THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER BURNOUT IN A SCHOOL CURRICULUM: A CASE STUDY OF COMMUNITY JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE SOUTHERN REGION OF BOTSWANA.

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Approval Page

This research has been examined and approved as meeting the required standard of scholarship for Partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Education.

Statement of Originality

The work contained in this project was completed by the researcher at the University of North-West. It is the original work of the researcher except where due reference is made and has neither been nor submitted for the award of any other university degree.

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Student Signature Date

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Abstract

The research was aimed at investigating the effects of teacher burnout in community junior secondary schools in the Southern Region of Botswana.

The research question focused on investigating the effects of teacher burnout on teacher performance, physical wellbeing and social interaction with colleagues and community. To investigate these effects the researcher started by identifying the causes of teacher burnout and then obtained responses from school teachers on how teacher burnout is affecting them. Some possible remedies and preventative/control measures were also suggested.

A sample of 100 teachers and administrators was chosen at random from both rural and urban-based schools in the Southern District of Botswana.

The findings revealed that the majority of teachers (96%) indicated that teacher burnout is caused by poor career opportunities in the teaching field. 92% cited work overload as another cause of teacher burnout. The same proportion blame poor work relations as another cause of teacher burnout. The findings also revealed how teacher burnout can be prevented/controlled. The majority of teachers agreed (92%) that teacher burnout can be prevented/controlled by discussing problems with professional colleagues whist 89% agreed that teacher burnout can be prevented by organizing time and setting priorities. All (100%) of respondents agreed that school administrators can assist teachers prevent/control burnout by providing more paraprofessionals/support staff/clerical assistants and 99% agreed that providing more educational opportunities to learn about students with behavioural disorders and program action.

64% of respondents agreed that if left unattended, teacher burnout can lead to low productivity of the teacher. 75% of respondents agreed that if teacher burnout is left unattended it can lead to poor performance in terms of school results. The majority of teachers agreed that parents have a role to play on the issue of teacher burnout.

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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND AND ORIENTATION TO THE PROBLEM

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This research will review the academic literature on the causes, consequences and remedies of teacher burnout. This literature will be used by the researcher to investigate the extent of teacher burnout in selected secondary schools in Botswana. A survey will be used to conduct an investigation on teacher burnout using a sample of teachers from selected secondary schools in Botswana. Data from the findings will be used to corroborate, or reject, the academic literature.

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Many teachers find the demands of being a professional educator in today's schools difficult and at times stressful. When work stress results in teacher burnout, it can have serious consequences for the health and happiness of teachers, and also the students, professionals, and families they interact with on a daily basis.

Most people realise that some aspects of their work and lifestyle can cause stress. There are several major sources of stress:

- **Survival Stress**: this may occur in cases where your survival or health is threatened, where you are put under pressure, or where you experience some unpleasant or challenging event. Here adrenaline is released in your body and you experience all the symptoms of your body preparing for 'fight or flight'.
- **Internally generated stress**: this can come from anxious worrying about events beyond your control, from a tense, hurried approach to life, or from relationship problems caused by your own behaviour. It can also come from an 'addiction' to and enjoyment of stress.
- **Environmental and Job stress:** here your living or working environment causes the stress. It may come from noise, crowding, pollution, untidiness, dirt or other distractions. Alternatively stress can come from events at work.

- **Fatigue and overwork:** here stress builds up over a long period. This can occur where you try to achieve too much in too little time, or where you are not using effective time management strategies (Bauman, 2002: 46).

Some teachers leave the profession because they cannot cope with the stress inherent in the job. Others burn out but stay on the job, counting the days until weekends and ultimately, their retirement. Another group of teachers who stay in the profession learn coping skills that enable them to face the stresses involved in their work and to grow with them.

It is far better if the roots of teacher burnout are identified and eliminated before the syndrome develops, rather than treating it after it has already occurred. Across the various medical professions, a distinction has been made between three levels of prevention interventions: primary prevention, where the goal is to reduce the incidence of new cases of a disorder, secondary prevention, where the goal is early identification and treatment of symptoms before they turn into a full-blown disorder, and tertiary prevention, where persons who have recently suffered a disorder receive some type of intervention to prevent relapse. Such preventative interventions may either be done at the organizational level, with changes in the school environment, or at the individual level, in which the goal is to strengthen teachers' resources for resisting stress (Bauman, 2002: 48).

There are a number of ways in which stress can be managed at school level. The discussion below points out some of the ways.

Schools, in cooperation with the Ministry of Education and school boards, should develop and conduct stress management seminars for staff through the professional development division and the employee assistance programme. Schools can also conduct personal service to teachers through the professional development programme and the teacher welfare programme which provide assistance in areas such as financial counselling, teacher induction, mid-career and pre-retirement counselling.

Teachers can engage the Ministry of Education in collective bargaining, which can press for earlier and improved retirement provisions and continue efforts to reduce class size and to further define teacher workload. The Ministry of Education can work with the schools boards

(probably through the school board-teacher liaison committees) in order to help initiate the development of wellness programmes for teachers.

The Ministry of Education can give serious consideration to the support and implementation of programmes to assist teachers in improving classroom management and discipline. It can also work to improve the communication between parents and teachers in order to provide a greater understanding of mutual objectives and to develop avenues of supportive activities. Provision of a programme of public relations to help improve the image of teaching and teachers to the general public of this province can also help in teacher stress management. It can also provide to the membership information on the identification of the symptoms of stress, suggestions for remediation, and the availability of support agencies, including professional workshops and employee assistance services.

Based on the above points of discussion, the researcher intends to conduct a survey on teacher burnout and explore its causes, consequences and coping strategies which can be used by teachers, school administrators and relevant stakeholders.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Stress and burnout is an occupational hazard which all members of helping professions are exposed to, including teachers. Hendrickson defines teacher burnout as "physical, emotional, and attitudinal exhaustion" that begins with a feeling of uneasiness and mounts as the joy of teaching begins to gradually slip away. Some teachers leave the profession because they cannot cope with the stress inherent in the job. Others burn out but stay on the job, counting the days until weekends and ultimately, their retirement. Another group of teachers who stay in the profession learn coping skills that enable them to face the stresses involved in their work and to grow with them (Hendrickson, 1979: 221).

The problem of teacher burnout is common in Botswana schools but it has not yet been formally investigated. The researcher, who is also a member of the teaching profession, has personal experience as a teacher. Teachers interviewed by the researcher concur that teacher burnout exists. However different views exist on the definition, causes, consequences and remedies of teacher burnout.

The study intends to investigate the extent of teacher burnout in secondary schools in Botswana, its causes, consequences and remedies. The researcher will begin the study by investigating whether teacher burnout exists at all in Botswana schools. Identifying the prevalence of teacher burnout will enable the researcher to isolate its causes and consequences. Possible solutions can then be elicited from these findings with inputs from teachers and school administrators of the participating schools.

Teacher burnout is a problem of which little information is available in Botswana. It affects the morale, productivity and efficiency of teachers and consequently the overall performance of students.

The study will focus on the following problems:

1.2.1 MAIN PROBLEM

- What kind of challenges are experienced by teachers regarding burnout in South Central Region of Botswana Community Junior Secondary Schools?

1.2.2 SUB-PROBLEMS

- What are the causes of teacher burnout in South Central Region Community Junior Secondary Schools?
- How can these causes of teacher burnout in South Central Region Community Junior Secondary Schools be addressed?

1.2.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

1.2.3.1 Aim

- To identify the kind of challenges experienced by teachers in South Central Region Community Junior Secondary Schools with regard to teacher burnout.

1.2.4 Objectives

- To identify causes of teacher burnout in South Central Region Community Junior Secondary Schools.
- To suggest strategies for addressing teacher burnout in South Central Region Community Junior Secondary Schools.

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study will expose the extent of teacher burnout in secondary school teachers in the Southern Region of Botswana. Establishing causes of teacher burnout will help in the formulation of strategies to prevent or control teacher burnout. Overall, the findings of the study will be of immense significance to teachers, school heads, the Ministry of education and other stakeholders like the community. Other sectors of the economy can also make use of the data as a starting point in investigating staff burnout in their areas. This is because staff burnout is a problem which, if left unattended, may impact negatively on staff morale and productivity in any organisation.

1.4 Preliminary Literature review.

Scholars define teacher burnout as a condition caused by depersonalization, exhaustion and a diminished sense of accomplishment (Schwab 1986: 82). A psychological model of how stress leads to burnout describes it as a syndrome resulting from teachers' inability to protect themselves against threats to their self esteem and well being (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978: 98). In this model, teachers' coping mechanisms are activated to deal with demands. When those coping mechanisms fail to stem the demands, then stress increases and threatens the teachers' mental and physical well-being ultimately leading to teachers quitting or burning out. Because many of the conditions which determine teacher effectiveness lie outside their control and because a high level of continual alertness is required, teaching is a high stress job (Blasé, 1982: 345).

When a potentially threatening event is encountered, a reflexive, cognitive balancing act ensues, weighing the perceived demands of the event against one's perceived ability to deal with them (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984: 68). Events perceived as potential threats trigger the

stress response, a series of physiological and psychological changes that occur when coping capacities are seriously challenged. The most typical trigger to the stress response is the perception that ones' coping resources are inadequate for handling life demands. According to current models of stress, we are constantly taking the measure of the daily demands we experience in life and comparing this to the resources we possess for dealing with them. If our resources appear equal to the demands, we view them as mere challenges. If, however, demands are viewed as exceeding our resources, they become stressors and trigger the stress response. Accordingly, teacher stress may be seen as the perception of an imbalance between demands at school and the resources teachers have for coping with them (Esteve, 2000: 36; Troman and Woods, 2001: 297-98). Symptoms of stress in teachers can include anxiety and frustration, impaired performance, and ruptured interpersonal relationships at work and home (Kyriacou, 2001: 21). Researchers such as Lecompte and Dworkin (1991: 139), Farber, (1998: 70), Troman and Woods (2001: 320) noted that teachers who experience stress over long periods of time may experience what is known as burnout.

Matheny (2000: 105) noted that earlier research into the phenomenon described burnout as a loss of idealism and enthusiasm for work. Freudenberger (1974: 222), a psychiatrist, is largely credited with first using the term. Maslach and Jackson refined the meaning and measurement of the burnout construct in the 1980s (Maslach and Jackson, 1981: 86; Maslach and Schaufeli, 1993: 268) to include three sub-domains: depersonalization, in which one distances oneself from others and views others impersonally; reduced personal accomplishment, in which one devalues one's work with others; and emotional exhaustion, in which one feels emptied of personal emotional resources and becomes highly vulnerable to stressors. In particular, depersonalization may be expressed through poor attitudes towards students and the work environment.

Teachers may be at greater risk for depersonalization because their daily work life often includes large doses of isolation from their professional peers. While teachers do interact with others on a regular basis throughout the workday, the majority of such interactions are with students, and not with other teachers or professional staff members who might better understand the demands teachers face. Factors such as the physical layout of most campuses, with teachers working alone in their classrooms, and scheduling constraints that make finding time to meet with peers virtually impossible, can cause teachers to feel disconnected (Bennett and LeCompte, 1990: 74-77).

This depersonalization may act as a protective mechanism, as evidenced by the descriptions of "worn-out" teachers, whose cynical views towards students and teaching allowed them to continue to remain in the field, even in a diminished capacity (Farber, 1998: 23). While depersonalization may act as some protection for teachers, it also may encourage isolation, strengthening the risk for burnout.

An important finding from early studies was that teachers at risk for burnout came to see their work as futile and inconsistent with the ideals or goals they had set as beginning teachers (Bullough and Baughman, 1997: 101-102). Other early studies cited role conflict and role ambiguity as significantly related to burnout (Dworkin, 1986: 11). Role conflict occurs when a teacher is faced with conflicting expectations of the job. For example, role conflict may arise from discrepancies between ideals of what it means to be a good teacher. Role ambiguity relates more to a sense of confusion about one's goals as a teacher including a sense of uncertainty about the responsibilities related to teaching (Dworkin, 1986: 11).

LeCompte and Dworkin (1991: 48-49) developed a more extensive description of burnout as an extreme type of role-specific alienation with a focus on feelings of meaninglessness, especially as this applies to one's ability to successfully reach students, a finding also supported by Farber (1998: 93). LeCompte and Dworkin (1991: 48-49) identified powerlessness in defining professional roles as being instrumental in creating stress. Additionally, a sense of both physical and mental exhaustion exacerbated by the belief that expectations for teachers are constantly in flux, or in conflict with previously held beliefs, has been cited by numerous researchers as influencing teacher burnout (Bullough and Baughmann, 1997pg 63; Brown and Ralph, 1998: 19; Hinton and Rotheiler, 1998: 44; Esteve, 2000: 257; Troman and Woods, 2001: 111).

Albee (2000: 841), one of the pioneers of prevention research, points out that, "It is accepted public health doctrine that no disease or disorder has ever been treated out of existence" (p. 847). It is far better if the roots of teacher burnout are identified and eliminated before the syndrome develops, rather than treating it after it has already occurred. Across the various medical professions, a distinction has been made between three levels of prevention interventions: (a) Primary prevention, where the goal is to reduce the incidence of new cases of a disorder, (b) secondary prevention, where the goal is early identification and treatment of symptoms before they turn into a full-blown disorder, and (c) tertiary prevention, where persons who have recently suffered a disorder receive some type of intervention to prevent

relapse (Conyne, 1991: 186). Such preventative interventions may either be done at the organizational level, with changes in the school environment, or at the individual level, in which the goal is to strengthen teachers' resources for resisting stress.

Organizational practices that prevent teacher burnout are generally those that allow teachers some control over their daily challenges. At the individual level, self-efficacy and the ability to maintain perspective with regard to daily events have been described as "anxiety-buffers" (Greenberg, 1999: 79). At the institutional level, other factors may help mitigate teacher stress. Chris Kyriacou (2001: 32), who draws from an Education Service Advisory Committee report (1998: 43), *offers the following advice for schools*:

- Consult with teachers on matters, such as curriculum development or instructional planning, which directly impact their classrooms.

- Provide adequate resources and facilities to support teachers in instructional practice.
- Provide clear job descriptions and expectations in an effort to address role ambiguity and conflict.
- Establish and maintain open lines of communication between teachers and administrators to provide administrative support and performance feedback that may act as a buffer against stress.
- Allow for and encourage professional development activities such as mentoring and networking, which may engender a sense of accomplishment and a more fully developed professional identity for teachers.

Efforts at secondary prevention focus primarily on early detection of problems before they emerge as full-blown disorders. Symptoms of teacher stress as contributing to burnout may take many forms (Brown and Ralph, 1998: 96). Studies by several researchers (c.f., Brown and Ralph, 1998: 96-104; Hinton and Rotheiler, 1998: 312-315; Kyriacou, 2001: 22-25; Troman and Woods, 2001: 13), report the following as early symptoms of teacher stress and burnout:

- Feeling like not going to work or actually missing days.
- Having difficulty in concentrating on tasks.
- Feeling overwhelmed by the workload and having a related sense of inadequacy to the tasks given to them.

- Withdrawing from colleagues or engaging in conflictual relationships with co-workers.
- Having a general feeling of irritation regarding school.
- Experiencing insomnia, digestive disorders, headaches, and heart palpitations.
- Incapacitation and an inability to function professionally in severe instances.

Once teacher burnout has occurred, a decision must be made as to whether the teacher can or is willing to continue their work. Troman and Woods (2001: 105) acknowledge that a series of stressful events or a single major event may lead teachers to make what they term 'pivotal decisions.' Although teachers go through many such events over the course of a career, the teachers interviewed by Troman and Woods rarely viewed decisions made in response to high levels of stress as transformative in the positive sense. Personal factors also figure into a teacher's decision to stay in a school, with the current labour market, personal financial and family obligations, and years in the field all being instrumental in the decision making process. In hard economic times, teachers may stay with the relatively stable profession of teaching due to a lack of outside possibilities for a career change. The promise of retirement benefits that increase with added years of service is a draw to teachers who have already accumulated more than a few years of service.

In looking at teachers and stress, Troman and Woods (2001: 105-114) used interviews and observational data collected from teachers teaching at The Gladstone Primary School and from teachers who had left the school in the aftermath of Gladstone being designated as poorly performing during an accreditation inspection. Interviews were analyzed using theme analysis and the constant comparative method. Data gathered suggests that teachers generally fall into three categories when reacting to stress and burnout. Some teachers simply end their careers as professional educators. Others seek relief from stress by "downshifting:" taking a less prestigious or demanding role, redefining their job as a part time instructor, or by having previously held duties assigned to other teachers. Some teachers choose to reframe their sense of identity as educators; for these teachers, this may involve developing outside interests, placing more emphasis on family and friends or relocating to a more favourable school environment.

1.5 Research Methodology and Design

The study is concerned with investigating the extent, causes, consequences and remedies of teacher burnout in secondary schools. A survey design will be used to collect data in order to understand the problem. A survey is an observational or descriptive, non-experimental study in which individuals are systematically examined for the absence or presence (or degree of presence) of characteristics of interest (Bourque and Fielder, 1995: 44-45).

Statistical surveys are used to collect quantitative information in the fields of marketing, political polling, and social science research. A survey may focus on opinions or factual information depending on its purpose, but all surveys involve administering questions to individuals. When the questions are administered by a researcher, the survey is called an interview or a researcher administered survey. When the questions are administered by the respondent, the survey is referred to as a questionnaire or a self-administered survey.

The questions are usually structured and standardized. The structure is intended to reduce bias. For example, questions should be ordered in such a way that a question does not influence the response to subsequent questions. Surveys are standardized to ensure reliability, generalizability, and validity. Every respondent should be presented with the same questions and in the same order as other respondents.

1.6 Advantages and disadvantages of surveys

1.6.1 Advantages of surveys

Surveys are flexible in the sense that a wide range of information can be collected. They can be used to study attitudes, values, beliefs, and past behaviours.

Because they are standardized, they are relatively free from several types of errors.

They are relatively easy to administer.

There is an economy in data collection due to the focus provided by standardized questions.

Only questions of interest to the researcher are asked, recorded, codified, and analyzed. Time and money is not spent on tangential questions.

1.6.2 Disadvantages of surveys

Disadvantages of survey techniques include:

They depend on subjects, motivation, honesty, memory, and ability to respond. Subjects may not be aware of their reasons for any given action. They may have forgotten their reasons. They may not be motivated to give accurate answers, in fact, they may be motivated to give answers that present themselves in a favourable light.

Surveys are not appropriate for studying complex social phenomena. The individual is not the best unit of analysis in these cases. Surveys do not give a full sense of social processes and the analysis seems superficial.

Structured surveys, particularly those with closed ended questions, may have low validity when researching affective variables.

Survey samples are usually self-selected, and therefore non-probability samples from which the characteristics of the population sampled cannot be inferred.

1.6 Methodology

A questionnaire will be developed and pre-tested. The purpose of the questionnaire will be to gather information from school heads and teachers selected from some secondary schools in the Southern District of Botswana. Each questionnaire will gather the respondent's biodata and data from sets of multiple-response and free-response questions.

A questionnaire is one of the tools for collecting data in surveys (Borg and Gall, 1989: 24). A questionnaire is a device, which enables respondents to answer questions. It is important to design a questionnaire that will give you the information you want (Letlogo, 1998: 62-63). Well-designed questionnaires are highly structured to allow the same types of information to be collected from a large number of people in the same way and for data to be analysed quantitatively and systematically. Questionnaires are best used for collecting factual data and

appropriate questionnaire design is essential to ensure that we obtain valid responses to our questions (Wai-ching Leung, 2001: 91).

1.7.1 Objectives in designing questionnaires

According to Leung (2001: 91), there are two main objectives in designing a questionnaire:

- To maximize the proportion of subjects answering our questionnaire – that is, the response rate.
- To obtain accurate relevant information for our survey.

To maximize our response rate, we have to consider carefully how we administer the questionnaire, establish rapport, explain the purpose of the survey, and remind those who have not responded. The length of the questionnaire should be appropriate. In order to obtain accurate relevant information, we have to give some thought to what questions we have ask, how we ask them, the order we ask them in, and the general layout of the questionnaire.

1.7 Population

The targeted population will consist of both rural and urban-based secondary school heads and teachers of both sexes (total of 5705) working in the Southern District of Botswana. The research will be conducted among twenty schools in Botswana. The schools will be drawn from a sample of ten rural secondary schools and ten urban secondary schools in the Southern District of Botswana. Out of each school five teachers and school administrators were randomly selected. Since teacher burnout is assumed to affect the majority of staff in the teaching profession, the researcher will target both male and female teachers with varying work experience in the teaching profession. The researcher also targeted teachers within the age range 20 to 56 years and above. This was in order to cover all teachers in different age groups. The purpose of using stratified sampling is to investigate the effect of teacher burnout in different geographical locations. This will be indicated in Chapter Four, if location has any effect on teacher's perceptions.

1.8 SAMPLING

There are 163 community junior and secondary schools in the Southern District of Botswana. 20 schools will be chosen for the purpose of the study. A stratified sampling method will be used to select ten rural schools and ten urban schools. Random sampling will then be used to select a group of five school heads and teachers from each school making the total sample size of one hundred. Selected school heads and teachers will be given questionnaires to respond to.

Stratified sampling involves dividing the population into subpopulations (strata) and random samples are then taken of each stratum. Random sampling is an unbiased sampling technique in which every member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. Based on probability theory, random sampling is the process of selecting and canvassing a representative group of individuals from a particular population in order to identify the attributes or attitudes of the population as a whole (Fink, 1995: 278).

1.9 DATA COLLECTION

The data collection shall be done through questionnaires. The aim of the questionnaire is to collect information from secondary school teachers about the extent, causes, consequences and remedies of teacher burnout. To overcome the restrictive nature of the questionnaire; respondents will be allowed self-expression through open-ended questions.

1.10 DATA ANALYSIS

Data will be analysed in the form of frequency tables and summary statistics. The use of summary statistics helps the researcher to be able to understand the spread of the sample. With this test, a researcher is able to see the minimum and maximum values of the variables. For example, with age, a researcher can be able to see the age of the youngest and the oldest person in the sample. Summary statistics can also help to detect if there are errors in the sample. With frequency tables, a researcher will be able to see the distribution of the sample. For example, a researcher will be able to see how many people in the sample are school heads or how many people in the sample are married.

This analysis will also help the researcher to look at the problem under investigation, report on the findings based on the problem and give recommendations and conclude by

highlighting the extent (if any) of teacher burnout in Botswana schools. The hypotheses will be tested using statistical techniques like T-tests and F-tests. The statistical techniques are going to determine whether to reject or accept the hypotheses.

1.11 CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The findings will determine the conclusions and recommendations.

1.13 DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

1.13.1 DELIMITATIONS

The study will be confined to twenty schools in the Southern District of Botswana. The study also anticipates null responses to some questions or questionnaires.

1.13.2 LIMITATIONS

The limitations to this research were time and finances. Lack of adequate time forced the researcher to cover only a smaller portion of the country, the Southern District of Botswana. Lack of adequate finances also restricted other activities like travelling, stationery and questionnaire administration.

1.14 Access and Ethical Considerations

The researcher will protect the rights of subjects thus ensuring ethical practice. No names will be used. A code will be assigned to each questionnaire. Only age, gender, marital status, position of responsibility and school location will be disclosed. Information obtained and the subjects will be treated with confidentiality. A covering letter will be issued to every respondent. This will enable the researcher to access the respondents.

The researcher will also seek permission from the relevant authorities. These are the Ministry of Education and the headmasters of the targeted schools.

1.15 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

In this study:

i) **Burnout**- this is a syndrome that goes beyond physical fatigue from overwork. Stress and emotional exhaustion are part of it, but the hallmark of burnout is the distancing that goes on in response to the overload (Smith, 1996: 438)

Burnout is also defined as a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job, and is defined by three dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism and inefficacy (Maslach et al, 2000: 120).

For the purpose of this research, burnout is to become extinguished through lack of energy/fuel or to extinguish one's strength through overworking.

ii) **Coping** – this refers to the management of stress. Dealing with stress can be undertaken by schools, as a matter of policy, and by individuals through peer groups and guidance and counselling (www.wizardofeyez.com).

Coping is also defined as the direct identification of sources of stress and intervening in a way that minimises the stressful situation. (Pines, Aronson and Kafry, 1988: 88).

For the purpose of this research, coping means meeting or dealing with a situation successfully.

iii) **Ministry of Education**- this is an administrative body in charge of the running of all schools and colleges in Botswana.

iv) **Principal** – this is a person in charge of the day to day running of a school. This is the educator who has executive authority of a school, all teachers report to him and he in turn reports to the Ministry of Education.
(**Dictionary**.com http://dictionary.reference.com/search?q=school%20principal)

Principal is also defined as the head or chief administrative officer of a public school, or executive officer of an institution (Webster, 2000: 287).

Collier Dictionary (1986: 755) defines a principal as one who takes a leading part, one concerned directly. He is also one primarily liable for whom another has become surety.

For the purpose of this research, principal is the head teacher of a Community Junior Secondary school in Botswana who is in overall authority. He is the leader of the school who is in charge of teachers and the running of the school.

v) **Remedy**- this is a natural substance, energy, stimulus or action which supplies something needed by the body for its own normal processes such as metabolism, repair, growth, cleansing or maintenance (www.wizardofeyez.com).

Remedy is also defined as something, that as a medicine or treatment, that relieves or is intended to relieve a disease, disorder or eliminates an evil (Collier Dictionary, 1986: 843).

Webster (2000: 305) defined remedy as to cure or heal by medicinal treatment, to overcome or remove (an evil or defect). Remedy is also that which cures or affords relief to bodily disease or ailment.

For the purpose of this research, a remedy is overcoming difficulties and putting back situations to their original state or how they are supposed to be. It can also mean providing a solution to a problem.

vi) **Southern District** – This is one of the five school administrative regions under the Botswana government's Ministry of Education. It covered Gaborone, Mogoditshane, Kanye, Tlokweng and Mochudi areas.

vii) **Stress**- Stress is defined as a non-specific response of the body to any demand made upon it which results in symptoms such as rise in the blood pressure, release of hormones, quickness of breathe, tightening of muscles, perspiration, and

increased cardiac activity. Stress is not necessarily negative. Some stress keeps us motivated and alert, while too little stress can create problems. However, too much stress can trigger problems with mental and physical health, particularly over a prolonged period of time.
(www.wfmh.org/wmhday/sec3_pt3_4_glossary.html).

Stress is also defined as a phenomenon caused by adverse physical conditions (such as pain or hot or cold temperatures) or stressful psychological environments (such as poor working conditions or abusive relationships). Psychologically, it is also defined as an intense worry about a harmful event that may or may not occur. (American Institute of Stress (AIS) http://www.stress .org).

Webster (2000: 183) defined stress a force or system of forces which tends to produce deformation in a body on which it acts. It is influence exerted forcibly, pressure or compulsion.

For the purpose of this research, stress is a pressure or strain that tends to weaken a person's mind, body and soul such that he/she does not function properly.

viii) **Teacher** - an adult that is assigned to "teach" a student a given course or curriculum, usually within a classroom context learning consultant an individual who is chosen by a learner to enter into a mutually agreed relationship focused on a learning process that is meaningful to both.

(Mandala Village.
http://www.mandalavillage.org/activities/education/wt_definitions.htm)

Teacher is also defined as a person in the school who guides, leads by example, educates or facilitates education and counsels students, (Collier Dictionary, 1986:962).

For the purpose of this research, a teacher is one who helps students to learn. In order for learning to have taken place a teacher has to ensure that certain objectives in a given set of subjects are fulfilled over a set period of time.

1.16 SYNTHESIS

Burnout results from the chronic perception that one is unable to cope with daily life demands. Given that teachers must face a classroom full of students every day, negotiate potentially stressful interactions with parents, administrators, counselors, and other teachers, contend with relatively low pay and shrinking school budgets, and ensure students meet increasingly strict standards of accountability, it is no wonder many experience a form of burnout at some point in their careers. Efforts at primary prevention, in which teachers' jobs are modified to give them more control over their environment and more resources for coping with the demands of being an educator, are preferable over secondary or tertiary interventions that occur after burnout symptoms have surfaced. However, research reviewed here indicates each type of prevention can be useful in helping teachers contend with an occupation that puts them at risk for burnout.

Chapter Two will focus on Literature Review.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Anyone who works in schools knows about burnout. Staggering workloads, major problems, and endless hassles are the name of the game. The many frustrations, large and small, affect staff (and student) morale and mental health. As with so many problems, if ignored, burnout takes a severe toll. Rather than suffer through it all, staff who bring a mental health perspective to schools can take a leadership role to address the problem. Any focus on minimizing burnout at a school site begins with an appreciation of the causes of burnout. This leads to an understanding that some of the problem arises from environmental stressors and some of the problem stem from characteristics and capabilities individuals bring to the situation. (And, of course, the way the environment and individual mesh is not to be ignored.) These causes play out differently with different roles and functions at a school. All at a school site share some common stressors, but teachers and pupil service personnel also experience a range of different ones and all personnel differ in the characteristics and capacities they bring to the job.

Those dealing with students' psychosocial mental health problems over an extended period of time become fatigued because so many of the problems feel terribly intractable. Teachers burnout from the daily pressure of dealing with classrooms full of students who are encountering major barriers to learning.

Ultimately, the problem of minimizing burnout resolves down to reducing environmental stressors, increasing personal capabilities and enhancing job support.

2.2 TEACHER BURNOUT

Statistical data indicate that teachers are abandoning the profession in increasing numbers. According to Shinn (1982: 86) and Katzell, Korman, and Levine (1971: 28), teachers are three times more likely to quit their jobs and even more likely to want to quit their jobs than are similarly trained professionals. Many are finding jobs in private industry, others are seeking early retirement, and still others are simply dropping out. Thousands of teachers have

laid down their pointers and chalk largely because of decreased funding, limited personal control over their teaching, and lack of societal commitment.

One important factor that contributes to this trend is teacher burnout. Burnout is a more serious problem to the profession than job change or early retirement because it renders a teacher unable to cope, although he or she remains in the classroom. According to Truch (1980: 34), teacher distress costs the United States government at least 3.5 billion annually through absenteeism, turnover, poor performance, and waste. It is estimated that one-quarter of all teachers feel burnt out at any given time.

Job burnout is a problem in many professions, but it significantly more prevalent in the helping professions. Teachers, as well as administrators, counselors, doctors, nurses, police officers, and so on have the additional burden of extreme responsibility for the well being of others on top of the multitude of stressors that stem from routine job activities. This heavy responsibility combined with limited resources, long hours, marginal working conditions, and often unreasonable demands from those receiving services, lead to chronic stress, and ultimately burnout, (Truch, 1980: 42).

2.3 VARIOUS VIEWS ABOUT TEACHER BURNOUT

As defined by Girdin, Everly, and Dusek (1996: 126), burnout is a state of mental and/or physical exhaustion caused by excessive and prolonged stress.

Girdin, Everly, and Dusek (1996: 180-205) identified the three stages of teacher burnout:

2.3.1 Stage 1. Stress arousal

This stage includes any two of the following symptoms; persistent irritability, persistent anxiety, periods of high blood pressure, bruxism (grinding your teeth at night), insomnia, forgetfulness, heart palpitations, unusual heart rhythms (skipped beats), inability to, concentrate and headaches.

2.3.2 Stage 2: Energy conservation

This intermediate stage consists of any two of the following symptoms; lateness for work, procrastination, needed three-day weekends, persistent tiredness in the mornings, turning work in late, social withdrawal (from friends and/or family), cynical attitudes, resentfulness, increased coffee/tea/cola consumption, increased alcohol consumption and apathy.

2.3.3 Stage 3: Exhaustion

The final stage can be detected if any two of the following symptoms are observed; chronic sadness or depression, chronic stomach or bowel problems, chronic mental fatigue, chronic physical fatigue, chronic headaches, the desire to "drop out" of society, the desire to move away from friends, work, and perhaps even family and perhaps the desire to commit suicide.

These three stages usually occur sequentially from Stage 1 to Stage 3, although the process can be stopped at any point. The exhaustion stage is where most people finally get a sense that something may be wrong. The symptoms include: chronic sadness or depression, chronic stomach or bowel problems, chronic mental fatigue, chronic physical fatigue, chronic headaches or migraines, the desire to "drop out" of society, the desire to get away from family, friends, and even recurrent suicidal ideation.

Like the previous two stages, any two of these symptoms can indicate Stage 3 burnout.
Burnout is a process that usually occurs sequentially, it progresses through stages thus giving the opportunity to recognize symptoms and take the necessary steps to prevent it.

2.3.4 The toll of unmanaged stress

According to Girdin, Everly, and Dusek (1996: 236-265), if burnout is unchecked it can result in addictive behaviour on the victim, can cause relationship stress, has emotional/behaviour consequences and professional consequences. They also observed the following:

- Increased use of tobacco, alcohol, prescription medications and/or illicit substances "to help cope with stress" place the individual at great risk for physical and psychological dependence.

- Depersonalization, which refers to treating people like objects, may arise as a protective mechanism to minimize emotional involvement that could interfere with functioning in crisis situations. In moderation, 'detached concern" toward students by teachers may be appropriate and necessary, but when excessive, it may lead to callousness and cynicism with subsequent negative effects on the teacher-student relationship.

- Emotional exhaustion is caused by excessive psychological and emotional demands made on people helping people that leave individuals drained and depleted. Low morale, reduced effectiveness, burnout and health problems are often the result.

- Feelings of diminished personal accomplishment are reflected in symptoms of stress, depression, and a sense of inefficiency and diminished competence. With such feelings, the individual believes that his or her actions no longer can or do make a difference. This adversely affects the teacher-student relationship and student performance.

2.4 CAUSES OF BURNOUT

2.4.1 Corey's findings

In his book, Theory and Practice of Counseling and Psychotherapy (1996: 58-62), Gerald Corey lists the following as the causes of burnout:

Rather than having a single cause, burnout results from a combination of factors. It is best understood by considering the individual, interpersonal, and organizational factors that contribute to the condition. Recognizing the causes of burnout can itself be a step in dealing with it. A few of them are:

- doing the same type of work with little variation, especially if this work seems meaningless;
- giving a great deal personally and not getting back much in the way of appreciation or other positive responses;
- lacking a sense of accomplishment and meaning in work;
- being under constant and strong pressure to produce, perform, and meet deadlines, many of which may be unrealistic;
- working with a difficult population, such as those who are highly resistant, who are involuntary clients, or who show very little progress;
- conflict and tension among staff; absence of support from colleagues and an abundance of criticism;
- lack of trust between supervisor and mental-health workers, leading to conditions in which they are working against each other instead of toward commonly valued goals;
- not having opportunities for personal expression or for taking initiative in trying new approaches, a situation in which experimentation, change, and innovation are not only unrewarded but also actively discouraged;
- facing unrealistic demands on your time and energy;
- having a job that is both personally and professionally taxing without much opportunity for supervision, continuing education, or other forms of in-service training;
- unresolved personal conflicts beyond the job situation, such as marital tensions, chronic health problems, financial problems, and so on.

2.4.2 Cedoline's findings

Cedoline (1982: 29-39) defined job burnout as "a consequence of the perceived disparity between the demands of the job and the resources (both material and emotional) that an employee has available to him or her. When demands in the workplace are unusually high, it becomes increasingly impossible to cope with the stress associated with these working conditions." Its roots are found in the daily transactions stemming from the debilitating physical and emotional overload that arises from stress on the job. Job burnout is both an occupational hazard and a phenomenon induced by distress. It is generally characterized by some degree of physical and emotional exhaustion; socially dysfunctional behavior, particularly a distancing and insulation from individuals with whom one is working;

psychological impairment -- especially strong, negative feelings toward the self; and organizational inefficiency through decreased output and poor morale.

Cedoline (1982: 43-55) offered the following analysis of seven causes of job burnout that have received the most attention in research findings:

2.4.2.1 Lack of control over one's destiny

As organizations become large and impersonal, employees are frequently less involved in decision making. Even simple tasks can be delayed due to legal dictates, administrative policy, or lack of funds. Employees' participation in decision making promotes more positive job attitudes and greater motivation for effective performance.

2.4.2.2 Lack of occupational feedback and communication

Like other workers, educators want to know the expectations of the organization, the behaviors that will be successful or unsuccessful in satisfying job requirements, any physical and psychological dangers that might exist, and the security of the job. Education employees need feedback to develop job values, aspirations, objectives, and accomplishments. Lack of clear, consistent information can result in distress. If evaluation only happens once or twice a year without regular, periodic feedback, the possibility of stress increases the longer the employee works in a vacuum. Regarding communication, organizational structures that foster open, honest, cathartic expression in a positive and constructive way reap large dividends from employees. When management reacts to open communication on a crisis basis only, it reinforces negative communications.

2.4.2.3 Work overload or underload

Researchers have found high levels of stress among individuals who have excessive workloads. Long or unpredictable hours, too many responsibilities, work at a too-rapid pace, too many phone calls, dealing directly with difficult people without sufficient relief, dealing with constant crises, and supervising too many people (e.g., large class sizes and overcrowding) or having broad multifaceted job descriptions are characteristics of a work overload. In addition, boring tedious jobs or jobs without variety are equally distressful.

2.4.2.4 Contact overload

Contact overload results from the necessity for frequent encounters with other people in order to carry out job functions. Some occupations (teaching, counseling, law enforcement) require many encounters that are unpleasant and therefore distressful. These workers spend a large proportion of their work time interacting with people in various states of distress. When the caseload is high, control over one's work and consequent job satisfaction is affected. Contact overloads also leave little occasion or energy for communication and support from other employees or for seeking personal and professional growth opportunities.

2.4.2.5 Role conflict/ambiguity

Although role conflict and ambiguity can occur independently, they both refer to the uncertainty about what one is expected to do at work. Role conflict may be defined as the simultaneous occurrence of two or more opposing pressures such that a response to one makes compliance with the other impossible (e.g., mass education versus individualized instruction). The most frequent role conflicts are those between the individual's values and those of the superior or the organization; the conflict between the demands of the work place and the worker's personal life; and the conflict between worker abilities and organizational expectations. In numerous studies, role conflict has been associated with low job satisfaction, frustration, decreased trust and respect, low confidence in the organization, morale problems and high degrees of stress. Role ambiguity may be defined as a lack of clarity about the job, that is, a discrepancy between the information available to the employee and that which is required for successful job performance. In comparison to role conflict, role ambiguity has the highest correlation to job dissatisfaction. Role ambiguity is specially common amongst school administrators.

2.4.2.6 Individual factors

Personal factors such as financial stability, marital satisfaction, as well as personality factors such neuroticism, excessive shyness, inflexibility, and poor stress management skills all contribute to how one is affected by stress on the job. The mutual interaction and accumulation of both personal and occupational stressors can certainly contribute to job burnout.

2.4.2.7 Training deficits

Several different areas of job training are necessary to prevent occupational distress. The most obvious area is adequate initial preparation. Training and competencies are necessary to bolster confidence, as well as to allow the worker to get through each day without unnecessary dependence upon others or upon reference materials. On-the-job training is also necessary as technology advances. New professionals are most susceptible to some forms of distress. Secondly, training in communications skills is necessary in order to facilitate the ability of the employee to relate successfully with supervisors, fellow workers, and recipients of services or products. According to one survey, jobs are more frequently lost because of poor communication than because of any other factor. Finally, one needs to be taught how to deal with stress. Everyone needs to learn methods of coping with the variety of stressors faced each day.

2.4.2.8 Other factors and considerations

There are other secondary factors that can exacerbate stress such as poor working conditions, lack of job security, lifestyle changes, and a rapidly changing society that force individuals to make unexpected adjustments in their way of life and work. Administrators, teachers, and staff all face specific stressors that are unique to their position or role; however, most of these stressors fall within the general framework outlined above.

2.4.3 Clues to burnout

2.4.3.1 What can be done about burnout?

The applied nature of burnout research has prompted calls for effective intervention throughout the research literature. This perspective has encouraged considerable effort, but relatively little systematic research. Various intervention strategies have been proposed—some try to treat burnout after it has occurred, whereas others focus on how to prevent burnout. Interestingly, most discussions of burnout interventions focus primarily on individual-centered solutions, such as removing the worker from the job, or individual strategies for the worker, in which one either strengthens one's internal resources or changes one's work behaviors. This is particularly paradoxical given that research has found that

situational and organizational factors play a bigger role in burnout than individual ones. Individual-oriented approaches (e.g. developing effective coping skills or learning deep relaxation) may help individuals to alleviate exhaustion, but they do not really deal with the other two components of burnout. Also, individual strategies are relatively ineffective in the workplace, where a person has much less control over stressors than in other domains of his or her life. There are both philosophical and pragmatic reasons underlying the predominant focus on the individual, including notions of individual causality and responsibility, and the assumption that it is easier and cheaper to change people than organizations (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998: 70).

a) Changing the individual

The primary focus of studies of burnout reduction has been educational interventions to enhance the capacity of individuals to cope with the workplace. At the root of this approach are three questions:

- Can people learn coping skills?
- Can they apply this learning at work?
- Do new ways of coping affect burnout?

With respect to the first question, both the stress literature and a burgeoning self-help literature in the popular press have demonstrated that people can indeed learn new ways of coping. The similar conclusion to be drawn from the burnout research is that educational sessions can enhance the capacity of human service professionals to cope with the demands of their jobs. However, the second question does not receive such a positive answer. Applying new knowledge at work can be a challenge because people are operating under various constraints. Their roles at work require that they behave in specified ways, and organizational procedures stipulate the time and place in which much work occurs. Coworkers are designated according to their job functions, not their personal compatibility. Thus, if there is going to be significant change in the way work is done, it will require a degree of autonomy and an understanding of the organizational consequences of such change. Assuming that it is indeed possible for people to apply new coping skills at work, does this lead to reductions in burnout? The research findings are mixed. A wide variety of intervention strategies have been tried, including stress inoculation training, relaxation, time

management, assertiveness training, rational emotive therapy, training in interpersonal and social skills, teambuilding, management of professional demands, and meditation. In some cases, a reduction in exhaustion has been reported, but in other cases it has not. Rarely do any programs report a change in cynicism or inefficacy. Limitations in study design, especially difficulties in access to appropriate control groups and a lack of longitudinal assessment, have constrained the interpretation of the existing research, (Maslach and Goldberg, 1998: 85-89).

b) Changing the organization

In line with the findings from the research literature, a focus on the job environment, as well as the person in it, is essential for interventions to deal with burnout. This suggests that the most effective mode of intervention is to combine changes in managerial practice with the educational interventions described above. Managerial interventions are necessary to change any of the six areas of worklife but are insufficient unless educational interventions convey the requisite individual skills and attitudes. Neither changing the setting nor changing the individuals is enough; effective change occurs when both develop in an integrated fashion, (Maslach and Goldberg, 1998: 92).

Maslach and Goldberg (1998: 92-94) further observed that the recognition of six areas of worklife expands the range of options for organizational intervention. For example, rather than concentrating on the area of work overload for an intervention (such as teaching people how to cope with overload, how to cut back on work, or how to relax), a focus on some of the other mis-matches may be more effective. People may be able to tolerate greater workload if they value the work and feel they are doing something important, or if they feel well rewarded for their efforts, and so an intervention could target these areas of value and reward.

Initial work in this area is encouraging but incomplete. One promising approach focused on the area of fairness and equity. Employees participated in weekly group sessions designed to identify ways of reducing the perceived inequities in their job situation. In comparison with control groups, participants reported a significant decrease in emotional exhaustion at six months and one year after the intervention. These changes were accompanied by increases in perceived equity. Again, however, the other two aspects of burnout did not change relative to baseline levels (van Dierendonck *et al* 1998: 212).

One advantage of a combined managerial and educational approach to intervention is that it tends to emphasize building engagement with work. The focus on engagement permits a closer alliance with the organizational mission, especially those aspects that pertain to the quality of worklife in the organization. A work setting that is designed to support the positive development of energy, vigor, involvement, dedication, absorption, and effectiveness among its employees should be successful in promoting their well-being and productivity. Moreover, the statement of a positive goal for intervention—building engagement (rather than reducing burnout)—enhances the accountability of the intervention. Assessing the presence of something is more definite than assessing the absence of its opposite. (Leiter & Maslach, 2000: 354-356).

Although the potential value of organizational interventions is great, they are not easy to implement. They are often complex in the level of collaboration that is necessary and they require a considerable investment of time, effort, and money. A new approach to such interventions has been designed on the basis of past research and consultation on burnout, and may provide better guidance to organizations for dealing with these issues (Leiter & Maslach, 2000: 356).

2.4.3.2 Three general approaches

In general, schools attempt to minimize burnout in three ways:

a) Reducing environment stressors: Urban school restructuring

Farber and Ascher (1991: 29-34) suggested that several components of school restructuring such as school-based management accountability, career ladders, school-within-schools, curriculum initiatives, flexible scheduling and team teaching, can have the potential of improving the context of urban teaching. Each can possibly promote a greater sense of efficacy and control among teachers, and a stronger teacher - student connection. However, the authors also underscored how the process involved in school restructuring can lead to teacher burnout. Ultimately, the authors concluded that unless the structural components directly address ways to improve teaching and learning such as district policies on pupil assignment, professional development, or evaluation which are all critical to teacher well-being, teacher burnout will continue to be a prevailing concern in the school system.

b) Increasing personal capabilities (job competence and stress coping)

i) Job competence

Around the United States a variety of model programs have been established to enhance professional competence and growth and in the process to counter burnout. The following are but two examples.

ii) Atlanta public schools -- Atlanta has a Teacher Resource Center which provides teachers and non-instructional staff with staff development services. The center has several functions: student teacher placement, certification renewal, staff training, and personnel evaluation. The Teacher Resource Center is equipped with a technology center, a teacher center, a media services center, a science center, and a professional library. In 1994, the center provided 1,336 workshops to over 38,000 participants. Participants included teachers, administrators, service employees, students, and parents. In addition, the center has a New Teacher Institute which provides new teachers with support, seminars, mentors, and orientation. The center also provides conflict resolution and peer mediation training (Farber & Ascher (1991: 36-38).

iii) Baltimore city public schools -- Baltimore's Professional Development Center has several components. The center offers district staff a series of workshops, ranging in issues from classroom management to leadership development to technology to safety. BCPS also has an Academy for Educational Leadership, which offers a Skill Builder Series. This series of seminars and workshops is offered to all school system leaders -- Superintendent's Cabinet, principals, assistant principals, and central office leaders.

iv) Stress coping

Many school districts in the United States have established employee assistance programs that can help school professionals enhance their ability to cope with stress. As described by one district:

v) Employee assistance program -- Employee assistance programs are designed to help employees deal with personal problems. Most of us have stresses at some time in our lives. Generally we can manage them on our own. At times, however, it is helpful to discuss

problems with someone other than our family or friends. This program provides you and your family with such an opportunity. Examples of the type of assistance provided are crisis intervention, assessment, information, and referral services are available for a wide range of problems which affect personal lives, and may carry over into work. Stresses such as marital and family difficulties, problems with drinking or drugs, or emotional distresses, can be discussed confidentially through an early assistance program (Mitchell & Richardsen, 1993: 219-221).

b) Social support

There are a variety of ways school professionals can enhance social support as a way to minimize burnout. These include working together on problems (teaming), establishing mutual support groups, and creating debriefing mechanisms. A good example of a debriefing mechanism is the Critical Incident Stress Debriefing process that was developed for crisis workers (Mitchell & Richardsen, 1993: 221).

Critical incident stress debriefing is a technique for the reduction of stress and the mitigation of its ill effects (Mitchell & Richardsen, 1993: 223-224). A debriefing is a clinician guided group discussion of a traumatic event. It is a psychological and educational process intended to mitigate the impact of a traumatic event, and to accelerate normal recovery in normal people with normal reactions to abnormal events. The session should occur between 24 and 72 hours after the event. However, even months later it can be very helpful.

Debriefing is an opportunity for:

- education on stress and its effects
- ventilation of pent-up emotion
- reassurance
- forewarning of predictable symptoms and reactions to stress
- confronting the fallacies of uniqueness and abnormality
- positive contact with a mental h
- ealth professional
- building group cohesiveness
- interagency cooperation
- doing prevention

- screening to identify persons in crisis or at high risk
- referring persons in need to appropriate resources

2.4.4 Preventing and coping with burnout: A sampling of current practices.

2.4.4.1 Enhancing school culture

a) Toward a caring school culture

Schools often fail to create a caring culture. A caring school culture refers not only to caring for but also caring about others. It refers not only to students and parents but to staff. Those who want to create a caring culture can draw on a variety of ideas and practices developed over the years.

i) Who is caring for the teaching staff?

Teachers must feel good about themselves if classrooms are to be caring environments. Teaching is one of society's most psychologically demanding jobs, yet few schools have programs designed specifically to counter job stress and enhance staff feelings of well-being. In discussing "burn-out," many writers have emphasized that, too often, teaching is carried out under highly stressful working conditions and without much of a collegial and social support structure. Recommendations usually factor down to strategies that reduce environmental stressors, increase personal capabilities, and enhance job and social supports. What tends to be ignored is that schools have no formal mechanisms to care for staff. As schools move toward local control, they have a real opportunity to establish formal mechanisms and programs that foster mutual caring. In doing so, special attention must be paid to transitioning in new staff and transforming working conditions to create appropriate staff teams whose members can support and nurture each other in the classroom, every day. Relatedly, classrooms should play a greater role in fostering student social-emotional development by ensuring such a focus is built into the curricula (Beauchamp & Childress, 1989: 45-46).

ii) Helping youngsters overcome difficulty: Making friends

A caring school culture pays special attention to those who have difficulty making friends. Some students need just a bit of support to overcome the problem (e.g., a few suggestions, a couple of special opportunities). Some, however, need more help. They may be very shy, lacking in social skills, or may even act in negative ways that lead to their rejection. Whatever the reason, it is clear they need help if they and the school are to reap the benefits produced when individuals feel positively connected to each other. School staff (e.g., teacher, classroom or yard aide, counselor, support/resource staff) and parents can work together to help such students. The following is one set of strategies that can be helpful:

- Identify a potential "peer buddy" (e.g., a student with similar interests and temperament or one who will understand and be willing to reach out to the one who needs a friend).

- Either directly enlist and train the "peer buddy" or design a strategy to ensure the two are introduced to each other in a positive way.

- Create regular opportunities for shared activities/ projects at and away from school (e.g., they might work together on cooperative tasks, be teammates for games, share special roles such as being classroom monitors, have a sleep-over weekend).

- Facilitate their time together to ensure they experience good feelings about being together.

It may be necessary to try a few different activities before finding some they enjoy doing together. For some, the first attempts to match them with a friend will not work out. (It will be evident after about a week or so.) If the youngster really doesn't know how to act like a friend, it is necessary to teach some guidelines and social skills. In the long-run, for almost everyone, making friends is possible and is essential to feeling cared about (Beauchamp & Childress, 1989: 56-61).

iii) Applying rules in a fair and caring way

Beauchamp and Childress (1989: 76) further probe whether different consequences should be applied for the same offense when the children involved differ in terms of their problems, age, competence, and so forth? Teachers and parents (and almost everyone else) are confronted with the problem of whether to apply rules and treat transgressions differentially. Some try to simplify matters by not making distinctions and treating everyone alike. A caring school culture cannot treat everyone the same.

According to Beauchamp and Childress (1989: 77), teachers and other school staff often argue that it is unfair to other students if the same rule is not applied in the same way to everyone. Thus, they insist on enforcing rules without regard to a particular student's social and emotional problems. Although such a "no exceptions" strategy represents a simple solution, it ignores the fact that such a nonpersonalized approach may make a child's problem worse and thus be unjust.

The two authors go on to say that caring school culture must develop and apply rules and offer specialized assistance in ways that recognize that the matter of fairness involves such complicated questions as, Fair for whom? Fair according to whom? Fair using what criteria and what procedures for applying the criteria? Obviously what is fair for the society may not be fair for an individual; what is fair for one person may cause an inequity for another. To differentially punish two students for the same transgression will certainly be seen as unfair by at least one of the parties. To provide special services for one group's problems raises the taxes of all citizens. To deny such services is unfair and harmful to those who need the help.

Making fair decisions about how rules should be applied and who should get what services and resources involves principles of distributive justice. For example, should each person be responded to in the same way?, given an equal share of available resources?, responded to and provided for according to individual need?, responded to and served according to his or her societal contributions? or responded to and given services on the basis of having earned or merited them? As Beauchamp and Childress (1989: 83) point out, the first principle emphasizes equal access to the goods in life that every rational person desires; the second emphasizes need; the third emphasizes contribution and merit; and the fourth emphasizes a mixed use of such criteria so that public and private utility are maximized. Obviously, each of

these principles can conflict with each other. Moreover, any may be weighted more heavily than another, depending on the social philosophy of the decision maker.

Many parents and some teachers lean toward an emphasis on individual need. That is, they tend to believe fairness means that those with problems should be responded to on a case-by-case basis and given special assistance. Decisions based on individual need often call for exceptions to how rules are applied and unequal allocation and affirmative action with regard to who gets certain resources. When this occurs, stated intentions to be just and fair often lead to decisions that are quite controversial. Because building a caring school culture requires an emphasis on individual need, the process is not without its controversies ((Beauchamp & Childress, 1989: 89).

It is easy to lose sight of caring, and it is not easy to develop and maintain a caring school culture. In an era when so many people are concerned about discipline, personal responsibility, school-wide values, and character education, caring counts. Indeed, it may be the key to student well-being and successful schools (Beauchamp & Childress, 1989: 90)..

b) Reculturing schools

Every organization has a culture, that history and underlying set of unwritten expectations that shape everything about the school. A school culture influences the ways people think, feel, and act, Being able to understand and shape the culture is key to a school's success in promoting staff and student learning. As Fullan (2001: 5) recently noted, "Reculturing is the name of the game." When a school has a positive, professional culture, one finds meaningful staff development, successful curricular reform, and the effective use of student performance data. In these cultures, staff and student learning thrive. In contrast, a school with a negative or toxic culture that does not value professional learning, resists change, or devalues staff development hinders success. School culture will have either a positive or a detrimental impact on the quality and success of staff development.

i) What is school culture?

School culture is the set of norms, values and beliefs, rituals and ceremonies, symbols and stories that make up the "persona" of the school. These unwritten expectations build up over time as teachers, administrators, parents, and students work together, solve problems, deal with challenges and, at times, cope with failures. For example, every school has a set of expectations about what can be discussed at staff meetings, what constitutes good teaching techniques, how willing the staff is to change, and the importance of staff development (Deal & Peterson, 1999: 63). Schools also have rituals and ceremonies--communal events to celebrate success, to provide closure during collective transitions, and to recognize people's contributions to the school. School cultures also include symbols and stories that communicate core values, reinforce the mission, and build a shared sense of commitment. Symbols are an outward sign of inward values. Stories are group representations of history and meaning. In positive cultures, these features reinforce learning, commitment, and motivation, and they are consistent with the school's vision (Deal & Peterson, 1999: 63).

ii) Positive versus toxic cultures

While there is no one best culture, recent research and knowledge of successful schools identify common features in professional learning communities. In these cultures, staff, students, and administrators value learning, work to enhance curriculum and instruction, and focus on students. In schools with professional learning communities, the culture possesses:

- A widely shared sense of purpose and values-,
- Norms of continuous learning and improvement-,
- A commitment to and sense of responsibility for the learning of all students;
- Collaborative, collegial relationships; and
- Opportunities for staff reflection, collective inquiry, and sharing personal practice.

(Stein, 1998: 62; Lambert, 1998: 125; Fullan, 2001: 8; DuFour & Eaker, 1998: 78; Hord, 1998: 33).

In addition, these schools often have a common professional language, communal stories of success, extensive opportunities for quality professional development, and ceremonies that

celebrate improvement, collaboration, and learning (Peterson & Deal, 2002: 86). All of these elements build commitment, forge motivation, and foster learning for staff and students.
Some schools have the opposite--negative subcultures with "toxic" norms and values that hinder growth and learning. Schools with toxic cultures lack a clear sense of purpose, have norms that reinforce inertia, blame students for lack of progress, discourage collaboration, and often have actively hostile relations among staff. These schools are not healthy for staff or students.

By actively addressing the negativity and working to shape more positive cultures, staff and principals can turn around many of these schools. Principals are key in addressing negativity and hostile relations.

iii) Staff development

School culture enhances or hinders professional learning. Culture enhances professional learning when teachers believe professional development is important, valued, and "the way we do things around here." Professional development is nurtured when the school's history and stories include examples of meaningful professional learning and a group commitment to improvement.

Staff learning is reinforced when sharing ideas, working collaboratively to learn, and using newly learned skills are recognized symbolically and orally in faculty meetings and other school ceremonies. For example, in one school, staff meetings begin with the story of a positive action a teacher took to help a student--a ceremonial school coffee cup is presented to the teacher and a round of applause follows (Deal & Peterson, 1999: 64).

The most positive cultures value staff members who help lead their own development, create well-defined improvement plans, organize study groups, and learn in a variety of ways. Cultures that celebrate, recognize, and support staff learning bolster professional community (Deal & Peterson, 1999: 64).

Negative cultures can seriously impair staff development. Negative norms and values, hostile relations, and pessimistic stories deplete the culture. In one school, for example, the only stories of staff development depict boring, ill-defined failures. Positive experiences are

attacked--they don't fit the cultural norms. In another school, teachers are socially ostracized for sharing their positive experiences at workshops or training programs. At this school's faculty meetings, no one is allowed to share interesting or useful ideas learned in a workshop. Positive news about staff development opportunities goes underground for those who still value personal learning (Deal & Peterson, 1999: 65).

In some schools, professional development is not valued, teachers do not believe they have anything new to learn, or they believe the only source for new ideas is trial-and-error in one's own classroom. Anyone who shares a new idea from a book, workshop, or article is laughed at. In these schools, positive views of professional learning are countercultural. Those who value learning are criticized. The positive individuals may either leave the school (reinforcing the culture) or become outcasts, seeking support with like-minded staff (Deal & Peterson, 1999: 67).

iv) Learning communities

Principals and other school leaders can and should shape school culture. They do this through three key processes. First, they read the culture, understanding the culture's historical source as well as analyzing current norms and values. Second, they assess the culture, determining which elements of the culture support the school's core purposes and the mission, and which hinder achieving valued ends. Finally, they actively shape the culture by reinforcing positive aspects and working to transform negative aspects of the culture (Peterson & Deal, 2002, 93).

v) Read the culture

Principals can learn the history of the school by talking to the school's storytellers (they are the staff who enjoy recounting history), looking through prior school improvement plans for signals about what is really important, not just what is required, or using a faculty meeting to discuss what the school has experienced, especially in staff development, over the past two decades. It is important to examine contemporary aspects of the culture--a series of exercises can determine the core norms and values, rituals, and ceremonies of the school, and their meanings. For example, asking each staff member to list six adjectives to describe the school, asking staff to tell a story that characterizes what the school is about, or having staff write

metaphors describing the school can reveal aspects of the school culture (Peterson & Deal, 2002, 94-95).

One approach asks staff to complete the following metaphor: "If my school were an animal it would be a because The principal then looks for themes and patterns. Are the animals strong, nurturing, hostile, loners, or herd animals? Are the animals stable or changeable? These metaphors can suggest deeper perceptions of the culture.

Finally, developing a timeline of rituals and ceremonies for the year--asking when they occur, what symbols and values are important in each, and what the ceremonies communicate about the school and its commitment to professional learning can fill in the culture picture. For example, what does the end-of-the year staff gathering communicate? Is it joyful, sorrowful, congenial, or standoffish? What are the rites and rituals of the gathering? What traditions keep going year-to-year, and what do they represent? Is the last gathering of the year a time for closure, goodbyes, and a sharing of hopes for the future?

vi) Assess the culture

Recent findings from the School Culture Survey (Tools for Schools: 3-7), it was suggested that staff and administrators should look at what they have learned about the culture and ask two central questions:

- What aspects of the culture are positive and should be reinforced?
- What aspects of the culture are negative and harmful and should be changed?

The staff can also ask: What norms and values support learning? Which depress or hinder the growth of energy, motivation, and commitment? What symbols or ceremonies are dead and dying and need to be buried--or need to be resuscitated?

There are other approaches as well. One way to assess the culture is to use the School Culture Survey (Tools for Schools, 2001) to examine core norms and values. Collect the survey

results to see how strongly held different norms or values are, then determine whether they fit the culture the school wants.

vii) Shape the culture

There are many ways to reinforce the positive aspects of the culture.

Staff leaders and principals can:

- Celebrate successes in staff meetings and ceremonies-,
- Tell stories of accomplishment and collaboration whenever they have the opportunity; and
- Use clear, shared language created during professional development to foster a commitment to staff and student learning.

Leaders also can reinforce norms and values in their daily work, their words, and their interactions. They can establish rituals and traditions that make staff development an opportunity for culture building as well as learning. As we saw at Wisconsin Hills Middle School, all workshops began with sharing food and stories of success with students. At other times, leaders can reinforce quality professional learning by providing additional resources to implement new ideas, by recognizing those committed to learning their craft, and by continuously supporting quality opportunities for informal staff learning and collaboration (Tools for Schools, 2001: 11-15).

Staff and administrators may also need to change negative and harmful aspects of the culture. This is not easy. It is done by addressing the negative directly, finding examples of success to counteract stories of failure, impeding those who try to sabotage or criticize staff learning, and replacing negative stories of professional development with concrete positive results (Tools for Schools, 2001: 18).

viii) Conclusion

Today, shaping culture is even more important because of the national focus on higher curriculum standards, assessments, and accountability.

Standards-based reform efforts attempt to align content, teaching, and assessment. But without a culture that supports and values these structural changes, these reforms can fail.

Schools need both clear structures and strong, professional cultures to foster teacher learning. Carefully designed curriculum and assessments are keys to successful reform, along with teacher professional development. The school's culture either supports or sabotages quality professional learning. Developing and sustaining a positive, professional culture that nurtures staff learning is the task of everyone in the school. With a strong, positive culture that supports professional development and student learning, schools can become places where every teacher makes a difference and every child learns.

2.4.4.2 Personal strategies

McManus (1986: 208-212) suggested that individuals can use the following strategies to deal with teacher burnout:

a) Stress busters

Stress and worry on the job can be harmful. They cause physical and emotional problems that may damage both one's health and performance. Furthermore, stress grows. Excessive worry is a major element in the vicious cycle of tension: the physical sensations of stress-tense muscles, headaches, insomnia and so forth-lead to catastrophic stress-building thoughts, which in turn aggravate unpleasant physical feelings, and so on up the tension cycle. Soon, just the thought of preparing an assignment or meeting a deadline triggers all the symptoms of stress, along with an overwhelming wish to avoid tasks.

However, one can learn to avoid "stress-building" thoughts and replace them with alternative "stress-busting" thoughts. Learning to talk to oneself in a reassuring way can decrease stress. This is what "stress-busting" is about - getting thoughts back on a reassuring track.. Stress-busting thoughts come from what is called the "Rational You." The Rational You thinks its

way through life's events, evaluating the degree of safety versus danger involved. What happens to the Rational You in a stressful situation? It gets pushed aside by stress building thoughts that disrupt concentration and productivity at work..

b) Person coping techniques

A variety of psychological techniques have been advocated for helping individuals cope with stress. The limitations of such a person-coping model should be evident from any comprehensive discussion of the causes of burnout. At the same time, every mental health professional will want to have some familiarity with specific coping techniques.

McManus (1986) suggested the following as some of the techniques that can be used to cope with stress:

- Assertiveness - becoming aware of personal needs, desires, feelings and rights and expressing them interpersonally in a considerate caring manner.

- Attention Training - learning to focus better on performing a stressful task by using verbal reminders and reinforcement.

- Behavior Modification - altering behavior through a variety of overt techniques, including behavioral assessment, positive reinforcement, shaping, extinction, and punishment.

- Behavioral Rehearsal - practicing a stressful behavior many times before carrying it out in a real life situation.

- Cognitive Awareness (Life Style Assessment) - increasing self awareness of personal stress by cognitively looking at all dimensions of one's life, then altering aspects of the environment and habitual behaviors which create stress.

- Cognitive Restructuring - learning to recognize faulty, irrational, and self-defeating thinking patterns and self-statements and replacing them with rational thoughts, self statements and behaviors (employed in rational emotive therapy approach)

- Conflict Resolution - reducing interpersonal stress in conflict situations through communication and problem-solving skills.

- Coping Reappraisal - cognitively assessing potential coping responses and resources other than those currently being employed ineffectually.

- Coping Skills Training - learning to manage stress from a comprehensive perspective, emphasizing the relationship among cognitions, physiological responses and behaviors and developing coping strategies in each area.

- Covert Modeling - imagining other persons and yourself successfully overcoming obstacles in performing desired behaviors and practicing those behaviors in the mind.

- Covert Reinforcement - pairing desired behaviors with positive reinforcement in the imagination in order to reduce associated stress.

- Covert Sensitization - eliminating destructive habits which cause stress by associating them with a very unpleasant stimulus in the imagination.

- Performance Feedback - receiving evaluative feedback from others regarding performance in stressful situations.

- Problem Solving - acting systematically rather than impulsively to solve personal problems through a logical reasoning, step-by-step process.

- Relabeling (Reframing) - verbally calling a problem something other than a problem, such as challenge, opportunity for personal growth. Amusing episode, etc.

- Role Reversal - acting in the role of another person involved in a stressful situation, observing, how a model plays your role.

- Selective Ignoring (Selective Awareness) - ignoring the bad parts of a stressful situation and focusing instead on the positive aspects.

- Self Controlled Relaxation (Cue Controlled Relaxation) - learning to increase conscious awareness of the stressor's in one's life and having them serve as cues for immediate coping responses and cognitions.

- Self Talk - changing negative perceptions of the self through repetitive positive self-statements.

- Surrender - acknowledging to the self that some stressful situations are indeed beyond personal control and accepting them as they are.

- Systematic Desensitization - reducing anxiety associated with stressful situations through imagination and body relaxation.

- Think Aloud - using verbal mediation skills to reduce stress in problem solving situations, talking self through the problem in a step-by-step manner.

- Thought Stopping - consciously interrupting persistent trains of stressful thoughts, such as those involved in obsessions and phobias, in order to gain control over thought patterns.

c) Preventing parent burn out

All families experience normative and transitional life event stressors such as birth, death, and moving. In addition, parents are subject to the inherent chronic stressors of parenting. Parental psychological stressors are related to the worries that parents have about the physical safety and the growth and development of their children. Parents generally take pride in their children's accomplishments and are hurt by their children's failures.

Parenting is particularly difficult and stressful wheel children do not measure up to family or community expectations. When a child is diagnosed with learning disabilities, all of the attention is focused on helping the child. But parents also need assistance in coping with their own feelings and frustrations (Latson, 1985: 42).

In her doctoral dissertation, Latson (1995: 64) revealed that parents of children with learning disabilities had very elevated scores on the Parenting Stress Index, signifying that they perceived far more stress in their role as parents than did parents of children without learning problems. Therefore, a workshop model for teaching parents how to cope with the stress associated with raising children with learning disabilities was developed. The basic premise of the model was that by increasing coping skills, parents can reduce their own stress and can become effective mediators in reducing stress in their children.

The first step in the study was to ask parents to list specific stressors they associated with raising their children with learning disabilities. Some of the most frequently mentioned were: parent guilt; worry about the future; parents' perception that other people think they may be the cause of the problem; difficult behavior of children with learning disabilities; feeling a need to protect their child; disagreement between parents about dealing with the child; disagreement between parents about the existence of a problem; increased financial burden; finding competent professional services; and sibling resentment of attention given the child with learning disabilities. All of the stressors identified by parents in the initial study were compiled into a Learning Disability Stress Index to be used with workshop participants. At the beginning of the workshop session, participants completed the index in order to identify their own specific stressors, and to determine if their stress is primarily internal, external, or physiological Latson (1995: 69-70).

i) Internal stress

According to Long (1988: 52-53), internal stress factors come from within the individual and include attitudes, perceptions, assumptions, and expectations. Expectations of parents about their child lie at the root of burnout. When expectations about parenting are not met, the first thought is What did I do wrong? Therefore, parents must learn how to develop realistic expectations and how to recognize when negative self-talk defeats effective coping. Parents should identify their own self-defeating assumptions and think of alternative messages. They must be kind to themselves, to accept themselves and their child as fallible, anal to boost their own self-confidence by noting and using personal strengths and talents.

ii) External stress

External forces also impinge upon parents of youngsters with learning disabilities. Neighbors, friends, and relatives don't understand why such a normal-acting child is having academic problems. Teachers frequently don' t fully understand the ramifications of a child's problem. Parents are called upon by the school to help make decisions about the child ' s academic program but often feel helpless as the child's advocate because of their own lack of understanding. Because external stressors are those that are situational, and often involve relationships with others, parents are encouraged to develop assertiveness skills. Problem-solving techniques, time management, and goal setting are helpful when dealing with stressors associated with raising children and running a household. Because coping with a child with learning disabilities is so emotionally draining, parents also are encouraged to develop intimacy skills and a support system (Long, 1988: 60-61).

iii) Physiological stress

The final type of stress is physiological stress. Parents of children with learning disabilities need to recognize that children with learning disabilities require exceptional amounts of energy. In order to replenish energy, parents need to be sure they get sufficient rest, eat well-balanced meals, and exercise vigorously. During the workshop, parents learnt meditation or relaxation techniques to use when they feel stressed, anxious, or fatigued.

Parenting children with learning disabilities presents special challenges. Professionals working with parents need to recognize the difficulty parents face when dealing not only with the child's everyday problems but also the associated social and emotional problems of school failure. Parents are eager to learn better coping strategies and parent groups can provide both skill training and emotional support for parents of children with learning disabilities ((Long, 1988: 62).

2.4.4.3 Tips for teachers

a) Avoiding burnout and staying healthy

Long (1988: 72) observed that within the first few weeks of school, there are many new demands made to a teacher: new texts, new students, new techniques, new schedules, and a new way of life. It is an exciting as well as stressful time for new teachers. In the midst of all this excitement, some physical and emotional reactions to the new demands may be noticed. Understanding what is taking place and how to cope with it is very important to the beginning teacher. It is not so much the stress in our lives that hurts us but how we respond to it.

Long (1988: 75-77) developed some useful techniques to keep new teachers from becoming drop-outs:

- Exercising. After a day of teaching, exercising will help in reviving the body. The best cardiovascular activities include walking, swimming, and jogging.

- Leaving teaching at school. If one must lug home schoolwork, it should be done early in the evening. Better yet, it can be done at school and left there.

- Avoiding scheduling of all leisure time. People live by a schedule all day long. Leaving some "open space." will help.

- Getting plenty of sleep. If one is well rested, problems do not always seem so large.

- Pursuing a project or hobby. It helps to find something that requires so much concentration that school is forgotten for a while.

- Finding a friend. A trusted listener should be enlisted. Talking a problem out won't make it go away, but it will relieve some of the stress associated with the problem.

- Avoiding procrastination. Having something "hanging over you" can cause more tension than the project is worth.

- Keeping a "things to do" list. This list should be reviewed daily and at least one or two things should be done daily. As the list gets smaller, one will feel a sense of accomplishment.

- Recognising and accepting one's limitations. Most people set unreasonable and perfectionist goals for themselves. But, we can never be perfect, so we can come to feel a sense of failure or inadequacy no matter how well we perform.

- Learning to tolerate and forgive. Intolerance and judging others often lead to frustration and anger. Trying to really understand the other person's concerns and fears will help.

- Learning to plan. Disorganization breeds stress. Having too many projects going at the same time leads to confusion, forgetfulness and a sense of uncompleted tasks. Plan ahead. One should develop his/her own method of getting things done in an orderly manner.

- Being a positive person. Criticising others should be avoided. People should try to focus on the good qualities of those around them. Excessive criticism of others inevitably reflects on the one who is criticising.

- Learning to play. There is need to escape from the pressures of life and have fun regularly. Finding pastimes or hobbies regardless of one's level of ability will help.

- Ridding oneself of worry. A study has shown that 40 percent of the items people worry about never happen; 35 percent can be changed; 15 percent turn out better than expected; 8 percent involve needless concern; and only 2 percent really deserve attention.

c) Coping with stress in the special education classroom:
Can individual teachers more effectively manage stress?

Meeting the daily learning and behavioral needs of students makes teaching a stressful job. Although not all stress associated with teaching is negative, stress that reduces a teacher's

motivation can have deleterious effects such as alienation from the workplace, absenteeism, and attrition. In fact, when special education teachers are highly stressed by the unmanageability of their workload, they are more likely to leave the special education classroom (Miller, Brownell, & Smith, 1995: 19). The ability to successfully manage stresses related to teaching is critical if special education teachers are to survive and thrive in the classroom.

Despite the current trend toward school-based decision making, many schools remain bureaucratic organizations where teachers have little control over major decisions in their environments and frequently work in isolation (Skrtic, 1991: 205). Further, with increasing demands to be accountable, teachers' work is becoming more intense, leaving many teachers feeling emotionally exhausted (Hargreaves, 1994: 308). Thus, in school bureaucracies, teachers may become stressed by role overload and lack of autonomy.

Additionally, since the focus of teachers' efforts is to help students, many teachers enter special education because of their desire to help children and youth. While the desire to help others can lead to strong student-teacher relationships and can provide teachers with commitment to education, this same desire can also make it difficult for teachers to leave their work at the schoolhouse door. In fact, professionals who are empathic, sympathetic, dedicated, idealistic, and people-oriented are vulnerable to experiencing excessive stress (Cherniss, 1980: 31; Pines, Aronson & Kafry, 1981: 86), particularly when they face the multitude of problems that students with disabilities present. Although special education teachers have many reasons to feel stressed, they can more effectively deal with stress by using specific strategies. As such, the following suggestions are provided to help teachers manage their stress levels.

i) Setting realistic expectations

As a teacher, you can alleviate some of the stress caused by role overload by setting realistic expectations for yourself (Greer & Greer, 1992: 11; Shaw, Bensky, and Dixon, 1981 as cited in ERIC Digest, 1989: 115). As part of their pre-service education, special education teachers are taught to identify the individual needs of students and develop individualized programs for these students. Thus, teachers may develop the expectation that being a successful teacher translates into the ability to solve all students' problems (Greer & Greer, 1992: 26). Although

this expectation is commendable, it is not always possible, particularly for beginning teachers. To competently manage the challenging, diverse
needs of students with disabilities, professionals need to perform at a high level in the areas of curriculum, behavior management, instructional management, collaboration, and paperwork completion. Attempting perfection in each of these areas, especially early in your career, may be unrealistic. Instead, consider targeting one area for improvement over the course of a year and learn as much as you can either through reading, completing course work, or sharing with colleagues. You can also develop more realistic expectations of what you can accomplish. It is impossible to complete all aspects of an overwhelming job with perfection, so setting priorities is a must. List the jobs you must accomplish on a daily basis and determine those that are a priority to you personally and to your administration, and deal with those jobs in order of importance (Greer & Greer, 1992: 31-33).

Develop more realistic expectations about what you can accomplish with students. Reduce the scope and intensity of the emotional relationship you have with students by learning to see them in a more objective light. When working with students with disabilities, teachers can find themselves frustrated by the slow progress students make in learning and in managing their own behavior. In this case, teachers need to remind themselves of the severity of their students' challenges and realize that lack of student progress does not necessarily indicate shortcomings on the teacher's part. Also, realize that although you care for your students, you can only accomplish so much in a school day. If you are working hard each day for your students, pat yourself on the back and recognize that you cannot do it all (Greer & Greer, 1992: 41-42).

ii) Making distinctions between one's job and personal life

Today, a host of sociological factors, such as poverty, child abuse, and single parent families, affect many school-age children. Consequently, teachers are faced with educating students who present a complex array of problems. Being able to show empathy for students and their problems without allowing those problems to consume you is critical. "Teachers who become closely involved and preoccupied with the personal and family problems of their students may increase their vulnerability to burnout" (Greer & Greer, 1992: 108). When you leave the classroom, do the mental work necessary to leave thoughts of your students in the work environment. If you need to share feelings or vent frustrations, set aside a time once or twice

a week to discuss them with another teacher, friend, or significant other. When you discuss frustrations, try to find solutions to the stressful situation. Repeated discussion about your frustrations without any solution only heightens them.

iii) Exercising professional discretion and increasing autonomy

In bureaucracies, authority is "commonly expressed in rules, job descriptions, and work schedules" (Pines & Aronson, 1988: 52). Often the environment seems inflexible at first glance, but in reality the rules are frequently general and open to interpretation. Thus, evaluate each aspect of your job and determine changes to improve your environment that you can reasonably make. Focus your energy on those changes, and leave behind changes that are not within your control. Focusing on "the possible" increases your sense of power and control.

iv) Teachers should not expect praise from the boss

Relying on the principal or district special education director to provide recognition for your hard work is most likely unrealistic. Look for alternative sources of reinforcement, such as students, colleagues, friends, or parents. Also, increase the probability of obtaining reinforcement by informing supervisors and parents of your successes. For example, keep records of student progress that you can share with others.

v) Increasing efficacy

Teachers who have a heightened sense of efficacy, that is, confidence in their ability to teach and manage students, may be less vulnerable to stress because they perceive themselves as having the tools to do their jobs (Bandura, 1993: 107). By keeping records of student progress, you can receive direct feedback on your efforts (Greer & Greer, 1992: 60). Being able to observe student progress is essential, as it is likely to increase your sense of efficacy (Guskey, 1985: 71) and thus reduce the stress you experience. Additionally, implementing best practices in your classroom can increase your sense of efficacy. When you implement best practices and see the resulting student progress, your sense of efficacy typically increases (Englert & Tarrant, 1995: 90-91; Guskey, 1985: 28).

vi) Developing personal coping strategies

Teachers would be well-advised to develop strategies to cope with stress in their teaching positions and personal lives. Research on stress suggests that people have two basic approaches to coping with stress: active and inactive coping strategies. People who use active coping strategies are attempting to change the source of stress or themselves. In contrast, persons who use inactive coping strategies avoid or deny the source of stress. Active coping strategies are considerably more effective in managing stress (Greer & Greer, 1992: 111-112).

c) Coping strategies

i) Direct active strategies

When teachers use direct active coping strategies, they directly intervene with the source of the stress in a way that minimizes the stressful situation. Pines and Aronson (1988) have identified three direct active strategies that employees can use to more effectively manage stress.

First, you can change the source of your stress. You can reduce stress by changing the nature of the stressful situation. For instance, if you perceive that general education teachers in your building are not supportive of your efforts to include students, you may be able to work with your building principal and a general education teacher who is an ally to provide staff development sessions focusing on effective instruction or behavior management for students with disabilities and high-risk students. These staff development sessions could be conducted at faculty meetings or during teacher workdays. By selecting adaptations that are concrete and easy to implement, providing opportunities for ongoing dialogue about the implementation, and supporting teachers in their efforts to learn selected techniques, you can begin to change the practices of your general education colleagues (Gersten & Woodward, 1990: 68-70). Once your colleagues can see change in students with disabilities, they should be more confident in their ability to teach students with disabilities and more willing to teach these students (Guskey, 1985: 45).

Second, you can confront the source of your stress. You can directly deal with stress by discussing problems you are having with a colleague or student. For instance, you may find

that you are encountering difficulties working with your paraprofessional. To work through these difficulties, you can suggest to your paraprofessional that there appear to be some notable tensions when you work together. By airing these difficulties and attempting to negotiate a solution, you may be able to resolve your problems.

Third, you can adopt a positive attitude. When you focus on the positive aspects of your work situation, you can change how you perceive stress and cope with stressful events more effectively (Pines & Aronson, 1988: 231). Try keeping a cheerful, upbeat attitude and remind yourself continually about the aspects of your job that you enjoy. Also, focus on giving others in your environment positive feedback. When you exhibit a positive outlook, others may seek your company, and in turn, you might receive the recognition and support you need.

ii) Indirect active strategies

When teachers use indirect active coping strategies, they attempt to reduce their stress by releasing it or engaging in activities known to reduce stress. They do not, however, attempt to change the source of the stress. The following are a list of indirect active strategies that have been cited in the literature as effective (Greer & Greer, 1992: 85; Pines and Aronson, 1988: 233).

First, you can talk about the source of your stress. As mentioned earlier, seeking the support of others to discuss your stress may be helpful. Talking stressful situations over with a trusted colleague or friend may help you to resolve problems you are encountering. Often, people find that after discussing issues that are disturbing them they are less stressed, particularly when they can generate solutions for the stressful situation. Carefully select the person with whom you want to share your troubles. A person who can keep confidences and help you see the situation more objectively is often the best source of support.

Second, you can change the way you perceive the source of your stress. When people change the way they view the stress, they are taking steps toward reducing their stress. As mentioned earlier, developing more realistic expectations about your students goes a long way toward relieving guilt, worry, and subsequent stress. Also, examine the personality and strengths of other professionals in your environment. Determining what you can realistically expect from

these professionals will assist you in identifying those persons from whom you can solicit support (Greer & Greer, 1992: 109)..

Third, you can get involved in other activities that take your mind off school issues. Finding hobbies, exercising, and seeking social outlets outside of school will help you to mentally distance yourself from work. Exercising is documented to be particularly effective in reducing stress (Long, 1988: 87) and the physical symptoms associated with stress. Also, having time for yourself, whether you are exercising or engaging in another enjoyable activity, is paramount to gathering your thoughts and rejuvenating yourself.

Finally, you can change your diet to reduce stress. Certain foods, such as coffee, chocolate, and soft drinks, are loaded with caffeine, a stimulant known to increase anxiety. If you are experiencing extreme stress, try cutting caffeine products out of your diet. Also, teachers' diets often overemphasize refined carbohydrates and fatty foods with an inadequate emphasis on fiber (Bradfield and Fones, 1984: 350-352). Decreasing your fat, sugar, and caffeine intake while increasing your intake of fruits and vegetables may help you feel better physically and mentally.

Researchers have established that effective coping strategies reduce workplace related stress. District and school administrators, however, are ultimately responsible for reducing stress in the school environment (Aronson & Pines, 1988: 134-136). Expecting teachers to better manage their stress in an unsupportive environment where clear role expectations do not exist is an unproductive approach to resolving teacher burnout problems. Efforts to create more productive, caring, clearly defined work situations and improve teachers' skills are the best prevention against teacher stress.

d) Supporting professionals-at-risk:
Evaluating interventions to reduce burnout and improve retention of special educators

Cooley and Yovanoff (1996: 209-212) developed two interventions which were designed to equip participants with specific problem solving and coping strategies for dealing more effectively with the stressors they encounter on the job. The interventions targeted self-

preservation skill for educators - those skills and strategies most likely to help an individual remain relatively "sane," even in relatively "insane"" places.

i) Intervention 1: Stress management-burnout prevention workshops

As mentioned, many of the stressful aspects of the special education teaching profession are either inherent to the situation or difficult to change. Moreover, the burnout that often results from demanding and stressful working conditions can itself exacerbate difficulties because of its accompanying negative, self-defeating coping behaviors. Coping takes many forms. Approaches to handling stress may be either direct (e.g., changing the source of stress) or indirect (e.g., changing the way one thinks about or physically responds to the stress to reduce its impact). In addition, coping strategies may be active (e.g., taking some action to change oneself or the situation) or inactive (e.g., avoiding or denying the source of stress). In general, active strategies are more effective than inactive ones, while both direct and indirect strategies can be constructive (Pines & Aronson, 1988: 147).

ii) Intervention 2: The peer collaboration program

Because of the apparent value of collegial support in preventing or alleviating job stress and burnout, researchers have advocated creating more regular opportunities for peer support for special education teachers and others in stressful job roles.

Due to its emphasis on supportive, constructive dialogue between professional peers, this intervention seems to have potential for addressing issues of collegial isolation and lack of administrative support among special educators (Pines & Aronson, 1988: 148).

The Peer Collaboration Program, as originally developed, consisted of training pairs of teachers to use a four-step collegial dialogue to assist each other in identifying and solving student related problems. For this study, it was modified to apply other work-related problems as well. Via this process, each member of the pair takes a turn as - "initiator" (the one presenting a problem) and a "facilitator" (the one providing assistance in problem-solving). The four steps were as follows:

1. Clarifying. The initiating teacher brings a brief, written description of the problem and responds to clarifying questions asked by the facilitator. This step is the longest of the four designed to assist the initiating teacher to think of the problem in different or expanded ways. This step continues until the initiating teacher feels that all of the relevant issues have been covered and is ready to move on to summarizing.

2. Summarizing. In this step, the initiating teacher summarizes three facets of the problem being discussed: the specific patterns of behavior that are problematic, the teacher's typical response to them, and the particular aspects of the problem that fall under the teacher's control.

3. Intervention and prediction. The teachers together generate three possible action plans, and the initiator predicts possible positive and negative outcomes for each one. The initiator then chooses one of the solutions for implementation.

4. Evaluation. The initiator develops a two-part plan to evaluate the solution's effectiveness. The first part consists of a plan to answer the question "Did I do it?" (i.e., implementation of the solution), and the second part consists of ways to answer the question "Did it work?" (i.e., impact on targeted outcomes).

Schools can use these strategies as effective tools in equipping teachers with specific problem solving and coping strategies for dealing more effectively with the stressors they encounter on the job (Pines & Aronson, 1988: 149-155).

2.5 SYNTHESIS

Burnout results from the chronic perception that one is unable to cope with daily life demands. Given that teachers must face a classroom full of students every day, negotiate potentially stressful interactions with parents, administrators, counselors, and other teachers, contend with relatively low pay and shrinking school budgets, and ensure students meet increasingly strict standards of accountability, it is no wonder many experience a form of burnout at some point in their careers. Efforts at primary prevention, in which teachers' jobs are modified to give them more control over their environment and more resources for coping with the demands of being an educator, are preferable over secondary or tertiary interventions

that occur after burnout symptoms have surfaced. However, research reviewed here indicates each type of prevention can be useful in helping teachers contend with an occupation that puts them at risk for burnout.

Chapter 3 will deal with Research Methodology.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to gain the views of teachers and school administrators on teacher burnout in their schools. This chapter will outline the methodologies employed, how the research was conducted and the steps taken to ensure validity and reliability.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

After the researcher has identified a research problem and completed the literature review, a research design has to be developed. A research design is a plan by which specific activities of the research can be conducted and brought to successful closure (Wiersman, 1995: 92). According to Letlogo (1998: 45) the researcher has to select or design an instrument that will enable him to collect valid and reliable information about the variable he is investigating. This implies that the researcher should determine:

- Exactly what is that he or she wants to measure or find out?
- This takes the researcher back to the purpose of the study. Has he stated the purpose clearly/

3.2.1 The questionnaire

In the investigation of this study the questionnaire was employed as a tool for collecting data. A questionnaire is one of the tools for collecting data in surveys (Borg & Gall, 1989: 22). A questionnaire is a device, which enables respondents to answer questions. It is important to design a questionnaire that will give you the information you want (Letlogo, 1998: 46). Well-designed questionnaires are highly structured to allow the same types of information to be collected from a large number of people in the same way and for data to be analysed quantitatively and systematically. Questionnaires are best used for collecting factual data and appropriate questionnaire design is essential to ensure that we obtain valid responses to our questions (Leung, 2001: 321).

Objectives in designing questionnaires

According to Leung (2001: 333), there are two main objectives in designing a questionnaire:

- To maximize the proportion of subjects answering our questionnaire – that is, the response rate.
- To obtain accurate relevant information for our survey.

To maximize our response rate, we have to consider carefully how we administer the questionnaire, establish rapport, explain the purpose of the survey, and remind those who have not responded. The length of the questionnaire should be appropriate. In order to obtain accurate relevant information, we have to give some thought to what questions we have ask, how we ask them, the order we ask them in, and the general layout of the questionnaire.

3.2.2 Advantages of a questionnaire

According to Hopkins (1994: 165) and Bourque and Fielder (1995: 44) the following are advantages of a questionnaire:

- Easy to administer and quick to fill in.
- Easy to follow up.
- Provides direct comparison of groups and individuals.
- Provides feedback on attitudes, adequacy of resources, adequacy of teacher help.
- Data are quantified.
- Useful in pre-testing.
- Maximizes confidentiality in face-to-face interviews.

3.2.3 Disadvantages of a questionnaire

The questionnaire is a commonly used tool for data collection. However, there are some criticism to the use of a questionnaire. Wiersma (1995: 101) and Schnelter (1989: 24) in Letlogo (1998: 47-48) and Bourque (1995: 60) mention the following disadvantages;

- Excessive non-response rates.
- Poorly constructed items.
- Questionnaires deal with not serious information.
- Data from different questions are difficult to synthesise, and
- No control over who responds.

According to Van Dalan (1979: 221) to overcome the difficulty of poorly – constructed questionnaires, items should deal with meaningful research problems, questionnaires are to be structured carefully and administered effectively to qualified respondent.

3.2.4 Construction of a questionnaire

It is harder to produce a really good questionnaire than might be imagined. The construction of questionnaires is a straightforward process, but without careful attention to detail, the items may be put together poorly and not provide the necessary data for the study (Wiersma, 1995: 105).

3.2.5 The Structure of the questionnaire

According to UNISA (1998: 132-134) questions in a questionnaire are either open-ended or closed.

a) Open-ended questions

The respondents are given the opportunity to express their own opinions or make a choice other than the ones listed.

i) Advantages of open-ended questions

- They may be interesting as opening questions.
- They are good for explanatory research if the researcher has no preconceived idea of the type of answer to expect.

ii) Disadvantages of open-ended questions

- They require writing skills, thus eliminating potential respondents without such skills.
- Such questions are left unanswered.
- The questions are difficult to code and analyse.
- Thy may yield worthless information.

b) Closed questions

Te respondents are given a number of fixed items to choose from.

i) Advantages of closed questions

- The questions are generally easy to understand.
- They are easy to answer.
- They are easy to code and analyse.
- They can ensure anonymity.
- They yield usable information.

ii) Disadvantages of closed questions

- They may frustrate the respondent if their preferred answer is not included in the list.
- The respondents may sometimes be selected at random.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections. Section A (questions 1-5) the purpose of these questions was together demographic data and biological information about the respondents. Biological data will help understand background information of respondents.

Section B (questions 6- 9) the questions were constructed to get data on teachers and school administrators on their views of teacher burnout in their schools.

In Section C (questions 10 -14) the respondents were to give their views on teacher burnout in their schools using open-ended questions.

A five-point scale was provided for teachers and school heads to indicate their opinion. (1-Strongly Agree; 2-Agree; 3-Undecided; 4-Diagree; 5-Strongly Disagree).

It is harder to produce a really good questionnaire than might be imagined. Barrat and Cole (1994: 73) offered the following guidelines in designing a questionnaire:

- **Length**

Keep questionnaires brief, ten minutes is a reasonable time for completion. If they are too long, or take ages to complete respondents may be put off. Only asks for information, which you really need.

- **Presentation**

A questionnaire should be attractively laid out and simple to follow and complete. If you offer respondents the opportunity to answer in their own words, a reasonably sized and clearly marked space should be left.

- **Instructions**

It should be indicated how long the questionnaire will take to complete. State clearly a return date and how the questionnaire has to be returned to you.

- **Preamble**

This is a brief statement explaining the purpose of the questionnaire. The success of a questionnaire is dependent on the goodwill of the respondents, make clear what is involved and give assurance of confidentiality. The preamble should be clearly printed at the top of the questionnaire or it could be included in an introductory note distributed with the questionnaire.

3.2.6 Development of a questionnaire

- An ideal questionnaire should be clear, unambiguous and uniformly workable (Davison, 1970 in Cohen & Minion, 1996: 147). Cohen *et al*; (1996: 74) stated the following when developing questions:
- Avoid leading questions.
- Avoid difficult questions.
- Avoid irritating questions or instructions.
- Avoid questions that use negatives.

3.2.7 Pre-Testing of a questionnaire

The first draft of a questionnaire is never perfect and ready to administer. All questionnaires should be pre-tested (Bourque *et al*, 1995: 21). Piloting will be done with two rural secondary schools and two urban secondary schools. A total of five teachers and school administrators will be randomly selected from each school making a grand total of 20 respondents. Some changes will be made to the wording and some questions will be cancelled. Barrat et al., (1994: 63) noted that the pilot studies are most effective when carried out people who are like those you approach when you begin to distribute the questionnaire. Piloting helps to highlight potential shortcoming of research instrument and if spotted early many potential faults can be corrected. According to UNISA (1998: 134) testing of a questionnaire is to determine if the wording of the question is clear, to check if the questions are unambiguously stated, to find out how long does it take to fill the questionnaire and what is the effect of different question wording on the responses.

3.3 DATA COLLECTION

3.3.1 Administrative procedures

A standard letter for permission to assess the sampled schools will be written explaining the purpose of the study. Ideally, the researcher wants to have personal contact with all the respondents, but due to time constraints only the school heads will be contacted. Since it is impossible to meet subjects face to face an accompanying letter explaining the purpose of questionnaire will be attached to each questionnaire. UNISA (1998: 135) contents that people selected to take part in the survey need to be informed as to the objectives of that particular

survey and they need to know why they should respond to the survey. This can be achieved through a covering letter in the case of a questionnaire.

3.3.2 Follow-ups

The researcher will allow two days in each school to fill in the questionnaire. This is in order to give the teachers who are busy time for filling the questionnaire.

3.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

Sampling is efficient and precise. Samples can be studied more quickly than targets populations and they are also less expensive to assemble. Sampling is efficient in that resources that might go into collecting data on an unnecessarily large number of individuals or groups can be spent on other activities like monitoring the quality of data collection (Fink, 1995: 38).

The research will be conducted among twenty schools in Botswana. The schools will be drawn from a sample of ten rural secondary schools and ten urban secondary schools in the Southern District of Botswana. Out of each school five teachers and school administrators were randomly selected. The purpose of using stratified sampling was to investigate the effect of teacher burnout in different geographical locations. This will be shown In Chapter Four, if location has any effect on teacher's perceptions.

The sample population will be selected in the following way:

Table 3.1 Distribution of the sample population

School location	Sample population of secondary schools	Sample population of secondary school teachers and administrators	%
Urban	10	50	50
Rural	10	50	50
Total	**20**	**100**	**100**

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS

A spreadsheet coupled with both descriptive and inferential statistics will be used to analyse and interpret the data. An independent T-test will be computed to determine whether there is a significant difference on the effects of teacher burnout between male and female respondents and also respondents from rural and urban schools.

Chapter 4 discusses the detailed data analysis.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focused on data analysis and interpretation. The main focus is to examine the data in relation to the purpose of the study, the hypothesis and the specific questions.

4.1 DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Table 4.1 Demographic data

Item			Frequency	% Frequency
Age Category	Below 20	Males	0	0
		Females	0	0
		Total	**0**	**0**
	Between 21 and 25	Males	2	2
		Females	0	0
		Total	**2**	**2**
	Between 26 and 30	Males	13	13
		Females	20	20
		Total	**33**	**33**
	Between 31 and 35	Males	11	11
		Females	28	28
		Total	**39**	**39**
	Between 36 and 40	Males	18	22.5
		Females	14	17.5
		Total	**32**	**40.0**
	Between 41 and 45	Males	9	9
		Females	10	10
		Total	**19**	**19**
	Between 46 and 50	Males	0	0.0
		Females	0	0.0
		Total	**0**	**0.0**
	Between 51 and 55	Males	0	0
		Females	0	0
		Total	**0**	**0**
	56 and above	Males	0	0
		Females	1	1
		Total	**1**	**1**
Gender		Males	37	37
		Females	63	63
		Total	**100**	**100**
Marital Status	Males	Married	17	17

		Single	20	20
		Total	**37**	**37**
	Females	Married	24	24
		Single	39	39
		Total	**63**	**63**
Position of Responsibility	School Head	Males	1	
		Females	5	5
		Total	**6**	**6**
	Deputy Head	Males	1	1
		Females	3	3
		Total	**4**	**4**
	Senior Teacher	Males	12	12
		Females	12	12
		Total	**24**	**24**
	Head of Department	Males	6	6
		Females	5	5
		Total	**11**	**11**
	Class Teacher	Males	18	18
		Females	37	37
		Total	**55**	**55**
School Location	Town	Males	26	26
		Females	53	53
		Total	**79**	**79**
	Village	Males	11	11
		Females	10	10
		Total	**21**	**21**

Table 4.1 shows that the majority of the respondents (72%) were in the age groups 26 to 30, 31 to 35 and 36 to 40. 37% of the respondents in the survey were male and 63% were female. 37% of the respondents were married and 63% were single.

6% of respondents were school heads, 4% were deputy heads, 24% were senior teachers, 11% were senior teachers and 55% were class teachers.

79% of respondents were stationed at urban schools and 21% were stationed at rural schools.

4.2 TYPICAL SYMPTOMS OF TEACHER BURNOUT

The following key was used to interpret the responses:

F – Frequency
%F – Percentage Frequency
1 – Strongly Agree
2 – Agree
3 – Undecided

4 – Disagree
5 – Strongly Disagree

Table 4.2 Symptoms of teacher burnout

Item		1		2		3		4		5		Totals	
		F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F
6.1	Lack of energy to do work	50	50	31	31	3	3	13	13	2	2	100	100
6.2	Lack of joy in one's work	67	67	30	30	2	2	0	0	1	1	100	100
6.3	Lack of enthusiasm	51	51	35	35	13	13	0	0	1	1	100	100
6.4	Lack of satisfaction	52	52	37	37	11	11	0	0	0	0	100	100
6.5	Lack of motivation	60	60	36	36	2	2	2	2	0	0	100	100
6.6	Lack of interest and zest	72	72	21	21	4	4	0	0	3	3	100	100
6.7	Lack of dreams for life	36	36	42	42	3	3	2	2	17	17	100	100
6.8	Lack of ideas	40	40	16	16	11	11	23	23	10	10	100	100
6.9	Lack of concentration	45	45	27	27	7	7	11	11	10	10	100	100
6.10	Lack of permission to play	34	34	25	25	0	0	6	6	35	35	100	100
6.11	Lack of self-confidence	29	29	19	19	16	16	12	12	24	24	100	100
6.12	No sense of humour	32	32	16	16	21	21	7	7	24	24	100	100

The following analysis relates to table 4.2.

a) 50% of respondents strongly agreed that the typical symptom of teacher burnout is lack of energy to do work, 31% agreed, 3% were undecided, 13% disagreed and 2 strongly disagreed.

b) 67% of respondents strongly agreed that the typical symptom of teacher burnout is lack of joy in one's work, 30% agreed, 2% were undecided, and 1% strongly disagreed.

c) 51% of the respondents strongly agreed that the typical symptom of teacher burnout is lack of enthusiasm, 35% agreed, 13% were undecided, and 1% strongly disagreed.

d) 52% of respondents strongly agreed that the typical symptom of teacher burnout is lack of satisfaction, 37% agreed and 11% were undecided.

e) 60% of respondents strongly agreed that the typical symptom of teacher burnout is lack of motivation, 36% agreed, 2% were undecided and 2% disagreed.

f) 72% of respondents agreed that the typical symptom of teacher burnout is lack of interest and zest, 21% agreed, 4% were undecided and 3% strongly disagreed.

g) 36% of respondents strongly agreed that the typical symptom of teacher burnout is lack of dreams for life, 42% agreed, 3% were undecided, 2% disagreed and 17% strongly disagreed.

h) 40% of respondents strongly agreed that the typical symptom of teacher burnout is lack of ideas, 16% agreed, 11% were undecided, 23% disagreed and 10% strongly disagreed.

i) 45% of the respondents strongly agreed that the typical symptom of teacher burnout is lack of concentration, 27% agreed, 7% were undecided, 11% disagreed and 10% strongly disagreed.

j) 34% of respondents strongly agreed that the typical symptom of teacher burnout is lack of permission to play, 24% agreed, 6% disagreed and 35% strongly disagreed.

k) 29% of respondents strongly agreed that the typical symptom of teacher burnout is lack of self confidence, 19% agreed, 16% were undecided, 12% disagreed and 24% strongly disagreed.

l) 32% of respondents strongly agreed that the typical symptom of teacher burnout is lack of sense of humour, 16% agreed, 21% were undecided, 7% disagreed and 24% strongly disagreed.

Table 4.3 Causes of teacher burnout

	Item	1		2		3		4		5		Totals	
		F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F
7.1	Inadequate discipline policies of the school	40	40	28	28	28	28	2	2	2	2	100	100
7.2	Negative attitude and behaviour of the administrators	60	60	23	23	1	1	16	16	0	0	100	100
7.3	Evaluations by administrators/supervisors	44	44	31	31	5	5	15	15	5	5	100	100
7.4	Attitudes and behaviour of	44	44	48	48	1	1	5	5	2	2	100	100

	other teachers/professionals												
7.5	Work overload	70	70	22	22	4	4	2	2	2	2	100	100
7.6	Poor career opportunities in the teaching field	66	66	30	30	2	2	0	0	2	2	100	100
7.7	Low status of the teaching profession	67	67	18	18	2	2	7	7	6	6	100	100
7.8	Lack of recognition for good teaching	68	68	18	18	4	4	7	7	3	3	100	100
7.9	Loud, noisy students	17	17	44	44	4	4	11	11	24	24	100	100
7.10	Dealing with difficult/uncooperative parents	34	34	34	34	9	9	8	8	15	15	100	100

The following is the analysis for table 4.3.

a) 40% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout is caused by inadequate discipline policies of the school, 28% agreed, 28% were undecided, 2% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.

b) 60% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout is caused by the negative attitude and behaviour of the administrators, 23% agreed, 1% were undecided and 16% disagreed.

c) 44% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout is caused by evaluations by administrators/supervisors, 31% agreed, 5% were undecided, 15% disagreed and 5% strongly disagreed.

d) 44% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout is caused by attitudes and behaviour of other teachers/professionals, 48% agreed, 1% were undecided, 5% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.

e) 70% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout is caused by work overload, 22% agreed, 4% were undecided, 2% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.

f) 66% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout is caused by poor career opportunities, 30% agreed, 2% were undecided and 2% strongly disagreed.

g) 67% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout is caused by the low status of the teaching profession, 18% agreed, 2% were undecided, 7% disagreed and 6% strongly disagreed.

h) 68% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout is caused by lack of recognition for good teaching, 18% agreed, 4% were undecided, 7% disagreed and 3% strongly disagreed.

i) 17% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout is caused by loud, noisy students, 44% agreed, 4% were undecided, 11% disagreed and 24% strongly disagreed.

j) 34% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout is caused by dealing with difficult/uncooperative parents, 34% agreed, 9% were undecided, 8% disagreed and 15% strongly disagreed.

Table 4.4 How teacher burnout relates to responsibility, gender and school location.

Item	1		2		3		4		5		Totals	
	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F
1 The level of teacher burnout is not affected by one's position of responsibility within the school setting.	5	5	11	11	12	12	47	47	25	25	100	100
2 The level of teacher burnout is not effected by one's gender.	11	11	11	11	15	15	15	15	48	48	100	100
3 The level of teacher burnout is not affected by school location.	14	14	8	8	0	0	52	52	26	26	100	100

The following is an analysis for table 4.4:

a) 5% of respondents strongly agreed that the level of teacher burnout is not affected by one's position of responsibility within the school setting, 11% agreed, 12% were undecided, 47% disagreed and 25% strongly disagreed.

b) 11% of respondents strongly agreed that the level of teacher burnout is not affected by one's gender, 11% agreed, 15% were undecided, 15% disagreed and 48% strongly disagreed.

c) 14% of respondents strongly agreed that the level of teacher burnout is not affected by school location, 8% agreed, 52% disagreed and 26% strongly disagreed.

Table 4.5 How teacher burnout can be prevented/controlled.

Item	1		2		3		4		5		Totals	
	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F
Doing relaxing activities	43	43	31	31	2	2	10	10	14	14	100	100
Organizing time and setting priorities	64	64	25	25	3	3	3	3	5	5	100	100
Maintaining diet and exercise	56	56	26	26	4	4	11	11	3	3	100	100
Discussing problems with professional colleagues	69	69	23	23	3	3	2	2	3	3	100	100
Taking a day off.	51	51	18	18	6	6	6	6	19	19	100	100

The following is an analysis for table 4.5:

a) 43% of respondents strongly agreed that teachers can prevent/control teacher burnout doing relaxing exercises, 31% agreed, 2% were undecided, 10% disagreed and 14% strongly disagreed.

b) 64% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout can be prevented/controlled by organising time and setting priorities, 25% agreed, 3% were undecided, 3% disagreed and 5% strongly disagreed.

c) 56% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout can be prevented/controlled by maintaining diet and exercise, 26% agreed, 4% were undecided, 11% disagreed and 3% strongly disagreed.

d) 69% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout can be prevented/controlled by discussing problems with professional colleagues, 23% agreed, 3% were undecided, 2% disagreed and 3% strongly disagreed.

e) 51% of respondents strongly agreed that teacher burnout can be prevented/controlled by taking a day off, 18% agreed, 6% were undecided, 6% disagreed and 19% strongly disagreed.

Table 4.6 How administrators can assist teachers control burnout.

	Item	1		2		3		4		5		Totals	
		F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F	F	%F
10.1	Allowing time for teachers to collaborate/talk	53	53	23	23	20	20	0	0	4	4	100	100
10.2	Providing more workshop/in-services/advanced courses	73	73	18	18	7	7	1	1	0	0	100	100
10.3	Providing more verbal praise/reinforcement/respect for the job	59	59	30	30	2	2	2	2	1	1	100	100
10.4	Providing more support	79	79	15	15	6	6	0	0	0	0	100	100
10.5	Providing more paraprofessionals/support staff/clerical assistance	60	60	40	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	100
10.6	Providing more educational opportunities to learn about students with behavioural disorders and program options	84	84	15	15	0	0	0	0	1	1	100	100
10.7	Building better communication and decision-making involvement with administrators	80	80	20	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	100

The following is an analysis for table 4.6:

a) 53% of respondents strongly agreed that school administrators can assist teachers prevent/control burnout by allowing time for teachers to collaborate/talk, 23% agreed, 20% were undecided and 4% disagreed.

b) 73% of respondents strongly agreed that school administrators can assist teachers prevent/control burnout by providing more workshop/in-service/advanced courses, 18% agreed, 7% were undecided, and 1% disagreed.

c) 59% of respondents strongly agreed that school administrators can help teachers prevent/control burnout by providing more verbal praise/reinforcement/respect for the job, 30% agreed, 2% were undecided, 2% disagreed and 1% strongly disagreed.

d) 79% of respondents strongly agreed that school administrators can help teachers prevent/control burnout by providing more support, 15% agreed and 6% were undecided.

e) 60% of respondents strongly agreed that school administrators can help teachers prevent/control burnout by providing more paraprofessionals/support staff/clerical assistance and 40% agreed.

f) 84% of respondents strongly agreed that school administrators can help teachers prevent/control burnout by providing more educational opportunities to learn about students with behaviour disorders and program options, 15% agreed and 1% strongly disagreed.

g) 80% of respondents strongly agreed that school administrators can help teachers prevent/control burnout by building better communication and decision-making involvement with administrators and 20% agreed.

Table 4.7 Effect of teacher burnout if one fails to cope with it.

The following were the responses ranked in order:

Effect	% Response
It leads to low productivity of the teacher.	64
Teachers are likely to suffer from stress related disease.	55
Teacher's morale may be lowered.	49
Teachers may turn to drugs and substance abuse.	47
Teachers may quit the profession prematurely.	36
This can also lead to disintegration of the family of the teacher.	28

64% of the respondents felt that if one fails to cope with teacher burnout, it leads to low productivity of the teacher, 55% felt that teachers are likely to suffer from stress related disease, 49% said that the teacher's morale would be lowered, 47% said that teachers may turn to drug and substance abuse, 36% said that teachers may quit the profession prematurely and 28% said that this can also lead to disintegration of the family of the teacher.

Table 4.8 Effect of teacher burnout if administrators leave it unattended.

Effect	% Response
Poor performance in terms of school results.	75
Poor performance of teachers.	63
Unpleasant behaviour among students.	55
Teachers will have no sense of direction.	51
There will be poor working relationship between teachers and administrators.	33
Teachers may vent their frustration on students.	30
There is no effect on teacher burnout if school administrators leave it unattended.	28

75% of respondents said that if teachers burnout is left unattended by school administrators it will lead to poor performance in terms of school results, 63% said that it will lead to poor performance of teachers, 55% said that it will lead to unpleasant behaviour among students, 51% said that teachers will have no sense of direction, 33% said that there will be poor working relationship between teachers and administrators, 30% said that teachers may vent their frustration on students and 28% said that there is no effect on teacher burnout if school administrators leave it unattended..

Table 4.9 Role of parents.

The following were the responses for those who said parents have a role to play on the issue of teacher burnout:

Effect	% Response
In classes where parents are actively involved in the learning of their children, teachers tend to get motivated	72
Parents should work together with teachers so that students can take studies seriously	68
Parents should work together in the proper upbringing of their children; if parents do not cooperate with teachers, teaching cannot be affective.	59
No – parents have no role to play on the issue of teacher burnout.	54
Parents should work together to help in student discipline.	38
Parents can help to control unpleasant behaviour among students	27

72% of respondents reported that in classes where parents are actively involved in the learning of their children, teachers tend to get motivated, 68% said that parents should work together with teachers so that they can take their studies seriously, 59% said that parents should work together in the upbringing of their children, or else if parents do not cooperate with teachers teaching will not be effective, 54% said that parents have no role to play on the issue of teacher burnout, 38% said parents should work together to help in student discipline, and 27% said that parents can help to control unpleasant behaviour among students.

Table 4.10 Role of school environment.

The following were the responses for those who said that the school environment has a role to play on the issue of teacher burnout:

Response	% Response
Repainting and refurbishing of classrooms creates a pleasant atmosphere for learning.	69
If an environment which is conducive to teaching is created, teacher burnout becomes minimal.	60
Teacher burnout occurs if there are no teaching facilities and teaching and learning cannot occur properly.	48
If the teaching environment is not conducive this will not boost the morale of teachers to their work effectively.	47
If a teacher does not have good relationship with his colleagues or especially management the environment can be very stressful.	42
Some schools have students who come from the outskirts of Gaborone and these students normally do not attend school regularly, thus making it difficult for teacher to teach in such a way that they complete finish the syllabus on time.	36

69% or respondents agreed that repainting and refurbishing of classrooms creates a pleasant atmosphere for learning, 60% of respondents agreed that if an environment which is conducive to teaching is created, teacher burnout becomes minimal, 48% of respondents agreed that teacher burnout occurs if there are no teaching facilities and teaching and learning cannot occur properly, 47% agreed that if the teaching environment is not conducive this will

not boost the morale of teachers to their work effectively, 42% of respondents agreed that if a teacher does not have good relationship with his colleagues or especially management the environment can be very stressful and 36% of respondents agreed that some schools have students who come from the outskirts of Gaborone and these students normally do not attend school regularly, thus making it difficult for teacher to teach in such a way that they complete finish the syllabus on time.

Table 4.11 Role of Ministry of Education.

The following were the responses for those who said the Ministry of Education has a role to play on the issue of teacher burnout:

Response	% Response
Conditions of work in the teaching service have to be seriously addressed and all bottle –necks in the teachers progression as soon as possible as this could lift morale motivational level in the profession	85
Salary increment are important to motivate them	79
Teachers to go for further training	76
Awarding teachers who go for further and higher training. The knowledge and skills they gain will be of their benefit and also for the nation	67
Salary increment annually to motivate teachers	61
Further training for teachers	50
School vacations help the teacher rest, and in-service workshops can be refreshing.	46
Make sure that teachers are allocated fewer classes for good performance and give teachers chance to move about their student. Provide good salaries relevant to the job done. Also provide enough housing and educational opportunity especially for masters degree and promotion on the job	40

85% or respondents agreed that conditions of work in the teaching service have to be seriously addressed and all bottle –necks in the teachers progression as soon as possible as

this could lift morale motivational level in the profession, 79% of respondents agreed that salary increment are important to motivate them, 76% agreed that teachers needed to go for further training, 67% of respondents agreed that awarding teachers who go for further and higher training, the knowledge and skills they gain will be of their benefit and also for the nation, 61% of respondents agreed that annual salary increments motivate teachers, 50% of respondents agreed that teachers should be taken for further training, 46% of respondents agreed that school vacations help the teachers to rest, and in-service workshops can be refreshing and 40% of respondents agreed that the Ministry of Education should make sure that teachers are allocated fewer classes for good performance and give teachers chance to move about their student. Teachers should also be provided with good salaries relevant to the job done. Adequate housing and educational opportunities should be provided, especially for teachers with masters degree.

4.2 Hypothesis

A t-test was used to test each of the hypotheses given in Chapter 1:

The full results of the t-test output are shown in Appendix D. The summary results, ranked in order of significance, are as follows:

On relationship between teacher burnout and the teacher's duties and position of responsibility at school, the t-test statistic was 4.273. This result means that there is a relationship between teacher burnout and the teacher's duties and position of responsibility at school.

On whether or not there are structures to assist teachers to cope with burnout, the t-statistic was 3.885. This is a significant result and shows that schools and policy makers have not put in place structures for teachers to assist them to cope with burnout.

On positive relationship between teacher burnout and teacher's school location, the t-statistic was 2.220, which is also a significant result. This shows that teacher burnout affects teachers from different geographical locations differently.

On evidence of preventative and control measures against the occurrence of teacher burnout in Botswana secondary schools, the t-test statistic was 2.153. This is a significant

result which means that schools and policy makers have not put in Place control and preventative measures against the occurrence of teacher burnout in Botswana secondary schools.

The last test statistic was on whether there is a significant positive relationship between teacher burnout and teacher's gender. This value was 0.295. This is not a significant value and shows that teacher burnout affects both male and female teachers equally.

4.3 Summary of findings

The above findings show that there is a relationship between teacher burnout and the following:

The teacher's duties and position of responsibility at school.

Lack of structures to assist teachers to cope with burnout.

The teachers' school location.

Lack of preventative and control measures against the occurrence of teacher burnout in Botswana secondary schools.

The findings showed that there is no evidence of a relationship between teacher burnout and gender.

4.4 SYNTHESIS

In summary, there is evidence to show that teachers and administrators are aware of the typical symptoms of teacher burnout. It is a problem which affects their profession and they are all aware of its existence. Both teachers and administrators were also able to highlight some of the major causes of teacher burnout. The majority of respondents were able to positively identify the relationship between teacher burnout and position of responsibility and school location. Respondents agreed that those holding administrative positions are the ones most affected by teacher burnout. Respondents also agreed that those teaching in remote schools are the worst affected by teacher burnout. Teachers and

administrators agreed that teacher burnout does not discriminate on the basis of gender. Respondents were able to suggest some of the preventative/control measures against teacher burnout. They were also able to point out what school administrators, parents and the Ministry of Education can do to assist teachers to cope with teacher burnout.

The final chapter will focus on Conclusions and Recommendations.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

From the various findings the study shows that the majority of teachers (96%) indicated that teacher burnout is caused by poor career opportunities in the teaching field, followed by those who cited work overload (92%) and attitude and behaviour of fellow teachers and professionals (92%). The majority of respondents (78%) indicated that teacher burnout is affected by school location, the majority (72%) indicated that teacher burnout is affected by one's position of responsibility within the school setting and the majority (63%) also indicated that teacher burnout is affected by one's gender. The majority of teachers (92%) agreed that teacher burnout can be prevented/controlled by discussing problems with professional colleagues.

The above findings are supported by findings from literature. Corey (1996: 58-62) cited lack of continuing education or other forms of in-service training as one of the major causes of teacher burnout. He also cited constant and strong pressure to produce, perform, and meet deadlines, many of which may be unrealistic as another major cause of teacher burnout. Another major cause of teacher burnout cited by Corey was conflict and tension among staff;; absence of support from colleagues and an abundance of criticism. Similar findings were also reported by Cedoline (1982: 43-55). Too many responsibilities, work at a too rapid pace and supervising too many people were cited by Cedoline among the major causes of teacher burnout. Mitchell and Richardson, (1993: 219-221) suggested in their finding that stress coping mechanisms like confidential discussions with affected teachers and creating debriefing mechanisms can assist teachers prevent/control burnout.

5.2 IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

The findings have the following implications with regard to remedies for teacher burnout.

The majority of teachers can define what teacher burnout is. Lack of motivation (96%), lack of joy in one's work (91%), lack of satisfaction (89%) and lack of enthusiasm (86%) were cited as the key definitions of burnout. This means burnout is a problem which teachers are aware of.

Another implication of the findings is that the majority of teachers are aware of the causes of teacher burnout. Poor career opportunities (96%), work overload (92%), attitudes and behaviour of other teachers/professionals (92%), lack of recognition for good teaching (86%) and the low status of the teaching profession (85%) were cited as the major causes of teacher burnout. It is from these causes of burnout that solutions to the problem can be found. Teachers were also able to identify some of the preventative/control measures for burnout.

The findings showed that teacher burnout is related to one's school location (78%); one's position of responsibility within the school setting (72%) and gender (63%).

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings in Chapter 4, the researcher suggests the following recommendations as remedies for teacher burnout:

5.3.1 There is need for improvement of relations between school administrators and their subordinate teachers. This will benefit both the school administrators and the teachers.

a. School administrators should reverse their negative attitude and behaviour.
b. Evaluations by administrators on teachers should be done in a fair and impartial way. Currently this is proving to be a source of breeding ground for burnout.
c. Administrators and other stakeholders should learn to appreciate the good work teachers are doing.
d. Teachers should also change their attitude and behaviour towards each other. At the present moment teachers are not offering professional support to their colleagues and this a having a toll especially on newcomers to the profession.

5.3.2 The workload of teachers and an un-conducive work environment are contributing to their wear and tear.

a. Teaching loads should be reduced so that teachers are free to do other things like taking time to relax. Policy makers like the Ministry of Education can overcome this by recruiting more teachers in schools so that the additional teachers can absorb the extra workload of those who are overburdened.

b. Teachers often deal with difficult/uncooperative parents. School administrators can facilitate more interaction between teachers and parents so that the parents can appreciate what teachers are doing. This can be done by hosting parents' days, speech and prize giving ceremonies among others.

c. Teachers also have to deal with loud and noisy students.

5.3.3 Conditions should be put in place which promote the wellbeing of teachers.

e. The Ministry of Education should improve the working condition of teachers so that the teaching profession is not looked down upon.

f. Teachers should be given the opportunity to improve their careers through further studies and procedures for advancement should be clearly laid down.

g. Teachers in remote areas should be given incentives which will not make them leave those areas in search of urban-based schools.

5.4 ISSUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The researcher identified the following as issues for further research:

1. There is need for the subject to be researched on a wider national scale. This research was only confined to the Southern District of Botswana.
2. There was very little literature showing the effects of teacher burnout in an African setting. Most of the literature obtained was from Western cultures which may not necessarily reflect the situation in an African country like Botswana.
3. More needs to be done to distinguish how teacher burnout affects male and female teachers. There is very little material from literature at the moment.

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World Federation for Mental Health.

APPENDIX A

LETTER FROM DEPARTMENT

Letlhabile Secondary School
P/Bag 022
Gaborone

02/02/2005

Dear Madam

Assistance to conduct a Research Project .

The above matter refers.

You are hereby given permission to conduct your research project at our school. We only request you to try to minimize the disturbance of normal teaching and learning while conducting your research.

Please be assured that we will offer your assistance wherever needed.

Wishing you success with your project.

Thank you,

Annah Mokgware
HOD

APPENDIX B

REQUEST TO SCHOOL HEADS

YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY
NOORDWES UNIVERSITEIT

Faculty of Education

North West University (Mafikeng Campus)
Private Bag X 2046
Mmabatho
2735

Tel: 018 389 2208
: 018 389 2092
: 018 389 2441
: 018 389 2323
: 018 389 2500

Fax: 018 389 2038
E-Mail Adress: Lumadi@Uniwest.ac.za

School of Postgraduate Studies

EQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FOR MED IN UIDANCE AND COUNSELLING.

wish to confirm that **KHUNWANE EMMAH** is currently registered for M ED in he North West University, Mafikeng Campus.

mmah Khunwane needs to collect data for her research studies from various chools in **Gaborone South Central.** I therefore request that she be given the ecessary assistance in this regard.

hank you in anticipation of your co-operation and assistance.

.....
r MW Lumadi
Acting Director: School of Postgraduate Studies

North West University
Department of Foundations of Education
Private Bag X2046
Mmabatho, 2735
Republic of South Africa

Tel: +27 18 389 2550/2500/2191
Fax: +27 18 389 2485/392 5775

Date 11/08/2005

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: Request for you to participate in my study

I am a Masters Degree student in the Department of educational Foundations at North West University in South Africa. As a partial fulfillment of the Masters Degree requirement, I am planning to conduct a study in your school on 'the effects of teacher burnout on community junior secondary school teachers in the Southern District of Botswana'.

The study will involve teachers at your school completing a questionnaire for about 10 to 15 minutes.

The distribution of the questionnaire will be arranged such that it will be at your convenience. To maintain confidentiality, respondents will not be asked to give their names. The information gathered will remain confidential and will be used for educational purposes only.

I look forward to your participation in this study.

Regards,

Ms. Emmah Khunwane

Cut along this line

Consent Form

I ..... agree that I will participate in your study. I realize that no harm will be done to my school and me and that this information will be used for educational purposes only.

Signed: .....

Date: .....

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A – BIBLIOGRAPHICAL AND DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Kindly answer the following questions by crossing X on the appropriate block.

1. **Your age category**

1.1	Below 20	☐
1.2	21 to 25	☐
1.3	26 to 30	☐
1.4	31 to 35	☐
1.5	36 to 40	☐
1.6	41 to 45	☐
1.7	46 to 50	☐
1.8	51 to 55	☐
1.9	56 and above	☐ Specify _____

2. **Gender** Male ☐
   Female ☐

3. **Marital Status** Married ☐
   Single ☐

4. **Position of Responsibility** School Head ☐
   Deputy Head ☐
   Senior Teacher ☐
   Head of Department ☐
   Class Teacher ☐

5. **School location** Town ☐
   Village ☐

SECTION B: Causes of Teacher Burnout

Please indicate your opinion on the following issues by ticking ✓

Key
1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Undecided
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

6. **Typical symptoms of teacher burnout are:**

		1	2	3	4	5
6.1	Lack of energy to do work					
6.2	Lack of joy in one's work					
6.3	Lack of enthusiasm					
6.4	Lack of satisfaction					
6.5	Lack of motivation					
6.6	Lack of interest and zest					
6.7	Lack of dreams for life					
6.8	Lack of ideas					
6.9	Lack of concentration					
6.10	Lack of permission to play					
6.11	Lack of self-confidence					
6.12	No sense of humour.					

Other: _____

_____

7. **Teacher burnout is caused by;**

Qn	Item	1	2	3	4	5
7.1	Inadequate discipline policies of the school					
7.2	Negative attitudes and behaviour of administrators					
7.3	Evaluations by administrators/supervisors					
7.4	Attitudes and behaviour of other teachers/professionals					
7.5	Work overload					
7.6	Poor career opportunities in the teaching field					
7.7	Low status of the teaching profession					
7.8	Lack of recognition for good teaching					
7.9	Loud, noisy students					
7.10	Dealing with difficult/uncooperative parents					

Other: _____

_____

8. Relationship between teacher burnout and responsibility, gender and school location:

Qn	Item	1	2	3	4	5
8.1	The level of teacher burnout is not affected by one's position of responsibility within the school setting.					
8.2	The level of teacher burnout is not effected by one's gender.					
8.3	The level of teacher burnout is not affected by school location.					

9. Teachers can prevent/control burnout by:

Qn	Item	1	2	3	4	5
9.1	Doing relaxing activities					
9.2	Organizing time and setting priorities					
9.3	Maintaining diet and exercise					
9.4	Discussing problems with professional colleagues					
9.5	Taking a day off.					

Other: _____

_____

10. School administrators can assist teachers prevent/control burnout by:

Qn	Item	1	2	3	4	5
10.1	Allowing time for teachers to collaborate/talk					
10.2	Providing more workshop/in-services/advanced courses					
10.3	Providing more verbal praise/reinforcement/respect for the job					
10.4	Providing more support					
10.5	Providing more paraprofessionals/support staff/clerical assistance					
10.6	Providing more educational opportunities to learn about students with behavioural disorders and program options					
10.7	Building better communication and decision-making involvement with administrators					

Other: _____

_____

15. Is there anything the Ministry of Education can do to address the issue of teacher burnout?

Yes ☐/No ☐

If Yes please explain your answer.

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for your time. May God bless.

SECTION C – PLEASE OUTLINE YOUR VIEWS ABOUT TEACHER BURNOUT WITH RESPECT TO YOUR EXPERIENCE IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION

11. What do you think is the effect of teacher burnout if one fails to cope with it?

_____

_____

_____

12. What do you think is the effect of teacher burnout if school administrators leave it unattended?

_____

_____

_____

13. Do you think parents have any role to play on the issue of teacher burnout?

Yes ☐/No ☐

If Yes please explain your answer.

_____

_____

_____

14. Do you think the school environment has any role to play on the issue of teacher burnout?

Yes ☐/No ☐

If Yes please explain your answer.

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX D

T-TEST CALCULATIONS

Calculation of t-test statistic

A t-test was used to test the hypotheses outlines in Chapter 1. The following formula was used in calculating the t-test outputs:

$$t = \frac{\text{mean of group 1 responses} - \text{mean of group 2 responses}}{\left\{\frac{\text{group 1 responses standard deviation}}{\text{number in group 1}} - \frac{\text{group 2 responses standard deviation}}{\text{number in group 2}}\right\}}$$

$$= \frac{X_1 - X_2}{SD_1/N_1 + SD_2/N_2}$$

Where X_1 is mean of group 1 responses and X_2 is mean of group 2 responses.

SD_1 is standard deviation of group 1' responses and SD_2 is standard deviation of group 2 responses.

N_1 is number of respondents in group 1 and N2 is number of respondents in group 2.

The level of significance was 5% in all the cases.

First hypothesis: There is a significant positive relationship between teacher burnout and teacher's duties and position of responsibility at school.

$X_1 = 2.891$ $SD_1 = 5.680$ $N_1 = 40$

$X_2 = 1.374$ $SD_2 = 8.520$ $N_2 = 40$

$t = (2.891 - 1.374)/[(5.680/40) + (8.520/40)]$

$= 1.517/(0.142 + 0.213)$

$= 1.517/0.355$

$= \underline{4.273}$

At this level of significance, the t-value of 4.273 falls within the acceptance region and a conclusion can be made that there is a significant positive relationship between teacher burnout and teacher's duties and position of responsibility at school.

The other hypotheses were calculated in a similar way.