TEACHER BURNOUT: A COMPARISON BETWEEN TITLE I AND NON-TITLE I ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

by

Sandra Anne Russell

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

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APPROVED BY:

Leldon W. Nichols, Ed. D., Committee Chair

Heidi Brezinski, Ph. D, Committee Member

Carolyn McCeight, Ed. D., Committee Member

ABSTRACT

With school reform and teacher accountability on the forefront of the educational landscape, attention has turned to investigating why so many teachers leave the profession after a relatively short time. Burnout is often cited as a major contributor to this teacher exodus. While many studies have focused on teacher burnout relative to the specific tasks that teachers perform and on the populations they serve, there is no research on how teacher burnout differs between Title I and non-Title I schools in an urban school district in Virginia. The purpose of this causal-comparative study was to investigate if teachers' perceptions of burnout including emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment, differ between the two types of schools in a single school district. The sample, 145 elementary teachers from Title I and non-Title I schools, voluntarily completed the Maslach Burnout Inventory- Educators Survey (MBI-ES) through SurveyMonkey® online. Results from the self-reported instrument were analyzed for significant statistical differences between scores in the areas of personal accomplishment, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization between the Title I and non-Title I teachers using a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The results indicated that there is no statistical difference in teachers' perception of overall burnout, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment between the Title I and non-Title I school teachers in this urban school district in Virginia.

Keywords: teacher burnout, teacher attrition, Title I, accountability, school reform.

Dedication

I dedicate this manuscript to my late father and my son.

Daddy, I am sorry that I was unable to complete this manuscript in your lifetime. I know you wished me success and that you were proud of my accomplishments in life. I remain equally proud of you and your service to our country during World War II. Thank you for sharing your love of learning and history with me.

Russell, I want to thank you for reminding me that there are no limits to what I can accomplish. Thank you for proof reading and for cooking for me so that I could work on my paper. Thank you for encouraging me. I love you.

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Foremost, I am thankful that God has given me the intelligence and drive to reach my goals. I have been showered with blessings and guidance in this journey at Liberty University.

I am thankful to my family and friends who have inspired and encouraged me each step of the way. You have been patient and understanding whenever I was challenged. Each of you has played an important part in my success. I have been truly blessed to have you in my life.

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Table of Contents

ABSTRACT 3

Dedication 4

Acknowledgments 5

List of Tables 8

List of Figures 9

List of Abbreviations 10

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION 11

Overview 11

Background 11

Problem Statement 14

Purpose Statement 15

Significance of the Study 16

Research Question 18

Definitions 18

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW 20

Overview 20

Theoretical Framework 20

Related Literature 25

Summary 51

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS 52

Overview 52

Design 52

Research Question 54

Null Hypothesis 54

Participants and Setting 54

Instrumentation 56

Procedures 58

Data Analysis 60

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS 63

Overview 63

Research Question 64

Null Hypothesis 64

Descriptive Statistics 64

Results 65

Additional Statistical Assumptions 71

Results 79

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS 84

Overview 84

Discussion 84

Implications 89

Limitations 89

Recommendations for Future Research 95

REFERENCES 97

APPENDICES 115

List of Tables

Table 4.1 Sample Descriptive Statistics……... 66

Table 4.2 Correlations Between Discriminant Function Scores and Subscale Scores…… 73

Table 4.3 Statistical Evaluations of Multivariate Normality……... 75

Table 4.4 Correlations Among MBI-ES Subscales and Subscale Tolerance Values…….. 76

Table 4.5 Levene's Tests of Homogeneity of Group Variances…….. 78

Table 4.6 Descriptive Statistics on the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey as a Function of Type of School…….. 81

Table 4.7 Frequencies and Percentage of Highly Burned Out Teachers as a Function of Type of School……... 82

Table 4.8 Summary Table for One-Way Between-Subjects MANOVA……...84

List of Figures

Figure 1. Statistical Power Analysis…….71

Figure 2. Histogram of Discriminant Function Scores for Title I……74

Figure 3. Histogram of Discriminant Function Scores for Non-Title I……....74

Figure 4. Scatterplot of Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization……79

Figure 5. Scatterplot of Emotional Exhaustion and Personal Accomplishment……...79

Figure 6. Scatterplot of Personal Accomplishment and Depersonalization……79

Figure 7. Discriminant Function Scores……...83

List of Abbreviations

Annual Measurable Objectives (AMO)

Adequate yearly process (AYP)

American Psychological Association (APA)

Depersonalization (DP)

Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)

Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015 (ESSA)

Graduation and Completion Index (GCI)

Liberty University's Institutional Review Board (IRB)

Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)

Maslach Burnout Inventory Educators Survey (MBI-ES)

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

National Commission on Excellence in Education (NCEE)

National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF)

No Child Left Behind (NCLB)

Partnership for Achieving Successful Schools (PASS)

Race to the Top (RTTT)

Socioeconomic Status (SES)

Supplemental Educational Services (SES)

Statistical Packages of the Social Sciences (SPSS)

Virginia Department of Education (VDOE)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

The construct of burnout, identified by Freudenberger in 1974, is a growing concern in the educational community. This chapter includes background information on the state of education today as it relates to teacher burnout. The problem statement, purpose of the study, and the study's significance are examined; the research questions are also explained in detail.

Background

The 47th Phi Delta Kappan Annual Gallop Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools (2016) revealed that most Americans believe the best way to improve public schools is to have teachers who are adept at their craft (Martin and Mulvihill, 2016). Yet, according to the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF), school districts spend tens of thousands of dollars trying to hire, retain, and train new teachers, money that could be utilized in other areas of education (Sheehy, 2012). The expenditures are necessary due to over one-third of teachers leaving the profession within their first five years. Burnout has been identified as one of the leading causes of teacher attrition. The Robert Wood Johnson Foundation has reported that alarmingly, 46% of teachers experience stress at profound levels (Farmer, 2017).

Research shows that burnout and stress have an adverse effect on teachers' mental and physical health (Brown, 2012) and on their quality of life (Farmer, 2017). Some studies suggest that the reforms stemming from No Child Left Behind (NCLB) may have a significant influence on teachers' work attitudes and performance (Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty, & Harrington, 2014), thus creating a cyclical vortex where often a decline in student achievement leads to increased

stress and burnout for teachers (Santoro, 2011) which results in increased teacher turnover (Kuntz, Naswall, & Bockett, 2013).

According to Santoro (2011), retaining talented teachers is key to successful school reform. The dilemma for educational institutions is to provide rich learning experiences for students who need it and still balance the moral rewards necessary to keep good teachers teaching. There is more involved in retaining good teachers than just cultivating the teachers' skills, though. The institution needs to support the entire learning community, especially when school reforms have accentuated low student performance; when it doesn't, it may sabotage teachers' commitments, particularly in high-need schools (Santoro, 2011).

According to the Virginia Department of Education (VDOE) (2015), the goal of Title I schools is to improve the academic achievement of disadvantaged populations. Often the schools that serve the largest percentages of low-income students have the most significant problem in making Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). NCLB targets low-performing schools (Balfanz, Legters, West, & Weber, 2007). School reform brings about changes in education and increased pressure for teachers to perform, often resulting in stress and burnout (Day, 2011; Koruklu, Ozenoglu-Kiremit, Feyzioglo, & Aladag, 2012).

Freudenberger (1974) originally coined the term burnout after he noted that many of his patients were exhibiting similar symptoms related to their work. His patients were exhausted emotionally and physically and were showing diminished job involvement and a low impression of their accomplishments (Freudenberger, 1974). Freudenberger (1974, 1975) and Maslach (1976) noted that burnout was most predominant in human contact professionals.

Later, Cherniss (1980) identified three stages of burnout present in professionals new to the workforce. These include perceiving that the demands of a person's job surpass their

abilities; exhibiting signs or symptoms of anxiety, fatigue, or exhaustion; and an increased intense focus on personal problems (Cherniss, 1980). Maslach (1982) identified three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a decrease in personal accomplishments.

Burnout has been defined as being emotionally drained, having a negative, callous attitude, and a declination in feelings of competency and accomplishment (Moreno, Bordas, Lopez, Peracho, Lopez, DeMiguel, & Vazquez, 2010). In the educational environment, burnout manifests in ways that can negatively affect the experience for both teachers and students (Shen, McCaughtry, Martin, Garn, Kulik, & Fahlman, 2015; Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Increases in teacher burnout result in less preparation for and involvement in classroom activities that leads to a decline in student impressions of the teacher and also a decline in their motivation to achieve (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). However, burnout isn't just a seasoned teacher's problem. Gavish (2010) found that new teachers began to experience burnout soon after entering the field and continue to develop the characteristics of burnout over time.

For teachers, the progression of burnout can lead to stress-related illness that can shorten careers (Wegner, Berger, Poschadel, Manuwald, & Baur, 2011) and in the process affect not only themselves, but their schools as well (Hastings & Bham, 2003; Inandi & Buyukozkan, 2013). Characteristics of burnout are particularly evident when teachers' expectations are inconsistent with the conditions at their schools (Koruklu et al., 2012). According to Koruklu et al. (2012), this includes: "… the physical conditions of their school, case load, crowded classes, interactions with school administration, difficulties in reaching vocational resources, lack of materials, low school and parent cooperation, lack of communication with other teachers…" (p. 1824) and feeling unappreciated (Koruklu et al., 2012).

There is a crisis in education today (Santoro, 2011). Teachers often feel tired, dull, demoralized, dissatisfied, and unmotivated (Akyuz & Kaya, 2014). It affects all schools, but most notably high poverty schools (Santoro, 2011). The differences in teacher burnout levels between Title I and non-Title I schools beg further study to help make school reform successful and to keep good teachers in America's public schools.

Problem Statement

There has been extensive research on teacher burnout (Coulter & Abney, 2009; Inandi & Buyukozkan, 2013; Pucella, 2011). Teacher burnout studies have included how school-wide changes (Oakes, Lane, Jenkins, & Booker, 2013) and educational reform affects burnout levels (Day, 2011; Koruklu et al., 2012). Burnout related to specific groups within the educational community has also been studied (Akyuz & Kaya, 2014). Other studies have focused on burnout and school counselors (Murray, 2010), burnout and school-wide changes (Oakes, Lane, Jenkins, & Boker, 2013), burnout and primary school teachers (Akyuz & Kaya, 2014; Inandi & Buyukozkan, 2013), burnout and classroom management (Aloe, Amo, & Shanahan, 2014), teacher emotions and burnout, (Chang, 2013), self-efficacy and burnout (Brown, 2012), burnout and organizational confidence (Caglar, 2011), burnout and student behavior (Chang, 2013; Egyed & Short, 2006), and on burnout and teacher effectiveness including classroom management and self-efficacy (Aloe, Amo, & Shanahan, 2014) and teacher emotional reactions to student behavior (Chang, 2013).

Teachers are often evaluated on their effectiveness despite the fact that because of pedagogical policies, schools that serve low-income populations contribute to the demoralization of teachers (Santoro, 2011). Demoralized teachers are recognized as a hindrance to educational

progress (Koruklu et al., 2012). This means that low-income schools face a daunting task to reach targeted goals (Santoro, 2011).

One study by Jimenez- Castellanos (2010) featured comparisons of the two types of schools: Title I and non-Title I in several areas including: teacher pay, turnover, commitment, and stress. The researcher found that the teachers in the Title I schools reported having more stress and demands than the non-Title I schoolteachers but made only a brief reference to burnout (Jimenez-Castellanos, 2010). Conversely, a study conducted by O'Donnell et al. (2008) found that the non-Title I teachers reported having more stress and demands than the teachers from Title I schools. The researchers concluded that further research was needed to determine if teacher stress levels increase because of working in Title I schools. O'Donnell et al. (2008) also noted that their study did not include studies of teachers working in inner cities (O'Donnell et al., 2008). This study addressed that population of teachers.

Jimenez-Castellanos (2010) and O'Donnell et al. (2008) investigated some aspects of teacher burnout in relation to Title I and non-Title I school employment; however, they did not specifically make comparisons of the degree or magnitude of teacher burnout between the two types of schools. No other known studies compare teacher burnout between the Title I and non-Title I schools using the MBI-ES. The problem is that there has been no research that uses the MBI-ES to compare burnout between Title I and non-Title I elementary school teachers in an urban school district in Virginia.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to investigate differences in teacher burnout by examining whether and how teachers' perceptions of burnout differ between Title I and non-Title I teachers within an urban school district in Virginia. According to the VDOE (2018), Title I schools are

identified as those having 40% or more economically disadvantaged students. Title I schools receive funding specifically structured to increase student achievement through additional resources and personnel. Conversely, non-Title I schools do not have a significant number of students in the economically disadvantaged category and are ineligible for Title I funds. The study sample included teachers from Title I, and non-Title I schools in an urban public school district in Virginia. The teachers were invited to voluntarily complete an online survey of teacher burnout. This study utilized a quantitative, non-experimental, causal-comparative research design. Causal-comparative research allows the researcher to evaluate the differences in relationships (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). This type of investigation is appropriate because the researcher was seeking to identify the differences between Title I and non-Title I teachers' perceptions of burnout. The researcher compared two independent variables, public Title I and non-Title I schools and the impact of those variables on teacher burnout's three dependent variables of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment based on teachers' self-reported survey responses. The two groups were also evaluated for an overall level of burnout. The researcher utilized the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES) developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) to determine the levels of teacher burnout.

Significance of the Study

The goal of this study was to add to the body of information concerning how Title I, and non-Title I teachers perceive the work they do. Another goal of this study was to increase the level of knowledge and understanding of specific groups of teachers in relation to burnout. Garcia (2011) states that the significance of studies like this is to provide findings that may be used to help policymakers make decisions that work to encourage teachers to stay in the profession (Garcia, 2011).

The development of educational communities requires teachers and administrators to join forces, clarify goals, and strategize ways to meet those goals (Beabout, 2012). The process of school reform is multifaceted. It involves changes to the cultural and academic fabric of the school and must be conducted with the human perspective in mind (Norman, 2011). There needs to be a level of trust in teachers' professional abilities to meet the challenges in schools (Beabout, 2012).

Teachers have been given the task of creating positive learning environments that provide students with safety, order, and experiences that meet educational mandates (Oakes et al., 2013). Teachers need healthy work environments that enable them to perform their duties to the best of their abilities (Brouwers, Tomic, & Boluijt, 2011), maintain good health (Brown, 2012), and implement successful educational reform, because that is the work of teachers (Norman, 2011). Teachers' perceptions of the balance between work demands and their resources has a direct bearing on their stress levels (O'Donnell et at., 2008). Teachers' temperaments and caring attitudes make them prime candidates for emotional stress that can result from teaching so many for so long, especially in light of the pressures and changes brought on by school reform (Vanderslice, 2010). Repeated exposure to stressors can negatively affect teachers' mental and physical health. Symptoms of burnout also increase teachers' reactions to stress on the job (Katz, Harris, Abenavoli, Greenburg, & Jennings, 2018). As a result of stress, chronic burnout causes increased teacher absenteeism, ineffective instruction, poor student relations, and high attrition, costing school districts in the United States millions of dollars per year (Rumschlag, 2017).

A study by Hoglund, Klingle, and Hosan (2015) revealed that teacher burnout was one factor that could be used to predict students' academic and social adjustment during the school

year. They also found that ethnic diversity combined with teacher burnout was predictive of a slower growth in the quality and instruction in the classroom that is directly related to improved academic skills and teacher-student relationships. Vernanza (2012) studied Title I teachers' perceptions of accountability and found that for successful accountability there is an urgent need for research that provides an understanding of the perspectives of Title I teachers across the nation. The researcher stated that giving Title I teachers a voice gives them ownership of the policies in place for improving student achievement (Vernanza, 2012).

By comparing Title I and non-Title I teachers' perceptions of burnout, the researcher sought to delineate any differences in teacher burnout between the two types of schools. The results of this study will help inform administrators and policy makers of the need to better prepare teachers in all environments for the challenges they will face and may show that some settings require additional teacher supports for the good of the schools and the students in them.

Research Question

The following research question was proposed:

RQ1: Is there a difference in teachers' perception of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) between Title I and non-Title I school teachers in an urban school district in Virginia?

Definitions

1. *Burnout* - Burnout has been defined as being emotionally drained, having a negative, callous attitude, and a declination in feelings of competency and accomplishment (Moreno, Bordas, Lopez, Peracho, Lopez, DeMiguel, & Vazquez, 2010).
2. *Depersonalization* – Depersonalization occurs when one doubts the importance of his or her work or its contribution to anything of value (Wu, Liu, Gao, Wang, & Wang, 2013).

3. *Emotional exhaustion* – Emotional exhaustion is defined as feeling emotionally overwhelmed by work conditions (Wu et al., 2013).
4. *Personal accomplishment* – Personal accomplishment is a sense of accomplishment relating to one's work (Wu et al., 2013).
5. *Teacher burnout* – Teacher burnout is a syndrome involving feelings of tiredness, depersonalization, and a perceived lack of ability to effectively educate students. (Maslach et al., 1996).
6. *Title I Schools* – Title I Schools have large percentages of children from economically disadvantaged families. The schools receive federal funding designed to help students meet state academic standards (U. S. Department of Education, 2004).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The following is an exploration of teacher burnout. The review includes an explanation of the theories related to burnout and how those theories have been used to identify burnout within the teaching profession. The roles of legislation and school reforms, as well as environmental concerns that are apparent in the profession are identified as contributors to teacher burnout. The primary goals of the literature review are to clarify the reasons why teachers experience burnout, how burnout affects teachers, the consequences of teacher burnout, and the issues that are specific to Title I schools.

Theoretical Framework

Burnout became recognized as a topic of cultural discourse that was deemed important enough in its commonality to interest researchers and practitioners. Although the concept originated in America, over time, the recognition of burnout took on a global significance, becoming an established subject in academia. Examinations of helping-professions took on a new acceptation, and theories developed concerning emotions, symptoms, and relationships (Schaufeli, Leiter, & Maslach, 2009).

This study is based on several theoretical frameworks. Freudenberger (1974, 1975) first conceptualized burnout as a manifestation of symptoms that vary from person to person and at their worst, can render a person inoperative. Later, Cherniss (1980) worked to identify stages of burnout. Researchers Freudenberger (1974, 1975) and Maslach (1976) found that burnout was frequently associated with human services professions where workers feel internal and external pressure to work, help, give, and give more. Maslach and Jackson (1981) noted a significant relationship between work organizations and stress.

Freudenberger and Burnout

Burnout originated as a descriptive term for the effect of long-term drug use (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Freudenberger (1974) as a consulting psychiatrist noted that volunteers at St. Mark's Free Clinic in New York exhibited characteristics that were remarkably similar. These included: feelings of emotional overextension, motivational loss, and discounted commitment (Schaufeli et al., 2009). To compensate for feelings of inadequacy, Freudenberger (1974) found that workers in the throes of burnout became engaged in a cyclical pattern of working harder, increasing frustration, and finally exhaustion. Freudenberger (1975) noted that these displays were similar to the way an addict behaved following excessive substance abuse, meaning that the phenomenon is not unique to the helping professions.

Freudenberger (1975) found that within the human service community, the individual faces several battlefronts: societal ills, the needs of the recipients of service, and the needs that are based on the caregiver's unique personality. Symptoms and degrees of burnout vary but often begin after the first year of service. Committed workers have a tendency towards doing too much for protracted lengths of time and doing it with too much fervor. This intensity traps the individual who is attempting to satisfy internal and external pressures to perform. The situation can escalate if the worker is under the direction of leadership who eye their own path to success as materializing through increased efforts of the worker. This steers the dedicated worker to experience feelings of guilt and a push to do more in order to thwart the flow of demands. Thus, the committed worker eventually feels frustration, becomes cynical, and ironically, effectiveness declines (Freudenberger, 1975).

Freudenberger (1975) noted behavioral, psychological, and physical signs that indicate burnout syndrome. Inactivity, hopelessness, futility, the inability to temper responses to events,

anger, paranoia, and increased risk-taking behavior can lead to the medicating of symptoms under a mistaken belief that they can cure these symptoms of burnout. Often burnout leads to rigid thinking and reluctance to engage in changes within an institution. Negativity may be expressed openly and quickly. As burnout increases, the worker spends more time accomplishing less and is usually adamant that assistance is not required (Freudenberger, 1974).

Freudenberger's credibility in the field of burnout research increased following his own two bouts of burnout. At the 1999 American Psychological Association (APA) Convention in Boston, he was the recipient of the Gold Medal Award for Life Achievement for his work on the theory of burnout, inspiring other researchers to explore the phenomenon (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

Cherniss's Three Stages of Burnout

Cherniss (1980) was one of the early pioneers in burnout research in the human services field. He defined burnout as an evolution that changes a person's attitudes and behaviors from experiencing stress at work. He suggested that burnout resulted from a transactional imbalance between the resources of the giver and the needs of the recipient. Cherniss' (1980) theory identified 3 stages of burnout in the transactional process: stress, strain, and defensive coping.

According to Cherniss (1980) the first stage of burnout is stress, which occurs when a person perceives that the demands of the job exceed their ability to meet those demands. If the individual's coping skills are inadequate to meet the demands of their work, stress is induced. This perception of inadequacy leads to negative emotional responses. Strain, the second stage is indicated by increases in anxiety, fatigue, and exhaustion. The worker experiences tension during this emotionally-responsive phase. The last stage, defensive coping, is characterized by an increased focus on personal problems that may be overwhelming, causing a psychological withdrawal from the circumstance. Additionally, the individual will experience changes in

attitudes and behavior that may result in depersonalization and maltreatment of their clients (Cherniss, 1980).

Maslach and Jackson

Maslach (1982) extensively researched burnout concluding it was a syndrome that primarily affects people who work with people. He identified three themes related to burnout: painful and draining emotional experiences, cynical attitudes towards recipients of service, and a suffering of personal competence. Maslach and Jackson (1981) identified three psychological constructs of burnout in teachers: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a reduction in personal accomplishment.

According to Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996), when workers feel overwhelmed by their emotions, they turn negative, creating an emotional response to stress that is emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion has been described as "… the individual stress response…" (Maslach, 2003a, p. 1). Workers are responding to their emotional involvement and attachment during this emotional overload. They have become overly involved emotionally with the people they are helping. There is a feeling of tiredness, and the energy level seems drained with no way to replenish their energy. This leads to feelings of being unable to help the people they are there to serve (Maslach, 2003a).

Depersonalization is a negative behavioral response involving interactions with the people they serve (Maslach et al., 1996). Depersonalization is related to cynicism. It follows emotional exhaustion and occurs when workers begin to experience hostility and detachment toward their clients. Dehumanized responses and feelings of wanting to be left alone replace the initial friendliness and helpfulness that clients were accustomed to experiencing. In the educational setting, students may be confused by these strong fluctuations in the teacher's

demeanor towards them (Maslach, 2003a).

Low personal achievement follows perceptions of mismatched goals and experiences (Maslach et al., 1996). According to Maslach (2003a), reduced personal accomplishment is akin to inefficacy. This third aspect of burnout occurs when workers begin to view their own contributions in a negative, unhealthy light. Often, they start to see themselves as uncaring, cold, and mean. They become overwhelmed with feelings that they are failures and that they are ill fitted for the type of work they are in. They may experience guilt in response to their poor opinion and treatment of others. Some find themselves seeking therapeutic answers for distress, depression, and the low self-esteem that they believe are personal problems. Others may terminate their employment and seek work in fields with limited human contact (Maslach, 2003a).

Maslach and Jackson (1981) operationalized the measurement of burnout by collaborating and constructing an instrument to measure burnout: the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Further research led to the development of additional versions of the *MBI* to address burnout in diverse working environments. This included the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) for the educational sector. According to Maslach et al. (2001), Maslach's theoretical framework of burnout remains predominant in the field of burnout research, and the MBI is the only instrument that assesses emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment.

How the Theories Relate to the Study

There has been great interest in the topic of burnout in helping professions since the early articles by Freudenberger (Aronsson et al., 2017). Cherniss's Three Stages of Burnout identified clinical symptoms found in workers diagnosed with the syndrome (Cherniss, 1980). Later,

Maslach (1982) expanded the study of burnout and how it manifested in the emotions of workers. (Aronsson et al., 2017). Maslach and Jackson (1981) specifically studied burnout in certain professions, including teaching. By statistically comparing responses to the MBI-ES by Title I and non-Title I teachers, this study seeks to extend these theories by applying them to two sub groups within the population of teachers and discovering the degree and magnitude of the three elements of teacher burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a reduction in personal accomplishment. The researcher will identify any significance in the findings that validates that one group experiences burnout differently relative to the population they serve.

Related Literature

Burnout at Work

According to Schaufeli et al. (2009), the concept of work-related burnout came to the forefront in literature during the 1970's. Its significance in human service occupations followed 1960's idealism of serving the country with the intent of eliminating poverty and the social problems that accompany it. Disillusionment occurred with the realization that there was not a simple fix for helping people out of their economic woes. Those who had seen themselves as having a personal mission to do so found themselves struggling with their identities and suffering the effects of burnout.

The study of burnout entered a quantitative stage during the 1980's. At that time, measuring burnout and its effects became important. Burnout came to be identified as a type of work-related stress that led to employee turnover and of particular interest, was how it affected teachers. By the 1990's, burnout syndrome had taken on new dimensions. Analysis of organizational relationships and their complexities spurred interest in identifying the factors that

contribute to burnout while acknowledging that it was the result of certain interactions in the workplace (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

In *Beyond Burnout*, Cherniss (1995) cited problems that plague professionals in education and other helping professions as often the result of a collision of ideals with reality. Enthusiastic workers at the onset sometimes have unrealistic expectations and media-enhanced views of their job roles. A lack of support from colleagues and inadequate preparation for the real-life frustrations they would experience leads to increasing levels of disillusionment and stress. It is a bureaucratic battle between the professionals and a system that is at odds with compassion and effectiveness that for many leads to burnout (Cherniss, 1995).

Schaufeli et al., (2009) likened the metaphor of burnout to a fire that diminishes without oxygen and fuel. If affected by burnout, workers lose their ability to burn brightly, and their potential to make a meaningful impact through their contributions at work can be compromised (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Both Freudenberger (1974) and Maslach (1976) agreed that burnout was the byproduct of accelerated transformations in social relationships, and their theories have persisted well into the twenty-first century. It has become apparent that as the demands increase, the groups that have been the most affected by burnout include teachers (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

Teacher Burnout and Retention

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics, 10% of teachers leave the profession after their first year of employment. The number increases to 12% after their second year, 15% after 3 years, and 17% after 4 years (Gray & Taie, 2015). The results of a three-year longitudinal study by Lloyd and Sullivan (2012) indicated that teachers leave because of burnout, despite being highly qualified. The researchers found that factors contributing to burnout

included working with students who were challenging and disrespectful and feeling undervalued by parents and administrators.

Teacher turnover is alarmingly, high and the negative consequences it generates profoundly affect school districts (Shernoff, Maríñez-Lora, Frazier, Jakobsons, Atkins, & Bonner, 2011). According to Santoro (2011), while prior research has focused only on teachers' individual abilities to meet the challenges of education, in the past decade researchers have also turned their attention to how teacher attrition is related to the quality and practice of teaching. Good work in the case of teachers isn't just about teachers' dispositions. It includes work environments that are structured to allow it.

Teaching Environment and Burnout

Teaching has a reputation for wearing on the emotions and disheartening those who have elected to experience it. However, coping is less difficult for teachers who have a strong sense of self and are sure of their abilities (O'Donnell et al., 2008). Teachers are often characterized as caring individuals. While this serves to enhance student learning it also makes teachers more susceptible to burnout (Vanderslice, 2010). Too often teachers are held accountable for social and systemic problems within a school district (Santoro, 2011).

Teachers who feel satisfied in their positions stay in the profession longer, bring more energy to the classroom, and experience less burnout (Viel-Ruma, Houchins, Jolivette, & Benson, 2010). The likelihood of staying in the profession, being satisfied with the work, and having an impact on student learning is contingent on good school leadership and on a positive school climate (Vanderslice, 2010). Bayani, Bagheri, and Bayani (2013) found that how teachers perceive their school climate is associated with burnout and that their levels of self-esteem and self-efficacy are predictors of burnout.

In a study of organizational citizenship and burnout, Inandi and Buyukozkon (2013) found that supported teachers feel emotionally comfortable leading to a reduction in burnout. Organizational citizenship, or the will to work in lieu of expected rewards, is an aspect of the work environment and involves willingness on the part of participants to create a positive environment for the good of the organization. This positivity leads to behaviors that increase teacher efficiency, and the students reap the rewards.

However, Winstead (2011) found that when teachers find themselves in decaying school buildings with limited resources and a built-in reputation as working in a failing school, their abilities are devalued. Curriculum restraints brought on by accountability only exacerbate their feelings of inadequacy (Winstead, 2011). Increasingly, teachers are discovering that the job security they anticipated in the profession is decreased by the increase in accountability (Datnow, 2012; Dworkin et al., 2014). Low pay, student behavior, and a lack of support or voice in decision-making, have been associated with teacher shortages and attrition (Ingersoll, 2001; O'Donnell et al., 2008). Altunoglu and Sarpkaya (2012) found that teachers who had the job security of tenure were least affected by pressure, stress, and the insecurity of possibly losing their positions. Contrarily, O'Brennan, Pas, & Bradshaw (2017) hold that teacher burnout is linked to several factors including connectedness, safety, and self-efficacy.

Educational Reform

School reform began in earnest during the Civil Rights Movement of the 1970's. In the 1980's, the revelation that students in other nations were out performing American students led to intensified school reform (Thornburg & Mungai, 2011). In 1981, U.S. Secretary of Education Terrell Howard Bell created the National Commission on Excellence in Education (NCEE). After an 18-month study, the NCEE (1983) drafted a report that outlined the problems affecting

American education. According to Ravitch (2010), the report was alarming and set off a firestorm of concern that the future of the nation was in dire straits due to the erosion of the public educational system. The NCEE provided solutions to the crisis through reforms that would strengthen curriculum; set graduation requirements for postsecondary or workplace readiness; establish college entrance requirements; improve textbook and test quality; increase instructional time; set a higher bar for new teacher candidates; and increase teacher compensation (Ravitch, 2010).

A Nation at Risk was not a legal mandate, so following its recommendations was an option for leaders at the state and district levels. Those who attempted to follow the report's recommendations found themselves in disagreement about the standards being taught and eventually retreated to the use of standardized testing for basic skills, which they viewed as a safety net. The testing proved to be a poor substitute for a thorough program of curriculum and assessments (Ravitch, 2010). Ravitch (2010) maintains that this left the educational system with no curricular goals, dumbed-down tests, and lower standards.

Reform legislation. The Goals 2000: Educate America Act (P.L. 103-227) was introduced in 1994 by the Clinton Administration giving states federal funds to be used for creating state standards (Ravitch, 2010). The legislation identified eight national educational goals pertaining to school readiness and completion. Improvements in achievement, citizenship, teacher education, science and math, adult reading skills, safe schools, and parental involvement were targeted for completion by the year 2000 (Earley, 1994).

In the 1990's, reforms were centered on the belief that teachers could improve education if they were free to do so. The idea was initially popular, but eventually was proven untrue because it did not reconcile the efforts of the teachers within the context of the larger educational

environment (Datnow, 2012). The teacher-empowered reforms did little to close the achievement gap (Thornburg & Mungai, 2011).

When George W. Bush was elected president in 2000, he made educational reform a top priority. No Child Left Behind (NCLB) meshed with Goals 2000 in leaving the testing and standards to the states. NCLB changed the way it evaluated public school success in 2002 by mandating state reports of test scores for students in grades three through eight and tied funding to test scores (Ravitch, 2010, 2013). Additional funds were allocated to schools that showed high-performance on standardized tests and appropriate student gains, while lower-performing schools received less and therefore had less to spend on support and resources (Winstead, 2011).

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and more recently, President Obama's 2008 Race to the Top (RTTT) initiatives have increased accountability among teachers and schools (Dworkin & Tobe, 2014). According to the U.S. Department of Education (2014), RTTT is a competitive grant program to help states advance reforms in standards and assessments, and create databases related to testing, teacher retention, and low-performing school improvement. It allocated billions of dollars to schools choosing to participate in the program (Ravitch, 2013).

The changes, required of RTTT participants, were met with resistance by those who thought they would erode education. Additionally, states accepted the changes without an eye towards those who would be most impacted and without addressing the repercussions of the selection process to receive funds (Houigan, 2011). Two of the changes required by RTTT included the adoption of new standards of education and the implementation of new teacher evaluations (Ravitch, 2013).

While teacher evaluations have been used for decades (Xu, Grant, & Ward, 2016), stakeholders have come to view teacher evaluations as a way to hold individual teachers

accountable for school and student increases in performance. This increased attention to teacher evaluations has intensified as RTTT requirements dictated participation as part of the federal program, which in turn is directly linked to school funding. Districts developed the criteria for these evaluations at the local level, electing to use peer and/or administrator evaluations. Many RTTT states have adopted evaluations that use "value-added" student achievement as half of a teacher's evaluation. The remaining scoring is based on the teacher's professionalism and classroom practice. By measuring teachers' "value-added" contributions to student achievement, the tool can be used to reward teachers and may also be used to make decisions about their employment (Harris, Ingle, & Rutledge, 2014).

School reform under NCLB has focused on low-performing schools (Balfanz et al., 2007). More recent reforms, including Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015 (ESSA) continue to place the burden of school improvement primarily on educators (Xu, et al., 2016). While reforms are intended to provide rich and engaging instruction, they can also limit the moral rewards teachers experience as part of their work. Burnout occurs when teachers' personal resources cannot meet the challenges presented on the job (Santoro, 2011).

The passage of the Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015 (ESSA) has shifted the burden of substantiating school improvement away from the United States Department of Education to the state level. As of the 2017-2018 school year, states began having their policies to increase student outcomes reviewed by the Department of Education. Under ESSA the priority continues to be based on assessments for both students and teachers (Xu, et al., 2016). Successful interventions must be evidence-based when states report back to the Department of Education. According to Klein (2016), ESSA will continue to require states to specifically target low performing schools and schools with subgroups that need additional resources to increase student

achievement, and it does not change the existing structure of Title I funding for schools. Polikoff (2017) stresses that ESSA allows states to home in on policies and measures that will improve testing and take into account the characteristics of a school that presents special challenges such as absenteeism and student behavior.

Although Polikoff (2017) believes that NCLB interventions were for the most part ineffective, he still feels that school reform has been successful in making genuine improvements to the scope of education, by increasing teacher accountability, educational choices, and access to early childhood education. In his view, eliminating school reform would have devastating consequences. Overall, school reform has been a trial and error process attempting to level the playing field for every student regardless of his or her socioeconomic status. Ravitch (2013) notes that there are two views on poor schooling and poor academic performance: ending poverty first or fixing schools first to end poverty. In the face of an unrealistic choice, the educational system has attempted to do both, leaving the system without an easy solution and fueling the banter in political circles.

Title I. For nearly 50 years, the United States government has been working to close an achievement gap in the educational system. Student performance inequities have been categorized by socioeconomic status (SES), race, ethnicity and gender (Webb and Thomas, 2015). According to the U.S. Department of Education (2015), the federal government has addressed the issue by providing additional funds to school districts for resources to assist high poverty, low-performing students.

The Title I program is designed to help all students achieve academic success and is one of the largest federal programs for school improvement. Originally established in 1965, the

program was rewritten in 1994 to harmonize with the guidelines of NCLB (2002). Program funds are allocated to schools for services for students who are high poverty and at risk of failing (Center on Education Policy, 2011; Kress, Zechmann, & Schmitten, 2012; O'Donnell, Lambert, & McCarthy, 2008; U.S. Department of Education, 2004). According to the Center on Education Policy (2011), providing fairness and equality in education are the goals of Title I legislation. It also provides assurances that all children will have access to an excellent education that helps them reach their state's achievement standards and demonstrate their proficiency on state mandated assessments (Center on Education Policy, 2011).

The U.S. Department of Education (2004) determines that to be eligible for Title I funding, a school's population must include 40% or more enrolled in the free or reduced lunch program. Enrollment in the lunch program is contingent on low-income household status. Students classified as at-risk include students who are homeless, disabled, neglected, delinquent, migrant, or have limited English proficiency. Other possible criteria for the at-risk classification include high absenteeism, residence in a single-parent home, low academic performance, or low income. Delegation of funds is left to the school administrators. Funds are often used for curriculum, tutoring, resources, staffing, family service programs, and counseling (U.S. Department of Education, 2004).

According to NCLB (2001), to maintain Title I funding, schools must also make adequate yearly progress (AYP) on state testing. Failure to make AYP for two consecutive years, earns a designation of a "needs improvement school". Enrollment in a needs improvement school gives students the option to transfer to another Title I school that has met AYP, until their designated school makes adequate progress. In this way, Title I maintains accountability on the part of

states, districts, and schools for implementing standards-based education (U.S. Department of Education, 2004).

Beginning in 2014, states were able to apply for Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) flexibility through the U.S. Department of Education. ESEA flexibility is applied to some requirements of NCLB (2001) allowing districts to utilize state education plans to close achievement gaps and improve instruction and outcomes (ESEA Flexibility, 2012). According to the U.S. Department of Education (2004), the success of the Title I program has mixed reviews with some suggesting that it is indeed closing the achievement gap, while others found that the effect of the program and the billions of dollars spent may be temporary at best. Deke, Drogoset, Bogen, and Gill (2012) interpreted the success or failure of the Title I Program for the U.S. government. One of the offerings for selection by parents of low-income students in low-income schools that have not made AYP for three consecutive years is Supplemental Educational Services (SES). The services can include tutoring or additional academic support. Although SES is widespread, in 2010 the Department of Education concluded that other interventions could replace funding SES following evaluation of the schools' data and the implementation of appropriate interventions. It had become evident that the SES funding had not addressed the academic needs of many students (Deke, Drogoset, Bogen, and Gill, 2012).

In a study that examined relationships between educational resources and achievement in Title I and non-Title I schools, Jimenez-Castellanous (2010) found that students in Title I schools face other disadvantages compared with students in non-Title I schools. Title I schools do receive additional funding; however, there is evidence that non-Title I schools may have the economic advantage for school improvements from monies received through parent organizations, private donations, and through partnerships with local businesses. The study

suggests that funding that is available to Title I schools is not always used to increase student outcomes and the funding was actually found to have a significantly negative correlation to achievement.

Jimenez-Castellanos (2010) found that fewer teachers seek employment in Title I schools; the rate of teacher turnover is higher; and teachers are usually deemed an inheritance from another school. Non-Title I administrators reported very different hiring and retention scenarios indicative of the ability to recruit and keep the most desirable candidates. They also indicated higher academic success as a result. The higher turnover rate suggests that these teacher stayers may not be as effective as teachers found in non-Title I schools (Jimenez-Castellanos, 2010). Often, low performance is attributed to the teachers at low-income schools, adding fuel to the problem of teacher attrition (Santoro, 2011).

Title I and school reform in Virginia. Virginia Title I schools have been tasked with improving the academic achievement of disadvantaged populations (VDOE, 2015). Since the passage of NCLB in 2001, the state of Virginia has made changes to school reforms to address the needs of struggling schools. Strategies include identification and best practice implementation of interventions at the district level (VDOE, 2017).

In 2003, the Partnership for Achieving Successful Schools (PASS) was created. It became a nationally-recognized initiative for effective interventions in high poverty schools in Virginia. Although it has undergone adjustments, it continues to provide technical assistance and service to the State's historically low performing schools while recognizing needs that are unique to each school (VDOE, 2017).

In June 2012, the state of Virginia accepted flexibility waivers from the United States Department of Education from participation in several specific requirements of NCLB,

significantly impacting Title I schools. The Virginia Department of Education (VDOE) was allowed to develop the state's own objectives for education called Annual Measurable Objectives (AMO) as a part of its transition to ESSA. The emphasis on closing the achievement gaps in reading and mathematics between low and high performing schools remained the focus, as it had been under NCLB (VDOE, 2017). The assessments used for determining school status are based on Virginia's Standards of Learning (SOL). The SOL was developed in the mid 1990's to address a significant decline by Virginia students on national assessments. In the following years, the SOL has been revised, as have the assessments used to establish proficiency in Title I schools (VDOE: SOL, 2017).

To classify Title I schools in need of additional support, the VDOE assigned categories of Reward, Priority or Focus schools. Reward schools have reached academic milestones and are recognized by the State for their achievements. Priority and Focus schools have not met or maintained assigned benchmarks in reading and/or math within three Gap Groups. Group 1 includes students with disabilities, English Language Learners (ELL), and those who are economically disadvantaged. Gap Group 2 comprises African American students, including those who have disabilities, ELL, and economically disadvantaged students. Gap Group 3 includes Hispanic students, including students with disabilities, ELL, and economically disadvantaged students (VDOE: Focus schools, 2017).

Title I schools are designated as a Priority school if one or more Gap Groups have failing scores in reading or mathematics assessments or a participation rate below a 95% threshold. In Focus schools a state-approved coach regulates the creation and implementation of the intervention model designed to improve at-risk student performance. The criteria used for determining how a school will exit Priority school status vary, but all include a three-year

intervention model selected for the school. The first, Criterion A applies to schools that received School Improvement Grant (SIG) funds under Section 1003(g) of ESEA in either Federal Fiscal Year 2009 or 2010 and has been identified and served as a Tier I or Tier II school based on a system of supports. These schools will exit Priority status after completion of the selected intervention model. Criterion B applies to Title I high schools with a federal graduation indicator at or below 60 percent for the last two years. To exit Priority status, these schools must reduce the number of students who do not earn a diploma by 10 percent in a four-year period for two consecutive years. Criterion C is based on the performance of the entire student body in a Title I school in meeting federal math and reading Annual Measurable Objectives (AMO). To exit Priority, all of the students in the school must meet the AMOs for two years consecutively. Lastly, Criterion D refers to Title I schools that fail to meet a 95 percent participation rate for three consecutive years in reading and/or math. To exit Priority, these schools must meet the required participation rate for two years (VDOE: Priority schools, 2017). While designation as a Priority school means that the school must create a state-approved school improvement model that is overseen by a state approved turn-around partner, Focus Schools receive more intense attention. Identification as a Focus school is percentage based on the three Gap Groups (VDOE: Focus schools, 2017).

Both designations, Priority and Focus, interfere with the school's accreditation status. The range for accreditation includes not accredited, partially accredited, conditionally accredited, and fully accredited. Within those accreditations there may be adjustments for improvements made in assessment scores for partial accreditation. Partial accreditation can be awarded based on a school's ability to approach benchmarks or the Graduation Completion Index (GCI), by improving benchmarks or GCI, or is given with warnings. A Warned School Pass Rate is based

on that school's scores not showing adequate progress towards a narrow margin. A partial accreditation of Warned School-GCI is determined when high school students have achieved an adjusted SOL pass rate but not made enough progress. Partial accreditation: Reconstituted School designation results if a school fails to meet full accreditation for four consecutive years and is given a time limit to reach accreditation. Without improvement, the school will be placed in accreditation denied status. If accreditation is denied, the school must inform the parents of the students they serve of the status and provide an outline of a VDOE approved action plan for the school (VDOE: Accountability Guide, 2018).

Reform efforts fall heavily on teachers (Winstead, 2011). Byrd-Blake, Afolayan, Hunt, Fabunmi, Pryor, and Leander (2010) studied the effect of NCLB on middle and high school teacher morale and found that it contributed to a significant decline over the span of five years. The added attention from the VDOE for Title I schools to determine status and make improvements may contribute to the problem of retaining and hiring teachers to staff the schools (Bryd-Blake et al., 2010), and the increased emphasis on improving student achievement has been shown to correlate with one component of teacher burnout, emotional exhaustion (Klusmann, Richter, & Lüdtke, 2016).

Reform and teacher burnout. While reforms are intended to provide rich and engaging instruction, they can also limit the moral rewards teachers experience as part of their work. Burnout occurs when teachers' personal resources cannot meet the challenges presented on the job (Santoro, 2011). According to the *Phi Delta Kappan* (2011), the movement to lower achievement gaps between high and low poverty schools may be complicated by teacher burnout. Further, if teacher attrition is related to burnout it is important for policymakers to compare the dimensions of burnout between Title I and non-Title I schoolteachers. The Alliance

for Excellent Education (2014) identifies the teaching profession as a revolving door that costs the United States nearly $2.2 billion dollars annually (Phillips, 2015).

While professional crisis is not unique to education, it would appear that teaching is experiencing a quandary now where the blame for low-performing schools rests squarely on the shoulders of individual teachers. Most often low-performance is assumed to be an ongoing issue for teachers in Title I schools (Santoro, 2011). Despite implementation to improve schools, several studies have linked educational reform efforts to teacher burnout (Dworkin et al., 2014; Santoro, 2011).

Reforms including NCLB and RTTT have placed higher demands on teachers by holding them accountable for increases in test scores. Dworkin et al. (2014) researched teacher burnout levels and found that the levels increased as teachers prepared for the expectations of NCLB between 2001 and 2002. Not only has this accountability resulted in teachers reporting higher stress levels; it is minimizing their perceived value to teaching (Dworkin et al., 2014; Winstead, 2011).

Teachers in low-performing schools must meet subject-area standards and engage in frequent staff development in benchmark-related subjects. NCLB leaves little room for creative endeavors that extend beyond prescribed instruction and instead favors focused instruction in language arts to the detriment of other subject areas (Winstead, 2011). Teachers continue to face increasing pressure to improve student performance on standardized tests. Policies often focus on the issue as a problem to be solved by teachers in isolation (Datnow, 2012). The all or nothing approach to educational funding leaves many schools and teachers feeling woefully deficient (Ravitch, 2013).

However, Grissom et al. (2014) used a comparison of the survey results from 140,000 teachers from four editions of the Schools and Staffing Survey, from 1994 to 2008, to estimate the effects of NCLB on teacher's attitudes and work environments. At the onset, they presupposed that because educational change is often met with ambivalence, school reform would unintentionally increase teachers' pressure to perform. Following their research, it remains unclear if the concerns indeed came to fruition. The study did reveal some decline in teacher cooperation. There was evidence that since implementation of the reform, teacher work hours have increased, lessening the desirability of the profession. A positive indicator was that teachers felt more in control of their classrooms and perceived parents, peers, and administrators as more supportive; however, these perceptions may be the result of other policy changes besides NCLB. Overall, the study did not overwhelmingly attribute NCLB to the significant changes in work satisfaction and teacher commitment over the time period as the teachers surveyed were from a mixture of schools, some having already experienced systems related to accountability. Also, limitations of the study include the inability to assess pre-NCLB in only one year of surveys. Full implementation of the law had just recently taken place so the impact over time could not yet be measured (Grissom et al., 2014). Other considerations include that the survey does not follow up on teachers who have left the profession and the effects of newer legislation for school improvement.

Reforms since NCLB are impacting how teachers perceive their positions. According to Greene (2017), the educational goals established by the federal government fail to take into account the sundry issues faced by individual schools and their teachers. This centralized planning, using a finite set of metrics to evaluate goal completion at the behest of a loss of

funding, failed in the Soviet Union and doesn't seem to work in the United States either (Greene, 2017).

Greene (2017) maintains that assessment-based accountability in the areas of math and reading has produced a decline in other subject areas, causing teachers to narrow their focus and possibly thwart students' academic success in the future. This tunnel vision of what defines academic success and how it is measured, forces teachers to sacrifice challenges to high achievers, and it diverts attention away from students who are deemed unlikely to succeed, even with interventions. Concentrating on math and reading goals that are adequate for the workplace neglects to address the life lessons that are necessary to produce good citizens (Greene, 2017). For many educators this violates the values and ethics they thought they would instill in students when they became teachers.

Teachers are conflicted by their duties to families, coworkers, and local and government administrations. They are required to work within current educational reforms that leave them subject to public approval (Steinberger & Magen-Nagar, 2017). Beginning teachers who deem themselves to be ready for the challenges of their careers may be less inclined to experience burnout (O'Brennan, et al., 2017). However, the divide between achieving what determines student proficiency and the role of the educator has led teachers to denigrate high-stakes testing. In some cases, the desire to meet accountability goals has led educators to use fraudulent means to reach them (Greene, 2017). In a 2014 survey conducted by the National Education Association (NEA), 72% of teachers experienced moderate to severe pressure to increase test scores (Walker, 2014). According to Rumschlag (2017), teachers may not know what they need to change to improve test scores. It is difficult to remain dedicated and passionate in a field where they doubt their ability to be successful and maintain a sense of personal accomplishment.

Burnout can result when teachers lack these positive feelings about their work (Rumschlag, 2017).

How burnout affects teachers and schools. The overall educational picture is of a system in decline with teachers on the receiving end of increasing workloads and simultaneous interaction with numerous stakeholders, including parents, colleagues and administrators (Aloe et al., 2014). According to Rumschlag (2017), disheartened teachers feel that their opinions are ignored in the school environment, contributing to teacher burnout. To the detriment of student learning, those facing burnout are more likely to have higher rates of absenteeism and instruct students less effectively (Rumschlag, 2017).

Teacher burnout can manifest in teachers' abilities to cope, occupational stress, dissatisfaction with the position (Chenevey, Ewing, & Whittington, 2008) and inclination to exit the profession (O'Brennan, et al., 2017). Kitchel, Smith, Henry, Robinson, Lawver, Park, and Schell (2012) cite moving from job to job as symptomatic of burnout. Yet, O'Donnell et al. (2008) suggested that sometimes a new teaching environment has a renewing effect on a teacher's outlook (O'Donnell et al, 2008).

In a study of school organizational climate and burnout among Korean teachers, Lim and Eo (2014) found that burnout was associated with a negative school climate including the inability to have meaningful dialog with coworkers and high incidences of school politics. Freudenberger (1974, 1975) stated that in the case of human service professions like teaching, unrewarding relationships on the job led to fatigue and frustration. Dworkin et al. (2014) found that although it was not a cure for burnout, burnout levels for teachers did decrease as the strength of their relationships increased.

In a study of teachers' performance trajectory differences between high- and low-poverty schools, Xu, Ozek, and Hansen (2014) found that teachers in high-poverty schools may be learning their craft at slower rates. One possibility is that the teachers' energies are concentrated more in the areas of student support and discipline. Another consideration may be that internal district teacher movement places experienced but under-productive teachers in high-poverty schools. The study suggests that the concentration of low-performing teachers in low-income schools may be attributed to movement and attrition (Xu et al., 2014) that is often an outgrowth of teacher burnout (O'Brennan, et al., 2017).

Altunoglu and Sarpkaya (2012) found that variables associated with burnout are related to teachers' intentions to leave the profession. Teachers are motivated to leave based on intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions of their working conditions. The most significant relationship they found was between teachers' levels of emotional exhaustion and their intent to leave.

Kitchel et al. (2012) discovered that the majority of research verifies a relationship between job satisfaction and teaching longevity. The degree of stress teachers endure on the job is an important emotional element. Long hours, unsatisfying interactions with others, and unequal resources for the demands, increase stress and the likelihood of burnout. Teachers are known to engage in frequent self-comparisons of themselves to others. If viewed negatively, these comparisons may contribute to burnout, especially if the individual holds the mindset that the exertions performed to do a job well are related to upward mobility (Kitchel et al., 2012). Personal accomplishment, as it relates to teachers' perceptions of student achievement, is one of the three subscales of the MBI-ES (Maslach et al., 1996).

The MBI-ES also measures emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion is often described as feeling tired, fatigued, or drained of emotional energies (Maslach et al., 1996). Like

other human service professions, teachers are exposed to a great deal of emotional stress from dealing with day-to-day emotional issues over a long time span (Vanderslice, 2010). Teachers experience additional stressors including handling behavior problems and larger class sizes. They are also subject to external pressures from parents and administrations and are not ignorant of society's perceptions of them (O'Donnell et al., 2008). It should be noted that the issue of teachers exiting the profession is not necessarily indicative of a lack of professionalism or commitment (Santoro, 2011). The complexities of the profession and a lack of emotional empowerment combine to intensify one variable of burnout, emotional exhaustion (Kitchel et al., 2012).

Burnout Variables

Emotional exhaustion is among a variety of variables that are related to teacher burnout (O'Brennan, et al., 2017). Caglar (2011) found in a study on the burnout levels of teachers that teachers experience differing levels of burnout in accordance with several variables including marital status and gender. Caglar (2011) noted that burnout was less prevalent in married teachers when compared with teachers who were not married. The researcher felt this difference could be connected to having the support of families when faced with challenges on the job. The overall burnout levels and emotional exhaustion levels were also significantly different depending on gender according to Caglar (2011). The researcher held that women's burnout levels were significantly higher and may be attributable to females having other obligations that disrupted the balance of a job and family responsibilities (Caglar, 2011).

Caglar (2011) found that burnout levels were higher in new teachers, but the levels declined as time passed. The researcher explained that the teachers gained experience and became more accepting of their roles. Chenevey, Ewing, and Whittington (2008) reported

similar findings in this area. Conversely, O'Brennan, Pas, and Bradshaw (2017) noted that burnout tended to increase with longevity, and a longitudinal study by Hultell, Melin, and Gustavsson (2013) indicated that the level of burnout often paralleled the trajectory of teaching experience. This variance in findings serves to reinforce the need for additional research (O'Brennan, et al., 2017).

In a study of teacher stress and burnout, McCormick and Barnett (2011) found that students' lack of motivation and problems with discipline predicted teacher burnout. Change (2013) found that teachers' suppression of frustrations from student behavior issues and teachers who reacted strongly to misbehavior reported higher levels of burnout. Often, a lack of experience in handling classroom management precipitates burnout and can be intensified by the educator's own state of physical and mental health (O'Brennan, et al., 2017).

Teachers' levels of burnout were also found to be contingent on personality type. Pishghadam and Sahebjam (2012) studied teacher burnout and personality types. They found that teachers with higher emotional intelligence were linked to lower levels of burnout and that there was a relationship between teacher burnout and personality. Pishghadam and Sahebjam (2012) felt that this was due to the teachers' receptivity of new ideas, stress management, and relationships.

Teacher burnout is also associated with a lack of administrative support. Fernet, Guay, Senécal, and Austin (2012) studied the predictive relationship between the school environment and teacher burnout. They found that the way a principal leads could affect teacher burnout. Principals could decrease emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and they could increase teachers' sense of personal accomplishment. Fernet et al. (2012) also found that changes at the

school were related to teachers' burnout. These changes resulted in teachers experiencing more depersonalization and a lower perception of accomplishment.

Stress

Stress in the workplace is the primary predictor of burnout (Dworkin et al., 2014). Teaching is an emotionally demanding occupation (O'Donnell, Lambert, & McCarthy, 2008). One of the earliest definitions of teacher stress came from Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1977) who described it as a teacher's negative environmental perceptions manifesting in their affect. Teacher stress can be mediated by the individual's own coping process (McCarthy, Lambert, & Reiser, 2014). Society holds teachers and other helpers to extremely high standards that are hard to meet and sustain. If the worker's personal contact with others is unsettling, the level of emotional stress increases (Maslach, 2003).

McCormick and Barnett (2011) noted that teachers felt additional stress if they felt they had failed in some way in their work. Caglar (2011) noted that the problems that cause stress and anxiety leading to burnout are the same problems that cause bad attitudes and the symptoms of burnout that spur teachers into leaving the profession. Kuntz, Naswall, and Bockett (2013) found that stress was often related to discord with administration, students and parents. In a study concerning predictors of teacher stress, job satisfaction, and teaching efficacy, Collie, Shapka, and Perry (2011) found that how teachers perceive student behavior is tied to teacher stress which in turn relates to their job satisfaction. Maslach (2003) maintains that the more effort some students require, and if they have some need for attention, the more often the teacher is trapped between handling the disruption and feeding into it. The added expectation for empathy presents another challenge to understand the students intellectually without becoming emotionally involved.

Shapka and Perry (2011) found that collaboration played a part in stress levels that was both positive and negative, possibly due to teachers viewing collaboration as either helpful or problematic. According to Maslach (2003), interacting with coworkers also drains energy and resources and can sometimes be more problematic than dealing with clients or students. Requests for assistance may be used for retaliation. Some workers feel compelled to isolate themselves from their peers. Work environments may be prone to conflict and relationships become competitive. Trust levels are lowered, and coworker conflicts are often the result of venting frustrations that cannot be released elsewhere.

Maslach (2003) stated that teachers also suffer from current public opinion of the teaching profession. As demanding as the job is itself, a lack of support from outside the school disintegrates a teacher's commitment. Personal criticism blames the teacher for faults found with the institution. Often a lack of understanding about the complexities of the job and the bigger picture of the state of education, spur public outbursts of contempt for teachers who are already struggling to remain in service.

The rapid influx of information and demands results in inadequate time to fully address needs and opens the door for burnout (Maslach, 2003). Collie et al. (2011) found that teacher workloads and teachers' own feelings of effectiveness were linked to their job satisfaction. O'Donnell and Lambert (2008) found that constant exposure to stress can result in behavioral, psychological and physiological responses that are symptomatic of burnout.

Burnout Effects

Teacher burnout is a combination of factors including: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and the self-devaluation of personal accomplishment (Maslach et al., 1996). According to Gold and Roth (2013), these aspects of burnout can have devastating effects for

teachers in their personal and professional lives (Roth, 2013). Maslach (2003) found burnout influences physical and psychological health and also negatively affects students. Teacher to student relationships become skewed by the effects of the syndrome (Maslach, 2003).

Maslach (2003) found that people in helping professions pay a high price for the work they do. The characteristics of burnout often lead to physical and psychological deterioration, making them prone to health-related issues including exhaustion, sleep disturbances, chronic tension, and lingering colds and illnesses. If their eating habits become poor, they become susceptible to psychosomatic symptoms such as neck and back pain or ulcers. Headaches, increased perspiration, and other problems may result in alcoholism and substance abuse, which in turn affects job performance and attendance (Maslach, 2003).

Depression occurs when the worker's self-esteem breaks down (Maslach, 2003). In a self-fulfilling prophecy they may feel so badly about themselves that they perform badly on the job. Blaming themselves for inadequacies leads to self-destructiveness, and while their depression may vary in severity, the disorder is related to self-abuse and suicide, necessitating intervention. Anger responses may be easily provoked and contribute to suspicions and paranoia. Conversely, individuals may convince themselves that they can do no wrong, leading to risky behaviors. Although these symptoms of burnout beg for professional counseling, often people in helping professions are reluctant to seek help (Maslach, 2003).

Burnout affects home life (Maslach, 2003). It can be equally damaging to the worker's personal life. Tensions, tiredness and upsets from the job may accompany the individual home. Their symptoms become problematic for the family who must coexist with the worker. Fights may lead to marital discord and they become unable or unwilling to give to the people they love.

Some may shut down and not share their work concerns with their families. Or worse, they may begin treating their family members like the people they serve (Maslach, 2003).

In addition to the personal price, burnout has a high cost to the people being served (Maslach, 2003). Performance levels decrease, motivation dwindles, and there is rampant disregard for the consequences of their actions. The students may receive less than they need, and their treatment becomes dehumanizing as their relationships become minimized. Burnout and turnover go hand in hand usually following a relationship of about two years. Many take the path into administration where their contact with others is minimized (Maslach, 2003).

Caglar (2011) recommends increasing levels of organizational confidence to lessen the effects of burnout. Communication is key to this endeavor. Collie et al. (2011) maintain that to have teachers meet expectations including student engagement, good classroom management, and effective teaching techniques, they need to feel confident that they can perform their duties. Collie et al. (2011) recommends that schools provide teachers with staff development that targets their needs. Santoro (2011) states that teaching's challenges and the issues faced by educators today present a unique opportunity for exploring the work itself.

Importance of the Study

Studying teacher burnout is important because teachers are visible to the public; they are challenged to remediate social issues and in doing so utilize many resources (Maslach et al., 1996). Burnout is a leading cause of teacher attrition (Vanderslice, 2010). Levels of teacher burnout relate to organizational outcomes and teachers' attitudes about work. There is a need for schools to understand the contributors to burnout (Kuntz, Naswall, & Bockett, 2013).

Further research on the factors that may contribute to burnout among educators is needed, specifically on the relationships between burnout and teaching in Title I and in non-Title I

schools (O'Donnell et al., 2008). The magnitude of the problem of teacher burnout begs for a solution (Akyuz & Kaya, 2014). O'Donnell et al. (2008) studied the stress levels of teachers in Title I schools and compared them with stress levels of teachers in non-Title I schools. They found that there was not a statistically significant relationship between Title I schools and teacher stress but suggested further research into the comparison (O'Donnell et al., 2008).

According to Vanderslice (2010), burnout needs to be addressed to stem the tide of teachers leaving the educational field. Changes in the field and political arena have gradually altered the public perception of teachers, compounding the problem. Teacher attrition comes with a high price, one that can be measured in dollars and one that can't be measured because the effects of the teacher exodus can take a lifetime to reveal. Changing the focus from finding new teachers to keeping those already in place should be a high priority. As districts face budget cuts, they are hard pressed for the huge expenditures necessary to recruit and train new teachers (Vanderslice, 2010). In a study of the achievement gap between high-poverty and low-poverty schools, J. Borg, Borg, and Stranahan (2012) found that students' achievement was positively linked to the years of teacher experience. The Alliance for Excellent Education (2014) report on teacher attrition states that the biggest contributor to student learning is superior teaching, capable of mitigating socioeconomic differences. The report also identifies the gap in access to quality teaching for disadvantaged students as harmful to students and teachers.

This study adds to the body of literature by helping to understand whether teachers who are employed in Title I schools are at higher risk of experiencing burnout when compared to teachers who are employed in non-Title I schools. The results of this study may help to identify factors that contribute to teacher attrition, particularly in Title I schools and will add to the body of literature that may help to keep good teachers teaching.

Summary

Over time, burnout has become a topic of interest for stakeholders in the helping professions. The phenomenon was identified by Freudenberger (1974) and was studied by other theorists. Cherniss (1980) outlined three distinct stages of burnout, and Maslach (1976) formulated the three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a reduction in personal accomplishment. Maslach and Jackson (1981) recognized symptoms that were specific to certain professions and developed instruments to measure burnout in these workers, including teachers.

The costs and consequences of teachers experiencing burnout are high. Burnout affects teachers in all areas of their wellbeing and has a negative impact on schools and the students they teach (Lauermann & Konig, 2016). School reform has been recognized as a leading contributor to teacher burnout as are environmental (Winstead, 2011) and organizational concerns (Inandi & Buyukozkon, 2013).

The literature affirms that further research on burnout in public school teachers is needed to help contain the numbers of educators exiting the profession (O'Brennan, et al., 2017) and to better understand how teaching specific populations affects teachers on a personal level (Jimenez-Castellanous, 2010). Specifically, research comparing the degree and magnitude of burnout between Title I and non-Title I teachers is necessary. There is limited research on teacher burnout in Title I schools. There are no current studies that examine teacher burnout in relation to their employment in Title I, or non-Title I schools. The results of this study may add to the body of knowledge about whether or not teaching in a Title I school is more likely to lead to burnout and may foster ideas for addressing teacher burnout in all educational settings.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

This chapter describes the design and methodology that was used in this study to determine if employment based on school designation (Title I or non-Title I) is related to teachers' perceptions of burnout. It includes a description of the research setting and the participants used in the study. The instrumentation and the data collection procedures are described in detail. The chapter concludes with a description of the data analysis procedures that were followed to determine and compare the levels of burnout among teachers representing Title I and non-Title I schools.

Design

A non-experimental research design was used in this quantitative study, specifically a causal-comparative design. Causal-comparative research allows the researcher to evaluate differences between two or more pre-existing groups. Those groups represent levels of the categorical independent variable. Because the researcher does not randomly assign participants to groups, the independent variable is considered to be non-manipulated. In the absence of a manipulated independent variable it is not possible to draw strong causal conclusions on the basis of between-group differences that are discovered (Johnson & Christensen, 2016). However, a causal relationship between the independent and dependent variables in a causal-comparative study will appear as a difference between the groups (Gall, et al., 2007). A causal-comparative investigation was appropriate in this study because the researcher sought to determine if the type of school in which a teacher is employed (Title I vs. non-Title I) affects teachers' perceptions of burnout including emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. However, it was logistically impossible to randomly assign teachers to Title I

and non-Title I schools in a true experimental manipulation; teachers were already assigned to their schools. As an alternative to an experimental study of the effects of school type on burnout, the causal-comparative of pre-existing groups was chosen. In causal-comparative studies, the independent variable(s) are categorical, meaning nominal scale, and different groups of study participants represent those categories. In this study employment in either a Title I or in a non-Title I school are the categories of the nominal scale independent variable, referred to subsequently as Type of School. The three subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) served as dependent variables measuring three dimensions of burnout: Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment. The latter actually reflects a lack of personal accomplishment, since ratings to the items forming that subscale are reverse-scored. All three of these types of burnout have been shown to result from prolonged exposure to stressors in a work setting (Maslach, 2003a).

A defining characteristic of burnout is the way work-related stress negatively impacts physical and mental health (Brown, 2012; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). To measure educators' levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment, Maslach et al. (1996) constructed a 22-item questionnaire, the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES). Kuntz et al. (2013) defined the subscale of Emotional Exhaustion as feelings of extreme emotional tiredness related to one's work. The subscale of Depersonalization measures the extent to which teachers have lost feelings towards others (Oakes et al., 2013). The third subscale, Personal Accomplishment, pertains to feelings of job-related inadequacy (Kuntz et al., 2013; Oakes et al., 2013). According to Maslach et al. (1996), emotional exhaustion can occur as a result of feeling overwhelmed by work demands. Depersonalization is an impersonalized response to other people or to a job. Personal accomplishment is the feeling that one is

successful and competent. (Maslach et al.,1996).

Research Question

The following research question was addressed in this study:

RQ1: Is there a difference in teachers' perception of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) between Title I and non-Title I school teachers in an urban school district in Virginia?

Null Hypothesis

The following null hypothesis was tested:

$H_0$1: There is no difference in teachers' perception of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment between Title I and non-Title I school teachers in an urban school district in Virginia.

Participants and Setting

The participants for this study were drawn from the target population of approximately 570 elementary school teachers in 19 different schools in an urban public school district in southeastern Virginia during the spring semester of the 2017-2018 school year. All participating teachers were at least 18 years of age, full time employees of the district, and were licensed to teach in the state of Virginia, in accordance with the VDOE (2018). Demographic information gathered from the sample included gender and grade level. The genders of the Title I teachers included 11 male and 84 female. The genders of non-Title I teachers included 2 male and 48 female. The grade levels represented from the Title I teachers were: Pre-K, 8; 1st grade, 14; 2nd grade, 14; 3rd grade, 14; 4th grade, 8; 5th grade, 14; and other (multi-grade resource teachers and SPED), 23. The non-Title I teachers were from the following grades: Pre-K, 8; 1st grade, 2; 2nd grade, 5; 3rd grade, 6; 4th grade, 10; 5th grade, 8, and other, 11). The district serves approximately

20,700 low- to middle-income students. Of these 19 elementary schools, nine were Title I and 10 were non-Title I schools. The researcher had been employed for seven years in the participating school district and that was the impetus for its selection.

According to the U.S. Department of Education (2004), Title I schools have 40% or more students enrolled in the free or reduced-price lunch program. Participation in the free and reduced-price lunch program is determined by a student's residency in a low-income household. Title I schools are recipients of additional federal funding to provide high poverty and low-performing students with the resources needed to attain academic achievement (The Center on Educational Policy, 2011; Kress et al., 2012; O'Donnell et al., 2008; U.S. Department of Education, 2004). Non-Title I schools do not meet the threshold for Title I designation. These schools have fewer than 40% of their students enrolled in the free or reduced lunch program, indicating that the majority of the students at the schools do not live in low-income households (U.S. Department of Education, 2014).

All elementary teachers in the 19 schools in the district were invited and encouraged to participate in the study, but participation was voluntary. Teachers who volunteered to participate in the study formed a convenience sample. A total of 160 (28%) of the teachers representing the 19 targeted elementary schools chose to participate. That sample exceeded the sampling goal determined using an a priori power analysis. G*Power software (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) performed the power analysis within the following parameters. The type of procedure specified was a between-subjects one-way MANOVA in which Title I and non-Title I teachers (the non-manipulated independent variable) were compared on three dimensions of burnout measured by the MBI-ES (the dependent variables). In G*Power software, this analysis is called the "multivariate MANOVA—global effects" procedure. The population effect size

specified was a medium strength effect, represented by Cohen's $f^2 = .15$ (Dattalo, 2008). The Type I error rate was set at $\alpha = .05$, and power was set at $1 - \beta = .95$, so that the probabilities of Type I and Type II errors were both .05. The power analysis estimated a total sample size of $N = 120$, equally divided between the two groups. Thus, the minimum sampling goal was 120 participants, but recognizing that some data would be lost in data cleaning and screening, additional data were collected, with a total of 160 teachers finally volunteering to participate.

Several measures were taken to ensure adequate ethical protection of the study participants. First, the participating school district reviewed and approved the research and provided email addresses for elementary school teachers in the district. Second, the email sent to teachers to solicit their participation included an informed consent and participants expressed their consent to participate by clicking a link in the email that took them to the online study survey, hosted by SurveyMonkey®. The survey is included in Appendix A. Third, no information was collected in the survey that would identify either the participants or their schools. The only demographic questions on the survey pertained to gender and the grade level taught. All survey responses were anonymous. The Liberty University Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed procedures and study materials before any data were collected.

Instrumentation

The instrument used in this study to measure burnout was the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators' Survey (MBI-ES) that was developed by Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996). The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) is regarded as one of the leading measures of burnout. Over the years, the MBI became more specialized for workers in the human services field, leading to the development of the Human Services Survey (HSS). Eventually, the MBI focused on education and the MBI-ES was created. The survey contains 22 statements related to

job performance. Participants rate how often they experience the feelings described in the statements using a Likert scale, anchored as follows: 0 = *never,* 1 = *a few times a year or less,* 3 = *a few times a month,* 4 = *once a week,* 5 = *a few times a week,* 6 = *every day.* Questions pertaining to each subscale—Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment—are mixed throughout the survey. There are nine items pertaining to Emotional Exhaustion, five pertaining to Depersonalization, and eight measuring Personal Accomplishment. The researcher scored each subscale of the MBI-ES by summing ratings to the items associated with each subscale. The exception to this rule was that ratings to the Personal Accomplishment subscale were first reverse-scored so that high scores on this subscale indicated high burnout along the Personal Accomplishment dimension, and low scores reflected low burnout along the dimension. This made the subscale consistent with the other subscales of the instrument that also indicated greater burnout as scores increased and less burnout as scores decreased. The theoretical range of scores on the Emotional Exhaustion subscale is 0-63, with a high degree of burnout represented by scores of 27 or higher; on Depersonalization the theoretical range is 0-35, with a high degree of burnout represented by scores of 14 or higher; and on the Personal Accomplishment subscale the theoretical range is 0-56, with a high degree of burnout reflected by scores of 37 or higher. Scoring instructions provided by the publisher of the MBI-ES do not provide for the calculation of any type of overall, total, or composite measure of burnout. Rather, the subscale scores are to be considered separately. Scores on the three subscales of the MBI-ES were used in this study to reflect both levels of burnout and to identify percentages of respondents in Title I and non-Title I schools that displayed high degrees of burnout.

Prior studies have verified the validity of the instrument (Eyed & Short, 2006;

McCarthy, Lambert, O'Donnel, & Melendres, 2009; Papastylianou et al., 2009). A convergent validity comparison, where self-scoring was compared to scoring of an individual by someone who knew the individual well, upheld its validity (Maslach et al., 1996). The reliability of the MBI-ES has been evaluated using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Values of that coefficient reported by Maslach et al. (1996) are: emotional exhaustion $\alpha = .90$, depersonalization $\alpha = .76$, and personal accomplishment $\alpha = .76$ (Maslach et al., 1996).

The MBI-ES is a self-administered survey that can be completed in 5 to 10 minutes. Permission to use the survey is granted upon purchase of the license to administer the survey and survey materials. The instructions for completing the survey are written into the survey. Participants in this study were instructed that to complete the survey they needed to first identify as teaching in a Title I or a non-Title I school and then select their gender and their grade level. They were then asked to respond to the 22 items of the MBI-ES to measure their burnout along the dimensions of Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment.

Procedures

Prior to launching this study, the researcher secured preliminary approval to conduct the research from the school district's research specialist. The research proposal was then written and sent to Liberty University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval. Once official IRB approval was received, the researcher secured formal administrative permission from the district to conduct the study (see Appendix B for IRB and school district approval). The district supplied the researcher with email contact information for all elementary teachers employed in the district. The researcher then prepared a contact information form for each of the teachers at the district's elementary schools. The researcher drafted an explanatory letter that included assurances of confidentiality. Within each school, the online survey was introduced in an initial

email. The letter was emailed to each of the teachers. After two days, the survey was offered via a second email to all elementary teachers at the schools (see Appendix C for email soliciting participation).

After reading the email containing informed consent, participants expressed their consent to participate in the survey by clicking the link at the bottom of the participation request email. Instructions for the survey were provided on the first page of the survey (see Appendix D for survey email). Upon receiving the link, participants were asked to complete the survey online through SurveyMonkey® which was used as the survey platform.

After one week, the researcher sent a follow-up email reminder to complete the survey (see Appendix E for follow-up email). An additional email was sent after two weeks, thanking those who had completed the survey and reminding those who had not to please do so within four days (see Appendix F for two-week follow-up email). A final email was sent upon closure of the survey to thank the teachers for participating. The link to the survey was deactivated at that time (see Appendix G for final follow-up email).

The researcher downloaded the survey data from SurveyMonkey® in the form of an IBM SPSS data file. The independent variable, Type of School, was coded 1 = *Title I School,* 2 = *Non-Title I School.* Gender was coded 1 = *male,* 2 = *female.* Grade Level was coded 1 = *Pre-k,* 2 = *1st grade,* 3 = *2nd grade,* 4 = *3rd grade,* 5 = *4th grade,* 6 = *5th grade,* 7 = *other (e.g., multi-grade resource teachers, SPED)*. Ratings given to the 22 statements from the MBI-ES fell between 0 and 6 as described previously. Survey results are stored on a password-protected computer for a minimum of three years and will be deleted after the appropriate amount of time as established by the IRB.

Data Analysis

All data manipulations and analysis were conducted using IBM SPSS (Version 25.0), with the exception of a post hoc power analysis which used G*Power software (Version 3.1.9.2; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). The purpose of the post hoc power analysis was to evaluate the statistical power provided by the obtained sample size. To answer the research question, the researcher used multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to investigate how the dependent variables measuring burnout (Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment) were affected by the independent variable, Type of School (teaching in a Title I school vs. teaching in a non-Title I school). The MANOVA procedure was selected for use in this study because the capabilities and requirements of that procedure provided a good fit to the goals and circumstances of the research. According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), although similar to a *t*-test and one-way univariate analysis of variance, MANOVA is useful in evaluating differences between groups that represent the levels of a single independent variable when there is more than one dependent variable. The MANOVA is considered superior to performing multiple univariate ANOVAs (with a separate ANOVA for each dependent variable) because those multiple ANOVAs elevate the likelihood of a Type I error. With three dependent variables, for example, each analyzed with a separate ANOVA using the .05 level of significance, the familywise Type I error probability would be .15. In contrast, the MANOVA involves a single test of significance and thus holds the risk of a Type 1 error to .05 (Warner, 2013). According to Gall et al. (2007), in causal-comparative studies, two groups are compared using one or more dependent variables as the researcher seeks to find possible cause-and-effect linkages between the independent variable(s) and the dependent variable(s). This study compared teachers at Title I and non-Title I schools to see if the type of school might affect the

levels of three dimensions of burnout.

The statistical assumptions, upon which that procedure is based, were evaluated before performing the MANOVA. The MANOVA does not allow missing data on the independent variable or any of the dependent variables. Any cases with missing data are automatically eliminated by SPSS, a process referred to as listwise deletion of missing data. To ensure that all analyses in the study were based upon the same cases, including the MANOVA, sample descriptive statistics, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the MBI-ES subscales, the researcher manually deleted cases with missing data from the data file. This simply accomplished in an intentional manner what the MANOVA would have done automatically. Assumption testing included screening for univariate and multivariate outliers within each group, evaluating multivariate normality in each group, assessing multicollinearity, establishing that the dependent variables were related in a linear manner, and testing for homogeneity of variances and covariances across groups. The data were checked for outliers by standardizing scores on the dependent variables within each group and screening for *z*-scores exceeding ± 3.30. This procedure is recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) who point out that *z*-scores larger than ± 3.30 are extreme values that would occur in fewer than 1 in 1000 cases in a normal distribution. Multivariate outliers were evaluated by calculating values of the Mahalanobis distance statistic (*D*) for each case, based on their scores on the three MBI-ES subscales. The *D* statistic provides a measure of the degree to which each case's score profile deviates from the average profile of the rest of the sample. Values of *D* were evaluated against the chi-square distribution using $df = 3$ (the number of variables used to calculate *D*) and a stringent level of significance ($p \leq .001$; Meyers, et al., 2017). Calculating discriminant function scores for each case and then looking at the distribution of these scores within each group checked multivariate

normality. The discriminant function is the weighted combination of dependent variables that is created in the MANOVA for use in comparing the groups in the analysis. The normality of the discriminant function scores in each group were evaluated visually by creating frequency histograms, and statistically by calculating values of skewness and kurtosis and also using Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. Scatterplots were used to check for linearity of the relationships between the dependent variables. The researcher looked for a classic cigar shape in scatterplots to verify a linear relationship between each pair of dependent variables. In addition, lines and curves of best fit were placed in the scatterplots and the goodness-of-fit was compared for each to ensure that there were no strong nonlinear relationships. Box's M test of equality of variance-covariance matrices was conducted to test for homogeneity of covariances between the groups. The researcher was looking for a p value of greater than .05 in these tests. Levene's test of homogeneity evaluated the assumption of homogeneity of group variances. Here again, the researcher looked for p values greater than .05 in these tests. The extent of multicollinearity was examined using Pearson product-moment correlations calculated between all pairs of dependent variables looking for no correlations over $\pm$.80. In addition, values of the tolerance statistic were calculated for each dependent variable indicating the proportion of variance in each variable that was not explained by the other dependent variables. In this test, the researcher looked for tolerance values of .10 or greater. Violations of the statistical assumptions of the MANOVA were mitigated to reduce the influence of those violations on the outcome of the MANOVA.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Overview

The purpose of this study was to determine if teachers in Title I and non-Title I schools in an urban school district in Virginia differed significantly in their experienced levels of burnout. An online survey was used to collect data on burnout from 160 teachers representing the two types of schools. Included in the survey were the 22 items of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) which provided measures of burnout on three dimensions: Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment. Chapter Four describes how the data were analyzed to draw conclusions about burnout among Title I and non-Title I teachers. The chapter begins by restating the study's research question and accompanying null hypothesis. Next is a description of the steps taken to prepare the data for analysis, including the calculation of MBI-ES subscale scores and the handling of cases that were missing critical data or were identified as outliers. That description is important because it makes clear how the initial sample of 160 teachers was reduced to a sample of 145 teachers who were suitable for subsequent analyses, including sample description. Sample descriptive statistics are presented next, followed by the results of Cronbach's alpha coefficient analyses used to establish that all MBI-ES subscales showed acceptable levels of reliability. The results of a post hoc power analysis that estimate how much statistical power was provided by the sample of 145 teachers are presented next. To compare Title I school teachers and non-Title I school teachers on the three dimensions of burnout, measured by the MBI-ES, a between-subjects one-way MANOVA was used. But that analysis is only valid to the extent that the data display certain characteristics. The chapter describes the manner in which those statistical assumptions were

evaluated and how violations of some of the assumptions were mitigated. The results of the MANOVA are finally presented, and the chapter concludes with a summary.

Research Question

The following research question was addressed in this study:

RQ1: Is there a statistical difference in teachers' perception of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) between Title I and non-Title I school teachers in an urban school district in Virginia?

Null Hypothesis

The following null hypothesis was tested:

$H_0$1: There is no statistical difference in teachers' perception of overall burnout, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment between Title I and non-Title I school teachers in an urban school district in Virginia.

Descriptive Statistics

The sample statistics were calculated on a sample of 145 valid cases that remained after all cases were deleted that needed to be due to missing data, univariate outliers and multivariate outliers. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was also calculated using data from these cases to evaluate the internal consistency reliability of the study's three dependent variables, the Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment subscales of the MBI-ES.

Sample Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics include participant gender and grade level taught. Sample descriptive statistics for the 145 cases that remained following preliminary data screening are provided for those variables in Table 4.1. Samples representing Title I and non-Title I schools

did not differ significantly in their distributions on either gender.

Table 4.1

Sample Descriptive Statistics

	Title I School (n = 95, 65.5%)		Non-Title I School (n = 50, 34.5%)	
Variables	*f*	%	*f*	%
Gender				
Male	11	11.6%	2	4.0%
Female	84	88.4%	48	96.0%
Total	95	100.0%	50	100.0%
Grade Level				
Pre-K	8	8.4%	8	16.0%
1st Grade	14	14.7%	2	4.0%
2nd Grade	14	14.7%	5	10.0%
3rd Grade	14	14.7%	6	12.0%
4th Grade	8	8.4%	10	20.0%
5th Grade	14	14.7%	8	16.0%
Other	23	24.2%	11	22.0%
Total	95	100.0%	50	100.0%

Results

An online survey hosted by SurveyMonkey® collected data from 160 teachers representing Title I and non-Title I schools. Those data were exported from SurveyMonkey® as an IBM SPSS data file. All subsequent data file manipulations and analytics were performed using IBM SPSS (Version 25.0), except as otherwise noted. The data file preparation included analysis by deleting meta-variables created by the SurveyMonkey® platform (e.g., survey start and stop times, respondent ID, collector ID) and renaming variables to be more descriptive.

Corrections were made to default variable definitions. A sequential case identification variable was created and added to the data file.

Nominal scale variables were coded as follows. School Type was coded 1 = *Title I School,* 2 = *Non-Title I School.* Gender was coded 1 = *male,* 2 = *female.* Grade Level was coded 1 = *Pre-k,* 2 = *1st grade,* 3 = *2nd grade,* 4 = *3rd grade,* 5 = *4th grade,* 6 = *5th grade,* 7 = *other (e.g., multi-grade resource teachers, SPED)*. MBI-ES subscale scores for Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment were calculated by summing ratings to the items associated with each of those subscales. Before calculating Personal Accomplishment subscale scores, however, ratings to the eight items associated with that subscale were reverse-scored. This was done so that higher scores on that subscale would be indicative of a diminished sense of personal accomplishment. The Personal Accomplishment subscale thus became a measure of a lack of personal accomplishment following reverse-scoring. With that scoring change in place, higher scores on all three subscales were indicative of greater levels of burnout, and lower scores were indicative of less burnout.

The between-subjects one-way MANOVA that was used in this study to address the study's research question by comparing burnout levels of teachers representing Title I and non-Title I schools, is valid only to the extent that the data possess certain characteristics. Satisfying those statistical assumptions can require the deletion of limited amounts of data if those data cause the statistical assumptions to be violated. Discussed next are tests of the statistical assumptions that resulted in the deletion of data.

Missing Data

Data screening began with a screen for missing data. Missing data were critical in this study, because the MANOVA procedure requires that all cases included in the analysis provide

scores on the independent and on all dependent variables. A case with missing data on any of these variables cannot be included in the MANOVA. This is referred to as listwise deletion of missing data and is required by the MANOVA procedure. It was necessary, therefore, to identify and eliminate all participants with missing data on the independent variable (School Type) or any of the 22 items of the MBI-ES from which the three dependent variables (Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment) were calculated. The deletion of cases with missing data on these variables resulted in a loss of 12 cases, leaving 148 cases for further evaluation.

Multivariate Outliers

The MANOVA procedure assumes that there are no multivariate outliers in any of the groups being compared. Multivariate outliers can show unremarkable scores on each of several individual variables yet show a statistically aberrant pattern of scores across the variables. These outliers are unrepresentative of the rest of the sample and also exert a disproportionate effect on the outcome of the MANOVA. Consequently, it is typically recommended that multivariate outliers be deleted (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2017; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Warner, 2013). Screening for multivariate outliers by calculating values of the Mahalanobis distance statistic (D) for each case, based on their scores on the Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment subscales of the MBI-ES. The D statistic provides a measure of the degree to which each case's score profile deviates from the average profile of the rest of the sample. Values of D were evaluated against the chi-square distribution using $df = 3$ (the number of variables used to calculate D) and a stringent level of significance ($p \leq .001$; Meyers, et al., 2017). Neither group had multivariate outliers.

Univariate Outliers

The MANOVA procedure also assumes that there are no univariate outliers in any of the groups in the analysis. Like multivariate outliers, univariate outliers are unrepresentative of the rest of the sample and exert a disproportionate impact on the results of the analysis. Extreme scores (outliers) are typically eliminated (Meyers, et al., 2017; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Warner, 2013). Univariate outliers were identified in this study by standardizing scores on the MBI-ES subscales and screening for *z*-scores exceeding ± 3.30 ($p < .001$ in a normal distribution; Meyers, et al., 2017). One outlier was identified in the Title I group on the Personal Accomplishment subscale, with $z = 3.68$, corresponding to a raw score of 40. In the sample representing non-Title I schools, one outlier was identified on the Depersonalization subscale, with $z = 3.33$, corresponding to a raw score of 24. A second outlier was identified in the non-Title I sample, with a *z*-score of 3.69 on the Personal Accomplishment subscale, corresponding to a raw score of 35. The extreme scores (outliers) that were identified were deleted. In addition, because the MANOVA procedure requires listwise deletion of missing data, all cases that generated univariate outliers had to be deleted in their entirety from the data file. Those deletions left 145 cases for further analysis. No further data deletions were necessary.

Post Hoc Power Analysis

A priori power analysis was performed to determine the sampling goal. With the actual sample size known, $N = 145$, it was possible to conduct a post hoc power analysis to determine what statistical power was provided by the obtained sample. G*Power software (Version 3.1.9.2; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) was used for that purpose. Parameters input to the post hoc power analysis for the MANOVA (global effects) procedure were as follows. A medium strength Effect size (Cohen's $f^2 = .15$; Dattalo, 2008) was set. Statistical power

evaluation included two Type I error probabilities, $\alpha = .05$ and $\alpha = .01$. The total sample size was $N = 145$. There were two groups. Finally, there were three dependent variables. The results of the power analysis are shown in Figure 1, which plots statistical power as a function of sample size for both $\alpha = .05$ and $\alpha = .01$. For a total sample size of $N = 145$, statistical power was estimated at 98% when using $\alpha = .05$, and 93% when using $\alpha = .01$. This means that there was an excellent chance (98% or 93%, depending on the level of significance used) that a medium sized difference in the burnout levels of the populations of Title I and non-Title I teachers would be detected as statistically significant in the samples that were studied. However, it is important to recognize that those power estimates were based on the assumption that the samples were of equal size. In fact, however, the Title I sample ($n = 95$) was nearly twice as large as the non-Title I sample ($n = 50$). This inequality has the effect of reducing the actual statistical power of the MANOVA. It is unclear exactly how much reduction in power resulted from the analysis of unequal sample sizes in this study because G*Power software does not provide any method of analyzing unequal sample sizes in the MANOVA power analysis. However, the effect of unequal sample sizes on statistical power in tests that are related to the MANOVA can be examined to gain insights into how unequal sample sizes might have affected the statistical power of the MANOVA. The between-subjects one-way MANOVA used in this study to compare two groups is a multivariate extension of the univariate independent-samples *t*-test. G*Power software does allow the user to explore the effects of unequal sample sizes on the statistical power of the *t*-test. A sample of 145 divided as evenly as possible between two groups ($n_1 = 73$ and $n_2 = 72$) provides statistical power of 85% to detect a medium effect strength as significant when using the .05 two-tail level of significance. The same sample of 145 cases divided into groups of $n_1 = 95$ and $n_2 = 50$ cases reduces the statistical power very little, to 81%.

On this basis, it is reasonable to conclude that the statistical power available to support the MANOVA used in this study was not severely diminished as a result of the uneven sample sizes that were utilized.

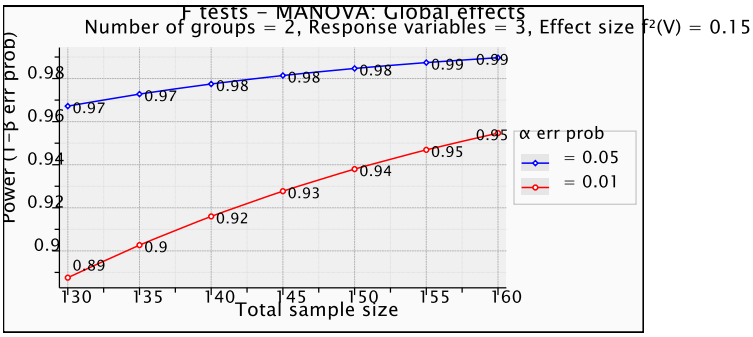


Figure 1. Statistical Power Analysis.

Cronbach' Alpha Coefficients

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated for the three subscales of the MBI-ES to evaluate the internal consistency reliability of those subscales. Previous research has supported the reliability and validity of the MBI-ES, but it cannot be assumed that an instrument that is psychometrically sound in one application is necessarily sound in other applications. It was therefore considered to be the prudent course of action to calculate Cronbach's alpha using data that were collected in this study. The following values of Cronbach's alpha were all based on the same 145 cases that were used subsequently in the MANOVA to address the study's research question. For the nine items of the Emotional Exhaustion subscale, $\alpha = .92$; for the five items of the Depersonalization subscale, $\alpha = .70$; and for the eight items of the Personal Accomplishment subscale, $\alpha = .81$. Scales are generally considered to be reasonably reliable with Cronbach's $\alpha \geq .70$. All MBI-ES subscales met that standard in this study.

Additional Statistical Assumptions

Following next are the results of the tests of several additional statistical assumptions of the between-subjects one-way MANOVA that were completed before the MANOVA was performed.

The MANOVA assumes that the weighted combination of dependent variables used to make the multivariate between-group comparison (called the discriminant function) is normally distributed in each group. This is called the assumption of multivariate normality. The discriminant function in this analysis took the following form:

$$D = a + w_{EE}(EE) + w_{DP}(DP) + w_{PA}(PA)$$

where,

D = the discriminant function created to maximize the separation of groups

a = the discriminant function constant = -0.135

w_{EE} = the weight applied to Emotional Exhaustion = -0.055

w_{DP} = the weight applied to Depersonalization = 0.199

w_{PA} = the weight applied to Personal Accomplishment = 0.031

The constant and weights used in creating the discriminant function are complexly determined not only by the degree to which each variable considered singly separates the groups, but also by the different score magnitudes that were possible on the three MBI-ES subscales and the pattern of interrelationships between those dependent variables. Overall and Klett (1972) noted that, "… attempting to define or describe the nature of the discriminant functions by examining relative magnitudes of the [weighting] coefficients…can be hazardous because the magnitudes of the [weighting] coefficients are dependent upon the units of measurement, which may be different

for the different original measures" (p. 292). However, the discriminant function can often be interpreted successfully by examining the pattern of correlations between discriminant function scores and scores on the original dependent variables. Table 4.2 shows those correlations. In interpreting the correlations in that table, it is important to remember that it is axiomatic in statistics that to the degree that two variables are correlated, they are measuring the same thing (Diekhoff, 1992). With this fact in mind, Table 4.2 indicates that the discriminant function that was created in this study to provide the best possible separation of Title I and non-Title I teachers was very strongly and positively associated with Depersonalization (r = .82), was also positively associated with Personal Accomplishment (r = .46), and was virtually unrelated to Emotional Exhaustion (r = .05). In other words, as Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment increased, so did scores on the discriminant function. Higher discriminant function scores thus indicated higher burnout, primarily on the dimensions of Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment, and lower discriminant function scores indicated lower burnout.

Table 4.2

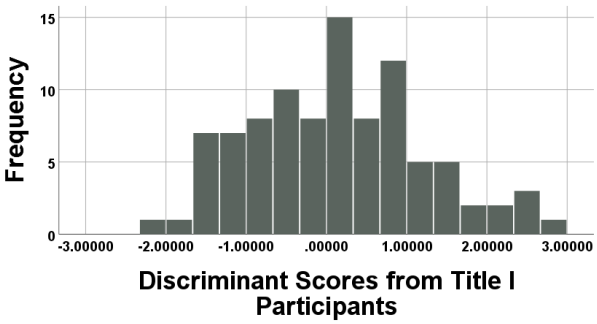
Correlations Between Discriminant Function Scores and Subscale Scores

MBI-ES Subscales	Discriminant Function
Emotional Exhaustion	.05
Depersonalization	.82*
Personal Accomplishment	.46*

Note. * $p < .001$, two-tail. N = 145 for all correlations.

The assumption of multivariate normality was evaluated visually within each group by

examining frequency histograms of discriminant function scores. Those frequency histograms are shown in Figures 2-3. Both distributions provided a visual approximation to the normal curve, though scores were somewhat negatively skewed for non-Title I school teachers. Multivariate normality was also evaluated statistically by calculating measures of skewness and kurtosis for the distributions of discriminant function scores in each group. Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) have suggested that values of skewness and kurtosis exceeding $\pm$1.0 can be taken as indicative of a substantial deviation from normality. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test evaluated distributions for normality. The results of all statistical evaluations of multivariate normality are summarized in Table 4.3. No measures of skewness or kurtosis exceeded $\pm$1.0, and both of the K-S tests of normality were statistically nonsignificant. In conclusion, the assumption of multivariate normality was reasonably well satisfied.



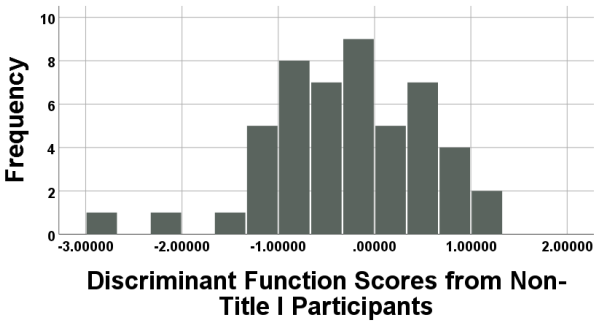


Figure 2. Histogram of Discriminant Function Scores for Title I (left).

Figure 3. Histogram of Discriminant Function Scores for Non-Title I (right).

Table 4.3

Statistical Evaluations of Multivariate Normality

Samples	Skewness	Kurtosis	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test
Title I Schools (n = 95)	0.35	-0.28	K-S(95) = 0.06, p = .200
Non-Title I Schools (n = 50)	-0.53	0.70	K-S(50) = 0.06, p = .200

Multicollinearity

Another assumption of the MANOVA is that the dependent variables should not show excessive multicollinearity, such as strong correlations between the dependent variables. The presence of multicollinearity can cause the discriminant function variable weights to become unstable, meaning that the addition or deletion of just a few cases can cause those weights to change radically. For example, imagine two dependent variables that are strongly correlated with each other, with the first being very slightly better than the second at separating the groups being compared. The variable that provides the better discrimination will be given a strong discriminant function weight because that variable is so good at separating the groups. In contrast, even though the second variable is reasonably good at separating the groups, it will be given a very small weight because it is redundant to the first variable. It is not needed because the first variable is providing all of the same separation of groups that the second variable could have provided. Now, suppose a few cases were added or deleted from the data set. The second variable might become the slightly better group discriminator and receive the stronger numerical weight, while the first variable would receive a weak weight—a reversal of the previous pattern of weights. Strongly correlated dependent variables, multicollinearity, caused the discriminant

function weights to be unstable. Evaluation of multicollinearity was calculated using correlations between the subscales of the MBI-ES. As seen in Table 4.4, none of the subscales showed exceptionally strong correlations. Further multicollinearity evaluation was performed by calculating the tolerance statistic for each of the subscales, also shown in Table 4.4. The tolerance statistic indicates the proportion of variance in a subscale that is not explained by the other subscales considered conjointly, and tolerance values greater than .10 are considered acceptable (Meyers et al., 2017). Subscale tolerance values provided no indication of multicollinearity. Therefore, multicollinearity was not an issue in the present analysis.

Table 4.4

Correlations Among MBI-ES Subscales and Subscale Tolerance Values

Variables		1	2	3	tolerance
1	Emotional Exhaustion	-			.65
2	Depersonalization	.58*	-		.60
3	Personal Accomplishment	.34*	.43*	-	.80

Note. * $p < .001$ (two-tail). *N = 145 for all correlations.*

Homogeneity of Variance-Covariance Matrices

MANOVA also assumes that there are similar variances and covariances in the groups being compared. The homogeneity of the group covariances was evaluated with Box's M test of equality of covariance. That test was performed using a preliminary run of the MANOVA in order to use the diagnostics output from the MANOVA procedure. Box's M was found to be statistically significant, Box's M = 14.28, $F(6, 65434.68) = 2.32$, $p = .031$, indicating that sample covariances were unequal. If sample sizes are equal or near equal, the results of Box's M test

can be ignored, as the test is notoriously sensitive (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In the present study, however, with strongly unequal sample sizes, those authors have recommended using Pillai's trace statistic in testing the significance of the multivariate between-group difference because Pillai's trace statistic is somewhat robust to violations of the homogeneity of covariance assumption. Meyers et al., (2017) have recommended also using a more conservative significance level ($p \leq .01$ instead of $p \leq .05$) to mitigate against distortions of the exact probability (p value) output from the MANOVA that can result from violations of the assumption.

Homogeneity of Group Variances

Violations of the assumption of homogeneity of covariances are typically accompanied by violations of an additional MANOVA assumption, that the groups being compared show equal variances on the dependent variables. Levene's test was used to test this homogeneity of variance assumption. The results of those Levene's tests are summarized in Table 4.5. The assumption of homogeneous group variances was violated for both the Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment subscales. Since violations of the homogeneity of variance assumption have the result of distorting the exact significance level output from the MANOVA, Laerd Statistics (2015) has recommended mitigating that distortion by using a more stringent significance level ($p \leq .01$ instead of $p \leq .05$).

Table 4.5

Levene's Tests of Homogeneity of Group Variances

Variable	Levene's Statistic	df_1	df_2	p
Emotional Exhaustion	.70	1	143	.404
Depersonalization	4.84	1	143	.029
Personal Accomplishment	6.66	1	143	.011

Linearly Related Dependent Variables

The MANOVA procedure assumes that all pairs of dependent variables are related in a linear fashion. More precisely, the MANOVA assumes that the dependent variables are not related in a strongly nonlinear manner. When the relationship between two variables is strongly nonlinear, the correlation between the variables underestimates the true strength of the relationship between the variables. This results in distortions in the discriminant function weights, the calculation of which depends on accurately evaluating the strengths of the relationships between the dependent variables. Linearity of the relationships between dependent variables was evaluated in this study by constructing scatterplots depicting the relationships between all possible pairs of dependent variables, then fitting both lines and quadratic curves through each scatterplot. A relationship was considered to be strongly nonlinear if two conditions were met: (a) the goodness of fit (R^2) for the curve was strong, and (b) the goodness of fit for a curve was substantially stronger than the goodness of fit for a line. Figures 4-6 show the scatterplots with best-fitting lines and curves. In no case was there evidence for strong nonlinearity.

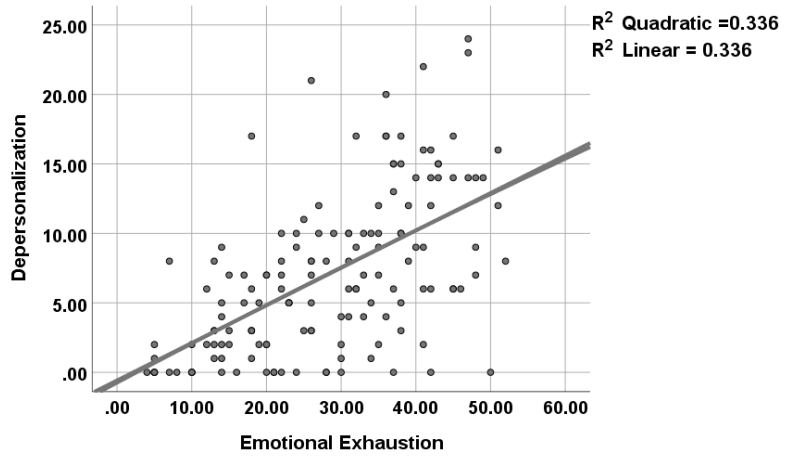


Figure 4. Scatterplot of Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization.

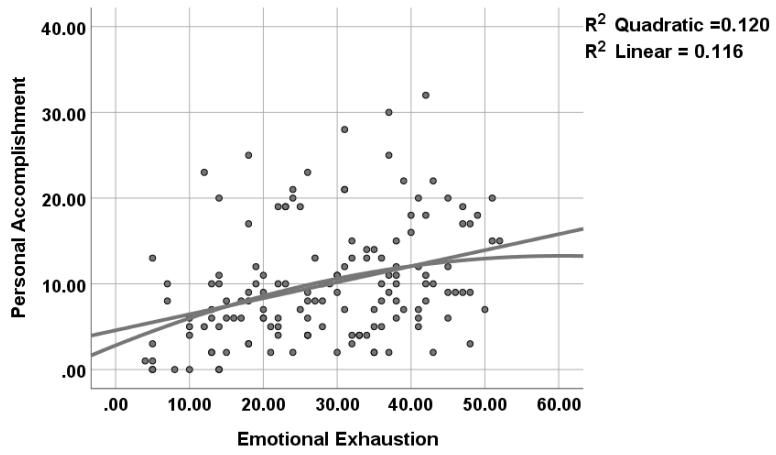


Figure 5. Scatterplot of Emotional Exhaustion and Personal Accomplishment.

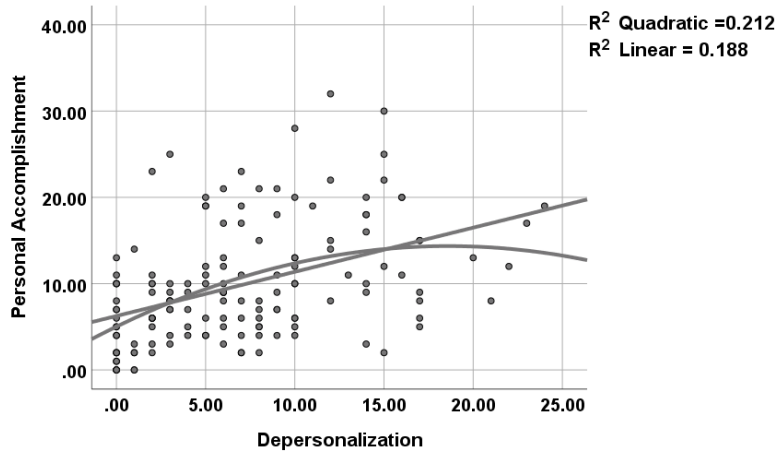


Figure 6. Scatterplot of Personal Accomplishment and Depersonalization.

Results

A between-groups one-way MANOVA was used to address the study's research question. In this analysis, the independent variable was Type of School, with two levels—Title I schools and non-Title I schools. The three dependent variables in the analysis were the three subscales of the MBI-ES measuring three facets of burnout—Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment. It should be recalled that Personal Accomplishment was reverse-scored, so that low scores reflect high personal accomplishment and high scores reflect low personal accomplishment. The MANOVA was used as a multivariate test of the difference in burnout experienced by teachers representing Title I schools and teachers representing non-Title I schools. The study's sole research question was whether this difference was significant, and the corresponding null hypothesis was that teachers from the two types of schools did not differ significantly in their levels of burnout. Descriptive statistics on the three dependent variables used to measure burnout are presented in Table 4.6 for each of the two samples. As seen in that table, teachers in Title I schools scored slightly higher on all three of the subscales of the MBI-ES than did teachers in non-Title I schools, indicating slightly greater burnout among teachers in Title I schools.

Table 4.6

Descriptive Statistics on the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey as a Function of Type of School

Variables	Title I Schools (n = 95)		Non-Title I Schools (n = 50)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Emotional Exhaustion	28.35	12.09	28.12	13.13
Depersonalization	7.68	6.24	5.84	4.59
Personal Accomplishment[1]	10.28	7.43	9.06	5.42

Note. [1]Personal Accomplishment was reverse-scored so that high scores reflect lower perceived levels of personal accomplishment and low scores reflect higher levels of personal accomplishment.

The publisher of the MBI-ES has provided some guidelines for interpreting scores on each of the three subscales of the instrument, including cutoff scores that are taken to define a high degree of burnout. On Emotional Exhaustion, scores of 27 or higher indicate high burnout; on Depersonalization, scores of 14 or higher indicate high burnout; on Personal Accomplishment, scores of 37 or higher indicate high burnout (after reverse scoring). Table 4.7 shows numbers and percentages of teachers in Title I and non-Title I schools that reported high burnout on each of the three dimensions. A z-test for independent proportions indicated no significant between-group difference in rates of high burnout on the Emotional Exhaustion subscale, $z = .31$, $p = .754$. It was not possible to compare the groups on Depersonalization burnout because the requirement of the test that $f(p)$ and $f(1\text{-}p)$ both be greater than or equal to 5 (where f = the number of cases identified as highly burned out, and p = the proportion of highly

burned out cases) was not met for the non-Title I group.

Table 4.7

Frequencies and Percentages of Highly Burned Out Teachers as a Function of Type of School

Burnout Dimension	Title I Teachers (n = 95) f	%	Non-Title I Teachers (n = 50) f	%	Significance Tests z	p
Emotional Exhaustion	52	54.7%	26	52.0%	0.31	.754
Depersonalization	22	23.2%	4	8.0%	n/a	n/a
Personal Accomplishment	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	n/a	n/a

Note. Not all differences could be tested for significance (indicated "n/a") because the Non-Title I group did not satisfy the test requirement that $f(p)$ and $f(1\text{-}p)$ be greater than or equal to 5, where f = the number of cases identified as highly burned out, and p = the proportion of highly burned out cases.

Determining whether Title I and non-Title I teachers differed in their reported levels of burnout was accomplished using a between-groups one-way MANOVA. Because some of the assumptions of the MANOVA were found to have been violated (variances and covariances were heterogeneous), the multivariate difference in burnout between Title I school teachers and non-Title I school teachers was evaluated using Pillai's trace statistic and a stringent level of significance ($p \leq .01$). The discriminant function centroid (mean) for Title I teachers was 0.135, and the centroid for the non-Title I teachers was slightly lower at -0.256. As mentioned previously, the discriminant function in this study provided a direct measure of burnout, with higher discriminant function scores associated with higher burnout (especially on Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment) and lower discriminant function scores associated with lower burnout. Therefore, the group centroids on the discriminant function indicate that Title I teachers scored slightly higher on burnout than did non-Title I teachers. This

conclusion is also clear from the group means on the MBI-ES subscales shown in Table 4.7. Figure 7 shows the distributions of discriminant function scores for Title I and non-Title I teachers. As seen in that figure, the difference between the group centroids was very small compared to the variability seen within each group. A value of Pillai's trace statistic of 0.84 reflected a between-group difference that was evaluated for significance against the *f* distribution. The difference in burnout experienced by Title I school teachers and non-Title I school teachers was not significant, $f(3, 141) = 1.65$, $p = .181$. The MANOVA summary table is shown as Table 4.8. The obtained *p* value did not closely approach the value of $p \leq .01$ that was chosen for this study. There was insufficient evidence to reject the study's null hypothesis: There is no statistical difference in teachers' perception of overall burnout, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment between Title I and non-Title I school teachers in an urban school district in Virginia. The analysis ceased upon finding the multivariate difference to be nonsignificant, as there was then no statistical justification to examine group differences at the univariate level.

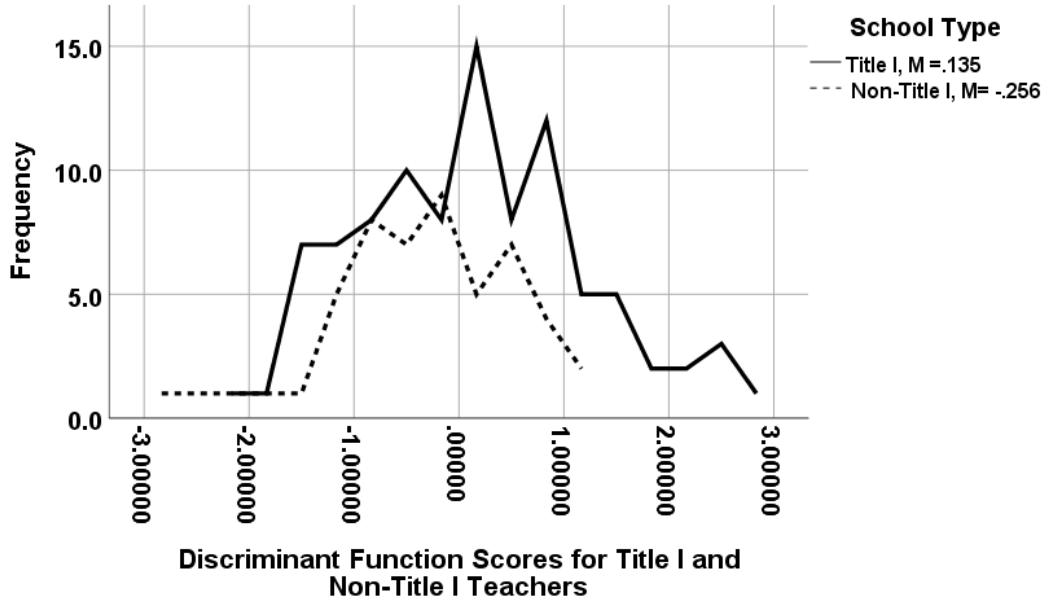


Figure 7. Discriminant Function Scores.

Table 4.8

Summary Table for One-Way Between-Subjects MANOVA

Effect	Pillai's Trace	*f*	Hypothesis *df*	Error *df*2	*p*	h^2
School Type	0.034	1.65	3	141	.181	.034

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

While Chapter Four presented the findings of this dissertation research, those findings were presented without appreciable interpretation or discussion. Chapter Five will begin by summarizing the main elements of the study's methodology, research design, and findings, but will focus on discussing what the findings mean, how and why they align or fail to align with previous research, and what implications and applications they may hold for educational practice. Study limitations will be considered and the chapter will conclude with recommendations for future research.

Discussion

The purpose of this quantitative, causal-comparative study was to investigate if teachers' perceptions of burnout including emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment, differed based on their employment in Title I or non-Title I schools in a single school district. This study compared job burnout in convenience samples of elementary school teachers working in Title I (n = 95) and non-Title I schools (n = 50) in an urban school district in Virginia. Data were collected using an online survey, including information about respondents' gender, grade level, type of school (Title I or non-Title I), and experienced burnout as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory—Educators Survey (MBI-ES). The 22 seven-point Likert rating scales forming that instrument measured three dimensions of burnout: Emotional Exhaustion (nine items, $\alpha = .92$), Depersonalization (five items, $\alpha = .70$), and Personal Accomplishment (eight items, $\alpha = .81$). The study used a causal-comparative research design to determine if the type of school in which teachers work (Title I vs. non-Title I) might influence their experienced burnout. A between-subjects, one-way, multivariate analysis of variance

(MANOVA) was the statistical procedure selected to determine if the teachers working in those two types of schools (the non-manipulated independent variable) displayed significantly different levels of burnout as measured by the three subscales of the MBI-ES (the dependent variables). The null hypothesis tested in the study was:

There is no statistical difference in teachers' perception of overall burnout, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment between Title I and non-Title I school teachers in an urban school district in Virginia.

Survey responses were obtained from 160 teachers, but listwise deletion of cases with missing data and the deletion of outliers reduced the sample size to 145. A post hoc power analysis indicated that those 145 cases provided statistical power of 98% to detect a medium strength population difference in burnout using the .05 level of significance, and 93% power using the .01 level of significance. The sample consisted of 132 (91%) females and 13 (9.0%) males. Grade levels Pre-K through fifth grade were represented, as were teachers who described themselves as multi-grade, resource teachers, or SPED teachers. The samples representing Title I and non-Title I schools did not differ significantly in either gender or grade level.

Tests of the statistical assumptions of the between-subjects one-way MANOVA revealed that all assumptions were satisfied except that groups showed significantly different covariances and variances. To mitigate the effects of these violations, the more robust Pillai's trace statistic was used to evaluate the multivariate difference in burnout between teachers representing Title I and non-Title I schools, and the required significance level was set at a conservative value, $p \leq .01$. Title I teachers were found to have scored slightly higher than non-Title I teachers on all three dimensions of burnout, but the multivariate difference, as evaluated by the MANOVA, was not statistically significant. In conclusion, the evidence was insufficient to reject the null

hypothesis and that Title I and non-Title I teachers showed approximately equal levels of burnout.

The publishers of the MBI-ES have provided some guidelines by which to interpret scores on the instrument's subscales, including cutoff scores that define a "high degree of burnout" on each dimension of burnout (Maslach, Jackson, & Schwab, 1986). Using those cutoffs, the majority of both Title I teachers (54.7%) and non-Title I teachers (52.0%) were identified as experiencing a high degree of burnout on the dimension of Emotional Exhaustion. Somewhat fewer teachers experienced a high degree of burnout on the Depersonalization dimension: 23.2% of Title I teachers and 8.0% of non-Title I teachers. No teachers in either type of school experienced a high degree of burnout on the dimension of Personal Accomplishment.

The research question for this study was as follows:

Is there a statistical difference in teachers' perception of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) between Title I and non-Title I school teachers in an urban school district in Virginia?

Although the results of the multivariate analysis for this study indicated that the difference in burnout measures between the teachers from Title I schools and their counterparts in the non-Title I schools was nonsignificant, the study does make an important contribution to the body of knowledge about burnout and teachers in public schools. Following are discussions about the applicability of the study to both the theories and the literature concerning teacher burnout.

Theoretical Discussion

Freudenberger's (1975) findings show that in the human service community, workers have a tendency towards doing too much for protracted lengths of time and doing it with too

much fervor. In this study, the high degree of burnout in the area of emotional exhaustion by both groups of teachers may be attributed to simply doing too much for so many, for so long. Cherniss (1995) found that educators struggle to achieve a realistic balance between ideals and reality. Unrealistic, idealistic expectations expose teachers to stress and eventual burnout when they find themselves unsupported, inadequately prepared, and exasperated by real-life struggles in the classroom.

Stress occurs in the initial phase of burnout when workers perceive that they do not have the ability to meet the demands of their jobs and their coping skills are inadequate. This leads to negative emotional responses including increases in anxiety, fatigue, and exhaustion (Cherniss, 1980). Emotional exhaustion is an emotional overload that leaves the person experiencing it tired, drained of energy and unable to replenish it. They are left feeling unable to help the very people they serve (Maslach, 2003). Eventually, the tension leads to defensive coping, changes in attitudes and behaviors, and withdrawal (Cherniss, 1980). The majority of teachers from both Title I and non-Title I schools were shown to exhibit high levels of the initial phase of burnout, emotional exhaustion. If the trend continued, so might the downward spiral into full burnout on additional burnout dimensions. It is also important to remember that the elevated levels of emotional exhaustion that were found in the present study may sound a warning that teachers in other similar districts are also bring affected by emotional exhaustion.

Literature Discussion

The concept of teacher burnout has been studied for decades. Characterized as caring individuals, teachers are more susceptible to burnout (Vanderslice, 2010) and as the demands of education increase, those most affected are teachers (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Consistent with that literature, the majority of teachers in this study exhibited high levels on the emotional exhaustion

dimension of burnout. There is extensive literature concerning the triggers and effects of teacher burnout. Following is a discussion of how that literature relates to this study.

Although both Title I and non-Title I teachers demonstrated elevated levels of burnout in this study, the Title I teachers did score slightly higher on all three subscales of burnout. This may be because Title I schools have been more affected by school reforms than non-Title I schools. Since NCLB, the focus has been on low-performing schools (Balfanz et al., 2007) and more recent reforms have continued to place the burden of school improvement primarily on educators (Xu et al., 2016). Increasing accountability has resulted in teachers reporting higher stress levels and minimizing their perceived value to teaching (Dworkin et al., 2014; Winstead, 2011). This could explain why the teachers at Title I schools had slightly higher scores on all three measures of burnout.

Jimenez- Castellanos (2010) compared Title I and non-Title I schools in areas including: teacher pay, turnover, commitment, and stress. He found that the teachers in the Title I schools reported more stress and demands than those in non-Title I schools. In contrast, the study conducted by O'Donnell et al. (2008) found that the non-Title I teachers reported having more stress and demands placed on them than the teachers from Title I schools. Interestingly, O'Donnell et al. (2008) found that there was not a statistically significant relationship between Title I status and teacher stress. Similarly, there was a nonsignificant difference in the three constructs of burnout between the two corresponding groups in the current study. The results of the present study straddled those of both of these earlier reports. The present study showed no significant difference in burnout between Title I and non-Title I teachers (consistent with Jimenez-Castellanos, 2010), but found that Title I teachers were somewhat, though not

significantly, higher than non-Title I teachers on all three dimensions of burnout (consistent with o'Donnell et al., 2008).

Implications

Prior to this study, there had been no comparison of burnout among teachers in Title I and non-Title I schools in urban school districts in Virginia. The present study provided the comparison and found no statistically reliable difference in burnout between the two types of schools. However, teachers in both groups scored in the high range for emotional exhaustion. That finding was important because emotional exhaustion is an individual's response to stress (Maslach, 2003a). The findings from this study highlight the need to address teacher burnout by finding ways to reduce teacher stress. Burnout is an expensive problem. For school districts, the costs of hiring and training teachers to replace those who leave (Rumschlag, 2017), the loss of productivity, and student disengagement (Caglar, 2011) that results from teachers experiencing burnout, are unacceptable. For students, an overstressed teacher in the classroom is helping no one and the future of our educational system hangs in the balance.

Limitations

All studies are limited by threats to internal validity, the degree to which effects can be unambiguously attributed to specific causes, and external validity, the degree to which the study's findings can be generalized beyond the study sample (Gravetter & Forzano, 2016). Threats to the internal validity of this study will be discussed first, followed by threats to external validity.

Internal Validity

Confounding of treatment differences and participant differences. The causal-comparative research design that was used in this study is a form of non-experimental research

because the researcher does not have the ability to manipulate the independent variable (Title I vs. non-Title I schools in this study). Rather, the groups that represent the categories of the independent variable are preexisting. Because teachers in this study could not be randomly assigned to Title I or non-Title I schools, as would have been done in a true experiment, it cannot be assumed that the teachers in the two groups were equivalent.

Although the teachers in Title I and non-Title I schools did not differ in their gender or grade level distributions, they may have differed in myriad of other ways—age, educational background, motivational characteristics, and so on. In other words, the independent variable, Title I vs. non-Title I schools, may have been confounded by the participants' individual difference variables. Other than the differences that define the independent variable, differences that are caused because participants have not been assigned at random to their groups are said to be the result of sampling bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003). If the teachers in this study who represented Title I and non-Title I schools had been found to differ significantly in burnout, that difference might have been due to these other differences, not to the fact that some teachers taught in Title I schools and others taught in non-Title I schools. It is also possible that the failure to find burnout differences between groups in this study was due not to where they worked, but to differences in the characteristics of the teachers in the two types of schools. Had the groups been truly equivalent in all ways except for type of school, differences might have been seen in their levels of burnout.

However, in the nonequivalent groups that were studied here, unintended group differences might have mitigated against finding a difference in burnout. For example, it could be that teachers in Title I schools are drawn to work in those schools out of some higher sense of duty and commitment to reaching all children through education. Although the work

environment of a Title I school would create heightened burnout in other teachers, these especially committed teachers might be resistant to those effects. The only way to completely eliminate confounding of treatment differences with participant differences is to randomly assign participants to conditions. That was not possible in this study. Individual difference characteristics that might have been confounded with treatment differences in this study could have been controlled statistically using covariance analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) but that type of statistical control would have required collecting data from teachers across a wide spectrum of individual difference variables in a way that would have made participation onerous and reduced the likelihood that teachers would participate in the study.

Confounding of treatment differences with setting differences. One threat to the internal validity of a study is a possibility that scores on the dependent variable in one group differ from scores in a second group, not because those groups were exposed to different levels of the independent variable, but because the different levels of the independent variable are confounded with different levels of some external variable in the study. In the present study, the teachers in Title I schools may have experienced something that the non-Title I school teachers did not. The experience may have affected burnout, but it was not strictly pertaining to the schools' Title I status. It is possible that teachers in Title I schools receive more administrative support and encouragement than teachers in non-Title I schools, and that those differences in administrative support affected burnout levels. Teachers in Title I schools who would ordinarily show increased levels of burnout, relative to teachers in non-Title I schools, may have had that increased burnout mitigated somewhat by the greater degree of administrative support they received.

The only effective way of ensuring that treatments are not confounded with settings is to manipulate the independent variable within a single setting. While that kind of control would be reasonable for some studies, it was clearly not possible in the present study. It is not possible to create Title I and non-Title I conditions within one school. Statistical control of potential confounding variables is possible using covariance analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), but that type of analysis in this study would have required collecting data on a host of work setting variables. That would have made the research extremely unwieldy. Moreover, it would not be possible to ensure that all important work setting variables were included.

Violations of statistical assumptions. A third threat to internal validity in this study stemmed from the fact that the data analyzed did not meet all of the assumptions that lend validity to the results of the statistical analysis that was used. The results of the MANOVA used in comparing Title I and non-Title I teachers on the three MBI-ES subscales are valid only to the degree that the statistical assumptions of that procedure are met. That was not the case in this study, where the samples differed both in their patterns of covariance (how the three dependent variables were interrelated) and also in their variances (how variable the scores were in the two groups). Both of these violations can have the effect or distorting the reported significance level of the between-group difference test (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Although measures were taken to mitigate these violations, as recommended in the literature, the reported significance level may still have been distorted somewhat. In this study, the reported *p* value led to the conclusion that groups did not differ significantly in their burnout levels. Had all statistical assumptions been fully satisfied, the *p* value might have been significant.

Validity of the dependent variable. Conclusions drawn from any research are only as valid as the measures upon which those conclusions are based. It was concluded in this study

that teachers in Title I schools did not differ significantly in burnout than teachers in non-Title I schools. That conclusion assumes that the MBI-ES measures teacher burnout and that the MBI-ES is a valid instrument. The MBI-ES has been used for many decades and is generally recognized as a valid measure of the three dimensions of burnout that it purports to measure. Indeed, in the present study the instrument showed reasonable levels of internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha coefficient), and reliability is a necessary condition to validity (Miller, Lovler, & McIntire, 2013). Reliability establishes that an instrument measures in a consistent manner whatever construct it is that it is measuring, but reliability does not establish what that construct is. In other words, reliability does not guarantee validity. The MBI-ES is widely accepted as a valid measure of burnout, but the fact that the instrument is valid in some settings and applications does not mean that it is valid in all settings.

It is possible that responses to the MBI-ES were influenced not just by teachers' actual experiences of burnout, but by other factors as well, including doubts as to the true anonymity of the survey. If those doubts were greater in one type of school than the other, for example if teachers in Title I schools had doubts that their survey responses were confidential, it might have caused them to temper their responses in such a way as to limit the magnitude of their true experience of burnout. That, in turn, could have caused the difference between the groups to fall short of statistical significance. Consequently, the conclusion that the groups did not differ in burnout may not be precisely correct. A better measure of burnout, unaffected by extraneous factors, and completed in full confidence of anonymity might have produced somewhat different results in the present study.

External Validity

External validity refers to the degree to which the findings from a study can be generalized to other individuals, other places, and other times (Gravetter & Forzano, 2016). The present study included characteristics that present threats to all three of these facets of external validity.

Generalizing to other individuals. Generalizing to other individuals requires that the study sample is truly representative of those other individuals. Random sampling from a target population can be expected to produce a sample that is representative of that population, at least if the sample is sufficiently large, but random sampling requires that every member of the target population have an equal probability of being included in the study. If some individuals in the target population choose not to participate in a study, then their probability of being included is different than that of those who are willing to participate if solicited. Studies like the present one, which use convenience sampling, must rely on volunteer participants, and volunteers are not representative of the general population. This is known as volunteer bias. Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) completed a comprehensive study of volunteer bias by comparing individuals who volunteered to participate in research and those who declined to participate. Those researchers identified over a dozen individual difference characteristics that discriminated between the two types. These include cognitive variables, demographic variables, and personality variables. The use of convenience sampling in this study means that the findings may not generalize to the broader populations of Title I and non-Title I school teachers. However, the findings do generalize to populations similar to the sample, those who are willing to participate in a survey study of teacher burnout.

Generalizing to other places. A comprehensive examination of burnout among Title I and non-Title I school teachers would ideally draw data from school districts across the nation and be based on a probability sampling method like random sampling. The present study, in contrast, was conducted in a single urban school district in Virginia. It was not logistically possible to extend the sampling process beyond the one district that was included, but the failure to sample school districts beyond the one that was chosen means that the study's findings may not be applicable in other places. Even so, the findings can be generalized to places like the one in which the study was conducted.

Generalizing to other times. Effects that are observed at one point in time may not appear at other times. Consequently, the results that were obtained from this study, conducted in spring 2018, cannot necessarily be trusted to withstand the tests of time. Consistency of any findings over time can only be ensured through replication. Different researchers at different times who produce the same findings provide the only means by which any study's findings can be generalizable across time.

Recommendations for Future Research

Because teacher burnout has been identified as a major cause of highly qualified teachers leaving the profession (Lloyd and Sullivan, 2012), further research is needed to evaluate the extent of burnout among teachers, find the factors that cause it, find the factors that mitigate it, and evaluate ways of reducing it.

In this study, the researcher selected to study this district based on familiarity with the district, those elementary schools, and the access that familiarity provided. A more comprehensive examination of burnout among Title I and non-Title I school teachers would draw from school districts across the nation, generating a larger sample from teachers

representing all grade levels. A second choice made in the design of the study was to collect data at one point in time. That decision was based on the fact that all the data needed to address the study's research question were provided by a single observation. The use of a longitudinal approach, where the same sample is studied repeatedly over time, at select intervals, would be useful to see if levels of experienced burnout are dependent on the time of year or, over the longer term, to see if teachers' perceptions of burnout change as their careers advance.

While this study did not find a statistically reliable difference in the burnout levels of Title I and non-Title I school teachers, there were slight elevations in burnout on all three dimensions of that construct among Title I teachers. Further, the majority of teachers in both Title I and non-Title I schools exhibited high levels of burnout in the area of emotional exhaustion. Further research might focus on identifying the specific items in teachers' work that lead to elevated levels of emotional exhaustion and delineating if those feelings are influenced in any way by the teachers' professional or personal characteristics, or by supports within the school. Experimental studies on teacher burnout might use interventions in conjunction with measures of burnout. Also, mixed methods studies that include a qualitative approach may afford future researchers a clearer understanding of the nuances that affect teachers' self-evaluations of burnout. Finally, consideration needs to be given in future research to explore the kinds of teachers who accept or seek out employment in Title I schools, identify what kinds of teachers show staying power in those schools, and determine if those teachers possess characteristics that moderate their experience of burnout.

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APPENDIX A: EDUCATOR'S SURVEY THROUGH SURVEY MONKEY

EDUCATOR'S SURVEY

INSTRUCTIONS

Dear Teacher,
I know how valuable your time is and I hope that you can find a couple of minutes to answer a quick survey (average time to complete the survey is 5 minutes).
The goal of this survey is to better understand the needs, issues and problems teachers face in their work.
Following are 22 statements of job-related feelings and statements indicating if you work in a Title 1 or a *non*-Title 1 school, your gender and grade level. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have *never* had this feeling, indicate by selecting the number "0" (zero) in the space after the statement. If you do have this feeling, indicate *how often* you feel it by selecting the number (from 1-6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.
Thank you very much for your participation and for being a teacher.

1. I am employed as a teacher in a Title 1 school

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

2. My gender is _____.

- ◯ Male
- ◯ Female

3. My current grade level is _____.

Pre-K	First Grade	Second Grade	Third Grade	Fourth Grade	Fifth Grade
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Contents of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Questions 4-25) are copyrighted and not open for public distribution.

APPENDIX B: LETTERS OF CONSENT

LIBERTY UNIVERSITY.
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

June 1, 2018

Sandra Russell
IRB Exemption 3360.060118: Teacher Burnout: A Comparison Between Title I and Non-Title I Elementary Schools in an Urban School District in and Urban Virginia School District

Dear Sandra Russell,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under exemption category 46.101(b)(2), which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46:101(b):

> (2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:
> (i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any changes to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by submitting a change in protocol form or a new application to the IRB and referencing the above IRB Exemption number.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible changes to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP
Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
The Graduate School

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June 11, 2018

Ms. Sandra Russell

Dear Ms. Russell,

Thank you for your request to conduct your Doctoral project in .
The Research Committee has granted approval of your proposal on "Teacher Burnout: A Comparison Between Title I and Non-Title I Elementary School Teachers in an Urban Virginia School District". We are in receipt of all required documentation. You may now proceed with your project as outlined in your application/proposal.

Please be aware that the identification of as a division, or any schools, programs, employees or students of is prohibited in published research without express written consent.

Also be advised that your approval will expire on June 11th, 2019. If you are unable to complete your research within this time frame, please contact me. An extension will need to be requested and granted by the Research Committee in order to proceed with the research.

It is our expectation to receive a copy of your findings once the research has been completed. We wish you success in your research.

Sincerely,

Executive Director of Research, Planning and Evaluation

APPENDIX C: EMAIL SOLICITING PARTICIPATION

Dear Classroom Teacher

My name is Sandra Russell and I am an Ed.D. candidate at Liberty University. As part of my dissertation project, I am asking teachers in your district to participate in a study that will compare teachers' feelings about their work in Title I schools and in non-Title I schools.

The survey contains 21 statements for you to rate, based on your experiences. It takes about 5 to 10 minutes to complete. All answers are completely anonymous. The survey is voluntary, and participants may withdraw at any time without penalty. There are no known risks for participation. Your name, email address and school names will not be collected nor included in the results of this research. This study is being conducted under the guidance and supervision of [redacted], [redacted]

When you receive my next email in two days, there will be a link to the survey called the *Educators' Survey*. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at [redacted].

Thank you in advance for your time and participation.

APPENDIX D: EMAIL CONTAINING LINK TO THE SURVEY

Dear Classroom Teacher,

Thank you for your questions concerning the *Educator's Survey*. As promised, I am providing the link to the survey for a study that will compare teachers' feelings about their work in Title I schools and in non-Title I schools.

While you are under no obligation to complete the survey, I sincerely hope you will. There are no known risks to your participation in this study. Your name, email address and school names will not be collected nor included in the results of this study.

Again, once you click the link, *Educator's Survey*, the *ES* should only take you 5 to 10 minutes to complete. If you have questions or concerns, please feel free to contact me [redacted].

Thank you again for your time and participation in this survey.

APPENDIX E: REMINDER EMAIL

Dear Classroom Teacher,

I want to tell you how sincerely grateful I am to those of you who have completed the Edu*cator's Survey*. If you have not taken the opportunity to complete the survey for a study that will compare teachers' feelings about their work in Title I schools and in non-Title I schools, I am attaching the link to the survey below.

While you are under no obligation to complete the survey, I sincerely hope you will. There are no known risks to your participation in this study. Your name, email address and school names will not be collected nor included in the results of this study. If you have questions or concerns, please feel free to contact me [redacted].

Link to the *Educator's Survey*

Thank you.

APPENDIX F: TWO-WEEK REMINDER EMAIL

Dear Classroom Teacher,

I want to tell you how sincerely grateful I am to those of you who have completed the Edu*cator's Survey*. As a reminder, if you have not taken the opportunity to complete the survey for a study that will compare teachers' feelings about their work in Title I schools and in non-Title I schools, I am attaching the link to the survey below. The survey will close in four days and at that time you will no longer be able to access the survey.

While you are under no obligation to complete the survey, I sincerely hope you will. There are no known risks to your participation in this study. Your name, email address and school names will not be collected nor included in the results of this study. If you have questions or concerns, please feel free to contact me [redacted].

Link to the *Educator's Survey*

Thank you.

APPENDIX G: EMAIL CONCLUDING THE SURVEY

Dear Classroom Teacher,

I want to offer you my sincere thanks for participating in the *Educator's Survey*. At this time the survey is closed and the links to the survey will no longer function.

Thank you, again.