

**KAFKAS UNIVERSITY**  
**INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**  
**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE**

**AN EVALUATION OF ELT TEACHERS' VOCATIONAL  
BURNOUT ACCORDING TO SOME VARIABLES**

**Ülkünur KURTOĞLU**

**MASTER OF ARTS**

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**Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Gencer ELKILIÇ**

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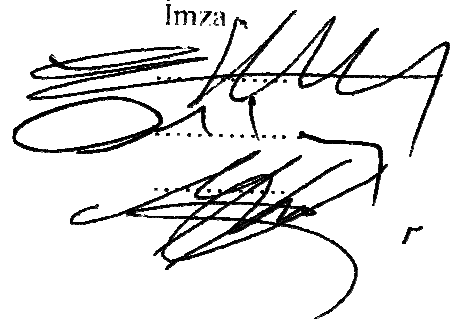
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Ülkünur KURTOĞLU'na ait " AN EVALUATION OF ELT TEACHERS' VOCATIONAL BURNOUT ACCORDING TO SOME VARIABLES " konulu çalışma, jürimiz tarafından Batı Dilleri ve Edebiyatları Anabilim Dalı, Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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## ÖZET

### İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN MESLEKİ TÜKENMİŞLİKLERİNİN BAZI DEĞİŞKENLERE GÖRE DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ

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**Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Anabilim Dalı**

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, Konya ilinde çalışan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin mesleki tükenmişlik düzeylerini belirleyerek bazı demografik ve mesleki değişkenler açısından tükenmişlik puanlarının farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığını değerlendirmektir.

Çalışmaya 2009–2010 eğitim-öğretim yılı içerisinde Konya ilinde Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'na bağlı okullarda görev yapmakta olan 50 İngilizce öğretmeni katılmıştır.

Tükenmişlik düzeylerini belirlemek için “Maslach Tükenmişlik Ölçeği” ve kişisel bilgiler için “Kişisel Bilgi Formu” kullanılmıştır. Maslach Tükenmişlik Ölçeği’nden elde edilen puanların aritmetik ortalamaları ve standart sapmaları hesaplanmıştır.

Yapılan analizler sonucunda araştırmaya katılan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin tükenmişlik düzeyinin duygusal tükenme alt boyutunda öğretmenlik mesleğini kendine uygun bulup bulmama ve öğretmenlik mesleğini isteyerek seçip seçmeme; duyarsızlaşma alt boyutunda öğretmenlik mesleğini kendine uygun bulup bulmama ve öğretmenlik mesleğini isteyerek seçip seçmeme; kişisel başarı alt boyutunda yaş, görev süresi, ve öğretmenlik mesleğini kendine uygun bulup bulmama değişkenlerine göre anlamlı bir farklılık gösterdiği saptanmıştır. Öğretmenlerin

cinsiyet, medeni durum ve çalışma hayatında iş arkadaşlarından destek görme durumuna göre tükenmişlik düzeyleri arasında anlamlı bir fark saptanmamıştır.

**Anahtar sözcükler:** Tükenmişlik, Öğretmen, Duygusal Tükenme, Duyarsızlaşma, Kişisel Başarı.

## **ABSTRACT**

### **AN EVALUATION OF ELT TEACHERS' VOCATIONAL BURNOUT ACCORDING TO SOME VARIABLES**

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**Master of Arts, English Language and Literature**

**Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Gencer ELKILIÇ**

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The purpose of this study is to establish the burnout levels among the english teachers' employed in Konya province and to evaluate whether the burnout scores vary in view of some demographic and vocational variables.

This study was participated by 50 english teachers serving in schools affiliated to the Ministry of National Education in district of Konya during the 2009-2010 education and training term.

“Maslach Burnout Inventory” and “Personal Information Form” have been used to identify the burnout levels. The arithmetical averages and the standard deviations of the scores obtained from the “Maslach Burnout Inventory” were also estimated.

As a result of the analysis performed, it was detected that the burnout levels of the english teachers who participated in the study varied at the subdimension of emotional burnout according to the variables of deeming the job appropriate for oneself and selection of occupation with will; at the subdimension of depersonalization according to variables of deeming the job appropriate for oneself and selection of occupation with will; at the subdimension of personal

accomplishment according to variables of age, duty duration and deeming the job appropriate for oneself. On the other hand, significant differences were no found with gender, marital status and receiving the support of colleagues on the job.

**Keywords:** Burnout, Teacher, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Personal Accomplishment.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. Background to the Study

Burnout is an occupational threat and all people who work in helping professions, including teachers, are exposed. Carter (1994) defines teacher burnout as physical, emotional, and attitudinal exhaustion that begins with a feeling of uneasiness and mounts as the joy of teaching begins to gradually slip away. Although the symptoms of burnout may be very personal, they are generally “lack of” symptoms. The list includes lack of energy, joy, enthusiasm, satisfaction, motivation, interest, and zest, dreams for life, ideas, concentration, self-confidence, or humor (McGee-Cooper, 1990).

Burnout was first defined by Freudenberger (1974) and involves feelings of failure and exhaustion resulting from excessive demands on a person's energy with insufficient reward for the effort. Other researchers have defined burnout as psychological distancing from work (Maslach, 1976). Block (1978) and Freudenberger (1983) have identified many of the symptoms associated with burnout, which can be categorized into three groups: physical (e.g., exhaustion, lingering cold, frequent headaches, gastrointestinal disturbances, weight loss, sleeplessness and shortness of breath), psychological ( e.g., changeable mood, irritability, depression, loss of caring for people, cynical attitude, increased frustration, feelings of helplessness, greater professional risk- taking (i.e., smoking, escapist drinking, drug use), and behavioral (e.g., deterioration in work performance and absenteeism). It is unlikely that any single isolated symptom can be viewed as an indication of burnout. Various combinations of the above and perhaps others represent the manifestations of burnout. If these issues are not addressed, eventually, the individual loses desire and motivation, and is unable to fight or flee what is perceived to be an impossible situation. On a more global scale, burnout can lead to serious consequences in the individual, the school, and students.

Teaching can be considered a high-stress occupation. The education system has all the elements associated with stress: a bureaucratic structure, continuous evaluation of its processes and outcomes, and increasingly intensive interpersonal interactions with students, parents, colleagues, principals and the community. In addition, increased student misconduct, student apathy, overcrowded classrooms, inadequate salaries, demanding or unsupportive parents, budgetary constraints, expanding administrative loads, lack of infrastructural support, and an increasingly negative public opinion have contributed to an embattled and embittered teacher force throughout the world.

Burnout tends to be contagious. When dissatisfied and depressed teachers are present in a school, others can very easily become lethargic, cynical, and discontented and, before long, the entire organization becomes a dispirited and uninviting place. According to Van der Sijde (1988), the school climate influences both the student and the teacher. He reported a positive relationship between teachers' work conditions and the amount of support they gave to students. In addition, he noted, that teachers' behavior depended on their perceptions of how their school functioned. Thus, teachers play an important role in establishing the overall tone of a school. According to Purkey (1970), teachers need to feel successful and good about themselves and their abilities before they can empower their students to feel the same. If, however, teachers are experiencing feelings of failure and/or lacking in personal satisfaction, their relationship with students and the overall school will ultimately suffer.

## **1.2. Statement of the Problem**

Business and business environment are very important in human life. People spend a large part of their daily lives to plan work and work related activities. Stress in business life is inevitable. The changing speed that marked the 21<sup>st</sup> century, is gradually gaining momentum and this dizzying speed has captured many dimensions of work life. Differentiation of social rules, disputes between human relationships, high ration of competing in the working environment, the war of individual self-

realization, high level of expectation causes negative mental health and stress. When the job stress come together with the problems both in individual dimension and organizational dimension. Therefore, on the basis of many problems affecting the health of individuals and organizational effectiveness lays stress (Şahin, 2007).

Globally, stress is defined as a particular interaction between the person and the environment, appraised by the person as being taxing or exceeding his or her personal resources, and, as a consequence, disrupting daily routines (Lazarus&Folkman, 1984). According to this theory, stress is defined as a state of psychological pressure influenced by three main sources, personality mediators, environmental factors, and emotional responses.

It is obvious that teachers can be exposed to a number of sources of stress. Kyriacou (2001), reports that the main sources of teacher stress are teaching students who lack motivation, maintaining discipline in the classroom, confronting general time pressures and workload demands, being exposed to a large amount of change, being evaluated by others, having challenging relationships with colleagues, administration, and management, and being exposed to generally poor working conditions. Therefore, it is important to investigate and evaluate the burnout levels teachers. Examining the variables causing burnout and exhaustion may facilitate the precautions relating to issues.

### **1.3. Purpose of the Study**

This study aims to establish the burnout levels among English teachers serving in schools affiliated to the Ministry of National Education and evaluate whether the burnout scores vary in the view of some demographic variables such as age, gender, marital status, duty duration, deeming the job appropriate for oneself, selection of occupation with will, receiving support of colleagues and vocational variables.



#### **1.4. Operational Definitions**

In this study, the following terms will be considered in their meanings below:

**Burnout:** Burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do 'people work' of some kind (Maslach&Jackson, 1986, p.1).

**Emotional Exhaustion:** Emotional Exhaustion corresponds with the notion of strain as it has been linked to tension, anxiety, physical fatigue, insomnia, and so on (Maslach&Jackson, 1981; Perlman&Hartman, 1982).

**Depersonalization:** Depersonalization corresponds to the notion of coping; through depersonalization, the individual attempts to staunch the depletion of emotional energy by threatening others as objects or numbers rather than as people (Kahill, 1988; Maslach, 1982).

**Personal Accomplishment:** Personal Accomplishment represents and aspect of self-efficacy and is linked to adjustment to demanding situations (Bandura, 1986).

The abbreviations used in the study are as follows:

**GB:** General Burnout

**EE:** Emotional Exhaustion

**D:** Depersonalization

**PA:** Personal Accomplishment

**MBI:** Maclach Burnout Inventory

## **1.5. Research Questions**

This study seeks answers to the following questions;

1. What is the level of ELT Teachers' vocational burnout in emotional exhaustion dimension?
2. What is the level of ELT Teachers' vocational burnout in depersonalization dimension?
3. What is the level of ELT Teachers' vocational burnout in personal accomplishment dimension?
4. What is the level of ELT Teachers' vocational burnout according to some demographic variables?

## **1.6. Limitations**

1. This study is limited with the ELT Teachers serving in schools affiliated to the Ministry of National Education in district of Konya during the 2009-2010 education and training terms.
2. The research data is limited with Maslach Burnout Inventory and Personal Information Form.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

This chapter examines theoretical concept of burnout and its applications in educational settings.

#### **2.1. The Concept of Burnout**

Actually, burnout was a work related syndrome resulting of severe stress. Burnout is considered to be a long-term stress reaction that particularly occurs among professionals who work with people in some capacity—like teachers, nurses, social workers. Although various definitions of burnout exist, it is most commonly described as a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being emotionally overextended and depleted of one's emotional resources. Depersonalization refers to a negative, callous, or excessively detached response to other people who are usually the recipients of one's services or care. Reduced personal accomplishment refers to a decline in one's feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work. Now, there is a growing trend of using the term burnout in non industrial and non professional settings, especially with students. This chapter discusses theoretical concept of burnout and its applications in educational settings.

Traditionally, burnout is considered as a three-dimensional syndrome (i.e. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment) that is measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Emotional exhaustion, which refers to feelings of being depleted of one's emotional resources, is regarded as the basic individual stress component of the syndrome. Depersonalization, referring to negative, cynical, or excessively detached responses to other people at work, represents the interpersonal component of burnout. Finally, reduced personal accomplishment refers to feelings

of decline in one's competence and productivity, and to one's lowered sense of efficacy, representing the self-evaluation component of burnout (Maslach, 1998). To date, well over 1,000 studies have used the MBI to assess burnout so that it can be considered the "gold standard" for measuring the construct (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

## **2.2. Origins of Burnout Theory**

The first use of the term burnout occurred in the novel *A Burnt-Out Case*, (Greene, 1961). According to a New York Times critic (Davis, 2000), the novel concerned a tired and detached architect, who, having lost his motivation to work, could "neither suffer nor laugh". Because symptoms such as the inability to laugh or suffer provided no physical signs of injury, the literally novel concept of burnout was not perceived as a workplace hazard (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

The term burnout was first introduced in academic scenario by Freudenberg (1974), who defined it as "to fail, to wear out, or become exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources" (p.159). The concept of burnout was further popularized with the development of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Research on burnout originally focused on people in various occupational groups, including human service workers, teachers, nurses, and psychologists.

Earning little scholarly consideration, burnout was deemed "pop psychology" (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 398), "fad" (Farber, 2000a, p. 589), and "psychobabble" (Schwab, 1983, p. 21). According to early scholars of burnout theory (Farber, 1984; Maslach, 1976; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) burnout gradually emerged as a phenomenon worth studying because of the early works of Freudenberg (1974), a psychiatrist who examined health care workers who had become demoralized while caring for drug addicts (Farber, 1991). While recognizing Freudenberg's germinal work, Cordes and Dougherty (1993) differentiated Freudenberg's studies as qualitative, based on personal experiences, noting that the

empirical study of burnout did not begin until the 1980s through the work of researchers like Iwanicki, Schwab, Maslach, and Jackson. Another difference between Freudenberger's early work on burnout and that of others was Freudenberger's belief (1980) that workers worked harder when faced with emotional exhaustion. By contrast Maslach and Pines (1977) and Maslach and Jackson (1981) found the opposite, namely work productivity deteriorated. The belief in deterioration of work quality continued through the decades to present time (Evers et al., 2002; Schwab, 1982; Maslach et al., 1996; Taris et al., 2004). While early burnout research focused primarily on care-giving occupations such as nursing (Farber, 2000a; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2001), teachers quickly emerged as the care-giving group most readily identified with the burnout phenomenon (Farber, 1991). As investigations into burnout continued, researchers (Farber, 1984; Hock, 1988; Maslach & Pines, 1977) identified a variety of problems related to teacher burnout. Gold (1985) enumerated them as follows: "disruptive behavior, students' lack of interest in their work, new programs, accountability testing, and excessive paperwork. The list was endless" (p. 255). Gold's 1985 findings demonstrate that accountability testing was recognized early as a problem related to teacher burnout, the psychological syndrome whose symptoms are now reviewed.

Accumulating empirical evidence suggests that burnout is a process that gradually develops across time (Leiter, 1993; Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). The first stage is characterized by an imbalance between resources and demands stress. In human services professions considerable stress is caused by the emotionally demanding relationships with recipients (e.g., pupils, patients, clients, or prisoners) that eventually may result in the depletion of one's emotional resources. Next, a set of negative attitudes and behaviors is developed, such as a tendency to treat recipients in a detached and mechanical manner or a cynical preoccupation with gratification of one's own needs. Essentially, these negative attitudes and behaviors that constitute the depersonalization component of burnout are to be considered as defensive coping mechanisms. In order to reduce emotional exhaustion, the burnout candidate creates a psychological distance in an attempt to

protect him- or herself against the stressful social environment. However, this is an inadequate coping strategy that increases stress rather than reduces it because it diminishes the relationship with recipients and aggravates interpersonal problems. As a result, the professional is less effective in achieving his or her goals so that personal accomplishment diminishes and feelings of incompetence and self doubt might develop. A suchlike sense of reduced personal accomplishment is considered to be the third component of the burnout syndrome. In a somewhat similar vein, burnout has been described as a process of increasing disillusionment: “a progressive loss of idealism, energy, and purpose experienced by people in the helping professions as a result of conditions in their work” (Edelwich & Brodsky, 1980, p. 14). The initial idealistic expectations and noble aspirations are regarded as built-in sources of future frustration and therefore as major causes of burnout. In their progressive disillusionment model of burnout Edelwich and Brodsky distinguish four stages: (1) enthusiasm, (2) stagnation, (3) frustration, and (4) apathy. Quite remarkably, their process model of burnout closely matches observations on the typical CO career path: “Watching their entrance into the prison can be quite an experience. The hopes on their faces, the positive anxiety of their motivated gait—at first, it’s all there. Then slowly and almost methodically, the smiles wane, the expectations atrophy, and the desires to perform in a positive fashion succumb to escapist fantasy and verbally acknowledged skepticism” (Edelwich & Brodsky, 1980, p. 1).

According to scholars of burnout (Maslach, 1976; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach & Pines, 1977), burnout impedes job performance. Burnout represents “the index of the dislocation between what people are and what they have to do . . . a malady that spreads gradually and continuously over time, putting people into a downward spiral from which it's hard to recover” (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

### **2.3. The Nature of Burnout**

As a general meaning, burnout refers to the smothering of a fire or the extinguishing of a candle. It implies that once a fire was burning but the fire cannot continue burning brightly unless there are sufficient resources that keep being replenished. Over time, employees experiencing burnout lose the capacity to provide the intense contributions that make an impact. If they continue working, the result is more like smoldering – uneventful and inconsequential – than burning. From their own perspective or that of others, they accomplish less. In summary, the metaphor describes the exhaustion of employees' capacity to maintain an intense involvement that has a meaningful impact at work.

The success of the burnout metaphor indicates the notion's roots in general oration. People used the term to describe an experience before scientific psychology identified it as a phenomenon worthy of study. Freudenberger (1974) borrowed the term from the illicit drug scene where it colloquially referred to the devastating effect of chronic drug abuse. He used the term to describe the gradual emotional depletion, loss of motivation, and reduced commitment among volunteers of the St Mark's Free Clinic in New York's East Village that he observed as a consulting psychiatrist. Such free clinics for drug addicts and homeless people had grown out of the counter-movement against the establishment. Not unimportantly, Freudenberger himself fell victim to burnout twice, which increased his credibility in spreading the message of burnout. His writings on the subject were strongly autobiographical and his impact is illustrated by the fact that in 1999, he received The Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement in the Practice of Psychology at the APA Convention in Boston.

In a research, Maslach noticed the term when interviewing with the human services workers. As a social psychological researcher, Maslach was interested in how these workers coped with their emotional arousal using cognitive strategies such as detached concern. As a result of these interviews she learned that these workers often felt emotionally exhausted, that they developed negative perceptions and

feelings about their clients or patients, and that they experienced crises in professional competence as a result of the emotional turmoil (Maslach, 1976, 1993). These practitioners referred to this syndrome as “burnout”.

In a thorough process of interviews, observation, and psychometric development, Maslach and her colleagues developed a method for assessing burnout as a multidimensional construct that went beyond mere exhaustion (Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2008). At the outset, burnout was predominantly identified within the human services: “Burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity” (Maslach et al., 1996, p. 4). However, by the late 1980s, researchers and practitioners began to recognize that burnout occurred outside the human services, for instance, among managers, entrepreneurs, and white- and blue collar workers. Thus, the burnout metaphor was extended from the intense requirements of client service to other work requiring creativity, problem solving, or mentoring. In this more general form, burnout was defined as “. . . a state of exhaustion in which one is cynical about the value of one’s occupation and doubtful of one’s capacity to perform” (Maslach et al., 1996, p. 20). The term burnout, then, was transferred from a literal reference to a depletion of physical resources supporting combustion to the psychological domain. But why did burnout suddenly gain momentum in the USA in the mid 1970s in the first place, and why does it continue to remain an important and popular issue?

#### **2.4. The Social and Cultural Context of Burnout**

When burnout began to be investigated and studied in the 1970s, it was primarily in reference to work in the human services, such as health care, social work, psychotherapy, legal services, and police work. Qualitative interviews and case studies gave a vivid picture of the experience in which people lost both their energy and their sense of the value of their job. The loss of meaning was especially poignant within professions dedicated to lofty goals to help and serve others. Tellingly, burnout discussions began within the human services, because they were



better able to give “voice” to issues of emotions, values, and relationships with people – concepts that had not been widely recognized within the research literature on the workplace.

In the USA, many social, economic and cultural changes of the 1960s infused the origins of burnout notion. These are developments whose impact on burnout is speculative rather than empirically demonstrated.

In the early 1960s, President John F. Kennedy ignited a vision of public service, as he challenged Americans to “ask not what your country can do for you, but ask what you can do for your country”. Subsequently, President Lyndon B. Johnson launched the “War on Poverty” that caused a large influx of idealistically motivated young people into human services professions. However, after struggling to eradicate poverty for a decade or so, they found themselves increasingly disillusioned. They came to learn that the systemic factors perpetuating poverty nullified their efforts to alleviate poverty’s downstream impact on people and frustrated their efforts to open opportunities for children of poor families. Frustrated idealism was a defining quality of the burnout experience, mirroring the intensity of combustion. It was critical to the concept’s momentum: service providers were appalled at their diminished capacity to perform or to show compassion towards their recipients. The experience of burnout was not merely an inconvenience or an occupational hazard, but a devastating attack on their professional identity. They had chosen a career path of service, forsaking other options in the vibrant American economy of the era. Exhaustion on its own would not be so compelling: dedicated people may even derive fulfillment from exhausting themselves through exerting extraordinary effort for a deeply valued cause. The lack of compassion and diminished effectiveness implicit in the full burnout experience had a much more devastating impact on their identity (Farber, 1983).

From the 1950s onwards the human services in the USA as well as in Europe rapidly professionalized and bureaucratized as a result of greater government and state influence. Small-scale, traditional agencies where work was considered a calling, transformed into large-scale modern organizations with formalized job descriptions. Arguing this point, Cherniss and Kranz (1983) observed that burnout was virtually absent in monasteries, Montessori schools, and religious care centers where people consider their work as a calling rather than merely a job. They argued that such “ideological communities” provide a collective identity that prevents burnout from occurring because of social commitment, a sense of communion, contact with the collective whole, and shared strong values. Seen from this perspective, burnout represents the price paid of professionalizing the helping professions from “callings” into “modern” occupations. The frustration and disillusionment arising from a widespread, institutionalized clash of utilitarian organizational values with providers’ personal or professional values contributed further to burnout.

The professional authority of – among others – doctors, nurses, teachers, social workers and police officers were declined with the “cultural revolution” of the 1960s. The traditional prestige of these professionals was no longer evident after the 1960s. Simultaneously, empowered recipients expected much more than ever before. As a consequence, recipients’ demands of care, service, empathy, and compassion intensified. Together, these two trends increased the technical and emotional demands of professional work considerably. Even if they relinquished professional ideals, embracing the values of institutionalized services, service providers were unlikely to experience fulfillment from their work. From the perspective of social exchange, a discrepancy grew between professionals’ efforts and the rewards they received in recognition and gratitude. This “lack of reciprocity” is known to foster burnout (Schaufeli, 2006).

All the factors explained above are roughly specific for the human services, where burnout was observed first. However, there were additional socio-cultural developments that seem to have contributed to the emergence and proliferation of

burnout in the mid-1970s as well. Since the Second World War, traditional social communities and networks such as the church, the neighborhood, and the family have gradually eroded. According to Sennett (1998) this is the result of the emerging “flexible capitalism” that replaces traditional rigid, homogeneous and predictable social institutions by more flexible, heteronymous and continuously changing ones. This development encourages social fragmentation and what he calls “the corrosion of character,” a notion somewhat similar to burnout. Not only has community support decreased, but increasingly, individualism has prospered. People have created personal definitions of their own social and occupational roles because society no longer has provided shared definitions. In parallel, a “narcissistic culture” (Lasch, 1979) developed that is characterized by transient, unrewarding and even combative social relationships that produce self-absorbed, manipulative individuals, who demand immediate gratification of their desires but remain perpetually unsatisfied. As Farber (1983, p. 11) noted, the combination of the trends toward individualization and towards narcissism produces “a perfect recipe for burnout”: the former produces stress and frustration while the latter undermines people’s coping resources.

A comprehensive development that seem to have sparked burnout is the swift and penetrating transformation from an industrial society into a service economy that took place in the last quarter of the past century. This social transformation goes along with psychological pressures, which, in their turn, are subject to public discourse. A striking parallel exists with neurasthenia – literally, weakness of the nervous system – that was first observed at the end of the nineteenth century when American society transformed from an agricultural into an industrial society (Loriol, 2002). Tellingly, neurasthenia appeared first among the icons of the new industrial era – the dynamic business men – like burnout appeared similarly first among the icons of the new service era – the human services professionals. To George Beard, who coined the term in 1869, neurasthenia was the product of rapid technological change as expressed, for instance, by the telegraph (Cooper and Dewe, 2004, p. 5), whereas for Freudenberg (1974) and Maslach (1976), burnout was the product of rapid change in social relationships. Although this particular constellation of

political, social, and cultural developments in the USA seem to have set the stage for the concept of burnout, what sustains burnout's momentum in the twenty-first century?

## **2.5. Burnout in the Twenty-First Century**

Originally, burnout was viewed as a specific threat for inexperienced, idealistic, young service professionals who became exhausted, cynical, and discouraged through their experiences in cold bureaucratic systems serving entitled, unresponsive clients with intractable problems. But that was long ago. The young idealists entering the workforce in the 1960s are at the time of this writing heading toward retirement. Young professionals in the early twenty-first century have fewer opportunities for naivety. Television dramas give thoroughly gritty depictions of work life. A favorite and repeated theme is the novice's loss of innocence. Professional training programs for service professionals, MBAs, and lawyers rarely paint a rosy picture. And the internet provides an incessant stream of unfiltered and only occasionally corroborated information on any topic imaginable (and a few that defy imagination). People have few illusions about the working world. But they are nevertheless vulnerable to burnout (Cho et al., 2006; Gellert and Kuipers, 2008). And the boomers who have been working since the 1970s, and who should know better by now, are vulnerable as well (Leiter et al., 2008). It may be that while naive idealism magnifies one's vulnerability to burnout, it is not an essential prerequisite. The deciding factor may be the nature of work life and the broad cultural context within which work occurs in the twenty-first century.

Two prominent participants to the experience of work life explain burnout's persistence as an experience, a matter of social importance, and a focus of scientific inquiry. The first contributor is a persistent imbalance of demands over resources (Aiken et al., 2001; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). When demands increase –, e.g. more service recipients with more intense requirements – resources fail to keep pace. There are insufficient personnel, equipment, supplies, or space to meet the demand

(Aiken et al., 2002). Insufficient opportunities to rest and regenerate depleted energy aggravate the exhausting impact of demand/resource imbalances.

The second contributor concerns motives rather than energy. Employees in the twenty-first century view organizational missions, visions, and values with skepticism (Hemingway and Maclagan, 2004). Employees may hold personal values that differ from the organizations. For example, a retail salesperson may be more interested in the quality of customer service than meeting sales targets. Another salesperson may only value maximizing personal sales commissions over developing ongoing relationships with customers. In some circumstances, more clearly articulated corporate values may provide a more fertile ground for value conflicts.

The potency for value clashes is increased as organizations and employees reduce their commitment to one another. The major value conflict for service professionals in the 1970s was between the counterculture and an established social order (Martin and Siehl, 1983). Young people distrusted older generations. They did not trust anyone over 30 and they did not trust their institutions either. The free clinic movement in the USA sought to establish a new approach to health care. Working for organizations in the establishment engendered one type of value conflict. Working for organizations within the counterculture engendered another type of value conflict as the demands of business or public sector accountability were generally inconsistent with counterculture ideals.

Professional service providers or managers entering a twenty-first century workforce expect a much more varied career than their counterparts a generation previously (McDonald et al., 2005). Neither party is ready to make a life-long commitment. Accordingly, employees are less willing to put aside their personal inclinations for the good of the company.

Another form of conflict occurs between the organization's stated values and its values in action (Argyris, 1982). Employees exercise severe judgment when they witness a gap between organizational intentions and reality. Rather than attributing

the shortfall to market conditions or bad luck, they often attribute the problem to corporate hypocrisy. This attribution may apply to the entire executive level or it may pertain to distinct individuals who are abusing positions of authority to exploit the company for their personal gain. In these scenarios, employees accept the organizations' espoused values. They experience conflict with the values they attribute to the organizations' shortcomings.

Public sector organizations in the twenty-first century often state ideals that far exceed their resources (Potter et al., 2007). Few societies devote sufficient resources to meet their populations' needs. The systemic imbalance of demands to resources promotes exhaustion and reduces professional efficacy while alienation from corporate values reduces providers' involvement in their work or their service recipients (Schaufeli, 2006; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Together, the principles inherent in globalization promise to perpetuate burnout throughout information/service organizations.

Recent administration within a global economy pronounces lofty ideals that they fail to support while they focus on the fiscal, policy, and political issues required to maintain large organizations or corporations. As individuals struggle to chart a course through complex, contradictory, and sometimes hostile institutional environments, they are vulnerable to the exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy that define burnout. The burnout phenomenon has grown from a specialized occupational hazard to a pervasive workplace hazard.

In this way, it seems that the same basic factors seem to drive burnout now as before, but yet a vaguely different quality. Most prominent are the imbalance between demands and resources at work, and the conflict between values (i.e. between personal values and those of the organization, and between the officially stated organizational values and the values in action).

## **2.6. The Globalization of Burnout**

In recent years, burnout has attracted the attention of many researchers, practitioners and public almost anywhere all around the world. Despite methodological problems, such as sampling bias, quantitative studies suggest that burnout is not exclusively a North American or Western phenomenon (Golembiewski et al., 1996; Perrewe´ et al., 2002; Savicki, 2002). For instance, a bi-cultural analysis of American and Philippine nurses showed that the social work environment as well as national value systems influences burnout-levels in both countries (Turnipseed and Turnipseed, 1997). In a similar vein, Pines (2003) showed that despite different value systems burnout was prevalent in Jewish and Arab Israelis. After its initial emergence in the USA in the 1970s, the concept was introduced in the 1980s in Western Europe, particularly the UK, the Low countries (Holland and Belgium), Germany, and the Nordic countries (Scandinavia and Finland), as well as in Israel. From the mid 1990s onwards burnout was also studied in the rest of Western and Eastern Europe, Asia, the Middle East, Latin America, Australia, and New Zealand. Finally, after the turn of the century, research on burnout spread to Africa, China, and to the Indian subcontinent. It is interesting to note that, roughly speaking, the order in which the interest in burnout seems to have spread corresponds with the economic development of the countries involved. For instance, currently, the economies of India and China are booming, and burnout now seems to attract attention in these countries as well. It has been suggested that globalization, privatization, and liberalization cause rapid changes in modern working life, such as increasing demands of learning new skills, the need to adopt new types of work, pressure of higher productivity and quality of work, time pressure and hectic jobs, which, in their turn, may produce burnout – particularly in rapidly developing countries like India (Kulkarni, 2006).

Burnout is a global term but it does not include the same meaning among countries and languages. A non-exhaustive overview reveals that the term “burnout” is used quite differently in various languages. Although in some languages equivalents of “burnout” or “to burn out” exist, often the English term is preferred. In

other languages, a more or less free translation of the English “burnout” is used by the lay public, whereas in these countries professionals and scholars use the “scientific” English term. Also, instead of “burnout” the notion of “exhaustion” is used, sometimes in conjunction with the adjective “professional” to denote its work relatedness. Quite interestingly, in yet some other languages the connotation of the English term “burnout” – or its local equivalent – is considered too strong, implying the impossibility to recover, i.e. a psychological death sentence. For that reason a somewhat milder term – usually referring to exhaustion – is used. Moreover, in some languages “exhaustion” denotes the process of burnout that includes its milder forms as well, whereas “burnout” is used for the end-stage of that process. This is at odds with the original use of “burnout” which was thought to cover the entire range running from mild to severe symptoms.

Intercalary to linguistic reasons, the local social context plays a major role in the way burnout is viewed. Namely, in some countries a formal burnout diagnosis opens the possibility for the individual to profit from financial compensation arrangements, counseling, psychotherapeutic treatment, and rehabilitation. In other countries, however, a formal burnout diagnosis is not recognized, and burned-out employees are not eligible for compensation or treatment of any kind. It is not surprising that, in the former instance, “burnout” developed into a formal medical diagnosis, the end-stage of a process. Notably this is the case in Sweden and the Netherlands. In these countries, “burnout” is an issue in the medical consulting room, as is, for instance, diabetes or hypertension.

## **2.7. Symptoms of Burnout**

A review of literature on burnout discloses the many symptoms associated with the syndrome: (a) feeling inconsequential, ineffective, or worn out (Farber, 2000a); (b) feeling helpless, physically depleted, and emotionally drained (Gold, 1984); (c) withdrawing and caring less (Mearns & Cain, 2003); and (d) emotional callousness, diminished sense of personal accomplishment, and negative self-assessment (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). An early study of teacher burnout (Gold,



1985) reported that burned-out teachers had described themselves as “empty, alienated, wasted, let down and even used-up” (p. 254). The Gold study described burnout itself as “the end product of stress” (p.254), the symptom which is now discussed. Maslach and Leiter (1997) described the physical as well as psychological problems associated with burnout, for example, “headaches, gastrointestinal illness, [and] high blood pressure” (p. 19). Although Seyle’s (1956) germinal work on stress theory identified stress as a major influence on such physiological problems, the similarity between the stress and burnout syndromes did not necessarily equate the two syndromes: Literature often confuses or equates “stress” with “burnout.” Though these two concepts are similar, they are not identical. Stress may have both positive and negative effects (Seyle, 1956); indeed, a certain amount of stress is necessary to motivate action. Moreover, burnout is most often the result not of stress per se (which may be inevitable in teaching) but of unmediated stress – of being stressed and having no “out” (Farber, 1984, p. 326).

Agreeing with Farber (1984) was Friedman (1995), who stated that burnout differed from stress in that burnout was the result of an “unmediated stress” (p. 281). Likewise, Kyriacou (1987) maintained that stress was the experience of unpleasant emotions, frustration or anger, while burnout resulted “from prolonged . . . stress, primarily characterized by physical, emotional and attitudinal exhaustion” (p. 146). Other scholars on burnout theory (Maslach et al., 1996) distinguished burnout from stress further by describing how the two syndromes manifested differently in the workplace. Whereas occupational stress had an opposite, namely a general sense of well being and relaxation, occupational burnout did not.

Rather than consider the differences between burnout and stress, Cherniss (1980) identified similarities between the syndromes, noting that neither stress nor burnout, should they occur, were necessarily total or permanent. Farber (1991) added more insight into the differences between stress and burnout by observing that stress could be positive or negative, whereas burnout was distinctly and exclusively negative. Similarities and differences notwithstanding, Farber argued that ultimately, “in the absence of empirical data or extensive observational reports they (burnout

and stress) are practically difficult to distinguish” (p. 32). The clearest distinction between stress and burnout involves the multidimensional aspects of the burnout phenomenon (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 1996; Maslach et al., 2001) as manifested by: (a) emotional exhaustion; (b) depersonalization; and (c) reduced personal accomplishment also referred to as inefficacy or ineffectiveness (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). The three symptoms of burnout are now discussed.

## **2.8. Medical Diagnosis of Burnout**

The medical diagnosis of burnout is meshed with recent debates about whether burnout should be considered as exhaustion, and no more. This “exhaustion-only” view has been expressed by both some researchers and some practitioners. Most scientific research uses the three-dimensional description of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy that is implied in the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI – Maslach and Jackson, 1981). The MBI clearly dominates the field: by the end of the 1990s it was used in 93 per cent of the journal articles and dissertations (Schaufeli and Enzmann, 1998, p. 71). Although meanwhile some alternative burnout instruments appeared the scene, such as the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (Kristensen et al., 2005) and the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (Demerouti et al., 2002), the MBI remains the “gold standard” to assess burnout. Practically speaking, the concept of burnout concurs with the MBI, and vice versa. Despite the supremacy of the MBI in scientific research, a debate among scholars on the nature of burnout continues. This debate revolves around two interrelated issues: the dimensionality of burnout and its scope. Some critics maintain that rather than being a multi-dimensional phenomenon, burnout is essentially equivalent to exhaustion (Pines and Aronson, 1981; Kristensen et al., 2005; Shirom and Melamed, 2005). For those in favor of the one-dimensional view, exhaustion is the one and only hallmark of burnout. Although theoretically speaking various aspects of exhaustion have been identified – for instance, physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion (Pines and Aronson, 1981), or physical and psychological exhaustion (Kristensen et al., 2005), or physical fatigue, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive weariness (Shirom and Melamed, 2005) – self-report measures inevitably produce one single overriding

exhaustion factor. Champions of the exhaustion-only perspective argue that constructs that emerge inductively from factor-analyses – like the MBI – are conceptually inferior to constructs derived from theoretical frameworks. This criticism ignores the iterative process through which Maslach and her colleagues developed the MBI through extensive, in-depth interviews (Maslach and Schaufeli, 1993). This conceptual work produced items reflecting a three-dimensional construct that was confirmed statistically. The insistence of contrarily-minded researchers to label exhaustion as burnout reflects the power of the metaphor. Chronic exhaustion – physical or mental – is a legitimate label for problems encountered by many people within or outside the working world. However, there is no scientific reason to use the term, burnout, when referring to exhaustion only. But burnout is such a catchy metaphor, reflecting a broad cultural experience that it is difficult to relinquish. Hence, our view is that reducing burnout to mere exhaustion boils down to putting new wine (burnout) in very old bottles (workplace fatigue).

Scholars argue that burnout, as a generic free phenomenon, may occur outside world. For instance, recently Kristensen et al. (2005, p.197) proposed to discriminate between work-related burnout, client-related burnout, and personal burnout. The latter is described as “. . . the degree of physical and psychological fatigue and exhaustion experienced by the person”. In their view personal burnout may also occur among those who do not work such as young people, unemployed, early retired people, pensioners, and housewives. As a matter of fact, the assumption that burnout is a context-free phenomenon has a history that goes back to the early days of burnout research and does accompany it since (e.g. Pines and Aronson, 1981). However, a multi-dimensional approach as in the MBI is by definition incompatible with the notion of context-free burnout. Then in any context – at work or outside work – people may feel exhausted, but cynicism and reduced professional efficacy refer to a particular object. A retired or unemployed person may feel exhausted, but it is impossible to identify the “something” about which unemployed or retired people should feel cynical or inefficacious. Hence, arguing that burnout is a generic, context-free phenomenon goes necessarily hand in hand with a limited definition of burnout as the equivalent to exhaustion. This approach not only simplifies the

concept, but it effectively – as we noted above – puts new wine in old bottles. To conclude, although in practice the three-dimensional conceptualization of burnout is used by the overwhelming majority of researchers, not all of them mean the same thing when they refer to “burnout.”

Burnout is defined in MBI as a matter of degree on its three subscales. This quality is compatible with regression-based statistical methods, and current statistical developments, such as structural equation modeling, manage the three inter-related continuous subscales. Professional practice has less patience with complex continuous measures, though. Practitioners of individual psychological, psychiatric, or medical treatment want to differentiate among people who are “burned out” and those who are not. Medical practitioners favor dichotomous diagnoses, especially when informing decisions on treatment or disability insurance claims. In this way the definition of burnout is shaped by practical questions – Who is to be treated? Who is to receive financial compensation?

Both statistical and diagnostic criteria have been used to transform a continuous burnout inventory – such as the MBI – into a dichotomy that discriminates between burnout “cases” and “non-cases.” Statistically, cut-off points are determined, for instance, for “low”, “average”, and “high” scores, based on the lower, medium, and upper thirds of the score-distribution, as recommended in the test-manual of the MBI (Maslach et al., 1996). However, such cut-offs are based on frequency distributions and therefore do not refer to an external criterion. For example, a score at the 70<sup>th</sup> percentile on exhaustion is relatively high, but it may not be associated with subjective distress, health disorders, or poor performance.

An independent burnout strategy uses burnout diagnosis as an external criterion to set up cutoff points. For example, Schaufeli et al. (2001) used neurasthenia, as defined in the International Classification of Diseases (ICD-10, 1994) as the equivalent of severe burnout. According to the ICD-10, a neurasthenic diagnosis (code F43.8) requires: persistent and increased fatigue or weakness after minimal (mental) effort; at least two out of seven distress symptoms such as

irritability and inability to relax; the absence of other disorders such as mood disorder or anxiety disorder.

According to Schaufeli et al. (2001), in order to be diagnosed as “burnout,” the neurasthenic symptoms should additionally be work-related, and the individual should receive professional treatment. Based on this set of diagnostic criteria, clinically validated cut-off scores for each of the three MBI-scales were established. Additional research confirmed the validity of the MBI cut-off points and also established a decision rule for combining the scores of the three burnout dimensions: an individual is considered to be severely burned-out when he or she has a “highly negative” score on exhaustion in combination with a “highly negative” score on either of the two remaining MBI dimensions (Brenninkmeijer and Van Yperen, 2003; Roelofs et al., 2005). This decision rule allows the transformation of the MBI – a multi-dimensional continuous burnout inventory – into a dichotomy that can be used by practitioners in order to diagnose burnout.

Through this process of dichotomization, burnout gradually expands from a psychological phenomenon to encompass a medical diagnosis as well, at least in some European countries such as The Netherlands and Sweden. As a result, when practitioners with a psychological background use the term “burnout,” they usually refer to the whole spectrum of burnout complaints running from very mild to severe burnout, whereas practitioners with a medical background refer to severe burnout cases that meet these diagnostic criteria. Although medical diagnoses aspire to a clear categorization, the practice is accustomed to integrating multiple sources of information to differentiate among a plethora of potential health problems to produce a diagnosis. As such, rather than simplifying burnout into exhaustion, the diagnostic protocol for burnout integrates diverse information that may include the three MBI subscales to arrive at a dichotomous diagnostic standard.

In Sweden the ICD-10 burnout diagnosis was introduced in 1997, soon after which it became one of the five most common diagnoses and the one that showed the sharpest increase, particularly within the public sector (Friberg, 2006, p. 72).

“Burnout” was initially diagnosed according to the ICD-10 – which was translated into Swedish in 1997. The ICD-10 is the officially used diagnostic tool in Swedish health care, without a formal ICD-10 diagnosis the person is not eligible for financial compensation in case of sick-leave or disability. In the ICD-10 diagnostic system burnout (code Z73.0) is placed in the category “problems related to life management difficulty” and loosely described as “a state of vital exhaustion”, without further elaboration. This, of course, leaves much room for interpretation for medical professionals. For that reason, in 2005 the Swedish National Board of Health and Welfare has added the “exhaustion disorder” (utmattningssyndrom) to the national version of the ICD-10 (code F43.8). Its criteria are: physiological or mental symptoms of exhaustion for at least two weeks, an essential lack of psychological energy, and symptoms such as difficulties to concentrate, decreased ability to cope with stress, irritability or emotional instability, sleep disturbances, muscle pain, dizziness or palpitations. These symptoms have to occur every day during a two-week period and must cause significant suffering with impaired work capacity. Finally the symptoms must not be related to other psychiatric diagnosis, substance abuse, or medical diagnosis.

In a somewhat similar vein, in The Netherlands in the 1990s, practice guidelines for assessing and treating stress-related disorders in occupational and primary health care were issued by the Royal Dutch Medical Association in 2000 (Van der Klink and van Dijk, 2003). The diagnostic classifications of these guidelines distinguish between three levels of stress-related disorders: (1) distress (i.e. relatively mild symptoms that lead to only partly impaired occupational functioning); (2) nervous breakdown (i.e. serious distress symptoms and temporal loss of occupational role); and (3) burnout (i.e. work-related neurasthenia and long-term loss of the occupational role).

Clearly, “burnout” is defined as an end-stage. For both less severe conditions traditional Dutch terms are used (*spanningsklachten* and *overspannenheid*, respectively). Particularly the connotation of the latter term (literally “overstrain”) comes very close to the Anglo-Saxon “burnout”. The practice guidelines recommend the use of the clinically validated cut-off points of the MBI as a diagnostic tool for assessing stress-related disorders in occupational and primary health care.

So, the definition of “burnout” varies according to its user’s intentions and its context. Although the three-dimensional definition that is implied in the MBI has achieved almost universal acceptance in research, some apply the term to simple exhaustion. Furthermore, professionals with a psychological background tend to see burnout as a continuous phenomenon, whereas those with a medical background tend to see burnout dichotomously. To the former, burnout is a form of chronic distress that results from a highly stressful and frustrating work environment, whereas for the latter it is a medical condition. Although not necessarily at odds, both types of practitioners refer to slightly different things when referring to burnout.

It has been maintained that the popularity of burnout in North America lies in the very fact that “burnout” is a non-medical, socially accepted label that carries a minimum stigma in terms of a psychiatric diagnosis (Shirom, 1989). Paradoxically, the reverse seems to be true in Europe: burnout is very popular because it is an official medical diagnosis that opens the gates of the welfare state with its compensation claims and treatment programs.

## **2.9. Components of Burnout**

While comparisons have been drawn between the burnout dimension of emotional exhaustion and stress, Cordes and Dougherty (1993) argued that burnout’s two other dimensions, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment, distinguished burnout from stress. Cordes and Dougherty, whose work on burnout has been described as comprehensive (Maslach et al., 2001), called burnout’s three-component model “unique as a stress phenomenon” (Cordes & Dougherty, p. 625).

Identifying the traditional stress variable of emotional exhaustion as burnout's core, Cordes and Dougherty viewed depersonalization as a new construct to stress literature, noting further that while personal accomplishment had been part of stress literature, examining diminished levels of the variable was a new concept. Ultimately, researchers argued against using the word burnout as a general term (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993), believing that to do so minimized the importance of burnout's three subscales, each of which is now described.

**Emotional exhaustion:** Emotional exhaustion "is a clear signal of distress in emotionally demanding work" (Maslach et al., 1996, p. 20). Characteristics associated with emotional exhaustion include feeling tired and listless (Maslach & Leiter) as well as restless and nervous (Farber, 1991). Emotionally exhausted workers feel emotionally drained and frustrated (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 1996) and are, therefore, psychologically unable to provide for their clients. Teachers suffering from burnout's emotional exhaustion are unable to "give of themselves to students as they once could" (Maslach et al., 1996, p. 28). "I have nothing left to give" (Farber, 1991, p. 73) reflects the tone of the teacher suffering from burnout's emotional exhaustion.

**Depersonalization:** Depersonalization also referred to as cynicism (Maslach et al.), poses a serious problem within human service careers since it is marked by indifference toward both work and client. Workers suffering depersonalization feel callous and negative towards their clients and consequently treat them impersonally by distancing from them (Maslach et al., 2001). Characteristics associated with depersonalization include feeling cynical, cold, and distant (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Relinquishing ideals and donning cynical indifference serves as a self protecting mechanism (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Anger associated with depersonalization is directed "at those perceived as having caused the problem – for example, unruly students" (p.75). Teachers suffering from burnout's depersonalization and cynicism are found "tuning out students through psychological withdrawal" (p. 28). "I'd rather spend time doing paper work than interacting with students; most of the kids don't



try, why should I?”(Farber, 1991, p. 82) reflects the tone of the teacher suffering from burnout’s depersonalization.

**Inefficacy/Reduced personal accomplishment:** Reduced personal accomplishment is the burnout symptom concerning workers who evaluate themselves negatively (Maslach et al., 1996) especially regarding their work with clients (for teachers, students). Characteristics of individuals suffering from reduced personal accomplishment include a general unhappiness and dissatisfaction with themselves, their professional abilities, and their effectiveness (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 1996; Maslach et al., 2001). Other characteristics include loss of confidence and a lost sense of adequacy (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Teachers suffering from burnout have reduced personal accomplishment “no longer feel they are contributing to students’ development. Consequently they are vulnerable to experiencing profound disappointment. . . .both severe and enduring” (Maslach et al., 1996, p. 28). “Ill try but it’s a losing cause” (Farber, 1991, p. 82) reflects the tone of the teacher suffering from burnout’s reduced personal accomplishment. The review of burnout’s symptoms concludes with information concerning whether the three subscales develop parallel to each other or sequentially (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001). Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) believed burnout was not necessarily a process of one component leading to another. On the other hand, Lee and Ashford believed it was, to some degree, indeed, a sequential process. Shirom (1989) viewed burnout as a combination of physical fatigue, emotional exhaustion and cognitive weariness” (p. 589). Similarly, Koeske and Koeske (1989) proffered a different conceptualization of burnout whereby emotional exhaustion was “the essence” and depersonalization and personal accomplishment related variables but not part of the burnout construct. By contrast, others (Maslach et al., 2001; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993) argued that to use exhaustion as a lone criterion was to lose sight of burnout as a multidimensional phenomenon altogether.

## **2.10. Burnout in Student Teachers**

In recent years, educators have become increasingly interested in the problems of teachers' vocational burnout (Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998; Byrne, 1998). Burnout directly affects teachers' professional lives in their work, particularly through its effect on their emotional well being. Burnout is defined as a negative psychological experience that is the reactions to job-related stress (Deutsch, 1984; Ratlif, 1988). As a general term, burnout refers to a cluster of physical, emotional, and interactional symptoms including emotional exhaustion, a sense of lacking personal accomplishment, and depersonalization of clients (Maslach, 1982). Burnout in an individual is inferred to result from job strains, which may lead to maladaptive coping responses and poor work performance (Tang & Yeung, 1999). Other burnout symptoms may include high absenteeism, lack of commitment, abnormal desire for vacations, low satisfaction, self-esteem, and an inability to take work seriously (Leung et al. 2000; Adams, 1999).

Maslach and Jackson's (1981) burnout model has three factors; a) emotional exhaustion which describes feelings of being emotionally over-extended and exhausted, b) reduced personal accomplishment which is experienced as decreased feelings of competence and achievement and a tendency to evaluate oneself negatively with respect to work, c) depersonalization which is the development of negative and cynical feeling and attitudes about one's profession. Literature (Adams, 1999) offers a complex etiological model of burnout, and emphasizes the interaction of individual, organizational, and societal factors. Certain demographic variables, including age, marital status, and gender were also found to be related to burnout (Maslach, 1982; Poulin & Walter, 1993). In addition, lack of power, isolation from peers, lack of common purpose among staff members, and lack of collegial support are referring to teachers' burnout in the literature (Otwell & Mullis, 1997; Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). In other words, those factors make up teachers' burnout (Formanuk, 1995). Davis and Wilson (2000), in a review of teachers' burnout and satisfaction, described the importance of quality of work life programs as a means for reducing or eliminating teachers' burnout. Hart (1994) examined the positive and

negative experiences of teachers and found that psychological distress and morale contributed equally to teachers' overall quality of work life. Lewin's (1951) theory provides an important basis for studying teachers' job behaviors and attitudes. It assumes that a person's behavior is determined by the interaction between his or her personal characteristics and environmental factors which can influence teachers' satisfaction, thus leading to burnout.

Teacher burnout implies, as burnout in other professions, to a decline in well-being that is caused by chronic stress in the work situation and is generally considered as a multidimensional syndrome. The first, most central dimension is emotional exhaustion. One experiences a depletion of emotional resources and feels 'empty' or 'worn out'. The second aspect of burnout is depersonalization. This refers to a negative, cynical attitude toward one's students. The third aspect of burnout is reduced personal accomplishment. Individuals in a state of burnout evaluate their accomplishments at work negatively.

Emotional exhaustion is found relatively often among young teachers as well as depersonalization among men, the latter finding having been ascribed to differing traditional role patterns among men and women. In general, burnout is more prevalent among secondary school teachers than among elementary school teachers (Russell, Altmaier, & Van Velzen, 1987; Van Horn et al., 1997).

Problems related with teacher burnout include excess time pressure, poor relationships with colleagues, large classes, lack of resources, isolation, fear of violence, role ambiguity, poor opportunities for promotion, lack of support, lack of participation in decision-making, and behavioral problems of pupils (Abel & Sewell, 1999). Boyle, Borg, Falzon, and Baglioni (1995) identified four factors as sources of teacher stress: pupil misbehavior (e.g., noisy and impolite pupils), time and resource difficulties (e.g., time pressure and lack of facilities), recognition needs (e.g., limited opportunities for promotion), and poor relationships (e.g., with colleagues and pupils' parents). According to Dworkin (2001), organizational and structural stressors also induce teacher burnout, which he illustrates with Texas school reform

programs in the 1980s that almost doubled the percentage of burnt-out teachers in this state. During this school reform, standardized norms for teachers and students were created, and teachers' competence was questioned and tested, thereby diminishing the teachers' job control. A high level of control over one's fate or performance is essential for successful functioning. Especially when accompanied by high demands, low job control results in distress. In the same way, Friedman (1991) described how burnout is fostered by school cultures in which the school administration enforces clearly defined, narrow, measurable goals underlining academic achievement on the teachers. Less organized schools with 'softer' goals seem to give teachers more opportunity for experimenting with new learning methods, for discussing problems they encounter, and for having supportive contact with the school administration.

Aside from work-related factors, there are many individual and interpersonal factors influencing burnout proposal. An individual characteristic that may protect an individual against burnout is, for instance, communal orientation, which refers to a concern for other people (VanYperen et al., 1992). Nurses, who care for their patients out of concern for them, tend to experience less burnout. Personality traits that seem to predispose individuals to develop burnout are, for example, shyness, introversion, and aggrieveness. An example of an interpersonal factor influencing burnout is inequity in the relationship with the recipients of one's care. More specific, human service professionals who feel that they invest more in relationships with recipients than they receive in return, report more burnout symptoms.

With regard to the consequences of burnout, one may assume that burnout teachers perform less well as a teacher (Rudow, 1999; Abel & Sewell, 1999). The performance of high-achieving students improves considerably less when their teacher is burnt out. For instance, emotional exhaustion may lead to a reduction in tolerance, and teachers in a state of burnout may consequently be more inclined to lose their temper with difficult pupils. Furthermore, because of their negative mood state and their lack of commitment, their ability to motivate pupils may be affected. What is more, their emotional exhaustion may result in cognitive shortcomings,

which may eventuate in mistakes. In addition, teachers in states of burnout have higher sickness and absence rates (Rudow 1999; Burke & Greenglass, 1995) which not only poses a financial burden to society but may also be harmful for pupils and obviously for teachers themselves.

On the other hand, in recent years, studies on teacher burnout focuses on the underlying social roots, individual and school. Based on the studies we can say that single teachers working on the second stage of primary school or high school, under the age of 40, idealist in business and affected by the events very quickly are prone to burnout.

The remarkable sources of stress that teachers experienced are paperwork, crowded classrooms, and negative student behaviors. The school type which causes teacher burnout are large urban schools with crowded classrooms, over-bureaucratic schools and the schools that haven't got support between teachers and teacher-administrator.

In teacher burnout many structural and organizational factors are effective. The first of them is reduction in public confidence to the education. The other is the abyss between expectations of pre-service teachers and their classroom experiences. Burnout is a case that happens due to a person's not taking realistic goals to him/her. School teachers may expose to burnout as a result of conflict between their expectations from school and students to the reality.

In addition, teachers need to feel good about their capabilities and themselves that they are successful, only this way they adumbrate the same to their students. If teachers feel that they are unsuccessful and unsatisfied, their relationships with students and even the whole school can be damaged.

Burnout gives much harm to teachers maintaining their studies. When teachers begin to feel burnout, they develop a cynical attitude to his friends and students. Physical and mental diseases begin to increase and sometimes they begin to

use alcohol and drugs. Burnout also affects a person's privacy negatively and even leads to health problems such as insomnia, alcohol, smoking or substance abuse.

Teacher burnout affected by many factors related to schools organizational cultures including their relationships with students and families. One of the interpersonal factors that affect burnout is disparity in his relations. When teacher think that they are ineffectual to their students, school and friends, they will suffer from emotional, psychological and vocational problems. As in other professions in the burnout of teachers generating variables are considered in two groups; personal and organizational. Organizational factors are; pressure from the organization, lack of administrative support, lack of student interest, laziness or negative behavior, negative attitudes of some colleagues, lack of school-family cooperation, lack of job opportunities for the progress of work. Personal factors are; demographic features as well as the individual's personality characteristics (level of anxiety, locus of control, durability, requirement, capacity, and so on.) physical health, skills and experience, emotional status, social support, positive and realistic attitudes.

Teaching means a close relationship with students. The quality of relationship between teacher and student may be the most rewarding element of teaching profession, but at the same time may be a source of emotional exhaustion. According to the statements of teachers one of the main reasons of teacher burnout is bad behaviors of students. The other following factors are noise, crowded classes, discipline problems; lack of motivation and of course apathy.

Pines (1993) emphasized the reasons for teacher burnout as disciplinary problems, low motivation of disinterested students, school administration, bureaucracy, families and poor sources.

Weiskopf, by scanning literature, collected the resources of teacher burnout in six categories. These are; workload, inadequacies in the perception of success, the amount of direct contact with students, teacher-student ratios, program structures and responsibilities to other individuals. (Akt.Başaran, 1999).

In addition to these, it is stated that incipient teachers are more exposed to burnout as it is because experienced teachers stated that they have learned the ways of coping with problems. (Dworkin, 2001).

### **2.11. The Positive Future of Burnout**

Originally, burnout was defined as a negative state of mind, albeit that one of its three constituting elements – reduced professional efficacy – was measured with positively worded items that were reversed to constitute a negative scale. A broader, more positive perspective emerged in the mid-1990s when Maslach and Leiter (1997) rephrased burnout as an erosion of a positive state of mind, which they labeled engagement. According to Maslach and Leiter (1997, p. 24) the burnout process starts with the wearing out of engagement, when “. . . energy turns into exhaustion, involvement turns into cynicism, and efficacy turns into ineffectiveness”. Accordingly, engagement is characterized by energy, involvement and efficacy – the direct opposites of the three burnout dimensions. By implication, engagement is assessed by the opposite pattern of scores on the three MBI scales: unfavorable scores are indicative for burnout, whereas favorable scores are indicative for engagement. By rephrasing burnout as an erosion of engagement with the job the entire range of employee well-being is covered by the MBI running from the positive pole (engagement) to the negative pole (burnout).

Schaufeli and his colleagues took a different approach to the concept of engagement (Schaufeli and Salanova, 2007). They defined and operationalized engagement in its own right. Although they agreed with positioning engagement as the positive antithesis of burnout, they did not accept the operationalization of assessing the state by the opposite profile of MBI scores. Instead, they developed the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) to measure vigor, dedication, and absorption as the three dimensions that constitute engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Meanwhile, research showed that the UWES and the MBI are negatively related and that exhausting and vigor, as well as cynicism and dedication each

constitute a continuum that was dubbed energy and identification, respectively (González-Romá et al., 2006).

This fluxional focus in burnout research from an exclusively negative approach to the erosion of a positive psychological state coincides with the emergence of Positive Psychology. Quite symbolically at the brink of the new millennium, in January 2000, a special issue of the *American Psychologist* sparked interest in Positive Psychology. In that issue, its most prominent advocates, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000, p. 5), stated that the purpose of Positive Psychology “. . . is to begin to catalyze a change in the focus of psychology from pre-occupation only with repairing the worst things in life to also building positive qualities”. After less than a decade, positive psychology is thriving, including the field of positive occupational behavior, which is defined as “. . . the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s workplace” (Luthans, 2003; p. 179). Although the notion of engagement was formulated a couple of years before the “official” commencement of the positive psychology movement in 2000 and the first empirical studies were carried out before that date, this movement certainly reinforces the interest in work engagement. Then clearly, the concept of work engagement fits neatly into this emerging positive trend and illustrates that the deficit-based study of burnout is complemented with a positive approach that focuses on work engagement. The growing scientific interest for work engagement is exemplified by special issues of leading journals such as the *Journal of Organizational Behavior* (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008) and *Work & Stress* (Bakker et al., 2008). Moreover, widespread interest in the business community encourages the scientific community’s shift towards a positive perspective that rephrases burnout as the erosion of engagement. Today’s organizations face rapid and continuous changes. Instead of traditional organizational structures (i.e. control mechanism, chain of command) and a strong emphasis on economic principles (i.e. cost reduction, efficiency, cash flow), the focus in modern organization is on the management of human capital. Currently, organizations expect their employees to be proactive and show initiative, collaborate smoothly with others, take responsibility



for their own Professional development, and commit to high quality performance. This increased psychologization is illustrated by Ulrich (1997, p. 125), who writes in his seminal book *Human Resources Champions*, “Employee contribution becomes a critical business issue because in trying to produce more output with less employee input, companies have no choice but to try to engage not only the body but the mind and soul of every employee”. Evidently, this objective is not achieved with a work force that is “healthy” in the traditional sense, meaning that employees are symptom-free and do not suffer from physical illness or burnout. In order to thrive, organizations need engaged employees who are motivated, proactive, responsible, and involved. Instead of just “doing one’s job,” employees are expected “to go the extra mile”. So for today’s organizations burnout prevention is replaced by the promotion of work engagement. Preventing burnout is not enough, it is necessary to go further to foster work engagement. The practical implications were evident in a recent meta-analysis that convincingly showed the economic benefits of business-units with high average levels of engagement compared to those with lower levels of engagement (Harter et al., 2002).

In epitome, it can be concluded that developments in science (the recent emergence of positive psychology) and organizations (increased attention for positive organizational behavior of employees) strengthen the positive turn in burnout research that is the rephrasing of burnout as an erosion of engagement. Seen from this perspective, the future of burnout lies in the realization that it constitutes the negative pole of a continuum of employee well-being, of which work engagement constitutes the opposite positive pole. The scientific challenge for the future will be to uncover in how far different psychological processes are responsible for producing burnout and work engagement. A recent example is the Job Demands Resources model that posits that burnout plays a key role in a health impairment process that is mainly driven by high job demands, whereas engagement plays a key-role in a motivational process that is driven by job resources (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). As for the practice of burnout, it remains to be seen if corporations and public sector organizations are willing to provide the necessary resources to maintain

extraordinary efforts from their employees, or whether efforts to inspire extraordinary efforts become a new source of burnout.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH**

This chapter presents the nature of the research, the selection of the participants, the instruments, the data collection procedures as well as the methods used for data analysis.

#### **3.1. Introduction**

Aiming to find out the burnout levels of English teachers according to age, gender, marital status, duty duration, deeming the job appropriate for oneself, selection of occupation with will and receiving support of colleagues, our study was descriptive in design. Thus, it involves collecting data regarding the present status of the subjects of the study rather than trying to explain the relationships or making implications (Ekmekçi, 1997).

#### **3.2. Participants**

The participants of the study were 50 English teachers serving in schools affiliated to the Ministry of National Education in district of Konya during the 2009-2010 education and training term.

#### **3.3. Instrumentation**

The data were collected through Personal Information Form and Maslach Burnout Inventory.

### **3.3.1. Personal Information Form**

Personal Information Form consisted of 19 items and prepared by the researcher. In the Personal Information Form, there is some information about teachers' age, gender, marital status, and duty duration, deeming the job appropriate for oneself, selection of occupation with will and receiving support of colleagues.

### **3.3.2. Maslach Burnout Inventory**

Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) translated and adapted by Engin (1992) for measuring burnout. It consists of 22 items forming three subscales: Emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization.

The emotional exhaustion subscale (EE) consists of eight items which describe feelings of being emotionally over extended and exhausted by one's works. The items 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 13, 16 and 20 are in the emotional exhaustion subscale.

The six items on the depersonalization subscale (D) describe unfeeling and impersonal responses to co-workers or recipients of services. The items 5, 10, 11, 15, 21, and 22 are in the depersonalization subscale.

The personal accomplishment subscale (PA) consists of eight items, describing feelings of competence and success about one's achievements. The items 4, 7, 9, 12, 14, 17, 18, and 19 are in the personal accomplishment subscale.

The items are scored on a five-point scale ranging from "never" (1) to "always" (5). High scores on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and low scores on personal accomplishment are indicative of burnout.

### **3.4. Data Collection**

The data were collected using two different questionnaires. The first one was sociodemographic and the second was Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). The research was done in schools affiliated to the Ministry of National Education in district of Konya. “Personal Information Form” and “Maslach Burnout Inventory” were handed out the English teachers. Before administration of the questionnaires, the participants were informed about the aim and the scope of the study in order to get sincere answers. The data were collected from September to December 2009.

### **3.5. Data Analysis**

The data were analyzed by using SPSS 15.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). The descriptive data analysis was conducted by calculating frequencies, arithmetical averages and standard deviations for determining burnout levels and background of the respondents.

## CHAPTER 4

### DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

#### 4.1. Introduction

The findings of the study were examined in two sections. In the first section, the demographic characteristics of the participants were presented and the second section, the scores of burnout levels were presented according to demographic characteristics of the participants.

#### 4.2. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Demographic characteristics of the sample are shown in Table 1. The table shows the distribution of participants by gender, age, marital status and duty duration.

**Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Variables**

Subscales		N	%
Gender	Female	30	60
	Male	20	40
Age	21–30	5	10
	31–40	35	70
	41–50	8	16
	51 or above	2	4
Marital Status	Married	44	88
	Single	6	12
Years in Occupation	0–5 years	3	6
	6–10 years	7	14
	11–15 years	23	46
	16–20 years	10	20
	20 or above	7	10

As seen Table 1, 60% of the participants were female and 40% of the participants were male. Concerning age of the participants, 10% of the participants were between 21-30 years, 70% of the participants were between 30-40 years, 16% of the participants were between 41-50 years. Only 4% of the participants were 51 or above years of age. 88% of the participants were married and 12% of the participants were single. Concerning years in occupation of the participants, 6% of the participants had been in education between 1-5 years, 14% of the participants had been in education between 6-10 years, and 46% of the participants had been in education between 11-15 years, 20% of the participants had been in education between 16-20 years and 4% of the participants had been in education for more than 20 years.

### 4.3. Burnout Scores of English Teachers According to Some Variables

#### 4.3.1. Burnout Scores of English Teachers According to Gender

The arithmetical averages and standard deviations of English teachers who participated in the study of burnout according to gender are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2: Arithmetical Averages and Standard Deviations of Burnout Scores According to Gender**

Subscales	Gender	N	X	S
Emotional Exhaustion	Female	30	19,17	6,03
	Male	20	9,02	0,07
Depersonalization	Female	30	10,24	3,42
	Male	20	0,02	0,22
Personel Accomplishment	Female	30	18,68	4,00
	Male	20	6,76	0,75

As seen in Table 2, the scores of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization of female and male teachers are approximately same but the score of personal accomplishment of female teachers is higher than male teachers.

#### 4.3.2. Burnout Scores of English Teachers According to Age

The arithmetical averages and standard deviations of English teachers participated in the study of burnout according to age are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3: Arithmetical Averages and Standard Deviations of Burnout Scores According to Age**

<b>Subscales</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>S</b>
<b>Emotional Exhaustion</b>	21–30	5	18,30	7,08
	31–40	35	19,52	7,06
	41–50	8	16,31	4,80
	51 or above	2	10,63	3,13
<b>Depersonalization</b>	21–30	5	15,57	2,90
	31–40	35	18,73	2,44
	41–50	8	17,16	3,91
	50 or above	2	8,73	2,92
<b>Personel Accomplishment</b>	21–30	5	13,41	3,18
	31–40	35	15,02	3,01
	41–50	8	12,35	1,04
	50 or above	2	5,07	2,17

The results of the analysis show that there are no significant difference between emotional exhaustion and depersonalization of English teachers according



to their age but there is a significant difference in personal accomplishment of English teachers according to their age. In other words teachers between 20-29 ages are more burnout than the teachers between 40 or above ages.

#### 4.3.3. Burnout Scores of English Teachers According to Marital Status

The arithmetical averages and standards deviations of English teachers participated in the study of burnout according to marital status are presented in Table 4.

**Table 4: Arithmetical Averages and Standard Deviations of Burnout Scores According to Marital Status**

<b>Subscales</b>	<b>Marital Status</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>S</b>
<b>Emotional Exhaustion</b>	<b>Married</b>	44	16,74	6,22
	<b>Single</b>	6	19,05	7,44
<b>Depersonalization</b>	<b>Married</b>	44	9,38	2,69
	<b>Single</b>	6	10,05	3,45
<b>Personel Accomplishment</b>	<b>Married</b>	44	15,68	3,30
	<b>Single</b>	6	18,50	3,61

When we analyze the burnout scores of English teachers according to their marital status, significant difference were no found. As seen Table 4, subscales of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment, single teachers get higher scores.

#### 4.3.4. Burnout Scores of English Teachers According to Years in Occupation

The arithmetical averages and standard deviations of English teachers participated in the study of burnout according to years in occupation are presented in Table 5.

**Table 5: Arithmetical Averages and Standard Deviations of Burnout Scores According to Years in Occupation**

Subscales	Years in Occupation	N	X	S
<b>Emotional Exhaustion</b>	<b>0–5 years</b>	3	20,15	6,97
	<b>6–10 years</b>	7	17,68	6,18
	<b>11–15 years</b>	23	17,00	6,33
	<b>16–20 years</b>	10	10,80	3,38
	<b>20 or above</b>	7	9,18	2,56
<b>Depersonalization</b>	<b>0–5 years</b>	3	8,96	2,57
	<b>6–10 years</b>	7	18,95	3,54
	<b>11–15 years</b>	23	17,31	3,04
	<b>16–20 years</b>	10	16,03	3,23
	<b>20 or above</b>	7	11,07	3,22
<b>Personal Accomplishment</b>	<b>0–5 years</b>	3	17,06	6,01
	<b>6–10 years</b>	7	15,01	5,18
	<b>11–15 years</b>	23	8,03	2,01
	<b>16–20 years</b>	10	18,05	3,24
	<b>20 or above</b>	7	11,17	4,35

The results of the analysis show that there are no significant differences at the subscales of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment according to years in occupation. When the personal accomplishment scores examined we can see a significant difference between personal accomplishment and

duty duration. It is find out that at the subscale of personal accomplishment teachers who are 0-5 years in occupation are more burnout.

#### **4.3.5. Burnout Scores of English Teachers According to Selection of Occupation with Will**

The arithmetical averages and standard deviations of English teachers participated in the study of burnout according to selection of occupation with will are presented in Table 6.

**Table 6: Arithmetical Averages and Standard Deviations of Burnout Scores According to Selection of Occupation with Will**

<b>Subscales</b>	<b>Will</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>S</b>
<b>Emotional Exhaustion</b>	<b>Yes</b>	40	16,70	5,27
	<b>No</b>	10	23,72	8,25
<b>Depersonalization</b>	<b>Yes</b>	40	9,18	2,65
	<b>No</b>	10	11,15	3,46
<b>Personel Accomplishment</b>	<b>Yes</b>	40	16,81	3,26
	<b>No</b>	10	18,61	4,01

When we analyze the Table 6, at the subscale of emotional exhaustion, the burnout scores of English teachers who select his or her job unwillingly are very high. In the same way, at the subscale of depersonalization the burnout scores of English teachers who select his or hers job unwillingly are very high. So, the scores at the subscale of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization show that teachers who select his or her job unwillingly were more burnout. There is no significant difference found at the subscale of personal accomplishment.

#### 4.3.6. Burnout Scores of English Teachers According to Deeming the Job Appropriate for Oneself

The arithmetical averages and standard deviations of English teachers participated in the study of burnout according to deeming the job appropriate for oneself is presented in Table 7.

**Table 7: Arithmetical Averages and Standard Deviations of Burnout Scores According to Deeming the Job Appropriate for Oneself**

Subscales	Appropriateness	N	X	S
<b>Emotional Exhaustion</b>	<b>Yes</b>	39	15,88	4,44
	<b>No</b>	11	25,86	6,94
<b>Depersonalization</b>	<b>Yes</b>	39	8,84	2,37
	<b>No</b>	11	12,06	3,28
<b>Personel Accomplishment</b>	<b>Yes</b>	39	16,45	3,06
	<b>No</b>	11	19,66	3,69

As seen Table7, the scores of teachers who think the job is not appropriate for me are very high at the subscale of emotional exhaustion. In the same way the scores of teachers who think the job is not appropriate for me are very high at the subscale of depersonalization. It is the same in the subscale of personal accomplishment. It is clear from the Table 7 that teachers who think the job is not appropriate for them are more burnout than the teachers who think the job is appropriate for them.

#### 4.3.7. Burnout Scores of English Teachers According to Receiving Support of Colleagues

The arithmetical averages and standard deviations of English teachers participated in the study of burnout according to receiving support of colleagues are given in Table 8.

**Table 8: Arithmetical Averages and Standard Deviations of Burnout Scores According to Receiving Support of Colleagues**

Subscales	Support	N	X	S
Emotional Exhaustion	Yes	41	17,71	5,90
	No	9	19,83	9,07
Depersonalization	Yes	41	9,35	2,65
	No	9	10,50	3,87
Personel Accomplishment	Yes	41	17,05	3,32
	No	9	17,66	4,16

When we analyze the Table 8 no significant difference were found at the subscales of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment.

## CHAPTER 5

### CONCLUSION

This chapter presents the conclusions drawn from the study, and suggests implications for further research and practice.

The study aimed to identify the burnout levels of English teachers according to some variables such as gender, age, marital status, years in occupation, selection of occupation with will, deeming the job appropriate for oneself and receiving support of colleagues. Discussion was made in pursuant of the section data analysis and findings.

#### 5.1. Conclusion

In this study, we reached the following conclusions.

When we look at the burnout levels of English teachers according to their gender, no significant difference were found at the subscales of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment.

According to age variable, in terms of personal accomplishment it is find out that, 20-29 age groups had experienced more burnout than 40 or above age group.

According to marital status variable, no significant difference was found at the subscales of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment.

According to years in occupation, no significant difference was found at the subscales of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. At the subscales of personal accomplishment, there was a significant difference between teachers who have 0-5 years in occupation and teachers who have 11 or above years in occupation.

Teachers who have 0-5 years in occupation are more burnout than the teachers who have 11 or above years in occupation.

There was a significant difference between teachers who deem the job appropriate for oneself and the teachers who did not deem the job appropriate for oneself at the subscales of burnout. Teachers who did not deem job appropriate for oneself were more burnout at the subscales of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment.

According to receiving support of colleagues' variable, no significant difference was found at the subscales of burnout.

## **5.2. Suggestions**

### **5.2.1. Suggestions for Practical Use**

In order to prevent teacher burnout, the suggestions for practice written below, should be taken into consideration:

Introducing burnout syndrome to school administrators and teachers, taking precautions in order to reduce the negative feelings of unsuccessful teachers, organizing in-service training or seminars which would allow teachers to refresh themselves according to new prospects, can reduce teacher burnout.

More positive administrative support should be given to teachers.

On the high school level less academic advising responsibility should be given.

School administration should be more eager to listen to their teachers and address their concerns in a thoughtful manner.

More teacher and student appreciation is necessary.

Lower student-teacher ratio can reduce teacher burnout.

Teachers should be honored as professionals and their opinions should be valued.

Asking teacher what works with students instead of textbook companies and administration may be useful.

Making teachers a part of the selection process for the programs they teach can prevent burnout.

When a curriculum requires certain activities, all resources should be available to complete these required activities.

Consistent discipline can help both teacher and administration.

Teacher input into curricular decisions should be encouraged.

Students and parents should join teachers in being held accountable for student achievement.

Better pay and insurance should be ensured for teachers.

Parental support should be encouraged.

Unnecessary and unbeneficial teacher in-service should be eliminated.



Giving more time to work and less time in meetings for teachers and making school more enjoyable on the middle and high school levels for students can be useful.

Fostering more school spirit on the middle and high school level can be effective.

Opportunities for collegial support and interaction should be increased.

Create situations, events and activities that will force families into the process of educating their children.

More relevant professional development opportunities especially motivational speakers throughout the year should be provided.

### **5.2.2. Suggestions for Further Research**

How the burnout of teachers affects the students, parents and administrators may be examined.

How the burnout of teachers affects their private and social life may be examined.

The attitudes, self-esteems, expectations, locus of control and personal characteristics in relation with burnout of teachers working in private education schools for disabled children may be examined.

The burnout of teachers educating gifted children and families having gifted children may be examined.

The burnout of teachers working in private schools may be examined.

The burnout of employees working in rehabilitation centers may be examined.

The burnout of school administrators may be examined.

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## APPENDIX 1

### KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU

Değerli Öğretmenler;

Bu form sizinle ilgili bazı bilgilere ulaşmak için hazırlanmıştır. Elde edilecek veriler Yüksek Lisans tez çalışmasında kullanılacaktır. İçtenlikle vereceğiniz cevaplar araştırmanın geçerliliği açısından önem taşımaktadır. Sizlerden yapmanız istenen formu dikkatlice okumanız ve en uygun seçeneğin içine X işareti koymanızdır.

Katkılarınız için teşekkür ederim.

Saygılarımla,

Ülkünur Kurtoglu

Kafkas Üniversitesi, Fen-Edebiyat Fakültesi

Batı Dilleri ve Edebiyatı Anabilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

1. Cinsiyetiniz?

Bayan ( ) Erkek ( )

2. Yaşınız? 21–30( ) 31–40( ) 41–50( ) 51 ve üstü( )

3. Medeni durumunuz?

Evli ( ) Bekâr ( )

4. Çocuğunuz var mı? Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

5. Çocuğunuz varsa kaç tane?

1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ve üstü ( )

6. Sizce aylık geliriniz yeterli mi? Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

7. Kaç yıldır öğretmenlik yapıyorsunuz?

0–5 yıl( ) 6–10 yıl( ) 11–15 yıl( ) 16–20 yıl( ) 20yıl ve üstü ( )

8. Ders yükünüz sizce ağır mı? Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

9. Neden öğretmenlik yapıyorsunuz?

Ekonomik sebeplerden ( ) Mesleği seviyor olmamdan ( )

Toplumsal nedenler ( ) Başka bir iş bulamadığımdan ( )

Diğer (.....)

10. Öğretmenlik mesleğini isteyerek mi seçtiniz? Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

11. Sahip olduğunuz bilgi ve becerilerin yaptığımız işle uyum içinde olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?

Mesleki bilgi ve becerilerim yaptığım işle uyum içindedir. ( )

Yaptığım işin görev ve tanımı bilgi ve becerimi aşiyor, yeterli olamıyorum.( )

Bilgi ve becerilerim işimin ihtiyaç duyduğundan daha fazla fakat kullanamıyorum.( )

Diğer ise lütfen nedenini yazınız. (.....)

12. Bir fırsat olursa hemen emekli olur musunuz? Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

13. Meslektaşlarım iş konusunda bana destek olurlar. Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

14. Şu andaki çalışma ortamınızdan memnun musunuz? Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

15. Mesleki geleceğinizi düşününce kendinizi nasıl hissedersiniz?

İyimser ( ) Kötümser ( )

16. Hafta sonu tatilini iple çeker misiniz? Evet ( ) Hayır( )

17. Mevcut eğitim sisteminden memnun musunuz? Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

18. Eğitim sisteminden memnun değilseniz sizce bunun en önemli nedeni nedir?

Sistem Karmaşası( ) Fiziksel Yetersizlikler( )

Öğretmen maaşlarının yetersizliği( )

Yöneticilerin Durumu( ) Ağır Çalışma koşulları, Öğretmen yetersizliği( )

Diğer ise lütfen nedenini yazınız.(.....)

19. Gelecekle ilgili ne düşünüyorsunuz?

Mesleğime devam edeceğim. ( ) Başka bir mesleğe geçmek istiyorum. ( )

Ayrılmak istiyorum. ( ) Ek iş düşünüyorum. ( )

Diğer (..... )

## APPENDIX 2

### TÜKENMİŞLİK ÖLÇEĞİ

Değerli Öğretmenler:

Aşağıdaki form öğretmenlerin çalışma durumuyla ilgili olabilecek bazı soru ve cevapları içermektedir. Vereceğiniz cevaplar araştırmanın doğruluğu açısından son derece önem taşımaktadır. Lütfen bu maddeleri okuyarak, size en uygun cevaba X işareti koyunuz.

	Hiçbir Zaman	Çok Nadir	Bazen Çoğu Zaman	Her Zaman
1. İşimden soğuduğumu hissediyorum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
2. İşgününün sonunda kendimi ruhen tükenmiş hissediyorum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
3. Sabahları bir gün daha bu işi kaldıramayacağımı hissediyorum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
4. Öğrencilerin neler hissettiklerini hemen anlarım.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
5. Öğrencilere sanki basit nesnelermiş gibi davrandığımı hissediyorum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
6. Bütün gün insanlarla uğraşmak benim için çok yıpratıcı.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
7. Öğrencilerimin sorunlarıyla çok etkin bir şekilde ilgilenirim.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
8. Yaptığım işten yıldığımı hissediyorum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
9. İşim sayesinde insanlara faydalı olduğumu hissediyorum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
10. Bu mesleğe başladığımdan beri insanlara karşı daha katı oldum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
11. Bu işin giderek beni katılaştırmasından korkuyorum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
12. Kendimi çok enerjik hissediyorum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
13. Mesleğimin beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığını hissediyorum .....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
14. İşimde çok sıkı çalıştığımı hissediyorum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
15. Bazen öğrencilere ne olduğu umurumda değil.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
16. Doğrudan insanlarla ilgili bir işte çalışmak beni yıpratıyor.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
17. Öğrencilerle aramda rahat bir hava oluştururum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
18. İnsanlarla yakın bir çalışmadan sonra kendimi neşeli hissederim.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
19. Bu meslekte kayda değer pek çok iş başardım.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
20. Kendimi çaresiz hissediyorum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
21. İşimdeki sorunlara soğukkanlılıkla yaklaşırım.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)
22. Bazı sorunlarından dolayı beni suçladıklarını hissediyorum.....	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4) (5)

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