

Figure 14. Partial Regression Plot MBI Emotional Exhaustion

The correlation between the independent variables of type of school and teacher self-efficacy was not significant (p = .36) demonstrating that the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated. The Tolerance values in this data set were greater than 0.1 (the lowest 0.999) further indicating that the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated. Examination of casewise diagnostics indicated no extreme outliers; examination of studentized deleted residuals, Cook's D, and leverage values supported that the data did not contain any outliers. Finally,

examination of a histogram with a superimposed normal curve (see Figure 16) and a *P-P* Plot (see Figure 17) demonstrated no gross violations of the assumption of normality. Given the results of the assumption testing, conducting a standard multiple regression was deemed appropriate.

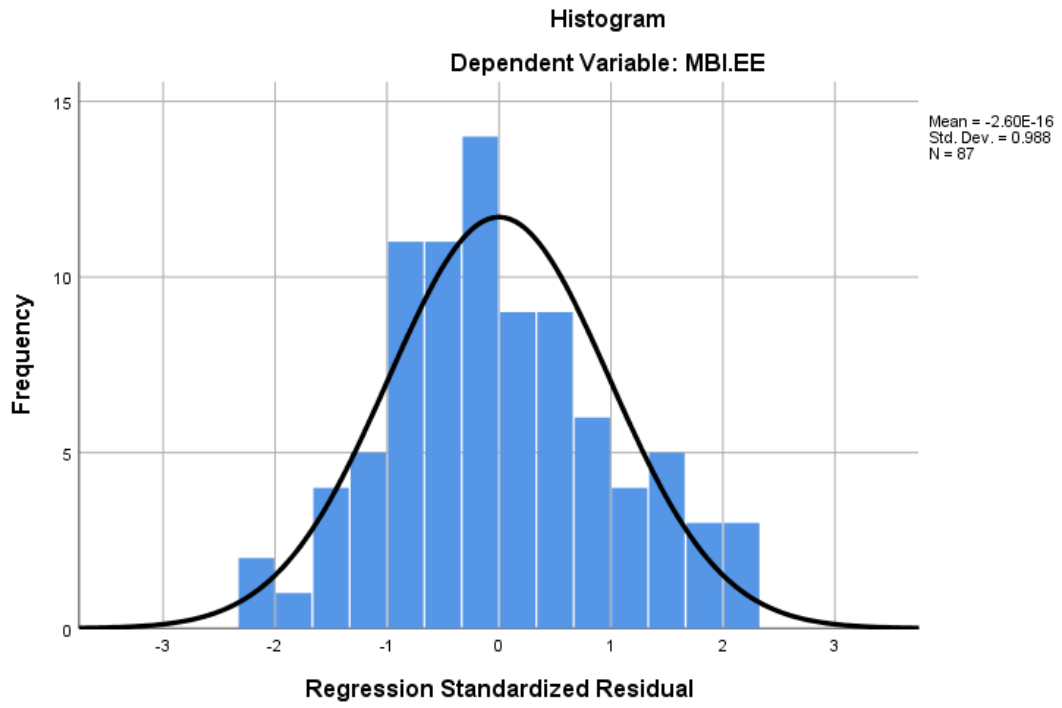

Figure 15: Histogram of Regression of Standardized Residual MBI Emotional Exhaustion

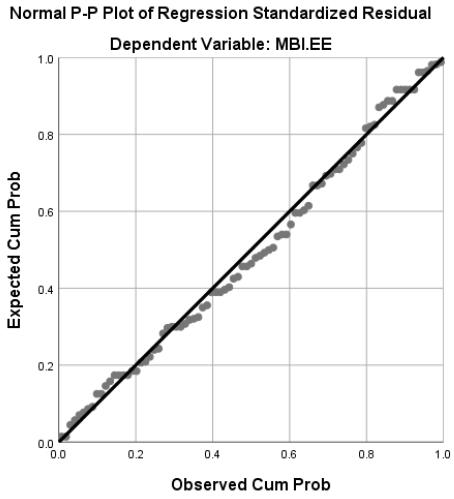

Figure 16. *P*-Plot of Regression Standardized Residual for Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional Exhaustion Results

Results of the first standard multiple regression demonstrated that the linear combination of teachers' self-efficacy and the type of school in which they taught significantly predicted the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout, $R^2 = .895$ (adjusted $R^2 = .892$), $F(2, 84) = 356.23$, $p > .001$. The type of school and self-efficacy variables explained 89.5% of the variability of the dependent variable, emotional exhaustion. There was significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

Individual contributions of each variable were also examined (see Table 9). In analyzing the beta values that represented the unique contribution of each variable, it was found that self-efficacy made the most significant contribution to the model. This variable was the only individual contributor. As the Beta value is positive, the relationship between emotional exhaustion and self-efficacy is also positive. As self-efficacy increased, emotional exhaustion increased.

Table 9

Regression Model for Emotional Exhaustion

Variable	Zero-Order *r*	Partial *r*	β	B	SE B	T	*p*
Self-Efficacy	.95**	.95**	.94	.21	.008	26.69	>.001
School Type	.002	-.10	-.03	-.73	.78	-.94	.35

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Subscale: Depersonalization

The second standard multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine which factors (i.e., self-efficacy, teaching in a Title I school, or a Title I Focus school) predicted burnout on the dimension of depersonalization. Assumption testing was performed to confirm that all data sets met the criteria requirements for standard multiple regression. Assumption testing was completed prior to the execution of the standard multiple regression analysis.

Assumption Tests

Standard multiple regression analysis requires the following assumptions be met: (1) The independence of residuals, (2) assumption of a linear relationship between the dependent and independent variable, (3) assumption of homoscedasticity, (4) independence of residuals, (5) and assumption of multicollinearity, (6) assumption of normality, and (7) no extreme outliers. The independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic, was 1.47, which indicated the assumption of independence of observations was tenable. The assumption that a linear relationship existed between the dependent variable and each of the independent variables was examined using partial regression plots. The assumption of homoscedasticity and that a linear relationship existed between the dependent variable and the independent variables collectively was assessed via a scatterplot of the studentized residuals against the (unstandardized) predicted values. Visual inspection of these plots demonstrated no violations in the assumptions of homoscedasticity or linearity (see Figures 18, 19, 20).

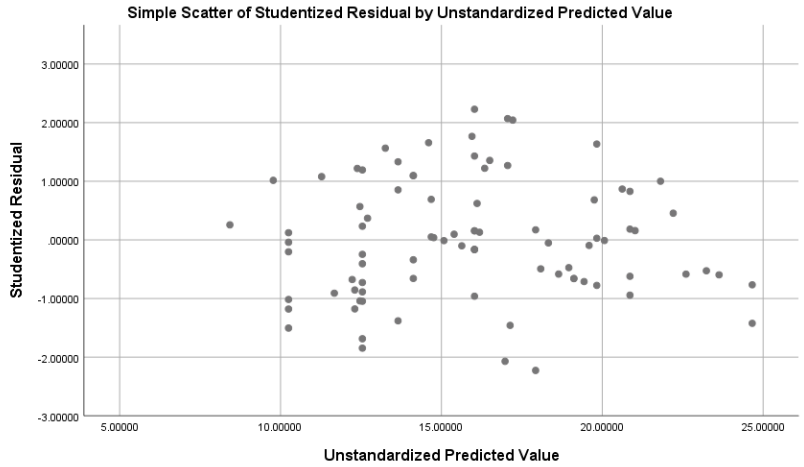

Figure 17. Scatterplot of Studentized Residual by Unstandardized Predicted Value

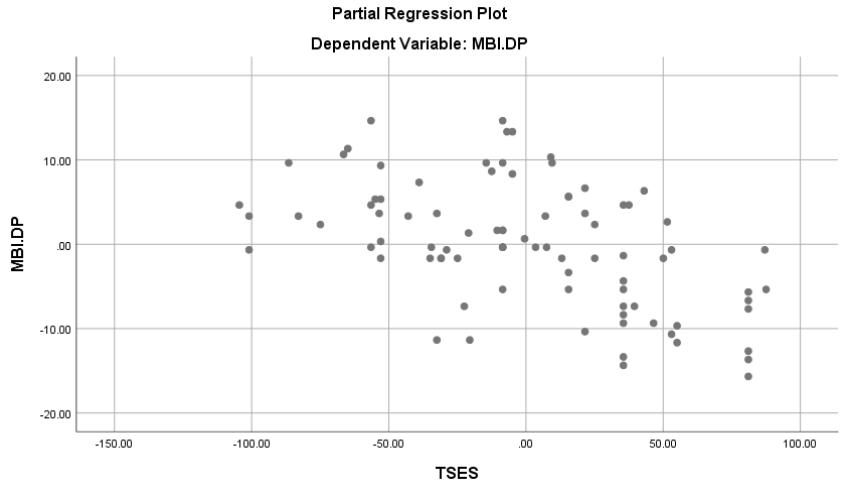

Figure 18. Partial Regression Plot for Depersonalization and TSES

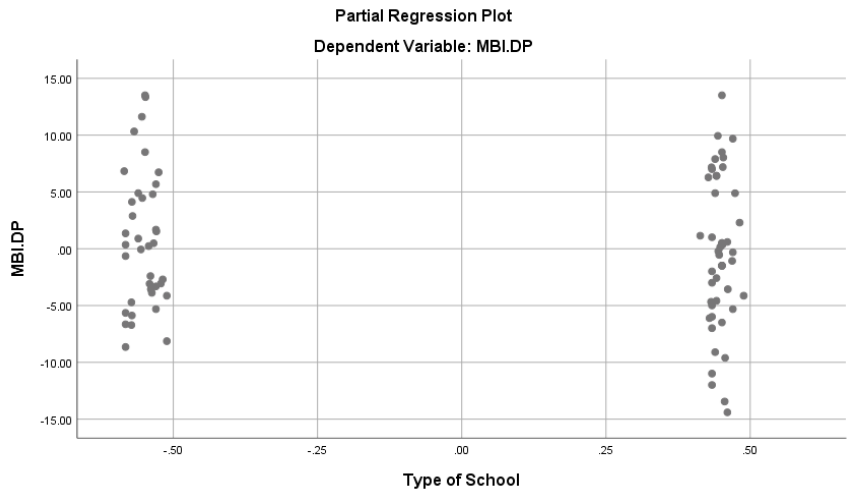

Figure 19. Partial Regression Plot for Depersonalization and Type of School

The correlation between the independent variables of type of school and teacher self-efficacy was not significant (p = .36) demonstrating that the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated. The Tolerance values in the data set were greater than 0.1 (the lowest 0.999) further indicating that the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated. Examination of casewise diagnostics indicated no extreme outliers; examination of studentized deleted residuals, Cook's D, and leverage values supported that the data did not contain any outliers. Finally, examination of a histogram with a superimposed normal curve (see Figure 21) and a *P-P* Plot (see Figure 22). demonstrated no gross violations of the assumption of normality. Given the results of the assumption testing, conducting a standard multiple regression was deemed appropriate.

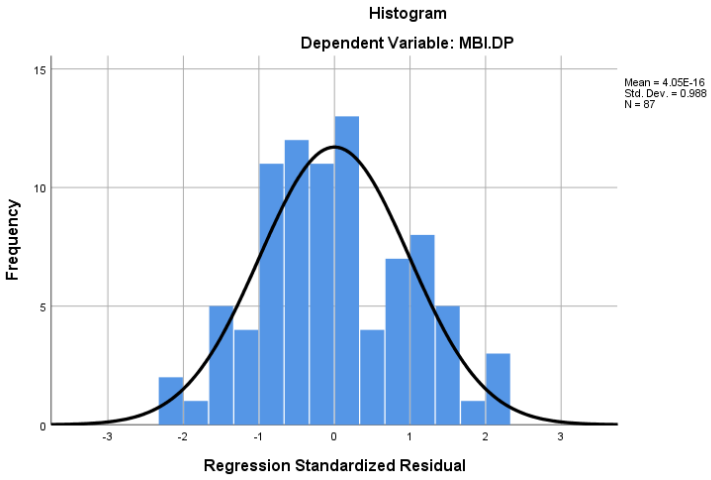

Figure 20. Histogram of Regression of Standardized Residual for Depersonalization

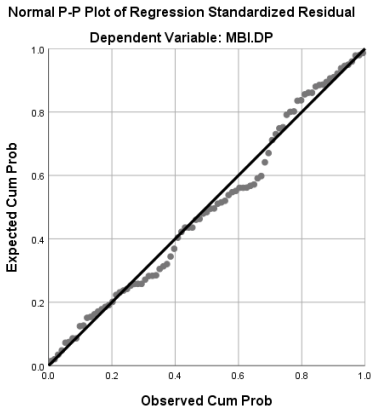

Figure 21. P-Plot of Regression Standardized Residual for Depersonalization

Depersonalization Results

The results of a standard multiple regression demonstrated that the linear combination of teachers' self-efficacy and the type of school in which they taught significantly predicted the depersonalization dimension of burnout, R^2 = .271 (adjusted R^2 = .254), $F(2, 84)$ =15.62, $p >$ .001. There was significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Individual contributions of each variable were also examined (see Table 8). In analyzing the beta values that represented the

unique contribution of each variable, it was found that self-efficacy yielded the most significant contribution to the model. This variable was the only individual contributor. As the Beta value is negative, the relationship between depersonalization and self-efficacy is negative. As the self-efficacy increased, depersonalization decreased.

Table 10

Regression Model for Depersonalization (N = 87)

Variable	Zero-Order *r*	Partial *r*	β	SE B	B	*t*	*p*
Self-Efficacy	-.516	-.515	-.513	2.064	-.079	5.50	>.001
School Type	-.089	-.082**	-.070	.014	-1.03	.754	.453

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Multiple regression models were run on the data set to examine the predictive ability of burnout based on the independent variables of self-efficacy, working in a Title I school, or working in a Title I Focus school. Significant relationships between teacher burnout in the domain of depersonalization and teaching in a Title I school and teaching in a Title I Focus school were found.

Subscale: Personal Accomplishment

The third standard multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine which factors (i.e., self-efficacy, teaching in a Title I school or a Title I Focus school) predicted burnout on the dimension of personal accomplishment. Assumption testing was performed to confirm that all data sets met the criteria requirements for standard multiple regression. Assumption testing was completed prior to the execution of the standard multiple regression analysis.

Assumption Tests

The independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic, was 1.16, which indicated the assumption of independence of observations was tenable. The assumption that a linear relationship existed between the dependent variable and each independent variable was examined using partial regression plots. The assumption of homoscedasticity and that a linear relationship existed between the dependent variable and the independent variables collectively was assessed via a scatterplot of the studentized residuals against the (unstandardized) predicted values. Visual inspection of these plots demonstrated no violations in the assumptions of homoscedasticity or linearity (see Figures 23, 24, 25).

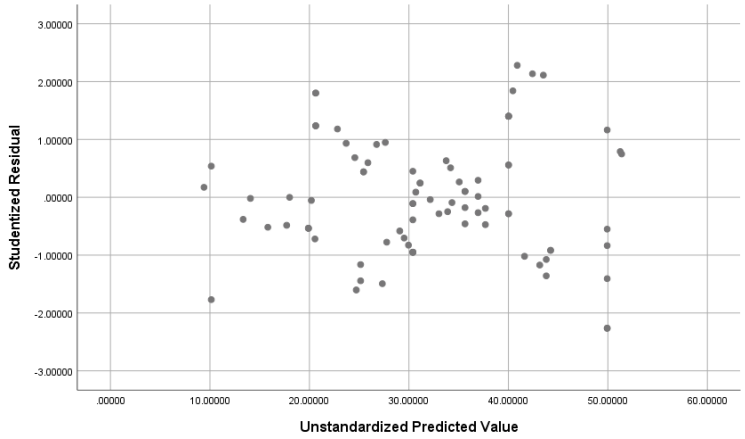

Figure 22. Scatterplot of Studentized Residual by Unstandardized Predicted Value

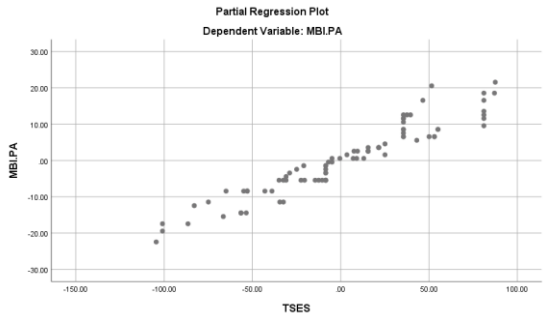

Figure 23. Partial Regression Plot for Personal Accomplishment and TSES

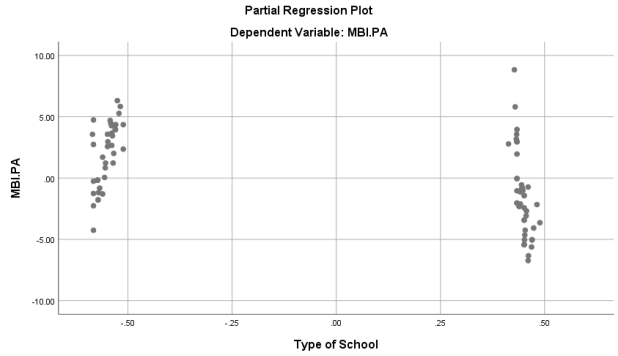

Figure 24. Partial Regression Plot for Personal Accomplishment and Type of School

The correlation between the independent variables of type of school and teacher self-efficacy was not significant (p = .36) demonstrating that the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated. Further, the Tolerance values in this data set were greater than 0.1 (the lowest 0.999) further indicating that the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated. Examination of casewise diagnostics indicated no extreme outliers; examination of studentized deleted residuals, Cook's D, and leverage values supported that the data did not contain any outliers. Finally, examination of a histogram with a superimposed normal curve (see Figure 26) and a *P-P* Plot (see Figure 27) demonstrated no gross violations of the assumption of normality. Given the results of the assumption testing, conducting a standard multiple regression was deemed appropriate.

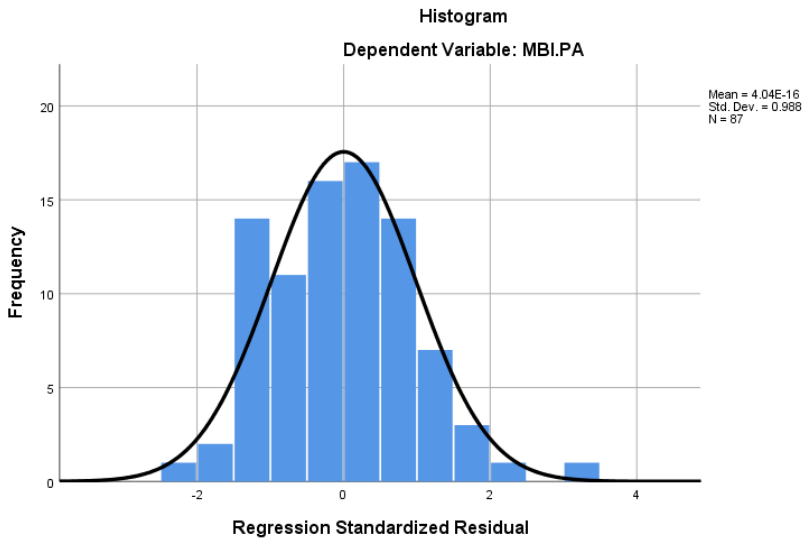

Figure 25. Histogram of Regression of Standardized Residual for Personal Accomplishment

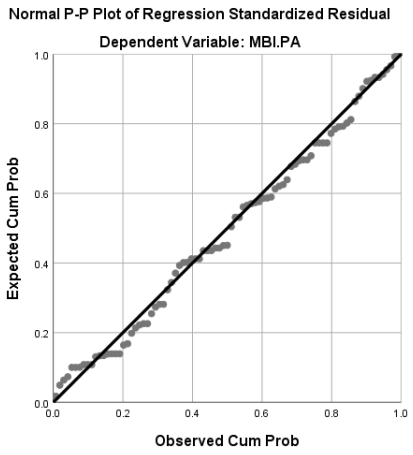

Figure 26. P-Plot of Regression Standardized Residual for Personal Accomplishment

Personal Accomplishment Results

Results of a standard multiple regression demonstrated that the linear combination of teachers' self-efficacy and the type of school in which they taught significantly predicted the personal accomplishment dimension of burnout, R^2 = .909 (adjusted R^2 = .907), $F(2, 84)$ = 418293, p > .001. The type of school and self-efficacy variables explained 90.9% of the variability of the dependent variable, personal accomplishment.

Individual contributions of each variable were also examined (see Table 9). In analyzing the beta values that represented the unique contribution of each variable, it was found that self-efficacy made the most significant contribution to the model. As the Beta value was found to be positive, additionally the relationship between personal accomplishment and self-efficacy was positive. As self-efficacy increased, personal accomplishment increased. School type also made an individual contribution, with teachers in Title I schools reporting higher personal accomplishment levels than teachers in Title I Focus schools. Null hypothesis two was rejected due to the significant relationships observed from the correlation analysis.

Table 11

Contributions of Independent Variables for Personal Accomplishment (N = 87)

Variable	Zero-Order *r*	Partial *r*	β	B	SE B	*t*	*p*
Self-Efficacy	.935**	.95**	.942	.197	.007	28.560	>.001
School Type	-.151	-.524	-.186	-3.69	.656	-5.635	>.001

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Chapter Four presented the data results of the study. Eighty-seven elementary teachers completed two surveys, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). This chapter reviewed the research questions, hypotheses, descriptive statistics, and results of the study. Chapter five will present the results, implications, limitations, recommendations for future research, and a summation of the results of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

This chapter provides the concluding chapter of the study on the relationship between teacher burnout on the dependent variables of elementary teachers working in an urban Georgia school district on the dimensions of emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA), and the independent variables of self-efficacy of teachers working in Title I and Title I Focus schools. It presents the results, implications, and limitations of the study. Additionally, recommendations for further research are presented. It concludes with a summation of the results of the study in relation to other research studies.

Discussion

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the relationship between teacher burnout on the dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment, and self-efficacy, teaching in an elementary Title I school, or Title I Focus school (Maslach, 1981; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The independent variables in the study were teacher self-efficacy, teachers working in a Title I, and teachers working in a Title I Focus school. The dependent variable in this study was teacher burnout.

Hypothesis One

Hypothesis One stated there was not a statistically significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and burnout of teachers who taught in elementary Title I schools. Research has shown that exposure to ongoing stressful situations has been strongly correlated to teacher burnout and job dissatisfaction (Abenavoli et al., 2013; Bellingrath et al., 2009; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). Numerous studies (Caglar, 2011; Hinds et al., 2015; Mee & Haverback, 2014) indicate that the average teacher experiences stress several times throughout the school

day; teachers teaching in a Title I school may experience higher stress levels due to the meet the needs of the students and raise student achievement. This may have an impact on the number of burned out teachers in schools and have a long-lasting, negative impact on student achievement (Owens, 2015).

This study found a significant relationship between teacher burnout and self-efficacy and teaching in a Title I school. A strong, negative correlation was found between elementary Title I teachers' self-efficacy and depersonalization. As teachers' self-efficacy increased their depersonalization, or burnout, decreased. Also, positive correlations were found with self-efficacy and the domains of emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment. The results of the study were in alignment with other studies that found significant relationships between self-efficacy and teacher burnout (Carson et al., 2010; Coulter, & Abney, 2009; Inandi & Buyukozkan, 2013).

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis Two stated there was not a statistically significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and burnout of teachers who taught in elementary Title I Focus schools. Research has shown that dealing with chronic stress at work has been strongly correlated to teacher burnout and job dissatisfaction (Abenavoli et al., 2013; Bellingrath et al., 2009; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). Numerous studies (Caglar, 2011; Hinds et al., 2015; Mee & Haverback, 2014) indicate that teachers experience stress numerous times throughout the school day; teachers teaching in a Title I Focus school may experience higher stress levels due to the meet the high needs of students and pressure to raise student achievement. This may have an impact on the number of burned out teachers in schools and have a long-lasting, negative impact on student achievement (Owens, 2015).

This study found a significant relationship between teacher burnout and self-efficacy and teaching in a Title I Focus school. A strong, negative correlation was found between elementary Title I Focus teachers' self-efficacy and depersonalization. As teachers' self-efficacy increased their depersonalization, or burnout decreased. Also, positive correlations were found with self-efficacy and the domains of emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment. The results of the study were in alignment with other studies that found significant relationships between self-efficacy and teacher burnout (Carson et al., 2010; Coulter, & Abney, 2009; Inandi & Buyukozkan, 2013).

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis Three stated that self-efficacy, working in a Title I school, or Title I Focus school will not predict burnout in elementary teachers. Teachers face a complicated world of social and emotional issues that require a great deal of skill, expertise, and flexibility on their part to handle (Kegan, 1995). Teacher burnout has been described as a slow progression that develops over time due to on-going stress (Gavish & Friedman, 2010). The findings of this study are in alignment with previous studies on the relationship between teacher burnout and self-efficacy (Abenavoli et al., 2013; Akbaba, 2014; Carson et al., 2010).

Multiple regression analysis was completed to determine if teacher burnout could be predicted based on the variables of self-efficacy, working in a Title I school, or a title I Focus school. The data reflected a strong correlation between self-efficacy and the type of school in which a teacher teaches predicting burnout on the dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. As self-efficacy increased, personal accomplishment increased. School type also made an individual contribution, with teachers in Title I schools reporting higher personal accomplishment levels than teachers in Title I Focus

schools. These findings were in alignment with previous research (Carson et al., 2010; Coulter & Abney, 2009; Inandi & Buyukozkan, 2013).

Implications

Correlations were found between teacher burnout, self-efficacy, teaching in Title I schools, and teaching in Title I Focus schools. Research has shown that effective teachers have a significant impact on student achievement (Hanushek & Lindseth, 2009; Loes et al., 2015). With the mass exit of teachers leaving the field since 2000, the results of this study add to the literature on teacher burnout. Of those remaining in education, many report feeling chronically stressed and overwhelmed due to the job responsibilities, working conditions, and expectations (Abenavoli et al., 2013). Understanding teacher burnout and its relation to self-efficacy beliefs is critical to the field of education as it may provide insights and understanding into how to reduce the number of teachers becoming burned-out and leaving the field. It also has major implications for the current practices of school districts in the areas of teacher development, professional learning, and student achievement.

Teacher efficacy has powerful implications for student learning and the development of teacher burnout. The belief system that a teacher holds of their own abilities to work with children to bring about targeted outcomes is teacher efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 2004). Teachers who have high self-efficacy are better equipped to be successful in the classroom and not develop teacher burnout (Armor et al., 1976; Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 2004).

The teacher knows and understands who they are as an educator and is confident in their abilities to produce results. Each teacher with a high self-efficacy can overlook barriers and negatives to see the potential in students and is able to produce positive student academic outcomes. Satisfaction with one's job has been linked to a person's level of self-efficacy

(Bodenhorn et al., 2010; Gunduz, 2012). The study found that teacher burnout was related to teacher efficacy, teaching in a Title I school, and teaching in a Title I Focus school.

Teacher efficacy is developed through four types of experiences: emotional, psychological, vicarious, and mastery (Bandura, 2004). The emotional and psychological state of an individual has a significant influence on the self-efficacy of an individual. Vicarious experiences also play a significant role. It is what is observed and learned from others, while mastery experiences are when an individual learns, practices, and successfully completes a task. Social persuasion also plays a crucial role in the development of self-efficacy and has been defined as outside influences affecting an individual's outlook on their abilities in a positive or negative fashion (Bandura, 2004). These outside influences can take the form of feedback, coaching conversations, and hearing others talk about them in a critical manner (Bandura, 2004). Schools use social persuasion as a form of coaching for teachers, as they are assigned a mentor teacher and are associated with a group of teachers based on grade level or content.

Professional development for teachers can be tailor-made to their differentiated needs based upon an assessment of their capabilities. They could take a survey based on their personal self-efficacy and burnout levels. Based upon their individual needs, professional development opportunities could be developed for each to enhance their professional growth, building of self-efficacy, and ability to deal with teacher burnout. Differentiated professional development, based upon the individual needs of teachers will allow school districts to combat the effects of teacher burnout and ultimately impact the teacher shortage that exists. Through building teacher competence, self-efficacy, and improving the culture that exists in schools, teacher effectiveness will grow in addition to morale. School leadership teams and teacher mentors can establish processes and protocols to reward teachers for professional growth and benchmark goals met.

By giving teachers the tools, supports, and school culture needed to be successful, teacher self-efficacy will grow along with student achievement. By growing teacher competence and self-efficacy, the educational system may be able to keep teachers from leaving the field and lessen the teacher shortage.

Limitations

Limitations were present in the study that must be considered when analyzing and interpreting the results. One of the threats to the external validity of the study was the use of convenience sampling. The sample used in the study was obtained from a limited population, which was chosen out of convenience (Gall et al., 2007). It was voluntary and limited to four schools within one school district in the state of Georgia. While other schools outside of Georgia are under the mandates of No Child Left Behind and Every Student Succeeds, each state may use different criteria and labels for identifying schools to support with state resources. Due to the use of convenience sampling and identified Title I and Title I Focus schools within the state of Georgia, it is not possible to generalize the findings to all elementary teachers teaching in Title I schools (Gall et al., 2007). To decrease the effect of this constraint, results were limited to the available population (Gall et al., 2007).

Another limitation of the study was that participants took part in self-reported surveys which could affect the internal validity of the study. Although the participants were informed that their outcomes would be anonymous, some may have answered inaccurately due to concerns about not representing their school well. As a result, the answers could have been misrepresented or skewed.

Recommendations for Future Research

Additional research is needed to deepen the understanding of teacher burnout and self-efficacy in schools. Given the current teacher shortages districts are facing, it is critical to understand the relationship between teacher burnout and self-efficacy to establish positive school climates and implement professional development aimed at preventing burnout and increasing self-efficacy. A qualitative research design could be used to enhance the understanding of teacher burnout and self-efficacy. Using a qualitative approach would allow teachers to offer their feelings and personal experiences on the domains of burnout and self-efficacy.

Future studies could look to see if there was a difference in the relationship between the relationship of teacher burnout and self-efficacy in Charter, Private, and Public schools. Also, future research could investigate the role of demographic differences of age, race, gender, and level of education play in the development of teacher burnout and self-efficacy. Finally, a study could be conducted with pre and post data using the same measurement tools over time to identify if the levels of burnout and self-efficacy change over time.

The results of this study clearly demonstrated the relationship between self-efficacy and teacher burnout. As school systems struggle across the United States with teachers leaving education due to teacher burnout, it is critical for teachers to have job-embedded professional development opportunities, peer observations of quality teaching, and mentoring to support the growth of teacher efficacy. By growing teacher efficacy, student achievement will increase, and fewer teachers will succumb to teacher burnout.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: IRB Approval

LIBERTY UNIVERSITY.
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

May 16, 2018

Kimberly Hancock
IRB Exemption 3265.051618: A Correlational Study of Teacher Burnout in Elementary Title I Focus and Title I Schools in Georgia

Dear Kimberly Hancock,

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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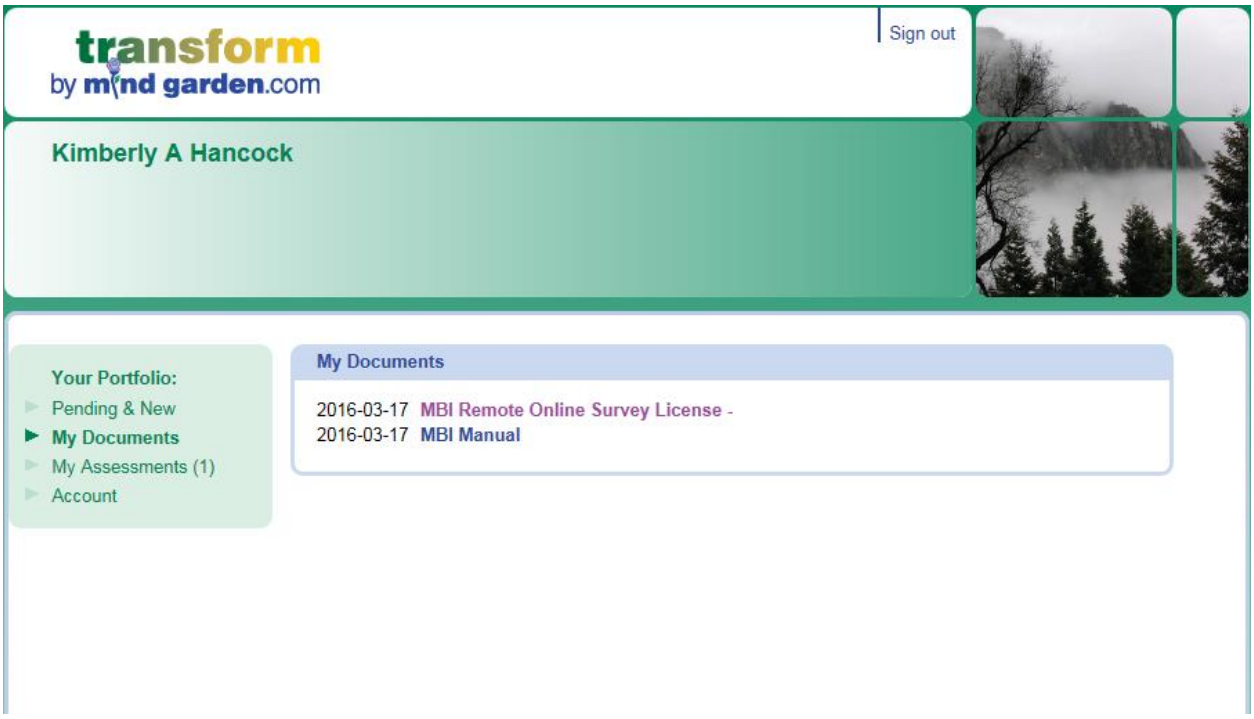
Appendix B: Permission to use the Maslach Burnout Inventory

License purchased for the use of the Maslach Burnout Inventory

Contents of the Maslach Burnout Inventory are copyrighted and not open for public distribution.



Appendix C: Teacher Sense of Efficacy Permission

Anita Woolfolk Hoy, Ph.D. **Professor**

Psychological Studies in Education

Dear Kim Hancock

You have my permission to use the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale in your research.

A copy of the scoring instructions can be found at http://u.osu.edu/hoy.17/research/instruments/

Best wishes in your work,

Anita Woolfolk Hoy, Ph.D. Professor Emeritus

Appendix D: Directions for Administration of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

Directions for Scoring the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale1

Developers: Megan Tschannen-Moran, College of William and Mary

Anita Woolfolk Hoy, the Ohio State University.

Construct Validity

For information the construct validity of the Teachers' Sense of Teacher Efficacy Scale, see: Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. Teaching and Teacher Education, 17, 783-805.

Factor Analysis

As we have used factor analysis to test this instrument, we have consistently found three moderately correlated factors: Efficacy in Student Engagement, Efficacy in Instructional Practices, and Efficacy in Classroom Management. At times, however, the makeup of the scales may vary slightly. With preservice teachers, we recommend that the full scale (either 24-item or 12-item short form) be used because the factor structure often is less distinct for these respondents.

Subscale Scores

To determine the Efficacy in Student Engagement, Efficacy in Instructional Practices, and Efficacy in Classroom Management subscale scores, we compute unweighted means of the items that load on each factor. Generally, these groupings are:

Long Form

Efficacy in Student Engagement: Items 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 12, 14, 22

Efficacy in Instructional Strategies: Items 7, 10, 11, 17, 18, 20, 23, 24

Efficacy in Classroom Management: Items 3, 5, 8, 13, 15, 16, 19, 21

Reliabilities

In the study reported in Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy (2001) above the following reliabilities were

found:

	Long Form			Short Form		
	Mean	SD	alpha	Mean	SD	alpha
TSES	7.1	.94	.94	7.1	.98	.90
Engagement	7.3	1.1	.87	7.2	1.2	.81
Instruction	7.3	1.1	.91	7.3	1.2	.86
Management	6.7	1.1	.90	6.7	1.2	.86

[1] Because this instrument was developed at the Ohio State University, it is sometimes referred to as the *Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale*. We prefer the name, *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale*.

1 Because this instrument was developed at the Ohio State University, it is sometimes referred to as the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale. We prefer the name, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale.

Appendix E: Informed Consent

Dear Teachers:

I am a doctoral candidate at Liberty University, conducting research as part of the requirements for a Doctor of Education degree. The purpose of the research is to determine if there is a difference in the burnout rates of teachers in Georgia Title I Focus schools and Title I schools. Your participation in this research will provide valuable knowledge to support teacher education and a better understanding of teacher burnout.

To participate, you must be a certified teacher working in a Title I school in Georgia. If you are willing to participate, you will be asked to answer questions through an electronic survey. It should approximately 10 minutes for you to complete the survey. Participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal or identifying information will be required.

To participate, please read the consent document at the end of this email. After reading the additional information about my research, please **click on the survey link to** indicate that you have read the information and would like to take part in the survey.

Warm regards,

Kimberly Hancock

Researcher, Liberty University

CONSENT FORM

A CORRELATIONAL STUDY OF TEACHER BURNOUT IN ELEMENTARY TITLE I FOCUS AND TITLE I SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA

Kimberly Hancock

Liberty University

Department of Education

You are invited to take part in a quantitative correlational research study on Teacher Burnout in Title I schools in Georgia. You were selected as a possible participant because you are a teacher in a Title I school. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to take part in this study. Kimberly Hancock, a doctoral candidate in the Department of Education at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is a quantitative correlational study of teacher burnout in Title I Focus and non-Focus schools in the state of Georgia. The research question addressed in this study is: Is there a difference in teacher burnout for teachers who teach in Title I Focus schools and teachers who teach in Title I non-Focus schools in the state of Georgia? This study will build upon the current body of knowledge on teacher burnout.

Procedures:

Participants who agree to be in the study are asked to click on the link provided below to answer demographic questions along with the survey questions. Your participation in this study will be completely anonymous and should take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

Risks and Benefits for Participants in the Study:

There is minimal risk, no more significant than everyday activities, to participants who choose to be part of this study. Participants will complete an online survey. The survey will not ask for any identifying information from participants. There is no known harm or direct benefits to participants for participating in this study. Concluding the study, the data will be kept in the Researcher's office in a locked filing cabinet that only the researcher has a key to. At the end of the required three-year retention period, all data associated with this study will be shredded.

Compensation:

There is no compensation for participation in this study.

Confidentiality:

All records of participants in this study will be kept confidential with no identifying information published as part of this study. All records will be stored securely in a password protected computer database that is only accessible by the researcher for a three-year period. There will be no identifying information including such names, addresses, telephone numbers, email addresses, social security numbers, medical record numbers, birth dates, etc., obtained from participants.

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 or with the researcher, Kimberly Hancock. If you decide to participate, you are free not to answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher conducting this study is Kimberly Hancock. If you have any questions, you are encouraged to contact her at kchancock@liberty.edu. For questions regarding your rights as a participant in this study, you may contact the Institutional Review Board at (434)582-2000.

Statement of Consent:

I have read and understood the above information. I consent to participate in the study by clicking accept on the electronic platform.

Appendix F: Survey Reminder Email

Dear Participants,

This is a reminder email to complete the voluntary online survey on teacher burnout. Completion of the survey should take approximately 10 minutes. It is asked that you take it as soon as possible. There are no known risks associated with participation in this research study, and all submissions are completely anonymous.

Contact Kimberly Hancock (kchancock@liberty.edu) if you have any questions about this research study. For questions or concerns regarding your rights as a participant in this study email Liberty University's Institutional Review Board at irb@liberty.edu.

Thank you for your assistance and participation in this study.

Yours truly,

Kimberly Hancock, Researcher

Liberty University

Appendix G: Thank You Letter

Dear Participants,

Thank you so much for your participation in this study.

The results will be used for the completion of a doctoral dissertation. If you would like to know the results of the study, please email the researcher.

Yours truly,

Kimberly Hancock

Researcher

Liberty University