AN EXPLORATION OF BURNOUT AND INDIVIDUAL AND COLLECTIVE TEACHER EFFICACY IN A TURKISH STATE UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

AN EXPLORATION OF BURNOUT AND
INDIVIDUAL AND COLLECTIVE TEACHER EFFICACY
IN A TURKISH STATE UNIVERSITY

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The importance of the relationship between burnout and teacher efficacy has been widely known in the literature especially in the last decade. However, the relationship between teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy has been the focus of a limited number of studies, and the interrelationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy has not been specifically investigated in an EFL setting. Taking this gap as an impetus, this study explored the experiences of burnout and perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy among EFL teachers. The study also examined the direct interrelationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy.

This study gathered data from 123 EFL teachers in an intensive English language education program at a Turkish state university. The data were collected through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Later, the data were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively by using descriptive statistics and correlation tests.

Analysis of the data revealed that the feeling of emotional exhaustion was more frequent than depersonalization and the feeling of personal accomplishment was the most frequent feeling. In the interviews, it was also revealed that work-related factors, work environment, and administrative issues were the major sources of burnout among the participants. In addition, analysis of the perceptions of teacher efficacy showed that teachers' sense of personal teaching efficacy was stronger than general teaching efficacy. The qualitative data from the interviews suggested that work environment and work-related factors were the major sources of efficacy beliefs among the teachers who participated in the study. Moreover, it was seen that the participants' sense of collective teacher efficacy was lower than their sense of personal teaching efficacy, but higher than general teaching efficacy. Again, it was revealed that work-related factors, work environment, and administrative issues were the major sources of collective efficacy beliefs among the participants.

It was also seen that personal teaching efficacy was positively correlated with personal accomplishment, but negatively with depersonalization. However, it did not correlate with emotional exhaustion. Likewise, general teaching efficacy did not correlate with any dimension of burnout. The findings also showed that individual and collective teacher efficacy were positively correlated. Moreover, collective teacher efficacy correlated positively with personal accomplishment, but negatively with depersonalization and emotional exhaustion.

This study implied that in order to cope with burnout and increase teacher effectiveness, teachers' working conditions should be improved and specific intervention programs should be designed to meet the needs of the participants. Furthermore, the study also revealed the need for a more carefully planned

curriculum renewal workshop by paying more attention to the teachers' views and provision of a higher number of academic development and in-service training opportunities to increase the instructional efficacy in the setting of the study.

Keywords: burnout, teacher efficacy, collective teacher efficacy

ÖZET

BİR TÜRK DEVLET ÜNİVERSİTESİNDE TÜKENMİŞLİK VE BİREYSEL VE KOLEKTİF ÖĞRETMEN YETERLİĞİ ÜZERİNE BİR ARAŞTIRMA

Ali Ulus Kımav

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi Bölümü

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Tükenmişlik ve öğretmen yeterliği arasındaki ilişkinin önemi literatürde özellikle son on yıldır yaygın olarak bilinmektedir. Oysa öğretmen yeterliği ve kolektif öğretmen yeterliği arasındaki ilişki sınırlı sayıda çalışmaya konu olmuştur ve de tükenmişlik ve bireysel ve kolektif öğretmen yeterliği arasındaki ilişki özellikle bir yabancı dil olarak İngilizce ortamında araştırılmamıştır. Bu boşluktan yola çıkarak bu çalışma yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğreten öğretmenlerin tükenmişlik yaşantılarını ve bireysel ve kolektif öğretmen yeterliği algılarını araştırmıştır. Bu çalışma aynı zamanda tükenmişlik ve bireysel ve kolektif öğretmen yeterliği arasındaki direkt ilişkiyi de araştırmıştır.

Bu çalışmada veriler bir Türk devlet üniversitesindeki yoğunlaştırılmış İngiliz dili eğitim programındaki 123 yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretmeninden toplanmıştır. Veriler anketler ve yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yoluyla toplanmıştır. Toplanan veriler daha sonra betimsel istatistik ve korelasyon testleri kullanılarak nicel ve nitel olarak analiz edilmiştir.

Veri analizi duygusal tükenmenin duyarsızlaşmadan daha sık yaşandığını ve bireysel başarı duygusunun en sık yaşanan duygu olduğunu göstermiştir. Görüşmelerde ise işle ilgili faktörlerin, çalışma ortamının ve yönetimsel konuların katılımcılar arasındaki en büyük stress kaynaklarından oldukları ortaya çıkmıştır. Ayrıca, öğretmen yeterliği algılarının analizi öğretmenlerin bireysel öğretim yeterliği algısının genel öğretim yeterliği algısından daha güçlü olduğunu göstermiştir. Görüşmelerden elde edilen nitel veriler, çalışma ortamının ve işle ilgili faktörlerin çalışmaya katılan öğretmenler arasındaki yeterlik inaçlarının en önemli kaynaklarından olduğunu göstermiştir. Diğer bir taraftan, katılımcıların kolektif öğretmen yeterliği algısının bireysel öğretim yeterliği algısından daha zayıf, fakat genel öğretim yeterliği algısından daha güçlü olduğu görülmüştür. İşle ilgili faktörler, çalışma ortamı ve yönetimsel konuların katılımcılar arasındaki kolektif yeterlik inançlarının en önemli kaynaklarından oldukları bir kez daha ortaya çıkmıştır.

Ayrıca, bireysel öğretim yeterliğinin bireysel başarı ile pozitif, duyarsızlaşma ile negatif korelasyonu olduğu görülmüştür, fakat bireysel öğretim yeterliğinin duygusal tükenme ile korelasyonu olmamıştır. Benzer şekilde genel öğretim yeterliğinin tükenmişliğin herhangi bir boyutu ile korelastonu olmamıştır. Bulgular bireysel ve kolektif öğretmen yeterliği arasında pozitif korelasyon olduğunu da işaret

etmiştir. Ayrıca, kolektif öğretmen yeterliği bireysel başarı ile pozitif, duyarsızlaşma ve duygusal tükenme ile negatif korelasyon göstermiştir.

Bu çalışma tükenmişliğin üstesinden gelmek ve öğretmen etkinliğini arttırmak için öğretmenlerin çalışma koşullarının iyileştirilmesi ve katılımcıların ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması için özel müdahale programlarının planlanmasının gerektiğini işaret etmektedir. Ayrıca, bu çalışma öğretmenlerin görüşlerine daha fazla önem vererek daha dikkatli bir program yenileme çalışmasına ve çalışmanın yapıldığı yerdeki öğretim etkinliğinin arttırılması için daha fazla akademik ilerleme ve hizmetiçi eğitim olanaklarının sağlanmasına ihtiyaç olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: tükenmişlik, öğretmen yeterliği, kolektif öğretmen yeterliği

Beni hiçbir fedakârlıktan kaçınmadan yetiştiren anne ve babam,

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Face-to-face service professions are characterized by intense interaction and involvement with clients and their problems. Teaching, a face-to-face profession, is among the most stressful jobs in the world as well as having a high degree of turnover. Research shows that teachers experience stress and burnout like other workers in face-to-face professions due to individual and situational factors (Friedman, 1992; Gates, 2007; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). However, research, especially in the last decade, shows that burnout could also be related to low instructional efficacy (Breso, Salanova, & Schaufeli, 2007; Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Egyed & Short, 2006; Karahan, 2008; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). High-efficacy teachers are willing to take risks, believe more in their capabilities, and put additional effort on teaching tasks to be more effective, while low-efficacy teachers believe that they cannot change anything or produce positive learning outcomes, and they question their instructional capabilities (Bandura, 1997). This, in turn, causes stress, and long-term exposure to stress causes burnout. Moreover, since a school is a social network of relations among students, teachers and administrators, teachers' sense of efficacy might also affect their sense of collective efficacy (Goddard & Goddard, 2001; Kurz & Knight, 2004). Collective efficacy beliefs affect a teacher's perception of commitment for success, how cooperatively and successfully colleagues work, and the mission and purpose of their school. Although previous studies have focused on the relationship among burnout, teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy (Labone, 1995; Skaalvik & Skaalvik,

2007), the relationship among these factors has not been explored thoroughly. This study attempts to address this gap in the literature. Considering this, the primary objective of this study is to explore experiences of burnout and perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy among English teachers in an intensive language program at a Turkish state university. The ultimate aim is to find out how burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy are related to each other.

Background of the Study

People working in face-to-face professions have to interact more than people working in other professions, and this requires spending more time and being more involved with their clients. They have to solve their clients' problems and while doing that, they may experience "feelings of anger, embarrassment, fear, or despair" (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 99). However, Maslach and Jackson (1981) argue that it is not always possible to find fast and effective solutions to these problems, which causes frustration. Under these conditions, chronic stress could result in emotional depletion and become a source of burnout that could affect the health and effectiveness of an organization.

For Maslach and Jackson (1981), burnout is "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among people who do 'people-work' of some kind" (p.99). Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) suggest that burnout has three dimensions, namely, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Emotionally exhausted people cannot meet their clients' needs and provide service effectively. Maslach and Jackson (1981) argue that people who experience this feeling think that they cannot give any more of themselves since they are emotionally depleted. In addition, depersonalization causes people to ignore

their clients and not to be involved with them because of "developing an indifference or cynical attitude when they are exhausted or discouraged" (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001, p. 403). Moreover, people who feel reduced personal accomplishment cannot easily gain a sense of effectiveness. Maslach and Jackson (1981) define this dimension as "the tendency to evaluate oneself negatively" (p. 99).

In reviewing the previous research into the causes of burnout (Dierendonck, Schaufeli & Buunk, 2001; Maslach, et al., 2001; Schwab, 2001; Talmor, Reiter, & Feigin, 2005), it can be said that the relationship of burnout to teacher efficacy has started to attract researchers' attention over the last decade (Breso, et al., 2007; Egyed & Short, 2006; Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2002; Friedman, 2000; Karahan, 2008; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3). Those beliefs affect the way people act in a given situation, the level of effort they make, how long they will persist when they face problems, and the level of stress they will experience upon exposure to environmental needs, such as academic needs in teaching or need for increased effort in the workplace.

In the field of education, self-efficacy is an important factor that could influence a teacher's instructional performance. Bandura (1997) argues that teachers' perceptions of their instructional efficacy play a partial role in determining the academic activities in their classrooms and influence the way students evaluate their intellectual capabilities. High-efficacy teachers make extra effort and choose the right techniques to teach difficult students, while low-efficacy teachers think that there is not much they can do for the unmotivated students and that those students'

intellectual development is affected by their home and neighborhood environment more than by teachers' influence. However, sometimes teachers face some problems with disruptive and unsuccessful students, and in the end, low-efficacy teachers may feel that they cannot deal with academic demands effectively, a situation that could cause stress. Related to this, Chwalisz, Altmaier and Russell (1992) suggest that upon exposure to academic stressors, high-efficacy teachers make an effort to find solutions, while low-efficacy teachers make an effort to cope with their distress in an escapist pattern, which in turn increases their level of burnout.

The relationship of burnout to teacher efficacy has been investigated in many studies. Labone (1995) investigated burnout and teacher efficacy trends over time; Çimen (2007) conducted a study on primary school teachers' burnout levels and perceived self-efficacy beliefs; Albert (2007) studied the impact of self-efficacy and autonomous learning on burnout; and Cazares (2008) explored burnout, perceived efficacy and attitudes towards children with behavioral challenges. Among these, Çimen (2007) found that the three dimensions of the teacher efficacy scale she used in her study - instructional strategies, classroom management and student engagement - had a significant positive correlation with personal accomplishment. The student engagement dimension showed a significant negative correlation with depersonalization. She also found that the three dimensions of the teacher efficacy scale did not have a significant correlation with emotional exhaustion, but low-efficacy teachers experienced higher levels of emotional intensity, and teachers with higher academic degrees experienced a higher level of depersonalization.

Since schools are organizations that include a social network of relations with students, colleagues and administrators, teachers' sense of self-efficacy could affect their sense of collective efficacy, as well. Goddard, Hoy and Woolfolk Hoy (2000) define collective teacher efficacy as "the perceptions of teachers in a school that the efforts of the faculty as a whole will have a positive effect on students" (p. 480). Moreover, Bandura (1997) claims that "personal agency operates within a broad network of sociostructural influences" (p. 6). Therefore, "people's shared belief in their capabilities to produce effects collectively is a crucial ingredient of collective agency" (p. 7). However, although collective efficacy seem to develop from self-efficacy (Goddard, Hoy & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000), there may be times when the level of self-efficacy is not parallel to the level of collective efficacy. Bandura (1997) illustrates this with two situations. If there is a weak connection between the members of a group who will perform an activity interdependently, this could result in failure in low efficacy members even if the rest of the group has a high sense of efficacy. Furthermore, even the members of a group at the highest self-efficacy level might sometimes fail to work together effectively and cannot achieve success. In addition, since group members need to cooperate with the other members in the group, they may be influenced by the beliefs, motivation, and quality of performance of those others (Bandura, 1997; Goddard, et al., 2000), which, in education, can affect a teacher's instructional efficacy and students' success at the organizational level.

Since collective teacher efficacy beliefs are believed to develop from individual teacher efficacy beliefs, the relationship between them and other related factors have also been investigated. Goddard & Goddard (2001) conducted a multi-

level analysis of the relationship between teacher and collective teacher efficacy in urban schools; and Kurz and Knight (2004) explored the relationship among teacher efficacy, collective teacher efficacy, and goal consensus. Among these studies, Goddard & Goddard's (2001) study included 47 schools and 438 teachers. They found that teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy were positively correlated and that where teacher efficacy was higher, collective teacher efficacy was higher, which supports Bandura's (1997) argument that "teachers operate collectively within an interactive social system rather than isolates" (p. 243).

In addition to the studies mentioned above, the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy has also been investigated. Labone (1995) investigated the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy in a study of primary and secondary school teachers. She found that general teaching efficacy was positively correlated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, but negatively with personal accomplishment. Moreover, there was a positive correlation between personal accomplishment and personal teaching efficacy. It was also revealed that collective teacher efficacy had a negative correlation with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, but a positive correlation with personal accomplishment. In another study of 244 elementary and middle school teachers, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) examined the relationship among teacher self-efficacy and relationships with strain factors, perceived collective teacher efficacy, external control, and burnout. The results revealed that teacher efficacy had a negative correlation with burnout and a positive correlation with collective teacher efficacy. However, in reviewing the literature, Labone's (1995) and Skaalvik and Skaalvik's (2007) studies have not been followed by any study to

find out if burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy are related to each other in other contexts and educational levels. In addition, those studies did not benefit from interviews with teachers to deepen and discriminate their feelings of burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy beliefs. This could have provided important data for other researchers to see how teachers might be affected by burnout and efficacy beliefs.

In sum, there are many studies in the literature on the relationship between burnout and teacher efficacy; however, with the exception of two studies, the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy has attracted little attention. Moreover, in the literature, the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy at tertiary level has remained unexplored.

Statement of the Problem

Over the last decade, there has been an increasing interest in the relationship between burnout and teacher efficacy. Studies on this relationship demonstrate that burnout and teacher efficacy could be related, and that a low sense of efficacy could cause burnout (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000, Evers, Brouwers & Tomic, 2002; Breso, Salanova & Schaufeli, 2007; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). Moreover, Bandura (1995) claims that a low sense of efficacy causes teachers to feel that academic demands are stressful, which may lead to a decrease in their commitment to teaching and an avoidance of problems in an escapist pattern. This effect, in turn, increases their level of burnout.

There is also research into the relationship between individual teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy and their sources, such as school-level contextual variables (Goddard & Goddard, 2001), goal consensus/vision (Kurz & Knight, 2004), and professional development (Zambo & Zambo, 2008). These studies show that there is a relationship between teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy, and they provide valuable information about the potential sources of individual teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy. However, the number of studies on collective teacher efficacy is not high and there is little research into the direct relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy in different contexts.

In reviewing the literature, only one study by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) was located. The present study differs from Skaalvik and Skaalvik's (2007) study in elementary and middle schools since it specifically focuses on ELT teachers in an intensive language program in a university setting whose job can be considered different from other subject teachers in the nature of interaction with learners, content, and various teaching methodologies (Borg, 2006).

In a new and different setting, the present study aims to cast additional light on the relationship between burnout and teacher efficacy; teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy; and burnout and collective teacher efficacy. This institution could provide valuable data since it is one of the biggest schools in Turkey with 136 English language teachers. The school follows a skill-based curriculum, within which language teachers design and select a high number of supplementary materials either individually or collectively. Language teachers in this institution teach 22 hours a week on average to 2394 students. To provide effective instruction

to the students, teachers are required to hold at least two weekly office meetings with their students, attend weekly skill meetings, cooperate with other teachers while writing and grading tests, and participate in curriculum development workshops that have been going on for several years. Thus, it can be said that successful accomplishment of all these academic tasks depends heavily on a low level of burnout and a high sense of individual and collective efficacy. Most importantly, any negative consequence of any of these feelings, such as the development of distrust in one's capabilities, the formation of a cynical point of view towards students or the development of a sense of academic futility, could influence language teachers' instructional practices in the classroom in terms of effectiveness and, in turn, students' success, as well.

Research Questions

This study attempts to address the following research questions:

1. At this school,
    a) what are teachers' experiences of burnout?
    b) what are teachers' perceptions of individual teacher efficacy?
    c) what are teachers' perceptions of collective teacher efficacy?
2. At this school, what is the relationship between
    a) burnout and individual teacher efficacy,
    b) individual teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy,
    c) burnout and collective teacher efficacy?

Significance of the Study

Due to a lack of research in tertiary settings into burnout, teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy, the present study might contribute to the field by

exploring university EFL teachers' burnout experiences, their perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy, and the relationship among them. Thus, the investigation of these variables in a university could provide valuable data, especially for EFL teachers and administrators in similar settings. Moreover, it could form a baseline for further research that focuses on how teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy are related in different educational settings in Turkey. Furthermore, the present study might contribute to the teacher efficacy studies, as well as teacher burnout research, by the qualitative investigation of teacher efficacy beliefs since this kind of study has generally been neglected in the literature (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998).

At the local level, this study will be the first study in its setting, as well as in Turkey, on the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy. These data could help develop an understanding of EFL teachers' working conditions in universities and their needs and expectations, a research field that needs to be explored. In addition, this study might be significant in that it will provide information on the sources of burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy beliefs in its setting, which the administrators and EFL teachers in that setting could benefit from. Furthermore, in light of the results, administrators could develop specific interventions and modify the current educational policies to reduce the effect of burnout and organize more professional development activities to increase the level of individual and collective teacher efficacy, if necessary. This could also boost teaching efficacy and create a higher level of student success.

Key Terminology

The following key terms are used throughout the present study:

Burnout: “A syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among people who do ‘people-work’ of some kind” (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 99)

Emotional Exhaustion: “Feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one’s work” (Maslach, Leiter, & Schaufeli, 2008, p. 93). It is the first of the three dimensions of burnout.

Depersonalization: “An unfeeling and impersonal response towards recipients of one’s care or service” (Maslach, et al., 2008, p. 93). It is the second of the three dimensions of burnout.

Reduced Personal Accomplishment: The lack of “feelings of competence and successful achievement in one’s work with people” (Maslach, et al., 2008, p. 94). It is the third of the three dimensions of burnout.

Self-efficacy: “Beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). In the present study, the term “efficacy” is used interchangeably with the term “effectiveness”.

Personal Teaching Efficacy: The first factor in the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). It is the “belief that one has the skills and abilities to bring about student learning” (p. 573). This factor related to a teacher’s own evaluation of his/her abilities.

Teaching Efficacy: The second factor in the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). It is “the belief that any teacher’s ability to bring about change is significantly limited by factors external to the teacher, such as the home environment, family background, and parental influences” (p.574). It is also called

general teaching efficacy. This factor is related to a teacher's perceptions of the abilities of teachers in general to cope with external factors.

Collective Efficacy: "A group's shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 477).

Collective Teacher Efficacy: "The perceptions of teachers in a school that the efforts of the faculty as a whole will have a positive effect on students" (Goddard, et al., 2000, p. 480).

Conclusion

This chapter has provided an introduction that covers the background of the study, statement of the problem, and significance of the study. In the second chapter, the literature and the previous studies relevant to the present study are reviewed in detail. The third chapter describes the methodology followed in the study. In the fourth chapter the findings of the data analysis are presented, and in the last chapter, the findings are discussed in the light of the literature.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In this chapter, the literature relevant to the present study will be reviewed. The first section discusses the concept of burnout. In this section, a short history of burnout is provided, and then, burnout is defined with its three different dimensions. This part is followed by the definition of teacher burnout and the factors related to it. The section ends with a discussion of commonly used instruments used to measure burnout in the previous studies. The next section addresses self-efficacy theory and teacher efficacy. In this section, self-efficacy theory, as well as sources of self-efficacy, is described. Then, teacher efficacy is defined and discussed. The section ends with a discussion of various instruments used to measure teacher efficacy in the previous studies. The third section explores collective teacher efficacy. First, collective efficacy is defined. Next, collective teacher efficacy and its sources are described. The section ends with a discussion of the two common collective teacher efficacy scales used in previous studies. The last section reviews the previous studies on the relationship between burnout and teacher efficacy, individual and collective teacher efficacy, and the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy.

Burnout

The term burnout is commonly used to describe the state of being emotionally and/or physically depleted and not being able to do one's work effectively. The *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2005, p. 93) defines burnout as "the feeling of always being tired because you have been working too hard" (p. 198).

Schaufeli and Buunk (2003) argue that the history of the term seems to go back as far as the sixteenth century when Shakespeare (1599) wrote *The Passionate Pilgrim.* They also give the case of a nurse, Miss Jones, as another example (Schwartz & Will, 1953, cited in Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). The state of being burned out has also been depicted in Graham Greene's (1961) novel *A Burnt-Out Case*, in which an architect leaves his job to live in an African jungle.

Much has been written about burnout since the time it emerged as a social problem in the U.S. in the 1970s. Since then, it has gained importance all over the world due to its being a common problem among employees, especially in face-to-face professions. Much research has been done on its sources and consequences. Moreover, different instruments have been developed to measure it (Maslach, et al., 2008). Today, although there exist different definitions of burnout (Brill, 1984; Freudenberger, 1982; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, et al., 2008), these definitions share the common view that burned out individuals cannot meet the requirements of their jobs, that they are negative towards others in the work place, and that they are dissatisfied with their accomplishments.

Definition of Burnout

Herbert Freudenberger (1974), a clinical psychiatrist, is considered to be the first to have identified this syndrome (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). Freudenberger (1982) defines burnout as not being able to meet all the requirements of one's job due to being depleted by work overload, and as a result, not being able to react personally and emotionally. Freudenberger (1974) argues that committed and devoted employees try to do their best, and thus they are likely to experience

burnout. Also, burned out employees are likely to become depressed, angry or irritated easily, feel bored, and have a negative attitude towards their jobs.

Independently and almost simultaneously, Maslach (1976, cited in Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003), a social psychological researcher, became familiar with the term "burnout" that was used by workers in her research in human service professions. Later, Maslach and Jackson (1981) defined burnout as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among people who do 'people-work' of some kind" (p. 99). They argue that depletion of a person's emotional resources may lead to the feeling that they cannot give of themselves any more. Also, workers who experience burnout are likely to develop cynical and negative attitudes towards their clients. In addition, those workers who experience burnout tend to evaluate themselves negatively and they are not happy or satisfied with their successes regarding their work.

While these two definitions are still accepted and they can describe the state of the burned out individuals, Maslach and Jackson's (1986b, cited in Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003) new definition five years later is the most cited one (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). They define burnout as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do 'people-work' of some kind" (p. 1). Schaufeli and Buunk (2003) claim that the reason why this definition of burnout is popular among researchers is the inclusion of the three dimensions of burnout, namely, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. These three elements are utilized in the most frequently used burnout scale, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

The Three Dimensions of Burnout

Emotional Exhaustion is the first dimension in the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). This dimension describes "feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work" (Maslach, et al., 2008, p. 93). Exhaustion is also the most common and the most thoroughly studied aspect of burnout (Maslach, et al., 2001). Emotionally exhausted people think that they have done all they can in their job and that they cannot work effectively any more due to draining of their emotional resources. Moreover, emotionally exhausted people are sometimes psychically exhausted, they want to spend less time with people, and have sleep disorders (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

The *Depersonalization* dimension refers to "an unfeeling and impersonal response towards recipients of one's care or service" (Maslach, et al., 2008, p. 93). Depersonalization causes individuals to distance themselves from their clients and to develop indifferent and cynical attitudes towards them. Another effect of depersonalization is that people tend to see their clients as impersonal objects (Maslach, et al., 2001). In addition, depersonalization brings dissatisfaction with one's work, as well as the feeling of meaninglessness and worthlessness in one's job.

Reduced Personal Accomplishment (or inefficacy) is the third dimension of burnout. It describes the lack of "feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work with people" (Maslach, et al., 2008, p. 94). People who experience this feeling are likely to evaluate their success negatively and be dissatisfied with their personal development on their job. Unlike emotional exhaustion and depersonalization that tend to occur together (Maslach, et al., 2008), reduced personal accomplishment is independent of the other two dimensions, but not the

opposite of them (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Furthermore, Maslach et al. (2001) argue that exhaustion and depersonalization affect an individual's effectiveness since people cannot easily gain a sense of achievement when they are exhausted and indifferent towards their clients. Moreover, one's negative evaluation of his/her professional effectiveness may be related to self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1997) since problematic situations could cause stress, and if stress cannot be overcome, it could cause burnout.

Teacher Burnout

Face-to-face service professions are characterized by intense interaction and involvement with clients and their problems. Teaching, a face-to-face profession, is also a very demanding job since teachers have to interact with students, meet teaching requirements, follow the latest research in their field to teach effectively, participate in professional development activities, and plan courses and lessons on a never-ending cycle. Successful accomplishment of these tasks requires mental well-being and much energy. These sources can often be depleted, which can cause burnout.

As in other professions where burnout is common, teacher burnout "includes stress, professional dissatisfaction, absenteeism and low involvement" (Lens & Neves De Jesus, 1999, p. 192). Iwanicki (1983) argues that emotionally exhausted teachers feel that their emotional resources are depleted and that there is nothing left to give to their students. Depersonalization causes negative, indifferent and cynical attitudes towards students and other teachers. Reduced personal accomplishment causes a teacher to feel that he/she is not as effective as he/she used to be in teaching and meeting work-related demands.

The outward expressions of teacher burnout could be severe. Talmor et al. (2005) describe the symptoms of teacher burnout as "extreme reactions of anger, anxiety, depression, fatigue, boredom, cynicism, guilt, psychosomatic reactions, and in extreme cases, also emotional breakdown" (p. 217-218). Also, Schaufeli (2003) lists similar consequences as "common infections, distress, depression, job satisfaction, absenteeism, job turnover, and poor performance" (p. 8). Moreover, burned out teachers might have negative effects on their school's reputation (Schwab, 2001). Most importantly, burned out individuals could influence others in the work place negatively by causing personal conflicts and problems in work-related tasks (Leiter & Maslach, 1988), which suggests that burnout can be contagious in a social network of relationships (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2000; Maslach, et al., 2001). In light of this information, it is reasonable to say that teachers can experience burnout as other human service professionals do because of stressful conditions in their jobs.

Causes of Burnout

Because of the concern over burned out teachers' psychological states and behaviors, there has been much research on the causes of teacher burnout. Research shows that teachers can experience burnout due to a variety of factors. The factors related to teacher burnout can be categorized as individual and situational factors (Maslach, et al., 2001).

Individual Factors

Demographic characteristics.

Among all the demographic characteristics, age has emerged as the most frequent factor of burnout (Maslach, et al., 2001). Research shows that younger people experience higher levels of burnout (Lau, 2002; Sabancı, 2008; Schwarzer,

Schmitz, & Tang, 2000). Experience also seems to be a burnout factor. The less experience individuals have, the higher level of burnout they are likely to experience (Çimen, 2007; Karahan, 2008; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Another demographic factor related to burnout is gender. On Maslach's three dimensions of burnout, men tend to score higher on depersonalization (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Van Horn, Schaufeli, & Enzmann, 1999) while women tend to score higher on emotional exhaustion (Çimen, 2007; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). In addition, marital status can affect the level of burnout. Singles are likely to have higher level of burnout than married people (Çam, 2001; Lau, 2002; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Level of education can also be a burnout factor (Çam, 2001; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) since people who have a higher educational degree are often given more responsibilities or their expectations for their jobs are higher than those with lower educational degree.

Personality characteristics.

Personality characteristics that are considered to have a relationship to burnout have also been investigated. Maslach et al. (2001) report that people with a low level of hardiness score high especially on emotional exhaustion. Moreover, individuals who feel an external locus of control experience high level of burnout (Dworkin, Saha, & Hill, 2003). Maslach, et al. (2001) also report that individuals who can cope with difficulties in an active and confrontive manner experience lower level of burnout than other individuals who adapt a passive and defensive strategy. This active and confrontive coping strategy can also be attributed to teacher's perceived self-efficacy. Research shows that the higher the level of perceived self-efficacy, the less effect of burnout is experienced by teachers (Albert, 2007; Cazares, 2008; Chwalisz, et al., 1992).

Job attitudes.

Although there is no clear support from research that level of expectations from a job can be a factor related to burnout, there are some studies that reveal high expectations can contribute to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. It can be hypothesized that this happens when an individual with high expectations works too hard, and then, sees his/her expectations are not meet (Çam, 2001; Freudenberger, 1974).

Situational Characteristics

Job characteristics.

Researchers have investigated the factors that could be related to burnout in the work place and found that experienced workload and time pressure have a strong and positive correlation with burnout (Budak & Sürgevil, 2005; Friesen & Sarros, 1989). Also, role conflict and role ambiguity have been found to be related to burnout (Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Papastylianou, Kaila, & Polychronopoulos, 2009; Ross & Altmaier, 1994; Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982). In addition, lack of social support can be related to burnout (Mabry Sr., 2005; Mo, 1991). Additionally, low levels of participation in decision-making (Mabry Sr., 2005) and lack of feedback are among the factors that can cause burnout (Ross & Altmaier, 1994).

Occupational characteristics.

Maslach et al. (2001) report that although emotional stressors in face-to-face professions were found to be burnout factors in the previous phases of research, recent research has also included emotion-work variables, and the results show that emotion factors (the need to be emphatic or suppress emotions) can affect the level of experienced burnout (Zapf, Seifert, Schmutte, Mertini, & Holz, 2001). The nature

of one's job, namely occupational differences, is related to burnout, as well. For instance, people who work in law enforcement have lower emotional exhaustion scores, while teachers experience the highest level of exhaustion (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998, cited in Maslach, et al., 2001).

Organizational characteristics.

Maslach et al. (2001) also report that since research into the relationship between burnout and organizational characteristics, like operating rules and resources, is new, there are no reliable data at present. However, while there is an increasing number of demands like effort, time, and skills on workers because of the changes in the structures of organizations like downsizing or merging, the workers are given less opportunities for career development and job security, which may influence their well-being and cause burnout.

Instruments Used To Measure Teacher Burnout

Research on teacher burnout has benefitted from different instruments to measure burnout. The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (Maslach & Jackson, 1986a, cited in Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003) has been frequently used in burnout research (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). It has high reliability and validity, and it includes 22 items grouped under the same three dimensions of burnout, namely, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (Maslach & Jackson, 1986b) has also been translated into Turkish by Girgin (1995) and Celep (2002, cited in Çimen, 2007). In addition, the instrument has been translated into Dutch (Schaufeli & Van Horn, 1995). Like the original version, the Turkish version is used to measure the frequency of the burnout feeling on a Likert scale format, and it

includes the same burnout dimensions, namely, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and the feeling of personal accomplishment. While higher scores on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions mean higher levels of burnout, a higher score on personal accomplishment dimension means a lower level of burnout.

In the literature, there are also modified versions of The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (Maslach & Jackson, 1986b). For example, Dorman (2003) chose 19 items instead of using all the 22 items in the original scale. However, he does not provide any information why he did so, but it can be asserted that he might have omitted the three items that have the lowest factor load to reach higher reliability.

In addition, the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996) has also been used in research related to teacher burnout (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). This inventory was developed to measure burnout in other professions where there is limited interaction with clients. Unlike the Maslach Burnout Inventory, which focuses on the service relationship, this version's focus is on the performance of work.

Another instrument that is used to measure burnout is Tümkaya's (2000) Academic Burnout Scale. She developed this scale to measure the burnout levels of the academic staff in universities. Although she developed a reliable and valid instrument, she notes that there is a need for further development. To the researcher's knowledge, this may be the reason why it has not been used again in research.

In the Turkish context, there are also some other translated versions of burnout measures. For example, Çapri (2006) translated Pines and Aronson's Burnout Measure (1988). According to Schaufeli and Dierendonck (1993), this is the second most commonly used burnout measure. The use of this measure is not limited to teachers and it can be used to measure the burnout levels of the employees in other professions, as well. Almost two decades later, Pines (2005) developed a short form of this measure to make it easier to use and applicable on a wider scale. Both the translated long and short versions have very similar reliability and validity when compared with the original one (Tümkaya, Çam & Çavuşoğlu, 2009).

Also, the English translation of the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen, & Christensen, 2005) has been used to measure teacher burnout (Milfont, Denny, Ameratunga, Robinson, & Merry, 2008). This inventory, like Pines and Aronson's (1988), was developed to measure burnout levels of the employers in face-to-face professions in general, so it was also used in burnout research in teaching. It differs from the Maslach Burnout Inventory in that it includes three scales that measure personal, work-related, and client-related burnout, from the fatigue exhaustion aspect only.

Self-Efficacy

In the last decade, a potential cause of teacher burnout, self-efficacy beliefs, has started to attract more attention, and the findings resulting from various studies reveal significant correlations between burnout and self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). Bandura (1995, 1997) argues that people try to control the events that shape their lives. By changing things,

they bring about desired changes in their lives and prevent unfavorable situations. If people do not believe that they can change their lives in favorable ways, they do not show any eagerness to act. Moreover, people's inability to control the events in their lives causes anxiety, apathy and hopelessness. Thus, it can be said that personal efficacy beliefs direct people's lives and constitute the basis of action.

Efficacy beliefs have various effects on people's lives. They affect the actions people take, the level of effort they make, the duration of resistance they show when faced with obstacles or failures, the level of stress they have when they encounter environmental demands, and the level of successes achieved. Efficacy beliefs also affect people's beliefs, feelings, actions, and how they motivate themselves (Bandura, 1995).

Bandura (1997) claims that people with high and low sense of efficacy differ in their struggle to reach desired outcomes. Individuals with a high sense of efficacy do not stop trying even when they cannot reach desired outcomes through personal accomplishments, while those with a low sense of efficacy easily quit. Also, those with a high sense of efficacy try harder to reach their goals. In addition, when handling difficult tasks, self-efficacious people try to successfully complete, and even if they fail, they still remain committed to the task. In contrast, those with a low sense of efficacy fall into escapist patterns of behavior due to lack of strong belief in their capabilities.

Bandura (1989) also argues that individuals with stronger efficacy beliefs set goals that are more difficult and they are more committed to those goals. Efficacious and inefficacious people are also different in the degree to which they remain task oriented. A strong belief in problem solving capabilities helps individuals think

analytically and remain on task. Levels of motivation are also affected by perceived self-efficacy. Stronger efficacy beliefs bring greater persistence in the efforts made on a task. Furthermore, the strength of efficacy beliefs also influences the amount of stress and depression experienced in threatening conditions, as well as the process of thinking. Inefficacious individuals experience more stress since they believe they cannot overcome the threat, and they tend to avoid threatening activities and conditions.

Sources of Efficacy Beliefs

To understand the difference in individuals' efficacy beliefs, a great deal of research has attempted to identify the sources of these believes. Bandura (1977, 1995, 1997) states that there are four principal sources that affect peoples' self-efficacy beliefs. These are *enactive mastery experiences* that function as manifestations of capability; *vicarious experiences* that influence efficacy beliefs by modeling others; *verbal persuasion* that helps people see that they already have the required capabilities to accomplish a given task; and *physiological and affective states* that affect people's judgment of their capabilities and strength.

According to Bandura, enactive mastery experiences, an individual's past experiences regarding the successful accomplishments and failures, are the strongest source of one's efficacy beliefs. Judging from past experiences, individuals decide whether they can complete a task with success. While successes bring a higher sense of efficacy, failures cause a decrease in the efficacy beliefs, especially if they occur before the development of a sense of personal efficacy. However, a high sense of self-efficacy does not develop from simple mastery experiences in the past. Only when mastery experiences include the cognitive, behavioral, and self-regulatory tools

that are necessary for accomplishing challenging tasks, can development of self-efficacy beliefs be guaranteed. Difficult situations can be advantageous if people can benefit from them by turning them into success. This, in turn, improves their coping capabilities and those people believe that they already have what is necessary to succeed. Moreover, only through perseverance can people establish a strong sense of efficacy. If people always master easy tasks, they tend to expect success without any effort in every activity and they may develop false beliefs regarding their capabilities, which may cause failure and discouragement later on (Bandura, 1995, 1997).

Bandura (1995, 1997) claims that people do not develop efficacy beliefs only through mastery experiences, but also that vicarious experiences through social modeling can also be important sources of efficacy beliefs. Bandura (1995) reports that when people see other people who have capabilities similar to theirs become successful by persistent effort, they believe that they can accomplish similar tasks, as well (Bandura, 1986, cited in Bandura, 1995; Shunk, 1987). However, when people observe that their models fail despite much effort, this causes a decrease in their efficacy beliefs and affects their motivation negatively (Brown & Onouye, 1978). The effect of social modeling depends on the degree of similarity between an individual and a model. If the individual and the model are very similar, the individual is likely to be affected more by the successes and the failures of the model. In contrast, if the individual believes that the model is different from him/her, that model does not affect that individual's efficacy beliefs significantly. Moreover, despite the fact that enactive experiences have a stronger effect on the sense of efficacy, there are also times that vicarious experiences can provide opportunities to

strengthen efficacy beliefs, especially when people have doubts about their capabilities. Vicarious experiences are more influential when people do not have enough mastery experiences from which to judge their capabilities to accomplish a given task (Bandura, 1997).

Verbal persuasion is the third source of efficacy beliefs. When coping with problems, if people are persuaded by others that they have all the capabilities that are required to accomplish a task, this can bring an increased sense of efficacy. Although verbal persuasion is sometimes limited in its effect to strengthen efficacy beliefs, as long as it is realistic, it can bring about a positive influence on the individual. However, if an individual is unrealistically persuaded that he/she has the required capabilities to accomplish the given task, that individual will soon quit in disappointment after realizing that the completion of the task is beyond his/her capabilities (Bandura, 1995). In addition, while verbally persuaded people try harder and sustain their level of effort in the face of problems, others who are not verbally persuaded or who doubt their capabilities hesitate to take action (Litt, 1988). Bandura also emphasizes that strengthening efficacy beliefs through verbal persuasion does not mean using only appraisals, but there are also other ways of doing so, such as creating situations and opportunities for people to succeed by using their capabilities and encouraging measurement of self-development.

People's physiological and affective states, the fourth source of efficacy beliefs, play a role in judging their capabilities. The way people interpret their bodily states and moods, either positively or negatively, at a given time affect their efficacy beliefs about the task to be completed. Positive reading of physical status increases perceived self-efficacy, while a feeling of pain, ache or exhaustion diminishes it.

Similarly, if people are exposed to stress or they are in a foul mood, they tend to think this is a sign of low efficacy that prevents them from doing an activity. Thus, it is necessary that people give more importance to the perception and interpretation of these states rather than their intensity (Bandura, 1997). For instance, while high-efficacy people tend to consider arousal in affective states as an energizer, people who have doubts about their efficacy consider it as a debilitator (Bandura, 1995).

Teacher Efficacy

Since perceptions of self-efficacy can affect an individual's beliefs regarding his/her capabilities to accomplish a given task, it can be argued that self-efficacy beliefs can also affect one's quality of work. In educational settings, teachers are required to teach multilevel ability classrooms, use various instructional strategies, and reach all the students they teach. In order to meet these requirements and teach effectively, they should have a high sense of instructional efficacy. Bandura (1995) argues that teachers' sense of efficacy and capabilities determine how effective learning environments are. Teacher efficacy, also called instructional efficacy, is "teachers' evaluation of their abilities to bring about positive student change" (Gibson & Dembo, 1984, p. 570). It is also defined as "the teacher's beliefs in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998, p. 22).

Research reveals that a teacher's instructional efficacy can partly determine the structure of activities that are planned for teaching and students' beliefs in their capabilities (Gibson & Dembo, (1984). Their research shows that while teachers who have higher instructional efficacy can create mastery experiences for their students

by planning appropriate activities, guiding them, and using positive feedback, those with lower instructional efficacy cause the development of a negative learning environment by focusing on nonacademic activities and criticizing students when they fail, which can weaken students' self-efficacy beliefs and cognitive development. Moreover, teachers with a high sense of instructional efficacy make more effort and decide on the right techniques to reach and teach difficult students. They also believe that effective teaching can counteract the negative effects of home and the neighborhood environment. In contrast, low-efficacy teachers believe that there is little they can do for the unmotivated students, and students' intellectual development is affected more by the negative factors in the home and neighborhood environment than their efforts (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Bandura (1995, 1997) makes another claim that teachers' efficacy beliefs not only affect their view about educational processes in general, but also their particular teaching activities. Teachers with a low sense of efficacy value teacher control of the classroom and strict classroom rules, and tend to hold a pessimistic point of view about students' motivation. On the other hand, teachers who have higher instructional efficacy help students develop intrinsic interests and academic self-directedness (Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1990).

Bandura (1997) argues that since teachers have to meet the academic demands of their school and face the problems of disruptive and unsuccessful students, their inefficacy to meet academic demands can become a stressful experience over time. This situation could result in burnout among individuals working in the teaching profession (Brouwers, Evers, & Tomic, 1999; Çam, 2001; Dworkin, et al., 2003; Evers, et al., 2002; Friedman, 2000; Hakanen, et al., 2006;

Hogan & Mcknight, 2007; Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986; Kalker, 1984; Labone, 1995; Lackritz, 2004; Papastylianou, et al., 2009; Schwab, 2001; Schwarzer, et al., 2000; Talmor, et al., 2005; Van Horn, et al., 1999). Furthermore, in the face of academic stressors, while high-efficacy teachers make an effort and use their resources to find solutions, low-efficacy teachers prefer not to deal with them because of their coping inefficacy. This escapist pattern increases their stress level and can cause burnout (Chwalisz, et al., 1992). Evers et al. (2002) found that efficacious teachers experienced lower levels of burnout, but teachers who had a negative attitude towards the innovation of a new instructional system showed a lower sense of self-efficacy and experienced higher levels of burnout. In educational settings, burnout can be decreased by providing mastery and vicarious experiences with activities that will enhance efficacy beliefs rather than just planning interventions to eliminate the sources of burnout (Fives, Hammana, & Olivarez, 2007)

Instruments Used To Measure Teacher Efficacy

For the last forty years in teacher efficacy research, various instruments have been developed to measure teacher efficacy. Each new instrument was an attempt to develop a better scale by finding the weaknesses of previous ones and offering a solution to the measurement problem of teacher efficacy in that scale.

One of the widely used teacher efficacy scales is Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale (1984). This scale has two factor loads: Personal Teaching Efficacy and Teacher Efficacy. The first factor, Personal Teaching Efficacy, represents "belief that one has the skills and abilities to bring about student learning" (Gibson & Dembo, 1984, p. 573). The items in this factor are related to Bandura's

(1995, 1997) self-efficacy theory. The second factor, Teaching Efficacy, represents the "belief that any teacher's ability to bring about change is significantly limited by factors external to the teacher, such as the environment, family background and parental influences" (Gibson & Dembo, 1984, p. 574). This instrument uses the Likert scale format, and higher scores on both subscales mean a stronger sense of teacher efficacy while lower scores mean a weaker sense of teacher efficacy. Although the sixteen items on this scale revealed acceptable reliability coefficients, it has received criticism since it may produce inconsistent factor loads (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). However, it is "one of the most commonly used and well-researched instruments for assessing teacher efficacy" (Goddard, et al., 2000, p. 487), and in the Turkish context, there is no research that reports problems with the use of this scale.

Another instrument developed to measure teacher efficacy is Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, also known as the *Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale* (OSTES). It has a both a long (24-item) and a short (12-item) version. The long form has also been translated into Turkish (Çapa, Çakıroğlu & Sarıkaya, 2005). There are three subscales in the OSTES: Instructional Strategies, Classroom Management, and Student Engagement. The inclusion of these scales "represent the richness of teachers' work lives and the requirements of good teaching" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, p. 801). Moreover, developers claim that the scale has a consistent factor structure, and it assesses various capabilities required for effective instruction. However, this scale needs development in assessing task analysis and instructional efficacy since a teacher's field knowledge and prior experience may have an impact on his/her task

analysis, efforts for finding solutions, and decisions and actions (Fives, 2003). Moreover, most of the items do not have clear obstacles, such as the phrase *the most difficult students*, which Bandura (1997) recommends using. He claims that "If there are no obstacles to surmount, the activity is easy to perform, and everyone has uniformly high perceived self-efficacy for it" (p. 42).

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) also cite some instruments that were developed to measure teacher efficacy. The Ashton vignettes (Ashton, Buhr, & Crocker, 1984, cited in Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), which has two versions, was based on the idea that instructional efficacy was context specific. The first version of the vignettes gave examples of situations a teacher may face and asked teachers to evaluate their effectiveness in coping with the given situation. The second version of the vignettes required teachers to compare themselves with other teachers. However, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) report that the Ashton vignettes were used only in one study, for which the original scales were developed.

There are also subject-matter modifications of Gibson and Dembo's (1984) scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The Science Teaching Efficacy Belief Instrument (Riggs & Enochs, 1990, cited in Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) was developed to measure teachers' efficacy in science teaching in general. The study found two independent factors: Personal Science Teaching Efficacy and Science Teaching Outcome Expectancy. Classroom management efficacy was also measured by Emmer (1990). His scale has 30 items on three subscales: efficacy for classroom management and discipline, external influences, and personal teaching efficacy.

Bandura (1997) argued that teaching efficacy may not be uniform across various tasks or various subject-matter, and he developed his 30-item teacher efficacy scale (cited in Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The seven subscales in his scale were *efficacy to influence decision-making, efficacy to influence school resources, instructional efficacy, disciplinary efficacy, efficacy to enlist parental involvement, efficacy to enlist community involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate*. This scale attempted to reach a wider range of efficacy beliefs; however, there is no reference that provides reliability and validity information.

Collective Efficacy

Studies show that just as burnout and self-efficacy can be related, teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy can be related since teachers work collectively rather than individually to perform academic tasks in a school (Goddard & Goddard, 2001; Kurz & Knight, 2004; Labone, 1995). Moreover, schools are organizations that include a social network of relationships among students, teachers, and administrators, so it can be argued that a group sense of efficacy is necessary for the successful accomplishment of academic tasks and to bring about a positive effect on students.

Bandura (1997) claims that changes in peoples' lives have their roots in social systems, so "personal agency operates within a broad network of sociostructural influences" (p. 6). Moreover, rather than working in isolation, people collaborate to reach their objectives. This means that it is not always possible for them to control all the events in their lives on their own only. Many difficulties that people face require them to work together to have a better life. Thus, in essence,

Bandura's collective efficacy theory is based on the idea that people live in a social network of relations.

Bandura (1997) defines perceived collective efficacy as "a group's shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainments" (p. 477). Collective efficacy is the emergent performance capability of a group in a social system. Also, it has an effect on the group members' perceptions of the mission and the purpose of the system they are in, the level of commitment to success, how efficiently colleagues cooperate, and their groups' ability to cope with difficulties. However, the sum of self-efficacy beliefs of members of a group does not reveal the perceived collective efficacy of that group. Perceived collective efficacy is "the product of coordinative and interactive dynamics" of a group (p .7) and it may be affected by factors like different competencies, structure of the group, coordination of activities, the way the group is led, and the style of interaction among the members. Moreover, some group members can be influenced by other members' beliefs, motivation and performance levels. Bandura (1997) also argues that the availability of resources, obstacles or opportunities in a social system partly determines the efficacy levels of the individuals in that system.

Although collective self-efficacy is believed to develop from self-efficacy, there may be times when personal and general judgments of collective efficacy do not bring expected results (Bandura, 1997). For instance, although the rest of the members in a group have a high sense of self-efficacy, even one member with a low sense of efficacy in that group can cause failure in an activity that requires close collaboration, acting as a weak link. Likewise, even if all the members of a group are

at the highest level of self-efficacy, sometimes they may fail to perform successfully as a group if they cannot work cooperatively. These examples also show that the aggregate of personal efficacies that reveal high collective efficacy beliefs does not always guarantee successful accomplishment of a task (Bandura, 1997). Thus, in educational settings, it is crucial to know how collective teacher efficacy and its sources can influence the effectiveness of education given in a school, which the following two sections are about.

Collective Teacher Efficacy

Based on his social cognitive theory, Bandura (1997) claims that "people's shared belief in their capabilities to produce effects collectively is a crucial ingredient of collective agency" (p. 7). This assertion provides the basis for Goddard et al.'s (2000) definition of collective teacher efficacy. Goddard et al (2000) define collective teacher efficacy as "the perceptions of teachers in a school that the efforts of the faculty as a whole will have a positive effect on students" (p. 480). Collective efficacy beliefs are similar to individual teacher efficacy beliefs in that they include factors like the analysis of tasks, level of effort, persistence, and stress levels of a group.

Bandura (1995) notes that teachers in a school who collectively believe that they do not have enough power to help students become successful could cause a collective sense of failure that can last for the entire life of that school. On the other hand, if those teachers believe that they have the skills to increase the success level of students, they infuse their school with eagerness for further development. Furthermore, if teachers in a school have a passionate belief that they can motivate

and teach any student even from a poor and minority family, that school can reach high level of academic success (Bandura, 1995).

For Bandura (1997), in efficacious schools principals act as educational leaders who try to find ways to provide a better education and remove obstacles that hinder academic innovations. Additionally, teachers have equal responsibility for their students' development. Moreover, efficacious schools are those that plan learning activities with the objective of developing personal and reasoning skills and that maintain effective classroom management.

It is also worth mentioning that perceptions of collective efficacy by individual teachers differ according to the grade level and subject taught (Bandura, 1997). This is true for both the perceptions of the individual instructional efficacy in the classroom and the collective efficacy of a school as a whole. Teachers have a low sense of efficacy at the lower grades due to minimal scholastic demands. However, as the grade level increases, teachers have a strongly held belief that they can teach their students since they become more familiar with school practices and academic demands are at a reasonable level. At the upper grades the increase in complex academic demands and salient academic deficits sometimes cause teachers to believe that there is a decrease in teaching efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Sources of Collective Teacher Efficacy

As previously discussed, Bandura (1995, 1997) argues that there are four sources of self-efficacy that shape people's beliefs about their capabilities to organize courses of action. These are *enactive mastery experiences* that function as manifestations of capability; *vicarious experiences* that influence efficacy beliefs through modeling others; *verbal persuasion* that helps people see they have certain

capabilities; and *physiological and affective states.* Goddard et al (2000) argues that these sources of self-efficacy are essential for the development of collective teacher efficacy beliefs, as well.

For Goddard et al. (2000), mastery experiences are crucial for organizations. Teachers experience success or failure as a group, not individually, since they work in a social network of relations with students, other teachers and administrators. When teachers become successful as a group, this can enhance their perception of collective efficacy. However, when they fail as a group, this causes a low sense of collective efficacy. Also, if a group of teachers experience frequent and easy successes, a failure could cause negative evaluations of collective efficacy. A strong sense of collective efficacy should develop from handling difficulties through perpetual and collective effort because past experiences of organizations are the determiners of future success or failure (Huber, 1991).

Goddard et al. (2000) argue that teachers do not base their efficacy beliefs only on mastery experiences, but they also learn from vicarious experiences. These vicarious experiences can be stories of success of other teachers or other schools. Also, research on the characteristics of effective schools represents models for teachers and schools, thus vicarious experiences can provide effective sources of collective efficacy development, which is supported by Huber's (1991) claim that organizations observe and learn from each other.

Social persuasion is another source that strengthens collective efficacy beliefs of teachers in a school. Professional development activities like talks, workshops, opportunities for professional development, and feedback following success can be influential on collective efficacy beliefs. However, sometimes verbal persuasion is

not an effective source, and it should also be accompanied by mastery and vicarious experiences to affect the collective efficacy of teachers in a school. That verbal persuasion alone is not effective does not mean it is not a powerful source. Through persuasion, teachers can persist and make an extra effort to be successful (Goddard, et al., 2000).

Moreover, affective states can be a source of collective efficacy beliefs just as they are for individuals. Schools show reaction to stress and other factors that may affect their function. Organizations with a stronger sense of collective efficacy can endure pressure and still operate with persistent effort without serious consequences thanks to adapting and coping with negative forces. On the other hand, organizations with a lower sense of collective efficacy cannot react to negative forces in a functional way, which increases their chances of failure. Those organizations may misread the affective state caused by the negative factors and they may not show a stable reaction pattern (Goddard, et al., 2000).

Instruments Used to Measure Collective Teacher Efficacy

Research on collective efficacy is relatively new (Bandura, 1997) when compared to research on teacher burnout and teacher efficacy. As a matter of fact, it has only started to attract attention in the last decade. Thus, it is not surprising that a literature review of the instruments used to measure collective teacher efficacy revealed only two commonly used instruments: the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale (Goddard, et al., 2000) and the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale-Short Form (Goddard, 2002).

The Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale (Goddard, et al., 2000) is the first professionally designed instrument to measure collective teacher efficacy. It was developed by taking Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale (1984) as a model. It has 21 items on a Likert-type scale with responses, which range between *strongly disagree* and *strongly agree*. This scale has high reliability and the items in the two dimensions in it are strongly interrelated (Goddard, et al., 2000). However, the items in the two dimensions are not equally distributed and there occurred a need to find a balance between these two factors (Goddard, 2002).

In order to increase the measurement power and fix weighting problem of the items in the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale (Goddard, et al., 2000), Goddard (2002) attempted to develop a short form of the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale. The 12 items in the scale load on a single factor in two dimensions. The first dimension, *Group Competence*, refers to the "inferences about the faculty's teaching skills, methods, training, and expertise" at the school level (Goddard, et al., 2000, p. 485). The second dimension, *Task Analysis*, refers to "inferences about the challenges of teaching in that school, that is, what it would take for teachers in the school to be successful" (Goddard, et al., 2000, p. 485). Like the original one, this scale has high reliability, but the items in it have an equal distribution. There are six items in the general competency dimension and six items in the task analysis dimension. Goddard (2002) claims that the 12 items in the new scale reflect all the dimensions of the original scale. Moreover, the strong correlation between the short and long forms (r = .983) shows that the short form is another useful instrument to measure collective teacher efficacy.

Studies on the Relationship among Burnout and Individual and Collective Teacher Efficacy

So far, the previous three sections have focused on definitions and sources of burnout, teacher efficacy, and collective teacher efficacy. In order to understand how burnout, teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy can be related, which is the ultimate goal of the current study, the previous studies on them should be reviewed. Thus, the following section will present a review of the studies on the relationship among burnout, teacher efficacy, and collective teacher efficacy.

Burnout and Teacher Efficacy

Brouwers and Tomic (1999) tested the hypothesis that student disruptive behavior can be a source of low teacher self-efficacy in classroom management, which, in the end, can cause teacher burnout. They investigated (1) the effect of student disruptive behavior on burnout among secondary school teachers, (2) the role of perceived self-efficacy in classroom management and discipline and (3) if these effects signal a negative feedback-loop, which can be experienced as a result of high exposure to student disruptive behavior that results in a decrease in the self-efficacy for classroom management. Six hundred and eleven secondary teachers in the Netherlands participated in the study. The results showed that the feeling of personal accomplishment had an indirect effect on teacher efficacy through student disruptive behavior. When teachers could not handle negative student behaviors effectively and their coping strategies did not help, this caused a feeling of burnout. In addition, the feeling of personal accomplishment had a direct positive effect on teacher efficacy. They also discovered that as disruptive behavior increased, the level of perceived self-efficacy decreased causing a higher level of burnout. It was also revealed that

personal accomplishment had a direct effect on perceived self-efficacy and that the level of perceived self-efficacy can be useful to explain teacher burnout. Brouwers and Tomic's (1999) research is important because it is the first example that investigates the relationship between teacher burnout and perceived self-efficacy in classroom management. It also showed that these two concepts can be related and paved the way for further research.

Friedman (2003) explored the relationship of teacher burnout to perceived self-efficacy. In the study, self-efficacy was conceptualized as a three-dimensional construct that included task, relations, and organization. Burnout was both a three-dimensional and one-dimensional construct (aggregated score including the three dimensions). Using this multi-facet approach, he examined 1) the relationship between teacher burnout and self-efficacy, 2) differences in the levels of self-efficacy, and 3) the link between a teacher's demographic and organizational background variables and self-efficacy. The participants were 322 elementary school teachers from 21 randomly selected schools in Israel. The findings of the study revealed that higher levels of perceived efficacy resulted in lower levels of burnout and that two variables in the self-efficacy scales, organizational task efficacy and interpersonal relations efficacy, were negatively correlated with burnout. Moreover, scores on perceived self-efficacy were associated with teaching role and teacher educational background as background variables. Friedman's (2003) research is important in the sense that it shows there are other factors that influence and mediate between burnout and efficacy beliefs. Friedman (2003) further claims that there may be a reciprocal nature of relationship between self-efficacy and burnout, as well. While a low sense of self-efficacy can cause burnout, burnout can be a strong

predictor of low personal and general teaching efficacy. Also, higher levels of personal accomplishment can bring about higher levels of self-efficacy (Madden-Szeszko, 2000).

Betoret (2006) conducted a similar study to examine the relationships among teacher occupational stressors, self-efficacy, coping resources, and burnout. The study had two aims. The first aim was to explore the role of self-efficacy and school coping resources in how job stressors and burnout were perceived. It was expected that teachers who had high coping resources would face fewer barriers (stressors) and they would be influenced less by burnout, or vice versa. The second aim was to explore how job stressors could affect burnout, and if "perceived self-efficacy and perceived school coping resources play a mediator or moderator role in the stressor-burnout relationship" (p.530). The participants were 247 secondary school teachers in Spain. The researcher found that self-efficacy and school coping resources (school equipment, human resources, human support resources such as psychologists, and didactic resources like OHPs) were linked to most teacher stressor and burnout. Teachers who had a higher sense of self-efficacy and easier access to school coping resources experienced less burnout than others who had a lower sense of self-efficacy and school coping resources. Moreover, stressors were found to have stronger effects on motivational and anxiety scales and weaker effects on work involvement/teacher effort. This means that stressors that affect teacher work effort cause tension that influences anxiety and motivation. The overall results of the study reveal that the level of perceived self-efficacy and school coping resources have the potential to act as a moderator between stressors and burnout. Betoret's (2006) research also supports the findings of the previous research that shows moderating

effects of self-efficacy and school coping resources on burnout, as well as providing a detailed model and explanations of how and to what extend burnout can develop from low self-efficacy and occupational stressors.

Karahan (2008) analyzed the factors that affect the perceived self-efficacy and experienced burnout of educators in special education schools. The factors taken into consideration were age, gender, marital status, educational level, major, work field, length of environment, daily tour of duty, number of students, the type of school, and occupation. There was a total of 263 participants from various occupations working in 47 public and private special education schools in İstanbul, Turkey. The participants' occupations varied from psychologists, special education teachers, primary school teachers, pre-school teachers, child development specialists, and psychological counselors. The results of the study revealed that gender, educational level, major, work field, length of employment, daily tour of duty, and the type of school were predictors of burnout. Furthermore, as the level of perceived self-efficacy increased, the level of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization decreased, but the level of personal accomplishment increased. However, educators' level of perceived self-efficacy was not significantly affected by any socio-demographic factor. Karahan (2008) shows that self-efficacy and burnout can be related; however, they may not stem from the same sources. Thus, this study is another example of the studies that show teaching may be context specific (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Goddard, et al., 2000) and the factors that affect self-efficacy and burnout cannot be generalized to all schools.

Teacher Efficacy and Collective Teacher Efficacy

Goddard and Goddard (2001) conducted a study to test the strength of the relationship between teacher efficacy and collective efficacy. Their hypothesis was that collective teacher efficacy beliefs could predict the differences among schools in their perceptions of teacher efficacy. The participants in the study were 452 elementary school teachers from 47 schools in the mid-western United States. The findings of the study revealed that teacher efficacy beliefs could differ systematically among schools. The researchers argue that this shows schools may have an effect on the perceptions of teacher efficacy. Moreover, the results of the study can be evidence that collective efficacy beliefs of teachers in a school can be used to understand the differences in teacher efficacy beliefs since it was observed that where collective teacher efficacy was higher, teacher efficacy was higher. Additionally, the researchers found that collective efficacy beliefs could predict the differences in teacher efficacy beliefs among the schools that were included in the study. Goddard and Goddard's (2001) study is a very significant one since it is the first to examine the effect of collective teacher efficacy on individual teacher efficacy. Also, it shows that collective teacher efficacy can be a school contextual factor that has the potential to affect individual efficacy beliefs of teachers.

A study by Kurz and Knight (2004) aimed to explore the relationship among individual teacher efficacy, collective teacher efficacy and goal consensus/vision. To this end, the researchers explored the relationship 1) between individual and collective teacher efficacy, and 2) among teacher efficacy, collective teacher efficacy, and goal consensus/vision. One hundred and thirteen high school teachers teaching to 2140 students in a small city in Texas participated in the study. The

findings of the study showed that collective teacher efficacy was positively correlated with individual teacher efficacy and goal consensus/vision, but the correlation was higher with goal consensus/vision. However, individual teacher efficacy was not correlated with goal consensus/vision. The researchers concluded that because individual and collective teacher efficacy and goal consensus/vision are interrelated, a change in one could affect others. Kurz and Knight's (2004) study is a valuable example in the literature since it supports the idea that collective efficacy is related with personal efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Goddard & Goddard, 2001)

Zambo and Zambo's (2008) research was into how professional development in mathematics can affect teachers' individual and collective efficacy. Sixty-three voluntary teachers from *underperforming* schools in Arizona (labeled by the U.S. *No Child Left Behind* legislation, which classified schools according to the extent to which their students' meet academic standards) participating in a two-week teacher development workshop were the subjects in the study. The participants were called *the low group* (if there were many underperforming schools in their districts) and *the high group* (if there were few underperforming schools in their districts). Three hypotheses were tested in the study. The first hypothesis was that personal competence and personal level of influence scores would rise in the post-test due to the expected affect of the workshops on their personal teaching. Additionally, it was anticipated that group competence and contextual influence scores would not rise because the workshop would not have any direct effect on their opinions about their colleagues and problems of teaching in their home schools. The second hypothesis was that the scores of the teachers on personal competence would be higher than the scores on group competence because it was their choice to attend a development

workshop to increase their teaching effectiveness, so this would not cause a change in their views about their colleagues. The third hypothesis was that the scores of the teachers on the group competence in the high group would be higher than the scores of the low group. It was thought that the teachers already knew about the labels given to their school and the high group was expected to have a more positive view of their colleagues, and the low group would be more negative since they were affected negatively by the label, *underperforming*, given to their school.

The findings of Zambo and Zambo's (2008) study showed that the scores from the post-test on personal competence were significantly higher for the low and high group. Similar to Hoy and Woolfolk (1993), teachers' personal competence grew stronger as they gained new experiences and learnt more about their profession. Interestingly, there was a significantly important rise on the scores of the group competence of the low group. The researchers suggest that this may have been because they had the chance to cooperate with their colleagues, which may have caused a change in their views about them. Both the low and the high group scored higher on personal competence than group competence, but a higher sense of personal competence did not bring a higher sense of group competence. Finally, as expected, the high group had a higher sense of group confidence since they already knew their students' achievement levels and their school's rank in *No Child Left Behind* project. To summarize, the results of Zambo and Zambo's (2008) study show that professional development activities can bring about an increase in teachers' sense of instructional efficacy. Also, increased sense of individual and collective instructional efficacy may have a positive influence on students' achievements (Goddard, et al., 2000).

Burnout, Teacher Efficacy and Collective Teacher Efficacy

Labone (1995) investigated the relationship between teacher burnout and teacher efficacy in a two-year longitudinal study, including collective teacher efficacy. However, the focus in her research was the predictive power of the differences between general teaching efficacy (the degree to which teachers can have an effect upon students) and personal teaching efficacy (the degree to which an individual teacher feels s/he can affect students). Full-time primary and secondary school teachers in New South Wales, Australia participated in the study. In Year 1 of the study, 330 teachers participated, but in Year 2, the number dropped to 264 teachers.

There were several findings indicating correlations between dimensions of teacher burnout and teacher efficacy. The findings of the study revealed that there was a significant positive correlation between general teaching efficacy and emotional exhaustion, and general teaching efficacy and depersonalization. That is, teachers who believed strongly in the ideal of teachers influencing students scored high on two of the three burnout dimensions, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. There was also a significant negative correlation between general teaching efficacy and personal accomplishment. In addition, it was also found that there was a significant positive correlation between personal teaching efficacy and personal accomplishment, and a significant negative correlation between both depersonalization and emotional exhaustion, suggesting that lower personal teaching efficacy may be related to burnout. The findings also revealed significant correlations between collective teacher efficacy and burnout. The correlation between collective efficacy and personal accomplishment was positive; however,

collective efficacy was negatively correlated with both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Labone argues that teachers' collective efficacy beliefs affect the level of burnout they experience. To summarize, Labone's (1995) research made a valuable contribution to the literature by investigating the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy before collective efficacy was more systematically investigated by other researchers like Goddard et al. (2000), Goddard and Goddard (2001) and Goddard et al. (2004). However, rather than investigating collective efficacy beliefs as group competence and teaching task analysis, this study remains limited in scope since it measures collective efficacy with only four questions in terms of teachers' perceptions of the quality of the school, the students' experience of the school, teachers' collegial work of satisfaction within the school, and the degree of regard the school holds within the surrounding community.

Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) examined the relationship among teacher self-efficacy and its relationship with strain factors, perceived collective teacher efficacy, external control, and burnout. The study also included the Norwegian Teacher Efficacy Scale that was developed by the researchers. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) hypothesized that 1) there would be a negative correlation between teacher burnout and teacher self-efficacy, and 2) there would be a positive correlation between strain factors and burnout, due to partial mediation by teacher self-efficacy. Two hundred forty-six elementary and middle school teachers participated in the study. The results showed that teacher self-efficacy had a negative correlation with burnout, but a positive correlation with collective teacher efficacy. Also, although perceived external control was not significantly correlated with teacher self-efficacy, it had a

weak, but direct correlation with burnout. Moreover, teachers' feeling that they have to plan their courses in unfavorable ways or the feeling of having to do so even when they did not have to were negatively correlated to some dimensions of the teacher efficacy scale developed for the study and collective teacher efficacy. Based upon their results, and those of Goddard et al. (2004), Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) also claim that collective teacher efficacy may affect teachers' self-efficacy, as observed in another study by Goddard and Goddard (2001). A high sense of collective efficacy in a school causes challenging goals, and these goals demand higher efforts from teachers, increasing their effectiveness and bringing about a higher sense of instructional efficacy. This effect can also be explained as the effect of vicarious experiences. Seeing other teachers handle various aspects of teaching or observing them when they work in teams could increase individual teachers sense of instructional efficacy (Bandura 1995, 1997). Following Labone (1995), this study is the second in literature that investigates the relationship among burnout and individual and collective efficacy as well as paving the way for further research.

Conclusion

In this chapter, a review of literature on burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy, including their sources, the relationship among them, and the instruments used to measure them, was presented. The overview of the studies in this chapter shows that teacher efficacy is negatively correlated with burnout, but positively with collective teacher efficacy. Moreover, as well as being a significant predictor of teacher efficacy, collective teacher efficacy is negatively correlated with burnout. Additionally, this chapter reveals that there have been few studies on the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy, and that

the participants in those studies were primary or secondary school teachers. Therefore, the present study aims to fill this gap in the literature with an attempt to explore the direct relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy in a university setting with university teachers.

The next chapter will present the methodology of the present study and cover the participants, instruments, data collection, and data analysis procedures. It will be followed by the presentation of the findings, and then, the findings will be discussed in the final chapter.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this exploratory study is to investigate teachers' experiences of burnout and their perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy in an intensive English language program at a Turkish state university. This study also aims to explore the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy in the same setting. Thus, the following research questions were addressed in the study:

1. At this school,
    a) what are teachers' experiences of burnout?
    b) what are teachers' perceptions of individual teacher efficacy?
    c) what are teachers' perceptions of collective teacher efficacy?
2. At this school, what is the relationship between
    a) burnout and individual teacher efficacy,
    b) individual teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy,
    c) burnout and collective teacher efficacy?

Setting

The school where the present study was conducted was founded to provide compulsory and elective intensive English language education to students before starting their majors. This school follows a skill-based curriculum that aims to teach English at different proficiency levels. Each year students are given a placement test before the fall and spring semesters start and they are offered four courses during their education at each proficiency level. These courses are Grammar, Reading,

Writing and Listening/Speaking. To maintain coordination between the administration and teachers who teach different courses and to plan teaching and testing processes, there are course coordinators and level-responsible teachers who are responsible for the activities within and between proficiency levels. Above all, the deputy director of the school is responsible for the coordination of all educational activities. The majority of teachers teach 22-24 hours a week and all teachers are also required to cooperate with other teachers while writing and grading tests, hold at least two office meetings a week with their students, participate in curriculum development workshops, and various in-service training activities.

Participants

There were 136 teachers in the school where the present study was conducted in the 2009-2010 academic year fall semester, but 123 teachers participated in the first stage of the data collection. Among the 123 participants, 92 were female and 31 were male with different majors in English language, such as English Language Teaching and American Culture and Literature. Also, their experiences ranged between *0-5 years* and *21 years and above*. Moreover, the participants held degrees that ranged between B.A. and Ph.D. (see Appendix A for a detailed list). Ten out of 13 teachers who did not participate in the study were on leave for various reasons and the remaining three teachers were foreign nationals. The reason why those three teachers were excluded from the study was that they are offered a private contract to work in this school and their teaching load differs from other teachers, which could cause a change in their perceptions of the work place. In the second stage of the data collection, semi-structured interviews, interviewees were selected according to their level of burnout and perceptions of teacher efficacy based on their z-scores. Three

interviewees from each low and high group of burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy were randomly selected, which resulted in 18 interviewees. An additional four interviewees who showed a different pattern than the major trend according to the results of the correlation tests were also added. For instance, high level of teacher burnout was correlated with low level of teacher efficacy; however, some participants experienced a high level of burnout, but they also had a high sense of teacher efficacy.

Instruments

This study utilized two data collection instruments. Each instrument is described in detail in the following sections.

Survey Form

The first instrument, the Survey Form, consisted of five sections. Specifically, the questionnaire included: 1) an Informed Consent Form (see Appendix B), 2) a Personal and Work Data Questionnaire, 3) a Turkish version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey (Girgin, 1995), which measures the three dimensions of burnout, (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment), 4) the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), which measures the two factors of the teacher efficacy, (personal teaching efficacy and teaching efficacy), and 5) The Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale-Short Form (Goddard, 2002).

The Personal Data and Work Questionnaire (see Appendix C) was developed by the researcher and used to collect demographic and work-related data. The questionnaire consisted of 8 multiple-choice items including the participants' age,

major, experience, educational status, administrative duties, teaching hours, and the skill(s) and course(s) they taught.

To measure the participants' the level of burnout, a Turkish version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (Girgin, 1995), which was adapted by the researcher, was used (see Appendix E). In the inventory, there are 22 items on a 7-point Likert scale ranging between *never* and *every day.* The Likert scale items that were used in the present study were the original items on the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) (see Appendix F) unlike Girgin's (1995) 5-point Likert scale (see Appendix D) because the participants were familiar with these items due to their participation in similar studies before. This inventory measures the three different dimensions of burnout: 1) Emotional Exhaustion, 2) Depersonalization, and 3) Reduced Personal Accomplishment (or inefficacy). The Emotional Exhaustion dimension reflects the "feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work" (Maslach, et al., 2008, p. 93) and has nine items (1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 13, 14, 16, and 20). Depersonalization is "an unfeeling and impersonal response towards recipients of one's care or service" (Maslach, et al., 2008, p. 93) and there are five items (5, 10, 11, 15, and 22) that reflect this feeling in the inventory. The third dimension, Reduced Personal Accomplishment (or inefficacy) describes the lack of "feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work with people" (Maslach, et al., 2008, p. 94). The eight items (4, 7, 9, 12, 17, 18, 19, and 21) in this dimension reflect the self-evaluation of one's success or satisfaction with their personal development. It should be noted that the burnout inventory reveals three scores for each participant and not a single burnout score since the factor analysis of the inventory revealed three different factor loads

(Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Moreover, Maslach, et al. (2008) argue that the score from each single dimension should be considered separately so that other researchers could study the correlates of the feeling of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. Additionally, since psychiatric syndromes generally need multiple criteria for an accurate diagnosis (Maslach, et al., 2008) and the outward expressions of each dimension is different from each other, each dimension's score should be studied separately.

Girgin (1995) reports Cronbach's alphas for the Turkish version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (Girgin, 1995) as .87 for Emotional Exhaustion, .63 for Depersonalization, and .74 for Reduced Personal Accomplishment (or inefficacy). This inventory was chosen for the study for a couple of reasons. First, unlike the original scale (Maslach & Jackson, 1986b), the developer grants permission to use it for free. Also, the participants in the study were familiar with this inventory since they had participated in similar burnout studies in the same setting and reported no problems regarding the comprehension of the items in the previous years.

The Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) was used to measure the instructional efficacy of the participants (see Appendix G). It includes 16 items on a 6-point Likert scale ranging between *strongly disagree* and *strongly agree.* Gibson and Dembo (1984) found two main factors in this scale. The first factor, Personal Teaching Efficacy, "appears to represent a teacher's sense of personal teaching efficacy, or belief that one has the skills and abilities to bring about student learning" (p. 573). The nine items in this factor (1, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, and 15) are the perceptions of a teacher's responsibilities in student learning and/or behavior and

reflects Bandura's (1995, 1997) self-efficacy theory (p.573). An example of the items in this factor is "When a student gets a better grade than he usually gets, it is usually because I found better ways of teaching that student". The second factor, Teaching Efficacy, "represents a teacher's sense of teaching efficacy, or belief that any teacher's ability to bring about change is significantly limited by factors external to the teacher, such as the home environment, family background, and parental influences" (p.574). The seven items in this factor (2, 3, 4, 8, 11, 14, and 16) display a "teacher's belief about the general relationship between teaching and learning …" (p.574). An example of the items in this factor is "A teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his/her achievement" (p.573).

Gibson and Dembo (1984) report that the Cronbach's alpha for the Personal Teaching Efficacy, the Teaching Efficacy and for all the 16 items is .78, .75, and .79, respectively. This scale was chosen to measure teacher efficacy because it is "one of the most commonly used and well-researched instruments for assessing teacher efficacy" (Goddard, et al., 2000, p. 487), and in the Turkish context, there is no research that reports problems with the use of this scale. Also, the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale-Short Form (Goddard, 2002), which was used to measure teachers' perceptions of collective efficacy in the present study, was developed from this scale. However, some items in this scale were modified by the researcher (see Appendix H). Items 6 and 13 were modified due to semantic awkwardness (e.g. he/she); items 2, 8, and 14 were modified to better reflect the external factors related to teaching and learning in a university setting, and item 10 was modified since students do not receive math education in the setting of the study.

To measure the participants' perceptions of collective teacher efficacy, the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale-Short Form (Goddard, 2002) was used (see Appendix I). This scale has 12 items on a 6-point Likert Scale ranging between *strongly disagree* and *strongly agree.* Also, there are two dimensions in the scale that load on a single factor. The first dimension, Group Competence, refers to the "inferences about the faculty's teaching skills, methods, training, and expertise" at the school level (Goddard, et al., 2000, p. 485). There are six items (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 9) in this dimension that are positively or negatively worded. An example of the items in this dimension is "Teachers in this school are able to get through to difficult students". The second dimension, Task Analysis, refers to "inferences about the challenges of teaching in that school, that is, what it would take for teachers in the school to be successful" (Goddard, et al., 2000, p. 485). There are six items (6, 7, 8, 10, 11, and 12) that are positively or negatively worded in this dimension, as well. An example of those items is "Students here just aren't motivated to learn". Goddard (2002) reports that the Cronbach's alpha of this scale is .94, which shows that it is highly reliable. The reason why this scale was chosen for the study is that it was developed from Gibson and Dembo's (1984) Teacher Efficacy Scale. Also, Goddard (2002) reports that the weighting problem of the items in the two dimensions in the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale (Goddard, et al., 2000) were fixed (six items in each dimension) and an equal number of positively worded (six items) and negatively worded (six items) items was included. Moreover, he argues that the 12 items in the scale reflect all the dimensions in the long form, the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale (Goddard, et al., 2000), and reports there is a strong correlation between the short and long forms (r=. 983). However, as in the Teacher Efficacy

Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) some items in this scale were modified by the researcher (see Appendix J). Items 3 and 5 were modified due to semantic awkwardness (e.g. child/student), and items 7 and 10 were modified to better reflect the external factors related to teaching and learning in the setting of the study.

Semi-structured Interviews

The second instrument that was used for data collection in the study was a semi-structured interview. To collect in-depth data and extend the scope of the study, 11 questions about the participants' perceptions of where they work were prepared following the analysis of the survey data (see Appendix K for the Turkish version and Appendix L for the English version). In the interview process, three issues, work-related stress, teacher efficacy, and collective teacher efficacy were covered. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect qualitative data in this study because they serve as a point of departure and guide researchers during the interview process. This kind of interview also allows researchers not to be limited by pre-set questions, enabling them to ask other questions as the interview unfolds (Dörnyei, 2007; Nunan & Bailey, 2009). In the interviews, the term *burnout* was replaced with *stress*, and the term *efficacy* was replaced with *effectiveness* since the participants might not have been familiar with these terms and thus, they might have difficulty in understanding the interview questions. The first set of questions in the interviews included four questions that aimed to explore the amount of stress that the participants felt and its causes, the participants' perceptions of the amount of stress they had compared to the other teachers in the school, and their stress coping strategies. The next set of questions in the interviews focused on the participants' own sense of teacher efficacy. Those four questions aimed to investigate the

participants' sense of effectiveness as a teacher, work-related issues that made it easier or more difficult for them to be more effective, and their sense of effectiveness compared to the other teachers in the school. The last set of questions aimed to explore the participants' sense of collective efficacy as a school. The three questions in this set focused on their sense of collective efficacy as a school, the influence of the work environment on their collective effectiveness, and the things that should be done to be a more effective school.

Pilot Study

Although the Turkish version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (Girgin, 1995), the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), and the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale-Short Form (Goddard, 2002) are reliable and valid data collection instruments, it was thought that a pilot study would be beneficial to foresee any possible problems that the participants could face while filling out the survey form because they had not participated in a similar study before. Thus, with the participation of 14 English language teachers in Bilkent University MA TEFL Program, a pilot study of the survey form to be used in the study was conducted. The Turkish version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey Girgin, 1995) revealed Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .87 for the Emotional Exhaustion dimension, .78 for the Depersonalization dimension, and .72 for the Reduced Personal Accomplishment (inefficacy) dimension. The Cronbach's alpha on the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) was .78 for the Personal Teaching Efficacy factor and .63 for the Teaching Efficacy factor. The overall reliability of the scale was .71. Lastly, the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale-Short Form (Goddard, 2002) revealed Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .84. At the end of the pilot study, the

participants reported that on the efficacy scales, the Likert scale items “Slightly disagree, more than agree” and “Agree slightly, more than disagree” were confusing and suggested changing them as “Disagree slightly” and “Agree slightly”, respectively (see Appendix G and H, and I and J, respectively). For the rest of the survey form, the participants reported no other problems, and the survey form was sent to the school where the present study was going to be conducted to receive official permission for data collection. Before starting to collect data, one final change in the adapted Turkish version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey was suggested by the Ethics Committee in the setting of the study. The committee suggested that the Likert scale items between “Never” and “Every day” be omitted, and the frequency adverb “Sometimes” be added in the middle of the scale to prevent confusion related to the frequency of the burnout feeling experienced by the participants (see Appendix E and F, respectively). Following this final change, the survey form was ready to collect data.

The interview questions were also piloted with the same pilot study group in Bilkent University MA TEFL Program. Those participants acted both as an interviewer and an interviewee in order to be able to foresee the possible interpretation problems in the real interview because the participants in the school where the present study was going to be conducted did not have an experience of being interviewed about their perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy. Recommendations by the pilot study group were examined and necessary changes were made to prepare the final form of the interview questions, which resulted in 11 questions (see Appendix K for the Turkish version and Appendix L for the English version).

Data Collection Procedure

After official permission was granted to collect data from the university, the survey form was delivered to the offices of the teachers on January 14, 2010 by the researcher. The survey form was accompanied by a consent form (see Appendix B) that provided detailed information about the purpose of the study, participants' rights, and the contact information of the researcher for any question that could arise later related to the study. The return process took 8 days and all of the 123 survey forms were returned by the participants for a rate of 100%. Later, the data collected were entered into SPSS to be analyzed quantitatively.

Following the quantitative analysis of the data, to collect in-depth data as a part of qualitative purpose of this study, participants for the interview were chosen randomly from the upper and lower levels of experienced burnout and perceived individual and collective teacher efficacy, which resulted in a total of 6 different groups. It was known that there are no cut-off points of the burnout inventory that were identified for the Turkish context. Also, there are no cut-off points of the efficacy scales since teaching is context-specific. Thus, the participants' scores were converted to z-scores to be able to compare standardized scores from the distribution. Although this method is used when the data is normally distributed unlike the present study's data, the only purpose in the present study was to decide on the 20 high and 20 low-scorers from 6 different groups in the three scales used. To select interviewees, the lower and higher limits for the burnout inventory and the teacher efficacy scale in the present study were defined as below -.40 and above .40, respectively. However, since the level of experienced depersonalization was rather lower than the other two dimensions in the burnout inventory, this dimension was

excluded from the selection process. The lower and higher limit for the collective efficacy scale in the present study was defined as below -.75 and above .75. Later, three interviewees were chosen randomly among those 20 high and low-scorers in each scale, which resulted in 18 interviewees. Also, it was observed that some participants' scores were different from what was observed in the results of the quantitative analysis. For instance, high level of teacher burnout was correlated with low level of teacher efficacy; however, some participants experienced a high level of burnout, but they also had a high sense of teacher efficacy. Since it was thought that those participants could provide valuable information, 4 extra interviewees were added to the interview schedule. The interviewees were informed about the second stage of the data collection and invited to participate in the interview process. All of the invited 22 participants agreed to be interviewed. The interview was accompanied with a consent form (see Appendix M) that provided detailed information about the purpose of the study, the participants' rights and the contact information of the researcher in case of questions that could arise after the interviews. The interviews took place in 2009-2010 Academic Year Spring Semester following the quantitative data analysis and piloting of the interview (see Appendix N for an extract of an interview in Turkish, and Appendix O its English translation). Appendix P shows the interview schedule and the duration of the interviews.

Data Analysis

The present study used both quantitative and qualitative analysis procedures. The Statistics Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.5 was used to analyze the data obtained from the survey form. Qualitative data from the interviews were analyzed according to qualitative analysis methods.

Data for Research Question 1, which aimed to investigate the participants' experiences of burnout and perceptions of individual and collective efficacy, were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. First, the data were analyzed using descriptive statistics to calculate frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. In the burnout inventory, higher scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization dimensions and a lower score on the reduced personal accomplishment dimension show a higher level of burnout. Also, in the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), negatively worded items 2, 3, 4, 8, 11 and 16 were reverse scored. The same procedure was followed for the items 3, 4, 8, 9, 11, and 12 in the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale-Short Form (Goddard, 2002). Higher scores on the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) and Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale-Short Form (Goddard, 2002) show a higher level of efficacy. Second, all the interviews were transcribed. Then, using qualitative research procedures, all the transcriptions were read, and the themes that occurred in the transcriptions were highlighted and color-coded. Later, those themes were used to form common themes that occurred frequently in all transcriptions. To support these findings, direct quotations from the interviews were used.

To answer Research Question 2, which aimed to investigate the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy, the data were analyzed through normality tests (see Appendix R), and then, correlation tests. For the normally distributed data, a Pearson correlation test, and for the non-normally distributed data, Spearman and Kendall's tau correlation tests were run. The Spearman correlation test is more popular and an older method of analyzing non-normal data. However, when there is a high number of tied ranks as in the present

study, Kendall's tau reveals more reliable results (Field, 2005). Thus, these two tests were used together in the present study.

CHAPTER IV: DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The present study was designed to explore teachers' experiences of burnout and their perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy in an intensive language program at a Turkish state university. It also aimed to investigate the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy among teachers. Thus, the following research questions were addressed in the study:

1. At this school,
    a) what are teachers' experiences of burnout?
    b) what are teachers' perceptions of individual teacher efficacy?
    c) what are teachers' perceptions of collective teacher efficacy?
2. At this school, what is the relationship between
    a) burnout and individual teacher efficacy,
    b) individual teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy,
    c) burnout and collective teacher efficacy?

In the study, the data were collected from 123 language teachers through a survey form, which was analyzed quantitatively, and through semi-structured interviews, which were analyzed qualitatively.

In this chapter, the analysis of the data is presented in two sections. The first section, which has three subsections, is the analysis of the quantitative data from the survey form and the qualitative data from the interviews. The first subsection is the analysis of the participants' experiences of burnout. It is followed by the participants' perceptions of individual teacher efficacy. Then, the third subsection focuses on the

participants' perceptions of collective teacher efficacy in their school. The second section of the data analysis focuses on the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy.

Reliability of the Measurement Tools Used in the Study

The participants' level of burnout was investigated through an adapted version of Maslach Tükenmişlik Ölçeği-Eğitici Formu (Girgin, 1995). The inventory, as on the original instrument, had 22 items on three dimensions. There were nine items on the emotional exhaustion dimension, five items on the depersonalization dimension, and eight items on the personal accomplishment dimensions. In addition, to explore the participants' perceptions of teacher efficacy, an adapted version of the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) was utilized. As on the original scale, there were 16 items, which fell into two subscales. The personal teaching efficacy subscale had nine questions, and the teaching efficacy subscale had seven questions. Lastly, the participants' perceptions of collective teacher efficacy were explored through an adapted version of the Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale-Short Form (Goddard, 2002). The adapted version used in the present study had 12 items as on the original version.

After the completion of data collection procedures, a reliability analysis was run to calculate the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the scales that were used in the study. Table 1 illustrates the results of the reliability analysis.

In order to answer the first research question that explored the participants' experiences of burnout and their perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy, descriptive statistics and qualitative analysis were used.

Participants' Experiences of Burnout

To explore their experiences of burnout, Research Question 1-a, the participants were asked to report their answers to the burnout inventory on a seven-point Likert scale that ranged between *never* and *every day*. While a higher score on the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimension means a higher level of burnout, a higher score on the personal accomplishment dimension means a lower level of burnout. Since there are not any studies that aim to identify the cut-off points of this inventory, the results are presented using minimum and maximum scores, means, and standard deviations. Table 2 shows the range of burnout reported by the participants.

Table 1

Reliability Analysis of the Scales Used in the Study

Scale	**Cronbach's Alpha**
TEACHER BURNOUT	
Emotional Exhaustion	.87
Depersonalization	.78
Reduced Personal Accomplishment	.73
TEACHER EFFICACY	
Personal Teaching Efficacy	.77
Teaching Efficacy	.74
Teacher Efficacy-Overall	.79
COLLECTIVE TEACHER EFFICACY	.75

Table 2

Range of Burnout among the Participants

Dimension	N	Min.	Max.	M	Scale M	SD
Emotional Exhaustion	123	7	48	30.22	3.36	8.77
Depersonalization	123	0	26	9.45	2.36	5.72
Personal Accomplishment	123	17	44	31.22	3.90	5.96

On the burnout inventory that was used in the present study (adapted from Girgin, 1995), the maximum score on the emotional exhaustion dimension can be 54. The participants' responses revealed a mean score of 30.22, with a minimum score of 7, and a maximum score of 48 and a standard deviation of 8.77. The scale mean of this dimension was 3.36, which meant the feeling of emotional exhaustion was between the frequencies of *a few times a month* and *once a week* on the original scale.

On the second dimension, depersonalization, the maximum score can be 30. The participants' scores ranged between 0 and 26 with a mean of 9.45 (*SD* = 5.72). In addition, a scale mean of 2.36 was computed for this dimension, which meant the frequency of the feeling of depersonalization was between *once a month or less* and *a few times a month* on the original scale.

On the third dimension, personal accomplishment, the maximum score can be 48. On this dimension, the participants' mean score was 31.22 (*SD* = 5.96), with a minimum score of 17 and a maximum score of 44. The computed scale mean of this dimension was 3.90, which meant the feeling of personal accomplishment was between the frequencies of *a few times a month* and *once a week*, but much closer to *once a week* on the original scale.

The participants' experiences of burnout were further analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitative analysis included descriptive statistics to have a broad picture of the participants' experiences of burnout. On the survey form, the participants were asked to report their answers on a seven-point Likert scale that ranged between *never* and *everyday* on the 22-item burnout inventory, which included emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment dimensions. In addition, data from the semi-structured interviews were analyzed qualitatively. The interviews included 22 interviewees, who were asked four questions about their experiences of burnout. Their responses were analyzed qualitatively, and the frequently occurring themes were categorized, in the end of which different major themes emerged. These data were also used to support the findings of the descriptive statistics where applicable.

The participants' experiences of emotional exhaustion are illustrated in Table 3. The most frequently felt aspect of emotional exhaustion was item 14, working too hard on one's job (M = 5.05, SD = 0.96), followed by item 2, feeling fatigued at the end of the workday (M = 4.71, SD = 1.23). Item 3, feeling tired in the morning before work (M = 3.99, SD = 1.48), was the third most frequently felt aspect of emotional exhaustion.

These findings were also supported by the data from the teacher interviews. Twelve of the twenty-two teachers interviewed (55%) complained about the workload as a cause of stress. The comments of two teachers indicated the importance of workload in their attitude towards teaching:

> (P-2) For me, this is the worst side of this job. The feeling of responsibility… Preparing for the class or the things you have to do after class… Papers to grade, exams to grade… We do many things outside the class, it causes a great amount of work. Otherwise, teaching is not that big trouble, but the

> things outside the class… They occupy each area of one's life. It [the feeling of responsibility] does not end at the end of a class.

> (P-86) Last semester was a nightmare for me. Why? Because I had 22 hours on my weekly schedule plus 6 hours of evening classes. I taught 28 hours, and I remember we were at school every weekend for a month. There were exams, proctoring, paper grading. I am tired of waking up early every morning…

Another participant's complaint was about the difficulty of teaching different skills and levels at the same time:

> (P-105) … I taught [English] 22 hours in the previous semester and I wanted to teach evening courses 5 hours [a week], but don't count that. It was something voluntary, but 22 hours were too heavy… three different courses at three different [proficiency] levels. Preparing quizzes, grading quizzes, [student] attendance lists [to be entered in the system], what else... teaching practicum files we grade…

Moreover, one participant clearly indicated he was emotionally drained from his work:

> (P-12) I started to grow away from teaching profession… there have been bad students in the last years… and because I have to struggle with courses like grammar at lower levels, I felt like doing something unnecessary. I didn't feel like showing effort for students. After a while, when they became indifferent, I became indifferent, too.

Depersonalization, the second dimension of burnout, was the least frequently felt dimension of burnout among the participants, with a scale mean of 2.36 and a standard deviation of 5.72 when compared to the other dimensions of burnout (see Table 2). Table 4 illustrates the participants' experiences of depersonalization.

Table 3

Participants' Experiences of Emotional Exhaustion

	Emotional Exhaustion															
	Item	**Never**		**1**		**2**		**Sometimes**		**4**		**5**		**Everyday**		**M**	**SD**
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**		
1	I feel emotionally exhausted from my job.	4	3.25	10	8.13	12	9.76	48	39.02	23	18.70	20	16.26	6	4.88	3.30	1.38
2	I feel fatigued at the end of a work day.	1	0.81	-	-	4	3.25	19	15.45	20	16.26	40	32.52	39	31.71	4.71	1.23
3	I feel tired when I wake up in the morning and confront a new day at work.	3	2.44	5	4.07	8	6.50	30	24.39	25	20.33	32	26.02	20	16.26	3.99	1.48
6	Working with people all day long is really a tension for me.	14	11.38	22	17.89	25	20.33	42	34.15	16	13.01	4	3.25	-	-	2.29	1.31
8	I feel my job wears me out.	5	4.07	10	8.13	9	7.32	29	23.58	18	14.63	35	28.46	17	13.82	3.77	1.65
13	I think I am dissatisfied with my job.	8	6.50	15	12.20	16	13.01	48	39.02	17	13.82	14	11.38	5	4.07	2.92	1.47
14	I feel I show strenuous efforts on my job.	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	9.76	17	13.82	47	38.21	47	38.21	5.05	0.96
16	Working directly with people causes great tension on me.	17	13.82	28	22.76	30	34.39	38	30.89	9	7.32	1	0.81	-	-	1.98	0.21
20	I feel I am helpless in my job.	29	23.58	19	15.45	16	13.01	32	26.02	13	10.57	11	8.94	3	2.44	2.21	1.72

Item 11 on the depersonalization dimension, concern that someone might be hardened by her/his job, was the most frequently felt aspect of depersonalization (M = 2.16, SD = 1.74). It was followed by item 10, becoming more callous towards people (M = 2.11, SD = 1.58) and item 15, not caring what happens to some students (M = 2.00, SD = 1.61).

Table 4

Participants' Experiences of Depersonalization

		Depersonalization															
	Item	Never		1		2		Sometimes		4		5		Everyday		M	SD
		#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%		
5	I feel I treat some of my students as if they were inhumane objects.	45	36.59	31	25.20	17	13.82	22	17.89	4	3.25	4	3.25	-	-	1.36	1.39
10	I have become harder toward other people since I began this job.	23	18.70	29	23.58	19	15.45	26	21.14	16	13.01	9	7.32	1	0.81	2.11	1.58
11	I am bothered that my work will turn me into an emotionally harder person.	26	21.14	31	25.20	9	7.32	30	24.39	10	8.23	15	12.20	2	1.63	2.16	1.74
15	I am not bothered about what happens to some students.	26	21.14	32	26.02	14	11.38	31	25.20	10	8.13	7	5.69	3	2.44	2.00	1.61
22	I have the feeling that I am blamed by my students for some of their problems.	28	22.76	35	28.46	17	13.82	28	22.76	8	6.50	4	3.25	3	2.44	1.81	1.53

Although the analysis of the data did not reveal any behavior patterns related to depersonalization, one participant's answer could be an example for item 5, treating students as impersonal objects. In addition, this was the least frequent feeling of depersonalization (M = 1.36, SD = 1.39).

> (P-12) … I am not that patient anymore…not like my first years in the profession… I felt I was moving away. Moreover, I am one of those who reported [on the inventory] treating some students as an impersonal object… I don't feel any emotional connection with students. They are customers and I am a seller. The government pays my salary and I give them what they [the government] want. I began not to care about how much they learn. I feel cold towards students.

The feeling of personal accomplishment among the participants, the third dimension of burnout, is illustrated in Table 5. Unlike the other two dimensions, higher scores indicate low levels of burnout. This feeling was the most commonly identified feeling on the burnout inventory with a scale mean of 3.90 and a standard deviation of 5.96 (see Table 2), which is very close to *once a week* in the original scale. The most frequent personal accomplishment perception was item 18, the feeling of elation after working closely with one's students (M = 5.18, SD = 0.94). This feeling was followed by item 4, easily understanding what students think (M = 4.48, SD = 1.19). Item 17, easily creating a comfortable atmosphere for students, was the third most frequently identified indicator of personal accomplishment (M = 4.35, SD = 1.20).

Examples of these beliefs also emerged in the interviews. Quotes from three of the 22 teachers illustrate these positive aspects of their work:

> (P-11) … I love my work. I think I can establish a good communication with students… I think I can make an effective introduction to the topic and attract my students' attention. I think I can teach vocabulary in an effective way.

> (P-86) … being in the classroom, having a good communication with students make me happy… I am a teacher who always tries to do something [to teach them effectively] for students.

> (P-93) … I am an experienced teacher now, and I believe I can enter my students' worlds. I can justify [their feelings]. I can really understand them. I can put myself in their shoes….

Table 5

Participants' Experiences of Personal Accomplishment

	Personal Accomplishment																
	Item	**Never**		**1**		**2**		**Sometimes**		**4**		**5**		**Everyday**		**M**	**SD**
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**		
4	I can easily understand what my students think.	-	-	2	1.63	5	4.07	19	15.45	28	22.76	44	35.77	25	20.33	4.48	1.19
7	I handle my students' problems in a very effective way.	1	0.81	16	13.01	20	16.26	44	35.77	19	15.45	16	13.01	7	5.69	3.14	1.39
9	I feel I affect others' lives positively by what I do.	2	1.63	5	4.07	10	8.13	42	34.15	27	21.95	29	23.58	8	6.50	3.67	1.30
12	I feel vigorous.	10	8.13	21	17.07	24	19.51	39	31.71	17	13.82	5	4.07	7	5.69	2.61	1.51
17	I am able to create a comfortable atmosphere for my students with ease.	-	-	4	3.25	3	2.44	22	17.89	30	24.39	45	36.59	19	15.45	4.35	1.20
18	I feel elated after a close work with my students.	-	-	-	-	2	1.63	6	4.88	15	12.20	45	36.59	55	44.72	5.18	0.94
19	I have done many valuable things in my job.	-	-	3	2.44	4	3.25	32	26.02	36	29.27	27	21.95	21	17.07	4.16	1.22
21	I handle the problems in my work in a cool-headed manner.	-	-	6	4.88	16	13.01	39	31.71	26	21.14	29	23.58	7	5.69	3.63	1.27

The analysis of the qualitative data gathered through semi-structured interviews shed additional light on the participants' experiences of burnout. According to what the participants reported in question one, which was about the amount of stress they felt from their job, four themes that ranged between *none* and *not much*, as well as *depends on the workload* emerged. Table 6 shows the amount of stress and Table 7 shows the sources of stress reported by the participants.

Table 6

Amount of Stress among the Interviewees

Amount of Stress		
	#	%
not much	9	40.91
much	8	36.36
as much as everyone else	3	13.64
none	1	4.55
depends on workload	1	4.55

Table 7

Sources of Stress among the Interviewees

Sources of Stress		
	#	%
work environment	13	59.09
workload	12	54.55
course requirements	10	45.45
administrative issues	8	36.36
personal reasons	7	31.82

The data showed that nine participants were not affected much by stress while another eight reported that they were greatly affected. A small majority reported that they were affected by stress as much as others were (3), or it depended on workload (1). However, one participant reported that he did not feel any stress at work:

> (P-97) … I can't say I feel stressed out. I mean I have a trait. I don't have such a personality trait [who easily feels stressed out]… There are many things in life to cause stress, but I think that they are little things that can be overcome, and that they will disappear after a while…

The analysis of the transcriptions of Interview Question 1-a revealed five themes as sources of stress. The mostly reported source of stress was the work environment (13), followed by the workload (12). These sources were followed by course requirements (10), administrative issues (8), and personal reasons (7).

One participant's response about the work environment showed the influence of the negative administrative issues in the work environment:

> (P-63) … when I hear about the things that I am not involved [in decision-making process], I feel much stress. For example, the fee paid for grading exam papers. Suddenly, it was reduced, it [the previous amount of fee] was told to be illegal. And the reason was not explained. Ambiguity, lack of information…

Another participant's response indicated the influence of the number of teaching hours on him:

> (P-97) … The times that I feel stressed out can change, especially when there are many teaching hours [on the weekly teaching schedule] ... While it was 24 hours last semester, it is now 16 hours. The number of the classes decreased to two from four different skills and four different proficiency levels…

Moreover, some other participants were not satisfied the high number of course requirements and the deadlines to be followed:

> (P-1) …things to be done at the same time… preparing exams, grading [papers], entering grades in the system, entering attendance lists in the system. When everything has to be completed in a very short time, I feel stressed…

Furthermore, some interviewees were not satisfied with their relationships with the administrators. As a result, the theme of uneasy relationships with the administrators emerged as a source of stress in the interviews:

> (P-109) … I used to ask for something in a relaxed manner, but now somehow, when I am asked to see them [administrators] or when I need to tell [them] something, I ask myself "what did I do? And what will they tell me?"… When I have an important thing to do, I feel distressed when I put that into words…

In the interviews, personal factors were also reported as a source of stress by some participants:

> (P-33) …everyday standing in front of students and having to teach even when I have low morale, in fact, is stressful. I have to come and teach here when I don't want to leave home… most of the time I feel that I go [to school] because I have to…

In the interviews, the amount of stress that the participants felt when compared to the other teachers in the school was investigated through interview question 1-b. Additionally, question 1-c investigated the stress coping strategies that were employed by the participants. Table 8 shows the participants' own stress ratings compared to other teachers in the school.

Table 8

Interviewees' Stress Compared to Others

Affected by stress more or less than others?		
	#	**%**
less	10	45.45
more	5	22.73
as much as everyone else	5	22.73
depends on the situation	2	9.09

According to the data, nearly half of the participants (10 out of 22) felt that they were affected by stress less than others, while ten participants reported that they were affected more than (5) or as much as everyone else (5). Additionally, two participants felt that the level of stress depended on the situation.

As for the reasons why the participants were affected by stress more or less than others, they pointed out two major reasons: work related reasons (12) and personal reasons (10).

One participants' answer was an interesting explanation of the level of stress he felt. According to what he reported, he did not seem to feel any stress due to personal reasons:

> (P-101) … as I told [before], it is not a source of stress since I don't care about it [teaching] at all now.

The extract below is another example by a participant whose stress level seemed to be lower than the others due to his personality traits:

> (P-69) I think I fell less [than others], I am not a person who complains much… I talk to my close friends… If that is something that I can solve, we exchange ideas… I have complaints, but I share some issues with my close friends and administration to find solutions…

There were some other participants in the interview who reported feeling a higher amount of stress than the others due to work-related reasons. The first example below might also be interpreted as a role conflict:

> (P-24) A mother at home, a teacher here. Especially a writing teacher, and post-graduate studies… I guess I felt stressed out much.

> (P-4) … if I have to teach a course that I have never taught before and I am not informed about it sufficiently, I guess I feel more stressed than other teachers here.

The data related to the coping strategies that the participants employed revealed that none of the interviewees received professional help. Instead, one of the solutions they favored was setting aside time for hobbies:

> (P-45) I try to set aside time for myself. Also, I try not to mind the things said or done, and I try to engage in different things… For example, I started piano lessons. I try to watch a movie every week… or meet with friends and chat… or I spend more time with my children…

> (P-46) … I am a positive person. I try to be optimistic. I try to cope with stress by doing sports and yoga…

A more radical personal solution by two participants was to drink alcoholic beverages:

(P-82) I drink…

Moreover, leaving the school building right after the classes was a minority's solution (4):

> (P-109) I try to get out of the building as soon as possible. I try to walk away as far as possible…

However, unlike all the other interviewees, one interviewee preferred spending more time at school to fight work-related stress:

> (P-104) … I arrive [at work] early… prepare myself for the lesson. I make choices [activities] according to my students [students' interests. level…] and classroom dynamics… I prevent negative behaviors before they occur.

This section has presented the results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data from the burnout inventory and related questions in the interviews. The following section focuses on the participants' perceptions of individual teacher efficacy.

Participants' Perceptions of Individual Teacher Efficacy

The participants' perceptions of individual teacher efficacy, Research Question 1-b, were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitative analysis included descriptive statistics that provided a broad picture of the participants' perceptions of individual teacher efficacy. In the survey form, the participants were asked to report their responses to the adapted version of the 16-item teacher efficacy scale on a six-point Likert scale that ranged between *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* on the two subscales, (personal teaching efficacy and teaching efficacy). For both of these subscales, higher scores indicate more positive sense of teacher efficacy. In addition, in the semi-structured interviews, teachers were asked four

questions related to their effectiveness as a teacher, work-related issues that made it easier or more difficult for them to become more effective teachers, and their sense of effectiveness compared to the other teachers in their school. The data from the semi-structured interviews were analyzed qualitatively, and the frequently occurring themes were used to form major themes. This data were also used to support the findings of the descriptive statistics where applicable. Table 9 shows the descriptive statistics for the perceptions of individual teacher efficacy.

Table 9

Participants' Perceptions of Individual Teacher Efficacy

Subscale	N	Min.	Max.	M	Scale M	SD
Personal Teaching Efficacy	123	27	52	39.49	4.39	4.93
Teaching Efficacy	123	14	40	25.48	3.64	5.58

On the teacher efficacy scale that was used in the present study (adapted from Gibson and Dembo, 1984), the maximum score on the first subscale, personal teaching efficacy, can be 54. The analysis of this subscale revealed a minimum score of 27 and a maximum score of 52 with a mean of 39.49 (SD = 4.93). The computed scale mean of this subscale was 4.39, which fell between *agree slightly* and *moderately agree*. On the second subscale, teaching efficacy, the maximum score can be 42, and the participants' scores ranged between 14 and 40. The mean of this subscale was 25.48 with a standard deviation of 5.58. The scale mean of this subscale was 3.64, which fell between *slightly disagree* and *slightly agree*.

The participants' perceptions of personal teaching efficacy are shown in Table 10. The two strongest senses of personal teaching efficacy on the scale were item 5 and item 7. Item 5 (M = 4.72, SD = 0.89) is related to adjusting materials to the needs or levels of students when they have difficulty understanding or

completing an assignment. On the scale, a great majority of participants (110 out of 123) reported that they could help their students have better learning experiences. The second strongest sense of teaching efficacy was item 7 (M = 4.74, SD = 1.10). Again, a great majority of participants (106) reported that when they wanted to, they could reach the most difficult students. The third strongest sense of teaching efficacy was item 15, the ability to assess the features of a task that caused problems while students were doing it (M = 4.62, SD = 0.85). Nearly all the participants (113) were moderately confident that they could analyze what went wrong in a task, which is supported by the fact that none of the participants reported their strong disagreement.

Qualitative analysis of the data from the second question in the semi-structured interviews, which focused on the participants' perceived effectiveness as a teacher, showed that most of the participants (14 out of 22) considered themselves effective teachers.

A minority of the participants (4) reported that their teaching efficacy depended on the course or students' profile (4). Two participants did not feel that they were efficacious teachers, while one participant felt that he was above average. Table 11 represents the results of the analysis.

Table 10

Participants' Perceptions of Personal Teaching Efficacy

	Personal Teaching Efficacy														
	Item	**Strongly Disagree**		**Moderately Disagree**		**Disagree Slightly**		**Agree Slightly**		**Moderately Agree**		**Strongly Agree**		**M**	**SD**
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**		
1	When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort.	1	0.81	6	4.88	5	4.07	58	47.15	48	39.02	5	4.07	4.31	0.88
5	When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.	-	-	2	1.63	11	8.94	25	20.33	66	53.66	19	15.45	4.72	0.89
6	When a student gets a better grade than he/she usually gets, it is usually because I found better ways of teaching that student.	1	0.81	6	4.88	27	21.95	64	52.03	22	17.89	3	2.44	3.89	0.87
7	When I really try, I can get through to most difficult students.	-	-	6	4.88	11	8.94	25	20.33	48	39.02	33	26.83	4.74	1.10
9	When the grades of my students improve, it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	1	0.81	3	2.44	22	17.89	57	46.34	34	27.64	6	4.88	4.12	0.90
10	If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching that concept.	-	-	3	2.44	16	13.01	38	30.89	56	45.53	10	8.13	4.44	0.91
12	If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	1	0.81	2	1.63	19	15.45	51	41.46	41	33.33	9	7.32	4.27	0.92
13	If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him/her quickly.	-	-	3	2.44	18	14.63	42	34.15	49	39.84	11	8.94	4.38	0.93
15	If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	-	-	-	-	10	8.13	47	38.21	46	37.40	20	16.26	4.62	0.85

Table 11

Interviewee's Perceptions of Teacher Efficacy

Perceived Level of Teacher Efficacy		
	#	**%**
effective	14	63.64
depends on the course	4	18.18
not much	2	9.09
depends on student profile	1	4.55
above average	1	4.55

After the data from the interviews were analyzed, it was seen that one of the recurring themes as a source of effectiveness was the positive feedback from students. One participant focused on her own experiences in the classroom while another one emphasized the survey results at the end of the semester:

> (P-4) … active involvement of students in the lesson, that no one sleeps during the lesson or not receiving negative feedback… When I ask them in the next lesson what we did in the previous lesson, if they give me some feedback that shows they learnt… this means that I could do it and that they understood.

> (P-69) … I believe I am above the standards as a teacher… We see the survey results filled out by students. All the time [it is] 4 over 4… I receive student feedback. I have an idea from those. Plus, as a person who knows himself, it is going good, especially those speaking courses that I love teaching…

Another recurring theme related to the sense of effectiveness was the classroom dynamics or students' attitudes:

> (P-1) This is related to the classroom dynamics, profile of the students. If they have a good profile, if they are motivated enough, I feel motivated, too… While I can teach beginner level grammar lesson effectively in one class, I cannot teach it as effectively in another class since I don't feel a spark.

Several factors that negatively affected teachers' sense of their efficacy also emerged in the interviews. Not being able to teach the course that they desired was reported to affect the sense of effectiveness negatively among the interviewees:

> (P-12) … I feel I am effective in the writing course…in the reading course, too…but in terms of the grammar course … I am still not satisfied…

Moreover, course requirements and working hours were among the negative factors that influenced the interviewees' sense of effectiveness:

> (P-86) … [Interviewer: You said it was because of the working hours?] Yes, because of that… because of the extra responsibilities… teaching practicum files of students [to be graded], proctoring in the exams, having to work on the weekends... I could not be an effective teacher from time to time.

The next two interview questions were about the work-related issues that could affect the participants' senses of teacher efficacy. Question 2-a in the interviews investigated whether there were work-related issues that helped teachers become more effective. Similarly, Question 2-b investigated whether there were work-related issues that made it difficult for them to be more effective. The results of the data analysis are shown in Table 12 and Table 13.

Table 12

Work-related Issues That Affect the Perceptions of Individual Teacher Efficacy as Identified by Interviewees

Work-related issues (+)		
	#	**%**
technical equipment	9	40.91
none	5	22.73
physical conditions	4	18.18
materials	3	13.64
coworker relationships	2	9.09
academic development	2	9.09

The data analysis suggested that technical equipment (9) and physical conditions (4) were the most frequently identified work-related issues that helped participants become more effective. The availability of the technical equipment and its benefits for teaching was one of the recurrent themes in the interviews:

> (P-104) … books, photocopy machine, temperature of the classroom and its sunlight reception, the echo level in the classroom, the opportunities, and the technologies provided… For me, these are very important [for effective teaching].

> (P-11) ... everyone has her/his computer [in their offices] … Technically, those projectors have been useful. I can take materials to the lesson on a flash drive.

Another work-related issue that influenced the interviewees' sense of effectiveness positively was the academic development opportunities:

> (P-1) … There are some academic studies in our school. Presentations, conferences are given. By attending these, I plan to develop myself, and I do that.

According to what the participants reported, the positive coworker relationships affected the interviewees positively, as well:

> (P-45) … There are friends who share [materials]. I learn many things from them, too. For example, when someone says "I did this in the class", I get inspiration from that and I use it [the material] or share it with someone else…

However, unlike many others, five interviewees reported that there were not any work-related issues that helped them become more effective teachers. In discussing the sources of effectiveness, the comments of two participants illustrate this point:

> (P-62) … completely personal [factors]… I can say the administration doesn't provide this in anyway. This is completely personal…

Another teacher also downplayed work-related factors, though noting that workload continued to be an issue:

> (P-86) … Generally thinking, there are not any, but we need new teachers to be hired. If it happens, if our workload decreases, everything will be much more beautiful.

The question of workload emerged repeatedly as a major issue in the discussions with the teachers. Only one participant pointed out that the workload in the school was reasonable:

> (P- 104) … one of the things that make it [becoming effective] easier is the workload. I think workload is very important. For instance, I teach 20 hours this semester… that these [other teaching requirements] are at ideal standards makes the job easier.

Most of the other individuals; however, reported that work-related issues made it difficult to become more effective (see Table 13). The analysis of the answers revealed five major themes: work environment (8), workload (8), students (4), other issues (3), technical problems (2), and administrative issues (2), respectively. The findings suggested that the size of the building and the distance between the classrooms and the teachers' offices were among the influential factors of teacher ineffectiveness:

> (P-109) … Technically, for example, the distance. My classes have been too far from my office for the last two semesters, but there is nothing to do. This affects us. I mean you plan to take something [to the class], but you try to do it in a limited time.

Table 13

Work-related Issues That Affect the Perceptions of Individual Teacher Efficacy as Identified by Interviewees

Work-related issues (-)		
	#	**%**
work environment	8	36.36
workload	8	36.36
students	4	18.18
other issues	3	13.64
technical problems	2	9.09
administrative issues	2	9.09

Again, workload as a negative source effectiveness emerged in responses to the same question:

> (P-45) Weekly schedule. It is a very serious problem. The more teaching hours, the more responsibilities… For instance, preparing at least six quizzes for a course, grading them… in the writing lesson, the grading of portfolios. This type of workload kills the creativity of a teacher, I think.

In addition, negative attitudes of students toward learning English emerged as another major theme among the negative work-related factors:

> (P-101) …when the opposite side's motivation decreases due to other reasons, since they are not ready to learn, I use my energy for preparing them.

Administrative issues related to writing and grading of the tests and materials development were the other negative factors that influenced the interviewees:

> (P-102) …We need to be given more autonomy while preparing and grading exams… things that I can contribute. I need to feel that I can contribute… they [administrators] give us the materials [books] and [tell] to use them in the class, which demotivates people. People become robots…

In Research Question 2-d, the participants were asked to compare their teaching efficacy to the other teachers' teaching efficacy in their school. The

participants' answers are reported in Table 14. As it can be seen from the table, the largest number of teachers seemed unable or unwilling to compare themselves to the others, reporting that they had no idea as the most frequent answer (7). This was followed by the feeling of being as effective as others (5) or above average (5). Feeling more effective than many (4) and more effective than some (1) were the other feelings reported by the participants.

Table 14

Teachers' Own Comparison of Their Effectiveness to the Other Teachers' Effectiveness

More or less effective than others		
	#	**%**
no idea	7	31.82
effective as others	5	22.73
above average	5	22.73
more than many	4	18.18
more than some	1	4.55

The analysis of the data showed that among all the responses, positive feedback by students (8 out of 22) was the most frequently reported source of efficacy beliefs:

> (P-4) … If I consider the reactions of students… When they compare their lessons in the previous semester with mine this semester, when they say "Teacher, we didn't do that this way [before], this is better", I say to myself "I do this [teaching] well".

> (P-49) … I said that [I am more effective] considering students' progress or the things that they said. Because some of them tell that "we used to do that, but this semester it is better", I see I am more effective [than some].

Similar to the positive student feedback, students' success and good rapport with students (2) was another source of efficacy beliefs among the interviewees:

> (P-11) … We test [them], and I get the required answers in every aspect. Also, in terms of classroom management, I feel that my rapport with students is good…

Mastery experiences, one of the most powerful sources of efficacy beliefs, also emerged as a major theme (5) in the interview data:

> (P-46) … I have an M.A. in ELT, also a Ph.D., and also I have been working for … [*intentionally left blank to protect the identity of the participant*] years. I think I have a lot of experience.

The answers to the second subscale of the teacher efficacy scale, teaching efficacy, was also analyzed. As it can be seen in Table 15, the strongest sense of teaching efficacy was item 14 (M = 4.54, SD =1.03). The participants thought that a good teacher could eliminate the negative influences of students' previous learning experiences. The second strongest sense of efficacy was item 14 (M = 4.23, SD = 1.28). The participants believed that sometimes a teacher's capabilities might not be enough when s/he wants to reach her/his students.

There was little evidence related directly to these issues from the interviews. One participant; however, emphasized the effect of external factors on students' success similar to the items 2, 3, and 8 in the teaching efficacy scale:

> (P-2) … They [students] come and put a little more on what they have learnt before. Maybe they don't even do that. The English they learned when they were younger at secondary school and high school is much more residual. That's for sure. We can see it in students. Students' background is very important, the place they come from, their families, the school they went to… In fact, we do not change many things at all. The child [student] remains the same as where they came from. They just finish the preparatory school. It feels as if a whole year were spent in vain…

Table 15

Participants' Perceptions of Teaching Efficacy

	Teaching Efficacy													
	Item	**Strongly Disagree**		**Moderately Disagree**		**Disagree Slightly**		**Agree Slightly**		**Moderately Agree**		**Strongly Agree**		**M**	**SD**
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**		
2*	The hours in my class have little influence on students compared to the influence of their previous learning experiences.	22	17.89	49	39.84	26	21.14	17	13.82	9	7.32	-	-	2.53	1.15
3*	The amount that a student can learn is primarily related to family background.	10	8.13	33	26.83	24	19.51	32	26.02	24	19.51	-	-	3.22	1.26
4*	If students are not disciplined at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline.	7	5.69	12	9.76	25	20.33	28	22.76	35	28.46	16	13.01	3.98	1.39
8*	A teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because a student's previous home environment is a large influence on his/her achievement.	15	12.20	25	20.33	27	21.95	33	26.83	20	16.26	3	2.44	3.22	1.34
11*	If parents would do more with their children, I could do more.	6	4.88	15	12.20	21	17.07	35	28.46	36	29.27	10	8.13	3.89	1.31
14	The influences of a student's previous learning experiences can be overcome by good teaching.	1	0.81	4	3.25	12	9.76	36	29.27	50	40.65	20	16.26	4.54	1.03
16*	Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many students.	9	7.32	5	4.07	16	13.01	33	26.83	39	31.71	21	17.07	4.23	1.38

* Reverse scored

Participants' Perceptions of Collective Teacher Efficacy

The participants' perceptions of collective teacher efficacy, Research Question 1-c, were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. To have a broad picture of the participants' perceptions of collective teacher efficacy, quantitative analysis of

the data from the collective teacher efficacy scale was combined with the qualitative data from the interviews. In the Survey Form, the participants were asked to report their answers to the adapted version of the 12-item collective teacher efficacy scale on a six-point Likert scale that ranged between *strongly disagree* and *strongly agree*. A higher score in this scale shows a higher sense of collective efficacy. However, as in the other teacher efficacy scales, there are no cut-off points of this scale since teaching is context-specific. Thus, as in the other two data collection tools used in the present study, the results are presented using minimum and maximum scores, means, and standard deviations.

Additionally, the randomly chosen 22 interviewees were asked three questions related to their perceptions of collective teacher efficacy. The questions' foci were the interviewees' sense of their school's effectiveness, factors that prevented them from being a more effective school, and solutions to become a more effective school. Table 16 shows the range of perceptions of collective teacher efficacy among the participants.

Table 16

Participants' Perceptions of Collective Teacher Efficacy

	N	Min.	Max.	M	Scale M	SD
Collective Teacher Efficacy	123	24	61	46.84	3.90	7.84

In the collective teacher efficacy scale, the maximum score can be 72. The analysis of the data from this scale revealed scores between 24 and 61 with a mean score of 46.84 (*SD* = 7.84). In addition, a scale mean of 3.90, which was between *slightly disagree* and *slightly agree*, but much closer to *slightly agree*, was computed for this subscale.

The participants' perceptions of collective teacher efficacy are illustrated in Table 17. Item 8, which is related to students' motivation, had the highest mean score (M = 4.20, SD = 1.23). A great majority of the participants (94 out of 123) tended to agree that the students in their school were not motivated to learn English. The item with the second strongest agreement was item 1, teachers' ability to get through to most difficult students (M = 4.14, SD = 1.12). A large majority of the participants (95) thought that their colleagues could teach even difficult students.

To further explore the participants' perceptions of collective teacher efficacy, semi-structured interviews were conducted. As can be seen from Table 18, the majority of the participants (15 out of 22, a combination of *not much*, *much less than necessary*, and *ineffective*) reported that their school was not effective while a minority (6) of them perceived their school as an effective one. Only one participant had no idea if their school was effective.

The reasons why participants perceived their school as effective or ineffective fell into four categories, namely the program (12), work environment (5), students (4) and administrators (3).

The interview data revealed that the existing language program caused various problems in teaching and learning activities. A number of respondents found the program to be ineffective. Many of the comments were general, indicating a broad dissatisfaction with the program. The comments of one participant are typical:

> (P-2) We take it [our job] serious, do it well and systematically, but there is something done in vain. I feel this much effort is wasted… We have a high number of staff-young and dynamic. We have facilities, but as I mentioned [the main reason is] the system does not work right.

Table 17

Participants' Perceptions of Collective Teacher Efficacy

Collective Teacher Efficacy															
#	**Item**	**Strongly Disagree**		**Moderately Disagree**		**Disagree Slightly**		**Agree Slightly**		**Moderately Agree**		**Strongly Agree**		**M**	**SD**
		#	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**	**#**	**%**		
1	Teachers in this school are able to get through to difficult students.	4	3.25	6	4.88	18	14.63	45	36.59	41	33.33	9	7.32	4.14	1.12
2	Teachers here are confident they will be able to motivate their students.	3	2.44	11	8.94	30	24.39	38	30.89	36	29.27	5	4.07	3.88	1.13
3*	If a student doesn't want to learn, teachers here give up.	5	4.07	44	35.77	31	25.20	26	21.14	10	8.13	7	5.69	3.11	1.25
4*	Teachers here don't have the skills needed to produce meaningful student learning.	44	35.77	49	39.84	16	13.01	9	7.32	3	2.44	2	1.63	2.06	1.13
5	Teachers in this school really believe every student can learn.	9	7.32	17	13.82	28	22.76	32	26.02	31	25.20	6	4.88	3.63	1.33
6	These students come to school ready to learn.	24	19.51	48	39.02	27	21.95	16	13.01	8	6.50	-	-	2.48	1.14
7	Students' social background and previous schooling provide so many advantages that they are bound to learn.	15	12.20	16	13.01	19	15.45	29	23.58	30	24.39	14	11.38	3.69	1.55
8*	Students here just aren't motivated to learn.	4	3.25	10	8.13	15	12.20	35	28.46	46	37.40	13	10.57	4.20	1.23
9*	Teachers in this school do not have the skills to deal with student disciplinary problems.	23	18.70	45	36.59	22	17.89	23	18.70	8	6.50	2	1.63	2.63	1.26
10	The opportunities in this school help ensure that these students will learn.	11	8.94	15	12.20	26	21.14	46	37.40	23	18.70	2	1.63	3.50	1.23
11*	Learning is more difficult at this school because students are worried about their safety.	52	42.28	31	25.20	15	12.20	10	8.13	13	10.57	2	1.63	2.24	1.43
12*	Drug and alcohol abuse in the community make learning difficult for students here.	47	38.21	35	28.46	16	13.01	18	14.63	4	3.25	3	2.44	2.24	1.32

* Reverse scored

Table 18

Participants' Perceptions of School Effectiveness

Perceptions of Collective Teacher Efficacy			**Reasons**		
	#	**%**		**#**	**%**
not much	13	59.09	program	12	54.55
effective	6	27.27	work environment	5	22.73
much less than necessary	1	4.55	students (-)	3	13.64
no idea	1	4.55	administrative issues	3	13.64
ineffective	1	4.55	students (+)	1	4.55

One participant reported that the high number of teaching hours caused a disadvantage for students, and that this affected their perceptions of the school and level of success:

> (P-104) …While trying to do many things at the same time, we are losing the effectiveness that we try to reach. For example, to get students to do a lot of reading, we have reading lessons 8 hours a week, or since they have problems with grammar at lower levels, they have up to 8 hours of grammar … I mean we try to keep our students here about 28 hours a week, but this causes them to get bored after some time and develop negative feelings about this school, causing a decrease in their success.

Other respondents identified specific aspects of the program that they indicated undermined their work. Several respondents noted that the examination system was a major source of problems. The responses of one teacher were especially clear in making this point:

> (P-12) Students enter the [exit] exam and we consider that they have learnt everything perfectly, and this causes stress for students. Students' stress affects us, then, we feel stressed and our stress affects students … I do not think that a student who begins at beginner level learns [enough] English and can pass the [exit] exam easily.

Respondents also identified different aspects of the program as undermining the effectiveness of their teaching. As in the previous qualitative data related to the sources of stress and efficacy beliefs, workload again emerged as a negative factor that could influence collective efficacy beliefs:

> (P-24) … There are negative factors that affect my [our] effectiveness as a teacher, for example, the weekly schedule. I need more time, I cannot choose the skill I want to teach. I am not informed enough about the new material…

Moreover, administrative issues emerged as a negative source of collective efficacy beliefs once again as it was a negative source of stress and efficacy beliefs:

> (P-1) … It is certain that there is disunity between the teachers and the administration… From both social and academic aspects, the administration keeps away, and thus, the organizational unity has not been formed completely. So, I cannot say there is a complete unity because it is certain that there is a gap… I believe a positive feedback, a positive reaction from our administrators will affect our teaching and make it more effective, but since we don't receive that kind of feedback, since we are not appreciated for our work, our effectiveness decreases…

In the interviews, although a minority (6 out of 22), there were teachers who pointed out that their school was an effective one. One of the emphasized issues was the high quality of teachers:

> (P-69) … I think we are effective despite all, a good school, successful. I am sure about that because we have many distinguished teachers. At least a hundred of these teachers work extraordinarily well [effective]… Also, we see students' success when they graduate…what else… feedback [by students]…

> (P-82) … The teaching staff is great [very effective] here… the schools they graduated from, teachers with an M.A. or Ph.D. …

Additionally, one participant had positive views about the value given to their school by their superiors:

> (P-102) We have a good-working system. This university supports this school. In other schools, it is not like this. Preparatory school is valued both financially and spiritually… Rector candidates come and talk to us although we have no contribution [to their being elected].

The analysis of the data from interview Question 3-a revealed that their work environment affected the participants in three different ways. As seen in Table 19, their work environment affected half of the participants (11 out of 22) negatively. However, eight participants reported that the effect of the work environment was positive while three participants perceived the effect as both positive and negative.

Table 19

Interviewees' Perceptions of the Effect of the Overall Environment

Effect of the overall environment		
	#	%
negative	11	50.00
positive	8	36.36
positive/negative	3	13.64

Among the themes that emerged as a negative factor, two work-related factors, physical conditions and workload, seemed to have a considerable negative effect on the teachers:

> (P-11) Everybody complains about the enormousness of the building. Nowadays, the classrooms are too hot. In addition, transportation is not easy. That there is no [alternative] place to eat at breaks is another problem, and the enormousness of the building. That the offices are in separate places prevent us from doing things together to socialize. We are at such a tempo. Everyone's weekly schedule is too loaded, we are in a hurry all the time. Quizzes that we have to catch up with and administer, exam papers and teaching practicum files [to be graded]…

> (P-12) I think most teachers are not effective because everyone works like automated machines … If someone has a three-hour free slot in her/his schedule and drives to town [in that slot], this means that s/he is not happy. That's it. No one stays here on Friday afternoons…

Administrative issues emerged as a major theme in the interview data again as a negative influence. Some of the participants talked about their dissatisfaction with how they thought their school was administered and decisions were made:

> (P-63) It [working environment] wears me out. I think it wears others out at the same level. Nothing we say is listened to, it is said that there is democracy here, there is no democracy one way or another… no transparency, no justice…We are not informed, we don't know why we do [the things we do]…

Despite the fact that they seemed to be a minority compared to the interviewees who perceived the effect of work environment on them to be negative, there were eight interviewees who reported that their work environment affects their efficacy positively. One participant focused on the technical equipment and the resources:

> (P-69) … First, I have a computer in my office. There are also computers in the classrooms. To make it easier for us to be more effective … Hmmm, I can say technology. We have all the things. Our books are pretty good, each of us has her/his own office…

Another participant's focus was the program and the academic development opportunities:

> (P-93) I believe [it affects] positively. For instance, we can evaluate the previous year and make decisions for the next year in our summer workshops. We have initiative on any issue. Testing and evaluation, materials, number of teaching hours, the way we teach… Another thing is that foreign guests [specialists] are invited, I mean if there is something new in language teaching, it helps us learn about them. Additionally, by sponsoring us to attend conferences… [Attendees] help us reshape our curriculum…

Additionally, some other participants had both positive and negative views about the work environment although they were not fully satisfied with it at the time of the interview. One participant's emphasis was on the technical equipment, while another's was on the teaching practices and the work environment:

> (P-46) … technology in the classrooms. I think this will influence our effectiveness positively. I mean when we moved here [the new building] we could neither print nor photocopy materials. As the conditions start to improve, as we start to use technology [in the classrooms], I guess our effectiveness will increase.

> (P-24) … There are negative factors that affect my [our] effectiveness as a teacher, for example, the weekly schedule. I need more time and I cannot choose the skill I want to teach. I am not informed enough about the new material… the ones that affect me positively as I said before are my colleagues, work environment, and young and dynamic staff. These all affect [us] positively. Our offices are nice and functional. Technically, we have Internet access.

In Question 3-b, interviewees were asked for their suggestions about the things that should be done to make their school a more effective one. As can be seen in Table 20, the most frequent suggestion was about the work environment (15), followed by the program (14). The other suggestion was about the administrative issues (12).

Table 20

Suggestions about the Changes in the Work Environment

Things to be done to be more effective as a school		
	#	**%**
work environment	15	68.18
program	14	63.64
administrative issues	12	54.55

In the interviews, several participants reported that the eating facilities and working conditions were not satisfactory, and that they needed better places in the work place:

> (P-82) … I wish there were a café on the campus, and I could drink a coffee and chat with my friends there if I had free time. What else… I could have another selection in the fix menu and eat what I want to eat once or twice a week. Even this is a motivation for the teacher, it increases a teacher's motivation…

Another emergent theme was a need for more academic development opportunities to become more successful as a school:

> (P-33) I think teachers could be supported more in terms of academic studies … Being sponsored for more conferences, I mean attending at least two conferences can be made obligatory for each teacher…not everyone can sit and write academic papers…

The interviewees also reported that they needed to study at other departments and use what they learn there in their school:

> (P-93) … That we can have M.A. or Ph.D. degrees from other departments will contribute to us [our effectiveness]. As a person who has an M.A. degree in … [*intentionally left blank to protect the identity of the participant*], I learnt many things and I can use what I learnt in my work here.

Among the interviewees, only one teacher suggested better management of human resources, which could bring an increase in the sense of individual and collective effectiveness:

> (P-45) … We have friends [colleagues] who have different qualifications. I think it would be useful to notice [this] and benefit from them. For example, there are many friends who are very successful at testing. I think they can be given responsibility for testing… I mean a group can be formed [by these people] for grading exams. There are many friends who are successful at materials development. They can be directed to do so… There are many friends who are good at technology. They can be asked how technology can be used in our school…

Suggestions for the changes also revealed that workload and course requirements were a negative factor that influenced the collective efficacy of the school:

> (P-109) … Writing, in fact, is an enjoyable course, a course students follow. There are too many requirements like grading papers. If those requirements could be decreased, it would be a good thing for teachers… The same is true for the number of hours [for different courses], if only we had less teaching hours…

In addition, an interviewee mentioned the need for more teacher autonomy:

> (P-11) … If I didn't teach for too many hours, I could spare more time for preparation, or I could feel more energetic when I entered the classroom, I could direct students' attention to the lesson better. Passing a course [to me] depends on the teacher and [students'] communication with her/him. Students are graded by gap filling questions. I cannot use any initiative in any way. So, if some students say "I am not listening, I do whatever I like to, I look out, I look through the window… As long as I stay in the classroom and fill in the gaps, I get the grade I want", there is nothing that I can do against her/him. I have nothing that can make her/him step back.

In addition, half of the participants (11 out of 22) suggested changes in the administrative issues. Two of the main concerns were that they should have the right to participate in the decision-making process and they needed to be praised:

> (P-46) … We should have a word to say. Everything we do is dictated by the administration, they can even add a new section to the speaking exam we administer. Without asking us…

> (P-97) … [in general meetings at the end of the teaching year] They [administrators] can talk about positive things. Of course they can point out the negative things. I don't know why, but they are always critical, always negatively. This is heartbreaking. I mean the thing called praise does not exist in our institution…

Moreover, affective states, one of the major sources of efficacy beliefs, seemed to have a considerable effect on the interviewees. The interviewees felt that they needed to feel valued and be motivated by the administration:

> (P-45) … I believe our colleagues' ideas should be valued. Another cause of the stress we feel is not being able to tell the problems we face, or even if you can, there is no suggestion for a solution, or it is not solved. I think peoples' feelings and ideas should be paid attention to because we have always been asked to motivate students. I believe teachers need motivation [more than students do].

> (P-46) … There is always distrust. They [administrators] see us as people who work only for money, as money-loving, as people who do nothing if they are not paid and want to go home soon after their classes are over. They have never protected or accepted us. I mean I want an administration who will support us, congratulate and be proud of us when we are successful. Not someone who will hamper us.

The Relationship among Burnout and Individual and Collective Teacher Efficacy

In order to answer the second research question that aimed to investigate the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy, parametric and nonparametric correlation tests were run according to the data distribution (see Appendix R for data distribution, Appendix S for histograms, and Appendix T for the scatter plots of the correlations between the variables). For the normally distributed data, a parametric test was used; for the non-normally distributed data, a nonparametric test was used.

The Relationship between Burnout and Individual Teacher Efficacy

To investigate the relationship between burnout and teacher efficacy, Research Question 2-a, Pearson, Kendall's tau and Spearman correlation tests were run. Since both the burnout inventory and the teacher efficacy scale have different

dimensions or subscales in them, those different dimensions and subscales were tested separately. Table 21 shows the results of the correlation tests.

Table 21

The Relationship between Burnout and Personal Teaching Efficacy

	Kendall's tau			**Spearman**			**Pearson**		
	τ	***p***	***N***	r_s	***P***	***N***	***r***	***p***	***N***
Emotional exhaustion – Personal teaching efficacy	-.02	.39	123	-.03	.36	123	-	-	-
Depersonalization – Personal teaching efficacy	-.18	.00(**)	123	-.26	.00(**)	123	-	-	-
Personal accomplishment – Personal teaching efficacy	-	-	-	-	-	-	.40(**)	.00	123

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

The results of the Kendall's tau and Spearman correlation tests showed that there was no significant correlation between emotional exhaustion and personal teaching efficacy (τ = -.02, p = .39 > .05; r_s = -.03, p = .36 > .05). However, there was a significant negative correlation between depersonalization and personal teaching efficacy (τ = -.18, p = .00 < .01; r_s = -.26, p = .00 < .01). An increase in personal teaching efficacy was correlated with a decrease in depersonalization. Additionally, the analysis of the relationship between personal accomplishment and personal teaching efficacy through a Pearson correlation test revealed that there was a significant positive correlation between the variables (r = .40, p = .00 < .01). It can be said that as the participants' feeling of personal accomplishment increased, their sense of personal teaching efficacy increased, as well. The relationship between the dimensions of burnout and teaching efficacy was analyzed using nonparametric

correlation tests due to non-normal distribution of the data. Table 22 illustrates the results of these tests.

Table 22

The Relationship between Burnout and Teaching Efficacy

	Kendall's tau			**Spearman**		
	τ	***p***	***N***	r_s	***P***	***N***
Emotional exhaustion – Teaching efficacy	-.07	.13	123	-.10	.14	123
Depersonalization – Teaching efficacy	-.10	.06	123	-.14	.06	123
Personal accomplishment – Teaching Efficacy	.06	16	123	.09	.15	123

The test results revealed that there was not a significant correlation between emotional exhaustion and teaching efficacy (τ = -.07, p = .13 > .05; r_s = -.10, p = .14 > .05). In addition, there was no significant correlation between depersonalization and teaching efficacy, either (τ = -.10, p = .06 > .05; r_s = -.14, p = .06 > .05). Moreover, a significant correlation between personal accomplishment and teaching efficacy was not found (τ = .06, p = .16 > .05; r_s = .09, p = .15 > .05).

Overall, the analysis of the data to investigate the relationship between burnout and individual teacher efficacy revealed that the sense of personal teaching was negatively correlated with depersonalization, but positively with personal accomplishment. However, emotional exhaustion was not correlated with the sense of personal teaching efficacy. In addition, the sense of teaching efficacy did not correlate with any dimension of burnout.

The Relationship between Individual and Collective Teacher Efficacy

Research question 2-b, the relationship between individual teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy, was investigated using Kendall's tau and Spearman correlation tests since the data were not normally distributed. Moreover, since the teacher efficacy scale has two subscales, separate tests were run to analyze the data.

The analysis of the data revealed that there was a significant positive correlation between personal teaching efficacy and collective teacher efficacy ($\boldsymbol{\tau}$ = .19, p = .00 < .01; r_s = .27, p = .00 < .01) as can be seen in Table 23. An increase in the sense of personal teaching efficacy predicted an increase in the sense of collective teacher efficacy. Furthermore, the correlation between teaching efficacy and collective teacher efficacy was positive ($\boldsymbol{\tau}$ = .12, p = .03 < .05; r_s = .17, p = .03 < .05). It was observed that participants' scores on teaching efficacy tended to increase as their sense of collective teacher efficacy increased. Table 23 shows the results of the Kendall's tau and Spearman correlation tests.

Table 23

The Relationship between Individual Teacher Efficacy and Collective Teacher Efficacy

	Kendall's tau			**Spearman**		
	τ	***p***	***N***	r_s	***p***	***N***
Personal teaching efficacy – Collective teacher efficacy	.19	.00(**)	123	.27	.00(**)	123
Teaching efficacy – Collective teacher efficacy	.12	.00(*)	123	.17	00(*)	123

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

In brief, the investigation of the relationship between individual and collective teacher efficacy revealed that the sense of personal teaching efficacy and teaching efficacy correlated positively with the sense of collective teacher efficacy.

The Relationship between Burnout and Collective Teacher Efficacy

To explore the relationship between burnout and collective teacher efficacy, research question 2-c, Kendall's tau and Spearman correlation tests were used due to non-normal distribution of the data. Since the burnout inventory used in the present study has three dimensions, each dimension was tested for correlation with collective teacher efficacy separately. Table 24 illustrates the results.

The relationship between emotional exhaustion and collective teacher efficacy was investigated, and the analysis of the data revealed that there was a significant negative correlation between the variables ($\boldsymbol{\tau}$ = -.15, p = .01 = .01; r_s = -.21, p = .01 = .01). An increase in the feeling of emotional exhaustion resulted in a decrease in the sense of collective teacher efficacy.

In addition, the analysis of the data to assess the relationship between depersonalization and collective teacher efficacy revealed a significant negative correlation between the variables ($\boldsymbol{\tau}$ = -.22, p = .00 < .01; r_s = -.31, p = .00 < .01). As the feeling of depersonalization tended to decrease, the sense of collective teacher efficacy increased.

Moreover, a significant positive correlation between personal accomplishment and collective teacher efficacy was found ($\boldsymbol{\tau}$ = .19, p = .00 < .01; r_s = .28, p = .00 < .01). An increase in the feeling of personal accomplishment predicted an increase in the sense of collective teacher efficacy, which meant a decrease in the experienced burnout.

Table 24

The Relationship between Burnout and Collective Teacher Efficacy

	Kendall's tau			Spearman		
	τ	***p***	***N***	r_s	***P***	***N***
Emotional exhaustion – Collective teacher efficacy	-.15	.01(**)	123	-.21	.01(**)	123
Depersonalization – Collective teacher efficacy	-.22	.00(**)	123	-.31	.00(**)	123
Personal accomplishment – Collective teaching efficacy	.19	.00(**)	123	.28	.00(**)	123

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Overall, the analysis of the data to investigate the relationship between burnout and collective teacher efficacy showed that emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were negatively correlated with the sense of collective teacher efficacy, but the feeling of personal accomplishment was positively correlated with the sense of collective teacher efficacy.

Conclusion

This chapter has presented the findings that emerged from the analysis of the quantitative and the qualitative data. First, the participants' experiences of burnout were presented. The results indicated that the feeling of personal accomplishment was the most frequent feeling among the participants followed by emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, respectively. Furthermore, the analysis of the interview data revealed that the most frequently reported causes of burnout were work-related issues that included the number of teaching hours, workload, and administrative issues. It was also observed that all the participants preferred to find personal solutions instead of seeking professional help to cope with stress. As for the perceptions of individual teacher efficacy, the sense of personal teaching efficacy

was stronger than the sense of teaching efficacy. Additionally, the data showed that most participants tended to see themselves as efficacious teachers, and they reported that the work environment, workload, technical equipment, resources, and academic development opportunities were the factors that influenced their efficacy either positively or negatively. Lastly, the participants' sense of collective efficacy was relatively weaker than their sense of personal teaching efficacy, but stronger than teaching efficacy. In addition, it was observed that most of the participants did not think that their school was an effective one due to the program, work environment, and administrative issues. Moreover, the effect of the work environment was negative on most of the participants. As for the suggestions to make their school a more effective one, participants offered solutions that are related to the program, work environment, and administrative issues.

In the present study, the interrelationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy was also investigated. The results showed that personal teaching efficacy was negatively correlated with depersonalization, but positively with personal accomplishment. However, it was not correlated with emotional exhaustion. Similarly, teaching efficacy did not correlate with any dimension of burnout. Another correlation test's results yielded that there was a positive correlation between individual and collective teacher efficacy. Moreover, the correlation was also positive between collective teacher efficacy and personal accomplishment while a negative correlation was observed between collective teacher efficacy and the other two dimensions of burnout, namely, depersonalization and emotional exhaustion.

The next chapter will discuss the findings of this study in light of the previous studies in the relevant literature. It will also discuss the pedagogical implications, make suggestions for further research, and explain the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore experiences of burnout and perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy among teachers in an intensive English language program at a Turkish state university. The study also aimed to investigate the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy.

Data were collected through two instruments. First, a survey form, which included four sections, was administered to 123 teachers. The first section was a questionnaire to collect background information of the participants and the second section was the burnout inventory that aimed to explore the burnout level of the participants. The third section was the teacher efficacy scale used to measure the perceived individual teacher efficacy followed by the collective teacher efficacy scale utilized to explore the perceived collective teacher efficacy of the participants. In addition, in the second stage of data collection, semi-structured interviews with 22 teachers were conducted to gather in-depth data about the participants' experiences of burnout and perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy. The quantitative data were analyzed by using descriptive statistics and correlation tests, and the interview data were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

This chapter discusses the findings of the study, compares them to the previous studies, and suggests pedagogical implications. Following that, the limitations of the study are explained and suggestions for further research are

offered. The chapter ends with the presentation of overall conclusions drawn from the findings.

Discussion of the Findings on Experienced Burnout

To explore the range of experienced burnout among the participants, a teacher burnout inventory was used. However, since there are no studies that have identified the cut-off points of low, average, and high level of burnout in Turkey, the scores of the participants were analyzed using descriptive statistics. An analysis of the mean scores on the three dimensions of burnout revealed that the feeling of personal accomplishment was the most frequent feeling among the participants (M = 3.90, a higher score on this dimension means a lower level burnout) followed by emotional exhaustion (M = 3.36) and depersonalization (M = 2.36), respectively. In addition, most of the participants rated the items on the depersonalization dimension in the burnout inventory between *never* and *sometimes*, which could be a support for this conclusion. Furthermore, analyzing the interview data, it can be concluded that the participants' relationship with their students and colleagues was not a recurring theme. This suggests that their stress and dissatisfaction might have been caused by some other factors in the workplace, which may be an explanation for the lower level of depersonalization, but a higher level of emotional exhaustion and reduced personal accomplishment.

According to the data obtained from the burnout inventory, the most frequent indicators of emotional exhaustion, the first dimension of burnout, were working too hard on one's job and feeling fatigued in the morning and at the end of the day, respectively. Semi-structured interviews also provided support for this finding. According to the interview data, the reasons behind this were the number of weekly

teaching hours, extra work on weekends without a clear statement of the payment for the work done, students, and, interestingly, teaching evening classes, although it is voluntary. Related to this interesting finding, it was reported that the interviewees took on this duty as they needed more money to live better.

Depersonalization, the second dimension of burnout, was the least frequently felt dimension of burnout. Although the participants scored lowest on this dimension, still there were signs of negative feelings towards students in the interview data. The most frequent aspects of depersonalization were the concern that someone might be hardened by her/his job, becoming more callous towards people, and not caring what happens to students. These findings were also supported by the data from the interviews. Some participants reported that they were not as patient as they used to be or they avoided students in their free times in the school.

The feeling of personal accomplishment, the third dimension of burnout, was the most commonly identified feeling in the data from both the burnout inventory and the interviews. Feeling of exhilaration after working closely with students was the most frequent aspect, followed by understanding what students think and creating a comfortable atmosphere for students, respectively. The support for these findings from the qualitative analysis of the data showed that the most frequently emerging theme was satisfaction with one's work and having enough teaching experience to teach effectively. These findings may have been the reason why participants scored lowest on the depersonalization dimension.

In general, qualitative analysis of the interview data revealed that job conditions, which include work environment, workload, course requirements, administrative issues, and personal reasons, were the sources of stress among

teachers in this school. These findings are in line with many of the previous studies in the literature. For example, Budak and Sürgevil (2005) and Friesen and Sarros (1989) found that workload and time pressure were strongly and positively correlated with burnout. In addition, low level of participation in decision-making (Mabry Sr., 2005) and lack of feedback could cause burnout (Ross & Altmaier, 1994). Moreover, Maslach, et al. (2001) suggest that operating rules and resources have the potential to cause burnout, as well

The participants' coping strategies were also different from each other. It was interesting that none of the participants sought professional help, but they found their own solutions to deal with stress. The participants' coping strategies included finding a hobby, drinking, socializing with friends and family members, practicing sports, watching movies, and avoiding administrators. According to the interview data, it seemed that the participants' choice of coping strategies depended on what they needed or enjoyed the most.

Discussion of the Findings on Perceived Teacher Efficacy

The participants' perceptions of individual teacher efficacy were investigated through a teacher efficacy scale. However, since teaching is context-specific, there are no cut-off points of the teacher efficacy scale that indicates a low, average, or high sense of teaching efficacy. Thus, the scores of the participants on the two subscales of the teacher efficacy scale were analyzed using descriptive statistics. The analysis revealed that the mean score of personal teaching efficacy (M = 4.39) fell between *agree slightly* and *moderately agree* while the mean score of teaching efficacy (M = 3.64) was between *disagree slightly* and *agree slightly*, which showed that the participants' perceptions of personal teaching efficacy were higher than

teaching efficacy. This could be interpreted as a higher confidence in their personal teaching skills, as the items in the scale relate directly to their ability to positively influence students. In addition, this could be a sign that they have a great deal of confidence in their own abilities, but perhaps less in the abilities of teachers to cope with external factors that may affect students. However, one of the main concerns reported in the interviews was being subject to regulations by administrators that hinder them from becoming more effective teachers, such as the limited number of academic development opportunities.

The quantitative analysis of the data from the teacher efficacy scale showed that the two strongest senses of personal teaching efficacy were adjusting materials to the needs or levels of the students and reaching even the most difficult students. Another strong sense of personal teaching efficacy was that the participants could assess the features of a task that caused difficulty while student were doing it. Based on the quantitative data from the interviews, these findings are in line with the Gibson and Dembo's (1984) study. In their study, the researchers found that teachers with a higher sense of instructional efficacy could create mastery experiences for their students by planning appropriate activities. Those teachers also spent more effort on finding the right techniques to teach difficult students. Additionally, the analysis of the interview data showed that some participants' sense of efficacy differed across the courses they teach, which is in line with Bandura's (1997) argument that teaching efficacy may not be uniform across various tasks or subject-matter. Moreover, the participants reported that their sense of efficacy depended on the work-related issues, which included work environment, technical equipment, workload, physical conditions, coworker relationships, academic development

opportunities, and administrative issues. Bandura (1997) argues that the availability of resources, obstacles or opportunities in a social system partly determines the efficacy levels of the individuals in that system. These factors could also contribute to the feeling of reduced personal accomplishment (inefficacy) because of the fact that the strength of efficacy beliefs may influence the amount of stress one feels (Bandura, 1989). These findings were also consistent with Betoret' (2006) study. The researcher found that self-efficacy and school coping resources (school equipment, human resources, human support resources such as psychologists, and didactic resources like OHPs) were linked to most teacher stressor and burnout. The qualitative data also showed that the participants seemed unwilling or unable to compare their sense of efficacy to the others'. This may have been because they wanted to be modest, they had not observed the other teachers in their lessons before, or they do not know the other teachers in their school well enough. However, some participants reported that they were more efficacious than others due to their experiences and feedback from students. Thus, it could be concluded that mastery experiences might have affected the participants' sense of efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Comparative quantitative analysis of the items on the teacher efficacy scale suggested that the participants' sense of teaching efficacy was lower than personal teaching efficacy. This could be a sign that they have a great deal of confidence in their own abilities, but perhaps less in the abilities of teachers to cope with external factors that may affect students. The strongest sense of teaching efficacy was that a teacher could eliminate the negative influences of students' previous learning experiences followed by the feeling that sometimes even a good teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many students. These findings might suggest that

they had an ideal teacher in their minds; however, based on the little qualitative data, external factors could influence their teaching effectiveness. Related to this finding, Gibson and Dembo (1984) argue that low-efficacy teachers believe there is little they can do for unmotivated students, and students' intellectual development is affected more by the negative factors in the home and neighborhood environment than their efforts.

Discussion of the Findings on Perceived Collective Teacher Efficacy

To investigate the participants' perceptions of collective teacher efficacy, a collective teacher efficacy scale was used. Since teaching is context-specific, there are no studies that identify a low, average, or high sense of collective teacher efficacy, so descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. The analysis of the data revealed that the mean score of the scale (M = 3.90) fell between *disagree slightly* and *agree slightly.* This could indicate that the participants were unsure about the capabilities of their school as a whole to become successful and bring about positive learning experiences for their students. Moreover, the participants' sense of personal teaching efficacy (M = 4.39) was higher than collective teacher efficacy (M = 3.90), which would suggest that their confidence in their own personal teaching skills was stronger than their colleagues' teaching skills. This finding is supported by the fact that in the interviews, some participants indicated that they considered themselves more effective than others.

Analysis of the quantitative data from the collective teacher efficacy scale showed an interesting finding related to the participants' view of students and their colleagues' abilities. While the participants felt their students were not motivated to learn English, which is the strongest indicator on the collective teacher efficacy

scale, they also believed that their colleagues could get through to difficult students, who might include unmotivated students in the classroom. This was also the second strongest sense of collective efficacy. Furthermore, as the third strongest sense of collective efficacy, the participants also thought that their colleagues would be able to motivate their students. From this point of view, the participants seemed to have confidence in their colleagues' teaching skills.

The results of the qualitative analysis of the interview data concerning the perceptions of the participants' school's effectiveness suggested that most of the participants did not consider their school effective due to reasons related to the program, work environment, student profile, and administrative issues. They did not report any reason concerning their colleagues' teaching skills, which supports the findings of the quantitative analysis of the items related to the trust in colleagues' skills. However, there was also a minority of participants who considered their school effective for these same reasons. This finding might suggest that the participants' perceptions of collective efficacy might have been influenced by some other factors like low level of experienced burnout, a higher sense of teaching efficacy, or effective use of resources in teaching.

As for the suggestions to make their school more effective, all of the participants suggested solutions related to work environment, program, and administrative issues. This shows that all the participants shared similar ideas about the things to be done, which might be a sign of the collective sense among the participants. Interview data also revealed that these administrative-controlled factors hindered them from becoming more effective teachers. These finds may support Bandura (1997), who suggests that in efficacious schools, principals act as

educational leaders who try to find ways to offer a better education for students and remove obstacles that hinder academic innovations.

These previous sections have discussed the findings related to the range of experienced burnout and perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy. The next three sections will discuss the findings related to the relationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy.

Discussion of the Findings on the Relationship between Burnout and Teacher Efficacy

The results of the correlation tests that were run to investigate the relationship between burnout and teacher efficacy showed that there was a significant negative correlation between depersonalization and personal teaching efficacy. As participants' sense of personal teaching efficacy increased, their feeling of depersonalization tended to decrease. This might be interpreted that having positive views about one's job is connected to a strong sense of one's skills as a teacher, or vice versa. Teachers with high confidence in their skills try to do their job as best they can to help their students (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), and tend to maintain a positive attitude towards their job.

In addition, there was a significant positive correlation between the feeling of personal accomplishment and personal teaching efficacy. The results showed that as the participants' feeling of personal accomplishment increased, their sense of personal teaching efficacy increased, as well. This might suggest that if teachers think that they have effective teaching skills, they feel successful in their jobs. Similarly, if teachers evaluate their success positively and are happy on their jobs,

they have mastery experiences, which results in a higher sense of personal teaching efficacy (Bandura, 1995, 1997).

Unlike the significant correlations among personal teaching efficacy, personal accomplishment, and depersonalization, the analysis of the quantitative data did not reveal any significant correlation between personal teaching efficacy and emotional exhaustion. This might suggest that there could be other factors that influence their efficacy beliefs and level of emotional exhaustion. Moreover, teaching efficacy did not correlate significantly with any dimension of burnout. This might mean that teachers' views towards the skills that a teacher should have or the external factors that influence their teaching practices do not affect their level of burnout. Similarly, the level of burnout that the participants had might not have affected their sense of teaching efficacy at a considerable rate. Related to this, one more suggestion would be that the teacher efficacy scale used in the present study was not appropriate for the tertiary level teachers. The explanation for this could be that although some of the reported sources of burnout and teacher efficacy were the same, the results did not reveal any significant correlations due to the possible inappropriateness of the items in the teaching efficacy subscale.

Interestingly, these results contrast sharply with Labone's (1995) study. In her study, Labone (1995) found that there was a significant positive intercorrelation among teaching efficacy, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization. That is, she found that higher ideals are associated with higher levels of burnout. Moreover, in her study, the correlation between the feeling of personal accomplishment and teaching efficacy was negative. The reason for the difference between the present study and Labone's (1995) study could be that teaching is a context-specific practice,

which may differ because of the work environment, opportunities provided, and expectations from teachers. Labone (1995) reports little information about her subjects except that they were primary and secondary school teachers with different titles, such as classroom teacher or advanced skills teacher, and some of them held administrative positions. However, in the present study all of the participants were tertiary level EFL teachers whose job can be considered different from other subject teachers in the nature of interaction with learners, content, and various teaching methodologies (Borg, 2006). Moreover, those EFL teachers were required to hold at least two weekly office meetings with their students, attend weekly skill meetings, cooperate with other teachers while writing and grading tests, and participate in curriculum development workshops that have been going on for several years. The only similarity between the two groups of the participants was that one third of those EFL teachers held titles such as course coordinator or level responsible teacher in each skill. Thus, these contextual differences might have caused a difference in burnout experiences and efficacy beliefs.

Overall, these findings which indicated a negative relationship between burnout and personal teaching efficacy seem to support the findings of the previous studies in the literature. Brouwers and Tomic (1999) found that the feeling of personal accomplishment had a positive effect on teacher efficacy in classroom management and that a decrease in the level of perceived self-efficacy predicted a higher level of burnout. Likewise, Friedman (2003) found that higher levels of perceived efficacy resulted in lower levels of burnout. In addition, Skaalvik and Skaalvik's (2007) investigation of burnout and teacher efficacy yielded the same results, from which they saw there was a negative correlation between these two

variables. Furthermore, Karahan's (2008) analysis of the relationship between perceived self-efficacy and burnout among educators in special education schools showed that a higher sense of self-efficacy was related to a lower level of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, but a higher level of personal accomplishment.

Discussion of the Findings on the Relationship between Individual and Collective Teacher Efficacy

To explore the relationship between individual and collective teacher efficacy, correlation tests were used and the results revealed that there was a significant positive correlation between the variables. For the first scale, personal teaching efficacy, a significant positive correlation was found with collective teacher efficacy. As teachers' confidence in their skills increased, their confidence in their colleagues' skills increased, or vice versa. This could be interpreted as positive feelings towards one's efficacy bring about positive feelings towards others' efficacy in the work place. Similarly, working in an effective and dynamic school as a whole might cause teachers to evaluate themselves as effective teachers. This hypothesis is supported by the qualitative data from the interviews in which some of the interviewees reported their satisfaction with working well-trained, young, and dynamic teachers. Additionally, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) suggest that vicarious experiences might affect individual and collective teacher efficacy beliefs, especially when working cooperatively in teams and observing other teachers.

Moreover, in examining the second scale, the results of the analysis also showed that the correlation between teaching efficacy and collective teacher efficacy was significant and positive. An interpretation of this finding could be that the more strongly teachers feel that those in their profession can be effective with students and

cope with external factors that influence their teaching practices, the more successful they become and tend to evaluate other teachers in the work place as efficacious teachers. Additionally, teachers might have a higher sense of teaching efficacy if they observe that the school they work in as a whole can handle external factors that influence the educational practices negatively.

In general, these findings support what the literature indicates about this issue. Goddard and Goddard's (2001) investigation of the relationship between teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy suggests that where the sense of collective efficacy was higher, the sense of teacher efficacy was higher. They also found that the perception of the collective efficacy was the only significant predictor of the differences in teacher efficacy beliefs among the schools that participated in their study. Moreover, Kurz and Knight's (2004) and Skaalvik and Skaalvik's (2007) studies revealed similar results. Their findings showed that collective teacher efficacy was positively correlated with individual teacher efficacy.

Discussion of the Findings on the Relationship between Burnout and Collective Teacher Efficacy

When the results of the correlation tests to investigate the relationship between burnout and collective teacher efficacy were analyzed, it was seen that there was a significant negative correlation between emotional exhaustion and collective teacher efficacy and an increase in emotional exhaustion was related to a decrease in the sense of collective teacher efficacy, or vice versa. The explanation for this finding might be that the influence of one's higher sense of her/his school's effectiveness results in lower level of stress from the job. Also, if teachers are not emotionally and/or physically exhausted, they tend to give more of themselves, do all

they can for their students, and work more effectively, which would increase their school's success.

Results of the analysis also showed that there was a significant negative correlation between depersonalization and collective teacher efficacy. As the feeling of depersonalization decreased, the sense of collective teacher efficacy tended to increase. This may have resulted from teachers' feeling responsible towards their students, liking their jobs, and having good relationships with other teachers in the school, which is supported by the data from the interviews. Because of this, they perceive that their students and school are successful. The opposite situation would be that when teachers see their students and school are successful, they feel responsible towards their students, like their jobs, and have good relationships with other teachers to protect the effectiveness of their school.

The analysis of the data also revealed a significant positive correlation between the feeling of personal accomplishment and perception of collective teacher efficacy. As the feeling of personal accomplishment became stronger, the perception of collective teacher efficacy also grew stronger. This finding could show that teachers in this school feel competent and happy and satisfied with their success on their job, so they tend to evaluate their school as successful as them. Another interpretation would be that teachers consider their school an effective and successful one, so they work harder to be more effective teachers (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007), and as a result, they gain mastery experiences, which causes them to see other teachers in the school as successful as they are.

As expected, the analysis of the relationship between burnout and collective teacher efficacy yielded results that are in line with the literature. Labone (1995) found that the intercorrelation between collective teacher efficacy and depersonalization, and emotional exhaustion was negative, while collective efficacy correlated positively with the feeling of personal accomplishment. In addition, Skaalvik and Skaalvik's (2007) investigation of the relationship between burnout and collective teacher efficacy yielded similar results to the present study. In their study, the researchers found that collective efficacy did not directly correlate with burnout, but the sense of individual teacher efficacy mediated the indirect negative relationship between burnout and collective teacher efficacy.

Pedagogical Implications

The present study is a modest first step in investigating the interrelationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy in the Turkish context. It is also one of the few studies that investigate the direct interrelationship among these variables in the literature. Additionally, the analysis of the data gathered through the survey form and the semi-structures interviews carry significant implications for teachers' psychological health, instructional efficacy, and collective teacher efficacy that could inform future teaching practices and improvement of work conditions. Thus, it can be said that the present study modestly contributed to the teacher efficacy studies by the qualitative investigation of teacher efficacy beliefs since this kind of study has generally been neglected in the literature (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998).

As for the overall results, regarding teachers' experiences of burnout, workload emerged as a major theme from both the quantitative and qualitative data. Related literature suggests that workload can be an important predictor of burnout (Budak & Sürgevil, 2005; Friesen & Sarros, 1989; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Revising the curriculum by decreasing the number of teaching hours and course requirements might be beneficial to decrease the burnout levels of the participants. Another interesting finding that emerged from the present study was that none of the interviewees sought professional help to fight with stress, but instead they found individual ways to cope. While these could be good personalized solutions, a health care professional might provide better help for the teachers to fight stressful conditions in the work environment. In addition, interviewees also reported that administrative issues like the quality of communication with the administrators was a source of stress. This study suggests that administrators may wish to pay more attention to these issues, which might possibly lead to establishing a more secure and healthier relationship between them and the teaching staff.

The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data from the teacher efficacy scale and the interviews revealed that teachers in this school had mastery experiences that increased their sense of teaching efficacy. Interestingly, the interviewees reported that these experiences did not result from positive feedback by the administrators, but from their direct experiences and student feedback. From the interview data, it was also seen that the source of these self-efficacy beliefs were not verbal persuasion by others, nor from vicarious experiences, which are among the sources of self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997). As Bandura (1997) suggests, administrators as educational leaders can start by motivating teachers as a way to

provide better education for students. If administrators help teachers have more mastery experiences, use verbal persuasion, and decrease the influence of the affective states that the teachers are in, this could result in a higher sense of instructional efficacy. Moreover, the administration of this school could distribute courses according to teachers' preferences, which might increase teachers' sense of efficacy, consistent with Bandura's (1997) contention that teaching efficacy may not be uniform across various tasks or subject-matter. Lastly, if the teachers in this school were given the opportunity to pursue post-graduate degrees in the departments in which they would like to study, this could also increase the sense of teaching efficacy and provide mastery experiences.

Another finding of this study was that although there was a positive correlation between them, teachers' sense of collective efficacy was lower than personal teaching efficacy. This showed that those teachers had less confidence in their colleagues' skills than in their own. Despite the fact that the interview data did not reveal any distrust among the teachers in this school, the administration might wish to provide more opportunities in which teachers come together and work cooperatively to develop a stronger sense of collective efficacy. Regarding this issue, Bandura (1997) underlines the importance of working cooperatively and argues that even if all the members of a group are at the highest level of self-efficacy, they might fail to perform successfully as a group if they cannot work cooperatively. Additionally, the majority of the interviewees did not consider their school effective due to the program, work environment, and work related issues. One complaint was that the administrators did not pay enough attention to or implement teachers' suggestions related to the problems that caused them to feel burned out or hindered

them from becoming more effective. Following teachers' advice might prove beneficial since teachers are those who teach and experience successes and failures while administrators are responsible for the coordination of the teaching practices in schools.

Lastly, the correlations between the variables did not reveal a causal relationship between the variables. Further, the magnitude of the intercorrelation found between burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy was weak or moderate. This finding showed that there might have been other factors that affected the variance between the variables. Administrators and policy makers could investigate the factors that influence the level of burnout and perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy to provide a less stressful work environment and turn their schools into more effective ones.

Limitations of the Study

The present study has five significant limitations. First, although the study revealed parallel results to the previous studies in the literature, the results may not be generalizable to other institutions in Turkey since people's experiences of burnout and perceptions of efficacy vary across contexts.

Second, since the present study included 123 participants and it had to be completed in a short period of time, the findings cannot be generalizable to all the similar settings at tertiary level. Data collected from various schools over a longer period of time might have provided more generalizable results.

Another limitation of the study is typical of studies using self-report instruments. As explained in Chapter 3, questionnaires were used to collect as much data as possible in a short period of time (Dörnyei, 2007). Thus, the feelings or the

perceptions of the participants might have changed later, or they may have reported what they wanted to be revealed in the results. In addition, the survey form included 58 items, which may have caused the participants to feel bored or tired while responding to the items. Thus, researchers should be cautious while reading this study and interpreting its results.

Next, the number of the interviewees was low since the present study had to be completed in a short period of time In addition, interviewees were selected randomly from the upper and lower-levels of burnout and efficacy after turning their mean scores on the scales to z-scores. The rationale for this was that there are no studies in Turkey that provide cut-off points for the teacher burnout inventory. In addition, there are no studies that offer cut-off points for the teacher efficacy scales since teaching is context-specific. This may have caused the selection of interviewees with similar scores, which might have prevented the researcher from collecting a wider range of interview data.

Lastly, the researcher himself did the analysis of the qualitative data due to time limitations. This could have affected the reliability of the data. To have more reliable data, it might have been beneficial for another researcher to see whether the same themes emerged from the present study.

Suggestions for Further Research

Considering the findings of the present study, further research can follow three different directions. First, the present study could be replicated at other educational levels with more participants over a longer period of time to see if the intercorrelation among burnout, teacher efficacy, and collective teacher efficacy would reveal the same results. This would enable researchers to have a broader

picture of experiences of burnout and perceptions of individual and collective efficacy. Additionally, this could help researchers to have results that are more generalizable.

Second, the present study could be replicated as a comparative study that compares private and state schools. Opportunities provided for teachers in both school types are different, thus this could be used to understand the work-related sources of burnout and efficacy beliefs.

Third, further study might focus on the quantitative analysis of the sources of burnout and perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy. Since the correlation tests did not reveal a causal relationship between the variables, and the correlations between these variables were weak to moderate in magnitude, the findings should be treated with caution. Further research could combine qualitative data reported by the interviewees and quantitative data from questionnaires. Moreover, t-tests or ANOVAs could provide results that are more reliable in this kind of research.

Conclusion

As the first study in the Turkish context on the interrelationship among burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy, the present study has shed additional light on teachers' experiences of burnout and perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy. The findings revealed that personal teaching efficacy was negatively correlated with depersonalization, but positively correlated with the feeling of personal accomplishment. Contrary to these findings, it did not correlate with the emotional exhaustion. Similarly, teaching efficacy did not correlate with any dimension of burnout. Another finding was that the correlation between individual

teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy was positive. Moreover, collective teacher efficacy correlated negatively with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization while it positively correlated with the feeling of accomplishment. Furthermore, work-related factors and administrative issues were the two main themes that emerged from the analysis of the data related to burnout and self-efficacy beliefs. Considering these findings, administrators, policy makers, and teachers could seek solutions to decrease the level of burnout and strengthen efficacy beliefs to become more effective schools, which could result in better outcomes in teaching practices and student learning.

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APPENDIX A: PERSONAL DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

		#	%
Gender	Female	92	74.80
	Male	31	25.20
Major	American Culture and Literature	6	4.88
	English Language and Literature	9	7.32
	English Language Teaching	100	81.30
	English Linguistics	2	1.63
	Translation and Interpretation	6	4.88
Experience in teaching	0-5 years	23	18.70
	6-10 years	54	43.90
	11-15 years	31	25.20
	16-20 years	10	8.13
	21 years and over	5	4.07
Educational status	B.A.	68	55.28
	M.A. in progress	6	4.88
	M.A.	41	33.33
	Ph.D. in progress	4	3.25
	Ph.D.	4	3.25
Administrative duty	None	83	67.47
	Course coordinator (also level responsible teacher)	38	30.89
	Other	2	1.63
Teaching hours	18-20 hours	12	9.76
	22-24 hours	97	78.86
	26 hours and over	14	11.38
Teaching beginner level	Yes	72	58.54
	No	51	41.46
Teaching elementary level	Yes	81	65.85
	No	42	34.15
Teaching lower- intermediate level	Yes	42	34.15
	No	81	65.85
Teaching intermediate level	Yes	13	10.57
	No	110	89.43
Teaching upper-intermediate level	Yes	9	7.32
	No	114	92.68
Teaching listening & speaking skills	Yes	57	46.34
	No	66	53.66
Teaching writing skill	Yes	66	53.66
	No	57	46.34
Teaching reading skill	Yes	68	55.28
	No	55	44.72
Teaching grammar	Yes	65	52.85
	No	58	47.15

APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR THE SURVEY

Informed Consent Form

Dear Colleague,

My name is Ali Ulus KIMAV. I am an MA TEFL student at Bilkent University. Currently, I am in the process of collecting data for my thesis research that aims to explore the relationship among burnout, teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy.

This survey form explains the research that you are invited to participate in. Before completing the form, please read it carefully and ask the researcher any question that you may have.

You will be asked to take the survey that is designed to explore teachers' level of burnout and their perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy. The survey consists of 58 questions and your participation will take about 20 minutes. Some of the participants will also be interviewed regarding the survey results. The interview will take approximately 20 minutes. Because this research focuses on teachers' level of burnout and their perceptions of individual and collective teacher efficacy, the interviewees will be selected on the basis of their level of burnout and senses of individual and collective teacher efficacy.

The survey has four sections:

a. The first section has questions about your background information,
b. The second section has questions about your experiences of burnout,
c. The third section has questions about your perceptions of individual teacher efficacy,
d. The fourth section has questions about your perceptions of collective teacher efficacy.

Please keep in mind that the questions in the questionnaire do not have right or wrong answers.

By completing this survey form, it is assumed that you agree to participate in this research and give the researcher permission to use your answers for research purposes. Also, you can discontinue your participation at any time. You should not write your name on this form since you will be given a unique participant number only available to the researcher. **The researcher guarantees that all the responses and the information that you provide will be strictly confidential and not shared with others in ways that your individual responses could be identified. Additionally, in all presented and published data resulting from this research, your responses will be aggregated with responses from the other participants to assure protection of your identity.**

I would like to thank you for your valuable contribution to this research. Please contact me if you have any questions or concerns.

Best regards,

Ali Ulus KIMAV
MA TEFL Student
Graduate School of Education
Bilkent University, Ankara

E-mail: ulus_hun@yahoo.com
Phone: 0 530 761 31 42

APPENDIX C: PERSONAL DATA AND WORK QUESTIONNAIRE

PERSONAL and WORK DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

Please choose the appropriate option or complete the blanks.

A) PERSONAL DETAILS

1. Gender:

□Female □Male

2. Major:

□American Culture and Literature □Comparative Literature

□English Language and Literature □English Language Teaching

□English Linguistics □Translation and Interpretation

3. Experience in teaching:

□0-5 years □6-10 years □11-15 years

□16-20 years □21 years and over

4. Educational status:

□B.A. □M.A. in progress □M.A. □Ph.D. in progress □Ph. D.

B) WORK DETAILS

5. Do you have any administrative duties?

□No □Course Coordinator *(also includes level responsible teachers)*

□Other *(please specify)* _____

6. How many hours a week do you teach *in the Department of Basic English*?

□18-20 □22-24 □26 and over

7. Which proficiency level(s) do you teach in the 2009-2010 Fall Semester? *(You can select more than one.)*

□Beginner □ Elementary □Lower-Intermediate

□Intermediate □Upper-Intermediate

8. Which course(s) do you teach in the 2009-2010 Fall Semester? *(You can select more than one.)*

□Listening and Speaking □Writing

□Reading □Grammar

APPENDIX D: MASLACH TÜKENMİŞLİK ÖLÇEĞİ-EĞİTİCİ FORMU

		Hiçbir zaman	Çok nadir	Bazen	Çoğu zaman	Her zaman
1.	İşimden duygusal olarak uzaklaştığımı hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
2.	İş gününün sonunda kendimi bitkin hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
3.	Sabahları uyanıp diğer bir işgünü ile karşılaşmak zorunda olduğumda kendimi yorgun hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
4.	Öğrencilerimin neler hissettiklerini kolayca anlayabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
5.	Bazı öğrencilerime kişiliği olmayan nesnelermiş gibi davrandığımı hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
6.	Bütün gün insanlarla çalışmak benim için gerçekten bir gerginliktir.	0	1	2	3	4
7.	Öğrencilerimin sorunları ile çok etkin bir biçimde ilgilenirim.	0	1	2	3	4
8.	İşimin beni tükettiğini hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
9.	İşim yolu ile diğer insanların yaşamlarını olumlu yönde etkilediğimi hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
10.	Bu mesleğe girdiğimden beri insanlara karşı daha katı oldum.	0	1	2	3	4
11.	Bu mesleğin beni duygusal olarak katılaştırmasından endişe duyuyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
12.	Kendimi çok enerjik hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
13.	İşimin beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığını hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
14.	İşimde çok sıkı çalıştığımı hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
15.	Bazı öğrencilere ne olduğu umurumda değil.	0	1	2	3	4
16.	Doğrudan insanlarla çalışmak bende aşırı gerginlik yapıyor.	0	1	2	3	4
17.	Öğrencilerime rahat bir atmosferi kolayca oluşturabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
18.	Öğrencilerimle yakın olduğum bir çalışmadan sonra kendimi neşeli hissederim.	0	1	2	3	4
19.	Bu meslekte birçok değerli işler başardım.	0	1	2	3	4
20.	Kendimi çaresiz hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
21.	İşimde duygusal sorunlarla soğukkanlılıkla ilgilenirim.	0	1	2	3	4
22.	Öğrencilerimin bazı sorunlarından dolayı beni suçladıklarını hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX E: ADAPTED VERSION OF THE MASLACH TÜKENMİŞLİK ÖLÇEĞİ-EĞİTİCİ FORMU

		Hiçbir zaman			Bazen			Her gün
1.	İşimden duygusal olarak uzaklaştığımı hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	İş gününün sonunda kendimi bitkin hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Sabahları uyanıp diğer bir işgünü ile karşılaşmak zorunda olduğumda kendimi yorgun hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Öğrencilerimin neler hissettiklerini kolayca anlayabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Bazı öğrencilerime kişiliği olmayan nesnelermiş gibi davrandığımı hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Bütün gün insanlarla çalışmak benim için gerçekten bir gerginliktir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Öğrencilerimin sorunları ile çok etkin bir biçimde ilgilenirim.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	İşimin beni tükettiğini hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	İşim yolu ile diğer insanların yaşamlarını olumlu yönde etkilediğimi hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Bu mesleğe girdiğimden beri insanlara karşı daha katı oldum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Bu mesleğin beni duygusal olarak katılaştırmasından endişe duyuyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Kendimi çok enerjik hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	İşimin beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığını hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	İşimde çok sıkı çalıştığımı hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Bazı öğrencilere ne olduğu umurumda değil.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Doğrudan insanlarla çalışmak bende aşırı gerginlik yapıyor.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	Öğrencilerime rahat bir atmosferi kolayca oluşturabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Öğrencilerimle yakın olduğum bir çalışmadan sonra kendimi neşeli hissederim.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	Bu meslekte birçok değerli işler başardım.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Kendimi çaresiz hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	İşimde duygusal sorunlarla soğukkanlılıkla ilgilenirim.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	Öğrencilerimin bazı sorunlarından dolayı beni suçladıklarını hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX F: ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF THE MASLACH TÜKENMİŞLİK ÖLÇEĞİ-EĞİTİCİ FORMU AND THE ORIGINAL LIKERT SCALE ITEMS

		Never	A few times a year or less	Once a mont hor less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day
1.	I feel emotionally exhausted from my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	I feel fatigued at the end of a work day.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	I feel tired when I wake up in the morning and confront a new day at work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	I can easily understand what my students think.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	I feel I treat some of my students as if they were inhumane objects.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Working with people all day long is really a tension for me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	I handle my students' problems in a very effective way.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	I feel my job wears me out.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	I feel I affect others' lives positively by what I do.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	I have become harder toward other people since I began this job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	I am bothered that my work will turn me into an emotionally harder person.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	I feel vigorous.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	I think I am dissatisfied with my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	I feel I show strenuous efforts on my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	I am not bothered about what happens to some students.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Working directly with people causes great tension on me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	I am able to create a comfortable atmosphere for my students with ease.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	I feel elated after a close work with my students.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	I have done many valuable things in my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	I feel I am helpless in my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	I handle the problems in my work in a cool-headed manner.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	I have the feeling that I am blamed by my students for some of their problems.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX G: TEACHER EFFICACY SCALE

		Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Disagree slightly, more than agree	Agree slightly, more than disagree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
1.	When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	The hours in my class have little influence on students compared to the influence of their home environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	The amount that a student can learn is primarily related to family background.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	If students are not disciplined at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	When a student gets a better grade than he usually gets, it is usually because I found better ways of teaching that student.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	When I really try, I can get through to most difficult students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	A teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his/her achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	When the grades of my students improve, it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	If a student masters a new math concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching that concept.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	If parents would do more with their children, I could do more.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	The influences of a student's home experiences can be overcome by good teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many students.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX H: ADAPTED VERSION OF THE TEACHER EFFICACY SCALE

		Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
1.	When a student does better than usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	The hours in my class have little influence on students compared to the influence of their previous learning experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	The amount that a student can learn is primarily related to family background.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	If students are not disciplined at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	When a student is having difficulty with an assignment, I am usually able to adjust it to his/her level.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	When a student gets a better grade than he/she usually gets, it is usually because I found better ways of teaching that student.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	When I really try, I can get through to most difficult students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	A teacher is very limited in what he/she can achieve because a student's previous home environment is a large influence on his/her achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	When the grades of my students improve, it is usually because I found more effective teaching approaches.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	If a student masters a new concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching that concept.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	If parents would do more with their children, I could do more.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him/her quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	The influences of a student's previous learning experiences can be overcome by good teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	If one of my students could not do a class assignment, I would be able to accurately assess whether the assignment was at the correct level of difficulty.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many students.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX I: COLLECTIVE TEACHER EFFICACY SCALE

		Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Disagree slightly, more than agree	Agree slightly, more than disagree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
1.	Teachers in this school are able to get through to difficult students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Teachers here are confident they will be able to motivate their students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	If a child doesn't want to learn, teachers here give up.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Teachers here don't have the skills needed to produce meaningful student learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Teachers in this school really believe every child can learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	These students come to school ready to learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Home life provides so many advantages, the students here are bound to learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Students here just aren't motivated to learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Teachers in this school do not have the skills to deal with student disciplinary problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	The opportunities in this community help ensure that these students will learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Learning is more difficult at this school because students are worried about their safety.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Drug and alcohol abuse in the community make learning difficult for students here.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX J: ADAPTED VERSION OF THE COLLECTIVE TEACHER EFFICACY SCALE

		Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
1.	Teachers in this school are able to get through to difficult students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Teachers here are confident they will be able to motivate their students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	If a student doesn't want to learn, teachers here give up.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Teachers here don't have the skills needed to produce meaningful student learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Teachers in this school really believe every student can learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	These students come to school ready to learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Students' social background and previous schooling provide so many advantages that they are bound to learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Students here just aren't motivated to learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Teachers in this school do not have the skills to deal with student disciplinary problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	The opportunities in this school help ensure that these students will learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Learning is more difficult at this school because students are worried about their safety.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Drug and alcohol abuse in the community make learning difficult for students here.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX K: GÖRÜŞME SORULARI

Görüşme Soruları

1. Genel olarak işinizde ne kadar stres yaşıyorsunuz?
   a. Sizce bu strese neden olan şeyler nelerdir?
   b. Sizce stresten bu okuldaki diğer öğretmenlerden daha fazla mı daha az mı etkileniyorsunuz? Neden bu şekilde düşünüyorsunuz?
   c. İşinizde yaşadığınız stresle nasıl baş ettiğinizi anlatabilir misiniz lütfen?

2. Ne derece etkili bir öğretmen olduğunuzu düşünüyorsunuz? Sizi böyle düşündüren nedir?
   a. Daha etkili bir öğretmen olmanızı sağlayan işinizle ilgili faktörler var mı? Cevabınız evetse, bununla ilgili örnekler verebilir misiniz?
   b. Daha etkili bir öğretmen olmanızı zorlaştıran işinizle ilgili faktörler var mı? Cevabınız evetse, bununla ilgili örnekler verebilir misiniz?
   c. Sizce bu okuldaki diğer öğretmenlerden daha etkili bir öğretmen misiniz yoksa daha az etkili bir öğretmen misiniz? Sizi bu şekilde düşündüren nedir?

3. Sizce okulunuz bir bütün olarak ne kadar etkili bir okul? Sizi bu şekilde düşündüren tecrübeleriniz nelerdir?
   a. Sizce okulunuzun çalışma ortamı bir öğretmen olarak etkinliğinizi nasıl etkilemektedir?
   b. Sizce, okul olarak daha etkili bir okul olmanızı sağlayacak ne gibi şeyler yapılabilir?

APPENDIX L: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Interview Questions

1. How much stress do you generally feel from your job?
   a. What things do you think cause this stress?
   b. Do you think you are affected more or less by stress than other teachers in this school? Why do you think so?
   c. Could you please tell me how you cope with stress in your job?

2. To what extent do you think you are an effective teacher? What makes you think so?
   a. Are there any work-related issues that help you to be a more effective teacher? If yes, can you give any examples of these?
   b. Are there any work-related issues that make it difficult for you to be a more effective teacher? If yes, can you give any examples of these?
   c. Do you think you are more or less effective than other teachers in this school? What makes you think so?

3. To what extent do you think your school as a whole is an effective one? What are your experiences that make you think so?
   a. How do you think the overall environment of this school influences your effectiveness as a teacher?
   b. In your opinion, what could be done that would allow you to be a more effective school?

APPENDIX M: INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR THE INTERVIEW

Informed Consent Form for the Interview

Dear Colleague,

My name is Ali Ulus KIMAV. I am an MA TEFL student at Bilkent University. Currently, I am in the process of collecting data for my thesis research that aims to explore the relationship among burnout, teacher efficacy and collective teacher efficacy.

This form explains the interview process, the second stage of data collection. Before signing the form, please read it carefully and ask the researcher any question that you may have.

You are invited to participate in the present research as an interviewee. The main purpose of the interview is to gather more in-depth information about your perceptions of the environment where you work. The interview consists of 11 questions and your participation will take about 20 minutes. The interview will take place at a convenient time and place for you, and it will be audio-recorded. Also, your participation is voluntary, and you can discontinue your participation at any time.

The researcher guarantees that all the responses and the information that you provide will be strictly confidential and not shared with others in ways that your individual responses could be identified. Additionally, in all presented and published data resulting from this research, your responses will be aggregated with responses from the other participants to assure protection of your identity.

I have read this form and the researcher has made the interview process clear to me to my satisfaction. I voluntarily agree to participate in this research. I have also been given a copy of this form.

Name of the participant **Signature of the participant** **Participant #**

Researcher **Signature of the researcher** **Date of the interview**

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APPENDIX N: BİR GÖRÜŞMEDEN ÖRNEK BİR BÖLÜM

Görüşmeci: İşinizde genel olarak ne kadar stres yaşıyorsunuz?

Katılımcı: Nasıl stres? İş, çalışma anında mı, genelde işin yarattığı stres mi?

Görüşmeci: İşin yarattığı stresten bahsediyorum.

Katılımcı: Çalışma anında çok büyük stres yok ama özellikle çalışma saatleri dışında bir stres yaratıyor bende.

Görüşmeci: Mesela?

Katılımcı: Bu mesleğin en kötü yanı da bu bence. İşte sorumluluk duygusu… Derse hazırlanmak ya da dersten sonra yapman gerekenler… Okunacak kağıtlar, değerlendirilecek sınavlar… Bu konuda bir isteksizlik var ama yapmasan da olmuyor. Yapman gerekiyor. İşini sevmeden yapabileceğin bir şey değil. Dışarıda çok şey yapıyoruz, yani insana çok yük bindiriyor. Yoksa derse girmek o kadar büyük külfet değil. Derse girmek belki en kolay yanı. Ama dışarıdaki işler… Yani hayatına yayılıyor insanın. Derste bitmiyor.

Görüşmeci: Hayatına yayılıyor derken? Biraz daha açar mısınız?

Katılımcı: Eve iş götürmek zorundasın. Belli çalışma saatleri olmadığı için sen biraz ayarlamak zorundasın mesaini. O da devamlı, "Şunu ne zaman yapsam, bunu ne zaman yapsam?" gibi... Çok programlı olmayı gerektiriyor. Programa sadık kalmayı gerektiriyor. Eve iş götürmek istemiyorsan okulda vakit geçirmen gerekiyor. O da bir nevi mesaiye dönüyor zaten sonra. Yani o sorumluluk duygusu işte… Hafta sonuna bir iş bıraktıysan.. Hafta sonu - ve yapmadıysan o işi, ertelediysen- zehir oluyor yani. "Yapmam gerekiyor, yapmam gerekiyor," diye düşünüp duruyorsun. Ama yapmak da istemiyorsun. Gibi bir şey…

Görüşmeci: Peki bu stresten, okuldaki diğer öğretmenlerden daha çok mu yoksa daha az mı etkilendiğinizi düşünüyorsunuz?

Katılımcı: İstatistik olarak bilemem, ama daha mutlu insanlar gördüm. Yani yaptığı işte faydalı olduğunu hissettiğini söyleyen, çalışma hayatından memnun olduğunu söyleyen, işine benden daha sıkı sarılan insanlar gördüm ama istatistik olarak çoğunlukta olduklarını sanmam.

Görüşmeci: Yani…?

Katılımcı: Genelde stresli gibi geliyor bana herkes.

Görüşmeci: Kendinizi karşılaştırırsanız onlarla, ne söyleyebilirsiniz?

Katılımcı: Ben en streslilerden biriyimdir herhalde.

APPENDIX O: A SAMPLE EXTRACT FROM AN INTERVIEW

Interviewer: How much stress do you generally feel from your job?

Interviewee: How? While working, or the stress that the job generally causes?

Interviewee: I am talking about the stress the job causes.

Interviewee: [There is] Not much stress while working, but [the job] causes stress on me especially outside working hours.

Interviewer: For example?

Interviewee: For me, this is the worst side of this job. The feeling of responsibility… Preparing for the class or the things you have to do after class… Papers to grade, exams to grade… I feel reluctant for this, but if you don't do [them], still there is no chance of not doing so. You have to do [that]. That's not something that you can do if you don't love your job. We do many things outside the class, it causes a great amount of work. Otherwise, teaching is not that big trouble. Maybe teaching is the easiest aspect. But the things outside the class… They occupy each area of one's life. It does not finish at the end of a class.

Interviewer: What do you mean "they occupy each area of one's life"? Could you be more precise?

Interviewee: You have to take your work home. Because there is no fixed working hours, you have to organize yourself. And that is like "When should I do that? When should I do this?" It necessitates being strictly organized. If you don't want to take your work home, you have to spend time at school. Then, it becomes a kind of fixed shift. I mean that feeling of responsibility… If you spare some work for the weekend… and if you haven't finished or if you have postponed it, your work becomes distasteful. You keep thinking "I have to do [this], I have to do [this]". But, you don't want to do that, either. Something like that.

Interviewer: OK then. Do you think you are affected more or less by stress than other teachers in this school?

Interviewee: I cannot know it statistically, but I have seen happier people. I mean people who say they feel beneficial [for students], people who are satisfied with working life, who hold on to their job, but statistically, I cannot say they are the majority.

Interviewer: Which means…?

Interviewee: Generally, I think everyone is stressed out.

Interviewer: What can you say if you compare yourself to them?

Interviewee: I guess I am one of the most stressed out.

APPENDIX P: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Interview Schedule			
Number	**Participant number**	**Date**	**Duration**
1	97	February 19, 2010	27' 03"
2	118	February 19, 2010	21' 37"
3	45	February 19, 2010	18' 41"
4	86	February 19, 2010	22' 57"
5	82	February 19, 2010	15' 52"
6	101	February 19, 2010	14' 19"
7	69	February 19, 2010	16' 23"
8	1	February 19, 2010	13' 44"
9	46	February 22, 2010	15' 23"
10	109	February 22, 2010	22' 23"
11	49	February 22, 2010	13' 27"
12	105	February 22, 2010	24' 18"
13	4	February 22, 2010	16' 06"
14	12	February 22, 2010	22' 52"
15	104	February 26, 2010	21' 54"
16	11	February 26, 2010	18' 29"
17	102	March 1, 2010	10' 28"
18	96	March 1, 2010	11' 20"
19	33	March 1, 2010	15' 57"
20	24	March 1, 2010	18' 12"
21	63	March 1, 2010	16' 08"
22	93	March 1, 2010	21' 50"

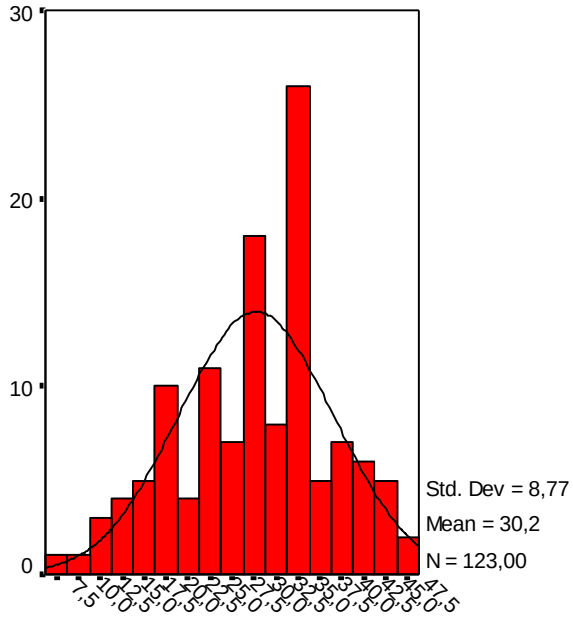
APPENDIX R: TESTS OF NORMALITY

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Emotional Exhaustion	.09	123	.02	.98	123	.10
Depersonalization	.09	123	.02	.97	123	.01
Personal Accomplishment	.07	123	.20(*)	.99	123	.33
Personal Teaching Efficacy	.07	123	.18	.99	123	.57
General Teaching Efficacy	.11	123	.00	.96	123	.00
Collective Teacher Efficacy	.12	123	.00	.93	123	.00

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a Lilliefors Significance Correction

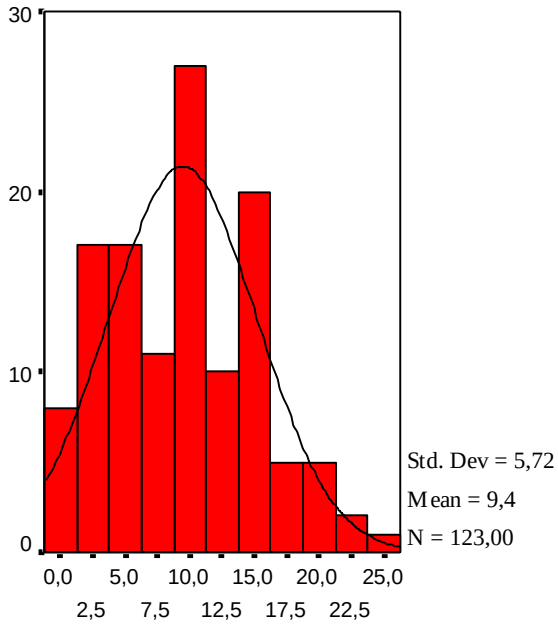
APPENDIX S: HISTOGRAMS

Emotional Exhaustion



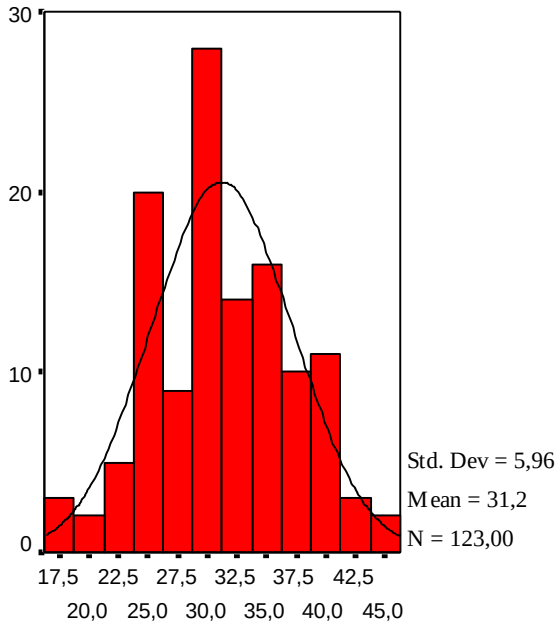
Emotional Exhaustion

Depersonalization



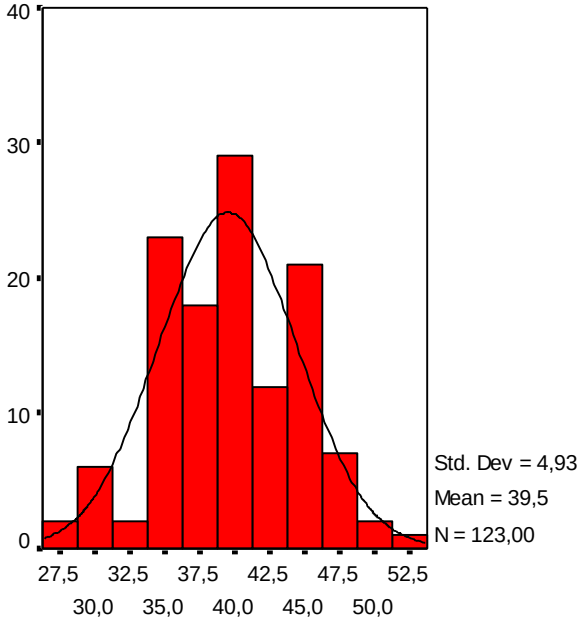
Depersonalization

Personal Accomplishment



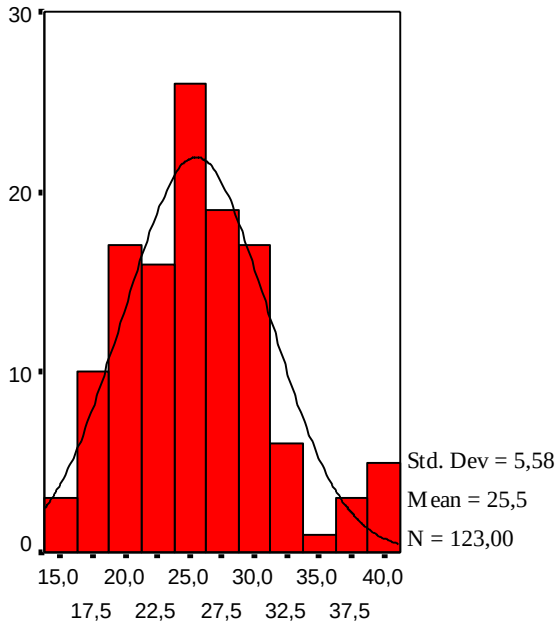
Personal Accomplishment

Personal Teaching Efficacy



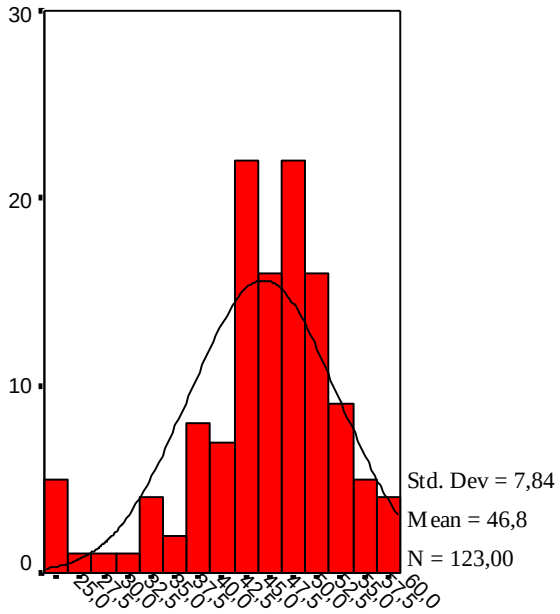
Personal Teaching Efficacy

Teaching Efficacy



Teaching Efficacy

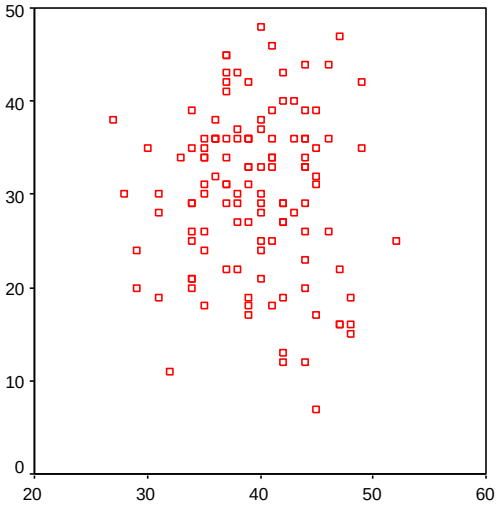
Collective Teacher Efficacy



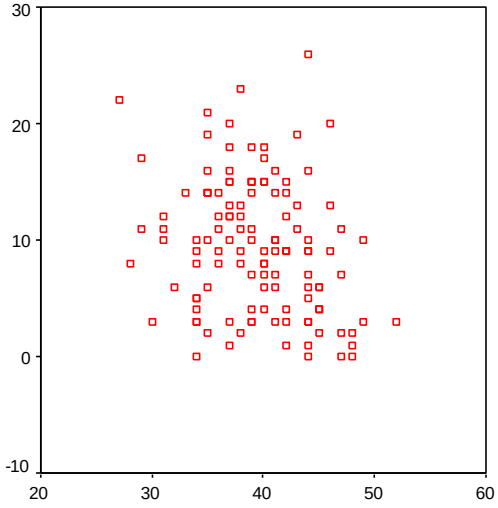
Collective Teacher Efficacy

APPENDIX T: SCATTERPLOTS

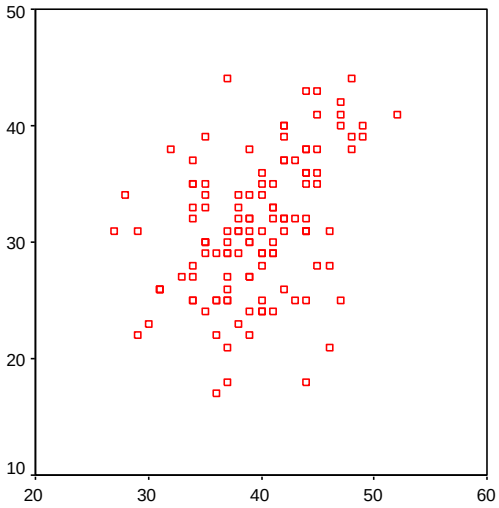
Emotional Exhaustion - Personal Teaching Efficacy



Depersonalization - Personal Teaching Efficacy

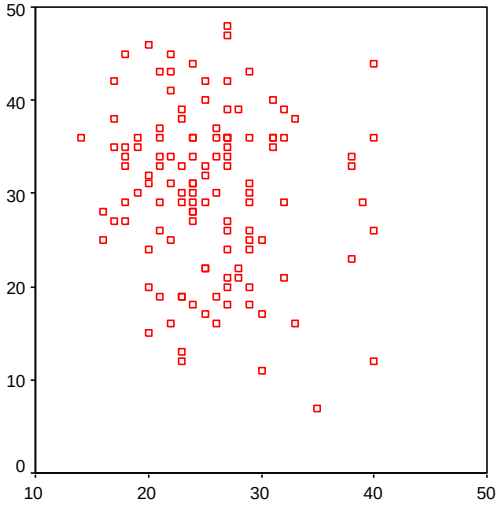


Personal Accomplishment - Personal Teaching Efficacy



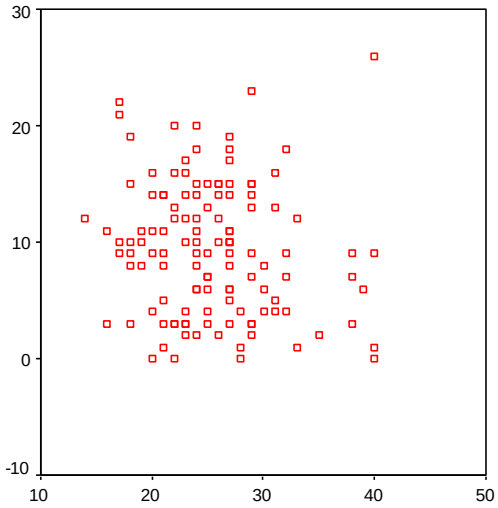
Personal Teaching Efficacy

Emotional Exhaustion - Teaching Efficacy

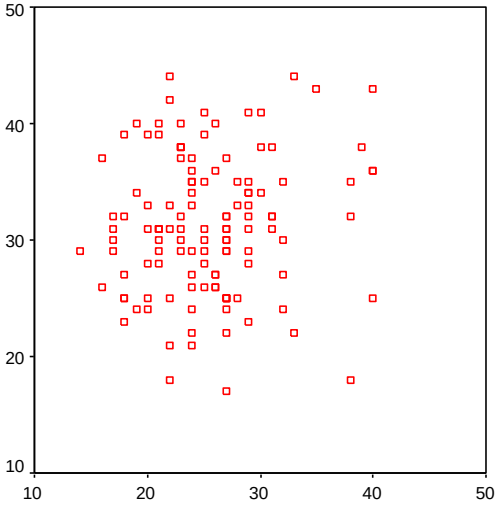


Teaching Efficacy

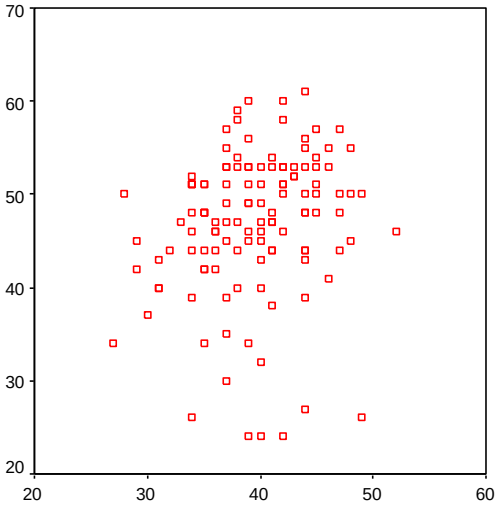
Depersonalization - Teaching Efficacy



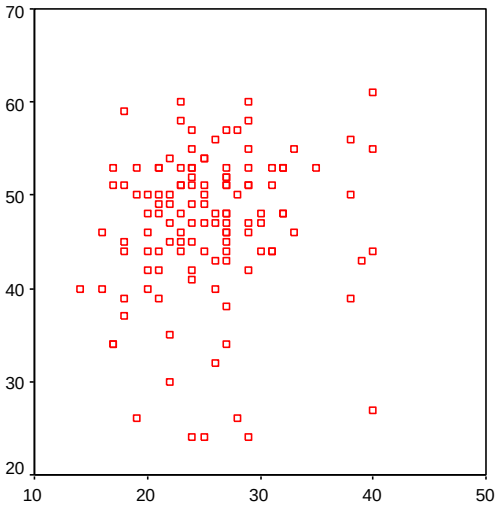
Personal Accomplishment - Teaching Efficacy



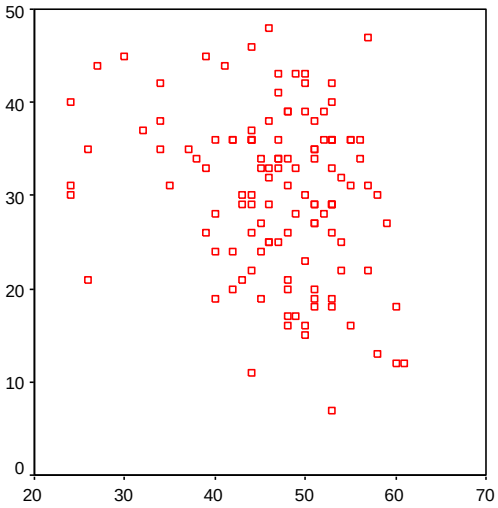
Personal Teaching Efficacy - Collective Teacher Efficacy



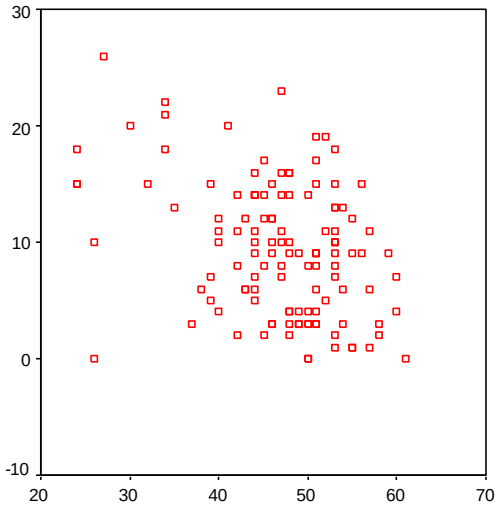
Teaching Efficacy - Collective Teacher Efficacy



Emotional Exhaustion - Collective Teacher Efficacy



Depersonalization - Collective Teacher Efficacy



Personal Accomplishment - Collective Teacher Efficacy