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DETERMINANTS OF BURNOUT
IN
SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS

by
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through the Faculty of Education
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ABSTRACT

This study examined whether school climate, attitudes toward mainstreaming, locus of control, personality variables, and demographic variables were related to teacher burnout in special education teachers. Two studies were conducted. The initial study examined stress in special education and regular education teachers (n=115). The stress levels appeared to be similar in the two groups. The second study was a more focused attempt to obtain additional relevant information which may predict stress and burnout (n=40). The results indicated that role conflict, attitudes toward mainstreaming, personality variables, and demographics were in part predictive of teacher burnout. The findings also indicated that teachers with higher career aspirations in special education or specialist qualifications had more positive attitudes toward mainstreaming, but suffered from higher stress due to emotional exhaustion. The findings are consistent with results of previous studies dealing with commitment, job satisfaction and teachers' attitudes toward mainstreaming.

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Chapter I

Introduction

The primary focus of this study is an attempt to determine whether school climate variables (administrative support, role conflict, general stressors, student behaviours, and student set), attitudes toward mainstreaming, locus of control, personality variables, and demographic variables are predictive of teacher burnout in special education. Stress and burnout have been identified as significant problems in special education. "Burnout" is a particular reaction to stress, a coping mechanism involving emotional exhaustion, depersonalization of those whom one serves, and psychological disengagement from the job (Cherniss, 1980; Maslach & Jackson, 1984).

The identification of teacher stressors in this study may be used as a positive "tool" to provide a context for understanding the predictors of commitment and job satisfaction among special education teachers, as well as giving "direction" to administrative efforts to address issues of teacher burnout and attrition in special education. Although this study focuses on Canadian teachers, the research questions and their framework are largely driven by American literature. The logic is that Canada and the United States have two similar systems of special education.

Chapter II

Literature Review - School Climate

Within the school environment, school climate variables such as role conflict, lack of administrative support, and general stressors have been found to cause stress. Role conflict is defined as conflicting job demands and has been found to be a major source of worker stress (Cooper & Marshall, 1978; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Lack of administrative support may be defined as the absence of supportive principal behaviours such as feedback, encouragement, acknowledgement, use of participative decision making, and collaborative problem solving. General stressors may be defined as the organizational factors associated with teaching itself and with the school environment. These stressors may include lack of staff and equipment, excessive paperwork, insufficient salary, conflicts in the perception of the job, and ambiguity in role definition. Disruptive students, or children in behavioural adjustment programs can create stressful teaching conditions with regards to student behaviour. The attitude the student brings to the classroom may be defined as student set.

Research results indicate that work-related variables such as stress,

role conflict, and leadership support are strong predictors of commitment and job satisfaction (Billingsley & Cross, 1991). Negative teaching conditions such as inadequate administrative support, role conflict, and stress may be contributing variables in teacher burnout, thus creating staff shortages and teacher attrition in special education.

Weber (1994) reported on the similarities of placement decisions regarding mainstreaming in the United States and Canada. Weber stated that throughout the United States and Canada, the civil courts are making placement decisions about individuals with special needs that may have a profound effect on the students and teachers in the regular population. In Rochester, New Hampshire, the school board was ordered to accommodate a student with multiple disabilities. The board stated that it would have to realign its priorities for the rest of their expenditures to meet the costs. In Canada, human-rights commissions have become the forums of redress for advocates of educational mainstreaming. Mainstreaming practices are common in both U.S. and Canadian schools. Weber stated when decisions are made regarding mainstreaming children, integration may become a matter of right rather than a matter of educational appropriateness. According to Weber, integration in North American schools is at risk today

because it is being pressed upon public education.

Friedman (1991) conducted a study to identify school factors associated with teacher burnout. For that purpose, the organizational characteristics of those schools in which most teachers reported a high level of burnout and schools in which most teachers reported low-burnout levels were identified and compared.

The subjects in the Friedman (1991) study consisted of a random sample of 1,597 teachers in 78 elementary schools, 1,485 females, and 112 males. In addition, 70% of the teachers in the sample had only college-level teacher training, 28% had an academic degree, and 2% had only a high school education. The median years of experience in teaching was 11.5. The research was conducted in two stages. In the first stage the teachers were asked to fill out a modified version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory, and a background information sheet. A summary score on the burnout scale was calculated for each teacher in the sample; in addition a summary score was calculated for every school based on the total scores of all the teachers employed there. The summary score expresses the extent to which all teachers in the school, as a group, experienced burnout. The scores were standardized, and the schools were divided into two extreme groups. The

second stage of the study was carried out several weeks after the data processing of the first stage was completed. In this stage the intent was to find and describe the differences in climate and culture between the high-burnout and the low-burnout schools. For this purpose, 12 schools were chosen (6 schools from each extreme group) from the 18 extreme schools according to the following two main criteria:

1. Administrative stability: The principals and most of the administrative staff had not changed during the previous 5 years:

2. Social and geographic position: Schools were sampled from environments of comparable social (underprivileged areas, affluent areas) and geographic (established city, development town) characteristics. This element was intended to neutralize as much as possible the effect of variables external to the school itself.

Researchers were assigned to each school to interview the principal, the administrative staff, and five teachers selected at random. The researchers were not informed of the type of school to which they were assigned (i.e., a high-burnout or a low-burnout school) or the specific goal of the study, in order to prevent bias. Environmental variables were derived from interviews with incumbents at schools (administrators, teachers,

counsellors, and other staff members), from observations made at the school yard, and from minutes of staff meetings. Findings showed that both environmental variables, as well as teachers' background variables, were associated with high versus low levels of perceived burnout. For example, Friedman (1991) found that level of burnout rises with age and years of experience in teaching, until it reaches a peak at the age of 41-45 and then declines. In low-burnout schools, teachers' mean age was 33 years, whereas in high-burnout schools, teachers' mean age was higher, 35.5 years. Both groups of teachers were on the uphill segment of the burnout-age curve, on which an age of 35.5 years is associated with a higher level of burnout in comparison with an age of 33 years. Higher levels of education might usually lead to higher career aspirations, both with men or women. Thus, teachers with higher levels of education, holding a class-teaching position, may feel more frustrated by the stresses of teaching, as compared with teachers having fewer years of schooling. Also, teachers with a higher level of education may feel more stressed by the limited career options that the teaching profession offers on the school premises. Friedman points out that raising students' achievement levels and elevating school effectiveness have become pivotal issues in the educational arena of recent years. Education

researchers, as well as administrators, have emphasized the need to move away from “soft,” difficult to measure educational outcomes to “hard,” measurable school outputs. It is therefore significant and interesting to probe the influence that such a policy might have on teachers’ well-being at school. Results of this study show that such “hard-driving” school policy induces stress that is conducive to burnout.

Cherniss (1988) carried out a study in which a method for assessing the relationship between supervisory behaviour and staff burnout was developed and tested in two schools for mentally retarded children. The method uses the Supervisor Behaviour Observation Scale. The two schools involved in the study differed significantly in level of staff burnout, as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory, and in supervisory behaviour.

The principals and staff in two schools for severely retarded children served as subjects. The first school was chosen because it was independently identified by the head of the agency and by a principal at a third school not involved in the study as a setting in which staff burnout was surprisingly low, and the principal was given much of the credit for the low level burnout. Staff at the “low burnout” school were certified special education teachers, teachers’ aides, and 5 ancillary staff (social worker, physical and

occupational therapists, music teacher, and nurse). All were supervised by the principal, a 35-year-old woman who had been a special education teacher before becoming principal at this school 10 years earlier. The second school was operated by the same association for retarded citizens, was similar in size, and served a similar population. The school consisted of 11 teachers and 8 ancillary staff. The principal at this school was 28 years old, female, also a former teacher, and she had served as principal for 2 years. Staff scores on the Maslach Burnout Inventory revealed that burnout levels were significantly higher at this school than the "low burnout" school.

The findings indicated that the principal of the low burnout staff interacted less frequently with others and spent less time observing staff in their classrooms. Instead, she spent more time in her office planning and coordinating activities. The low burnout principal also talked more and listened less, and she spent more time discussing work-related problems but less time discussing administrative issues. She also gave staff more emotional support but spent less time in "small talk" with them. The principals of the low and moderate burnout schools presented two distinctly different behavioural profiles. However, in considering these results one should keep in mind that this was an exploratory study of only two

supervisors. Thus, the findings can only be suggestive. The study should be replicated in other settings with more subjects.

A study was conducted by Wiest and Kreil (1995) to investigate special education teachers who experience “job role dissonance” in the daily execution of their responsibilities. Such dissonance arises when their attempt to shift paradigms or simply restructure current practice is impeded by institutional obstacles. From an experimental perspective the authors examined these obstacles and how they have affected the reframing of the field of learning disabilities.

Diaries were kept for four weeks that summarized the specific vignettes of the work for that period of time, as well as the internal and external responses to those experiences. Four issues emerged as daily factors that had an impact on the efficacy of service delivery in a holistic manner to students in the school setting: Legal mandates, the systemic nature of schools and service issues that evolve with respect to children who may be considered disabled, the belief systems of parents and their advocates, as well as the educational community, and lack of time were considered pivotal barriers to working with children in an effective manner. Results suggest that dissonance is proffered as a normal component of a true restructuring

movement.

Kruger, Struzziero, Watts, and Vacca (1995) investigated the relationship between organizational support and satisfaction with a collaborative problem-solving structure referred to as the Teacher Assistance Team (TAT). Four types of organizational support (i.e., administrator support, perceived purpose of the TAT, social support among staff, and TAT training) and the satisfaction of both TAT members and the consumers of their services were measured. Data were collected from 161 TAT members and 127 consumers of TAT services from 27 elementary schools. Regression analyses indicated that organizational support factors had strong, positive relationships to TAT satisfaction. In particular, administrator support variables accounted for fifty percent of the variance in the consumers' satisfaction with TAT services.

Overall the implications to burnout and dissonance in special education from the theory and research examined suggest interesting correlations to the school climate (i.e., administrative support, stress, role conflict and role ambiguity). It would be logical to assume that the school climate (i.e., administrative support, stress, role conflict, and role ambiguity) would contribute to burnout among special education teachers.

Educational Training and Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming

Mainstreaming is the procedure whereby children with varying types and degree of handicap who formerly were enrolled in special education facilities (if indeed they were enrolled in any educational facility) where possible are enrolled in normal classrooms. Mainstreaming is practised as a matter of formal public education policy in most Western Countries. The emphasis is on enabling the regular classroom teacher to accept responsibility for both special needs and regular program students. This added responsibility coupled with the pursuit of additional educational requirements creates stress which could lead to burnout.

Pudlas (1993) suggested that present class sizes, increased cultural diversity, lack of solid foundation in the home, and other factors place heavy demands on regular class teachers. They cannot be expected to enable special needs students to reach their full academic and social potential unless they, the teachers receive the support and education necessary to attain a balance between their aspirations and their ability to achieve success.

Recommendations for successful integration of exceptional students were derived from a longitudinal study of 118 classroom teachers by Larivee (1986). The importance of providing in-service support to classroom

teachers was one of the major recommendations stemming from the results of the study. Further evidence of the importance of adequate support for teachers comes from research which shows there is a relationship between teachers' effectiveness and their tolerance for handicapped students (Gersten, Walker, & Darch, 1988). They suggest that if the necessary technical assistance could be provided on how to implement teaching models that are effective for all students, it is likely that these skilled teachers would be the first to accept handicapped students into their classrooms.

Bender, Vail, and Scott (1995) investigated the types of instructional strategies offered in mainstream classes. One hundred and twenty-seven mainstream teachers in Grades 1-8 were asked to complete a self-evaluation concerning instructional strategies used in their general education classes. Each teacher completed questionnaires concerning their attitudes toward their own efficacy and toward mainstreaming. Analyses of variance (ANOVA's) comparing teachers with positive attitudes toward mainstreaming and teachers with less positive attitudes indicated that the teachers with less positive attitudes used effective mainstream instructional strategies less frequently. The measure of mainstreaming attitudes used in the study was relatively independent of teachers' perceptions of their overall

efficacy. Mainstreaming attitudes did correlate positively with the number of courses taken on teaching children with disabilities: Teachers with more course work had more positive attitudes. It is logical to assume that the training and certification of special education teachers would correlate with burnout. That is, teachers with more training would show less burnout. The study did not indicate that attitude is a causal variable, or that structured preservice interventions to change teacher attitudes would result in improved instruction, but the results certainly indicated that experimental research along these lines is warranted.

Yasutake, Lerner, and Ward (1994) conducted a needs assessment survey to determine the needs and preparation of regular and special educators to work with students with Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD) in the Chicago metropolitan area. Forty teachers responded to the survey. The survey asked about their previous training in working with students with ADD and their perceived need to receive training. The sample consisted of 8 special education teachers, 27 regular education teachers, 4 support personnel (e.g., speech-language pathologists, psychologists), 1 parent, and 3 graduate students. Of the 40 respondents, 45% (18) currently had students with ADD in their classes, with 47.5% (19) not servicing such students. Of

the remaining 7.5 %, 3 were graduate students who were not yet teaching.

Descriptive statistical analyses indicated that 78% of the teacher respondents had received no instruction related to ADD in their teacher preparation programs; 50% of the sample received no training in ADD after they had begun teaching; 100% of the respondents felt they would benefit from information on the assessment and treatment of children with ADD; 98% of the respondents felt that ADD is a legitimate educational problem; 83% of the respondents believed that educating children with ADD is the responsibility of regular and special education teachers.

McIntosh, Vaughn, Schumm, Haager, and Lee (1993) examined 60 general education teachers' classrooms, K-12, that included students with learning disabilities. The study examined how general education teachers' behaviours toward mainstreamed students with learning disabilities compared with their behaviour toward students without disabilities, and the interactions between students, and between students and teacher. Teachers and students from a large southeastern U.S. school district were included in this study. Schools were selected if their student population represented the ethnic composition of the district as a whole: 46% Hispanic, 33% black, and 22% white. Sixty general education, social studies, and science teachers

(Grades 3-12) who had a mainstreamed student with learning disabilities in one or more of their classes participated in this study. There were 20 teachers from each of three grade groupings (elementary, middle, and high school). Observations using the Classroom Climate Scale indicated that students with learning disabilities were treated by their general education teachers much like other students. Students with disabilities appeared to be accepted by the teacher: treated by the teacher fairly and impartially; involved in the same seating arrangement as other students; and, particularly at the middle and high school level work on the same activities and use the same materials as other students in the class. The results also indicated that the instruction in mainstreamed classes is not differentiated to meet the needs of students with disabilities, and few adaptations were provided. Differences were also found in student behaviours. Overall, students with learning disabilities interacted with the teacher, other students, and classroom activities at much lower rates than did other students.

Hudson, Graham, and Warner (1979) surveyed the attitudes toward mainstreaming of 151 regular education teachers in two Midwestern states. Approximately two-thirds of the respondents considered special class placement for exceptional students superior to regular class placement.

Although 31% of the survey respondents were supportive of mainstreaming, there was agreement that such placement would negatively influence teaching effectiveness and that exceptional pupils were an educational detriment.

Myles and Simpson (1989) administered a questionnaire designed to solicit information on types of modifications facilitative of regular class teachers' acceptance of elementary-age exceptional children into their classrooms. The survey drew responses from 100 regular education teachers. Regular classroom teachers were asked about their willingness to accommodate mildly retarded students, behavioural disorders, and learning disabilities in their classrooms. This study was designed to determine which modifications would persuade regular education teachers to mainstream groups of labelled and unlabelled mildly handicapped children. Results indicated that regular educators' participation in the mainstreaming process and availability of specific classroom modifications was an important factor in their accepting handicapped students. The data suggested that regular classroom teachers would be willing to accommodate exceptional children in their classrooms. However, such willingness appeared to be dependent upon opportunity to participate in the mainstreaming decision-making process.

Thus, just as other professions have determined that employee input facilitates success and goal accomplishment, educational administrators must recognize that teachers need a voice in the decision-making process.

Harvey (1985) surveyed the attitudes toward mainstreaming of primary and post-secondary teachers, teachers in training, and non-teachers in Victoria, Australia. The survey took place soon after the release of the Report of the Ministerial Review of Educational Services for the Disabled which recommended that schools be organized on the basis that every child has the right to be educated in a regular classroom: under these provisions mainstreaming became mandatory. The study revealed that the most favourable attitudes toward mainstreaming were those of non-teachers, and that a positive relationship between teacher attitudes and previous experience of handicapped persons was accompanied by reluctance to accept handicapped children into their classes.

Berryman, Neal, and Robinson (1980) investigated differences in attitude toward mainstreaming measured by responses to the Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming Scale, (ATMS). Results indicated that the two variables of most significance in terms of their relationship with attitudes toward mainstreaming were status of the respondent and whether he/she

indicated previous experience with handicapped persons. In terms of approving of mainstreaming as a philosophy and enrolling severely handicapped children in regular classrooms, non-teachers indicate more favourable attitudes. With respect to enrolling behaviourally disturbed children: significant differences were seen between teachers in training and practising teachers, with the former holding the more positive attitudes.

In a follow up study Harvey, (1992) investigated differences in attitude toward the integration of children with disabilities as measured by responses on the Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming Scale between a 1984 sample of teachers, teachers-in-training and non-teachers in the state of Victoria, Australia with corresponding groups in 1990. In 1984, a new policy which emphasized the rights of all children to an education in regular schools and the consequent expectation that teachers had no choice about whether they would accept children with disabilities into their classes had been introduced. It was found that in 1990 the teacher groups expressed more positive responses than had their counterparts in 1984. The teacher groups in 1984 had been less positive than the non-teachers, but in 1990 this difference had disappeared. The results of the study indicate that after six years of experience with the policy on integration, some of the

apprehensions teachers had in 1984 had been overcome. The most significant of the changes seem to be the more positive reactions in 1990 to the enrolment of students with mild intellectual disabilities in regular classes. The reason for this change would seem to be what is now widely realized, that where limiting conditions exist, additional support is available and aides are employed to assist students in the classrooms or in the playgrounds.

According to Cherniss (1980) researchers and educators reported that a certain proportion of workers in the human service field have been susceptible to what has been termed the "burnout syndrome." Cherniss reported that burnout is characterized by anxiety, tension, and emotional and physical exhaustion in response to job-related stress, with eventual attitudinal and behavioural changes occurring as a result. In addition, teachers who were generally unenthusiastic about the teaching profession (i.e., having a negative job orientation such as mainstreaming special needs children) reported, in one study, that they were more distressed about their teaching situation than were teachers who were enthusiastic (Litt & Turk, 1985). The study does not indicate that attitude is a causal variable, or that structured preservice interventions to change teacher attitudes would result in improved instruction, but the results certainly indicate that experimental

research along these lines is warranted.

The research reviewed supports the notion that teachers with negative attitudes toward mainstreaming use less effective instructional techniques in the classroom, express reluctance to accept handicapped children into their classrooms, and are more distressed with their teaching situation. It could be hypothesized then, on the basis of the previous research, that attitudes toward mainstreaming would be a strong predictor of burnout.

Locus of Control

One area that researchers have demonstrated to be related to achievement is locus of control, or where an individual places responsibility for control over his/her life. Individuals with an internal locus of control believe that they themselves are responsible for what happens to them. They attribute success and failure to a combination of skill and effort (Krovetz, 1974). Such individuals can be characterized as being self-motivated, having a positive attitude, high self-esteem, and a willingness to take charge of their life (Kanar, 1991). Individuals with an external locus of control believe that other people control their lives. They require external motivators and tend to blame others when things go wrong (Kanar, 1991). They attribute success

and failure to luck or to the level of difficulty of the task (Krovetz, 1974).

Individuals classified as having an internal locus of control in a 1978 study by Bhagat and Chassie reported higher levels of performance, and satisfaction with their personal lives. Several researchers have shown that individuals with a more internal locus of control more easily adjust to the college environment (Martin & Dixon, 1989; Mooney, Sherman & Lo Presto, 1991).

Otten (1977) found that locus of control was even more accurate in predicting degree attainment. Individuals with an internal locus of control were more likely than those with an external locus of control to get their degree within five years.

The majority of research studies indicated the existence of a positive relationship between an internal locus of control and achievement. If this is indeed true, locus may have an affect on teachers' attitudes and performance in special education, and may influence burnout. Teachers with an external locus of control may attribute failure in the classroom to difficult or uncooperative students. These individuals may also have a difficult time adjusting to an environment where mainstreaming is taking place. Teachers with an internal locus of control on the other hand may work harder at

creating a positive environment for their students, thus providing a successful classroom atmosphere.

Personality and Vocational Preferences

Holland (1973) established a scheme to classify major fields and vocation according to personality types. Holland theorized that, when making vocational decisions, people attempt to find a match between the work environment and their personality. Individuals choose occupations that fit their personality. Holland's theory was based on the assumption that people can be characterized by their resemblance to six personality types (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional). The more closely a person resembles a particular type, the more likely that person is to exhibit the personal traits and behaviour associated with that type (Holland, 1973).

Six kinds of environments were categorized in a similar fashion. Each environment is dominated by a given type of personality and has a physical setting with particular problems and stresses. People with similar interests gather together, creating an environment that reflects their type. People actively search for an environment that matches their personality type. They want an environment that will allow them to exercise their skills and

abilities, express attitudes and take on agreeable problems (Holland, 1973).

A person's behaviour is determined by the interaction between his/her personality and the characteristics of his/her environment. If both of these elements are known, the person's choice of vocation, educational behaviour, and social behaviour can be accurately forecast (Holland, 1973).

Holland (1985a, b) developed the Vocational Preference Inventory as a mechanism to tie vocational preferences to personality type. Subjects indicate the vocations that are appealing to them and those that are not. A total of eleven scales are provided: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, Conventional, Self-Control, Masculinity-Femininity, Status, Infrequency, and Acquiescence.

The first six scales are interest scales and assess personality type. The higher a subject's score on a particular scale, the greater his/her resemblance to that type. The highest score represents the personality type while a personality pattern is obtained by ranking scale scores from highest to lowest (Holland, 1985b). Follow-up research supported his theory that there was a relationship between personality variables and occupational type as measured by academic major (DeVogue, 1975).

It may be assumed that teachers with certain personality variables will

tend to enter specific vocations in education (i.e. elementary, secondary, guidance, administrative, special education) and that an appropriate match between personality type and chosen vocation would lead to successful achievement in the workplace. A mismatch between personality type and a career in education could be problematic. A person who is mismatched may be more predisposed to burnout.

Demographic and Work-Related Variables

Attrition in special education is often assumed to be related to stressful teaching conditions. Stress among special educators has been attributed to a variety of problems, such as increased requirements (Bensky et al., 1980; Meadow, 1980), excessive paperwork (Bensky et al., 1980; Olson & Matuskey, 1982), inadequate materials and resources (Cook and Leffingwell, 1982), heavy student caseloads (Fimian & Santoro, 1983; Olson & Matuskey, 1982), the isolation of the special education teacher (Chandler, 1983; Fimian & Santoro, 1983), slow student progress (Meadow, 1980), student discipline, (Fimian, 1986; Fimian & Blanton, 1986; Lombardi & Donaldson, 1987), and problems with administrators (Fimian, 1983; Johnson, 1982; Lawrence & McKinnon, 1982). To illustrate this, Billingsley and Cross (1991) conducted a study to investigate why some

special education teachers choose to stay in teaching, but leave their special education assignments. This investigation focused on factors related to both teacher attrition and recruitment in special education. They developed a survey instrument using information collected from interviews with teachers qualified in special education, but teaching general education. Twenty interviewees were asked open-ended questions such as why they left special education teaching and what incentives would draw them back into special education. The questionnaire consisted of several sections. One section gathered demographic information from the respondents. Another section asked the respondents whether they could imagine any incentives that would influence them to teach again in special education. Those who responded affirmatively to this question were asked to rate (using a 4-point scale) how much influence each of 14 potential incentives would have on their decision to return. In another section, respondents were to rate (using a 4-point scale) each of 19 factors as to how great a deterrent each would be to their teaching again in special education. They were also asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with special education teaching. The questionnaire then asked respondents to review a list of 28 potential reasons why teachers leave special education and to check those that were important to their decision to

leave. The most frequently cited reason for leaving was “needed a change,” followed by “became burned out” from teaching in special education.” The most frequently cited reasons suggest that decisions to leave special education are influenced by factors related to (a) the lack of administrative support and (b) the stress of working with exceptional students. Central office administrators were identified as a reason for leaving more often (29.7%) than were building-level administrators (19.2%). Student stress factors include demands of working with the special education population, too much diversity in student needs, too much time with the same students, too many students on the caseload, and lack of student progress.

Respondents were asked to recall and to rate the level of satisfaction they experienced with regard to both the instructional and the noninstructional aspects of their special education assignments. The results indicated that the respondents were far more satisfied with the instructional aspects of their special education experience than with the noninstructional aspects. A majority (66.8%) of the respondents indicated being either “satisfied” or “very satisfied” with the instructional aspects, whereas nearly the same percentage (60.4%) indicated being either “somewhat dissatisfied” or “very dissatisfied” with the noninstructional aspects.

Respondents were also asked to review a list of possible deterrents to special education teaching and to rate the importance of each to them personally. A 4-point response scale was used, which ranged from 1 (no deterrent) through 4 (major deterrent). Items having the highest deterrent ratings were “too much paperwork” and “too many students on caseload.” The items having the lowest deterrent ratings were “inadequate training to teach special education” and “problems with parents.”

The respondents also were asked what, if any, incentives would influence them to accept an assignment in special education. Of the 286 respondents, 25% indicated that they could not imagine any incentive that would influence them to return to special education. The 75% of the respondents who could imagine returning to special education were asked to rate how much influence each of the 14 possible incentives would have on their decision to accept a teaching position in special education.

Results indicated that decisions to leave special education were influenced by factors related to (a) the lack of administrative support and (b) the stress of working with handicapped students. Central office administrators were identified as a reason for leaving more often (29.7%) than were building-level administrators (19.2%). Student stress factors

included demands of working with the special education population, too much diversity in student needs, too much time with the same students, too many students on caseload, and lack of student progress. The researchers also examined whether the reasons given for leaving were related to the demographic variables. The demographic variables considered were respondents' educational level, gender, age, the number of years they had taught special education, the number of years since they last taught special education, areas within special education they had taught, and type of classroom environments and grade levels they had taught. No discernible patterns emerged. Consequently there is no evidence in this study that demographic variables are systematically related to the reasons cited for leaving special education. The respondents were also asked what, if any, incentives would influence them to accept an assignment in special education. Of the 286 respondents, 25% indicated that they could not imagine any incentive that would influence them to return to special education. The 75% of respondents who could imagine returning to special education were asked to rate how much influence each of the 14 possible incentives would have on their decision to accept a teaching position in special education. The 14 incentives were grouped into three components.

The first component, labelled “administrative support,” is composed of items describing conditions often under administrative control. If these conditions were not provided, they may adversely affect a teacher’s effectiveness. The second component, labelled “professional treatment,” is composed of items describing conditions over which members of the teaching profession often have little or no control, such as salary and classroom assignment. The third component consists of only two items, both of which concern the availability of desired openings. The responses to the incentive items associated with each of the three components were expressed as scaled scores. These scaled scores were then correlated with the 27 demographic variables. Of the 81 resulting coefficients, only 12 were significant at the .05 probability level and none exceeded an absolute value of .20. Few coefficients reached significance and the anticipated relations were not supported by the findings. Thus, demographic variables were unrelated to the incentives considered (Billingsley & Cross, 1991).

In a similar study Billingsley and Cross (1992) attempted to identify variables that influence teachers’ commitment and job satisfaction among both general and special educators. A secondary purpose of the study was to determine the extent to which these commitment and satisfaction variables

influence teachers' intent to stay in teaching. A questionnaire using primarily extant measures was sent to a random sample of 558 special educators and 589 general educators in Virginia. Completed questionnaires were received from 83% of both samples.

Results suggest that work related variables, such as leadership support, role conflict, role ambiguity, and stress, were better predictors of commitment and job satisfaction than are demographic variables. Generally the findings were similar for general and special educators.

In another study, Billingsley (1993) reviewed research findings related to teacher retention and attrition in special education. Major findings from general education retention studies were also reviewed to provide a context for understanding special educators' career decisions. Research findings were organized around a conceptual model of teachers' career decisions that included three major factors: (a) external (e.g., societal, economic, and institutional), (b) employment (e.g., professional qualifications, work conditions and rewards, commitment and employability), and (c) personal (e.g., demographics, family, and cognitive/affective).

To conduct this review, computer searches of ERIC, Psychological Abstracts, and Dissertation Abstracts International were completed.

References contained in articles, reports, book chapters, and dissertations provided additional sources. Only empirical research findings related to teacher retention, attrition, transfer, or turnover since 1980 were included. Most of the available research involved survey methodology to provide information about the reasons special educators left teaching, or factors associated with retention/attrition.

The data drawn from the demographic studies demonstrated that women were more likely to leave teaching than men, and teacher attrition patterns vary over the life cycle, with higher levels of attrition among younger teachers and older teachers nearing retirement. Billingsley (1993) points out that although numerous work variables have been linked to special educators' decisions, there were few consistent relationships across studies. However, two specific variables consistently linked to special education attrition were lack of administrative support and role problems.

Numerous studies have been conducted using different variables to determine the causes of burnout among teachers. Factors have included teachers' attitudes toward students, perceived administrative support, career satisfaction, coping with job-related stress, and teachers' attitudes toward mainstreaming. Most of the research literature indicated that the factor of

teacher-administrator relations has been found to be a significant predictor of occupational stress, career satisfaction, job performance and burnout among teachers (Litt & Turk, 1985). Furthermore, data indicated that perceived role conflict and role ambiguity (organizational stress variables related to administrative support) were associated with teacher burnout (Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982). Few studies investigated stress in special education and general education teachers. Many of the studies neglected to use more than one test instrument to gather their data. Most of the studies neglected to conduct two separate studies in order to compare their findings or extend their research to obtain additional relevant information which may predict stress and burnout. Several of these limitations were addressed in the present study.

Research Question

This study is broken down into two separate components. The initial focus examined stress in special education and regular education teachers.

The secondary study was a more focused attempt to obtain additional relevant information that may predict stress and burnout. The research questions are as follows:

- 1) Do special educators show more stress than regular educators?'
- 2) Do special educators show a more positive attitude toward mainstreaming than regular educators?'
- 3) Which variables best predict educator burnout in special education teachers: (1) school climate, (2) attitudes toward mainstreaming, (3) locus of control, (4) personality variables, or (5) demographic variables?'

Predictions

1) It is predicted that special educators will show more stress than regular educators assuming it is more stressful to deal with learning disabled and behavioural adjustment students.

2) It is predicted that special educators will show a more positive attitude toward mainstreaming than general educators assuming that regular educators are most likely lacking in the knowledge and skills to successfully

implement mainstreaming.

3) It is predicted-as a working hypothesis-that school climate and attitudes toward mainstreaming will predict burnout in special education teachers.

Chapter III

Methodology

Subjects

The sample population consisted of 400 elementary classroom teachers randomly chosen from 11 schools in a local school district. Of the 400 teachers selected, 115 completed and returned the survey forms for a response rate of 29%. Table 1 sets out characteristics of the sample group with respect to sex, age, years of experience in regular education. Table 2 presents years of experience in special education, present position, whether the subject had taught special education in a self-contained environment, resource withdrawal environment, integrated class, or regular class, career aspirations in special education, and regular education, and educational background. The total population of classroom teachers in the local school district consisted of 251 males (32%), and 525 females (67%). The sex distribution of the sample group (40 males and 73 females) parallels the normal sex distribution of teachers employed at the local school district.

Table 1
Characteristics of sample group (Demographic Table)

	Frequency	Percent
Sex		
Male	40	34.5
Female	73	62.9
Age		
	Frequency	Percent
26-30	6	5.2
31-35	9	7.8
36-40	12	10.3
41-45	25	21.6
46+	63	54.3
Yrs Exp in Regular Ed.		
	Frequency	Percent
0-4 yrs	11	9.5
5-9 yrs	20	17.2
10-19 yrs	17	14.7
20+ yrs	66	56.9
Present Position		
	Frequency	Percent
Reg Teacher	78	67.2
Resource Teacher	13	11.2
Spec Ed Classroom Teacher	22	19.0
Educational Background		
	Frequency	Percent
BA	31	26.7
B Ed	56	48.3
Masters	27	23.3

Table 2
Characteristics of sample group. (Special Ed.)

Yrs Exp in Spec. Ed.

	Frequency	Percent
0-4 yrs	71	61.2
5-9 yrs	15	12.9
10-19 yrs	19	16.4
20+ yrs	6	5.2

Taught Spec. Ed. Self-Contained?

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	45	38.8
No	70	60.3

Taught Spec. Ed. Resource Withdrawal?

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	54	46.6
No	60	51.7

Taught Integrated Class?

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	95	81.9
No	20	17.2

Regular Class/No Integrated Students?

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	78	67.2
No	36	31.0

Career Aspirations in Spec. Ed.?

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	25	21.6
No	86	74.1

Specialist Qualifications

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	19	16.4
No	96	82.8

Special Ed. Part 1

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	29	25.0
No	86	74.1

Special Ed. Part 2

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	13	11.2
No	102	87.9

Instrumentation

The first three test instruments were referred to as preliminary instruments. These test instruments were sent out to teachers from the sample. The preliminary instrument was a questionnaire designed to gather demographic information about the subjects. This instrument was included to determine whether demographic variables were related to teacher stress and burnout in special education. Billingsley and Cross (1991) used a similar instrument to investigate the reasons for leaving special education teaching. The subjects identified their gender, teaching divisions (primary, junior, or intermediate), their present position title (classroom teacher, resource teacher), the number of students in their class and their educational background.

The Teachers' Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming Scale (Bender, Vail & Scott, 1995) was the second test instrument. This six question scale was used to assess teachers' specific attitudes toward mainstreaming on a five point Likert-type scale. Questions assessed mainstreaming attitudes in general, as well as mainstreaming practices in the teacher's particular school. Each question assesses a teachers' beliefs about the positive effects of mainstreaming. Each item on the scale ranges from 1 (strongly disagree)

to 5 (strongly agree). The items were totalled to generate a composite score indicating the teachers' beliefs regarding the benefits of mainstreaming for students with and without disabilities. To establish reliability of this questionnaire, 40 experienced teachers who were enrolled in graduate courses at a major university were assessed, in a test-retest reliability format, over a 2-week period (Bender, Vail & Scott, 1995). The total test-retest reliability correlation was in the acceptable range for research purposes, $r = .81$, $p < .0001$. The reliability correlations for each specific question were significant at the .001 level, r s = .95, .65, .78, .61, .63, and .55, respectively (Bender, Vail, & Scott, 1995).

The need to assess teacher burnout with an instrument that was simple to complete yet specifically addressed school climate variables (role conflict, administrative support, general stressors, student behaviours and student set) led to the selection of the Teacher Burnout Scale (TBS) as the third instrument. It was renamed the Job Stress Scale to avoid "burnout" terminology. It is a 23-item Likert-type scale which measures different aspects of the teacher burnout syndrome. It consists of four subscales that measure the main aspects of teacher burnout: 1) Career Satisfaction; 2) Perceived Administrative Support; 3) Coping with Job-Related Stress; and 4)

Attitudes towards Students. In addition, scores on the subscales of the Teacher Burnout Scale correlated low to moderately high with scores on the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Frequency dimension): Career Satisfaction correlated 0.39 ($p < 0.001$) with the MBI's Personal Accomplishment subscale; Coping with Job-Related Stress correlated 0.72 ($p < 0.001$) with the Emotional Exhaustion subscale of the MBI; and, Attitudes towards Students correlated 0.42 ($p < 0.001$) with the MBI's Depersonalization subscale. Correlations between the Teacher Burnout Scale's subscales and the Intensity dimension of the MBI were similar but slightly lower. Perceived Administrative Support did not have a corresponding MBI subscale. Nevertheless, it correlated 0.54 ($p < 0.001$) with Emotional Exhaustion on the Frequency dimension, indicating perhaps that teachers who are frustrated with their jobs believe that they do not receive sufficient administrative support (Seidman & Zager, 1986-1987).

Procedures

A letter was sent to Val Pistor, superintendent of the local school district requesting permission to use the instruments for the study. Packages to be distributed included: an informed consent letter that explained the study and asked them to volunteer; and the questionnaires. Teachers were

guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality regarding test results. All packages conformed to the ethical guidelines of the Faculty of Education. The subjects were mailed their questionnaires in sealed envelopes through the school district's courier system. Of the 400 teachers selected, 115 completed and returned the survey forms.

Results

Factor Analysis on Teacher Burnout Scale

There is some question about the factor structure with the TBS with different populations. Morton, Vesco, Williams, & Awender (1997) used it with student teachers and noted four factors: career satisfaction, perceived administrative support, coping with job stress, and attitudes toward students. Since the current study was with mature teachers, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. This factor analysis yielded five factors. The principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted using an Eigenvalue of 1, and a loading criterion of .50 with at least two items loading on a factor. Five factors emerged which were termed "teaching role," ("I experience a lot of role conflict in my current teaching position") which accounted for 33.6 percent of the variance, "administration," ("I feel that the administrators will not help me with classroom difficulties") which

accounted for 10 percent of the variance. "general stressors," ("I find it difficult to calm down after a day of teaching") which accounted for 7.3 percent of the variance, "student behaviour," ("The students act like a bunch of animals") which accounted for 6.2 percent of the variance, and "student set" ("Students come to school with bad attitudes") which accounted for 5.2 percent of the variance.

Educator Stress Levels

One way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted for each of the five stressors from the Job Stress Scale using teacher categories (regular class teacher, resource withdrawal teacher, and special class teacher) as the independent variable. Means and standard deviation are reported in table 3. In these analyses there were no significant differences.

Table 3

Summary of ANOVA--Comparing job stressors with teaching categories.

Stressors		Reg. Teacher	Res. Withdrawal Teacher	Special Class Teacher	F	p
Teaching	\bar{X}	1.34	1.26	.95	1.96	> .1
	S.D.	83	91	59		
Admin	\bar{X}	1.20	1.17	1.14	.05	> .1
	S.D.	80	1.08	.74		
Gen.	\bar{X}	1.82	1.68	1.58	.74	> .1
Stressors	S.D.	87	67	83		
Student	\bar{X}	1.23	1.05	1.24	.36	> .1
Behaviours	S.D.	78	66	54		
Student	\bar{X}	1.51	1.23	1.77	2.50	> .05
Set	S.D.	73	78	57		

Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming

On the Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming questionnaire respondents' responses were totalled to provide a measure of general attitude toward mainstreaming. For this dependent measure a oneway ANOVA was conducted again using teaching position as the independent variable. There were no significant differences between the three teaching categories. Means and standard deviation are reported in Table 4.

Table 4

Summary of ANOVA--Comparing attitudes toward mainstreaming with teaching categories.

Stressors	Reg Teacher	Res. Withdrawal Teacher	Special Class Teacher	F	p
\bar{X}	19.85	19.50	18.84	.38	.69
S.D.	4.52	3.75	4.95		

Correlational Analysis

The attitude toward mainstreaming was correlated with the five stress measures (see Appendix F). Negative correlations emerged between attitude toward mainstreaming and (1) attitude toward the teaching role emerged ($r = -.26, p < .01$), and (2) attitude toward administrators ($r = -.30, p < .01$). There was no correlation with the other three stressors ($p > .05$). The negative correlations indicate that as stress is lowered with respect to the teaching role and administrators, a more positive attitude toward mainstreaming emerges

Study 2

The objective here was to obtain additional relevant information which may be used to predict burnout in special education teachers. The participants in study one were invited to provide additional information. The additional information sought was related to personality, burnout and locus of control. The rationale for this second study was to examine burnout as a function of (1) demographics (which includes sex, age, years of experience in regular education, years of experience in special education, present position, whether the subject had taught special education in a self-contained environment, resource withdrawal environment, integrated class, or regular class, career aspirations in special education, and regular education, and educational background), (2) personality (as measured by the six subscales of the Vocational Preference Inventory), (3) locus of control (as measured by the Locus of Control Survey), (4) attitude toward mainstreaming (as measured by the Teachers' Attitude Toward Mainstreaming Questionnaire), and (5) school climate (as measured by job stress variables-role conflict, administrative support, general stressors, student behaviour, and student set).

Subjects

The subsample of 64 subjects was clearly different from the original sample of 115. Although proportionately more females were willing to provide more information (71.9%) than males (55.1%), the two distributions were not significantly different ($p > .05$). This was also true for age difference, years of experience in regular education, and special education qualifications. However, oneway ANOVAs were computed on the Attitude Toward Mainstreaming variables and the Job Stress Variables using a response group (willing to provide additional information, unwilling to provide additional information) as the independent variable, and there were significant differences.

As may be seen in Table 5, those willing to provide more information were less stressed by their teaching role, and by administration. As may be seen in Table 6, those willing to provide more information had a more positive attitude toward mainstreaming. These are important findings in themselves because they indicate that the more highly stressed are less likely to provide research data.

Table 5

Summary of ANOVA--Comparing teacher responses to job stress variables

Stressors	Willing To Provide More Data?	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	p
JS-Teaching	Yes	1.07	.71	6.87	p < .01
Role	No	1.47	.87		
JS-Administrators	Yes	1.03	.76	5.21	p < .025
	No	1.38	.85		
JS-General	Yes	1.68	.76	.99	p > .1
Stressors	No	1.84	.95		
JS-Student	Yes	1.14	.72	.79	p > .1
Behaviours	No	1.27	.73		
JS-Student	Yes	1.48	.80	.68	p > .1
Set	No	1.59	.62		

Table 6

Summary of ANOVA--Comparing teacher responses to attitudes toward mainstreaming.

Stressors	Willing To Provide More Data?	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	p
ATTMAINS	Yes	20.55	4.13	5.78	p < .05
	No	18.44	4.65		

Of the 64 subjects that indicated a willingness to provide additional information, 41 responded. Because of missing data, analyses are sometimes based on 40 subjects. In comparing the subsample of 41 respondents to the 23(64) that did not respond, student behaviour and student set were both significant. As may be seen in Table 7, the 41 subjects that provided additional information were less stressed. As may be seen in Table 8, the 41 subjects that provided additional information, and those that did not, were equal regarding attitudes toward mainstreaming. The generalizability of the current findings in Study 2 is limited since this subsample is not a highly stressed group. Nevertheless the findings are considered valuable for understanding at least one segment of the teacher population.

Table 7

Summary of ANOVA—Comparing teachers that provided additional information to those that did not respond-with regard to job stress variables.

Stressors	Provided Additional Information?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	p
JS-Teaching Role	Yes	39	1.05	.72	.11	.69
	No	22	1.11	.72		
JS-Administrators	Yes	39	1.07	.85	.21	.65
	No	21	.97	.59		
JS-General Stressors	Yes	39	1.59	.81	1.65	.20
	No	23	1.84	.65		
JS-Student Behaviours	Yes	40	.99	.65	5.23	.03
	No	23	1.41	.77		
JS-Student Set	Yes	41	1.33	.73	4.01	.05
	No	23	1.74	.88		

Table 8

Summary of ANOVA—Comparing teachers that provided additional information to those that did not respond-with regard to attitude toward mainstreaming.

Stressors	Provided Additional Information?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	p
ATTMAINS	Yes	38	20.39	4.33	.16	.69
	No	20	20.85	3.82		

Instrumentation

The additional three instruments are referred to as follow-up instruments. These instruments were distributed to the 64 subjects who expressed a willingness to provide more data. The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) was used as the first follow-up. The MBI was developed by Christina Maslach and Susan E. Jackson in 1981. It was designed to measure the level of burnout a human services professional or educator can feel. The MBI has 22 items that address three subscales: emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment, and depersonalization. The frequency that the respondent experiences feelings related to each subscale is assessed using a six-point, fully anchored response format. Internal consistency was estimated by Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The reliability coefficients for the subscales were the following: .90 for Emotional Exhaustion; .79 for Depersonalization; and .71 for Personal Accomplishment. Data on test-retest reliability of the MBI have been reported for two samples. For a sample of graduate students in social welfare, and administrators in a health agency (n=53), the two test sessions were separated by an interval of two to four weeks. The test-retest reliability coefficients for the subscales were the following: .82 for Emotional Exhaustion; .60 for Depersonalization; and .80

for Personal Accomplishment. Although these coefficients range from low to moderately high, all are significant beyond the .001 level. In a sample of 248 teachers, two test sessions were separated by an interval of one year. The test-retest reliabilities for the three subscales were: .60 for Emotional Exhaustion; .54 for Depersonalization; and .57 for Personal Accomplishment. Convergent validity was demonstrated in several ways. First, an individual's MBI scores were correlated with behavioural ratings made independently by a person who knew the individual well, such as a spouse or co-worker. Second, MBI scores were correlated with the presence of certain job characteristics that were expected to contribute to experienced burnout. Third, MBI scores were correlated with measures of various outcomes that had been hypothesized to be related to burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

One of the limitations of the MBI is that some respondents have reported that they were confused by this approach (Zager, 1982). For example, teachers may rarely feel "burned out" and thus respond "a few times a year or less" on the frequency scale for the statement, "I feel burned out from my work." However some persons appeared to be perplexed when confronted by the intensity scale for this item: Should they have reported

that their feelings were “mild” or “strong”? In addition the MBI does not deal with the key factor of administrative support.

The second follow-up instrument was Holland’s (1985) Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI). This inventory is based on attitudes to, or interests in, various kinds of work. Individuals read through a list of 160 career choices and indicated for each choice whether or not they found the career to be of personal interest.

According to Holland (1973, 1985) the VPI provides a provisional measure of 11 personality qualities (ie., Realistic, Investigative, Social, Conventional, Enterprising, Artistic, Self-Control, Masculine-Feminine, Status, Infrequency, and Acquiescence). In addition, the VPI allows for an examination of individuals in terms of six career clusters (Realistic, Investigative, Social, Conventional, Enterprising, and Artistic) since specific career choices align with six of the various personality qualities identified.

The VPI would appear to have broad value for those counselling teachers--formally or informally--in making career choices or changes. Understanding differences related to relevant demographic variables (e.g., sex, age, etc.) would enhance the effectiveness of the VPI. Knowledge of specific characteristics (cognitive, emotional, etc.) of the various types,

which may be occupationally relevant, need to be explored. This knowledge would benefit researchers , and may assist administrators in making informed responses, suggestions, and interventions.

The VPI was used in this study because it provided relevant measures (i.e., personality measures, occupational measures), a long history, a wide and relevant literature base, and ease of administration.

Holland reports that the internal consistency of VPI scales ranges from .81 to .91 with an average of .88. Test-retest reliability ranges from .54 to .80 with a median of .71 for a sample of 115 junior college students (cited in Miller, Knippers, Burley and Tobacyk, 1993). In the Vocational Preference Inventory Manual, Holland (1985b) cites the test-retest reliability of the VPI for college freshman as ranging from .61 to .93.

The final instrument, the "Awareness Test: What is Your Locus of Control?" (Kanar, 1991, p. 29), categorizes the teachers' locus of control. The results from this awareness test were compared with the depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, and personal accomplishment scores of the subjects to determine if there was any significant correlations with any of the three measures of burnout. The reliabilities for this awareness test were not readily available.

Procedure

Several weeks after the preliminary questionnaires were distributed, the three follow-up instruments were sent to the 64 subjects who expressed a willingness to provide more data. The questionnaires were mailed in a sealed envelope through the board's courier system. Of the 64 teachers who expressed a willingness to provide more data, 41 completed and returned the survey forms.

Results

MBI scores were calculated as measures of burnout, correlational analyses were conducted for (1) demographic variables, (2) personality variables, (3) locus of control, (4) attitude toward mainstreaming, and (5) school climate.

Demographics

The correlational coefficients for burnout and demographics reported in Table 9 indicate that depersonalization shows a negative correlation with sex only. Females showed less burnout related to depersonalization. On the emotional exhaustion scale there were negative correlations with career aspirations in special education and specialist qualifications. These indicate that there is more emotional exhaustion for those who have career

aspirations in special education, and for those who hold specialist qualifications.

For the personal achievement variable, there were no significant correlations with respect to demographic information. This indicates that with respect to age, gender and teaching experience, there was no difference in the personal achievement variable.

Personality

Evidence was found that personality variables, as measured by the Vocational Preference Inventory, are related to burnout. The correlational coefficients for burnout and personality are reported in Table 10. Those low on the conventional scale showed a higher degree of depersonalization. Those low on the social scale showed a higher degree of depersonalization. Those high on the emotional exhaustion scale were higher on the masculine-feminine scale, higher on the realistic scale and low on the social scale. With respect to personal accomplishment, those with higher ratings were also high on the realistic scale. Those who fall into the realistic category are likely to display or be concerned with high accomplishment.

Locus Of Control

As seen in Table 11, there were no significant correlations with any of

the three measures of burnout, thus locus of control had no affect on burnout with this sample.

Attitude Toward Mainstreaming

As seen in Table 12, Attitude Toward Mainstreaming was negatively correlated with depersonalization and positively correlated with personal accomplishment. This means that a greater degree of depersonalization is associated with a less positive attitude toward mainstreaming, and a greater degree of personal accomplishment is associated with a more positive attitude toward mainstreaming.

School Climate

Evidence was found that job stress variables, as measured by the Job Stress Scale, are related to burnout. The correlational coefficients for burnout and school climate are reported in Table 13. Student behaviour was positively correlated with depersonalization and emotional exhaustion, and negatively correlated with personal accomplishment. Role conflict was positively correlated with emotional exhaustion. General stressors and student set were positively correlated with emotional exhaustion, and negatively correlated with personal accomplishment.

Table 9

Correlational Coefficients for burnout and demographics.

Variables	MBI-Depersonalization	MBI-Emotional Exhaustion	MBI-Personal Accomplishment
Career Aspirations in Spec. Ed?	.09	-.33*	.27
Yrs Exp in Regular Ed	.12	-.01	.12
Spec Ed Part 1	.31	.07	-.01
Specialist Qualifications	-.03	-.34*	.13
Taught Special Ed Resource Withdrawal?	.28	.15	-.28
Taught Spec. Ed. Self-Contained?	.00	.03	.17
Yrs Exp in Spec Ed	-.03	.06	-.06
Sex	-.35*	.03	.21
Regular Class/No Integrated Students?	.16	-.03	.04

* p < .05

** p < .01

Table 10

Correlational Coefficients for burnout and personality.

Variables	MBI-Depersonalization	MBI-Emotional Exhaustion	MBI-Personal Accomplishment
Conventional	-.38*	-.14	.09
Artistic	-.04	-.00	.06
Acquiescence	-.24	-.11	.09
Enterprising	-.16	-.13	.22
Investigative	.03	.16	-.23
Intrequency	-.11	-.00	.07
Masc/Fem	.09	.35*	-.13
Realistic	.17	.45**	-.38*
Social	-.35*	-.34*	.20
Self Control	-.11	-.16	.11
Status	-.31	-.06	.14

* p < .05

** p < .01

Table 11

Correlational Coefficients for burnout and locus of control.

Variables ATTMAIN	MBI-Depersonalization	MBI-Emotional Exhaustion	MBI-Personal Accomplishment	S
MBI- Depersonalization	1.00	.47**	-.42**	-.38*
MBI-Emotional Exhaustion	.47**	1.00	-.52**	-.11
MBI-Personal Accomplishment	-.42**	-.52**	1.00	.32*
LOCEXT	.29	.06	-.02	-.04
LOCINT	-.12	-.08	.10	.18

* p < .05

** p < .01

Table 12

Correlational Coefficients for burnout and attitudes toward mainstreaming.

Variables	MBI-Depersonalization	MBI-Emotional Exhaustion	MBI-Personal Accomplishment	ATTMAIN S
MBI-Deper- sonalization	1.00	.47**	-.42**	-.38*
MBI- Emotional Exhaustion	.47**	1.00	-.52**	-.11
MBI- Personal Accomplish- ment	-.42**	-.52**	1.00	.32*
ATTMAINS	-.38*	-.11	.32*	1.00

* p < .05

** p < .01

Table 13

Correlational Coefficients for burnout and school climate

Variables	MBI-Depersonalization	MBI-Emotional Exhaustion	MBI-Personal Accomplishment	JS-Teaching Role
MBI-Depersonalization	1.000	.466**	-.419**	.251
MBI-Emotional Exhaustion	.466**	1.000	-.525**	.662**
MBI-Personal Accomplishment	-.419**	-.525**	1.000	-.298
JS-Teaching Role	.251	.662**	-.298	1.000
JS-Administrators	-.007	.174	-.085	.577**
JS-General Stressors	.273	.684**	-.596**	.588**
JS-Student Behaviours	.323*	.392*	-.356*	.684**
JS-Student Set	.191	.591**	-.421**	.431**

* p < .05

** p < .01

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

Study 1

With regards to whether special educators demonstrated more stress than general educators (research question one), there were no significant differences between regular class teachers, resource withdrawal teachers, and special class teachers related to stress levels. One way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted for each of the five stressors from the Job Stress Scale (teaching role, administration, general stressors, student behaviours, and student set) using teacher categories (regular class teacher, resource withdrawal teacher, and special class teacher) as the independent variable. Since there were no differences, any problems associated with teacher stress levels were related most likely to factors other than teaching placements. It is likely that special and general educators were equally affected by work related stressors.

Interestingly, school climate variables (role conflict and administrative factors) appear to be predictors of stress with student teachers as well as experienced educators (Morton et al. 1997). The student teachers were quite stressed, thus, it seems the stress for educators begins quite early in the

teaching career path. It is the types of stressors that change. Student teachers were more stressed by evaluation protocols and issues, class management and pedagogy. Experienced teachers are more likely stressed by school climate variables such as role conflict, lack of administrative support, disruptive students, and career issues.

On the Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming questionnaire, respondents' responses were totalled to provide a measure of general attitude toward mainstreaming (research question two). Since there were no significant differences between regular class teachers, resource withdrawal teachers, and special class teachers, any elements associated with attitudes toward mainstreaming are related most likely to factors other than teaching placements. A correlational analysis of the five stress measures (teaching role, administrators, general stressors, student behaviours, and student set) and attitudes toward mainstreaming resulted in a negative correlation between attitude toward mainstreaming, and (1) attitude toward the teaching role and (2) attitude toward administrators. These negative correlations indicate that when stress is lower with respect to the teaching role and administrators, a more positive attitude toward mainstreaming exists. It may be that teachers with a more positive attitude toward mainstreaming are

more positive toward the teaching role, or alternatively teachers who have more positive experiences within the teaching role have a more positive attitude toward mainstreaming. These results are consistent with the findings of Billingsley & Cross (1991). They found that the attrition rates of special and general educators were related to administrative factors and the stress involved in working with special education students. Inadequate administrative support and cooperation have been associated with teacher stress and attrition in previous investigations. Lawrenson and McKinnon (1982) found “hassles” with administrators cited as the primary reason for attrition among teachers of behaviourally disordered students. Fimian (1986) found that two-thirds of special education teachers reported not receiving administrative support. Fimian also found that supervisory support helped moderate the perceived strength and the frequency of stress experienced by special education teachers.

There is further evidence that the presence of administrative support can help prevent burnout. Zabel and Zabel (1982) reported that teachers receiving external support from administrators fared better on burnout measures than those not receiving support. Certainly this implies that administrators need to involve teachers in identifying support needs and in

generating potential solutions.

With regard to the relationship between the teaching role and attitude toward mainstreaming, research indicates that special and general educators' perceptions of their teaching placement improves with experience. Bender, Vail and Scott (1985) indicated that mainstreaming attitudes correlate positively with the number of courses taken on teaching children with disabilities. Teachers with more course work had more positive attitudes. This research was similar to a study by Harvey (1992) which indicated that along with additional course work, teachers with more experience were more positive toward mainstreaming. The results of Harvey's 1990 study indicates that after six years of experience with the policy on integration, some of the apprehensions teachers had in Harvey's 1984 study had been overcome. The most significant of the changes seem to be the more positive reactions in 1990 to the enrolment of students with mild intellectual abilities in regular classes. It seems that the reasons why more positive attitudes were being expressed in 1990 has to do with a greater exposure in professional settings toward children with disabilities. These findings suggest that as teachers gain more experience, they express more confidence in their professionalism, their sense of comfort in the presence of handicapped individuals and a more

positive reaction toward mainstreaming handicapped students into the regular classroom. This is consistent with the results of the present study. The negative correlations found in study one indicated that as stress is lowered with respect to the teaching role, a more positive attitude toward mainstreaming emerges.

Study 2

With regard to which work-related variables predict teacher burnout: (1) attitudes toward mainstreaming, (2) locus of control, (3) personality variables, and/or (4) demographic variables, results indicated that attitudes toward mainstreaming, personality variables, and demographic variables are in part predictive of teacher burnout.

Regarding attitude toward mainstreaming and burnout, teachers with higher degrees of depersonalization showed a less positive attitude toward mainstreaming, while teachers that showed higher degrees of personal accomplishment expressed a more positive attitude toward mainstreaming. Teachers who showed high degrees of personal accomplishment are likely to be achievement oriented and motivated to succeed. It is probable that these teachers would develop a framework to create a successful mainstreaming program through ongoing professional training of short in-service training courses.

There were no significant differences between the three teaching categories (regular class teachers, resource withdrawal teachers, and special class teachers) based on general attitudes toward mainstreaming. Thus, any problems associated with attitudes toward mainstreaming are most likely

related to factors other than teaching placement.

Regarding personality variables and burnout, the correlation for burnout and personality indicated that teachers that were low on the conventional (personality) scale showed a higher degree of depersonalization. Teachers scoring low on the conventional scale may be predisposed to passiveness, insecurity and low aspiration levels. This would likely explain the correlation with a higher degree of depersonalization as those teachers are more likely to be withdrawn. Teachers who placed low on the social scale also demonstrated a higher degree of depersonalization. Education is one of the key occupations associated with high scores in the social scale. Wanting to help others, being sociable, sensitive and extroverted are some of the key characteristics for high scores on the social scale. Teachers placing low on the social scale may find teaching stressful because they do not have the necessary personal qualities that the profession demands. This would explain the higher degree of depersonalization among those teachers. Teachers who showed high emotional exhaustion also placed high on the masculine-feminine scale, higher on the realistic scale and low on the social scale. Poor interpersonal skills, being unsociable, shrewd and practical are some of the key characteristics of respondents with high scores

on the masculine-feminine scale and realistic scale. This would explain the low placement on the social scale. It would be reasonable to assume that respondents with these personal qualities would find the teaching profession to be stressful and unrewarding. This would also explain the high scores of emotional exhaustion. Teachers who showed high ratings with respect to personal accomplishment were also high on the realistic scale. Teachers scoring high on the realistic scale are practical, hardworking individuals driven by accomplishment.

These results are consistent with the findings of Friedman (1991) who investigated high and low burnout schools. Friedman found that the good teacher in high burnout schools was perceived as a person with extensive knowledge, achievement oriented, and driving students to get the most out of their capabilities. Teachers scoring high on personal accomplishment, and high on the realistic scale may be predisposed to emotional exhaustion due to greater amounts of stress. Some of the key characteristics for high scores on the realistic scale (Vocational Preference Inventory) and the personal accomplishment subscale (Maslach Burnout Inventory) are practical, hardheaded, poor interpersonal skills, and hard working. Teachers with high scores in these areas are likely to be determined, hard-working individuals

who do not allow time for social activities or interpersonal relationships. This type of individual may be under stress which could lead to emotional exhaustion, and perhaps teacher burnout.

Regarding demographics and burnout, correlational coefficients for burnout and demographics indicated that depersonalization shows a negative correlation with sex only. Females showed less burnout related to depersonalization. This may indicate that females are more likely to express their feelings and anxieties, and communicate their displeasures. This may act as a catharsis and help to reduce stress which would result in less burnout. Teachers with career aspirations in special education and specialist qualifications reported more emotional exhaustion. It is likely that teachers with higher career aspirations and additional qualifications may experience greater amounts of stress due to additional workloads.

Friedman and Lotan (1985) reported that teachers with a higher level of education show higher levels of burnout. Burnout rises with teachers' age (and years of experience), it reaches a peak at the group age of 41 to 45 years (20-24 years of experience), and then it declines. There were no significant correlations between demographic information and personal achievement (as a measure of burnout). This indicates that personal

achievement would be linked to factors other than age, gender and teaching experience.

There were no significant correlations with any of the three measures of burnout and locus of control. Thus any problems associated with teacher burnout are most likely related factors other than locus of control.

Regarding school climate variables and burnout, correlational coefficients indicated that role conflict shows a positive correlation with emotional exhaustion. This may indicate the need for role clarification and modification among special educators. Cooper and Marshall (1978) defined role conflict as conflicting job demands and has been found to be a major source of worker stress, and physiological stress. Stress arising from role conflict leads to feelings of futility, a lowered sense of self-esteem, increased blood pressure, and intention to leave the job (French & Caplan, 1970).

General stressors and student behaviour were positively correlated with emotional exhaustion and negatively correlated with personal accomplishment. Friedman (1991) points out that circumscribing school culture, and disagreeable physical environment contribute to teacher burnout. Findings in this study show that environmental variables were associated with levels of perceived burnout. An organizational policy by

which teachers are treated as dependable professionals may lead a reduced level of burnout. Clarity of organizational goals is an important prerequisite for efficient and satisfactory teacher morale, but the extent to which those goals are perceived by the employee to be attainable is of no less importance. Administrators need to become a source of support for their staff through clearly assigned goals, and involvement in their work-related problems.

Limitations Of The Study

The present study attempted to examine whether school climate, attitudes toward mainstreaming, locus of control, personality variables, and demographic variables are related to teacher burnout in special education. A number of limitations should be noted in the present study. Only one school board was used. The study was conducted near the March break, which most likely decreased the total sample size. More females responded to the study than did males. This could be due to either the ratio of females to males in the teaching profession, or to males choosing not to participate in the study.

Implications for Educational Institutions

The results of this study support the view that educators experience stress which could eventually lead to teacher burnout. Although stress and burnout are recognized problems in education, there is little evidence that educational agencies are addressing the problem.

Teachers need support in dealing with the stress experienced with school climate variables (role conflict, lack of administrative support, general stressors, student behaviour, and student set). Administrators must be aware of the support needs of their staffs and methods of providing assistance. Types of support might include assistance with discipline, curriculum, instructional resources, and professional development. Courses on stress management should be made available to provide information on current methods of self-assessment in order to identify stress; to obtain the positive and creative use of stress; and to manage or master stress.

Administrators need to regularly encourage and acknowledge teachers' efforts. Billingsley and Cross (1991) reported that special education teachers receiving external support from administrators fared better on burnout measures than those not receiving support. Administrators need to involve teachers in identifying support needs and in generating potential solutions.

Suggestions for Future Research

This study provides information about a specific group of special and general education teachers. The present findings would argue for more research into work-related stressors, and attitudes toward mainstreaming. Important questions to be investigated include the following: Are teachers' attitudes toward mainstreaming dependent on their school setting? Are teachers in certain settings more likely to experience stress or burnout?

Further educational research could include a study to identify school factors associated with teacher burnout in special education. Two groups of special education teachers with equally positive views of mainstreaming could be placed into two different school settings (high-burnout school, and low-burnout school). The attitudes and stress levels of both groups of teachers could then be identified and compared. Results from such testing may provide additional insight into the causes of stress and teacher burnout.

APPENDIX A

The Relationship Between Mainstreaming Special Education Students And Job Stress

(Please print or check the appropriate response)

Age: 21-25 ___ 26-30 ___ 31-35 ___ 36-40 ___ 41-45 ___ 46+ ___

Gender: ___ Male ___ Female

Number of Years of Total Teaching Experience in Regular Education

___ 0-4 ___ 5-9 ___ 10-19 ___ 20 or more

Number of Years of Total Teaching Experience in Special Education

___ 0-4 ___ 5-9 ___ 10-19 ___ 20 or more

Level(s) Taught ___ junior kindergarten and kindergarten

___ primary ___ junior ___ intermediate

Present position title: ___ regular classroom teacher ___ resource teacher

___ special education classroom teacher

Have you ever taught special education in a self-contained environment? Y ___ N ___

Have you ever taught special education resource-withdrawal? Y ___ N ___

Have you ever taught in a regular class with integrated special education students? Y ___ N ___

Have you ever taught in a regular class with no special education students? Y ___ N ___

Are your career aspirations aimed at special education? Y ___ N ___

Are your career aspirations aimed at general education? Y ___ N ___

Educational Background

___ Bachelor Degree ___ Bachelor of Education ___ Master's Degree ___ Doctorate

___ Specialist Qualification in Special Education ___ Elective _____

___ Special Education Part One ___ Elective _____

___ Special Education Part Two ___ Elective _____

___ Special Education (Board Provided In-Service Training)

___ Special Education (Letter of Standing) ___ Other (Please Specify) _____

APPENDIX B

Teacher's Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming

Please circle the number which best describes how you feel about the following statements.

	Strongly <u>Agree</u>				Strongly <u>Disagree</u>
1. I support mainstreaming the handicapped.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I believe mainstreaming has been beneficial for handicapped students.	5	4	3	2	1
3. I believe mainstreaming has been beneficial for nonhandicapped students in mainstream classes.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I believe that mainstreaming in my school has been successful.	5	4	3	2	1
5. I believe that mainstreaming has been successful in terms of improving the social skills and behaviours of the handi- capped.	5	4	3	2	1
6. I believe that mainstreaming has been successful in terms of improving the academic skills of the handicapped.	5	4	3	2	1

Note. 1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree.

APPENDIX C

The Job Stress Scale

Please circle the number which best describes how you feel about the following statements.

	Very <u>Much</u>	Moder- <u>ately</u>	Some- <u>what</u>	Rare- <u>ly</u>	Never
1. I look forward to teaching in the future	4	3	2	1	0
2. I feel depressed because of my teaching experiences.	4	3	2	1	0
3. I get adequate praise from my supervisors for a job well done.	4	3	2	1	0
4. The teaching day seems to drag on and on.	4	3	2	1	0
5. I am glad that I selected teaching as a career.	4	3	2	1	0
6. The students act like a bunch of animals.	4	3	2	1	0
7. My physical illnesses may be related to the stress in this job.	4	3	2	1	0
8. I feel that my administrators are willing to help me with classroom problems, should they arise.	4	3	2	1	0
9. I find it difficult to calm down after a day of teaching.	4	3	2	1	0
10. Teaching is more fulfilling than I had expected.	4	3	2	1	0
11. I believe that my efforts in the classroom are unappreciated by the administrators.	4	3	2	1	0
12. If I had to do it all over again, I would not become a schoolteacher.	4	3	2	1	0

Job Stress Scale (Cont.)

	Very Much	Moder- ately	Some- what	Rare- ly	Never
13. I feel that I could do a better job of teaching if only the problems confronting me were not so great.	4	3	2	1	0
14. The stresses in this job are more than I can bear.	4	3	2	1	0
15. My supervisors give me more criticism than praise	4	3	2	1	0
16. Most of my students are decent people.	4	3	2	1	0
17. Most students come to school ready to learn	4	3	2	1	0
18. I feel that the administrators will not help me with classroom difficulties.	4	3	2	1	0
19. I look forward to each teaching day.	4	3	2	1	0
20. The administration blames me for classroom problems.	4	3	2	1	0
21. Students come to school with bad attitudes	4	3	2	1	0
22. I experience a lot of role conflict in my current teaching position.	4	3	2	1	0
23. Many of the tasks I'm expected to accomplish don't fall under the job description of teacher.	4	3	2	1	0

Would you be willing to answer an additional questionnaire related to job stressors? Additional questionnaires will be delivered and returned by mail. Yes _____ No _____

Name _____ School _____

APPENDIX D

What Is Your Locus of Control?

Check yes if you agree with a statement; check no if you do not agree.

- | Yes | No | |
|-----|-----|---|
| () | () | 1. I believe that I have the power to control what happens to me. |
| () | () | 2. I believe that I have very little control over what happens to me. |
| () | () | 3. When I make a mistake, it's usually my fault. |
| () | () | 4. When I make a mistake, it's usually because someone didn't make clear to me what I was supposed to do. |
| () | () | 5. I can adapt easily to a change of plans or events. |
| () | () | 6. Adapting to change has always been difficult for me. I like things to be as predictable and orderly as possible. |
| () | () | 7. My teaching performance is a result of how much planning I do. |
| () | () | 8. My teaching performance doesn't seem to be affected by the amount of planning I do. |
| () | () | 9. I am a self-motivated person. |
| () | () | 10. I need someone to motivate me. |

Source: Kanar, C.C. (1991). The confident student

Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Appendix E

January 27, 1997

Dear Participant,

My name is David Simone. I am a graduate student at The University of Windsor's Faculty of Education. I am presently conducting research to be used toward the completion of my master's thesis. The present study seeks to investigate the determinants of burnout in special education teachers. Of particular interest to the researchers are the effects, if any, of negative teaching conditions such as inadequate administrative support, role conflict, and stress on teacher burnout. The data gathered will be used to measure teachers' perceptions of career satisfaction, perceived administrative support, coping with job-related stress, and attitudes toward students. Data will be gathered from elementary schools in The Windsor Board of Education. Participants will fill out the accompanying questionnaires and return them through the Windsor Board's courier system. The supervisor for the research is Dr. Larry Morton, Faculty of Education, University of Windsor.

Participation in the research is voluntary. Confidentiality of respondents is ensured in that there will be no identification of participants. Variables used are those that have been found to be predictive in similar studies. Participants may ask the undersigned any questions they have and may withdraw from the study at any time. No remuneration is being paid for participation. Results will be used for research purposes only. Your participation in completing the survey will require 10-15 minutes. If you have any concerns of an ethical nature, please contact Dr. Larry Morton, Ethics Committee, Faculty of Education, University of Windsor, (519) 253-4232, Ext. 3800. Return of the completed questionnaire constitutes consent to participate in the study.

Yours truly,

David Simone

Correlations

re: pg. 43

	Stressors	ATTMAIN S
Pearson Correlation	ATTMAINS	1.00
	JS-Teaching Role	-.26**
	JS-Administrators	-.30**
	JS-General Stressors	-.19
	JS-Student Behaviours	-.18
	JS-Student Set	-.09

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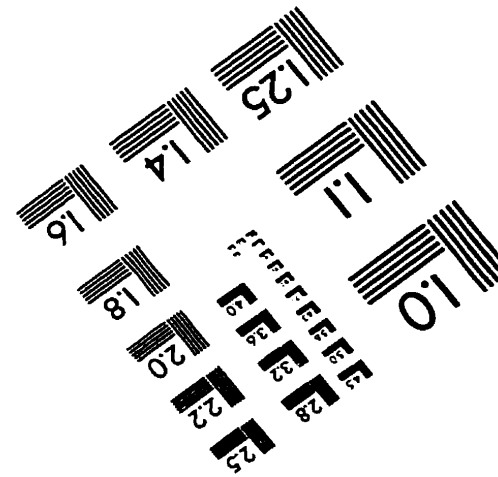
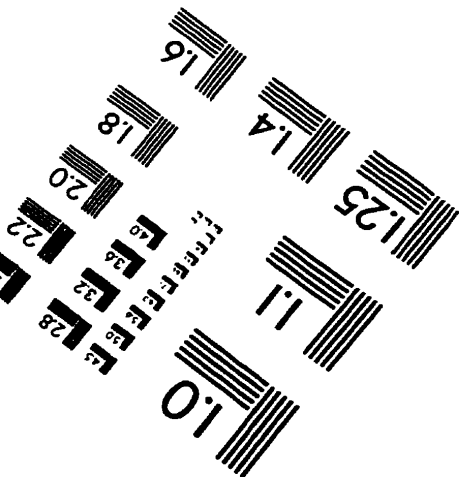
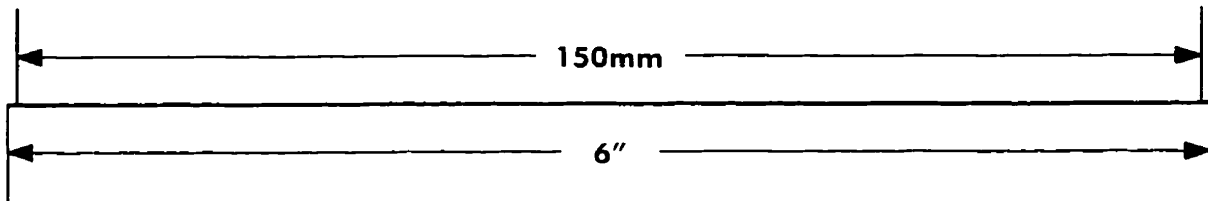
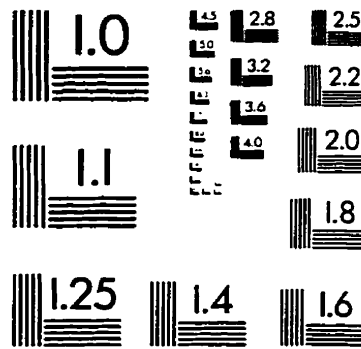
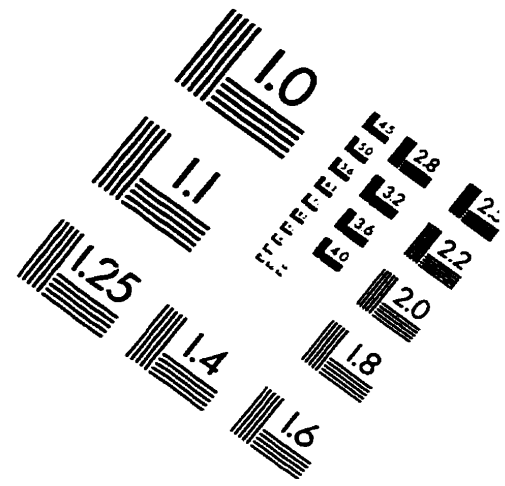
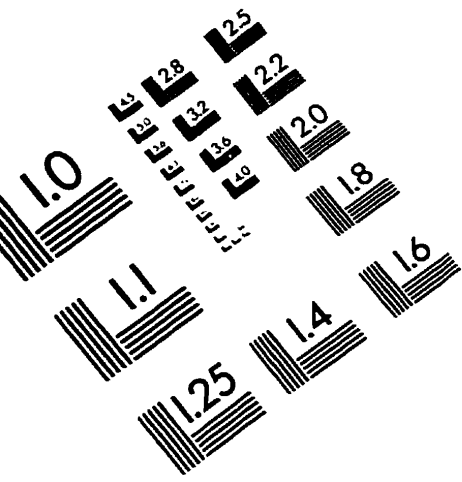
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VITA AUCTORIS

David Simone was born on July 29, 1961 in Detroit, Michigan. He attended secondary school in Amherstburg, Ontario and received his secondary school diploma in June, 1979. He received his Bachelor of Arts degree, majoring in Communication Studies, from the University of Windsor in May, 1987. He received his Bachelor of Education degree from the University of Windsor in May, 1990. David is teaching special education for the Windsor Public Board at Concord elementary school. He is currently enrolled in the Principals' course at the University of Windsor and is completing the requirements for a Master of Education degree in Administrative Studies.

IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)




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