Hacettepe University Graduate School of Social Sciences
Foreign Language Education
Department of English Language Teaching

A CROSS-CULTURAL EXAMINATION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS' JOB BURNOUT: THE CASE OF IRAN AND TURKEY

A Ph.D. Dissertation

Ebrahim KHEZERLOU

ANKARA, 2012

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KABUL VE ONAY

Ebrahim KHEZERLOU tarafından hazırlanan "A Cross-cultural Examination of English Language Teachers' Job Burnout: The Case of Iran and Turkey" başlıklı bu çalışma, 08/08/2012 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından doktora tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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08.08.2012

Ebrahim KHEZERLOU

To My Sister: Hamideh KHEZERLOU

&

My Brother-in-law: Hossein HAJIALILOU

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ÖZET

KHEZERLOU, Ebrahim. İnglizce Öğretmenleri arasındaki Mesleki Tükenmişlik Düzeylerinin Kültürler Arası İncelenmesi: İran ve Turkiye, DoktoraTezi, Ankara, 2012.

Mesleki tükenmişlik "çaba ve ödül arasındaki algının tutarsızlığından kaynaklanan işle ilgili bir sendrom olarak tanımlanmıştır" (Farber, 1991, p. 24). Maslach ve Jackson (1981) en çok kabul edilen tükenmişlik modelini üç boyut olarak tanıtmıştır: duygusal tükenme (EE), duyarsızlaşma (DP) ve küşük kişisel başarı (PA) (Maslach and Leiter, 1997; Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001). Mesleki tükenmişlik başagrısı, mide ve bağırsak hastalıkları, yüksek tansiyon, şeker hastalığı, kas kasılmaları, kronik yorgunluk, kaygı, depresyon, ve uyku düzensizliği gibi ruhsal ve fiziksel problemlere yol açabilir. Buna ek olarak mesleki tükenmişlik eğitim alanlarında başlıca bir sorun olmakta ve öğretim kalitesini, öğrenci başarısını, okul atmosferini ve sosyal refahı olumsuz olarak etkilemektedir. Bundan dolayı, bu çalışma eğitim amaçları için yararlı bir çalışmadır. Bu amaçla, bu çalışma Maslach ve Jackson (1981) tarafından tanımlanan EE, DP ve PA tükenmişlik süreçlerinin üzerindeki etkilerini görebilmek için kişisel, okul ve idari seviyede bulunan öğretmenler arasında üç tip tükenmişlik kaynağını içermektedir.

Sonuçlara göre Türk öğretmenlerin duygusal tükenmişlik seviyeleri İranlı öğretmenlerden daha fazla olup İranlı öğretmenlerin kişisel başarı seviyesi Türk öğretmenlerden daha fazladır. Bunun yanında İranlı ve Türk öğretmenlerin duyarsızlaşma seviyesi hemen hemen aynıdır. Tek yönlü ANOVA sonuçları milliyet, cinsiyet, ve yaş değişkenleri ve EE, DP ve PA arasında anlamlı bir ilişkinin olduğunu göstermektedir. Buna ek olarak regresyon analizlerine göre profesyonel özdeğerlilik, iş yükü ve EE, DP ve PA kişisel, okul ve idari seviyede bulunan İranlı öğretmenler arasında en güçlü faktörlerdir. Türk öğretmenleri arasında da en güçlü faktörler değer uyuşmazlığı, sosyal destek, ve öğretmen özerkliğidir. Üstelik iki yönlü ANOVA'nın sonuçları milliyet, yaş ve cinsiyetle kişisel, okul ve idari faktörlerin EE, DP ve PA üzerinde çifte ekisini göstermektedir. Son olarak nitel analizin sonuçlarına göre İranlı öğretmenler tükenmişliğin kaynağını idari faktörler olarak görürken, Türk öğretmenler okul faktörleri olarak görmektedir. Bu çalışmanın bulguları dil öğretmenleri, yöneticiler, müdürler, materyal geliştiriciler, program yazanlar ve fikir oluşturanlar için büyük ölçüde yararlı olmaktadır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Tükenmişlik, MBI-ES, Duygusal tükenme, Duyarsızlaşma, Düşük Kişisel Başarı, İngilizce öğretmenleri, İran, Türkiye

ABSTRACT

KHEZERLOU, Ebrahim. A Cross-cultural Examination of English Language Teachers' Job Burnout: the Case of Iran and Turkey, Ph.D. Dissertation, Ankara, 2012.

Burnout was characterized as "a work-related syndrome that stems from an individual's perception of a significant discrepancy between effort (input) and reward (output)" (Farber, 1991, p. 24). Maslach and Jackson (1981) introduced the most widely accepted conceptualization of burnout that has three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Maslach and Leiter, 1997; Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001). Burnout can cause psychophysical problems such as, headaches, gastrointestinal illness, high blood pressure, diabetes, muscle tension, chronic fatigue, anomie anxiety, depression, and sleep disturbances. Moreover, teacher burnout is a major concern in educational settings and negatively impacts teaching quality, student achievement, school climate, and social welfare. Therefore, the study was useful for educational purposes. To this end, three types of burnout sources among teachers at individual, school-level and administrational levels were involved in the study to see their effects on EE, DP and PA processes of burnout as characterized by Maslach and Jackson (1981).

The results revealed that Turkish teachers experience more EE burnout than Iranian teachers who perceive more PA than Turkish teachers, whereas, Iranian and Turkish teachers experience DP burnout almost equally. The findings based on One-way ANOVA also demonstrated there was significant relationship between nationality, gender, and age variables and EE, DP, and PA burnout processes. Moreover, the multiple regression results showed *Professional Self-esteem*, *Workload*, and *Fairness* were the strongest predictors of EE, DP, and PA processes among Iranian teachers at individual, school and administrational level, respectively; whereas, in the case of Turkish teaches they were *Value Incongruence*, *Social Support* and *Teacher Autonomy*. Moreover, the results of Two-way ANOVA revealed interaction effects between *Nationality*, *Gender*, and *Age* variables and individual, school-level, and administrational factors on EE, DP, and PA burnout processes. Finally, the results of qualitative part displayed Iranian teachers considered the administrational factors as the main source of burnout, while Turkish teachers concentrated on school-level factors. The findings of the study are useful mainly for language teachers, administrators, managers, material writers, syllabus designers, and policy makers.

Key words: Burnout, MBI-ES, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Personal Accomplishment, EFL teachers, Iran, Turkey

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	: Analysis of Variance
BM	: Burnout Measure
COR-theory	: Conservation of Resources Theory
DP	: Depersonalization
EE	: Emotional Exhaustion
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ELT	: English Language Teaching
F	: Frequency
Fe.	: Female
Ir.	: Iran / Iranian
JD-R Model	: Job Demands-Resource Model
L	: Large
Me	: Medium
MBI	: Maslach Burnout Inventory
MBI-ES	: MBI–Educators Survey
MBI-GS	: MBI–General Survey
MBI-HSS	: MBI–Human Services Survey
N	: Number
NTSES	: Norwegian Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale
OLBI	: The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory
PA	: Personal Accomplishment
R	: Reliability
S.	: Small
Sig.	: Significant
S-MBM	: Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure
Tr.	: Turkey / Turkish

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the overall dissertation. First, it offers a brief explanation of the background information to the study. Second, it states the problem and purpose of the study. Third, it indicates why the study is significant and what are its research questions and limitations. Fourth, describes how the dissertation was organized. Finally, it defines the key terms and concludes the study and its results.

1.2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Burnout is a reaction to chronic occupational stress and is defined as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do 'people-work' of some kind" (Maslach and Jackson, 1981, p. 99). In view of Maslach and Jackson (1981), it includes three dimensions: (1) emotional exhaustion referring to feelings of being overextended and depleted of one's emotional and physical resources, (2) depersonalization referring to negative attitudes or callous responses towards people, and (3) reduced personal accomplishment referring to a decline in one's sense of competence and/or productivity at work (Maslach 1982; Maslach and Leiter, 1997; Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001).

In the same vein, teacher burnout refers to decline in one's well-being that is caused by long term stress in the work place. Burned-out teachers in the conceptualization of Maslach and Jackson (1981) usually feel that they are emotionally exhausted with their work. They also may develop cynical attitudes towards their students or the school community and less interact with them. Moreover, teachers in a state of burnout may evaluate their accomplishments at work negatively. The results of the emotional exhaustion, negative feelings to others, and negative self-evaluation are a sense of personal distress, a feeling of demoralization, dissatisfaction with one's work, poor

performance on the job, poor health, family problems, intention to quit one's job, and failure in life (Brenninkmeijer et al., 2001; Fivesa et al., 2007).

There are some general reasons for interest in teacher burnout. First, the teaching profession is one of the most visible professions in any society. Second, the teaching profession has been subject to intense pressure by the society to educate students in academic and skill areas, meet the individual needs of them with a wide range of abilities, provide enrichment programs for special students, encourage suitable ethical behaviors in the society, and correct social problems. Third, there are a lot of studies showing that teachers are dissatisfied with their profession because of job stressors, whose consequences are manifested in different types: physiological problems (such as heart diseases, diabetes, headache, and respiratory problems), psychological disorders (such as family problems, sleep disturbances, depression, and frustration), and behavioral changes (such as violence, smoking, alcohol and drug abuse). Taking these reasons into account, we think that it is significant to study burnout and its consequences in ELT contexts of Iran and Turkey. Specifically, the study assumes that ELT teachers' assessment of their individual, school-level, and administrational conditions will reflect what potential antecedents of teacher burnout are in their workplace. In short, we hope the present study to generate more useful information in our understanding of ELT teachers' problems, improving the quality of teaching conditions, and taking preventative actions before the burnout issues progress to the point of complete risk.

1.3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In any society, teachers play a critical role in the development of the nation. The effectiveness of teachers drives the ongoing achievement of educational goals. As the achievement of these goals is questioned, teachers are the first agent blamed for. But little attention is paid to teachers' innovative thoughts in their profession, personal values and feelings, vital living problems, etc. that lead them to psychological, sociological, and physiological disorders which, in turn, threaten the improvement of the educational goals and the quality and stability of the profession. Therefore, one of the foremost explanations for inefficacy to achieve educational goals is lack of teacher

job satisfaction and lack of positive teacher perceptions about their profession. Currently, teachers are surrounded by a lot of job stressors which dissatisfy them in life and negatively affect their performance, student accountability, and responsibility for the attainment of educational goals and objectives. Moreover, the accumulative effects of job stressors can cause them to be depleted of their resources (emotional, physical, and cognitive energies), to lose their motivation and commitment to their job, and to develop negative attitudes to their students and the job itself, that is, the experience of prolonged and extensive stress can lead them to burnout viewed as an affective reaction to ongoing stresses (Shirom, 1989; Maslach and Leiter, 1997).

According to Haberman (2004), burnout is a serious problem in all professions, especially in education. Burnout and related conditions can result in teacher health problems, absenteeism, attrition, transferring from school to school to find better working conditions, and leaving the teaching field altogether. For instance, studies indicate that both in the western world and in some Eastern European countries about 10 to 40 percent of teachers are suffering from extreme stress or burnout (Friedman and Farber, 1992; Kristensen et al., 2005). Friedman and Farber (1992) also estimated that 30 to 35% of American teachers are strongly dissatisfied with their profession and 5 to 20% are truly burned out. Furthermore, Ewing and Smith (2003) reported that between 25% and 40% of beginning teachers in western countries are leaving teaching profession. Finally, in a study of European teachers, it was found out that 60% to 70% of the participants were under frequent stress, and a minimum of 30% had distinct symptoms attributed to burnout (Ozdemir, 2007).

As studies show teacher workplace has been transformed into a quite stressful situation though the profession of teaching has often been viewed as a labor of love and devotion. This high rate of burnout among western teachers highlights the importance of studying the subject and its consequences in our own educational settings. Therefore, recognizing the stressors at work would be beneficial for professionals in the field, may help those affected to control and alleviate their burnout levels, may supply information that is essential to developing action plans and interventions, and may also increase the overall satisfaction of the occupation.

Additionally, there are a few teacher burnout studies in Turkey focusing on education in general and ELT settings in specific, but teacher burnout has not yet been examined in educational context of Iran adequately, especially in EFL settings. Even, there is no a comparative study of teacher burnout between Iranian and Turkish ELT teachers at all. So, it is necessary to uncover the ELT demographic groups that are more sensitive to turnover and burnout and the factors leading them to this state. We, however, believe that investigation of the needs of ELT teachers, their teaching problems, and their perceptions about their job as well as the possible relationships between these factors would certainly possess the potential to inform us about teacher burnout and its consequences.

1.4. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Teaching is far more stressful and challenging than ever before, and teacher burnout has an alarming effect on teaching quality, student achievement, school climate, social welfare, etc. Therefore, the general purpose of this quantitative-qualitative comparative study is to shed more light on educational issues in ELT settings by referring to burnout construct. To this end, the study includes three phases: (1) a measuring phase, (2) an exploratory phase, and (3) a comparative phase.

The objective of the first phase is to measure the perceived burnout levels of Iranian and Turkish secondary EFL teachers by employing the self-report Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) which is the most widely accepted scale in scientific studies for assessing teacher burnout. Moreover, the implementation of its translation in various languages (including French, German, Dutch, Spanish, Italian, Swedish, Finnish, Polish, Hebrew, Turkish, and Japanese) has been confirmed. The second phase aims at gathering socio-demographic information of the subjects (such as age, gender, marital status, teaching experience, academic level, and employment status) and collecting job-related information (such as individual, school-level, administrational sources of burnout) of Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers through three questionnaires for the quantitative data. Moreover, at least 10 subjects will be interviewed from each country for the qualitative data. In the last phase, the relationship between these job-related information and the EE, DP, and PA burnout levels of the

teachers will be examined with reference to the socio-demographic information. In short, with these purposes in mind, the study aims to find out answers to its research questions offered in part 1.6.

1.5. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Burnout is quite prevalent in all professions in the modern world and can certainly cause considerable economic, social and psychological costs to employees and employers. Teacher burnout is also a major concern in educational settings and negatively impacts teaching quality, student achievement, school climate, and social welfare. Moreover, it "can cause such physical problems as headaches, gastrointestinal illness, high blood pressure, muscle tension, and chronic fatigue", and it also "may lead to mental distress in the form of anxiety, depression, and sleep disturbances" (Maslach and Leiter, 1997, p. 19). Teachers suffering from these problems are at risk of a high rate of teacher turnover. Therefore, burnout research has the potential to contribute to our understanding of the teacher performance and health consequences of chronic stress at work.

Additionally, the majority of burnout studies in education have mainly focused on classroom teachers, special education teachers, and professional support staff. They have hardly taken into account the stressors of a specific field of study. So, the study tries to examine burnout in a specific field, i.e., ELT setting. In fact, it inspects the pervasiveness of perceived teacher burnout in the ELT contexts of Turkey and Iran and scrutinizes comparatively the possible relationships between the burnout sources (such as, socio-demographic variables and individual, school-level, and administrational factors) in reference to the burnout levels of Turkish and Iranian ELT teachers. Finally, the findings of this study may be beneficial in that:

- Teachers may develop a positive and optimistic outlook towards their students, colleagues, and profession,
- Administrators may be enabled to diagnose the groups that are at greatest risk and to develop programs or solutions to prevent or reduce teacher burnout in

educational settings for increasing teacher retention and overall occupational satisfaction,

- Policy makers may be helped to increase teacher productivity by setting more flexible regulations and management, increasing teacher participation in decision-making activities, and developing more qualified teacher training programs,
- Educational members and teachers may be excited to conduct additional research.

1.6. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study aims at measuring the perceived burnout levels of Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers in the three subscales of EE, DP, and PA, exploring the variability in these burnout subscales in reference to the participants' socio-demographic characteristics, discovering individual, school-level, and administrational predictors of EE, DP and PA burnout processes, finding out the interaction effects between the burnout factors and the participants' socio-demographic characteristics on EE, DP and PA burnout processes, and conducting a qualitative study for determining factors causing burnout among Iranian and Turkish teachers. To this end, it includes the following research questions:

Question 1: What is the perceived level of job burnout for Iranian and Turkish secondary EFL teachers in reference to the three-factor structure of the MBI-ES (i.e., Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment)?

Question 2: Are there significant differences between Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers' EE, DP and PA burnout perceptions and their socio-demographic characteristics of (a) nationality, (b) gender, (c) age, (d) marital status, (e) academic level, (f) years of teaching experience, and (g) employment status?

Question 3: To what extent can the variability in Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers' burnout levels of EE, DP and PA be explained in reference to the following (a)

individual, (b) school-level, and (c) administrational factors as predictors of teacher burnout?

Teacher Burnout Sources

Individual factors	School-level factors	Administrational factors
Professional self-esteem	Work overload	Teacher autonomy
Teacher self-efficacy	Student misbehavior	Reward adequacy
Value incongruence	Oversized classes	Fairness
Competence self-evaluation	Mixed-ability classes	Fringe benefits
	Teaching materials	
	Social support	

Question 4: What interaction effects are there between the socio-demographic variables and (a) individual factors, (b) school-level factors, and (c) administrational factors on EE, DP, and PA burnout subscales?

Question 5: How do Turkish and Iranian secondary EFL teachers who take part in the interview section feel about their profession? (Qualitative part: interview)

1.7. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

No study is without its limitations. There are a few limitations associated with this study, too. They include:

(a) The major limitation of the study is that self-report scales were used in collecting data, so, the accuracy of results depended on the degree to which participants had willed to disclose honestly their behaviors and feelings. That is, some participants might have been hesitant to report with accuracy their experience of burnout and to express honestly their opinions about the personal matters and organizational problems, thus, unreasonable information might have been provided in these areas. Therefore, the reported results may not reflect the participants' actual thoughts, and this may negatively affect the accuracy of the findings.

(b) Additionally, the study did not take into account the effect of socio-historical factors associated with teacher burnout for political concerns.

(c) Furthermore, some instruments are self-developed and have never been administered prior to this study. Therefore, the validity and/or reliability of the measures are not rigid and the results should be approached with caution when deriving conclusions.

(d) One more limitation is that the participants in this study are all teaching English in Iranian and Turkish public schools during the 2011-2012 academic year, therefore, the results may not be generalized to other time periods and teachers in other states.

(e) In collecting qualitative data, I found that some teachers were willing to talk more about their problems in details. However, the semi-structure method of interviewing, as far as I think, might have limited their responses; thus, there could have been more honorable information about teachers' thoughts and feelings if more open-ended questions would be employed.

1.8. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The first chapter introduces the overall dissertation by referring mainly to background information of the study, problem and purpose statement, and significance of the study. It also includes research questions, limitations, and conclusion. Chapter two provides a review of literature including theoretical background and empirical investigations about teacher burnout and its sources. Chapter three describes the research design, population and sampling, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis procedures utilized in the study. Chapter four provides the findings for the five research questions presented in the study. Finally, chapter five presents a summary of research findings, discussion of the findings with respect to the research questions and presented literature, implications of the study, and recommendations for further research.

1.9. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Below is a glossary of key terms that appear in the dissertation. Most of these terms belong to teacher burnout and its sources. The terms are given in alphabetical order.

Administrational factors: referring to those conditions that are imposed on individuals and schools by the administration (i.e., system).

Burnout: "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do "people work" of some kind" (Maslach and Leiter, 1997, p. 1).

Depersonalization (or cynicism): referring to negative attitudes or callous responses toward people (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001).

Distributive justice: it is a form of organizational justice that focuses on people's beliefs of receiving fair amounts of valued work-related outcomes (Greenberg and Colquitt, 2005).

Emotional exhaustion: referring to feelings of being emotionally drained by intense contact with other people or feeling unable to give of oneself psychologically (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001).

Fairness: it refers to the extent to which employees perceive their workplace outcomes, procedures and interactions to be fair (Konovsky, 2000).

Fringe benefits: they are various non-wage compensations provided to employees in addition to their normal salaries.

Individual factors: referring to those factors that are unique to an individual in the workplace such as one's attitudes, talents, interests, personality, physical appearance, and interaction with the environment.

Interactional justice: it concerns with the interpersonal treatment employees receive from decision makers and the adequacy with which the formal decision-making procedures are explained (Greenberg, 1990).

Mixed-ability classes: in an EFL context it refers to classes in which there are very clear differences between students in terms of their language learning abilities.

Oversized classes: it simply means having too many students in a classroom.

Procedural justice: it refers to the "fairness issues concerning the methods, mechanisms, and processes used to determine outcomes" (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998, p. 26).

Professional self-esteem: it describes the importance and value one attaches to his/her profession (Aricak and Dilmac, 2003).

Reduced personal accomplishment: referring to a decline in one's sense of competence and and/or productivity at work (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001).

Rewards: they refer to things that increase the frequency of a response.

Secondary EFL teacher competence: it refers to teachers' language knowledge (linguistic, communicative and cultural competences) and professional competence (referring to teaching abilities of teachers to provide effective instruction by employing various methods, strategies, skills, and techniques, their student assessment capabilities and their effective use of educational technologies).

School-level factors: these factors, which are in the immediate context of teachers, extend from the environment in which a teacher works and are unique to a school.

Social support: it refers to the physical and emotional comfort which teachers receive from administrators, colleagues, parents, and students.

Sources of teacher burnout: things to which our stress mechanisms respond inappropriately, thus, leading us to burnout (Friesen, Prokop, and Sarros, 1988).

Student misbehavior: student misbehavior can be defined as any behavior that interferes with the effectiveness of teachers' instructional plans and the learning abilities of the students (Stebbins, 1971).

Teacher autonomy: it refers to the "teachers' capacity to engage in self-directed teaching" (Little, 1995, p. 176).

Teacher self-efficacy: it refers to "the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 233).

Teaching materials: it refers to the suitability and practicality of the present high-school textbooks and availability of other teaching materials.

Value incongruence: it refers to sharing of values between individuals and the administration in which they work (Dolan and Garcia, 2002).

Workload: there is no enough time to complete a task or there is too much work to do.

1.10. CONCLUSION

This is a comparative study of job burnout among Iranian and Turkish high school English teachers. Teacher burnout refers to decline in one's well-being that is caused by long term stress at the work place. Burnout can cause psychophysical problems such as, headaches, gastrointestinal illness, high blood pressure, diabetes, muscle tension, chronic fatigue, anxiety, depression, anomie, and sleep disturbances. Moreover, teacher burnout is a major concern in educational settings and negatively impacts teaching quality, student achievement, school climate, and social welfare. Burnout finally results in emotional exhaustion, negative feelings to others, poor performance on the job, and negative self-evaluation that demoralize one, dissatisfy one with his/her work, and lead to intention to quit one's job. Studies have also revealed that burnout has affected millions of teachers around the world, especially in western countries, and it has cost millions of dollars for these countries. There are a few teacher burnout studies in our

context picturing teacher burnout in general. That is, they have not taken into account the stressors of a specific field of study. So, the study tries to examine burnout in a specific field, i.e., EFL setting. In fact, it inspects comparatively the pervasiveness of perceived teacher burnout among Iranian and Turkish English teachers based on Maslach and Jackson's (1981) conceptualization.

The results revealed that Turkish teachers perceive more EE burnout than Iranian teachers, Iranian teachers perceive more PA than Turkish teachers, and Iranian and Turkish teachers perceive DP burnout almost equally. The findings also demonstrated there were significant relationships between nationality, gender, and age variables and the EE, DP, and PA burnout subscales. In contrast, no relationship was observes between the marital status, academic level, teaching experience and employment status of the participants and any burnout subscale. Besides, regression results showed that Professional Self-esteem factor of individual factor categories, Social Support factor of school-level factor categories, and Fairness factor of administrational factor categories were the dominant significant factors in predicting EE, DP or PA processes of both Iranian and Turkish teachers. While Iranian and Turkish groups were contrasted, the multiple regression results demonstrated that there were no differences between Iranian and Turkish groups in prediction of EE, DP and PA processes by individual factors. But, Social Support factor in the case of Turkish participants and Workload in the case of Iranian participants were the dominant significant school-level factors in predicting EE, DP or PA processes, and Teacher Autonomy factor in the case of Turkish participants and Fairness in the case of Iranian participants were the dominant significant administrational factors in predicting EE, DP or PA processes. Moreover, the results of Two-way ANOVA revealed significant interaction effects between Nationality, Gender, and Age variables and individual, school-level, and administrational factors on EE, DP, and PA burnout processes. Finally, the results of qualitative part displayed Iranian teachers considered the administrational factors as the main sources of their burnout, while Turkish teachers concentrated on school-level factors.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter offers background information on burnout which is viewed as an affective reaction to ongoing stress and whose core content is the gradual depletion of individuals' intrinsic energetic resources over time. The review of literature is given in five main parts. The first part starts with a brief historical description and development of burnout concept. Clarifying the complexity of the concept and controversy over its definition, its relationship with other concepts such as 'stress' and 'depression' is explained. Then, the study tries to shed light, as far as possible, on understanding the phenomenon of 'teacher burnout' along with its major symptoms and development by citing the views of various scholars in the field. In the next part, the review is proceeded to frame theoretical background of burnout by describing five popular perspectives on burnout. The section that follows deals with the development and characteristics of four significant burnout measuring scales usually employed in burnout studies. In the fourth part, teacher burnout sources are explained at demographic, individual, school, and administrational levels. Finally, the last section covers some main empirical studies done on burnout in the educational contexts of Iran and Turkey.

2.2. CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT OF BURNOUT

The concept of burnout first was coined by Fredenberger (1974), an American psychiatrist, during the 1970's to describe emotions of depletion and loss of motivation and commitment that human service workers experience after prolonged and extensive stress conditions (Soderfelt and Soderfelt, 1995). In fact, he observed that a group of volunteers enter a helping field, give totally of themselves, and eventually overextend themselves to the point of emotional exhaustion. Based on his observations, Freudenberger (1974) ultimately defined the term burnout as ''the state of physical and emotional depletion resulting from conditions of work'' (p. 160). He further noted that ''the dedicated and the most committed'' workers who ''work too much, too long, and

too intensely'' are most likely susceptible to burnout (p. 161). Thus, he viewed burnout from the perspective of an individual and characterized it as one's lack of enough resources to cope with work demands.

The concept was further popularized in social sciences in the writings of Maslach (1976), an American social psychologist, who described the phenomenon-independently of Fredenberger (1974) - from the perspective of a situation rather than that of an individual. In her view, burnout occurs when individuals feel emotionally drained by their work environment and feel that their activities result in no benefit to those they had intended to help. They, thus, lose their feelings of accomplishment and come to blame their clients or themselves for ailing to improve (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). Therefore, she defines burnout as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do 'people-work' of some kind" (p. 99). Later, based on the pioneering work of Freudenberger (1974) and Maslach (1976), Maslach and Jackson (1981) introduced the most widely accepted conceptualization of burnout and construed it as a psychological syndrome that has three dimensions: emotional exhaustion referring to feelings of being emotionally drained by intense contact with other people or feeling unable to give of oneself psychologically, depersonalization (re-conceptualized as 'cynicism') referring to negative attitudes or callous responses toward people or feeling cynical and uncaring toward clients, and reduced personal accomplishment referring to a decline in one's sense of competence and of successful achievement in working with people (Maslach, 1982; Maslach and Leiter, 1997; Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001).

Since Freudenberger (1974) and Maslach's (1976) description of burnout, numerous accounts appeared describing a similar syndrome among individuals in a variety of occupations, and scholars examined the term from different perspectives (such as psychology, sociology, physiology). After reviewing the historical development of the concept of burnout from different perspectives, for instance, Farber (1991) characterized burnout as:

> Burnout is a work-related syndrome that stems from an individual's perception of a significant discrepancy between effort (input) and reward

> (output), this perception being influenced by individual, organizational, and social factors. It occurs most often among those who work face to face with troubled clients and is typically marked by withdrawal from and cynicism toward clients, emotional and physical exhaustion, and various psychological symptoms, such as irritability, anxiety, sadness, and lowered self-esteem (p. 24).

Additionally, Farber (2000a) argued that "burnout is essentially about 'inconsequentiality'- a perception on the part of human-service professionals that their efforts to help others have been ineffective, that the task is endless, and the personal payoffs for their work (in terms of accomplishment, recognition, advancement, or appreciation) have not been forthcoming" (p. 589).

Furthermore, Gold and Roth (1993) argued that burnout develops gradually over a period of time and the ongoing burnout process starts with feelings of anger and frustration, directing one to become dissatisfied with his/her job and experience feelings of hopelessness, loss of interest, and disillusionment. They defined burnout from the perspective of the individual as "a syndrome which emanates from an individual's perceptions of unmet needs and unfulfilled expectations [and] it is characterized by progressive disillusionment, with related psychological and physical symptoms which diminish one's self-esteem" (p. 41).

To shed more light on the concept of burnout, scholars continued their efforts to characterize it. Friedman (1991) recognizes personality and organizational perspectives as two central aspects of burnout. The former "relates to the issue of the profile of the worker with a higher propensity to burn out, and to those personality factors and background variables of the worker that may explain a proclivity toward burnout", and the latter "relates to the issue of what organizational variables (the organization's climate and culture, social, and professional support in the workplace, etc.) explain the process of burnout" (p. 325). Friedman (1995) defines burnout as "a work related syndrome that stems from an individual's perception of a significant discrepancy between effort (input) and reward (output)" (p. 281).

In addition, Pines (1993) examining burnout from an existential perspective puts forward a similar view to Freudenberger (1974) by stating that burnout is "a negative

state of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion that is the end result of a gradual process of disillusionment [and] it is typically found among highly motivated individuals who work over long periods of time in situations that are emotionally demanding" (p. 51). Moreover, Hallsten (1993) defining burnout as "a form of depression that results from the process of burning out, which is …one route to depression" argues that the basic problem with burnout is that it "does not have a sufficiently distinctive character in comparison with such related concepts as depression, stress, and alienation [and] its etiology and its distinguishing aspects in relation to these phenomena are not specified" (p. 96-99). To bring more clarity to burnout construct, the following short conceptualizations are offered:

Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) viewed burnout as "progressive loss of energy, purpose, and concern as a result of conditions of work" (p. 14). Mattingly (1977) also described burnout as a pattern of symptoms, actions, and thoughts. Furthermore, Potter (1987) maintained that job burnout is the impairment of stimulation and enthusiasm to work. Moreover, Gold (1984) remarks that teachers using the term described it as depleted, isolated, worn-out, or disappointed feelings. Additionally, Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) added that burnout causes a steady reduction of dedication and enthusiasm. Besides, Gold and Bachelor (2001) envisioned burnout as "a function of the many stresses felt by individuals in both their social life and their work experiences" (p. 546). Finally, Haberman (2004) described burnout as a condition that prevents professionals from functioning fully.

As it is clear, burnout definitions vary and there is no consensus among scholars about its conceptualization. The commonly approved view, however, is that burnout is a means of coping with a difficult work situation, and most of its definitions include these characteristics: emotional exhaustion, cynicism, low morale, insomnia, depersonalization, reduced accomplishment, lowered productivity, loss of feeling for clients, and physical depletion (Farber, 2000a; Goutas, 2008). As it is argued:

> [Definitions of burnout] have included: (a) to fail, wear out, become exhausted; (b) a loss of creativity; (c) a loss of commitment for work; (d) an estrangement from clients, coworkers, job, and agency; (e) a response to the chronic stress of making it to the top; and finally (f) a syndrome of

> inappropriate attitudes toward clients and toward self, often associated with uncomfortable physical and emotional symptoms (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993, p. 623).

Dworkin (2001) also points out that lack of a universally accepted definition of burnout is one of the problems with burnout research, therefore, researchers are forced to offer a 'trait definition', i.e., listing of symptoms of burnout, its effects and causes in a particular problem.

In short, burnout is a crucial research construct across many disciplines and two types of theoretical models are dominant in its conceptualization: psychological and sociological. Psychological models views burnout mainly as the inability of the individual to cope with stressors, while sociological ones conceptualizes it as organizationally induced phenomenon being redressed through organizational change not personal coping (Dworkin, 2001). Since the development of burnout has contributed to confusions among concepts such as, stress, depression, anxiety, alienation, and strain, the following section tries to bring clarity for relationship between this construct and two other main ones, i.e., stress and depression.

2.2.1. Burnout, Stress and Depression

As burnout research was expanded over years, the concept became less 'fuzzy' and vivid definitions of it appeared in the literature than before (Maslach and Schaufeli, 1993). However, confusion still exists between the concept of burnout and many other concepts such as stress, depression, anxiety, alienation, strain, etc. because the concept was defined so as it includes a list of concepts that overlap and/or attribute to each other. It is impossible to highlight the relationship between burnout and each of these concepts here; therefore, we limit this just to stress and depression, the most discussed concepts in the literature.

Stress has been defined as "the effects produced by an interaction between an individual and the environment, and it is caused by stresses intrinsic to the job, role-based stress, relationships with others, career development, and organizational structure" (LIoyd, 2010, p. 1). Moreover, Gold and Roth (1993) defined stress as "a condition of

disequilibrium within the intellectual, emotional and physical state of the individual; it is generated by one's perceptions of a situation, which result in physical and emotional reactions, [and] it can be either positive or negative, depending upon one's interpretations" (p. 17).

Although stress and burnout have similar attributes, they should not be substituted for each other; for stress may lead to burnout, while burnout does not lead to stress (Lazarus, 1999). As Farber (1984a) argues that stress alone does not cause burnout, it is unmitigated stress that causes burnout and it is a stressful situation in which a person feels that there is 'no way out'. Additionally, Farber (2000b) adds that burnout, which is specific to the helping professions and people-work environments, is a unique type of work-related response to stress rather than a sign of it. Likewise, Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) contend that burnout differs from stress: stress is specific to work requiring intense involvement while burnout being caused by a long-term commitment to demanding situations resulting in a state of physical and emotional fatigue, and it is a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job. Moreover, Lunardi (2004) believes that the burnout syndrome is different from stress because burnout comprises negative attitudes and actions towards users, clients, organization and work, while stress has more to do with a particular relationship between the individual and his/her surrounding environment.

It has also been argued that stress has both positive and negative effects, whereas burnout's effect is completely negative. According to Powell (2000), some of the positive effects of stress include increased energy, alertness and attention. However, more sustained levels of stress may produce negative symptoms such as high blood pressure, sleeping problems, low self-esteem, depression, and burnout. It is implied that we all need a certain degree of stress in our lives to function, develop and achieve things, that is, stress is not necessarily all bad, whereas burnout is. It is excessive amounts of stress over a prolonged period of time that results in loss of well-being or illness (Sorgaard et al., 2007). To bring more clarity to the concepts of stress and burnout, the following citations are itemized:

- Job stress and burnout can be distinguished retrospectively on the basis of their development: job stress refers to an adaptation process that is temporary, whereas burnout refers to a breakdown in the adaptation process (Maslach, 1993).
- Whereas burnout is characterized by disengagement, stress is exemplified by over-engagement. In other words, stress produces urgency and hyperactivity while burnout produces paranoia, depersonalization, and detachment (Gmelch and Torelli, 1994).
- Stress is a short-term emotional state caused by an imbalance between work demands and coping resources, whereas burnout is a long-term stress reaction (Burke, Greenglass, and Schwarzer, 1996).
- Burnout develops and maintains over time and is more static, whereas stress is more volatile and can drastically change over time. A teacher may experience a stressful moment, day, or week, but burnout will not develop as quickly as a few days and will persist longer than just a few weeks. Exposure to various types of stress over time can lead to burnout (Rudow, 1999).
- "While everyone can experience stress, burnout can only be experienced by people who entered their careers with high goals, expectations, and motivation-people who expected to derive a sense of significance from their work. A person who has no such initial motivation can experience job stress but not burnout" (Pines, 1993, p. 38).

Like stress and burnout concepts, depression and burnout are closely related, but they are not the same. This relationship is complex and multi-directional, that is, burnout and depression can contribute to each other and both can be related to some other factors such as anxiety, stress, strain, alienation, self-esteem, etc. According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), one explanation for the overlap between these concepts is that they share common antecedent. For example, chronic stress at work has influence on both burnout and depression, and the personality trait of 'neuroticism' as a fundamental factor underlies both depression and the emotional exhaustion component of burnout, thus, there is substantial correlation between the two concepts.

Brenninkmeyer, Van Yperen, and Buunk (2001), however, characterize depression by these symptoms: “depressed mood, an inability to derive pleasure from things, weight loss or weight gain, insomnia or hypersomnia, psychomotoric agitation or retardation, fatigue or loss of energy, feelings of insufficiency or guilt, indecisiveness or inability to concentrate, and thoughts about death and suicide” (p. 37). Most of these characteristics, indeed, are shared with burnout and some of important ones are hopelessness, helplessness, sadness, decreased energy, and feeling of being overwhelmed. Farber (1984a and 1991) also notes that symptoms of burnout and depression often overlap with each other and that there is some correlation between them, but the origin of each is different: depression resulting from intra-psychic events, whereas burnout resulting from work conditions. That is, burnout is specific to the work context and involves a person’s relationship to his or her work, while depression encompasses all aspects of a person’s life and globally affects it. Moreover, Shirom et al. (2005) argued that burnout and depression may develop in tandem, that is, later phases of burnout may be accompanied by depressive symptomatology.

Studies also show that burnout and depression are not identical concepts. In a longitudinal study among Finnish dentists, Ahola et al. (2005) found that the probability of having a depressive disorder escalates with the level of job burnout while not all sever burned-out individuals fulfilled the criteria for a depressive disorder. Moreover, they added that although there is a reciprocal relationship between burnout and depression symptoms, the path from burnout to depression is stronger than that of depression to burnout. In a similar vein, Shirom (2005) confirmed the possibility of a degree of overlap between burnout and depression, but he argued that they “are not synonymous, since burnout does not include sadness, guilt, hopelessness and feelings of worthlessness, which are considered basic features of depression” (p. 266). Therefore, burnout is distinct from depression, in which burnout is dependent on the quality of the social environment at work, whereas depression is a global state that pervades virtually every aspect of an individual’s environment.

Distinction between burnout and depression constructs was further revealed in cross-sectional studies. For instance, Warr (2007) considered depression as context-free phenomenon encompassing all life domains, whereas burnout is regarded as job-related.

This context specificity was supported in a cross-sectional study on teachers. The study revealed that the lack of reciprocal relationship between teachers and students was related to burnout not to depression, whereas the lack of reciprocal relationship with one's spouse was related to depression not to burnout (Bakker et al. 2000). Another cross-sectional study that clarified the distinction between burnout and depression was achieved through confirmatory factor analyses. The results showed that the items of these concepts did not load on the same factor, that is, the items measuring each of these constructs tap different domains in individuals (Bakker et al. 2000). On the other hand, a cross-sectional study by McKnight and Glass (1995) depicted a positive correlation between these entities because of sharing a common etiology and showing some similar symptoms.

To sum up the distinction between burnout and depression concepts, we cite the study of Brenninkmeyer, Van Yperen, and Buunk (2001) who compared the characteristics of depressed and burned-out individuals to highlight the distinction between these concepts. They argued that burned-out individuals in comparison with depressed ones "(1) make a more vital impression and are more able to enjoy things (although they often lack the energy for it); (2) rarely lose weight, show psych-omotoric inhibition, or report thoughts about suicide; (3) have more realistic feeling of guilt, if they feel guilty; (4) tend to attribute their indecisiveness and inactivity to their fatigue rather than to their illness (as depressed individuals tend to do); [and] (5) often have difficulty falling asleep, whereas in the case of depression one tends to wake up too early" (p. 38).

2.2.2. Teacher Burnout

As burnout in other professions, teacher burnout refers to a decline in well-being that is caused by long term stress in the work environment, and it is generally characterized based on the social-psychological model of Maslach and Jackson (1981), which includes three dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Brenninkmeijer et al., 2001). The first dimension, the most common aspect of burnout, refers to feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted with one's work, i.e., one experiences a depletion of emotional resources and feels 'empty' or 'worn out'. For teachers,

emotional exhaustion refers to "the feeling of having given all that one can, that the teacher has put all of his or her energy and focus into the task of teaching and has finally run out of resources" (Fivesa et al., 2007, p. 918). The second dimension, depersonalization, refers to the development of negative and uncaring attitudes towards others. In teacher burnout, depersonalization occurs when the teacher develops negative feelings and cynical attitudes towards his or her students and perhaps even the school community, and when he/she interacts with students less frequently. The final dimension of burnout refers to the loss of feelings of self-competence and dissatisfaction with one's achievements. Teachers in a state of burnout may evaluate their accomplishments at work negatively: they may provide significantly less information and feel they are no longer doing a meaningful and important job and no longer being happy with teaching as a profession. The result of this negative self-evaluation is a sense of distress and failure in the pursuit of ideals, leaving the teacher with a feeling of demoralization and abject failure (Brenninkmeijer et al., 2001; Fivesa et al., 2007).

Furthermore, teacher burnout in psychological models has been defined as the perception of an imbalance between demands at school and the resources teachers have for coping with them. In other words, it has been characterized as a syndrome resulting from teachers' inability to protect themselves against threats to their self-esteem and well-being (Haberman, 2004). In this perspective, "teachers' coping mechanisms are activated to deal with demands at workplace. When those coping mechanisms fail to stem the demands, then, stress increases and threatens the teachers' mental and physical well-being ultimately leading teachers to quitting or burning out" (Haberman, 2004, p. 1).

Haberman (2004) also offers a behavioral model of teacher burnout as a condition in which teachers remain as paid employees but stop functioning as professionals. They go through the motions of teaching with no emotional commitment to the task and no sense of efficacy. They have come to believe that what they can do will make no significant difference in the lives of their students and see no reason to continue caring or expending any serious effort. Indeed, they are able to cope with the debilitating problems faced by their students and the negative conditions of work in dysfunctional

bureaucracies. Since they no longer take their failures as a sign of any personal inadequacies, they feel neither responsible nor accountable for students' behavior, learning, or anything else. They just want to do the minimum required to remain employed (Haberman, 2004).

Moreover, in his attempt to clarify the concept of burnout in education, Farber (1984a) argues that "teacher burnout has always been around, masquerading in the past under names such as job dissatisfaction and worker alienation" (p. 324). Farber (2000b) also criticizes the views that contemplate burnout as a single phenomenon, i.e. as a syndrome with relatively consistent etiology and symptoms in all individuals. On the contrary, he argues for differentiation of the syndrome based on the result of different ways of responding to stress and frustration at work. He proposes three subtypes of Burnout: worn-out, frenetic, and under-challenged. As it is argued:

> I proposed three types of burnout: (1) a "wornout" subtype, wherein an individual essentially gives up, or performs work in a perfunctory manner, when confronted with too much stress and too little gratification; (2) a "classic" (or "frenetic") burnout, wherein an individual works increasingly hard, to the point of exhaustion, in pursuit of sufficient gratification or accomplishment to match the extent of stress experienced; and (3) an "underchallenged' subtype of burnout, wherein an individual is faced not with an excessive degree of stress per se (i.e., work overload), but rather with monotonous and unstimulating work conditions that fail to provide sufficient rewards (Farber, 2000b, p. 678).

On the basis of this intuitive classification of burnout syndrome, he characterizes three types of burned out teachers:

- The *worn-out teachers* react to stressors not by working harder, rather, by working in a perfunctory manner. They attempt to balance discrepancy between input and output by reducing the input. These teachers believe that regardless of how hard they work, the results will be disappointing.
- (b) The *frenetic-type teachers* often intensify their efforts and do everything possible to have a successful classroom until he or she is exhausted and seek satisfaction or success to equal the stress caused by the invested efforts. The

burned-out teachers do not admit their defeat and state that they are able to overcome all obstacles by working harder.

- (c) The *under-challenged teachers* feel dissatisfaction with the lack of stimulation in tasks they face each day or each year. These teachers feel they can no longer summon any enthusiasm for teaching. They perform the work more perfunctorily, begin to question whether this is the right field, and begin to withdraw energy and enthusiasm (Farber, 2000b).

According to Farber (2000b), "some teachers vacillate among these descriptive categories, but many also are described accurately by these general subtypes" (p. 678). The important thing is that these different types of burned-out teachers likely require different forms of treatment. For instance, a worn-out teacher more likely manifests symptoms akin to those of depression, including a perceived loss of self-esteem, and often cognitive approaches are required to rebalance his or her perceptions; whereas, a more classically burned-out teacher is often helped by a more psychodynamic approach focusing on the person's strong need for great achievement.

In sum, burnout is usually considered as the endpoint of coping unsuccessfully with chronic stress. Burned-out teachers feel psychologically drained or emotionally exhausted. They feel that their coping resources are being severely taxed by their work, and they feel incapable of dealing with any additional stress, that is, they feel 'at the end of their rope'. Often they suffer from 'professional depression', i.e., they feel sad or unhappy about their work and have little enthusiasm or energy for their work. In addition, they usually experience feelings of powerlessness in attempt to educate students and make school pleasant for students, lack enthusiasm to prepare lessons, have difficulty in motivating themselves to come to work, and lose energy, memory and interest in the subject (Bryne, 1998; Friedman, 2000). However, most of them can successfully cope with job related stress through active problem solving, social and emotional support from colleagues, reorganizing the teaching situation, cooperating with parents, or changing their teaching strategy (Jennett, Harris, and Mesibov, 2003).

2.2.3. Symptoms of Teacher Burnout

Burnout is not always easy to distinguish initially because it is a gradual process, yet eventual symptoms, existing as many as 140 different ones, are recognizable. According to Feinberg (2002), some of its symptoms include "overwhelming fatigue, inability to express yourself clearly, sleep disturbances, inability to make decisions, loss of objectivity, irritability leading to anger, cynicism, depression, suicidal thoughts, pessimism, fear, feeling ineffective, personal identification with victims, brusqueness, and insensitivity" (p. 9).

Furthermore, Kalimo and Mejman (1987) offer an additional comprehensive list of burnout symptoms "such as low morale, a negative attitude towards patients, clients, or similar types of person at work, a cynical attitude towards the achievement of working goals, exaggerated confidence expressed in overt behavior, absenteeism, frequent changes of job, and other escapist behavior such as using drugs" (p. 27). They further state that burnout is not described in terms of a 'single index'. Since burnout has three key components, three major symptom categories must be recognized with each: physical symptoms for physical exhaustion; symptoms connected with attitudes and feelings for emotional exhaustion and over-depersonalization; and behavioral symptoms for lowered job accomplishment or lowered productivity.

Moreover, Botha (2006) characterizes Burnout by an assortment of psychological (cognitive and affective), physical and behavioral symptoms. They include low energy and chronic fatigue, insomnia, recurrent flu spells and colds, infections, digestive problems, dizziness, nausea, allergies, skin problems, breathing difficulties, stiffness and muscle aches, back pains and headaches, depression, substance abuse, loss of concentration, problematic interpersonal relations and low self-esteem.

To categorize symptoms of Burnout, Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) also examined the works of various scholars such as Freudenberger (1974), Burisch (1993), and Cordes and Dougherty (1993) and compiled a list of 132 symptoms associated with Burnout. They categorized the list into five clusters including: affective, cognitive, physical, behavioral, and motivational. Later, Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) increased the

distinction of symptoms by delineating three levels on which burnout may occur: individual, interpersonal, and organizational (See Appendix A). Another five-level model of burnout symptoms recognized with human service providers was also offered by Schaufeli and Buunk (2005):

- *affective manifestations*: gloomy depressed mood, aggression and anxiety;
- *cognitive manifestations*: feelings of hopelessness, helplessness and powerlessness, a sense of failure, poor job-related esteem, impotence, impaired cognitive skills such as memory and attention, negativism, pessimism, reduced empathy, distrust and an exceptionally critical attitude towards management, peers and supervisors;
- *physical manifestations*: regular bouts of flu, somatic complaints, higher levels of cortisol and cholesterol and coronary heart disease;
- *behavioral manifestations*: substance abuse, absenteeism, staff turnover and impaired work performance; and
- *motivational manifestations*: a decline in and/or loss of enthusiasm, interest, idealism and zest, disillusionment, disappointment, resignation and submission, interpersonal conflicts and physical and mental withdrawal (Van Tonder and Williams, 2009, p. 2).

As it is clear, burnout manifests itself in many ways; and it is a non-discriminatory phenomenon prevalent in all occupations and can invariably affect all employees. Yet, some unique features of the teaching profession are of interest here.

According to Larwood and Paje (2004), teachers who experience high levels of stress for a significant amount of time usually develop the following most pervasive burnout characteristics: less sympathy towards students as well as reduced tolerance of students, failure to prepare lessons adequately, a noticeable lowering level of commitment to teaching, a loss of enthusiasm and interest, decreased self-esteem and feelings of disaffection and alienation. Moreover, Farber (1991) notes that symptoms of burnout often overlap with symptoms of depression, that is, there is some correlation between symptoms of burnout and symptoms of depression. The main physical symptoms of teacher burnout compared to that of depression are physical fatigue, change in appetite,

and change in sleep habits (Escobar, 2004). Burned-out teachers may also experience high levels of emotional exhaustion, feel insufficient in their own abilities, and psychologically feel "an erosion in values, dignity, spirit, and will, an erosion of the human soul" (Maslach and Leiter, 1997, p. 17).

Other significant signs of teacher burnout are social symptoms including withdrawal from co-workers, students, or even family members. Teachers who have feelings of burnout often have a tendency of depersonalizing students, i.e., developing negative, callous, dehumanizing attitudes toward them, especially those students with more challenging behaviors. Teachers experiencing depersonalization also avoid interactions with students and are less willing to work with them and their families. They also may subconsciously remove themselves from the role and responsibility of teaching, thereby leaving students to make their own connections among the content and construct their own learning (Male and May, 1997; Fivesa, Hammana and Olivarez, 2007).

In short, teacher burnout begins with a feeling of mild dissatisfaction and increases until the joy of teaching begins to slip away, and it may manifest itself in psychological, physical, emotional and social-behavioral forms. Symptoms of teacher burnout are noted as similar to those in other professions. However, the commonly referenced symptoms are those acknowledged by Maslach and Jackson (1986): emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and feelings of reduced personal accomplishment.

2.2.4. Teacher Burnout Growth and Development

It is also worth knowing: How does a teacher move from feelings of excitement and growth to this heavy, soul-stifling dreariness? When does the shift take place? Answers to these questions are not always obvious and easily obtained. There are various developmental models of burnout trying to solve this dilemma, but none of them have so far been successful. However, the common articulation among scholars in the field is that burnout doesn't happen overnight: when it begins to occur, resource-depletion cycles are usually detected; and it develops gradually with small warning signals and leads into a more serious psychological concern if left unattended. For instance, Cheriss (1980), as a pioneering figure in the field, argues that the growth and development of

burnout happens gradually and proposes a three-stage model for its development. As it is argued:

> The first stage involves an imbalance between resources and demands (stress). The second stage is the immediate, short-term emotional tension, fatigue, and exhaustion (strain). The third stage consists of a number of changes in attitude and behavior, such as a tendency to treat clients in a detached and mechanical fashion, or a cynical preoccupation with gratification of one's own needs (defensive coping) (Cherniss, 1980: 17).

Moreover, Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) point out that burnout progressive processes take place at four stages: (1) at first, the individual is enthusiastic about his/her work and full of energy, and has positive expectations about others and the situation; (2) the next stage is a stagnation phase in which the high energy level decreases and the person's expectations are diminished. In this phase there is also a shift from meeting the needs of others to meeting their own needs; (3) in the third stage, frustration develops as the person begins to feel powerless, dissatisfy with his/her outcomes, and sense lack of support; (4) in the final stage, the person begins to feel apathetic, develop negative attitudes and behaviors to others, withdraw him-/herself from others, colleagues, and the work.

Similarly, Farber (1991) suggests that burnout occurs as a process including six stages: "(1) enthusiasm and dedication give way to (2) frustrations and anger in response to personal, work-related, and social stressors, which in turn, engender (3) a sense of inconsequentiality, which leads to (4) withdrawal of commitment and then to (5) increased personal vulnerability with multiple physical, cognitive, and emotional symptoms, which, unless dealt with, (6) escalate until a sense of depletion and loss of caring occurs" (p. 35).

Friedman (1996) also suggests another process model in which burnout progression consists of two distinct tracks leading from the emergence of stressors to the reactions to stress-induced experiences. They are: (a) a cognitive pathway, involving a sense of low personal and professional accomplishment, and (b) an emotional pathway that evolves into an initial sense of overload, followed by a sense of emotional exhaustion. The tracks may intersect, allowing other merging paths to be identified.

The developmental trajectory of burnout has also been examined through taking into account Maslach and Jackson's (1981) conceptualization of burnout: a psychological syndrome that has three dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced feelings of personal accomplishment (Leiter, 1993; Maslach and Leiter, 1997; Schaufeli and Enzmann, 1998). Theoretically, three prominent models exist that describe the development of burnout based on Maslach and Jackson's (1981) conceptualization: the phase model of Golembiewski et al. (1986), Leiter and Maslach's process model (1988), and Lee and Ashforth's model (1996).

Golembiewski et al. (1986) proposed an eight-phase model in which each of the three dimensions of burnout is split into high and low scores, so that all possible combinations of the three dimensions results in eight patterns, or phases, of burnout. In the eight-phase model, Phase II is the high depersonalization phase which deprives individuals of information, increases ambiguity and impedes work performance over time, and Phase VIII is emotional exhaustion, a level of strain beyond the individual's comfortable coping capability. In terms of development, Golembiewski et al. (1986) argue that in the process of burning out depersonalization (cynicism) is experienced first since some level of detachment is necessary in service settings, and it is followed by inefficacy which finally triggers emotional exhaustion. Research based on the phase model has also established that the progression of phases from low to high burnout is correlated with worsening indices of both work and personal well-being. Research conducted in North America as well as in global settings using the eight-phase model illustrated the following changes in character and quality of life in organizations: (a) job involvement and all facets of job satisfaction decrease, (b) turnover increases, both in intent and in actual departures, (c) group cohesiveness decreases, (d) physical and emotional symptoms increase, (e) features of family life deteriorate, (f) indicators of performance fall, and (g) costs of medical insurance increase significantly (Golembiewski and Munzenrider, 1988; Golembiewski, 1996).

In contrast with Golembiewski and his colleagues (1986), Leiter and Maslach (1988) argue that exhaustion being triggered from work stressors occurs first, leading to the development of cynicism (or depersonalization) as an attempt to cope with the stressors. When these feelings of depersonalization persist, the achievement of work goals can be

hampered and feelings of reduced personal accomplishment or inefficacy develop. A study of hospital nurses yielded the sequence, thus, confirming the developmental model of Leiter and Maslach (1988): (a) stressful interactions with supervisors increased the workers' feelings of exhaustion; (b) high levels of exhaustion led to cynicism, especially if workers lacked supportive contact with their coworkers; (c) as cynicism persisted, the workers' feelings of efficacy diminished (Leiter and Maslach, 1988; Golembiewski and Munzenrider, 1988). Finally, Lee and Ashforth (1996) in their attempt to compare these latter two models propose a variation on them. Just like Leiter and Maslach (1988), they consider depersonalization to develop from emotional exhaustion; however, they additionally argue that reduced personal accomplishment develops independently from depersonalization. In fact, they state that reduced personal accomplishment is evoked directly by emotional exhaustion.

To conclude this section, it is pointed out that most process-based definitions of burnout maintain that it starts out with stress resulting from the discrepancy between individual's expectations and ideals on the one hand and the harsh reality of everyday occupational life on the other hand. Gradually, the individual starts to feel emotionally strained and begins to change his/her positive attitudes towards the job and the people he/she works with, finally resulting in burnout. When characterized in teachers' context, it can be stated that teachers on the road to burnout often start to feel themselves in a stress-induced situation as a result of excessive demands, which may be self- or external-imposed such as demands from students, their families, work situation, study, friends, value systems, society etc. This sense of an imbalance between resources and demands gradually results in depletion of their energy and emotional resources and lets them experience tiredness and exhaustion to attend classes or complete assessments on time. It is often accompanied by a number of additional problems such as sleeping problems, headache, and forgetfulness, thus, their immune system starts to break down because of fatigue or illness. To reduce emotional exhaustion, they change their positive attitudes and behaviors towards their recipients (such as, students, colleagues or family members) and create a psychological distance in an attempt to protect themselves against the stressful social environment. This diminishes their relationship with their recipients and aggravates interpersonal problems. As a result, they diminish their

personal accomplishment and feel inadequate in their efficacy and competence, eventually leading them to a more serious psychological concern, i.e., burnout.

2.3. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES OF BURNOUT

The concept of burnout has grown in the fields of psychology, organizational behavior, behavioral medicine, social work, and education, therefore, there are various theories trying to shed light on the burnout phenomenon. The concept often has been described from five perspectives: the *individual (or clinical) perspective,* the *social-psychological perspective,* the *psychodynamic existential perspective*, the *organizational perspective*, and the *social-historical perspective*. Each of these perspectives is a base through which the concept of burnout has blossomed in science, but *psychological* and *sociological* perspectives usually weigh against others in the literature. So, before presenting the relevant characteristics of aforementioned perspectives let's see how burnout is characterized from *psychological* and *sociological* perspectives, which share much with all perspectives.

According to Dworkin et al. (2003), burnout has generally come from a psychological orientation, viewing it as a failure to cope with job stressors. This approach "defines burnout as a loss of idealism and enthusiasm for work that is manifested by exhaustion, depersonalization, depression, low morale and emotional withdrawal" (p. 108). Moreover, the model attributes the causes to work conditions and ascribes 'blame' for burnout to the victims. Since burnout is viewed as the inability of individuals to cope with stressors, psychologists try to help burned-out individuals learn coping strategies and techniques to combat the issue (i.e., stress management). They also recommend a variety of clinical solutions such as yoga, deep breathing exercises, naps, and mental health breaks (Dworkin, 2001; Dworkin, et al. 2003).

Sociological models, on the other hand, conceptualize burnout as a form of role-specific alienation involving powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation, and estrangement. According to (Dworkin, 2001), professionals may acquire a sense of powerlessness when they are unable to negotiate agreements on role performances or to determine the role expectations within a human service organization, which soon leads

them to a sense of meaninglessness. Later, they begin to withdraw themselves from social relationships within the organization (isolation) and to question whether continued participation in the organizational role is consistent with their self-conception (estrangement). Finally, burned-out individuals begin to blame their clients for failing to improve, and they may also characterize the organization as normlessness, i.e., either there are no rules or that following the rules tends to be dysfunctional Dworkin, 2001; Dworkin et al., 2003). In sociological models, burnout is viewed to have roots in organizational and social structures; therefore, the addressed interventions focus on structural changes in the organization rather than on teaching coping skills to burned-out individuals as it was in psychological models (Dworkin, 2001).

However, this short explanation of the difference between psychological and sociological perspectives will be helpful to understand individual (or clinical) perspective which attributes burnout to intrapersonal factors and offers coping strategies and clinical solutions for burnout treatment. It also will be beneficial in understanding social-psychological, existential, organizational, and social-historical perspectives that mainly look for the organizational and social roots of burnout and suggest structural-change solutions for its treatment.

2.3.1. Clinical Perspective

The individual (most often known as clinical) perspective views that burnout has its origin in intrapersonal factors, so, it concerns with the study of the burnout processes entirely within individuals, i.e., the consequence of deficiency must thoroughly be searched in the personal profile of individuals. This psychological approach was initially flourished in the clinical activities of Freudenberger (1974) who tried to characterize his own experience of emotional depletion and loss of motivation. He also studied demoralized situations of health workers caring for drug addicts. In his attempt, he further noted that the most overtly committed and excessively dedicated professionals were prone to burnout. In his search for possible reasons, he observed that burned-out workers attributed an inordinate sense of importance to their work: working too hard and caring too much. When they had difficulties in fulfilling their roles due to sever demanding situations, they were subjected to burnout (Farber 1991; Byrne, 1999).

To help the burned-out individuals, Freudenberger (1974) would offer a variety of clinical solutions such as getting away from maladaptive behaviors, deep breathing exercises, and taking naps. He would also suggest relaxation training and coping skills to them: coping is "cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific internal and/or external demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of a person" (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984, p. 46). Based on his observations and experience, Freudenberger (1974) ultimately characterized burnout basically as the product of an unfortunate interaction between overzealous helpers and over-needy clients (Farber 1991; Byrne, 1999), and defined it on the basis of his clinical views as "the state of physical and emotional depletion resulting from conditions of work" Freudenberger (1974, p. 160).

In addition to this purely psychological orientation, there is also somehow an individual perspective to burnout that views burnout psychologically as the loss of idealism and enthusiasm based on the personal profile of people: Conservation of Resources (COR) theory of Hobfoll (1989). The basic underlying tenet of COR theory is that people have a deep motivation to obtain, maintain, and protect things they value, called technically resources. They are usually divided into four categories: objects (e.g., house), conditions (e.g., well-being, health), personal characteristics (e.g., sense of coherence), and energies (e.g., knowledge).

According to Xanthopoulou et al. (2009), it is often distinguished between two types of resources when the COR theory is applied to the study of burnout: personal and job. Personal resources are positive self-evaluations that are linked to resiliency and refer to individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment successfully (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, and Jackson, 2003). As such, personal resources "(a) are functional in achieving goals, (b) protect from threats and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and (c) stimulate personal growth and development" (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009, p. 236). It has also been argued that the positive self-evaluations relates strongly to various aspects of work related well-being (e.g., job satisfaction), so, the higher the personal resources, the more positive self-regard. In turn, it is likely that individuals experience high levels of accordance between the goals they set and their capabilities. Individuals with such goal self-concordance are

intrinsically motivated to pursue their goals and as a result they trigger satisfaction (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

On the other hand, job resources (such as autonomy, social support, supervisory coaching, performance feedback, and opportunities for professional development) are those physical, social, psychological and/or organizational aspects of the job that "(a) are functional in achieving work goals, (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and (c) stimulate personal growth and development" (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009: 236). Job resources may have both intrinsic motivational potential by facilitating learning or personal development and extrinsic motivational potential by providing instrumental help or specific information for goal achievement (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). As such, they induce employees to meet their goals. In turn, employees may become more committed and engaged in their job because they derive fulfillment from it (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009; Demerouti et al., 2001).

Thus, resources play a central motivational role in COR theory, and the affective state of burnout reflects one's depletion of resources, i.e., burnout is expected to occur when resources are threatened or when individuals fail to gain resources after substantive resource investment. Moreover, COR theory postulates that those who lack a strong resource pool are more likely to experience cycles of resource loss, and that resources affect each other negatively: lack of one is often associated with lacking the other (Hobfoll and Shirom, 2000; Shirom and Melamed, 2006). Therefore, the proposed interventions of COR theory for burnout focus on enhancing resources and preventing vulnerability of them (Hobfoll and Freedy, 1993).

To conclude this section, it is just reminded that individual reactions to burnout based on psychological views include feelings of emotional exhaustion (referring to feelings that are too weak to display empathy to clients and coworkers and lacking the energy needed to invest in relationships with other people at work), physical fatigue (referring to feelings of tiredness and low levels of energy in carrying out daily tasks at work, like getting up in the morning to go to work), and cognitive weariness (referring to feelings of slow thinking and reduced thinking agility) that result from the gradual depletion of

individuals' intrinsic energetic resources at work over time (Schaufeli and Buunk, 2005; Shirom, 2003).

2.3.2. Social-psychological Perspective

The pioneering figure of the social-psychological orientation is Maslach (1976) who observed the prevalence of emotional stress among human-service workers during her interviews with them. Based on her field observations, she described burnout as a psychological syndrome that develops in response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors in the work situation and defined it as "an individual stress experience that is embedded in a context of social relationships, and thus involves the person's conception of both self and others" (Maslach, 1999, p. 215).

Unlike the individual or clinical perspectives viewing burnout as a problem residing entirely within an individual (i.e., the consequence of a deficiency must be sought only in the personal profile of an individual), the social-psychological perspective views that the cause of burnout should primarily be sought in the situational conditions under which an individual works. As it is argued:

> What a person brings to the job is just as critical as what the situation brings out of (or puts into) him or her. And what a person brings are individual characteristics such as motivations, needs, values, self-esteem, emotional expressiveness and control, and personal styles. These internal qualities determine how someone handles external sources of emotional stress and help explain why person A will experience burnout in a particular work setting while person B will not"(Maslach, 1982:57).

In her attempt to clarify the parameters of the burnout phenomenon, Maslach and Jackson (1981) characterized the term burnout so as to capture the overall state brought about by the compound effects of (a) a sense of being emotionally, mentally and physically drained, (b) a detachment from clients, often accompanied by negative or callous attitudes, and (c) a perceived or experienced lack of accomplishment and diminished productivity accompanied by feelings of incompetence. On the basis of these features they construed burnout as a psychological syndrome that has three

dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment.

(a) The emotional exhaustion component representing the basic dimension of burnout refers to feelings of being emotionally overextended and depleted of one's emotional resources, (b) depersonalization representing the interpersonal dimension of burnout refers to the development of negative, cynical attitudes and feelings about one's clients, and (c) the reduced personal accomplishment component representing the self-evaluation dimension of burnout refers to the tendency to evaluate oneself negatively, particularly with regard to one's work with clients (Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Maslach and Leitter, 1999; Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter, 2001). Finally, Maslach and Jackson (1981) defined burnout as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do 'people work' of some kind" (p. 99).

However, Maslach and Jackson's (1981) burnout conceptualization was soon criticized because of its inapplicability in non-human service contexts and focusing more explicitly on emotional demands. In other words, the initial assumption of burnout was exclusively restricted to the human service domains (e.g., health care, education, and social work), but it was appeared that burnout would also occur among employees not doing people work of some kind, and the proposed scale could not measure the burnout levels of these groups as it was claimed (Lee and Ashforth, 1990; Enzmann, 1994; Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001). Therefore, Maslach et al. (1996) subsequently went on to broaden the concept toward all types of professions or occupational groups, and re-conceptualized the three initial burnout dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment beyond the interpersonal domain by offering three more generic burnout dimensions labeled as exhaustion, cynicism and lack of professional efficacy, respectively.

Based on the new social-psychological assumption, the dimensions were defined as: (a) exhaustion refers to energy depletion or the draining of emotional resources and is characterized by mental, emotional and physical tiredness, not making direct reference to other people as the source of one's tiredness; (b) cynicism refers to the development of negative attitudes towards one's job or the recipients of one's work; and (c) the lack

of professional efficacy component encompassing both social and nonsocial aspects of occupational accomplishments is the tendency to evaluate one's work negatively, often accompanied by feelings of insufficiency, self-doubt and poor self-esteem (Schaufeli et al., 1996; Schaufeli and Buunk, 2005).

It is also important to note that this late social-psychological model of Maslach et al. (1996) views the three components of burnout as separate, but continuous. In fact, though exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced professional efficacy are theoretically thought as distinct components, they are still considered to be interrelated: because it is speculated that exhaustion (the most influenced component by situational factors) is the critical burnout component impacting significantly depersonalization which, in turn, has an influence on reduced professional efficacy (Schaufeli et al., 1996; Byrne, 1999). At last, on the basis of this notion burnout was defined as a crisis in one's relationship with work itself, not with people at work, and individuals were not classified as 'burned-out' or 'not burned-out', as it was in Maslach and Jackson's (1981) conceptualization. Rather, the burnout levels of people were measured on a continuum in each component, and high levels of exhaustion and cynicism, and low levels of efficacy, were viewed as indicators of burnout (Schaufeli et al., 1996).

In short, social-psychological orientations pay attention to concurrent role of both work-setting and individual factors in the emergence of burnout and characterize it as the loss of idealism and enthusiasm that can be personally or organizationally induced (Ahola et al., 2005). In addition, burnout as an indicator of a dysfunctional work setting occurs when overstressed individuals feel emotionally drained by their work environment and/or by intense contact with other people. Moreover, they feel that their activities result in no benefit to those they intended to help and come to blame their clients, patients, or students for failing to improve, get better, or learn. They also feel unhappy about themselves and are dissatisfied with their accomplishments. Therefore, this viewpoint offers individual and work-setting interventions such as (a) reducing individuals' job demands, (b) enhancing their coping resources, (c) recommending coping strategies and techniques for better use of resources, (d) creating structural and social changes that reduce pressures on individuals and motivate them to the work.

2.3.3. Existential Perspective

A psychodynamic-existential perspective, descended from the social-psychological perspective, is a theoretical model that tries to explain career burnout through an existential significance. Emerging from clinical experiences and case studies, this theoretical approach assumes that "the root cause of burnout lies in people's need to believe that their life is meaningful, and that the things they do- and consequently they themselves- are important and significant" (Pines, 2000a, p. 633).

An existential perspective on burnout was first offered by Frankl (1962) who introduced this view on burnout with his psychology of meaning. He coined "the term 'existential vacuum' for a mode of existence without any meaning and purpose, prone to neuroticism and characterized by boredom and attempts to escape such boredom by distraction" (Loonstra et al., 2009, p. 753). Today, scholars leaning towards an existential perspective on burnout, however, postulate the need for characterizing the process through 'existential fulfillment', a term direct opposite of 'existential vacuum'.

Existential fulfillment refers to a way of life full of meaning and purpose and aims at doing full justice to the nature of human existence. It is characterized by three notions which are interpreted as basic attitudes to pursue existential fulfillment to overcome the psychological conflicts caused by human limitedness: self-acceptance, self-actualization, and self-transcendence. That is, human beings pursue life goals by accepting his or her potentialities and intrinsic limitations (self-acceptance), by developing his or her possibilities and potentialities for the sake of personal growth in understanding and abilities (self-actualization), and by recognizing the otherness of the reality beyond the self (self-transcendence). These three tasks, according to the existential psychological approach, are boundary experiences of human beings and determinants of human existence, that is, people can find life-meaningful if they fulfill these existential tasks; otherwise, burnout is the common result when individuals do not accept their limitations and potentialities, are not eager to explore and develop their limited potentialities, and do not recognize and respect others who relate to them (Loonstra et al., 2009).

In this framework, Pines (2000a/b), a pioneering figure in the field, suggests an integration of psychoanalytic and existential ideas as the best way to understand the etiology of career burnout. She adds that based on psychoanalytic theory people shape their world both consciously and unconsciously. Childhood experiences (both positive and negative) and familial heritage have a major influence on vocational choices. People choose an occupation that enables them to replicate significant childhood experiences, satisfy needs that were unfulfilled in their childhood, and actualize dreams passed on to them by their familial heritage. By blending her psychoanalytic ideas to existential views, she further argues that the choice of a career involves extremely significant issues, and people approach the process with very high hopes and expectations, high ego involvement, and passion. The greatest passion and the highest ego involvement are typically exhibited by individuals with some unresolved childhood issue, most often an issue regarding the relationship with a parent. Success and personal fulfillment give highly motivated individuals a sense of existential significance and partially heal their childhood wounds. However, when they feel that they have failed and/or when the work does not give their life a sense of meaning, they burn out (Pines and Yafe-Yanai, 2001; Pines and Keinan, 2005).

Thus, Pines (1993) describes burnout as a syndrome growing out of a gradual disillusionment in a quest to derive a sense of existential significance from work. Accordingly, she thinks that "People who expect to derive a sense of existential significance from their work enter their chosen careers with high goals and expectations, idealistic and motivated. When they feel that they have failed, that their work is insignificant, that they make no difference in the world, they start feeling helpless and hopeless and eventually burn out" (Pines and Keinan, 2005, p. 626).

According to Pines and Keinan (2005), three sets of data indirectly support the existential perspective: correlational studies of career burnout, data gathered during burnout workshops, and clinical work with burned-out professionals. In her studies of hospital nurses (n=100) and managers (n=66), Pines (2002a) demonstrated that aspects of work correlating with burnout tend to be those that provide workers with a sense of significance. Thus, the burnout levels of hospital nurses in her study did not correlate with the number of hours they worked ($r = .08$), but it significantly correlated with their

‘sense of accomplishment’ (r = .43). Also, overextended feeling of managers did not correlate with their burnout levels (r = .05), but it significantly correlated with ‘having influence’ factor (r = .40). However, Pines (2002a) argues that one of the outcomes of burnout is the feeling that the work is insignificant.

Another, indirect support for the existential perspective was also obtained in hundreds of burnout workshops, done by Pines (1993, 2000a/b, 2002a/b), with professionals from a wide range of occupations. The results demonstrated a relationship between the goals and expectations of professionals when they entered their career and the stressors that eventually led them to burnout. For example, based on her workshop studies Pines (2002b) contends that the most important goals and expectations for teachers may be educating students, influencing and inspiring them (being a role model), providing them with knowledge and values he/she believes in, shaping their personality and influencing their future, getting them excited about his/her teaching subject, working with them to have significant impact on them as an educator, and showing his/her initiative and creativity in his/her work. As a result, the major causes of teacher burnout can be discipline problems (i.e., students being disruptive, impertinent, unmotivated, inattentive, indifferent, and disparaging), low-status teaching, bureaucracy, low supportive parents, and lack of enough resources to do the job right (Pines 2002b; Pines and Keinan, 2005). Thus, she concludes that when teachers feel there is a discrepancy between what they are investigating in their relationships with students and what they receive in turn, burnout is more likely to occur (Pines and Aronson, 1988; Pines, 2000b).

Finally, Pines (2002a) argues that her clinical work with burned-out professionals also suggests that burnout is often related to a lack of a sense of significance at work. When that sense of significance is restored, the problem of burnout is resolved. Therefore, Pines (2000a) offers a three-step treatment plan: (a) identifying the conscious and unconscious reasons for the individual’s career choice and how the chosen career was expected to provide a sense of existential significance, (b) identifying the reasons for the individual’s failure to drive a sense of existential significance from the work and how this sense of failure is related to burnout, and (c) identifying changes that will enable the individual to derive a sense of existential significance from work.

In short, the psychodynamic-existential perspective to burnout ensuing from the healthy psychological views and benefiting from the existential fulfillment concept attributes burnout to a failure in the existential quest for meaning which entails a loss of interest, a lack of initiative, and emotional exhaustion. Additionally, it postulates that employees are able to withstand great amounts of work stress if they feel that their work is valued and appreciated by others.

2.3.4. Organizational Perspective

While the social psychological perspective emphasizes the social nature of the work environment in occurrence of burnout, the organizational psychological perspective concerns with links between burnout and particular features of the work environment. At this level, burnout similarly has pronounced consequences in the organization and occurs when employees cannot accomplish their specified role properly within the established regulations of a structure. In other words, it is argued that burnout relates to the discrepancy between individuals' expectations about how to meet their role responsibilities and expectations imposed by the existing organizational structure. When pressure for improved performance intensifies or is maintained for long periods, stress arising from the situation results in exhausted and/or burnt-out employees (Cherniss, 1980; Maslach and Leiter, 1997).

An important development step in burnout research at organizational level was taken by Demerouti et al. (2001) through proposing Job Demands-Resource Model (JD-R Model). At the heart of JD-R model, which is somewhat similar to the COR theory, lies the premise that each occupation may have its own specific risk factors associated with burnout, but they can be classified in two general categories (i.e., job demands and job resources), thus, constituting an overarching model that may be applied to various occupational settings irrespective of the particular demands and resources involved (Demerouti et al., 2001).

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2007), job demands refers to "those physical, social or organizational aspect of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs" (p.

312), and job resources are "those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: be functional in achieving work goals; reduce job demands and associated physiological and psychological costs; and stimulate personal growth and development" (p. 312).

The JD-R model views that burnout occurs when job demands (work overload, emotional demands by students, physical demands, and work-home interferences) are very high and job resources (social support, quality of the relationship with the supervisor, autonomy, and performance feedbacks) are very low. More specifically, when there is an increase in job demands, the individual's mental and physical resources are drained, thus, leading him/her to a state of exhaustion. Likewise, a decrease in job resources weakens motivation and leads to an increase in cynicism and disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Therefore, it is important for individuals to maintain a balance between job demands and job resources to avoid the development of burnout. A person will be psychologically vulnerable to a determined situation if he or she does not possess sufficient coping resources to handle it adequately, at the same time, if he or she places considerable importance on the threat implicit in the consequences of this inadequate handling. From this perspective, burnout syndrome may be seen as a progressively-developed process resulting mainly from ineffective use of the coping resources with which professionals should protect themselves from work-related stressors (Demerouti et al., 2001).

A recent theoretical development in burnout study that emphasizes on organizational factors in occurrence of burnout is the shift toward burnout's opposite: engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2002a/b; Schaufeli and Salanova, 2007; Bakker and Demerouti, 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). That is, burnout and work engagement are assumed as the opposite poles of a continuum. This theoretical model tries to approach the burnout phenomenon from the positive side of an employee by focusing on one's strengths rather than on one's weaknesses: engaged employees have a sense of energetic and effective connection with their work activities, and they see themselves able to deal well with the demands of their job (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004).

There are two schools of thought over the relationship between burnout and work engagement. The first approach proposed by Maslach and Leiter (1997) assumes that engagement and burnout constitute the opposite poles of a continuum of work related well-being, with burnout representing the negative pole and engagement the positive pole. Thus, they characterize engagement by energy, involvement and efficacy aspects which constitute the opposites of the three corresponding aspects of burnout, i.e., exhaustion, cynicism and reduced professional efficacy, respectively.

In contrast to Maslach and Leiter's (1997) approach, Schaufeli and Bakker (2001) put forward a different view of relationship between burnout and work engagement by arguing that engagement should be conceptualized and operationalized in its own right because it is an energetic state in which one is dedicated to excellent performance of work and confidence of one's effectiveness, whereas, burnout is a state of exhaustion in which one is cynical about the value of one's occupation and doubtful of one's capacity to perform. This means that when an employee is not burned-out, this doesn't necessarily mean that he or she is engaged in his or her work, contrarily, when an employee is low on engagement, this does not mean that he or she is burned-out. Furthermore, the relationship between both constructs cannot be studied empirically when they are measured with the same questionnaire, i.e., both concepts cannot be included simultaneously in one model in order to study their concurrent validity (Schaufeli et al., 2002b; Schaufeli and Salanova, 2007).

For these reasons, Schaufeli and Bakker (2001) considered burnout and work engagement as two distinct concepts and defined work engagement as ''a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption'' (Schaufeli et al., 2002a, p. 72). Whereby, the three dimensions of engagement were defined as: "vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working and by the willingness and ability to invest effort in one's work. Dedication is characterized by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. The final dimension of engagement, absorption, is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one feels carried away by one's job" (Schaufeli et al., 2002b, p. 465).

In short, the organizational perspective emerging from Maslach and Leiter's (1997) expansion of their previous theoretical model views that burnout develops as a result of imbalance between the person and the job conditions in an organizational context, therefore, solutions (such as reducing workload and pressures on individuals, motivating individuals to the work and controlling conflict, increasing social support and fairness, and providing enough resources) reside in creating structural and social changes in organizations.

2.3.5. Social-historical Perspective

Social-historical perspective emphasizes the impact of social processes at large on the occurrence of burnout rather than the effect of the individual, interpersonal, and organizational factors. Unfortunately, the literature does not offer much in this regard. It is limited to studies of Sarason (1983) and Cherniss (1982) who try to understand burnout by taking into account the socio-historical background of a society. Therefore, the views of Cherniss (1982) are only mentioned here.

Cherniss (1982) argues that most burnout studies and interventions have been focused on the worker and the work setting, but these factors are strongly influenced by social, political, and economic processes in a society. As it is argued:

> Unfortunately, most of those who are interested in the problem of burnout focus all of their attention on the individual and organizational factors that most directly contribute to stress and burnout in a human service setting. Their analysis and interventions are ahistorical and do not take into account the social, political, and economic forces that so significantly shape the quality of work life in the human services. Consequently, any "solutions" to emerge from such an approach will be inadequate. They may produce short-term, "statistically significant" changes in burnout in isolated studies or projects, but there will be little meaningful lasting change in the incidence or severity of the problem (Cherniss, 1982, p. 8-9).

Moreover, he states that he has identified several particularly important socio-historical trends that culminated in the emergence of burnout as a social problem in the United State of America during seventies, but he describes one of them as: "the steady decline in public support for and interest in human services during the early seventies" which

greatly affected human service providers in American society (Cherniss, 1982, p. 1). In other words, he states that burnout emerged first in the human services and then spread to other areas, and it was in human services that concern about job stress and loss of commitment initially became popular in U.S.A around the 1976. Thus, in order to better understand why the problem has become so prominent, it makes sense to look at what was happening in the human services prior to that time.

Cherniss (1982) further adds that the 1960s undoubtedly is regarded as a 'golden age' in America's history in providing human services to deal with social problems (such as poverty, inequalities in education, health issues) after World War II because much amount of public interest, political support, and financial resources had been directed towards this sector then. But, when people found out that the officials had misused the allocated public money (such as allocation of public financial aid to other programs), the problems had remained unsolved, the government had reduced its financial support to these programs, and politicians had changed the political processes in favor of themselves rather than that of clients and human service providers etc., the public became more willing to question and challenge public officials and institutions. When they grew tired of these negative activities, they began to concern more about their own economic welfare rather than that of others. These factors contributed to lack of resources which, in turn, led to increased role overload, red tape, bureaucratic controls, role ambiguity, and centralization of decision-making procedures (the common sources of burnout in human services). The final result, however, was the emergence of burnout as a social problem among human service providers of American society in the mid-seventies.

Finally, Cherniss (1982) contends that "if the root causes of a problem exist at the level of social attitudes and political processes, this is where meaningful intervention must occur" (p. 9). But the problem is that social and political actions are very risky, and it does not pay well. In addition, it takes a great deal of time and energy to solve a social problem through political activities. To conclude this main part, it is just stated that no theoretical explanation can account for the complexity of the burnout phenomenon. To understand burnout processes, it is better to integrate these theoretical models.

2.4. BURNOUT MEASURING SCALES

After the popularization of the burnout concept during the early 1980s, its assessment attracted the interest of many researchers, particularly those who study the syndrome in the human services sectors. To this end, Maslach and Jackson (1981) developed the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) which was initially used for measuring the syndrome. The scale evolved over time and became the most widely-accepted instrument. Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) estimated that as many as 90% of all studies examining occupational burnout have used the MBI. It is also necessary to remind that burnout is also assessed by several other measures which are scientifically validated. Therefore, three of these standard scales (i.e., Burnout Measure, Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure, and Oldenburg Burnout Inventory) are explained here along with the MBI.

2.4.1. Maslach Burnout Inventory

To assess occupational burnout quantitatively, Maslach and Jackson (1981) developed the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) which was initially composed of 47 items and was employed with a sample of 605 health-providing and service-giving workers (Worley at el., 2008). After conducting an exploratory factor analysis, 25 items were retained. Then, the shortened scale was validated with a sample of 420 helping professionals. Similar results from the two samples (i.e., long and shortened scales) led Maslach and Jackson (1981) to conceptualize burnout as a syndrome manifesting itself as *emotional exhaustion*, *depersonalization*, *reduced personal accomplishment*, and *involvement with people*.

Later, they dismissed the last component for being a weak component (its eigenvalue was less than 1) and finally put forward a three-subscale tool of burnout measurement composed of 22 items: emotional exhaustion with nine items assessing feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one’s work, depersonalization with five items measuring an unfeeling and impersonal response toward recipients of one’s service, care, treatment, or instruction, and the eight items of the reduced personal accomplishment subscale assessing feelings of competence and successful achievement

in one's work with people. The final version of MBI rates burnout in terms of both frequency and intensity with response categories ranging from 'never' (0) 'to every day' (6) for frequency and 'very mild/ barely noticeable' (1) to 'very strong/ major' (7) for intensity (Zalaquett and Wood, 1997; Worley et al., 2008 and Vanheule et al., 2007).

Soon, the applicability of the MBI in teaching professionals was questioned and practitioners saw the need for a new measuring tool suiting the needs of teachers. To this end, the initial 22-item model became known as the MBI–Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS), and a special version for teacher burnout, called the MBI–Educators Survey (MBI-ES), was developed from the original MBI by replacing the word recipient with student in the respective items to ensure clarity and consistency in the interpretation of the scale (See appendix C). However, the administrative procedures, scoring keys, cautions and recommendations for using were remained the same as the original MBI (Maslach and Jackson, 1986; Zalaquett and Wood, 1997; Bakker et al., 2002; Worley et al., 2008).

According to Zalaquett and Wood (1997), two studies substantiate the validity and reliability of the MBI-ES with these changes. Factor-analysis studies by Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) with 469 Massachusetts teachers and by Gold (1984) with 462 California teachers support the three-factor structure of the MBI-ES. In regard to reliability, Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) report Cronbach alpha estimates of .90 for Emotional Exhaustion, .76 for Depersonalization, and .76 for Personal Accomplishment, whereas Gold (1984) reports estimates of .88, .74, and .72 respectively. And that these reliabilities parallel those of the original MBI (Zalaquett and Wood, 1997).

The adequacy of MBI-HSS and MBI-ES in occupations outside human service sectors was also questioned. Studies employed the scale outside this occupational domain found that the obtained scores for non-service groups differed from the established norms for the human service groups. Moreover, it was found that the differentiation between the three dimensions was not maintained across these occupational groups, particularly the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions tended to combine into one

factor, while the personal accomplishment dimension remained as a distinct factor (Zalaquett and Wood, 1997; Bakker et al., 2002).

Furthermore, it was argued that the MBI developed for use in the human service sector focuses more explicitly on emotional demands. For instance, Enzmann (1994) contended that the emotional exhaustion scale measures the depletion of emotional resources as distinct from physical exhaustion or mental fatigue. In other words, he acknowledged that emotional exhaustion could not account for the relationship that employees have with their work because emotional demands might reduce employee capacity to remain engaged with the needs of the recipients (Maslach et al., 2001). Finally, the second scale of the MBI, depersonalization, measures the development of cynical attitudes toward the recipients of one's services. Such excessive distancing may be detrimental to the quality of service or care (Bakker et al., 2000).

According to Bakker et al. (2002), these problems occurred simply because the MBI (as the most popular instrument for measuring burnout) was developed exclusively for use in human service sectors. Therefore, the proposal to develop an alternative form of the MBI for use in other occupational groups was accepted. To address this perceived limitation, Schaufeli et al., 1996 developed the MBI–General Survey (MBI-GS) by broadening the notion of burnout beyond the human service domain, that is, "the three dimensions of the MBI-GS were conceptualized in slightly broader terms, taking into consideration the job itself rather than the personal relationships associated with the job" (Worley et al., 2008, p. 800). The new MBI-GS version defining burnout as a crisis in one's relationship with work itself, not with people at work, measures burnout levels of individuals on a continuum in each component, that is, high levels of exhaustion and cynicism, and low levels of efficacy, are viewed as indication of burnout (Zalaquett and Wood, 1997, p. 209).

The MBI-GS paralleling the subscales of the original MBI has three subscales: *Exhaustion*, *Cynicism*, and *Reduced Professional Efficacy*. These dimensions are represented through 16 items, and slight adaptations were done in the wording of some of them to refer to more general, nonsocial aspects of the job. The items of exhaustion subscale include references to both emotional and physical fatigue but do not make

direct reference to people as the source of those feelings (Zalaquett and Wood, 1997). The cynicism subscale differing to a greatest extent from the original MBI refers to distancing oneself from work itself and the development of negative attitudes toward work in general, whereas, its counterpart (i.e., depersonalization) in the original version referred to distancing oneself emotionally from service recipients and the development of cynical attitudes toward them. The final subscale, reduced professional efficacy, is highly similar to its counterpart (i.e., reduced personal accomplishment), but in its new sense it encompasses both social and nonsocial aspects of occupational accomplishments and focuses more directly than its counterpart on efficacy expectations (Bakker et al., 2002; Maslach et al., 2001). All items of exhaustion and cynicism subscales were phrased negatively, whereas the items of reduced professional efficacy were phrased positively (Bresó et al., 2007; Worley et al., 2008).

According to Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, and Kantas (2002), cross-national studies in Canada and the Netherlands supported the invariance of the MBI-GS's factor structure across various occupational groups including maintenance workers, nurses, software engineers, and managers. The factorial structure of the MBI-GS was also studied in Sweden, Finland, and the Netherlands, and the results showed its invariant nature across workers in these countries. Moreover, initial measuring studies with the MBI-GS suggest that burnout processes take the same form in occupations within and outside human service professions (Worley et al., 2008).

However, the MBI-GS employed frequently in most studies was criticized for not being able to "overcome one important psychometric shortcoming of the original version of the MBI, namely, that the items in each subscale are all framed in the same direction" (Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, and Kantas, 2002, p. 297). In other words, it is argued that all items of exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions have been phrased negatively, while all items of personal accomplishment dimension have been phrased positively. Consequently, positively and negatively worded items are likely to cluster, and "from a psychometric point of view, such one-sided scales are inferior to scales that include both positively and negatively worded items" (Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, and Kantas, 2002, p. 297). Additionally, it may reduce the inter-correlation between reduced personal accomplishment dimension with the other two dimensions, which may

result in reduction of overall reliability and validity of the scale (Lee and Ashforth, 1990; Demerouti et al., 2002). For instance, Lee and Ashforth (1990) argued that the item wording can be seen as a problem since it offers an alternative explanation for the strong associations of exhaustion and depersonalization with psychological strain (generally negatively worded) and of reduced personal accomplishment with perceptions of performance (generally positively worded).

Moreover, the issue between the negatively-worded items of exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions and positively-worded items of reduced personal accomplishment dimension has been shown in a study by Bouman et al. (2002). They reworded the positive items of the reduced professional efficacy into negative ones in a sample of students. The results revealed much higher positive correlation between the reduced professional efficacy scale on one hand and the exhaustion and depersonalization scales on the other hand among the group who had completed the negatively worded items of the reduced professional efficacy scale than that of the group that had filled out the traditional positively worded items. Thus, it was shown that the low correlation between reduced professional efficacy and the other two dimensions (i.e., exhaustion and depersonalization) can be attributed to item wording. This poses a suggestion for rewording the items of the reduced professional efficacy to increase the validity and reliability of the MBI in general (Bresó et al., 2007). As final remarks in this section, a number of other criticisms of the MBI model put forward by scholars are itemized as:

(a) Lack of difference between the original MBI and the MBI-GS

It has been claimed that the original MBI and the MBI-GS are indeed similar. The similarity of them in terms of their three-factor structure has been demonstrated within and outside the human service occupations (Leiter and Harvie, 1998; Leiter and Schaufeli, 1996).

(b) A mixture of an individual state, a coping strategy and an effect

Burnout as measured by the MBI-GS consists of theoretically distinct aspects- an individual state (emotional exhaustion), a coping strategy (depersonalization / cynicism) and a consequence (reduced personal accomplishment / lack of professional efficacy). So, it has been proposed that they should be studied in their own right instead of lumping them together under the label of burnout. Additionally, the computed scores of these dimensions are used to discriminate burned-out individuals from non-burned-out ones (Schaufeli and Taris, 2005; Kristensen et al., 2005).

(c) Two instead of three dimensions

It has been suggested that the reduced personal accomplishment subscale might not be part of the burnout syndrome because it relates to job resources, whereas the other two subscales are related to job demands. Research has also shown that the reduced personal accomplishment component of the MBI correlates poorly with the exhaustion and cynicism components (Schaufeli and Enzmann, 1998; Qiao and Schaufeli, 2010). Clinical experience with burned-out patients also suggests that exhaustion and cynicism appear in tandem, whereas reduced personal accomplishment is observed much less frequently (Brenninkmeijer and Van Yperen, 2003).

(d) Unacceptable questions

It has been argued that some MBI items trigger hostile responses from the respondents (e.g., 'I feel I treat some recipients as if they were impersonal objects'). This sometimes leads to the violation of the assumption of normality for the more extreme items (Schaufeli and Taris, 2005; Kristensen et al., 2005).

(e) Mixed instead of only negative items

It has been argued that the exhaustion and cynicism subscales of the MBI contain only negatively-phrased items and reduced professional efficacy subscale includes only positively-phrased items. From a psychometric point of view this would undermine the

validity of these scales; therefore, burnout inventories should include both negatively and positively phrased items to avoid bias answering (Demerouti et al., 2003).

(f) Unclear measuring of the MBI-GS

By changing the items of the original MBI into more general items, it is unclear what the MBI-GS measures (Schaufeli and Taris, 2005; Kristensen, et al., 2005).

2.4.2. Burnout Measure

According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), a second burnout scale employed in about 5% of burnout studies is the Burnout Measure (BM) developed by Pines and Aronson (1988). The scale was originally used for measuring tedium, which is "the result of any prolonged chronic pressure (mental, physical, or emotional)" (Pines et al., 1981, p. 15). Pines et al. (1981) described burnout as similar to tedium, but then retracted that view and distinguished between burnout and tedium by arguing that though burnout and tedium are considered to be similar in terms of symptomatology, the origin of burnout is different from that of tedium because burnout is "the result of repeated emotional pressure associated with an intense involvement with people over long periods of time" (p. 15). Consequently, the former Tedium Measure is currently denoted as the BM (Pines and Aronson, 1988).

Pines and Aronson (1988), however, characterized burnout as "a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion caused by long-term involvement in situations that are emotionally demanding" (p. 9) and offered a three-dimension burnout scale, much like the MBI, including (a) physical exhaustion "characterized by low energy, chronic fatigue, and weakness", (b) emotional exhaustion, the second component, involving "primarily feelings of helplessness, hopelessness, and entrapment", and (c) mental exhaustion, the third component, "characterized by the development of negative attitudes toward one's self, work, and life itself" (Pines and Aronson, 1988, p. 12). Their suggested burnout scale is represented through 21 negatively-positively-worded items which rate burnout levels of individuals in terms of frequency with a 7-point scale ranging from 'never' to 'always'. Sample items are: 'feeling weak' (physical

exhaustion), ‘feeling anxious (emotional exhaustion), and ‘feeling trapped’ (mental exhaustion). To compute burnout, positively-phrased items (3, 6, 19, and 20) are initially reversed, then, the scores of the three types of exhaustion- i.e., physical exhaustion (items 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16, 20), emotional exhaustion (items 2, 5, 8, 12, 14, 17, 21), and mental exhaustion (items 3, 6, 9, 11, 15, 18, 19)- are summed up into a single score (Schaufeli, Janssen, and Rozeman, 1998).

According to Schaufeli, Janssen, and Rozeman (1998), studies investigating the psychometric properties of the BM are rare which puts forward hints for not using the scale because of its possible drawbacks, though its usefulness as a reliable instrument for measuring burnout was demonstrated by Pines and Aronson (1988) in a study of 30 different samples totaling 3,900 subjects. Some main criticisms attributed to the BM scale are as:

(a) It was argued that Pines and Aronson (1988) assumes burnout occurring in any occupational field and being experienced by any group such as students, couples, parents, political activists and house wives. So, they structured the BM so that it could be appropriate for measuring burnout inside and outside the human service professions. But, this broad applicability of the BM is associated with specific problems concerning item phrasing and discriminant validity, that is, the item phrasing of the BM is so general that it is not clear exactly what they measure, and it is difficult to discriminate between burnout and other constructs like fatigue and depression for sharing similar indicators (Schaufeli, Janssen, and Rozeman (1998).

(b) Furthermore, Pines and Aronson (1988) put forward a multidimensional definition of burnout, accordingly, constructed a three-dimension scale that is supposed to tap three different types of exhaustion (i.e., physical, emotional and mental), but the internal consistency of the scale is rather high, ranging from 0.91 to 0.93. As a consequence, it is claimed that the BM is a uni-dimensional scale though it is contemplated as a multi-dimensional one (Maslach and Jackson, 1986). For instance, using a sample of 139 social workers, Corcoran (1986) found four highly correlated factors (r= 0.93) which showed no correspondence to the dimensionality proposed by Pines, Aronson, and Kafry (1981), then, concluded that this high internal consistency among the items of the

BM confirms its one-dimensionality. Similarly, Ray and Miller (1991) found two correlated subscales which they termed ‘exhaustion’ and ‘affect’, thus, claimed against the multidimensionality of the BM.

(c) In contrast to the studies which questioned the dimensionality of the BM, there are a few studies pointing out indications for a three-factor structure of the BM, but different interpretations of the factors were put forward (Enzmann and Kleiber, 1989; Schaufeli and Van Dierendonck, 1993). For instance, Schaufeli, Janssen, and Rozeman, 1998) found indications for a three-factor structure of the BM, but they labeled their factors as exhaustion, demoralization, and loss of motive. This means that the model tapped different places in the cases that they studied, and this finding was contrary to the proposed dimensions (physical, emotional and mental exhaustion) of Pines and Aronson (1988).

In sum, there is now enough evidence that the model is not placed into a sound theoretical framework (i.e., lack of theoretical distinctiveness). There is also no enough explanation of why and how physical exhaustion, defined by such diverse symptoms as chronic fatigue, accident proneness, muscle tensions and increased susceptibility to illness, is caused by long-term involvement in situations that are emotionally demanding (i.e., the BM concealing its relation with antecedents of burnout). Finally, there is no perfect explanation for the operationalization of the BM (Schaufeli, Janssen, and Rozeman, 1998; Enzmann et al., 1998; Shirom and Ezrachi, 2003).

2.4.3. Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure

The Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (S-MBM) was constructed as an alternative burnout instrument by Shirom (1989) who was inspired by the work of Maslach and Jackson (1981) and Pines et al. (1981). Unlike the MBI and BM scales, the S-MBM was based on a theory: the COR theory (See 2.3.1). Shirom’s (1989) conceptualization of burnout on the basis of this theory characterizes burnout as an affective reaction to prolonged exposure to stress at work resulting from the gradual depletion of one’s intrinsic energetic resources (such as, physical, emotional, and cognitive). Thus, burnout is represented through a combination of *physical fatigue*, *emotional exhaustion*, and

cognitive weariness, and the S-MBM scale assesses burnout levels of individuals regardless of their occupations in these subscales (Hobfoll and Shirom, 2000; Shirom and Melamed, 2006; Shirom, Nirel, and Vinokur, 2006).

(a) Physical fatigue refers to feelings of tiredness and low levels of energy in carrying out daily tasks at work, like getting up in the morning to go to work. (b) Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings that are too weak to display empathy to clients and coworkers, so they lack the needed energy to invest in relationships with other people at work. (c) Cognitive weariness refers to thinking feelings that are slow. These three components of burnout are expected to be closely interrelated, and each component covers the draining and depletion of energetic resources in a particular domain (Hobfoll and Shirom, 2000; Shirom, 2003).

The S-MBM scale (the second version) consists of 14 items which all were worded negatively: physical fatigue (6 items: 1-6), cognitive weariness (5 items: 7-11), and emotional exhaustion (3 items: 12-14). Sample items are: '*I feel physically drained'* (physical fatigue), '*I have difficulty concentrating'* (cognitive weariness) and '*I feel I am unable to be sensitive to the needs of co-workers and customers'* (emotional robustness). These items rate burnout levels in terms of frequency with a 7-point scale ranging from 'never or almost never' (1) to 'always or almost always' (7). To compute burnout, the scores of the three types of exhaustion (i.e., physical, cognitive, and emotional) are summed up into a single score, higher scores indicating higher levels of burnout (Hobfoll and Shirom, 2000; Shirom, 2003; Qiao and Schaufeli, 2010).

According to Qiao and Schaufeli (2010), a cross-occupational study determines the construct validity of the S-MBM. The S-MBM was compared with the MBI with respect to their psychometric characteristics and factorial validity among human service (N= 196) and non-human service (N= 226) professionals. The results showed that the two-factor structure of the S-MBM (i.e., physical fatigue and cognitive weariness) and the three-factor structure of the MBI-GS were invariant across these professionals. That is, the S-MBM and MBI-GS scales correlated with each other in human service sector (r=.74) and in non-human service sector (r=.79), indicating that they share 55 per cent and 62 per cent of their variance in these sectors, respectively. Hence, "the test authors

concluded that the SMBM has the potential to reveal more information about the core content of burnout-physical, emotional, and cognitive exhaustion- than the MBI" (p. 6). Moreover, the reliability of the S-MBM was confirmed in a longitudinal study by Melamed, Shirom, and Froom (2003). In their 3- to 5-year follow-up study among 712 workers, they showed the across-time stability of the scale through test-retest correlation (r=.52) which provides some support for the SMBM.

However, it has been argued that (a) the convergent validity of the S-MBM relative to the MBI and the BM has yet to be established, (b) its discriminant validity relative to other types of possible emotional reactions to chronic stress at work like anger, hostility, anxiety, and depressive has to confirmed, (c) the factorial validity of the S-MBM needs to be investigated in additional occupational categories, (d) there is a paucity of evidence with regard to the possibility that different types of stress may have varying effects on physical fatigue, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive weariness, thus, casting doubt on the use of a single composite score of the S-MBM to represent burnout, and finally (e) there is some indirect evidence suggesting that each of the three components of the S-MBM may be related to a different coping style (Vingerhoets, 1985; Melamed et al., 2006; Qiao and Schaufeli, 2010).

2.4.4. Oldenburg Burnout Inventory

The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI), as a good alternative measure of burnout, was initially constructed by Demerouti and Nachreiner (1998) and validated in Germany among different occupational groups. The design of OLBI model which is primarily based on theoretical work of Cherniss (1980) and Hall (1976) starts out from the argument that the MBI is subject to psychometric limitations due to the fact that the items of the three subscales "go in the same direction (positive or negative), and the instrument aims to mitigate these possible biases of the MBI" (Salanova and Llorens, 2008, p. 61).

The OLBI is somehow similar to the MBI-GS in that both instruments were designed so as to reflect a conceptualization of burnout not being restricted to human service professions, but being applied to any occupational group (Demerouti et al., 2001).

However, the OLBI characterizes burnout as a syndrome of work-related negative experiences which includes two core dimensions: *feelings of exhaustion* and *disengagement from work* (Demerouti et al., 2000 and 2001; Halbesleben and Demerouti, 2005).

(a) Exhaustion is defined as prolonged and intensive physical, affective, and cognitive strain resulting from long-term exposure to certain job demands (or work stressors). It covers not only affective aspect of exhaustion (e.g., emotionally drained) but also physical and cognitive aspects of it (e.g., need of long resting time) to facilitate the application of the instrument to those workers who perform physical work and those whose job is mainly about processing information instead of dealing with people. (b) The disengagement subscale of the OLBI, according to Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Ebbinghaus (2002), "refers to distancing oneself from one's work and experiencing negative attitudes toward the work object or content" (p. 298). It also "refers to emotions toward the work task (e. g., uninteresting, no longer challenging, but also 'disgusting') as well as to a devaluation and mechanical execution of work" (p. 298). Moreover, disengagement concerns with the relationship between employees and their job, particularly with respect to their engagement, identification, and willingness to continue the same occupation (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Ebbinghaus, 2002).

The original version of the OLBI includes 15 positively-negatively-worded items for both dimensions: 8 exhaustion items (of which 2 items are reversed) and 7 disengagement items (of which 4 ones are reversed). Later, Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou and Kantas (2002) put forward a new version that includes 16 items for two dimensions of the OLBI (8 exhaustion items and 8 disengagement items). And each dimension includes 4 positively-worded items and 4 negatively-worded ones. Sample items are '*I always find new and interesting aspects in my work'* (disengagement-reversed), '*It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way'* (disengagement), '*I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well'* (exhaustion-reversed) and '*There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work'* (exhaustion). These items rate burnout levels of individuals in terms of frequency with a 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). To compute burnout, the positive items of each dimension first are reversed, then, the scores of the two subscales

are summed up into a single score, higher scores indicating higher levels of burnout (Qiao and Schaufeli, 2010).

A distinctive feature of the OLBI is that it features items that have balanced positive and negative wording to represent not only each end of the continuum separately but also both ends simultaneously. In other words, the exhaustion and disengagement subscales include items that refer to its opposite - to vigor/energy and to drive/engagement, respectively. Furthermore, the OLBI does not refer directly to working with people, thus, its items are generic, not referring to emotionally demanding contacts with service recipients as the source of exhaustion (Halbesleben and Demerouti, 2005; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Ebbinghaus, 2002).

The reliability and validity of the OLBI has been confirmed in studies conducted in Germany, the United States, and Greece. According to Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Ebbinghaus (2002), the OLBI was validated in a study among 293 German employees from various occupational fields, including human service professionals and blue-collar workers. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis confirmed its two-dimension structure: "the correlation between the two OLBI subscales was $r = .44$ ($p < 0.001$)" (p. 301). Discriminant and convergent validities of the OLBI was examined by relating it to the BMS questionnaire, which is a reliable and valid instrument for measuring short term effects of strain at work such as satiation, monotony, stress, and mental fatigue. The results of discriminant validity analyses revealed that both burnout dimensions were distinct from measures of mental fatigue (i.e., reduced performance efficiency) and satiation (i.e., a state of irritability and reluctance to continue work tasks). And the results of convergent validity analysis showed that the OLBI is acceptable.

Another evidence for the validity and reliability of the OLBI comes from Halbesleben and Demerouti (2005) whose study is among the first valid ones and the first to assess the characteristics of an English-language translation of the OLBI. Using the MBI as the weight model for the OLBI and employing data from 2599 employees across two samples from the United States (a generalized sample of working adults and a sample of fire department employees), Halbesleben and Demerouti (2005) provided evidence for

the internal consistency of the OLBI (the Cronbach's alpha scores ranging from 0.74-0.87 across the samples). Test-retest reliability was also moderately correlated: correlation between time 1 and time 2 was $r = 0.51$, $p < 0.001$ for exhaustion and $r = 0.34$, $p < 0.01$ for disengagement. Factorial validity indexes supported its two-factor structure, and its construct validity conducted through multi-trait multi-method and confirmatory factor analyses was satisfactory.

Finally, Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Ebbinghaus (2002) conducted a study among 232 Greek employees from different occupations such as banking, insurance, and the chemical industry. In their study, they chose the MBI as the weight model for determining the reliability and validity of the OLBI. The comparison of findings, obtained through a series of confirmatory factor analyses and multi-trait multi-method analysis, showed that exhaustion and disengagement as measured by the OLBI closely resembles the exhaustion and cynicism as measured by the MBI-GS. In fact, the bivariate correlation between the OLBI-exhaustion and MBI-GS-exhaustion was 0.60 ($p< 0.001$). The same index was obtained between the disengagement component of OLBI and cynicism component of MBI-GS. This means that the two core components of the OLBI and MBI-GS share substantial amount of common variance though their conceptualization of burnout is somehow different. Moreover, this study confirmed the two-factor structure of the OLBI, "with exhaustion and disengagement as separate but interrelated factors" (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Ebbinghaus, 2002, p. 305).

The results of these studies, however, clearly show that the OLBI can be a valid and reliable burnout measurement with its two-factor structure (exhaustion and disengagement). However, it has been argued that since burned-out levels have typically been considered as a continuous variable, the OLBI does not determine the cutoff scores for burned-out and non-burned-out individuals, which are important in understanding of the epidemiological impact of burnout and helpful in facilitating treatment. Therefore, there is the question of whether someone is truly considered as 'burned out' or not (Schaufeli et al., 2001).

Furthermore, Halbesleben and Demerouti (2005) note two potential drawbacks with respect to the OLBI scale. First, they point out that "while many have argued in favor of

mixing the wording of items, within a scale to force respondents to stop and think carefully about the items, they can also lead to the creation of artificial factors, based on wording as well and serve as a source of common method bias" (p. 218). But the factor analysis designed to test for such an effect did not indicate a problem in this regard, so further testing of this nature is necessary. Second, they add that "respondents who report the absence of a phenomenon may not report the presence of the opposite phenomenon (e.g. workers who are not burned out may not be particularly engaged in their work either)" (p. 218). Future research including relationships between OLBI factors and other constructs may be useful in understanding the dynamics of wording effects. Having explained the four main burnout measures, we are going to offer explanations for burnout sources involved in the study.

2.5. SOURCES OF TEACHER BURNOUT

Burnout is generally perceived to develop over time through many different causes. In fact, it can be argued that anything to which our stress mechanisms respond inappropriately may result in burnout (Friesen, Prokop, and Sarros, 1988). It is usually postulated that burnout as a multi-dimensional and multi-factorial concept involves the contribution of factors that are internal to an individual and external to him, that is, we can better understand it when we take into account both personal and organizational (referring to both situational and administrational sources of burnout) factors. So, burnout researches currently suggest models which include both personal and organizational factors and describe burnout as a lack of fit between the demands of a job and its resources. For instance, Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001) claim that burnout is the result of a lack of fit between demands and resources. They also assert that a burnout model including both internal and external resources would seem to be an appropriate framework for understanding it though they put more emphasis on burnout sources that are external to an individual. That is, they indicate that the primary sources of burnout are related to organizational conditions such as, workload, lack of social support, unfairness, bureaucracy, unsuitable policies and procedures, lack of role or responsibility clarity, and confusing goals. Moreover, Byrne (1999) identifies three categories of factors (background, organizational, and personality) that have a bearing

on burnout while acknowledging the important impact of background variables (such as, gender, age, grade level, and years of experience) associated with burnout processes.

In the same vein with general burnout, sources of teacher burnout are believed to be multi-facet: it can be related to background/demographic variables, individual/personal characteristics (those features that are unique to each individual in the organization), and organizational conditions (those factors that are unique to the school and the system in which they work). Pines (2002b), for instance, identifies four dimensions of work environment relative to teacher burnout: (a) the *structural-physical* dimension regarding facilities, equipment, class size, class composition, and teaching setting, (b) the *bureaucratic work* dimension regarding clerical duties, workload, work roles, promotional opportunity, and participation in decision-making processes and procedures, (c) the *social* dimension regarding the issues pertaining to the interaction, support, and problems with other teachers, principals, students, and parents, and (d) the *psychological* dimension regarding autonomy, role diversification, self-fulfillment, self-development, and goal achievement issues.

However, the study tries to capture the notion of burnout in its multiplicity by taking into account *background*, *personal*, *situational* and *administrational* parameters involved in job-burnout. Burnout sources relative to teachers, here, were categorized into two main groups: *variables* and *factors*. Though variables and factors were frequently employed interchangeably in the literature, we distinguished between them here because we think variables are those burnout sources that do not impose direct effect on burnout but reveal burned-out subjects as categories, whereas factors are those burnout sources that impose direct, and/or almost direct, effect on burnout processes. Variables included in the study are socio-demographic features like: *nationality*, *gender*, *age*, *marital status*, *education level*, *years of teaching experience*, and *employment status*. And factors involved here are categorized into three: *individual* factors (characteristics that are unique to each individual in an organization), *school-level* factors (conditions that are unique to each school), and *administrational* factors (conditions that are imposed on individuals and schools by the system). In the following parts, these variables and factors are described as far as not exceeding the purpose of the study.

2.5.1. Socio-demographic Variables

Socio-demographic variables that have been associated with teacher burnout in the study include (a) *nationality*, (b) *gender*, (c) *age*, (d) *marital status*, (e) *academic level*, (f) *years of teaching experience*, and (g) *employment status*. (a) 'Nationality', our first socio-demographic variable, has been distinguished as Iranian and Turkish ones since this is a cross-cultural study between the EFL teachers of these two countries.

(b) 'Gender' is the second socio-demographic variable differentiating patterns of burnout as either male or female. Research on gender differences in burnout has yielded conflicting results. Some studies report no significant gender differences in teacher burnout (Farber, 1984b; Konert, 1997; Ito and Toda, 2002). Some others report significantly higher burnout levels for male teachers than for females in all three burnout subscales. For instance, De Heus and Diekstra (1999) found higher levels of burnout for male teachers across all three burnout components. Moreover, Burke, Greenglass, and Schwarzer (1996) found that male teachers had higher overall burnout scores than females.

However, most studies report burnout levels for males and females based on each EE, DP, and PA subscale. In fact, some studies showed that the burnout levels of males in these subscales were higher than that of females and vice versa. For instance, Bibou-Nakou, Stogiannidou, and Kiosseoglou (1999) indicated significantly higher levels of Emotional Exhaustion (EE) for male teachers. Likewise, Anderson and Iwanicki (1984) found higher levels of EE for males than for females. In contrast, Sunbul (2003) found higher levels of EE for female ones. Similarly, Maslach and Jackson (1981) reported higher levels of EE for female human service providers than for males. Anderson and Iwanicki (1984) also reported significantly greater levels of Depersonalization (PD) for male elementary and secondary school teachers than for females and higher levels of Reduced Personal Accomplishment (PA) for females than for male teachers (Byrne, 1999). As it appears, research findings in this regard are not inconsistent.

(c) Our third socio-demographic variable is 'age' categorized as 25 and below, 26-30, 31-35, 36-40, 41-45, and 46 and above. Like gender variable, research about it has

produced varying results. Kırılmaz et al. (2003) reported that age was not a significant factor in burnout levels of teachers. Similarly, Zabel and Zabel (2001) conducting a study with 301 Kansas special education teachers found no significant correlations between teachers' age and their burnout levels. Konert (1997), on the other hand, found that age differences were significant in teacher burnout.

However, studies indicating to the role of this variable in burnout processes can be classified into two groups: one group argues for higher burnout levels among younger teachers in respective to triple structure of burnout while the other reports higher burnout levels for older ones. For instance, Nash (2005) contended that younger teachers reported higher burnout levels than older ones. Byrne (1999) also cited a study by Pierce and Molloy (1990) who found higher levels of DP among younger teachers. Moreover, Sunbul (2003) reported higher levels of PA among older teachers: the older the teacher, the higher the score of PA. In contrast, Saari and Judge (2004) revealed that older employees had higher burnout levels than younger ones. In the same vein, De Heus and Diekstra (1999) found higher levels of DP and PA for older teachers. Finally, Whitehead, Ryba, and O'Driscoll (2000) found a high level of EE among the 30–39 year age group of teachers. Similarly, Huston (2001) argued that teachers with 36-45 years of age were more isolated and alienated. As with the gender variable, there is no consensus among scholars in this regard, too.

(d) The fourth socio-demographic variable playing a role in generating and contributing to burnout is 'marital status' categorized as married, single, and divorced in this study. This classification is somehow similar to De Heus and Diekstra's (1999) one, who provided evidence that unmarried teachers recorded higher burnout levels than married ones. Similarly, most scholars claim that single and/or divorced teachers experience more burnout than married ones. For instance, Gold (1985) reported that single teachers experienced more stress than married ones. Likewise, Lau et al. (2005) and Goutas (2008) revealed that single teachers experienced more burnout than married ones. Furthermore, Russell et al. (1987) found that married elementary male teachers reported significantly higher scores in PA. De Heus and Diekstra (1999) and Ozdemir (2007) also found that married teachers had lower levels of burnout in the dimensions of EE and DP. There are, on the other hand, many scholars who contend that marital status has

no significant correlation with any burnout subscales (Schwab and Iwanicki, 1982; Faber, 1984; Maslach and Jachson, 1986; Byrne, 1991; Laub, 1998; Demirel et al., 2005). However, these two types of thoughts are dominant about the variable in the literature.

(e) 'Grade level', the fifth variable, has appeared to be a consistent predictor of teacher burnout. It has been categorized as Bachelor's Degree (B.A.), Master's Degree (M.A.), Doctoral Degree (Ph.D.), and Other in the study. This classification is based on Friedman's (1991) study, in which he used a random sample of 1,579 Israeli (63%), European or American (20%), and Afro-Asian (17%) teachers and pointed out that teachers who possessed high degrees of education had greater expectations in their teaching career and had also higher levels of frustration resulting from teaching stress. Similarly, Brissie, Hoover-Dempsey, and Bassler (1988) carried out research on a sample of 1,213 elementary teachers and found that the level of education accounted for positive significance in burnout due to organizational rigidity. Moreover, Zabel and Zabel (2001) in their study of burnout among 301 Kansas special education teachers found that teachers with Master's Degree (M.A.) and beyond scored higher on PA component of burnout. On the whole, scholars point out that the higher the degree of education, the higher experience of burnout among teachers. This significant correlation between educational level and burnout, according to Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001), can be attributed to lack of realization of teachers' job expectations.

(f) The sixth socio-demographic variable is 'years on the job' categorized here as 5 and below, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, 21-25, and 26 and above. According to Konert (1997), Zabel and Zabel (2001) and Sunbul (2003), it is an important variable in burnout processes. However, research findings in this regard are sparse and inconsistent (Byrne, 1999).

Some studies report that less experience teachers indicate higher levels of burnout than more experience teachers. Maslach and Jackson (1981) and Anderson and Iwanicki (1984), for instance, found that young teachers showed higher levels of EE and lower levels of PA than older teachers. Malanowski and Wood (1984) also found that teachers between 8-12 years of teaching experience reported more EE and DP than teachers who had 13 and more years of teaching experience. Further, Maslach (1982) stated that

burnout was higher among young workers than older workers. Additionally, in his study of burnout among secondary teachers in Hong Kong, Mo (1991) found that teachers with fewer years of teaching experience, especially those with five or less, showed higher levels of EE. Similarly, Konert (1997) reported that teachers with three or fewer years of experience had lower levels of PA than teachers with four or more years of experience. Likewise, Anderson and Iwanicki (1984) showed in their study that teachers between 13-24 years of experience had higher levels of PA than teachers who had less than 13 years of teaching experience. Zabel and Zabel (2001) also found that teachers with more teaching experience scored higher on PA subscale of burnout. Finally, Laub (1998) concluded that the greater the teaching experience, the less likely experience of burnout.

Some other studies, on the other hand, show that teachers with more teaching experience have higher levels of burnout than teachers with less years of experience. Pierce and Molloy (1990), for instance, found higher DP scores for older teachers than for younger ones. Moreover, Saari and Judge (2004) found that teachers with more teaching experience reported less job satisfaction than teachers with fewer years of experience.

Some studies also consider teaching-experience variable as a continuum and define burnout levels on the basis of the presumed stage(s). For example, Leiter (1995) considering teaching experience in stages showed that teachers in the mid stages of their career, three to fifteen years of experience, reported higher feelings of EE and DP than did their colleagues on either end of that spectrum. Leiter (1995) also explained that the high degree of burnout felt by teachers in the mid stages of their career was a ‘breakdown in psychological contracts’, that is, their expectations did not produce the anticipated results, whereas new teachers might feel more passion for teaching and remain enthusiastic or optimist about the profession. Teachers at the other end of the spectrum, however, had either developed coping strategies to combat the effects of burnout or had experienced a high degree of personal satisfaction from teaching.

Unlike Leiter (1995), Mertler (2002) found that teachers in the middle of their career had higher levels of job satisfaction than that of teachers at the beginning and end of

their careers. Likewise, Ozdemir (2007) indicated that burnout appears among teachers early and late in their career: mid-career teachers do not exhibit as much burnout as teachers who are new to teaching or teachers with more than 24 years in the profession. In short, most studies about this socio-demographic variable have a bearing on the view that less experienced teachers indicate higher levels of burnout than more experienced ones.

(g) The last socio-demographic variable is 'employment status' that has been differentiated as full-time and part-time. Since part-time teaching is more popular in educational settings these days than before for economic considerations, this variable has tentatively been included in the study to see whether employment status of teachers has any effect on teacher burnout processes. Unfortunately, study in this regard is very rare in the literature. Having described the seven socio-demographic variables, we are going to explain our first group of factors, i.e., individual or personal factors.

2.5.2. Individual Factors

Individual or personal characteristics are those factors that are unique to an individual in the workplace. They involve an individual's attitudes, talents, interests, personality, physical appearance and interaction with the environment. What kind of person an individual is and how he/she defines himself/herself offer important clues about one's social relationships, job choices, job performance, job satisfaction, etc. (Allik and McCrae, 2004).

Although the current literature indicates the possibility that stressful aspects of the work environment are more important predictors of burnout, it is also important to pay attention to individual factors in burnout processes. Indeed, during the last two decades, according to Pick and Leiter (1991), quite a few studies have indicated the possibility that individual factors play an important role in the development of burnout. Moreover, Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) counted more than 100 burnout studies in the literature that included one or two constructs from a long list of lower level personal factors such as hardiness, locus of control, Type A behavior, self-esteem, and achievement

motivation. It is therefore not surprising that the literature still does not provide a coherent picture of individual factors leading to burnout.

Studies on teacher burnout have mainly focused on personality traits, the decisions we have made about who we are. These studies claim that the relationship between basic personality factors to burnout may give us more insight into whether burnout is a social phenomenon or is more related to individual variability (Bakker et al., 2006). For instance, the Five-Factor Model as a comprehensive taxonomy of personality traits claims for showing the differences of affected individuals through consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings, and actions. The current labels for the bipolar factors of the model are (I) *Extraversion* versus *Introversion,* (II) *Agreeableness* versus *Hostility,* (III) *Conscientiousness* versus *Lack of Conscientiousness,* (IV) *Emotional Stability* versus *Neuroticism,* and (V) *Intellect/Autonomy or Openness to Experience* versus *Lack of Intellect/Autonomy or Closedness to Experience* (Goldberg, 1990; McCrae, 2001; McCrae and Costa, 2003; Bakker et al., 2006).

It is better to remind that personality traits are not the only factors impacting on teacher burnout processes exclusively. Our performance at work (i.e., how we do our job) is also a very significant factor. That is, if we feel skilled and competent in our job and do our work reliably and impeccably, we have either chosen a profession in which we have natural talent or learned the skills necessary to do the job professionally. Performance at work will certainly reduce the risk of committing to burnout. Therefore, the study tries to approach to teacher burnout from this perspective by including the following professional indicators of burnout which are unique to each individual: *professional self-esteem* (or performance-based self-esteem), *teacher self-efficacy*, *value incongruence*, and *competence self-evaluation*. Finally, Hallsten (1993) has argued that the first three factors (i.e., job performance-based self-esteem, goal orientation or self-efficacy, and value congruency) are the key individual factors serving in burnout processes. We are going to describe these factors in the following sections.

2.5.2.1. Professional Self-esteem

Self-esteem is generally defined as a global self-evaluation. It indicates the extent to which an individual believes the self to be capable, significant, successful and worthy. Psychologically, it is a state of mind that prepares the person to respond according to expectations of success, acceptance, and personal strength (Rosse et al., 1991; Harter, 1999; Hoyle et al., 1999; Leary and McDonald, 2003). The self-esteem viewed like this is known as the global self-esteem which is usually measured by Rosenberg's self-esteem scale and Tennessee self-concept scale (Rosenberg, 1965). It is often contrasted with more specific or domain-related self-esteems, such as self-esteem related to physical appearance (physical self-esteem), achievements and skills (academic self-esteem), or memberships (social self-esteem). Professional self-esteem as a domain-related self-esteem describes the importance and value one attaches to one's profession and is related to professional adaptation and satisfaction (Aricak and Dilmac, 2003; Koc, 1994).

Unfortunately, one can find in the current literature references to various types of self-esteems that develop confusion about self-esteem: intrinsic and extrinsic self-esteem, implicit and explicit self-esteem, stable and fragile self-esteem, authentic self-esteem, defensive self-esteem, contingent and non-contingent self-esteem, overt and covert narcissism, implicit and explicit self-esteem, adaptive and maladaptive narcissism, and hubristic self-esteem. Certainly, the existence of diverse conceptualizations of self-esteem blurs its borderline with other concepts. For instance, the relationships between self-esteem, self-concept, self-efficacy, and competence concepts are so slight that require one to closely scrutinize their generalizations when one employs them. As Bandura (1997) maintains that self-efficacy and self-esteem represent two different psychological phenomena, but there are common features between the two concepts relating one to the other to some extent. Similarly, Harter (1999) argues self-concept and self-esteem are often used interchangeably, but they represent different things: the former refers to perceptions of competence or adequacy in academic and nonacademic (e.g., social, behavioral, and athletic) domains, whereas the latter is an overall evaluation of self, including feelings of general happiness and satisfaction.

Whether self-esteem is assumed from a global or domain-related perspective, it is suggested that individuals with low self-esteem are emotionally more vulnerable and interact less adequately with others in their workplace. Therefore, people with low self-esteem are probably more susceptible to burnout. As Rosse et al. (1991) posit that individuals with low self-esteem tend to be less effective in interpersonal relationships. They may be predisposed both to depersonalize people and to experience feelings of incompetence in their relationships with others. They may also have fewer resources to help them to cope with these feelings as well as with other stressors that produce burnout. Furthermore, individuals with low self-esteem tend to be extremely dependent on others for validation, thus, making them particularly vulnerable in the emotionally charged environments that are characteristic of burnout.

Perception of high self-esteem, on the other hand, has been associated with positive characteristics such as initiative, strong coping skills, feelings of confidence, feeling of worthiness, persistence in the face of challenges, feeling of positive regard about oneself, feeling of happiness, and longevity (Baumeister et al., 2003). People with high self-esteem feel good about themselves, feel a sense of belonging and security, and respect and appreciate others. They also tend to be successful in life because they feel confident in taking on challenges and risking failure to achieve what they want. Moreover, they have more energy for positive pursuits because their energy is not wasted on negative emotions, feelings of inferiority or working hard to please others at the expense of their own self-care (Janssen et al., 1999). In this regard, Hobfoll, and Freedy (1993) argue that individuals with high self-esteem are expected to be 'less shaken' by job stressors and accompanying consequences. Similarly, Maslach (1993) stresses the importance of self-esteem in burnout by pointing out that the occurrence of burnout involves a process of self-evaluation and self-conceptualization.

There also exists some evidence that self-esteem is related to burnout. In their study of self-esteem as consequence of employee burnout among police officers (N = 1,163) and hospital employees (N = 494), Rosse et al (1991) reported significant correlations between self-esteem and all three burnout dimensions (EE ► r= 2 .43, DP ► r= 2 .31, and PA ► r= 2 .42). Similar results had also been reported by Golembiewski and Kim (1989) who had found that self-esteem acts both as an antecedent and as an effect of

burnout. Furthermore, Villa and Calvete (2001) studied teacher self-concept in relation to burnout among secondary school teachers (n=278). The results of their study showed that teachers with positive self-concept believed that they were able to influence student performance and experienced lower level of burnout, while teachers with negative self-concept were found to perceive dissatisfaction with their job. Moreover, Cowin (2001) found that low self-concept among nurses implicated in high stress, increased burnout, attrition and low professional status. Finally, Zamanirad and Rohany (2010) examined the relationship between burnout and career self-concept among Iranian prospective teaches and found that there was a significant relationship between burnout and career self-concept.

These studies indicate that self-esteem is an important factor in predicting who will be more likely to develop burnout, and they also suggest the importance of rebuilding self-esteem as part of the rehabilitation of burned-out employees. Thus, the professional self-esteem as an individual factor is included in the study to explore whether EFL teachers' self-esteem evaluation of their profession is related to burnout. It is, however, logical to remind that self-esteem generally refers to the totality of a complex, organized, and dynamic system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinions that each person holds to be true about his or her personal existence (Arthur, 1992). Evolving from this global self-esteem perspective, we used Arthur's (1992) self-concept constructs of *satisfaction*, *professional practice*, *knowledge* and *communication* and Aricak and Dilmac's (2003) concepts of *professional adaptation* and *satisfaction* to conceptualize the professional self-esteem developing from Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers' work experience. In short, in our conceptualization professional self-esteem is measured in five dimensions of: *professional satisfaction* (positive regards of teachers to teaching and their work), *professional knowledge development* (teachers' desire to develop skills necessary in their job), *professional practice* (a sense of preparing for the work and performing a qualified work), *professional adaptation* (feeling of adapting oneself to new work conditions to overcome challenges and problems in the workplace), and *professional communication* (teachers' desire to impart and share their knowledge, information, and experience to and with others).

2.5.2.2. Teacher Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). Bandura (1994) suggests that there are four main sources of influence on people's beliefs about their efficacy. (a) The first and the most effective way of creating a sense of efficacy is through mastery experiences: successes build a robust belief in one's personal efficacy while failures undermine it, especially if failures occur before a sense of efficacy is firmly established. (b) The second way is through vicarious experiences provided by social models, i.e., seeing the success of people similar to oneself raises one's beliefs that he/she also possesses the capabilities to master comparable activities required to succeed. (c) The third way is by social persuasion. (d) Finally, the fourth way is through modification of one's self-beliefs of efficacy to reduce his/her stress reactions and alter one's negative emotional proclivities and interpretations of his/her physical states.

Self-efficacy, like self-esteem, is understood in both broad and domain-specific senses. In its broad sense, self-efficacy refers to a broad and stable sense of personal competence to deal effectively with a variety of situations and a global confidence in one's coping ability across a wide range of demanding or novel situations (Schwarzer, 1992). Thus, general self-efficacy is employed as a predictor of broad outcomes such as quality of life, well-being, or overall adaptation and health, and it is measured by general self-efficacy inventories such as the General Self-Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer, and Hallum, 2008). In its domain-specific sense, on the other hand, it refers to one's more or less firm self-beliefs in different domains or particular situations of functioning.

Teacher self-efficacy in a domain-specific sense refers to a future-oriented motivational construct reflecting teachers' beliefs for teaching tasks, that is, it determines how teachers believe they have the capacity to affect student performance in future. Ashton (1985) defines teacher self-efficacy as a teacher's belief that he/she can affect his/her students' performance. Moreover, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) define it as "the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action

required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (p. 233).

Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs have been related to a number of important outcomes associated with education. In classrooms with teachers of high instructional self-efficacy, students are more academically motivated, more likely to have high self-efficacy themselves, and more likely to achieve academic success (Moore and Esselman, 1992; Ross, 1992). The effect of high teacher self-efficacy can also be seen in teacher action. Teachers with high instructional self-efficacy spend more time on planning and organizing classroom activities, are more open to new methods and ideas to meet student needs, regard classroom problems as surmountable by inventiveness and extra effort, and spend a larger portion of classroom time on academics: providing students with the guidance they need to succeed, focusing on student learning and improvement, increasing student motivation and engagement, and praising students' accomplishments (Allinder, 1994; Melby, 1995; Wolters and Daugherty, 2007). In contrast, teachers with low instructional self-efficacy devote more time to non-academic matters, criticize students for their failures and give up students who do not succeed quickly. Teachers with low self-efficacy also are more authoritarian; more likely to report higher levels of anger, depression, anxiety, helplessness, and stress; have low self-esteem; harbor pessimistic thoughts about their accomplishments and personal development; express pessimistic views of student motivation; and more frequently use extrinsic inducements and negative reinforcement (Woolfolk and Hoy, 1990; Woolfolk, Rosoff and Hoy, 1990; Narvaez, 2006).

Studies of self-efficacy beliefs in education, however, are broad, and "there is no common agreement about how the construct should be conceptualized and how it should be measured" (Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2010, p. 1059). So, for research purposes it has been refined into more specific sub-constructs. According to Albion (1999), these examples include beliefs about confidence to affect students' performance (teacher efficacy), about the nature of knowledge (epistemological beliefs), about perceptions of self (self-concept) and about confidence to perform specific tasks (self-efficacy). Furthermore, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) identified three areas for

which teachers may hold differing levels of efficacy: classroom management, instructional practices, and student engagement.

The study of self-efficacy has also received increasing attention in burnout processes. Scholars propose that people with no sense of mastery (i.e., self-efficacy) easily burnt out and usually lack the capabilities of adaptation. For instance, Chwalisz, Altmaier and Russell (1992) found that teachers who score low on self-efficacy reported a higher degree of burnout than their counterparts. Moreover, Brouwers and Tomic (2000) concluded that perceived self-efficacy must be taken into consideration when devising interventions both to prevent and treat burnout among secondary school teachers.

Several instruments have been developed to measure teacher self-efficacy such as the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale by Tschannen and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) and the Teacher Self-efficacy Scale by Schwarzer, Schmitz, and Daytner (1999). According to Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007), most of these instruments either do not measure teacher self-efficacy as a multidimensional construct (i.e., do not reflect the variety of tasks and demands that are put upon a teacher) or do not follow Bandura's recommendation for item construction. They also note that teacher self-efficacy has been shown to predict teachers' goals and aspirations, attitudes towards innovation and change, tendency to toward difficult students, use of teaching strategies, and likelihood of staying in the profession (Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2007).

After analyzing the shortcomings of teacher self-efficacy scales and the role expectations in Norwegian schools, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) developed a multidimensional 24-item scale, Norwegian Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (NTSES), which measure teacher self-efficacy in six dimensions by four items each. The dimensions are (a) *instruction*: a sense of ability to provide instruction so that maximum goals of the program to be achieved, (b) *adapting education to individual students' needs*: a sense of ability to provide individualized instruction, (c) *motivating students*: a sense of ability to engage students in teaching/learning activities, (d) *keeping discipline*: a sense of ability to deal with students' discipline problems, (e) *cooperating with colleagues and parents*: a sense of desire to cooperate with others to solve problems, and (f) *coping with changes*: a sense of desire to adapt oneself to methodological and

situational changes). Furthermore, the scale qualifies Bandura's item-construction recommendations.

In short, in this study we keep up with Skaalvik and Skaalvik's (2007) conceptualization of teacher efficacy and employ a shortened version (14 items) of their six-dimensional model of teacher efficacy. Further, to keep up with response scales of other factors (i.e., disagree very much to agree very much scale), the items were adapted. The rationale for choosing the NTSES is its comprehensiveness as argued by its developers (Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2007). Moreover, the scale has been grounded in the theoretical framework of social cognitive theory which emphasizes the evolvement and exercise of human agency, i.e., people can exercise some influence over what they do (Bandura, 2006).

2.5.2.3. Value Incongruence

Value congruency refers to sharing of values between individuals or between an individual and the organization to which he or she belongs (Adkins and Russell, 1997; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Dolan and Garcia, 2002). Value congruency addresses an essential part of the organizational culture and can potentially give a very strong sense, belief, or understanding to employees about the way things are done in a given organization. Sharing of values reduces uncertainty in perceiving, thinking and feeling among members of an organization, thus, let them to produce more positive interpersonal relations and coordinated behaviors to external stimuli (Meglino and Ravlin, 1998). Value congruency also increases normative organizational commitment, performance and job satisfaction, facilitates organizational communication and change, highlights the prediction of co-worker's behavior and reaction, and reduces incidences of turnover and burnout (O'Reilly et al., 1991; Buunk and Schaufeli, 1993; Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001; Glazer and Beehr, 2002; Okabe, 2002; Siegall and McDonald, 2004).

Although congruency between the values of the employees and those of the organization is a crucial and vital element in the lives of individuals and organizations, there is usually a degree of value incongruence between employees and a given organization. In fact, employee values, as ideals and motivations to job attraction, do

not almost always match completely with the dominant values of the organization in which he or she works (Chatman, 1991 and O'Reilly et al., 1991). Prevalence of value incongruence at work place can be attributed to a number of reasons: it may arise when an individual is recruited on the basis of limited job-related attributes such as experience and education, when an employee tries to bring his/her personal expectations in line with those of the organization, when an organization acts paradoxically with its established values and lets or constrains its employees to do things that are unethical and not in accord with their own values (i.e., there is a discrepancy between the lofty mission statement and actual practice), when an organization cannot meet its goals, when individuals and organization executives do not communicate about the values of each other during or after recruitment, thus, leave considerable room for uncertainty and misunderstandings, and when there is the question of personal growth and value changes in an organization (O'Reilly et al., 1991; Chatman, 1991; Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001; Glazer and Beehr, 2002; Okabe, 2002; Siegall and McDonald, 2004).

It is reasonable to mention that empirical studies in the domain of value congruence have revealed contradictory results. Indeed, some studies suggest that value congruence has relation with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover, etc. For instance, Chatman (1991) contrasted the value profile of newly recruited employees in U.S. accounting firms with that of the firms they served in. The results showed that value congruence was a significant factor in job selection, job satisfaction and intent to stay in the organization. Moreover, Leiter and Harvie (1997) have found that incongruence between the values of the employees and those of the organization affects all three dimensions of burnout. Furthermore, Morgan and Hunt (1994) found that shared values within an organization were positively associated with commitment and trust. Finally, Posner (1992) examining personal and corporate values found that person-organization value congruence led to positive work attitudes. However, Kalliath et al. (1999) contrasted values of their own hospital (as an organization) with that of hospital employees and did not find any relation between value congruence and job satisfaction. This was attributed to the subculture of each work unit. As Lok and Crawford (2000) found that ward culture was more predictive of job satisfaction and organizational commitment than that of the hospital culture as a whole. Additionally,

Finegan (2000) examined the relationship between personal-organizational values and commitment in a large sample of employees in a petrochemical company. The results of the study indicated that the congruence between the values of the person and the organization were less important in predicting commitment.

In short, the study considers value congruence as a multidimensional concept reflecting the degree of congruency between the values of Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers as employees and those of the administration in which they work. In fact, value incongruence of the participants and their organizations is measured in the three areas of *value conflict* (referring to value sharing between the teachers and the administration to which they belong), *value change* (referring to administrational value change during the time), and *goal meeting* (referring to an organization's effort to meet its mission statements).

2.5.2.4. Competence Self-evaluation

Teaching competence has been described as teachers' beliefs about the prerequisite knowledge of the subject(s) they teach. It also includes having access to effective and current instructional strategies and skills to teach effectively and confidently to enable students to achieve expected standards of a course (Little, 1995).

According to Whitty (1996), there are two sets of qualities that characterize a successful professional teacher: *professional characteristics* and *professional competences*. Professional characteristics include professional values, professional development, communication and relationships as well as synthesis and application, while professional competence includes knowledge and understanding of children and their learning, subject knowledge, curriculum, the educational system and the teacher's role. Professional competence also necessitates skills such as subject application, classroom methodology, classroom management and student assessment (Whitty, 1996). Additionally, Medley and Shannon (1994) hold that there are three dimensions of teacher quality instead of two: (a) *teacher effectiveness* referring to the degree to which a teacher achieves desired effects upon students, (b) *teacher competence* dealing with the extent to which a teacher has the knowledge and skills of the subject matter and

teaching (i.e., the ability to organize and teach in interesting and flexible ways by using good teaching methods), and (c) *teacher performance* meaning how a teacher behaves in the process of teaching by using their subject knowledge and their ability to plan and structure the content.

This wide-ranging set of teacher abilities and attributes are surely valuable contributions to understand teacher quality, but the study tries to assess the secondary EFL teachers' linguistic and professional competencies for burnout purposes, which can be measured through different methods such as a teacher's academic scores, the degree level of the teacher, interviewing with the teacher, observing his/her classrooms, looking at his/her students' performance and results, and his/her own reporting. The self-reporting (or self-evaluation) method is used here because it suits the goals of the study. Furthermore, self-evaluation is a pervasive and consequential human activity implicated in motivation, performance, task persistence, and other important behaviors. It is also a process by which the teacher becomes responsible for examining and improving his/her own practice (Airasian and Gullickson, 1997).

The study of self-evaluation processes and consequences has also revealed that it is a very beneficial method for understanding teacher competences. Kremer and Ben-Peretz (1984) found that teachers' evaluation of their own competence had a significant effect on student-achievement. Furthermore, Wallace (1996) noted that competence self-evaluation increased autonomous professional development. Xu (2004) also concluded that teachers' self-reflection of their competence allows teachers to identify their strengths and weaknesses to target the objectives. Additionally, in his study of the self-evaluation portfolios of language teachers Limantro (2003) found that teachers were able to pinpoint their weaknesses to enhance the quality of their teaching performance. Finally, Lemmon (1991) argued that teacher self-evaluation allows teachers to set goals to increase job performance.

It is, however, worth mentioning that there is no consensus on an adequate and agreed definition of teacher competence. The literature offers a large number of definitions covering a wide range of dimensions. Therefore, we conceptualized our understanding of teacher competences in secondary EFL settings as the teachers' *language knowledge*

(referring to various competences such as linguistic competence, communicative competence and cultural competence) and *professional competence* (referring to teaching abilities of teachers to provide effective instruction by employing various methods, strategies, skills, and techniques, their student assessment capabilities and their effective use of educational technologies). These two main categories, indeed, include different competences that are crucial for a successful instruction in EFL programs. Knowledge of language focusing on linguistic aspects includes teachers' abilities in productive and receptive language skills, lexical and grammatical knowledge, pronunciation and intonation knowledge, communicative processes and cultural knowledge. Whereas, the latter main category refers to teaching abilities of EFL teachers in offering the course contents, designing different teaching activities, and knowing and applying effective instructional methods, strategies, skills and techniques. It also includes their knowledge of the psychology of teaching/learning, curriculum development, classroom management, student motivation, student assessment, student communication, and use of educational technology for better fulfillment of the teaching goals. By completing the explanation of competence self-evaluation as the last individual factor, the review of the four individual factors is also finished here and the explanation of the six school-level factors involved in the study is started.

2.5.3. School-level Factors

School-level factors, also known as situational or environmental factors, extend from the environment in which a teacher works and are unique to a school. In other words, they refer to those factors that are in the immediate context of teachers. The organizational framework of a school has proven to have an effect on teacher burnout. Sleegers (1999) states that "the interactions between teachers and their working conditions shape the professional identities of teachers, which in turn influence the manner in which teachers perceive and respond to their work" (p. 252). Studies also support the significant role of school issues in triggering burnout reactions among teachers, either by facilitating or inhibiting an individual's emotional or attitudinal characteristics (Cano-Garcia et al., 2005; Schaufeli and Enzmann, 1998).

The perception of an imbalance between demands at school and teachers' resources for coping with them may result from a variety of factors, such as number of students served, mixed-ability classes, the amount of work, the wrong kind of work or lack of inclination for a certain type of work, long and difficult work hours, the speed that the work goes at, the psychological demands of a work, excessive performance monitoring, unrealistic expectations of what can be achieved in the available time and with the available resources, additional tasks imposed on the 'core' workload (doing more than one job), availability and suitability of teaching materials, etc.

As it is clear, there are a vast variety of school-level indicators of burnout. Exploring them and describing their relations with burnout is certainly beyond the scope of the study, so, six school-level factors (i.e., workload, student misbehavior, oversized classes, mixed-ability classes, teaching materials, and social support) that are thought to play more salient roles in teacher burnout processes of EFL teachers were selected for the study. They are explained in the following parts.

2.5.3.1. Workload

Workload (also referred to as role overload) refers to having too many tasks to complete in a given timeframe as well as tasks that are too complex or difficult to complete successfully. Work overload occurs when job demand exceeds human limits and people have to do too much, in too little time, with too few resources. Work under-load, on the other hand, means the work is too simple or insufficiently challenging for one's abilities (Schultz and Schultz, 2002). Maslach and Leiter (1997, p. 10) also argue that workload as "the most obvious indication of a mismatch between a person and the job" and a key dimension of organizational life can be examined from the perspectives of an organization and that of an individual: "from the organization's perspective, workload means productivity", whereas, "from the individual's perspective, workload means time and energy" (p. 34).

It is often distinguished between 'quantitative work overload' and 'qualitative work overload'. Quantitative overload refers to individuals' beliefs that their engagement in a task is limited by factors such as time or access to a resource. This form of overload has

been much more common for the last few years in organizations that had slashed jobs. Qualitative work overload, on the other hand, refers to job complexity, and it exists when individuals believe they lack the capability or skill level required to complete a task. This form of overload is common in an organization that requires its employees to do different kinds of tasks because of downsizing the organization (Shaw and Weekley, 1985; Osipow and Spokane, 1992; Peterson et al., 1995).

Teachers are considered to be in a situation of quantitative work overload when they must accomplish many tasks or carry out tasks in too little time, while in a situation of qualitative work overload when they recognize the task as too difficult to complete at a satisfactory performance level because they do not perceive themselves as having adequate skills or knowledge needed to carry out it (Shaw and Weekley, 1985; Osipow and Spokane, 1992).

Work overload, whether quantitative or qualitative, has been shown to be a significant source of higher levels of burnout. Let's remind that work under-load also leads to burnout but it is not the focus of the study (Schaufeli and Enzmann, 1998). For instance, Demerouti et al. (2001) found that workload was primarily associated with the physical fatigue component of burnout and very minimally associated with other assumed components. Moreover, Maslach et al. (2001) found that workload has a consistent relationship with burnout, especially with the exhaustion dimension, then, exhaustion mediates the relationship of workload with the other two burnout dimensions.

Workload as a multi-dimensional or multi-facet phenomenon, however, is characterized by a variety of criteria. Of course, it is impossible to include all its indicators in the current study; therefore, the study concentrates only on quantitative workload and characterizes it as having two dimensions of 'time pressure' (referring to the inabilities of teachers to complete a task because of not having enough time) and 'amount of work' (referring to the amount of work to be done) because quantitative workload is a more significant source of burnout than qualitative one, and that these criteria are considered as very significant indicators of quantitative workload in an educational context.

2.5.3.2. Student Misbehavior

Student misbehavior can be defined as any behavior that interferes with the effectiveness of the teacher's instructional plan and the learning abilities of students (Stebbins, 1971). Student behavior impacting on teacher burnout is identified by four subcategories: *student discipline*, *student apathy*, *low student achievement*, and *student absences* (Blasé, 1986; Croom and Moore, 2003).

Student discipline, the largest subcategory of student-generated stressors, refers to problems such as verbal abuse, fighting, screaming, vandalizing school property, cheating, teasing, violent outbursts, drug use, etc. Discipline problems occurring both in and out of the classroom (e.g., banging lockers, excessive noise in the halls) appear to be most stressful when they directly or indirectly interfere with classroom processes, thus, adversely affecting teacher performance and student learning outcomes (Blasé, 1986).

Student apathy (or indifference to the importance of education) is identified by students' negative attitudes toward work and school. They make little or no effort to participate in classroom activities, rarely respond to questions, do not bother to hand in papers at all, they just sit there with a bored, blank expression on their faces, and on occasion start trouble. When learning activities require cooperation, such students sometimes screw up the classroom dynamics. While apathy is usually linked to individuals, sometimes whole classes are indifferent and virtually unresponsive to motivational techniques and expectations. In many instances, ignorant and uncaring parents, lack of parental involvement, parents who complain about the amount of homework and a society that does not value education were identified as partially responsible for student apathy. The phrase 'I can't understand why students don't care', is usually used by teachers who express their confusion and indignation about student apathy (Blasé, 1986).

Low student achievement refers to students' failure to achieve teacher-defined learning outcomes. It is typically characterized by phrases such as '*not achieving goals*', '*just can't get a student to understand something*', '*not getting results from my efforts'*, and '*exhausting all the ways I can imagine to teach*'. Some main factors contributing to

students' lack of progress and failure are: having too many students, not having the time and other resources to meet individual needs, students' lack of preparedness in academic study, special learning problems and deficiencies, and unsupportive parents. Finally, Student absences refer to patterns of inordinate nonattendance. Students who don't attend regularly in classes will certainly miss important work, thus, fail to achieve learning goals (Blasé, 1986).

Research has also shown that student behavior and discipline problems (e.g. verbal disrespect, violence) are among the primary reasons for teacher burnout (Burke et al., 1996; Friedman, 1995). In fact, Friedman (1995) revealed that typical student misbehaviors including disrespect and inattentiveness accounted for 22% of the variance in predicting teacher burnout across all grade levels. Moreover, Evers et al. (2004) examining burnout among teachers in the Netherlands suggested that teachers' competence to cope with disruptive classroom behaviors was significantly related to each dimension of burnout. Pines (2002b) also suggested that disruptive student behaviors stress teachers: when students lack interest in learning and lack attention to classroom, teachers feel they are insignificant or perceive themselves as failures. Finally, Bibou-nakou et al. (1999) examining teacher burnout with 200 elementary school teachers in Greece argued that personal accomplishment was higher among teachers who attributed students' disobedience to internal student-related factors. That is to say, teachers who did not take students' disruptive behaviors personally reported higher personal accomplishment in teaching, thus, less feelings of burnout.

In short, student misbehavior as one of the major sources of teacher burnout is characterized here as student-generated stressors that negatively impact teaching and learning processes and activities. Student misbehavior conceptualization in this study includes three subscales of *student discipline* (referring to student problems such as verbal abuse, fighting, screaming, vandalizing school property, cheating, teasing, violent outbursts, drug use, etc.), *student apathy* (referring to students' negative attitudes toward work and school), *low student achievement* (referring to students' failure to achieve teacher-defined learning outcomes) (Blasé, 1986).

2.5.3.3. Oversized Classes

Oversized classes (or Overcrowded / large classrooms) simply means having too many students in the classroom though a large class has no exact size. It is usually measured in terms of the number of students per teacher (student-teacher ratio). In some countries, 25-30 students per one teacher is considered large, while in other countries this is seen to be normal or even quite small. In Western countries, for example, class sizes of 30 are considered large and in need of reduction (Benbow et al., 2007; Shaeffer, 2006). From a teacher's perspective, however, a class is large whenever he/she feels it large. While a class of more than 50 students is usually considered a large class, those teachers who normally teach 25 or fewer students may consider a class of 35 to be large and overwhelming.

Teachers are faced with the challenge of teaching a large class due to budgetary constraints or growing student population. Though teaching large classes can offer opportunities for teachers to improve their educational, interpersonal, managerial, organizational skills, it affects the quality of education delivered in all courses, especially in EFL one. Where there is need for allowing students to express their thoughts and feelings as they move through the reading and writing processes, that is, EFL teachers should be able to spend more time on individualized teaching. Christensen (1994), for instance, discusses a number of problems that exist in large classrooms of language teachers. These include difficulties in speaking, reading, and writing tasks, difficulties with monitoring and giving feedback, problems in individualizing instruction and work, avoidance of tasks that are demeaning to implement, difficulty in getting around the classroom, and poor attention of students. Biddle and Berliner (2002) also indicate that teachers in oversized classes confront with management problems such as difficulty of executing group work and discipline problems. They also sense the impossibility of implementing of some activities: attending to all students, giving enough feedback to weaker students, establishing affective rapport with students, and assessing student interests and moods.

As the studies show, 'oversized classes' creates a challenging learning environment for teachers and affects student achievement negatively; therefore, 'oversized classes' as a

school-level factor is included in the study to see whether it has any effect on teacher burnout processes in EFL contexts of Iran and Turkey, two developing countries where indices of class population are often beyond the standard of Western countries.

2.5.3.4. Mixed-ability Classes

The term 'mixed-ability' is normally used for a class in which individual differences are very pronounced. To be more specific, mixed-ability classes in the EFL contexts refer to classes in which there are very clear differences between students in terms of their levels of (1) language ability such as the receptive and productive skills, fluency and accuracy, grammatical knowledge, size of vocabulary, command of pronunciation and so on, (2) employing learning styles, pace of learning and developing and aptitude of learning (3) background and world knowledge, (4) motivating and creating a very positive attitude towards learning English, and (5) types of intelligences, physiological needs, interests, and maturity (Prodromou, 1995).

In a sense, every language class in a secondary school can be said to be mixed-ability to a certain degree. This is because every class is made up of a group of individuals who, to some extent, are different in terms of their knowledge and ability (Richards, 1998). The differences in language experiences and learning ability cause problems in heterogeneous classes (Ur, 1996). Şalli-Çopur (2005) also indicates that major problems generated from the situation are: (1) there is the problem of class participation, that is, some learners are very active and always participate in the classroom activities while some others are shy and indifferent to activities, the first group may lose interest in the class activities while the latter lose their confidence as they cannot respond as quickly as their counterparts, (2) there is also the problem of reaction on textbooks whose texts may seem easy, interesting and appealing for some students while those texts may be strange (or meaningless) and boring for some others, and (3) another problem concerns with student misbehavior and confidence, that is, some students follow lessons and are able to answer questions in time while others fall behind, don't seem to understand, and lose their confidence. This fact may cause management problems in the classroom.

Teaching in large and mixed-ability classes, however, is more arduous, exhausting and demanding. It is perhaps the most challenging task for ELT teachers in such classes to tailor teaching activities and learning tasks for every student, to keep all students 'on track', to maintain discipline in the classroom, and so on. Therefore, we want to see what role the composition of Iranian and Turkish EFL classes, which is usually heterogeneous, plays in teacher burnout processes.

2.5.3.5. Teaching Materials

Materials play a very important role in many language classrooms though there is debate among scholars on the actual role of materials, especially textbooks, in teaching English as a Second/Foreign Language (TESL/TEFL). Arguments encompass both the potential and the limitations of materials for 'guiding' students through the learning process as well as the needs and preferences of teachers who are using them. Sheldon (1988) suggests that textbooks not only "represent the visible heart of any ELT program" (p. 237) but also offer considerable advantages for both students and teachers in the ESL/EFL classroom. In the same vein, Haycroft (1998) claims that one of the primary advantages of using textbooks is that they are psychologically essential for students since their progress and achievement can be measured by them. Moreover, Cunningsworth (1995) argues that textbook are an effective resource for self-directed learning, an effective resource for presentation, a source of ideas and activities, a reference source for students, a syllabus where they reflect pre-determined learning objectives, and support for less experienced teachers.

While the aforementioned scholars point out the benefits of using ESL/EFL textbooks, there are other researchers and practitioners who do not necessarily accept this view. Allwright (1981), for instance, suggests that textbooks essentially determine and control the methods, processes, procedures, and activities of language teaching and learning. They also reflect generally the pedagogic, psychological, and linguistic preferences and biases of their authors. Subsequently, the educational methodology that a textbook promotes will influence the classroom setting by imposing learning constituents on students as well as instructional paradigms on the teachers. Additionally, Prodromou (1988) and Alptekin (1993) criticize teaching materials from the point of view of the

target language culture, a vehicle for teaching the language. They argue that it is not really possible to teach a language without embedding it in its cultural base, and any attempt in this regard may result in alienation, stereotyping, or even reluctance or resistance to learning. Proponents of authentic classroom language models have also argued that many textbooks are actually too contrived and artificial in their presentation of the target language (Levis, 1999).

Whether or not one accepts the value of teaching materials (especially textbooks), they must be qualified for teaching and learning purposes (including practicality, methodological validity, innovation, authenticity, representation of language, appropriateness of subject matters, and cultural components). It seems that English textbooks offered in Iranian high schools hardly meet these qualifications as far as we think. Maybe, it is worth mentioning that the present textbooks which are taught all over the country have been offered for more than two decades after an Islamic Cultural Movement. Some simplifications and adaptations have been done since then, but the overall layout and methodological design have not been changed much, and many linguistic shortcomings of entire texts, certain exercises, and tasks still exist. Therefore, the evaluation of the teaching materials (textbooks) seems to be a significant criterion for determining teacher burnout. To this end, the suitability and practicality of the present high-school textbooks and availability of other teaching materials are on focus from a pedagogical view in teacher burnout processes of Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers.

2.5.3.6. Social Support

Social support, our last school-level factor, generally refers to any type of assistance that individuals receive or expect to receive from those who come into contact with them. Hagihara, Tarumi, and Miller (1998) define social support as “the provision and receipt of tangible and intangible goods, services and benefits (such as encouragement and reassurance) in the context of informal relationships (e.g., family, friends, coworkers, and boss)” (p. 75). Additionally, Sarason et al. (1983) define social support as the “existence or availability of people on whom we can rely, people who let us know that they care about, value, and love us” (p. 127). Moreover, Wallston et al. (1983) state

that social support represents "the comfort, assistance, and/or information one receives through formal or informal contacts with individuals or groups" (p. 369). In educational contexts, social support refers to the physical and emotional comfort which teachers receive from administrators, colleagues, parents, and students. There are, however, broad and narrow views of social support. In its broad sense, it refers to social integration defined as the structure and quantity of social relationships, that is, the size and density of social networks and the frequency of interaction. While in its narrow sense, it has been defined in various ways: it is regarded as resources provided by others as coping assistance or as an exchange of resources (Sarason and Sarason, 1994).

As mentioned in its definition, the conceptualization of social support has often been approached from two major perspectives: structural and functional. Structural support concerns with the quantity of established social connections that an individual has, not with the quality of existing relationships (Sarason and Sarason, 1994). In other words, structural support does not directly address the specific characteristics of support relationships; therefore, it provides no information about the quality of social support. In contrast, functional support considers the particular functions that social relationships serve an individual. Examples of specific functions include providing information, bolstering esteem, and promoting a sense of belonging (Stroebe, 2000). Regarding the functional aspect of social relationships, a distinction often made between *received* support and *perceived* support. The former refers to the amount of support that is actually received in a given time, whereas, the latter refers to the perception of support believed to be available if needed (Wills and Shinar, 2000; Schwarzer and Knoll, 2007; Taylor, 2007). Scholars such as Cohen et al. (2000), Lakey and Cohen (2000) and Wills and Shinar (2000) have more emphasized on the beneficial effects of the perceived support in social relationships.

Currently, it is assumed that social support construct contains a number of facets such as tangible, emotional, and appraisal components (Cassel, 1976; Cobb, 1976; Weiss, 1974). Tangible support is a non-psychological form of support and involves behaviors that directly help the person in need such as providing money, care, or other forms of assistance. Emotional support plays a role in one's feelings of control and self-esteem and involves providing empathy, care, love, and trust. Appraisal support influences

one's perceived ability to cope with a given situation and involves the transmission of information that is relevant for the person's self-evaluation such as encouragement or feedback (Schwarzer and Leppin, 1991, Sarason and Sarason, 1994).

Weiss (1974) also describes six different functional facets of social support that may be obtained through relationships with others. They are: (a) *guidance* (having access to advice and information to handle problems), (b) *reliable alliance* (perceiving that others can be counted upon for tangible assistance), (c) *reassurance of worth* (referring to recognition of one's competence, skills, and value by others), (d) *social integration* (referring to a sense of belonging to a group that shares similar interests, concerns, and recreational activities), (e) *attachment* (referring to a sense of emotional closeness from which one derives a sense of security) and (f) *opportunity for nurturance* (referring to the sense that others can rely upon one for their well-being). Based on Weiss' (1974) theoretical model of social support, Russell and Cutrona (1984) developed the *Social Provisions Scale* for measuring social support, which is a 24-item measure including six dimensions of *Guidance*, *Reliable Alliance*, *Reassurance of Worth*, *Social Integration*, *Attachment*, and *Nurturance* (Cutrona and Russell, 1987). Similarly, Vaux (1988) conceptualizes social support in three types: *resources of the support network*, *behaviors that offer support*, and *evaluation*. These aspects of support are related to the characteristics of the support networks, the specific behaviors bringing about help, and the personal evaluation of the support resources. In addition, Vaux (1988) reports six dimensions of social support as: *emotional*, *advice*, *practical support*, *socialization*, *material support*, and *feedback.*

Now, there is also strong body of evidence that social support relates to teacher burnout. Van der Doef and Maes (2002), for instance, found that work aspects, workload, and social support explained 40% of the variance in emotional exhaustion, 29% of the variance in depersonalization, and 32% of the variance in personal accomplishment. Moreover, , Dworkin, Saha, and Hill (2003) reported that social support, collegiality, and teacher involvement in decision making explained 34 % of the variance in burnout as a whole concept. In the same vein, Van Dick and Wagner (2001) found social support predicted 53 % of the variance in mobbing (i.e., criticism by principals or colleagues, exclusion from social events in the school, and rumors spread by

colleagues), which in turn predicted 25% of the variance in burnout. Embich (2001) also reported that lack of social support explained 42 % of the variance in personal accomplishment for teachers who preferred team work. Finally, Brouwers, Evers, and Tomic (2001) found lack of support to be moderately correlated with emotional exhaustion (r =-.42) and personal accomplishment (r =.26).

As the studies show, lack of social support originating from the school environment can create teacher stress which eventually leads to burnout; therefore, it can be identified as a resource that enables individuals to cope with burnout. To this end, the role of *perceived* aspect of social support is examined in burnout processes because support of teachers usually hinges on the perceived support in educational settings. And, the conceptualization of social support, here, is based on the theoretical model of Weiss (1974) who offers six provisions reflecting what we receive from relationships with other people (Mentioned above). Having explained the six school-level factors, we are going to describe the last set of factors (i.e., administrational ones) involved in teacher burnout processes.

2.5.4. Administrational Factors

Administrational factors refer to those conditions that are imposed on individuals and schools by the administration (i.e., system). Unlike the pioneering studies that depicted individuals as the sole cause of burnout because of their inability to achieve work-life balance and/or their inability to plan, organize, prioritize, schedule and execute their work activities properly, recent research indicates organizational structure as one of the worst causes of burnout (Pick and Leiter, 1991, Maslach and Leiter, 1997, Schaufeli and Enzmann, 1998). The organizational characteristics that lead to burnout are: impossible goals, countless layers of bureaucracy, stupid policies and procedures, lack of clarity in roles and responsibilities, cloudy and confusing goals, endless and pointless meetings, focusing on people as functions while leaving the ‘human element’ out of the equation, etc. Accordingly, people may begin to experience burnout at work when there is no honest or logical rationale for conducting a business, when people feel they’ll never achieve the expected end no matter how long and how hard they keep working, when they perceive themselves in a no-win situation and so on (Schaufeli and Enzmann,

1998). Therefore, four significant administrational factors were involved in the study to see to what extent they trigger burnout reactions among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers. They are *Teacher Autonomy, Reward Adequacy, Fairness* and *Fringe Benefits* explained in the following parts.

2.5.4.1. Teacher Autonomy

Teacher autonomy has generally been defined as the degree to which a teacher has the desire to make curriculum decisions using his/her personal initiative and intellectual engagement. For the first time, Little (1995) defined the term as the "teachers' capacity to engage in self-directed teaching" (p. 176). After that, scholars defined teacher autonomy from different aspects. For instance, Aoki (2000) suggests that teacher autonomy involves "the capacity, freedom, and/or responsibility to make choices concerning one's own teaching" (p. 19). Smith (2000) also argues that teacher autonomy refers to "the ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for oneself as a teacher, in cooperation with others" (p. 89). Furthermore, Benson (2000) argues that teacher autonomy can be seen as "a right to freedom from control and/or an ability to exercise this right" (p. 111).

Teacher professional autonomy, as a multidimensional concept, has changed considerably over the years and continues to evolve. As Frase and Sorenson (1992) argue, teacher autonomy is viewed very differently: one teacher may view autonomy as a means to gain substantial freedom from interference or supervision; another may view it as the freedom to develop collegial relationships and accomplish tasks that extend beyond the classroom; and even some others may perceive it as a means for principals to avoid their duties. Although the concept was viewed as a unitary concept in the past, it is recently decomposed into six distinct subcomponents: *autonomy over curriculum*, *pedagogy, assessment, professional development, student discipline*, and *classroom environment* (LaCoe, 2008). These six subcomponents of teacher autonomy provide a solid framework to understand the complex nature of teacher autonomy. The concept, however, concerns itself with:

- involving teachers in decision making processes;

- providing opportunities for peer collaboration, discussion and debate of real school problems;
- providing optimal level of support and allowing for teacher voice;
- encouraging flexibility in strategies for obtaining goals;
- encouraging teacher responsibility and choice about such things as how to learn, what to learn, where to learn, when a learning experience will be considered to be complete and how learning will be assessed;
- perceiving freedom from externally imposed agendas;
- having ability in managing knowledge, skills, and attitudes in teaching.

Studies also reveal that teacher autonomy is crucial to educational effectiveness and empowers individuals within the system to adapt teaching to the changing needs of the students and the community. For instance, Pearson and Hall (1993) found that the degree of autonomy perceived by new teachers is an indicator of job satisfaction and a positive reaction to teaching, and teachers who had higher autonomy scores expressed a willingness to enter teaching again if faced with the decision. Moreover, Ingersoll and Alsalam (1997) argued that increasing of teacher autonomy positively correlates with making better decisions about educational issues because top-down decision-making often fails when it lacks the support of those who are responsible for the implementation of them. Finally, perceptions of autonomy have been found to be related to various factors such as tension, frustration, anxiety, and job stress among teachers (Pearson and Hall, 1993; Natale, 1993; Davis and Wilson, 2000; Dinham and Scott, 2000; Webb, 2002; Pearson and Moomaw, 2006; Bustingorry, 2008).

While the potential role of teacher autonomy in language learning/teaching processes is enormous, it has been argued that Turkey has a centralized educational system (Öztürk, 2011; Uygun, 2008; Akşit, 2007). Yıldırım (2003) analyzes the attitudes and practices of Turkish teachers with regard to their teaching programs and identifies that teachers excessively rely on the curriculum and textbooks in their teaching activities because they are asked to meet fully the predetermined curriculum requirements, which means that they have little autonomy in determining the content of the teaching activities. He further adds that centralized tendencies are vividly observed in many fields such as curriculum development, choice of instructional materials, teacher employment, in-

service training programs etc. Moreover, Vorkink (2006) claims that "compared with Europe and most of the world, Turkey's public schools have the least autonomy over resources, staff deployment (at the school), textbook selection, allocation of instructional time, and selection of programs offered" (p. 17). If this is the case with Turkish educational system, there will be no much difference with the educational system of Iran, where teachers have no flexibility to regulate the content of the programs in accordance with the student needs and classroom circumstances.

Therefore, it is believed that assessment of the organizational empowerment perceptions of Iranian and Turkish high school EFL teachers will shed more light on teacher burnout processes. To this end, a four-dimension model of teacher autonomy based on the six-component model of LaCoe (2008) was developed to measure autonomy perceptions of the teachers over (a) choice of appropriate teaching methods, strategies and techniques to meet student needs, (b) evaluation of the established curriculum (c) teacher involvement in decision making processes and (d) using personal initiative to solve work problems. In short, it is perhaps worth mentioning that our conceptualization in this regard is that of 'agency' concept developed by Paris (1993) who characterizes the relationship of teachers to curriculum by arguing that "teacher agency in curriculum matters involves initiating the creation or critique of curriculum, an awareness of alternatives to established curriculum practices, the autonomy to make informed choices, an investment of self, and on-going interaction with others" (p. 16). To highlight her concept, Paris (1993) contrasts it to commonly held conceptions of 'teachers as consumers of curriculum' and 'technical implementers of ideas and products of experts'. She further adds that teachers who conceptualize themselves as agents involve in curriculum *development*, *implementation* and *evaluation* activities.

2.5.4.2. Reward Adequacy

Rewards refer to things that increase the frequency of a response. According to McCormick and Tifflin (1979), rewards can be either intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic rewards (termed also as 'psychological rewards') are those rewards that are inherent in the job itself and please individuals as a result of successfully completing the task or attaining their goals, such as opportunity to use one's ability, a sense of challenge and

achievement, interest, responsibility or accomplishment, and the capacity to confer to workers a sense of achievement. Extrinsic rewards, on the other hand, are those that are external to the task of the job, such as payment, work and work environment conditions, fringe benefits, job security, promotion, freedom from conflicting demands, free from excessive work, pleasant physical surroundings, and having enough resources to do the work. Such tangible (or material) rewards are often determined at the organizational level and may be largely outside the control of employees and individual managers. The extrinsic dimension also includes more symbolic rewards (or intangible/ social rewards) in terms of positive recognition, public approval, praise, and social support. In the same vein, Deci (1975) defines *intrinsic rewards* as those that induce perceptions of personal causation, while those that produce perceptions of external causation is defined as *extrinsic rewards*.

In this regard, Ajila (1997) also argues that an intrinsically-motivated individual will commit to the work to the extent that the job inherently contains tasks being rewarding to him/her, while an extrinsically motivated person will do to the extent that he/she can receive external rewards. He further suggests that for an individual to be motivated in a work situation there must be a need, which the individual would have to perceive a possibility of satisfying through some reward. If the reward is intrinsic to the job, such desire or motivation is intrinsic. But, if the reward is described as external to the job, the motivation is described as extrinsic.

Research has also shown that intrinsic and extrinsic rewards have important implications for individuals' overall satisfaction at work and desire to commit to their job (Balloch et al., 1998; Penna et al., 1995; Papadaki and Papadaki, 2006; Koeske et al., 1994). Jones (2001) demonstrates the importance of intrinsic motives in reflecting individuals' desire to exercise their acquired skills at work, increasing personal interests and quest for working with meaningful and engaging tasks, and interacting with clients to provide help and assistance for achieving change and improvement in their lives. Furthermore, Evetts (2006) argues that a good reputation has a great impact on professional pride, and intrinsic motivation is one of the significant intrinsic rewards.

Koeske et al. (1994) also indicates significance of extrinsic rewards in reflecting individuals' desire for the satisfaction of social needs at work. They claim that receiving praise, support and positive feedback are at the center of professionals' rewards and identities. Moreover, they add that for individuals the most unsatisfactory aspects of job context arise when they are not valued by their employers and/or the society. Additionally, Thompson et al. (1994) found that being valued at the work place and receiving support and assistance from employers were very important extrinsic rewards in coping with stress. There are, on the other hand, studies that question the positive role of extrinsic rewards. Le Grande (2003), for instance, argues that the degree of approval from the outside world seems of little or no importance as a motivational reward compared to other personal gratifications. He adds that gratification deriving from altruistic actions primarily depends on the sort of help that professionals can offer.

Whether studies support the significance of extrinsic rewards or not, it is believed that they are closely associated with feelings of inefficacy, job dissatisfaction and burnout. Therefore, the study includes *salary* (a tangible or material reward) and *valuation* (an intangible or social reward) as two extrinsic rewards at the organizational level to determine how they bear on teacher burnout processes.

Scholars also emphasize the significance of these extrinsic rewards at workplace. Maslach and Leiter (1997), for instance, argue that monetary incentives and acknowledgements are usually well received and denote that effort, production, and hard work are valued. Employees who perceive their efforts are undervalued and unappreciated will experience a decline in motivation and desire to work hard. They also will lose their intrinsic satisfaction and pride in doing something of importance and value to others. Low payment, resulting from monetary constrains, is "the most visible symbol of the lack of respect for teaching" and the most devastating element in arousing internal rewards, balancing rewards and contributions between members and their organization (P. 96). They add that the interesting thing is that everyone knows rewards are important, but this knowledge is not necessarily translated into action (Maslach and Leiter, 1997). Similarly, Otto and Arnold (2005) point out well-paid and well-respected occupations rarely encounter with recruitment and/or retention problems. Additionally, Romanowski (2006) indicated that many teachers quit their jobs because of lower

salaries. Finally, in her 13-year longitudinal study of special education teachers, Singer (1993) found that salary, support, guidance, and appreciation did make a difference in the likelihood of staying in or leaving one's position.

2.5.4.3. Fairness

Fairness as a core value in organizations refers to the extent to which employees perceive their workplace outcomes, procedures and interactions to be fair (Konovsky, 2000). Cropanzano et al. (2007) define organizational justice as a personal evaluation about the ethical and moral standing of managerial conduct. Moreover, Moorman (1991) adds that "organizational justice is concerned with the ways in which employees determine if they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which those determinations influence other work-related variables" (P. 845).

Organizational justice is related to job satisfaction, work performance, turnover, organizational commitment, supervisor trust, employee theft, alienation, and burnout (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg and Colquitt, 2005). In this regard, Maslach and Leiter (1997) argue that fairness communicates respect and confirms people's self-worth. Unfairness, on the other hand, occurs when there is inequity of workload or pay, when there is cheating, and when evaluations and promotions are handled inappropriately. Furthermore, lack of fairness intensifies burnout in at least two ways in organizations: first, the experience of unfair treatment is emotionally upsetting and exhausting; second, unfairness fuels a deep sense of cynicism about the workplace (Maslach and Leiter, 1997). However, several facets of organizational justice have been recognized: *distributive*, *procedural*, and *interactional* justice, which are briefly described here.

Distributive justice

Distributive justice deriving from the 'equity theory' of Adams (1965) is a form of organizational justice that focuses on people's beliefs of receiving fair amounts of valued work-related outcomes (Greenberg and Colquitt, 2005). According to *equity theory*, individuals perceive the fairness of outcomes by calculating the ratio of their

own inputs (e.g. time, effort, education, experience and intelligence) to outputs (e.g. pay, social approval, recognition, job security, promotion, and career opportunities). While comparing it to input levels of others, they want to be paid fairly with others for the work they do and be adequately recognized for their efforts and any special contributions they bring to the job. In addition to this theory, two other justice allocation theories, namely *equality* and *needs priority*, are also the focus of the organizational justice (Leventhal, 1976, Greenberg and Colquitt, 2005). 'Equality' refers to equal outcomes for self and others regardless of inputs, i.e., all individuals want to receive equal rewards without comparing one's input levels with that of others. And, 'needs priority' allocation refers to the allocation of resources (e.g., financial support, need for training, etc.) based upon the relative needs of individuals, that is, individuals who are more in need of rewards benefit first (Leventhal, 1976; Greenberg and Colquitt, 2005). On the basis of these three allocation rules, individuals perceive the fairness of outcomes and react to it: first cognitively with attitudes of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their job and feelings of negative or positive commitment to the organization; second with behavioral decisions such as intentions to stay in or leave the organization (Colquitt et al., 2001; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997).

Procedural justice

Procedural justice examines individual's perceptions of fairness about processes, procedures, and policies used to determine the outcomes they receive. According to Skarlicki and Latham (2005), procedural justice refers to the extent to which fair procedures and processes are in place and adhered to and to which individuals see their leaders as being fair, sincere, logical or rational in what they do. Moreover, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) define procedural justice as the "fairness issues concerning the methods, mechanisms, and processes used to determine outcomes" (P. 26).

Procedural justice can outweigh distributive justice when individuals accept an unwanted outcome while believe that the decision processes leading up to it is conducted according to just organizational principles. For example, a worker who has not been promoted may be placated if he/she is convinced that the system of promotions is transparent and free from bias. Therefore, procedural justice exists in the workplace

when individuals are allowed to be aware of and/or have voice in processes and procedures determining their outcomes. According to Thibaut and Walker (1975), employees judge the fairness of procedures based on two types of controls: *process control* (voice effect) and *decision control*. The former refers to the amount of control an individual has over the procedures and processes used to make a decision, whereas, the latter refers to the amount of control an individual has over influencing the decision. Related to Thibaut and Walker's (1975) 'process- and decision-control' models of procedural justice, Lind and Tyler (1988) developed the *self-interest* and the *group-value* models of procedural justice. The self-interest model comes into play when individuals want to maximize their own outcomes by focusing on decision control, but the group-value model is on focus when individuals cooperate with others in groups to achieve their outcomes.

Additionally, Leventhal et al. (1980) suggested that procedures could be perceived as fair if they met six criteria: *accuracy* (truthful and correct information need to be gathered and used in the decision making process), *consistency* (the procedure should guarantee similar treatment across all people at all times), *ethicality* (the procedure conforms to the prevailing standards of ethics and morality), *correction* (the procedures have a means of correcting flawed decisions in place), *bias suppression* (third party must not have a vested interest in particular outcome or make decisions based on his or her own personal beliefs), and *representativeness* (the procedure must insure that all affected parties have an opportunity to state their concerns and opinions). Moreover, Tang and Sarsfield-Baldwin (1996) identified five factors involved in procedural justice: fairness, two-way communication, trust in supervisor, clarity of expectations, and understanding of the performance appraisal process. Finally, Belanger et al. (2006) proposed that perceptions of procedural justice are high if there are standards to insure that the results of monitoring are accurate and that the organization has appealed to correct unreasonable outcomes and procedures.

As it is clear, the decision process of an organization should be free from bias, should include the concerns of all groups, and should be ethically and morally acceptable if it is interested in increasing its employees' commitment, satisfaction, citizenship, trust, and performance. In addition, procedural justice is influenced by the adequacy of

explanations of formal decision making procedures and individuals' concerns about the quality of the interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organizational procedures. Thus, a third dimension of fairness, named *interactional justice*, was also introduced to the organizational context (Bies and Moag, 1986, Colquitt et al., 2001).

Interactional justice

Interactional justice refers to the interpersonal treatment employees receive from decision makers and the adequacy with which the formal decision-making procedures are explained (Greenberg, 1990). Stating that interactional justice denotes individuals' concerns about the quality of the interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organizational procedures (e.g. respect and adequate explanation), Bies and Moag (1986) introduce it as a third dimension of justice (i.e., fairness) by arguing that "an allocation decision is a sequence of events in which a procedure generates a process of interaction and decision making through which an outcome is allocated to someone" (P. 45-46). In other words, they maintain that interactional justice can be distinguished from procedural justice because procedures refer to the structural quality of the decision process, whereas interactional justice refer to a social exchange between two participants; therefore, they are two separate processes: one is concerning with decision procedures, while the other with the enactment of the procedures. Focusing on the communication aspect of interactional justice, Bies and Moag (1986) put forward four criteria that people use to judge the fairness of communication during the resource allocation. "Their criteria included *truthfulness*, *respect*, *propriety of questions*, and *justification*, which were subsequently summarized into two categories by researchers: a) clear and adequate explanations, or justifications, for an allocation decision and b) treatment of recipients with dignity and respect during the implementation of decision procedures" (Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001, P. 89).

In the same vein, Korsgaard, Roberson and Rymph (1998) refer to interactional justice as the interpersonal side of decision making, specifically to the fairness of decision maker's behavior in the process of decision making. Arguing that the interactional factors play an important role in affecting employees' perceptions of fairness and

acceptance of decisions, they state that the *proper treatment* is identified by (a) being truthful in communication and (b) treating people with courtesy or showing respect, and the *proper enactment of procedures* by (a) adequate consideration of the employee's input, (b) suppression of personal biases, (c) consistent application of decision-making criteria, (d) timely feedback, and (e) justification of the decision.

However, interactional justice was further divided into two separate dimensions: *interpersonal justice* and *informational justice* (Greenberg, 1993). The former is defined as the respectful, polite, and dignified treatment of people by decision-makers. The latter reflects the quality (in terms of accuracy, reasonability and on-time mentioning) and quantity (in terms of adequacy) of information provided to employees in decision-making processes (Colquitt, 2001). It is, maybe, worth mentioning that there are still debates among researchers on whether interactional justice is a separate construct or a component of procedural justice (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg and Colquitt, 2005). Nevertheless, for the purposes of this study interactional justice was regarded as a third dimension of organizational fairness while being divided into *interpersonal justice* and *informational justice*. And, a fairness scale was developed based on these conceptualizations that includes four dimensions of (a) *distributive justice* (referring to allocation of outcomes such as rewards, benefits, and promotion), (b) *procedural justice* (concerning with the decision-making procedures which determine the outcomes), (c) *interpersonal justice* (referring to the treatment manners of authorities with employees), and (d) *informational justice* (dealing with the fairness of the communication of the decisions and procedures behind the allocation of outcomes).

Moreover, in the development of the scale we focused on fairness both within an organization among members, called *internal fairness*, and between the organizations, called *external fairness*, (external fairness was considered only in the development of distributive and interpersonal dimensions) because Maslach and Leiter (1997) argue that unfairness is most obvious during the evaluation and promotion processes within an organization, and when the benefits and rewards employees receive differ much between organizations.

Finally, three criteria of *rewards*, *benefits*, and *promotion* were applied in the development of *distributive subscale*. And, six criteria of *accuracy*, *consistency*, *ethicality*, *correction*, *bias suppression*, and *representativeness* suggested by Leventhal et al. (1980) were used in development of *procedural subscale*. To this end, *process control/voice effect* and *decision control* criteria of Thibaut and Walker's (1975) were also employed to reflect the amount of group voice in procedures and decisions behind the allocation of the outcomes from the point of view of an individual (this subscale was examined only within the organization). Likewise, three criteria of *respect*, *truthfulness*, and *consistency* were used to develop the *interpersonal subscale* at internal and external levels while bearing on the group-value model of fairness in an organization. At last, the four criteria of *accuracy*, *reasonability*, *timely feedback*, and *adequacy* measuring the quality and quantity of informational justice among the EFL teachers were employed in the construction of *informational subscale*.

2.5.4.4. Fringe benefits

Fringe benefits (also called employee benefits) are various non-wage compensations provided to employees in addition to their normal wages or salaries. Realizing that fringe benefits are nearly as important as base salary for the well-being of any organization and its employees, most organizations define and offer them very differently, that is, there is no any standard for their allocation among organizations of a country (even between countries). In fact, the purpose of offering fringe benefits mainly is to provide incentive for the employees, increase the economic security of them, award employees who are doing notably well or having seniority, give first chance for an individual for job promotion, attract employees to fields where there is a high demand such as teaching, keep quality of employees, etc. (Stanford, 2008; Malveaux, 2010).

Fringe benefits are variously categorized such as *standard benefits* (referring to those benefits that are normally allocated to every member, e.g., paid vacation time), *short-term employee benefits* (referring to those benefits that fall within a specific period, usually twelve months), *long-term benefits* (referring to those benefits that do not fall within a specific period, e.g., long-life insurance), *post-employment benefits* (denoting those benefits that are payable after the completion of employment based on formal or

informal arrangements), and *termination benefits* (referring to those employee benefits that are payable as a result of either: (a) an organization's decision to terminate an employee's employment before the normal retirement date or (b) an employee's decision to accept voluntary redundancy in exchange for those benefits or voluntary retirement). Some examples of fringe benefits without considering the categories are: insurance on the employee and/or family members, discounted or free health club memberships, disability income protection, retirement benefits, sick leave, vacation (paid and non-paid), housing, paid continuing education, tuition reimbursement, loans, use of a company credit card, social security, take-home vehicles, and other specialized benefits (The Institute of Chartered Accountants, 2005).

As it is clear, there are various procedures and processes for allocating fringe benefits, and it is beyond the scope of the study to examine all of them. Alternatively, it seems logical to limit them to those fringe benefits that most teachers usually get irrespective of their especial characteristics. For instance, health insurance is a typical example of such benefits that are offered to all employees. Hence, to overcome the complexity in this regard we are going to measure fringe benefits wholly, that is, the items of fringe-benefit scale are going to be worded so that to measure fringe benefits collectively without taking into account their types.

2.6. TEACHER BURNOUT STUDIES IN IRAN AND TURKEY

Burnout studies in Iran have mainly been studied among physicians, nurses, and healthcare service providers, and now there are considerable burnout studies in the field in literature. The construct has also been studied among the employees of different organizations such as workers, coaches, bank clerks, librarians, managers, etc., but the studies dealing with burnout in these fields are not adequate. Likewise, burnout has been studied among elementary and secondary teachers; however, the literature in this regard is also not satisfactory. After a long search on Internet, we came across the following burnout studies among Iranian secondary EFL teachers:

a. Zamani Rad and Rohany (2010) examined the relationship between burnout and career self-concept among 150 Iranian prospective EFL teachers and found that there

was a significant relationship between burnout and career self-concept based on gender variable. Furthermore, the results showed that there was a negative correlation between career self-concept and burnout.

b. Vaezi and Fallah (2011) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and burnout among 104 Iranian EFL teachers. The results showed that there were significant negative correlations between EI and burnout and between teaching experience and age. Moreover, no significant differences were observed between EI and burnout with respect to gender variable.

c. Pishghadam (2012) investigated the relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and burnout among 147 Iranian teachers. The results revealed a significant relationship between personality types and emotional intelligence and the three dimensions of burnout. It was also shown that the best predictors for EE were neuroticism and extroversion, for DP were intrapersonal scale of emotional intelligence and agreeableness, and for PA were interpersonal scale and conscientiousness.

d. Moreover, Eghtesadi (2011), in a study on the relationship between self-efficacy and burnout among ELT teachers, found a strong negative relationship between self-efficacy and PA component of burnout.

e. Finally, Akbari and Tavassoli (2011) examined teacher efficacy, burnout, teaching style, and emotional intelligence among 264 Iranian English language teachers while taking into account their gender, degree, and teaching experience. The findings showed significant moderate correlations among some of the components of teacher efficacy, burnout, teaching style, and emotional intelligence, as well as, significant differences were observed among some components of these variables with respect to teachers' gender, degree, and experience.

Burnout studies in Turkey, according to Kaya (2008), started in early 1990s by Ergin (1992) who studied the reliability and validity of Maslach's Burnout Inventory (MBI) among physicians and nurses. Tumkaya (1996) also reported that there were only four teacher burnout studies in Turkey in 1996. One of which was Girgin's (1995) study,

who examined the causes of teacher burnout among 401 elementary teachers. Now, there are enough teacher burnout studies among Turkish teachers in the literature that mentioning all or most of them is beyond the scope of the study. Therefore, we limited this, like in the case of Iranian studies, to a few studies done among secondary EFL teachers. They were itemized as:

a. One of the world-wide known studies of teacher burnout in Turkey was conducted by Sunbul (2003) among 297 high school teachers. Where, the relationship between locus of control, job satisfaction, and the demographic characteristics of age and gender were examined in burnout processes. To this end, he used Hackman and Oldham's 1974 Job Satisfaction Survey to measure the teachers' job satisfaction level, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (1996) to measure teachers' levels of burnout, and Rotter's 1966 Internal-External Locus of Control Scale to determine the extent to which teachers had an external or internal locus of control. The results of his study showed that female teachers had higher levels of DP and EE burnout than male teachers, and age variable had a predictive effect on PA: the older the teacher, the higher the personal accomplishment.

b. Another teacher burnout study in secondary context of Turkey was done by Baysal (1995) who examined burnout impacting factors among 550 high school EFL teachers. The results indicated that EE scores of female teachers were higher than that of male teachers, younger teachers had higher EE and DP scores than older teachers, and teachers who were fewer years in the profession had higher EE and DP scores. In addition, teachers who had 50 or more students in their classrooms had higher burnout scores than teachers who had 25 to 30 students in their classrooms.

c. Tumkaya (1996) also examined the burnout symptoms of Turkish elementary and high school teachers and their methods to deal with these symptoms. The results of the study indicated that female teachers were more content about administrative support than male teachers and consequently had more job satisfaction regarding the support they received. However, female teachers demonstrated more negative stress reactions than males. The results also showed that older teachers had a lesser burnout rate than younger teachers. Experienced teachers had more positive attitudes toward students and

they had a higher rate of job satisfaction. However, teachers with higher educational background had higher burnout perception than others. Elementary teachers were the most burned-out group in terms of the support they received from the administration, and high school teachers were the most burned-out group in terms of attitudes toward students.

d. Moreover, Demir (1997) studied the job burnout among Turkish teachers and principals in secondary schools. The results demonstrated that the most stressful factor related to job burnout for teachers and principals was the inadequate salary. The second most stressful factor was the long working hours which was followed by the heavy work load for both teachers and principals. Other stress factors related to job satisfaction were a very noisy and crowded work environment, lack of opportunities for promotions, and role ambiguity. The stress factors related to authorities were unfair personal evaluations, insufficient power, implicit legislations, lack of clarification in job description, and lack of support from the administrative personnel. The stress factors related to production structure were reported as not getting compensation for the work, the lack of materials and resources in the workplace, not being able to use the skills in the job, and the lack of time. The result also showed the stress factors affected negatively the job performance of the teachers and the principals because both groups reported that they lost their enthusiasm to go to work, the quality of their work decreased, they did not feel skillful enough for the work, they took off work frequently because of health reasons or other excuses, and they often considered quitting teaching. Finally, the stress caused them to make mistakes on their work, and they realized that they were more aggressive towards their colleagues with whom they did not want to collaborate.

e. Dursun (2000) examined teacher burnout among 300 high school teachers in relation to factors such as environment conditions, gender, education, and the number of years on the job. The results indicated that gender and education level did not have any significant effect on burnout processes, while the number of years on the job had a positive impact on burnout. The results also demonstrated that teachers' perceptions about the work environment conditions such as failing to solve problems in the classroom and pessimism about future in the work place increased their burnout rates. Studies of Dursun (2000) also revealed that female teachers had a higher burnout rate

than male teachers in relation to their attitudes toward students, teachers who had a higher education degree had a higher burnout rate than others, and teachers with less experience in the profession had higher burnout rates than teachers with more experience.

f. Finally, Dolunay (2001) examined the burnout level of teachers in regular high schools and technical vocational high schools. The results indicated that gender, degree, major of teachers, school types, the years in the same school did not have significant relationship with teachers' burnout levels; whereas, the years on the job had positive relationships with overall burnout and PA burnout, that is, the more experienced teachers felt less burnout and more PA. In addition, older teachers perceived lower EE and DP burnout. Furthermore, teachers who chose the profession willingly, who found the profession appropriate for themselves, who perceived their future positively, who were content with their work environment, and who were recognized by the administrators had lower burnout scores than their counterparts. The results also showed that high salary perceptions correlated positively with PA, and 'oversized classes' increased DP burnout. Eventually, teachers perceiving teaching did not deserve enough value any more had higher burnout scores, and teachers who wanted to continue teaching in the future had lower burnout scores than teachers who were planning to leave the profession.

2.7. CONCLUSION

This chapter provided background information on burnout and its sources. Fredenberger (1974) employed the term burnout to describe emotions of depletion and loss of motivation and commitment among workers (Soderfelt and Soderfelt, 1995). Later, Maslach (1976) developed the concept and popularized it in social sciences. She proposed the most widely accepted conceptualization of burnout that composed of three dimensions: *emotional exhaustion*, *depersonalization*, and *reduced personal accomplishment* (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). And, her proposed scale, Maslach Burnout Inventory, is the most scientifically validated instrument for measuring burnout. Burnout concept often confused with stress, depression, anxiety, alienation, strain, etc., but it has been distinguished from these concepts through its specific

characteristics. It is generally perceived that burnout develop over time through many different causes; in fact, anything to which our stress mechanisms respond inappropriately can be a burnout source (Friesen, Prokop, and Sarros, 1988). There are various developmental models of burnout trying to describe its growth, but none of them have so far been successful. However, the concept has mainly been being studied from five perspectives: *individual (or clinical)*, *social-psychological*, *psychodynamic existential*, *organizational*, and *social-historical* perspectives. Finally, three categories of burnout sources in the context of teachers have been involved in the study: *individual* sources (referring to characteristics that are unique to each individual in an organization), *school-level* sources (referring conditions that are unique to each school), and *administrational* sources (referring to conditions that are imposed on individuals and schools by the system).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research design and methodology of the study. It describes how the research was designed, who the population of the study were, how sampling was done, which instruments were employed in data collection, what data collection procedures were followed, what statistical procedures were used in analyzing the data, and how ethical considerations were met in collecting data.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design employed in the study was a descriptive mixed-method correlational comparative research design. It was a descriptive research in a sense that descriptive statistics were used to compute the summative burnout levels of the participants. Moreover, the characteristics of the participants were just described without offering any treatment to them, which is the characteristic of an experimental design. Additionally, in descriptive research data are usually gathered without any manipulation of the research context and through following observation or survey procedures (Gay, Mills and Airasian, 2005). The survey procedures were followed, and survey instruments (i.e., questionnaires and interview) were used in collecting data for the quantitative and qualitative parts to capitalize on the strengths of each approach and offset their different weaknesses. Thus, the research design of the study could be considered as a mixed-method research, which combined quantitative and qualitative methods.

The study was a correlational research in a sense that it tried to examine possible relationships between EE, DP, and PA burnout subscales and the individual, school-level, and administrational factors through regression statistics. According to Creswell (2005), scholars use the correlation statistical designs “to describe and measure the degree of association (or relationship) between two or more variables or sets of scores”

(p. 323). Two primary correlational research designs are *the explanatory design* and *the prediction design*. The explanatory design tries to determine to what extent two (or more) variables co-vary while the prediction research design identifies variables that positively predict an outcome or criterion (Cresswell, 2005). In this study, the prediction design was used to determine the predictive role of the individual, school-level, and administrational factors in EE, DP, and PA burnout processes. Finally, the research design could be identified as a comparative one because the groups (such as Iranian/ Turkish, male/female) were compared to see whether there are any potential significant or insignificant relationships between them.

3.3. POPULATION AND SAMPLING

The study aimed at examining cross-culturally burnout processes of secondary EFL teachers of Iran and Turkey; therefore, every teacher teaching English as a foreign language in the state high schools of these countries during the school year of 2011-2012 was a potential participant in the study. Collectively there were 124 high schools (Iranian N= 68 and Turkish N=53) in which approximately 677 teachers had been employed. The sample was selected from this population by randomly distributing nearly 583 anonymous questionnaires through the school administrators (i.e., managers or principals) for the quantitative part. The subjects who received the questionnaire had approximately 10 days to answer the questions, and they were free whether to participant in the study or not. On the whole, 427 questionnaires were returned, of which 386 questionnaires (Iranian N=230 and Turkish N=156) were included in the study while 41 ones were excluded because they had not been completed thoroughly. Sampling for the qualitative part was also done, when teachers who were present in the school during my visit showed satisfaction for the interview. There were 7 males and 3 females from Iran and 4 males and 6 females from Turkey.

3.4. DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

Three types of questionnaires were used for collecting data for the quantitative part of the study: (A) a socio-demographic tool, (B) the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES), and (C) three job-attitude tools (See Appendixes B, C, D, E, and F).

Moreover, a questioning tool based on semi-structure interview method was prepared for the qualitative part (See Appendix G).

(A) The aim of the socio-demographic instrument was to get the demographic information of the subjects in seven areas including nationality, gender, age, marital status, academic level, years of teaching experience, and employment status (See Appendix B).

(B) The MBI-ES was employed to measure self-perceived burnout levels of Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers in three dimensions of EE, DP and PA. It includes 22 items (EE = 9 items, DP = 5 items and PA = 8 items) asking the respondents how often they experience burnout-relating feelings through a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 0-6 (where 0 = never and 6 = every day). The EE subscale assesses the feelings of being emotionally exhausted or overextended (e.g., "I feel used up at the end of the workday"). The DP subscale evaluates the feelings of impersonal response toward people (e.g., "I feel I treat some students as if they were impersonal objects"). The PA subscale measures the feelings of successful achievement (e.g., "I feel very energetic"). High internal consistency (EE = 0.90; DP = 0.79; PA = 0.71) and test-retest reliability (EE = 0.82; DP = 0.60; PA = 0.80) were reported for the subscales (Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) (See Appendix C).

(C) Additionally, three questionnaires were employed to collect data regarding the participants' attitudes about individual, school-level, and administrational sources of job-burnout. All of the items of these macro levels used a six-point Likert scale ranging from 'disagree very much' (= 1) to 'agree very much' (= 6) (See Appendixes D, E, and F). To get rid of complexity and confusion, each of the macro instruments used for measuring the participants' attitudes on (a) individual, (b) school-level and (c) administrational sources of burnout were described separately.

a. Instruments for individual sources of burnout

Four instruments consisting of 56 items were used to measure the participants' attitudes on individual sources of burnout in the areas of (1) *Professional Self-esteem* (16 items),

(2) *Teacher Self-efficacy* (14 items), (3) *Value Incongruence* (7 items) and (4) *Competence Self-evaluation* (19 items) (See Appendix D). A brief description of each is as follows:

1. **Professional Self-esteem**: Employing Arthur's (1992) self-concept constructs of *satisfaction, professional practice, knowledge* and *communication* and Aricak and Dilmac's (2003) concept of *professional adaptation* for self-esteem measurement, a Professional Self-esteem Scale (16 items) was developed to measure the participants' self-esteem perceptions in five dimensions of (a) s*atisfaction* (referring to the importance and value one assigns to his/her profession) = 2 items (e.g., "I'm pretty happy with my job"), (b) *knowledge development* (referring to one's desire to embrace and learn new things necessary in his/her job) = 4 items (e.g., "I am enthusiastic to learn new skills necessary to my work"), (c) *practice* (referring to a sense of preparing for the work and performing a qualified work) = 4 items (e.g., "I am a teacher who prepares very well for the work I do"), (d) *adaptation* (referring to one's desire to embrace new work conditions to overcome challenges and problems in his/her work) = 4 items (e.g., "I can make up my mind without too much trouble for changes in my work"), and (e) *communication* (referring to one's desire to impart and share his/her knowledge, information, and work experience to and with others) = 2 items (e.g., "I am able and eager to impart what I know to others"). The internal consistency reliability of the 16-item scale was r = 0.821, indicating a very high reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

2. **Teacher Self-efficacy**: An adapted shortened version (14 items) of the Norwegian Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (NTSES) developed by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) was used to measure teacher self-efficacy perceptions of Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers in the six dimensions of (a) *instruction* (a sense of ability to provide instruction so that maximum goals of the program to be achieved) = 1 item (e.g., "I am convinced that I am able to provide good guidance and instruction to all students regardless of their level of ability"), (b) *adapting education to individual students' needs* (a sense of ability to provide individualized instruction) = 2 items (e.g., "I know I can adapt instruction and assignments to individual needs and organize

classroom work accordingly"), (c) *motivating students* (a sense of ability to engage students in teaching/learning activities) = 3 items (e.g., "I am convinced that I am able to get students to do their best even when working with difficult problems"), (4) *keeping discipline* (a sense of ability to deal with students' discipline problems) = 3 items (e.g., "I am convinced that I am not able to maintain discipline in any class"), (5) *cooperating with colleagues and parents* (a sense of desire to cooperate with others to solve problems) = 2 items (e.g., "I feel I am not able to cooperate well with most parents"), and (6) *coping with changes* (a sense of desire to adapt oneself to methodological and situational changes) = 3 items (e.g., "I am convinced that I am able to manage instruction regardless of how it is organized"). The internal consistency reliability coefficient of the 14-item questionnaire determined by the Cronbach's alpha value was r = 0.837, indicating a very high reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

3. **Value Incongruence**: A self-developed Value Incongruence Scale (7 items) was used to measure the participants' incongruence perceptions in three dimensions of (a) *value conflict* (referring to value sharing between the teachers and the administration to which they belong) = 4 items (e.g., "I feel there is gap between my personal values and the values of my work administration"), (b) *value change* (referring to administrational value change during the time) = 1 item (e.g., "I am less interested in my job now than before because of value changing in my administration"), (c) *goal meeting* (referring to an organization's effort to meet its mission statements) = 2 items (e.g., "I sometimes feel my administration cannot meet its goals any more"). The internal consistency reliability of the 7-item scale was r = 0.681, indicating a moderate reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

4. **Competence Self-evaluation**: A self-developed Competence Self-evaluation Scale (19 items) was used to measure the participants' competence perceptions in two macro dimensions of (a) *language knowledge* (referring to various competences such as linguistic competence, communicative competence and cultural competence) = 6 items (e.g., "I feel my receptive skills (listening and reading) are adequate for my work") and (b) *professional competence* (referring to teaching

abilities of teachers to provide effective instruction by employing various methods, strategies, skills, and techniques, their student assessment capabilities and their effective use of educational technologies) = 13 items (e.g., "I know enough how to teach high school students in general"). The internal consistency reliability of the 19-item scale was r = 0.898, indicating a very high reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

b. Instruments for school-level sources of burnout

Six instruments consisting of 36 items were used to measure the participants' attitudes on school-level sources of burnout in the areas of (1) *Work Overload,* (2) *Student Misbehavior*, (3) *Oversized Classes*, (4) *Mixed-ability Classes*, (5) *Teaching Materials* and (6) *Social Support* (See Appendix E). A brief description of each is as follows:

1. **Work Overload**: A self-developed Work Overload Scale (4 items) was used to measure the participants' beliefs on the allocated time to fulfill a task and the amount of work itself. It includes two dimensions of (a) *time pressure* (referring to the inabilities of teachers to complete a task because of not having enough time) = 2 items (e.g., "I feel the requirements of the EFL program need a lot of time") and (b) *amount of work* (referring to the amount of work to be done) = 2 items (e.g., "There is too much work to do in the classroom"). The internal consistency reliability of the 4-item scale was r = 0.626, indicating a moderate reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

2. **Student Misbehavior**: A Student Misbehavior Scale (8 items) was developed based on Blasé's (1986) conceptualization of student misbehavior to measure the participants' beliefs about student discipline problems. It includes three dimensions of (a) *student discipline* (referring to student problems such as verbal abuse, fighting, screaming, vandalizing school property, cheating, teasing, violent outbursts, drug use, etc.) = 2 items (e.g., "It is difficult to present lessons as planned because of students' discipline problems"), (b) *student apathy* (referring to students' negative attitudes toward work and school) = 2 items (e.g., "My students have positive attitudes towards learning English"), and (c) *low student achievement*

(referring to students' failure to achieve teacher-defined learning outcomes) = 4 items (e.g., "My students fail to do in-class assignments"). The internal consistency reliability of the 8-item scale was r = 0.753, indicating an acceptable reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

3. **Oversized Classes**: A self-developed mono-dimensional Oversized Classes Scale (2 items) was used to measure the participants' beliefs about the interference of the class-size factor in their classroom activities. An item sample is: "My classes are over-populated, so I cannot do the teaching activities properly". The internal consistency reliability of the 2-item scale was r = 0.528, indicating a small reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

4. **Mixed-ability Classes**: A self-developed mono-dimensional Mixed-ability Classes Scale (2 items) was used to measure the participants' beliefs about the role of class composition in their activities. An item sample is: "I lose my energy and time in dealing with mixed-ability students". The internal consistency reliability of the 2-item scale was r = 0.873, indicating a very high reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

5. **Teaching Materials**: A self-developed Teaching Materials Scale (8 items) was used to measure the participants' beliefs about the suitability and practicality of the present high-school textbooks and availability of other teaching materials. It includes two dimensions of (a) *suitability of the textbooks* (referring to the suitability and practicality of the present high-school textbooks in Iran and Turkey) = 5 items (e.g., "I know the high school textbooks are appropriate for teaching and learning purposes") and (b) *availability of other materials* (referring to the availability of additional teaching materials for better presentation of the lessons) = 3 items (e.g., "there are not supplementary teaching materials that I can benefit for better presentation of the lessons"). The internal consistency reliability of the 8-item scale was r = 0.757, indicating a very high reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

6. **Social Support**: An adapted shortened version (12 items) of *The Social Provisions Scale* Developed by Russell and Cutrona (1984) based on the theoretical model of Weiss (1974) was used to measure teacher self-efficacy perceptions of Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers in the six dimensions of (a) *guidance* (having access to advice and information to handle problems) = 2 items (e.g., "There is someone I could talk to about important decisions in my job"), (b) *reliable alliance* (perceiving that others can be counted upon for tangible assistance) = 2 items (e.g., "There are colleagues and administrators I can depend on if I really need"), (c) *reassurance of worth* (referring to recognition of one's competence, skills, and value by others) = 1 item (e.g., "I think my colleagues and administrators respect my skills and abilities"), (d) *social integration* (referring to a sense of belonging to a group that shares similar interests, concerns, and recreational activities) = 2 items (e.g., "There are colleagues and administrators who enjoy the same social activities I do"), (e) *attachment* (referring to a sense of emotional closeness from which one derives a sense of security) = 3 items (e.g., "I do not feel a strong emotional bond with at least one other colleague"), and (f) *opportunity for nurturance* (referring to the sense that others can rely upon one for their well-being) = 2 items (e.g., "There are colleagues and administrators who depend on me for help"). The internal consistency reliability of the 12-item questionnaire was r = 0.768, indicating a very high reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

c. Instruments for administrational sources of burnout

Four instruments consisting of 41 items were used to measure the participants' attitudes on administrational sources of burnout in the areas of (1) *Teacher Autonomy*, (2) *Reward Adequacy*, (3) *Fairness*, and (4) *Fringe Benefits* (See Appendix F). A brief description of each is as follows:

1. **Teacher Autonomy**: Benefiting from the teacher autonomy model of LaCoe (2008), a Teacher Autonomy Scale (11 items) was developed to measure the participants' autonomy perceptions in four dimensions of (a) *pedagogy* (referring to teachers' perception of ability and freedom to choose appropriate teaching methods, strategies and content to meet student needs) = 2 items (e.g., "I am free to choose

appropriate teaching methods and strategies to meet student needs"), (b) *curriculum evaluation* (referring to teachers' evaluation of the established curriculum) = 2 items (e.g., "My performance at work is limited by the established curriculum"), (c) d*ecision making* (referring to a sense of being involved in decision making processes) = 4 items (e.g., "I feel I have no influence over instructional decisions made by my administration"), and (d) *problem solving* (referring to teachers' perception of freedom to use their personal initiative in solving work problems) = 3 items (e.g., "I feel I have control over how to solve my work problems"). The internal consistency reliability of the 11-item scale was r = 0.762, indicating a very high reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

2. **Reward Adequacy**: A self-developed Reward Adequacy Scale (5 items) was used to measure the participants' perceptions about the adequacy of two extrinsic rewards (one material and the other social) in their administration. It includes two dimensions of (a) *salary* (referring to teachers' satisfaction of their pay for the work they do) = 2 items (e.g., "Though my salary is low, I am not complaining about") and (b) *valuation* (referring to teachers' expectation of value from their administration for their effort and work) = 3 items (e.g., "In considering my efforts, I feel my administration does not treat me properly"). The internal consistency reliability of the 5-item scale was r = 0.610, indicating a moderate reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

3. **Fairness**: After reviewing the fairness literature, a Fairness Scale (23 items) was developed based on our understanding to measure the participants' fairness perceptions within their own organization among members and between their organization and other organizations in the four dimensions of (a) *distributive justice* (referring to allocation of outcomes such as rewards, benefits, and promotion)= 6 items (e.g., "I believe there is really equal chance for rewards-esp. salary- in my administration"), (b) *procedural justice* (concerning with the decision-making procedures which determine the outcomes) = 8 items (e.g., "I feel the procedures of my administration are free from bias"), (c) *interpersonal justice* (referring to the treatment manners of authorities with employees) = 5 items (e.g., "I

feel we are not respected as fairly here as employees are in other administrations"), and (d) *informational justice* (dealing with the fairness of the communication of the decisions and procedures behind the allocation of outcomes) = 4 items (e.g., "I feel the authority explains the decisions behind the outcomes accurately"). The internal consistency reliability of the 23-item scale was r = 0.931, indicating a very high reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

4. **Fringe Benefits**: A self-developed mono-dimensional Fringe Benefits Scale (2 items) was used to measure the participants' beliefs about the adequacy of fringe benefits in their administration. An item sample is: "On the whole I am satisfied with the benefits offered by my administration". The internal consistency reliability of the 2-item scale was r = 0.469, indicating a small reliability index for the measure. See Table 3.1.

3.5. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE TOOLS

According to Zalaquett and Wood (1997), the validity and reliability of the MBI-ES had been established by many researchers. One substantial study in this regard was done by Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) with 469 Massachusetts teachers and the other by Gold (1984) with 462 California teachers (See parts 2.4.1 and 3.4). In regard to reliability, Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) report Cronbach alpha estimates of r=.90 for EE, r=.76 for DP, and r=.76 for PA, whereas Gold (1984) reports estimates of r=.88, r=.74, and r=.72 for these burnout subscales, respectively (Zalaquett and Wood, 1997). However, the reliability of the three dimensions of burnout was checked in the study: Cronbach's Alpha for EE (r= 0.882), DP (r= 0.722), and PA (r= 0.745). See Table 3.1.

The validity of the adapted and self-developed scales for the individual, school-level and administrational sources of burnout was achieved through verification of the scales by the educational jury at English department of Hacettepe university and through a pilot study with at least 50 Iranian EFL teachers, and the reliability of the scales has also been established in the pilot study and during the analyses for the study itself. The observed reliability indexes of most measures were acceptable. See Table 3.1.

Table 3.1.

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for the Scales

Scales		Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	N
1. Burnout Tools	EE	0.882	9	386
	DP	0.722	5	386
	PA	0.745	8	386
2. Individual Tools	Professional Self-esteem	0.821	16	386
	Teacher Self-efficacy	0.837	14	386
	Value Incongruence	0.681	7	386
	Competence Self-evaluation	0.898	19	386
3. School-level Tools	Work Overload	0.626	4	386
	Student Misbehavior	0.753	8	386
	Oversized Classes	0.528	2	386
	Mixed-ability Classes	0.873	2	386
	Teaching Materials	0.756	8	386
	Social Support	0.768	12	386
4. Administrational Tools	Teacher Autonomy	0.762	11	386
	Reward Adequacy	0.610	5	386
	Fairness	0.931	23	386
	Fringe Benefits	0.469	2	386

3.6. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

Prior to data collection, approval was obtained from the Educational Ministries of Iran and Turkey. Data collection started in October 2011 and was completed in February 2012. Data collection for quantitative part was done through paper-based (N=339) and Internet-based (N= 47) questionnaires. The Iranian data for quantitative part were collected from North West provinces of East Azerbaijan, West Azerbaijan, Erdebil, Zenjan, Kazvin, and Tehran, whereas, the Turkish data were mainly collected from four urban regions of Ankara city (i.e., Mamak, Çankaya, Altındağ, and Balgat) as well as some data were collected through Internet from Istanbul, Izmir, Konya cities of Turkey. While for the qualitative part, Iranian data were collected from Tabriz and Turkish data were collected from Ankara.

The collected data for the quantitative part were entered into the SPSS version 17.0 for Windows for further analysis. The demographic variables (i.e., nationality, gender, age, marital status, academic level, years of teaching experience, and employment status) and job-related factors (i.e., individual, school-level, and administrational factors) were the independent variables and the three burnout levels (i.e., EE, DP, and PA) were the dependent variables of the study. Descriptive statistics such as frequency and percentage were employed to explain the participants' perceived burnout levels of EE, DP and PA, while inferential statistics such as mean, t-test, One-way ANOVA, Two-way ANOVA and multiple regression were used for determining and explaining relationships among variables, burnout subscales, and factors. And, missing values of each variable were replaced by its mean score.

In computing the participants' burnout perceptions in the subscales of EE, DP and PA, the values of the related items of each subscale were summed in order to be compared with the proposed categories of Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996). According to Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996), score categories for the three burnout subscales are: scores for Emotional Exhaustion (EE), ranging from 0-54, are considered low within the range of 0-16, moderate within the range of 17-26, and high if they are 27 and over (EE► low = 0-16, moderate = 17-26, high = 27 and over); scores for Depersonalization (DP), ranging from 0-30, are considered low within the range of 0-6, moderate within the range of 7-12, and high if they are 13 and over (DP► low = 0-6, moderate =7-12, high =13 and over), and scores for Personal Accomplishment (PA), ranging from 0-48, are considered high within the range of 0-31, moderate within the range of 32-38, and low if they are 39 and over (PA► low = 39 and over, moderate = 32-38, high = 0-31). In addition, high scores for EE and DP along with low scores for PA indicate greater feelings of burnout. To calculate a summative score of burnout scale, the scores of PA subscale must be reversed. See Table 3.2.

Maslach et al. (1996) did not propose any cut-off points for overall burnout perceptions. They have just suggested that scores are considered high if they are in the upper third of the normative distribution, moderate if they are in the middle third and low if they are in lower third. They have also emphasized that the three dimensions of burnout should be considered independent, that is, the scores of each subscale should not be combined into

a single score. However, to report the overall burnout perceptions of the participants, the scores of PA subscale were reversed and a summative score of burnout for each participant was obtained. Scores were considered 'high' if they were within the 25% of high scores of the total range (0-132), 'moderate' if they were within the 50% of middle scores of the total range, and 'low' if they were within 25% of low scores of the total range. See Table 3.2.

Table 3.2.

Score Categories of Burnout Subscales

Subscales	Range	Low	Moderate	High
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0-54	0 – 16	17 – 26	27 and over
Depersonalization (DP)	0-30	0 – 6	7 – 12	13 and over
Personal Accomplishment (PA)*	0-48	39 and over	32 – 38	0 - 31
Overall Burnout**	0-132 (100%)	0-32 (25%)	33-87 (50%)	88 and over (25%)

*The scores of this subscale were reversed.
** The cut-off points belong to the researcher.
Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996)

Moreover, data for the qualitative part were collected through the semi-structure interview methodology. In fact, the participants were provided with a brief explanation of the research subject and what it was meant by personal, school-level, and administrational factors. Later, they are asked to name factors for each domain that satisfy or dissatisfy them with their job, and they are sometimes asked for reasons and helped through guided questions to elicit the appropriate answers. Their replies were written up for analysis. The notes of Iranian and Turkish participants were examined carefully and categorized based on the framework of the quantitative part, that is, when participants replies were matched with any question of the individual, school-level, and administrational factors, only one mark was assigned for that factor. For example, when a participant answered that "I'm not happy with my job" (satisfaction dimension of professional self-esteem) and "I worry about changes in my job" (adaptation dimension of professional self-esteem), only one mark was assigned for Professional Self-esteem as an individual factor. Finally, those replies which were outside this framework were recognized for further study.

3.7. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Research procedures adequately safeguarded the privacy and rights of the subjects and schools because the questionnaires were reviewed by officials of Iranian and Turkish Educational Ministries, and official decrees were issued for protecting the rights (See appendix H). All participants were assured that each person's responses were confidential, that is, no individual (or his/her school) was to be identified in the results of the dissertation or any publication based on this research, only group data were to be reported. The participants received explanations whenever they asked for the necessary information. Finally, they were assured that there were no known or anticipated risks because of participation in this study and that participation was strictly voluntary.

3.8. CONCLUSION

This was a descriptive mixed-method correlational comparative study and its participants were 386 Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers in the state high schools during the school year of 2011-2012. Sampling was randomly done by distributing anonymous questionnaires. The five questionnaires used for collecting data were: (a) a socio-demographic tool, (b) Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI- ES), (c) an individual factor tools, (d) a school-level factors tool, and (e) an administrational factor tool. The validity and reliability of the MBI-ES had been established through many studies, but the validity of the adapted and self-developed scales for the individual, school-level and administrational sources of burnout was achieved through verification of the scales by the educational jury at English department of Hacettepe university and through a pilot study, and the reliability of the scales has been established in the polite study and during the analyses for the study itself. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the statistical findings of the study. First, descriptive statistics of socio-demographic characteristics of the participants were provided to give a brief summary of the sample. Second, the results of exploratory statistics for the participants' perceived levels of job burnout were illustrated (research question one). Third, the findings for relationship between EE, DP and PA subscales and the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants were demonstrated (research question two). Fourth, the analyses of the predictors of EE, DP and PA burnout processes were shown (research question three). Fifth, the interaction effects between socio-demographic variables of the participants and individual, school-level, and administrational factors on EE, DP, PA subscales were presented (research question four). Finally, the results of exploratory statistics for the qualitative data were offered (research question five).

4.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS

This section of the chapter provides the summarized results of the participants' demographic characteristics (See Table 4.1). Each participant completed a demographic data sheet asking information in these areas: (a) nationality, (b) gender, (c) age, (d) marital status, (e) academic level, (f) years of teaching experience, and (g) employment status. A very brief description of each was offered as:

a. *Nationality*: the total number of Iranian and Turkish teachers in the study was 386, of which 230 were Iranian teachers (59.6 %) and 156 were Turkish ones (40.4 %).

b. *Gender*: there were 176 males (45.6 %) and 210 females (54.4 %) teachers in the study. As shown in Table 4.1, the sample based on gender variable indicated that high schools were dominated by male teachers in Iran (N = 140, 60.9 %), while they were dominated by females in Turkey (N = 120, 76.9 %). This can be attributed to

mono-sex education in Iranian high schools in which female teachers are not allowed to teach at male high schools and single male teachers at female ones at all, even teaching of married male teachers at female high schools are restricted. Whereas, the dominance of EFL female teachers in Turkish high schools can be attributed to course nature, not to educational system, that is, Turkish high schools are mixed-sex and there is no the question of male and female teachers, but it can be argued that teaching of English language as a profession is not favored by males in Turkey.

c. *Age*: the frequencies and percentages of age groups revealed that a large proportion of both Iranian and Turkish participants was within the '36 to 40' age group (F = 116; 30.1 %), and a small proportion was within the '25 and below' (F = 14; 3.6 %). It was also found that the two countries were comparable in age variable: the largest age group for Iranian participants was '36 to 40' (35.7 %), while for Turkish ones was '41 to 45' (25.6 %). So, it can be inferred that the Iranian teaching staff are younger than the Turkish one.

d. *Marital status*: with respect to marital status, the results revealed that of the total number (N = 386) of the participants 62 were single (16.1 %) (Meaning unmarried and widowed in the study), 304 were married (78.8 %), and 20 were divorced (5.2 %). The frequency and percentage scores for marital status also showed that the proportion of 'married' groups of Iranian and Turkish participants were greater than that of the 'single' ones, in turn, they were greater than that of the 'divorced' groups.

e. *Academic level*: the results showed that there were 249 B.A. holders (64.5 %), 128 M.A. holders (33.2 %), 4 Ph.D. holders (1 %), and 5 'other' degree holders (1.3 %) in total. The majority of the participants were B.A. holders in Iran and Turkey, that is, high schools were dominated by B.A holder teachers in both countries. There were 4 Ph.D. (2.6 %) and 5 'other' (3.2 %) degree holders among Turkish participants. In statistical analyses of the study, the Ph.D. holders of Turkish teachers were included in M.A. holders and 'other' degree holders were included in B.A. holders because their frequency could be ignored in analyses.

f. *Teaching experience*: a large proportion of Iranian and Turkish participants was within the '16 to 20' teaching-experience group (F = 103; 26.7 %), and a small proportion was within the '26 and above' (F = 25; 6.5 %). Moreover, the largest teaching-experience group for Iranian participants was '16 to 20' (33.9 %), while for Turkish ones was '11 to 15' (30.8 %). There was no remarkable difference between the groups of the countries in this regard.

g. *Employment status*: there were 369 full-time (95.6 5) and 17 part-time (4.4 %) participants. The results also showed that there were no part-time participants from Turkey. So, it can be inferred that part-time teaching is not allowed in Turkish educational system. Part-time teachers in Iranian educational system are those newly-graduated individuals selected by the system through complex policies for one year. To be a full employee, they have to gain 5-year experience, have to not complain about anything during the time and after that, specially about the very little money they are offered, have to obey whatever they are suggested, etc. Sometimes retired teachers who were truthful ex-employee of the system are also allowed to work as part-time members.

Table 4.1.

Descriptive Statistics of the Participants

Variables	Categories	Overall F	Overall %	F		%	
				Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.
1. Nationality	Iranian/ Turkish	386	100	230	156	59.6	40.4
2.Gender	Male	176	45.6	140	36	60.9	23.1
	Female	210	54.4	90	120	39.1	76.9
3. Age	25 and below	14	3.6	8	6	3.5	3.8
	26 to 30	42	10.9	19	23	8.3	14.7
	31 to 35	68	17.6	35	33	15.2	21.2
	36 to 40	116	30.1	82	34	35.7	21.8
	41 to 45	106	27.5	66	40	28.7	25.6
	46 and above	40	10.4	20	20	8.7	12.8
4. Material status	Single	62	16.1	25	37	10.9	23.7
	Married	304	78.8	200	104	87.0	66.7
	Divorced	20	5.2	5	15	2.2	9.6
5. Academic level	B.A.	249	64.5	140	109	60.9	69.9
	M.A.	128	33.2	90	38	39.1	24.4
	Ph.D.	4	1	-	4	-	2.6
	Other	5	1.3	-	5	-	3.2

6. Years of Teaching experience	5 and below	30	7.8	19	11	8.3	7.1
	6 to 10	54	14	18	36	7.8	23.1
	11 to 15	93	24.1	45	48	19.6	30.8
	16 to 20	103	26.7	78	25	33.9	16.0
	21 to 25	81	21	57	24	24.8	15.4
	26 and above	25	6.5	13	12	5.7	7.7
7. Employment status	Full-time	369	95.6	213	156	92.6	100
	Part-time	17	4.4	17	-	7.4	-

4.3. ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA

The results were presented based on the research questions included in the study. The three subscales of teacher burnout (i.e., EE, DP, and PA) were our dependent variables, whereas the demographic variables of the participants (i.e., nationality, gender, age, marital status, academic level, years of teaching experience and employment status) as well as individual, school-level, and administrational factors were the independent variables.

4.3.1. General Burnout Perceptions of Iranian and Turkish Teachers

The results of descriptive statistics for burnout perceptions of Iranian teachers in the three subscales of EE, DP and PA based on the suggested model of Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter, 1996 (See part 3.5) were as: EE (Low=50.0 %, Moderate=21.3 %, and High= 28.7 %), DP (Low=56.5 %, Moderate= 22.2 %, and High= 21.3 %), and PA (Low= 29.1 %, Moderate=27.0 %, and High= 43.9 %), while for Turkish teachers were as: EE (Low= 28.8 %, Moderate=32.7 %, and High= 38.5 %), DP (Low= 44.9 %, Moderate=34.0 %, and High= 21.2%), and PA (Low=27.6 %, Moderate=32.7 %, and High= 39.7 %). See Table 4.2.

The summative burnout scores of the participants were also computed here. Scores were considered ‘high’ if they were within the 25% of high scores of the total range (0-132), ‘moderate’ if they were within the 50% of middle scores of the total range, and ‘low’ if they were within the 25% of low scores of the total range. Based on this model of cut-off points, the results of Iranian teachers’ overall burnout processes were (Low=38.3 %, Moderate=60.0 % and High= 1.7 %) and for Turkish teachers were (Low=23.7 %,

Moderate= 74.4 % and High= 1.9 %). These descriptive analyses would help us to answer the first research question. See Table 4.2.

Table 4.2.

Frequency and Percentage of Iranian and Turkish Teachers' Burnout Perceptions

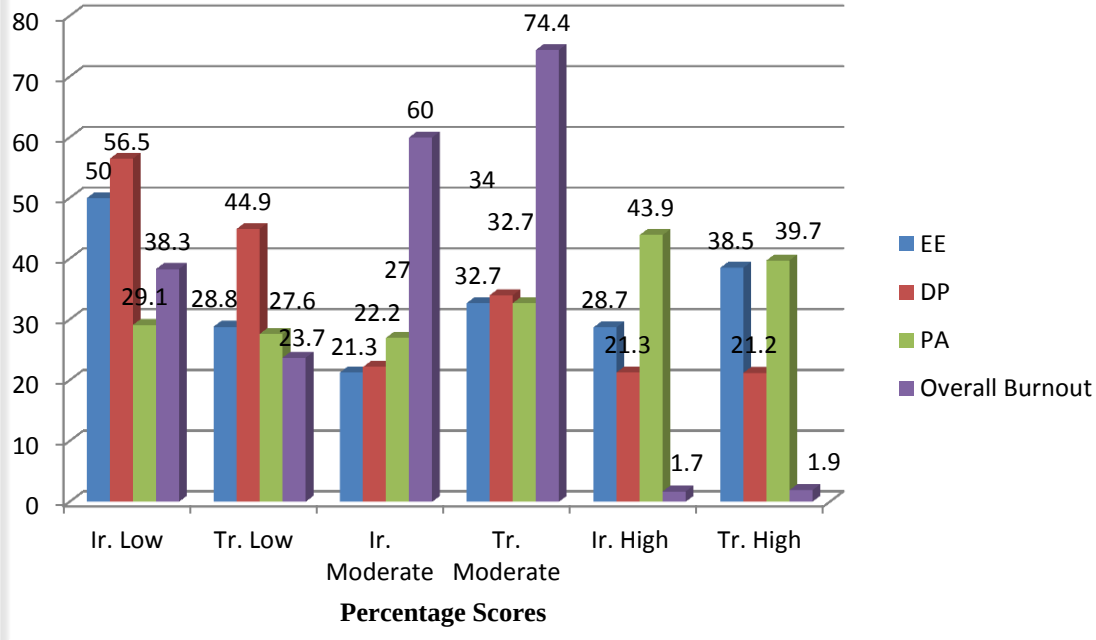
Subscales	Observed Ranges		Low				Moderate				High			
	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.		Tr.		Ir.		Tr.		Ir.		Tr.	
			F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
EE	0-48	2-53	115	50.0	45	28.8	49	21.3	51	32.7	66	28.7	60	38.5
DP	0-27	0-24	130	56.5	70	44.9	51	22.2	53	34.0	49	21.3	33	21.2
PA*	10-48	13-48	67	29.1	43	27.6	62	27.0	51	32.7	101	43.9	62	39.7
Overall Burnout**	1-99	7-104	88	38.3	37	23.7	138	60.0	116	74.4	4	1.7	3	1.9

(N Ir. =230, 100% & N Tr. =156, 100%)

*The scores of this subscale were reversed to calculate the summative score of burnout.
** The cut-off points belong to the researcher (Low= 0-32, Moderate= 33-87, High= 88-132).

Figure 4.1 also shows the percentage scores of burnout perceptions for Iranian and Turkish teachers.

Figure. 4.1. General Burnout Perceptions of Iranian and Turkish Teachers



4.3.2. Socio-demographic Variables and Burnout Subscales

As mentioned before, seven demographic variables were included in the study: (a) nationality, (b) gender, (c) age, (d) marital status, (e) academic level, (f) years of teaching experience, and (g) employment status. These demographic variables as independent variables and the three burnout subscales of EE, DP and PA as the dependent variables were entered into the model to see how burnout processes of EE, DP and PA differ based on these socio-demographic characteristics of Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers. To get rid of complexity, the results of each demographic variable with burnout processes of EE, DP and PA were presented separately. The analyses would help us to answer the second research question.

(a) Nationality and burnout subscales

There was statistically a significant difference between Iranian (N = 230; 59.6 %) and Turkish (N = 156; 40.4 %) EFL teachers' perceptions on teacher burnout only in the subscale of EE (t = -3.36; P = 0.001, P< 0.05) because its P-value was less than 0.05. However, no significant differences were observed between the groups in the subscales of DP (t = -1.00; P = 0.316, P> 0.05) and PA (t = -.42; P = 0.674, P> 0.05) because their P-values were more than 0.05. Levene's Test also showed that equality of variances between the groups was not assumed in the three subscales of EE, DP and PA. See Table 4.3.

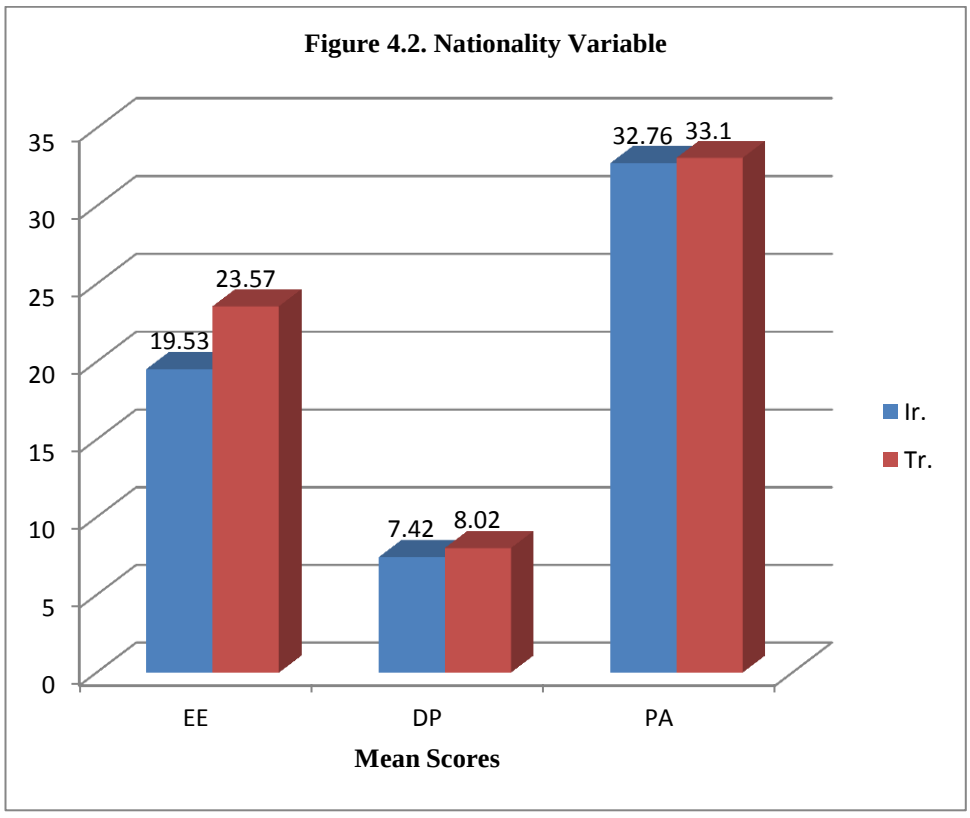
Moreover, 'Effect Size' statistic based on the 'Eta Square' value (η^2) of Cohen (1988) indicated a slight significant difference for Iranian and Turkish groups in the EE subscale of burnout (η^2= 0.0286; η^2 < 0.059). Cohen's (1988) effect size indexes for the ratio of variance between the dependent and independent variables are as: small=0.01to 0.059, medium = 0.06 to 0.139 and large = 0.14 to 1. It is computed through the '$\eta^2 = t^2/t^2 + (N_1\text{-}N_2\text{-}2)$' formula for t-tests. See Table 4.3.

Table 4.3.

Nationality and Burnout Subscales

Burnout Subscales	Group statistics				Levene's Test		t-test			
	Nationality	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Eta square
1. EE	Iranian	230	19.53	12.49197	4.103	.043	-3.365	359.79	.001	0.0286
	Turkish	156	23.57	10.94505						
	Total	386								
2. DP	Iranian	230	7.42	6.30661	3.962	.047	-1.004	366.25	.316	-
	Turkish	156	8.02	5.31640						
	Total	386								
3. PA	Iranian	230	32.76	8.57242	5.830	.016	-.421	360.96	.674	-
	Turkish	156	33.10	7.46102						
	Total	386								

Moreover, Figure 4.2 demonstrates the mean score differences between Iranian and Turkish teachers' perceptions of burnout in significant and insignificant subscales of EE, DP, and PA.



(b) Gender and burnout subscales

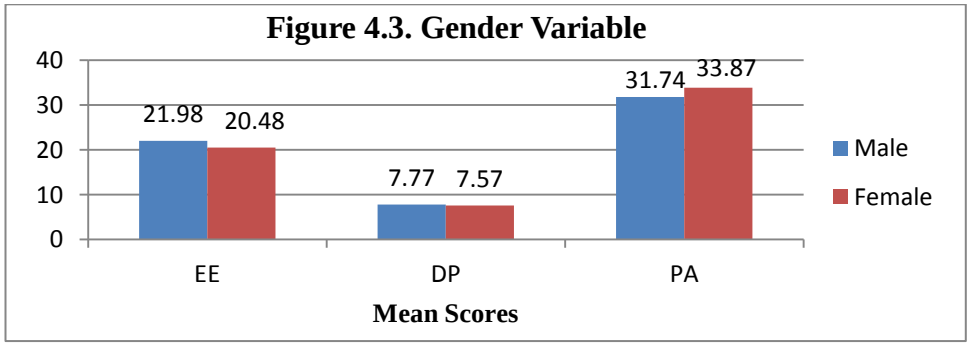
There was statistically a significant difference between male (N = 176; 45.6 %) and female (N = 210; 54.4 %) teachers only in the subscale of PA (t = -2.58; P = 0.010, P< 0.05) because its P-value was less than 0.05. However, no significant differences were observed between the groups in the subscales of EE (t = 1.22; P = 0.223, P> 0.05) and DP (t = 0.332; P = 0.740, P> 0.05) because their P-values were more than 0.05. Levene's Test also showed that equality of variances between the groups was assumed in the three subscales of EE, DP and PA. Furthermore, 'Effect Size' statistic based on the 'Eta Square' value (η^2) revealed a slight significant difference for male and female groups in the PA subscale of burnout (η^2= 0.017; η^2 < 0.059). See Table 4.4.

Table 4.4.

Gender and Burnout Subscales

Burnout Subscales	Group statistics				Levene's Test		t-test			
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Eta square
1. EE	Male	176	21.98	12.25233						
	Female	210	20.48	11.84801	.086	.770	1.221	384	.223	-
	Total	386								
2. DP	Male	176	7.77	6.09023						
	Female	210	7.57	5.79863	.004	.948	.332	384	.740	-
	Total	386								
3. PA	Male	176	31.74	8.35361						
	Female	210	33.87	7.83266	.832	.362	-2.579	384	.010	0.0170
	Total	386								

Figure 4.3 illustrates the mean score differences between male and female teachers' perceptions of burnout in significant and insignificant subscales of EE, DP, and PA.



(c) Age and burnout subscales

The results of analyses for age groups of '25 and below' (N =14; 3.6 %), '26 to 30' (N = 42; 10.9 %), '31 to 35' (N =68; 17.6 %), '36 to 40' (N =116; 30.1 %), '41 to 45' (N =106; 27.5 %), and '46 and above' (N =40; 10.4 %) were statistically significant only in the subscale of DP (F (5,380) = 2.666, P = 0.022, P < 0.05), but not in the subscales of EE (F (5,380) = 1.433, P = 0.212, P> 0.05) and PA (F (5,380) = 0.552, P = 0.737, P> 0.05) since their P-values were more than 0.05. See Table 4.5 and Figure 4.4.

As Table 4.5 shows there was a violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variances (i.e., Levene statistic) in the subscales of EE (P = 0.008) and DP (P = 0.049). Thus, to determine whether there were significant differences between the groups by not simply relying on the ANOVA indexes, the Robust Tests (i.e., Welch and Brown-Forsythe Statistic) of equality of means were also checked. The Welch Statistic was not significant for EE (F = 2.049, P = 0.079) subscale, whereas, the Brown-Forsythe Statistic was significant for DP (F = 2.377, P = 0.044) subscale, that is, Welch index confirmed that there were no significant differences between the groups in EE subscale, while Brown-Forsythe index confirmed that there were significant differences between the groups in DP subscale. To determine which groups differed from each other, a Tukey post-hoc test was employed. The results revealed that there was statistically significant difference only between the '25 and below' (Mean =11.86, SD = 8.10) and '41 to 45' (Mean =6.37, SD = 5.46) age groups (P = 0.0144, P < .05).

Additionally, 'Effect Size' statistic based on the 'Eta Square' value (η^2) revealed a slight significant difference between the groups in the subscale of DP (η^2= 0.0339; η^2 < 0.059). For ANOVA, 'Effect Size' is computed through the 'Eta Square (η^2) = Sum of Squares of Between Groups/ Sum of Squares of Total' formula (here, sum of squares of between groups for DP = 458.265; sum of squares of total = 13522.218). See Table 4.5.

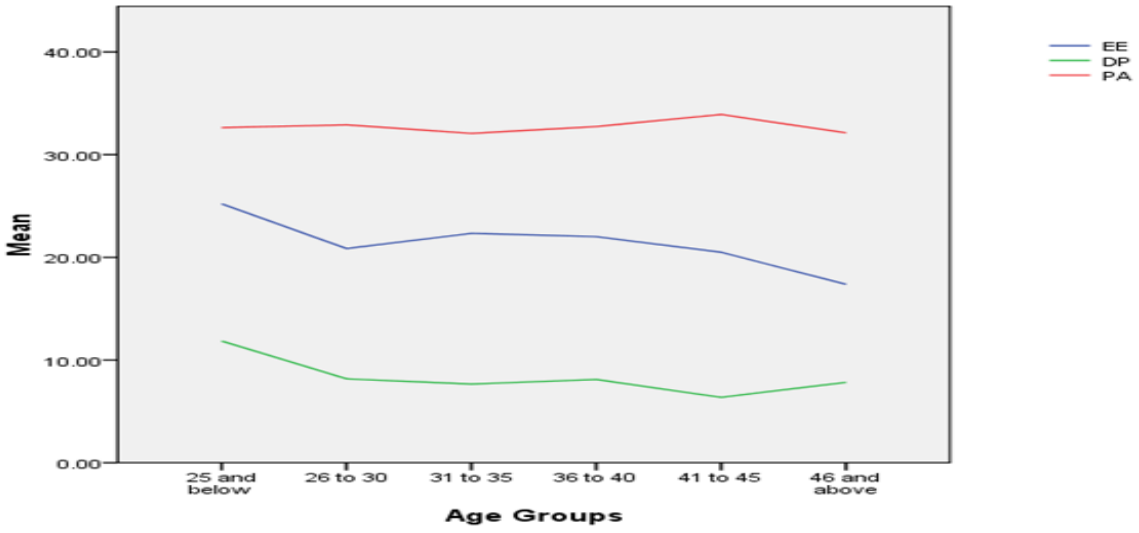
Table 4.5.

Age and Burnout Subscales

Burnout Subscales		Group statistics			Levene's Test		ANOVA			
	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.	F	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Eta square
1. EE	25 ≤	14	25.21	15.21223						
	26 to 30	42	20.86	11.33217						
	31 to 35	68	22.34	11.40779						
	36 to 40	116	22.02	11.96152						
	41 to 45	106	20.50	13.34041						
	46 ≥	40	17.37	8.25767						
	Total	386	21.16	12.04164	3.176	.008	1.433	5;380	.212	-
2. DP	25 ≤	14	11.86	8.10372						
	26 to 30	42	8.17	6.15220						
	31 to 35	68	7.66	5.68741						
	36 to 40	116	8.10	6.23786						
	41 to 45	106	6.37	5.46386						
	46 ≥	40	7.82	4.75496						
	Total	386	7.66	5.92644	2.244	.049	2.666	5;380	.022	0.0339
3. PA	25 ≤	14	32.64	9.34474						
	26 to 30	42	32.90	8.89179						
	31 to 35	68	32.07	7.75428						
	36 to 40	116	32.74	7.60906						
	41 to 45	106	33.91	8.39174						
	46 ≥	40	32.12	8.51300						
	Total	386	32.90	8.13328	1.277	.273	.552	5;380	.737	-

Figure 4.4 also shows differences between the six age groups in the significant subscale of DP and insignificant subscales of EE and PA based on the mean scores.

Figure 4.4. Age Variable



(d) Marital status and burnout subscales

There were statistically no significant differences between the participants' marital status of single (N =62; 16.1 %), married (N =304; 78.8 %), and divorced (N =20; 5.2 %) and the three subscales of EE (F (2,383) = 1.978, P = 0.140, P> 0.05), DP (F (2,383) = 0.392, P = 0.676, P> 0.05) and PA (F (2,383) = 1.054, P = 0.349, P> 0.05) because the P-value of each was more than 0.05. See Table 4.6.

The Robust Tests of Welch and Brown-Forsythe were also checked for the EE subscale because it had violated the assumption of homogeneity of variances (F = 4.568, P = 0.011), See Table 4.6. The test indexes for EE in Welch statistic (F = 1.608, P = 0.212) and Brown-Forsythe statistic (F = 1.738, P = 0.183) also confirmed that there were no significant differences between the groups in the EE subscale.

Table 4.6.
Marital Status and Burnout Subscales

Burnout Subscales	Group statistics				Levene's Test		ANOVA		
	Marital Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.	F	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1. EE	Single	62	23.89	13.58411					
	Married	304	20.57	11.64637					
	Divorced	20	21.70	12.35484					
	Total	386	21.16	12.04164	4.568	.011	1.978	2;383	.140
2. DP	Single	62	8.22	6.46154					
	Married	304	7.57	5.88161					
	Divorced	20	8.00	4.95241					
	Total	386	7.66	5.92644	2.243	.108	.392	2;383	.676
3. PA	Single	62	31.55	8.08901					
	Married	304	33.12	8.17597					
	Divorced	20	33.65	7.54827					
	Total	386	32.90	8.13328	.066	.936	1.054	2;383	.349

(e) Academic level and burnout subscales

As mentioned above (See part 4.1), there were 4 Ph.D. (2.6 %) and 5 ‘other’ (3.2 %) degree holders among Turkish participants. In statistical analyses of the study, the Ph.D. holders of Turkish teachers were included in M.A. holders and ‘other’ degree holders were included in B.A. holders for their frequencies or percentages were ignorable in comparison with that of B.A. and M.A. holders. The results of analyses for academic levels of Bachelor’s Degree (N = 254; 65.8 %) and Master’s Degree (N = 132: 34.2 %) were not statistically significant in the three subscales of EE (t = -1.17; P = 0.244, P< 0.05), DP (t = 0.534; P = 0.593, P> 0.05) and PA (t = -.272; P = 0.785, P> 0.05) because their P-values were more than 0.05. Levene’s Test for equality of variances between the groups was significant only in the EE subscale, not in DP and PA ones. See Table 4.7.

Table 4.7.
Academic Level and Burnout Subscales

Burnout Subscales	Group statistics				Levene’s Test		t-test		
	Academic Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1. EE	B.A.	254	20.63	11.60056	3.912	.049	-1.17	243.20	.244
	M.A.	132	22.19	12.83134					
	Total	386							
2. DP	B.A.	254	7.78	6.00515	.691	.406	.534	384	.593
	M.A.	132	7.44	5.78793					
	Total	386							
3. PA	B.A.	254	32.81	7.90564	1.558	.213	-.272	384	.785
	M.A.	132	33.05	8.58306					
	Total	386							

(f) Years of teaching experience and burnout subscales

The results of analyses for the years on the job groups of ‘5 and below’ (N =30; 7.8 %), ‘6 to 10’ (N =54; 14 %), ‘11 to 15’ (N =93; 24.1 %), ‘16 to 20’ (N =103; 26.7 %), ‘21

to 25' (N =81; 21 %), and '26 and above' (N =25; 6.5 %) were statistically no significant in the subscales of EE (F (5,380) = 1.229, P = 0.0295, P> 0.05), DP (F (5,380) = 2.007, P = 0.077, P> 0.05) and PA (F (5,380) = 1.191, P = 0.313, P> 0.05) because their P-values were more than 0.05. See Table 4.8.

As Table 4.8 shows there was a violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variances (i.e., Levene statistic) in the subscale of DP (F = 3.086, P = 0.010), therefore, the Robust Tests of Welch and Brown-Forsythe were also checked for the subscale. The test indexes for DP in Welch statistic (F = 1.948, P = 0.092) and in Brown-Forsythe statistic (F = 1.902, P = 0.096) also confirmed that there were no significant differences between the groups in the DP subscale.

Table 4.8.

Teaching Experience and Burnout Subscales

Burnout Subscales	Group statistics				Levene's Test		ANOVA		
	Work Experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.	F	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1. EE	5 ≤	30	22.13	13.81587					
	6 to 10	54	22.26	11.64439					
	11 to 15	93	23.20	11.73304					
	16 to 20	103	19.95	11.33654					
	21 to 25	81	19.39	13.04385					
	26 ≥	25	20.80	10.85894					
	Total	386	21.16	12.04164	1.182	.318	1.229	5;380	.295
2. DP	5 ≤	30	9.43	7.92936					
	6 to 10	54	9.17	5.35089					
	11 to 15	93	7.09	5.36222					
	16 to 20	103	7.48	6.17691					
	21 to 25	81	6.65	5.78827					
	26 ≥	25	8.44	5.06689					
	Total	386	7.66	5.92644	3.086	.010	2.007	5;380	.077
3. PA	5 ≤	30	34.13	8.87745					
	6 to 10	54	31.00	7.42001					
	11 to 15	93	32.16	8.31224					
	16 to 20	103	33.38	7.59013					
	21 to 25	81	33.88	8.85915					
	26 ≥	25	33.08	7.52728					
	Total	386	32.90	8.13328	1.075	.374	1.191	5;380	.313

(g) Employment status and burnout subscales

There were statistically no significant differences between the participants' employment status of full-time (N =369; 95.6 %) and part-time (N =17; 4.4 %) in the three subscales of EE (t = 1.233; P = 0.218, P< 0.05), DP (t = -.447; P = 0.661, P> 0.05) and PA (t = -1.152; P = 0.250, P> 0.05) because their P-values were more than 0.05. Levene's Test for equality of variances between the groups was significant only in the DP subscale, not in EE and PA ones. See Table 4.9.

Table 4.9.

Employment Status and Burnout Subscales

Burnout Subscales	Group statistics				Levene's Test		t-test		
	Employment Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1. EE	B.A.	369	21.33	12.09646	1.624	.203	1.233	384	.218
	M.A.	17	17.65	10.48178					
	Total	386							
2. DP	B.A.	369	7.63	5.84315	4.235	.040	-.447	16.862	.661
	M.A.	17	8.47	7.69023					
	Total	386							
3. PA	B.A.	369	32.79	8.18109	1.444	.230	-1.152	384	.250
	M.A.	17	35.12	6.84546					
	Total	386							

4.3.3. Sources of Teacher Burnout

As mentioned in the literature (See part 2.5), three types of teacher burnout sources involved in the study are: *four individual*, *six school-level* and *four administrational* factors. Factors and/or their dimensions as the independent variables and each burnout subscale (i.e., EE, DP or PA) as the dependent variable were entered into the model to see to what extent the burnout processes of EE, DP and PA would better be predicted based on these factors or their dimensions among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers. First, the analyses of the dimensions of the factors as predictors of EE, DP and PA subscales were represented for both Iranian and Turkish groups. Second, the results of

predictive analyses for the factors were represented while (a) Iranian and Turkish groups were considered as a unique group and (b) the groups were contemplated as separate for comparative purposes. The analyses would help us to answer the third research question. To get rid of complexity, the analysis results of each factor with EE, DP and PA processes were presented separately in the following parts.

4.3.3.1. Individual Sources of Teacher Burnout

The analyses of the following professional indicators of teacher burnout at individual level are presented here: (a) *Professional Self-esteem* (or performance-based self-esteem), (b) *Teacher Self-efficacy*, (c) *Value Incongruence*, and (d) *Competence Self-evaluation*. Each of these burnout sources considered as unique characteristics of individuals includes a few dimensions: *Professional Self-esteem* consisting of five dimensions, *Teacher Self-efficacy* consisting of six dimensions, *Value Incongruence* consisting of three dimensions, and *Competence Self-evaluation* consisting of two dimensions. So, the analyses of this part aim at depicting which burnout processes of EE, DP and PA are better predicted by the dimensions of the factors and the four individual factors themselves among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers.

(a) Professional self-esteem as a predictor of teacher burnout

As mentioned above, *Professional Self-esteem* as an important construct in burnout processes was included in the study to see its effect on the three burnout subscales of EE, DP and PA. Our conceptualization of *Professional Self-esteem* consisted of five dimensions of (a) *satisfaction* (referring to the importance and value one assigns to his/her profession), (b) *knowledge development* (referring to one's desire to embrace and learn new things necessary in his/her job, (c) *practice* (referring to a sense of preparing for the work and performing a qualified work), (d) *adaptation* (referring to one's desire to embrace new work conditions to overcome challenges and problems in his/her work), and (e) *communication* (referring to one's desire to impart and share his/her knowledge, information, and work experience to and with others). Therefore, the analyses aimed to depict which burnout processes of EE, DP and PA are better predicted by these dimensions.

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between any five dimensions of *Professional Self-esteem* and the three burnout subscales of EE (F (2, 383) = 108.67; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), DP (F (4,381) = 39.599; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and PA (F (3, 382) = 77.70; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) were statistically significant for Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.10.

Table 4.10.

EE, DP and PA Subscales and Professional Self-esteem Predictors

Subscales		ANOVA			
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	10105.40	2;383	108.67	0.000
2. DP	386	992.711	4;381	39.60	0.000
3. PA	386	3217.152	3;382	77.70	0.000

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE had significant linear relationship with the *Professional Self-esteem* dimensions of *Satisfaction* (t = -12.987; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and *Adaptation* (t = -3.757; P = 0.000, P< 0.05); DP with the dimensions of *Satisfaction* (t = -3.376; P = 0.001, P< 0.05), *Practice* (t = -5.458; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), *Adaptation* (t = -3.199; P = 0.001, P< 0.05) and *Communication* (t = -3.111; P = 0.002, P< 0.05); and PA with the dimensions of *Satisfaction* (t = 4.779; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), *Development* (t = 7.246; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and *Practice* (t = 4.532; P = 0.000, P< 0.05). See Table 4.11.

Table 4.11.

Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and Professional Self-esteem Predictors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Satisfaction	-.545	-12.987	.000	.297	-.160	-3.376	.001	.021	.211	4.779	.000	.037
2. Development	.003	.055	.956	-	-.042	-.741	.459	-	.346	7.246	.000	.085
3. Practice	-.084	-1.77	.078	-	-.283	-5.458	.000	.055	.228	4.532	.000	.033
4. Adaptation	-.158	-3.757	.000	.025	-.158	-3.199	.001	.019	.080	1.739	.083	-
5. Communication	.066	1.49	.136	-	-.150	-3.111	.002	.018	.069	1.464	.144	-
Sig. dimensions		Total R^2 =.362				Total R^2 =.294				Total R^2 =.379		

The results also showed that the significant dimensions of EE (i.e., Satisfaction and Adaptation) DP (i.e., Satisfaction, Practice, Adaptation and Communication) and PA (i.e., Satisfaction, Development, and Practice) explained 36.2, 29.4, and 37.9 percent of each subscale's total prediction variance, respectively. Moreover, the strongest predictors of EE, DP and PA were *Satisfaction* (*t* = -12.987; Beta = -.545), *Practice* (*t* = -5.458; Beta = -.283) and *Development* (*t* = 7.246; Beta = 0.346), while their least predictors were *Development* (*t* = 0.055; Beta = 0.003), *Development* (*t* = -.741; Beta = 0.042) and *Communication* (*t* = 1.464; Beta = 0.069), respectively. See Table 4.11.

(b) Teacher self-efficacy as a predictor of teacher burnout

The results of multiple stepwise regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the six dimensions of *NTSES* (See part 3.4) and the three burnout subscales were statistically significant for EE (*F* (2, 383) = 23.05; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05), DP (*F* (3, 382) = 38.67; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) and PA (*F* (4, 381) = 54.99; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) among both Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.12.

Table 4.12.
EE, DP and PA Subscales and NTSES Predictors

Subscales		ANOVA			
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	2998.87	2;383	23.05	0.000
2. DP	386	1049.931	3;382	38.67	0.000
3. PA	386	2330.557	4;381	54.99	0.000

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE had significant linear relationship with the *NTSES* dimensions of *Maintaining Discipline* (*t* = -4.714; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) and *Coping with Changes* (*t* = -2.385; *P* = 0.018, *P*< 0.05); DP with the dimensions of *Maintaining Discipline* (*t* = -5.462; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05), *Cooperating with Colleagues and Parents* (*t* = -4.337; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) and *Coping with Changes* (*t* = -2.135; *P* = 0.033, *P*< 0.05); and PA with the dimensions of *Instruction* (*t* = 3.539; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05), *Maintaining Discipline* (*t* = 4.303; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05),

Cooperating with Colleagues and Parents (*t* = 5.261; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) and *Coping with Changes* (*t* = 4.358; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05). See Table 4.13.

Table 4.13.

Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and NTSES Predictors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Instruction	-.033	-.604	.546	-	.000	-.009	.993	-	.165	3.539	.000	.021
2. Adapting	.079	1.177	.240	-	-.054	-.852	.395	-	.036	.621	.535	-
3. Motivating	.029	.525	.600	-	-.067	-1.287	.199	-	.058	1.225	.221	-
4. Discipline	-.252	-4.714	.000	.052	-.285	-5.462	.000	.060	.207	4.303	.000	.031
5. Cooperating	-.092	-1.707	.089	-	-.217	-4.337	.000	.038	.243	5.261	.000	.046
6. Coping	-.128	-2.385	.018	.013	-.108	-2.135	.033	.009	.210	4.358	.000	.032
Sig. dimensions	Total R^2 =.107				Total R^2 =.233				Total R^2 =.366			

The results also revealed that the significant dimensions of EE (i.e., Maintaining Discipline and Coping with Changes), DP (i.e., Maintaining Discipline, Cooperating with Colleagues and Parents and Coping with Changes) and PA (i.e., Instruction, Maintaining Discipline, Cooperating with Colleagues and Parents and Coping with Changes) accounted for 10.7, 23.3, and 36.6 percent of each subscale's total prediction variance, respectively. Moreover, *Maintaining Discipline* was the strongest predictor of EE and DP subscales (EE ► *t* = -4.714, Beta = 0.252; DP ► *t* = -5.462, Beta = 0.285), while PA subscale's strongest predictor was *Cooperating with Colleagues and Parents* (*t* = 5.261; Beta = 0.243). In contrast, the weakest predictor of EE and DP was *Instruction* (EE ► *t* = -.604, Beta = -.033; DP ► *t* = -.009, Beta = 0.000), whereas the weakest predictor of PA was *Adapting Instruction to Individual Needs* (*t* = 0.621; Beta = 0.036). See Table 4.13.

(c) Value incongruence as a predictor of teacher burnout

Reminding once again, *Value Incongruence* as the third individual factor was conceptualized, here, as having three dimensions: (a) *value conflict* (referring to value sharing between the teachers and the administration to which they belong), (b) *value*

change (referring to administrational value change during the time) and (c) *goal meeting* (referring to an organization's effort to meet its mission statements).

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between any three dimensions of *Value Incongruence* and the three burnout subscales were statistically significant in EE (F (2, 383) = 26.45; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), DP (F (1,384) = 15.24; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and PA (F (1, 384) = 40.94; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) subscales among Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.14.

Table 4.14.

EE, DP and PA Subscales and Value Incongruence Predictors

Subscales	ANOVA				
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	3387.130	2;383	26.45	0.000
2. DP	386	516.126	1;384	15.24	0.000
3. PA	386	2453.679	1;384	40.94	0.000

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE had significant linear relationship with the *Value Incongruence* dimensions of *Value Conflict* (t = -2.542; P = 0.011, P< 0.05) and *Goal Meeting* (t = 5.339; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), while DP and PA subscales with the dimension of *Goal Meeting* (DP ► t = 3.904, P = 0.038, P< 0.05; PA ► t = -6.398, P = 0.000, P< 0.05). See Table 4.15.

Table 4.15.

Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and Value Incongruence Predictors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Value Conflict	-.132	-2.542	.011	.015	-.051	-.935	.351	-	-.004	-.082	.934	-
2. Value Change	-.093	-1.633	.103	-	-.078	-1.390	.165	-	.007	.122	.903	-
3. Goal Meeting	.276	5.339	.000	.065	.195	3.904	.000	.038	-.310	-6.398	.000	.096
Sig. dimensions	Total R^2 = 0.121				Total R^2 = 0.038				Total R^2 =.096			

Furthermore, the results demonstrated that the significant dimensions of EE (i.e., Value Conflict and Goal Meeting), DP (i.e., Goal Meeting) and PA (i.e., Goal Meeting) explained 12.1, 3.8, and 9.6 percent of each subscale's total variance, respectively. Moreover, the strongest predictor of EE, DP and PA was *Goal Meeting* (EE ►*t* = 5.339, Beta = 0.276; DP ► *t* = 3.904, Beta = 0.195; PA ► *t* = -6.398, Beta = -.310), while the weakest predictor of EE was *Value Change* (*t* = -1.633; Beta = -.093) and of DP and PA was *Value Conflict* (DP ►*t* = -.935, Beta = -.051; PA ► *t* = -.082; Beta = -.004). See Table 4.15.

(d) Competence self-evaluation as a predictor of teacher burnout

Competence Self-evaluation as the last individual factor was conceptualized in two macro dimensions of (a) *language knowledge* (referring to various competences such as linguistic competence, communicative competence and cultural competence) and (b) *professional competence* (referring to teaching abilities of teachers to provide effective instruction by employing various methods, strategies, skills, and techniques, their student assessment capabilities and their effective use of educational technologies).

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the two dimensions of *Competence Self-evaluation* and the three burnout subscales were statistically significant in EE (*F* (1, 384) = 26.36; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05), DP (*F* (2,383) = 67.75; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) and PA (*F* (2, 383) = 66.17; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) subscales among Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.16.

Table 4.16.

EE, DP and PA Subscales and Competence Self-evaluation Predictors

Subscales	ANOVA				
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	3585.499	1;384	26.36	0.000
2. DP	386	1766.937	2;383	67.75	0.000
3. PA	386	3270.134	2;383	66.17	0.000

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE had significant linear relationship with the *Competence Self-evaluation* dimension of *Professional Competence* (t = -5134; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), while DP and PA with the dimensions of *Language Knowledge* (DP ►t = -2.893; P = 0.004, P< 0.05; PA ► t = 2.435; P = 0.015, P< 0.05) and *Professional Competence* (DP ►t = -5.917; P = 0.000, P< 0.05; PA ► t = 66.219; P = 0.000, P< 0.05). See Table 4.17.

Table 4.17.

Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and Competence Self-evaluation Predictors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Language Knowledge	.035	.504	.615	-	-.180	-2.893	.004	.016	.152	2.435	.015	.011
2. Professional Competence	-.253	-5.134	.000	.064	-.368	-5.917	.000	.067	.388	6.219	.000	.075
Sig. dimensions	Total R^2 = 0.064				Total R^2 = 0.261				Total R^2 = 0.257			

The results also showed that the significant dimensions of EE (i.e., Professional Competence) DP (i.e., Language Knowledge and Professional Competence) and PA (i.e., Language Knowledge and Professional Competence) accounted for 6.4, 26.1, and 25.7 percent of each subscale's total prediction variance, respectively. Moreover, *Professional Competence* was the strongest predictor of EE, DP and PA subscales (EE ► t = -5.134, Beta = -.253; DP ► t = -5.917, Beta = -.368; PA ► t = 6.219, Beta = 0.388). See Table 4.17.

(e) Individual factors as predictors of teacher burnout

Having performed the analyses for determining the predictive relationship between the dimensions of the four individual factors (i.e., professional Self-esteem, Teacher Self-efficacy, Value Incongruence, and Competence Self-evaluation) and the three subscales of burnout (i.e., EE, DP, and PA) using a stepwise method, the analyses of this part focus on determining the potential predictive relationship between the four individual factors themselves and the three burnout subscales of EE, DP, and PA while (a) without

making distinction between the Iranian and Turkish groups and (b) with comparing the groups.

Iranian and Turkish teachers in a unique group

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the four individual factors (i.e., Professional Self-esteem, Teacher Self-efficacy, Value Incongruence, and Competence Self-evaluation) and the three burnout subscales were statistically significant in EE (F (3, 382) = 40.85; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), DP (F (2,383) = 83.69; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and PA (F (2, 383) = 124.81; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) subscales irrespective of Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.18.

Table 4.18.
EE, DP and PA Subscales and Individual Factors

Subscales	ANOVA				
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	4519.496	3;382	40.85	0.000
2. DP	386	2056.175	2;383	83.69	0.000
3. PA	386	5024.494	2;383	124.81	0.000

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE had significant linear relationship with the individual factors of *Professional Self-esteem* (t = -7.456; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), *Value Incongruence* (t = -4.198; P = 0.018, P< 0.05) and *Competence Self-evaluation* (t = 3.427; P = 0.000, P< 0.05); DP with the factors of *Professional Self-esteem* (t = -4.858; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and *Competence Self-evaluation* (t = -3.604; P = 0.000, P< 0.05); and PA with *Professional Self-esteem* (t = 5.874; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and *Teacher Self-efficacy* (t = 4.535; P = 0.000, P< 0.05). See Table 4.19.

Table 4.19.

Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and Individual Factors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Professional self-esteem	-.553	-7.456	.000	.110	-.335	-4.858	.000	.043	.375	5.874	.000	.055
2. Teacher self-efficacy	.007	.082	.935	-	-.014	-.182	.855	-	.290	4.535	.000	.032
3. Value incongruence	-.199	-4.198	.000	.035	-.006	-.133	.895	-	-.007	-.175	.861	-
4. Competence self-evaluation	.247	3.427	.000	.023	-.248	-3.604	.000	.024	-.062	-.857	.392	-
Sig. subscales	Total R^2 =.243				Total R^2 = 0.304				Total R^2 =.395			

The results also disclosed that the significant factors of EE (i.e., Professional Self-esteem, Value Incongruence, and Competence Self-evaluation), DP (i.e., Professional Self-esteem and Competence Self-evaluation) and PA (i.e., Professional Self-esteem and Teacher Self-efficacy) accounted for 24.3, 30.4, and 39.5 percent of each subscale's total prediction variance, respectively. Moreover, *Professional Self-esteem* was the strongest predictor of EE, DP and PA subscales (EE ► *t* = -7.456, Beta = -.553; DP ► *t* = -4.858, Beta = -.335; PA ► *t* = 5.874, Beta = 0.375), while the weakest predictor of EE and DP was *Teacher Self-efficacy* (EE ► *t* = 0.082, Beta = 0.007; DP ► *t* = -.182, Beta = -.014) and PA was *Value Incongruence* (*t* = -.007; Beta = -.175). See Table 4.19.

Comparison between Iranian and Turkish teachers

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the four individual factors and the three burnout subscales were statistically significant with EE (Ir. ►*F* (2,227) = 53.610; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05 and Tr. ► *F* (2,153) = 24.871; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05), DP (Ir. ►*F* (2,227) = 46.844; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05 and Tr. ► *F* (3,152) = 40.004; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05.) and PA (Ir. ►*F* (2,227) = 72.099; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05 and Tr. ► *F* (2,153) = 54.966; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05.) across Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.20.

Table 4.20.

EE, DP and PA Subscales and Individual Factors across Ir. & Tr. Groups

Subscales	ANOVA									
	N		Mean Square		df		F		Sig.(2-tailed)	
	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.
1. EE	230	156	5732.074	2277.834	2;227	2;153	53.610	24.871	.000	.000
2. DP	230	156	1330.451	644.288	2;227	3;152	46.844	40.004	.000	.000
3. PA	230	156	3268.630	1803.767	2;227	2;153	72.099	54.966	.000	.000

The scrutiny of values for EE subscale revealed that there was significant linear relationship between the EE subscale and the individual factors of *Professional Self-esteem* (Ir. ►t = -7.951; P = 0.000, P< 0.05 and Tr. ► t = -2.158; P = 0.032, P< 0.05) and *Value Incongruence* (Ir. ►t = -4.455; P = 0.000, P< 0.05 and Tr. ► t = -5.034; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) both in the case of Iranian and Turkish participants. See Table 4.21.

The results also showed that the significant factors of EE (i.e., Professional Self-esteem and Value Incongruence) accounted for 32.1 percent of the subscale's total prediction variance in the case of Iranian participants and 24.5 percent in the case of Turkish ones. Moreover, *Professional Self-esteem* was the strongest predictor of EE subscale among Iranian teachers (t = -7.951, Beta = -.449), while the strongest predictor of EE among Turkish teachers was *Value Incongruence* (t = -5.034, Beta = -.396). On the other hand, the weakest predictor of EE subscale among both Iranian and Turkish teachers was *Teacher Self-efficacy* (Ir. ►t = 0.814, Beta = 0.069; Tr. ► t = 1.322, Beta = 0.159). See Table 4.21.

Table 4.21.

Coefficients of EE Subscale and Individual Factors across Ir. & Tr. Groups

Subscales	Ir.				Tr.			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Professional self-esteem	-.449	-7.951	.000	.189	-.170	-2.158	.032	.023
2. Teacher self-efficacy	.069	.814	.417	-	.159	1.322	.188	-
3. Value incongruence	-.252	-4.455	.000	.059	-.396	-5.034	.000	.125
4. Competence self-evaluation	.106	1.241	.216	-	.186	1.489	.139	-
Sig. subscales	Total R^2 = 0.321				Total R^2 = 0.245			

Moreover, the scrutiny of values for DP subscale revealed that there was significant linear relationship between the DP subscale and the individual factors of *Professional Self-esteem* (*t* = -3.122; *P* = 0.002, *P*< 0.05) and *Competence Self-evaluation* (*t* = -3.530; *P* = 0.001, *P*< 0.05) in the case of Iranian participants, and between the DP subscale and the individual factors of *Professional Self-esteem* (*t* = -2.116; *P* = 0.036, *P*< 0.05), *Value Incongruence* (*t* = -3.819; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05), and *Competence Self-evaluation* (*t* = -2.755; *P* = 0.007, *P*< 0.05) in the case of Turkish participants. See Table 4.22.

The results also demonstrated that the significant factors of DP (i.e., Professional Self-esteem and Competence Self-evaluation) in the case of Iranian participants explained 29.2 percent of the subscale's total variance, while the significant factors of DP (i.e., Professional Self-esteem, Value Incongruence and Competence Self-evaluation) in the case of Turkish participants explained 44.1 percent of the subscale's total prediction variance. Moreover, *Competence Self-evaluation* was the strongest predictor of DP among Iranian and Turkish teachers (Ir. ►*t* = -3.530, Beta = -.305; Tr. ► *t* = -2.755, Beta = -.298), while the weakest predictor of DP subscale among Iranian teachers was *Value Incongruence* (*t* = 0.912, Beta = 0.053) and among Turkish teachers was *Teacher Self-efficacy* (*t* = -.903, Beta = -.104). See Table 4.22.

Table 4.22.

Coefficients of DP Subscale and Individual Factors across Ir. & Tr. Groups

Subscales	Ir.				Tr.			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Professional self-esteem	-.270	-3.122	.002	.030	-.241	-2.116	.036	.016
2. Teacher self-efficacy	.069	.693	.489	-	-.104	-.903	.368	-
3. Value incongruence	.053	.912	.363	-	-.260	-3.819	.000	.054
4. Competence self-evaluation	-.305	-3.530	.001	.039	-.298	-2.755	.007	.028
Sig. subscales	Total R^2 = 0.292				Total R^2 = 0.441			

Finally, the scrutiny of values for PA subscale showed that there was significant linear relationship between the PA subscale and the individual factors of *Professional Self-*

esteem (Ir. ►t = 5.196; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and Tr. ► t = 2.697; P = 0.008, P< 0.05) and *Teacher Self-efficacy* (Ir. ►t = 3.064; P = 0.002, P< 0.05) and Tr. ► t = 3.737; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) among both Iranian and Turkish participants. See Table 4.23.

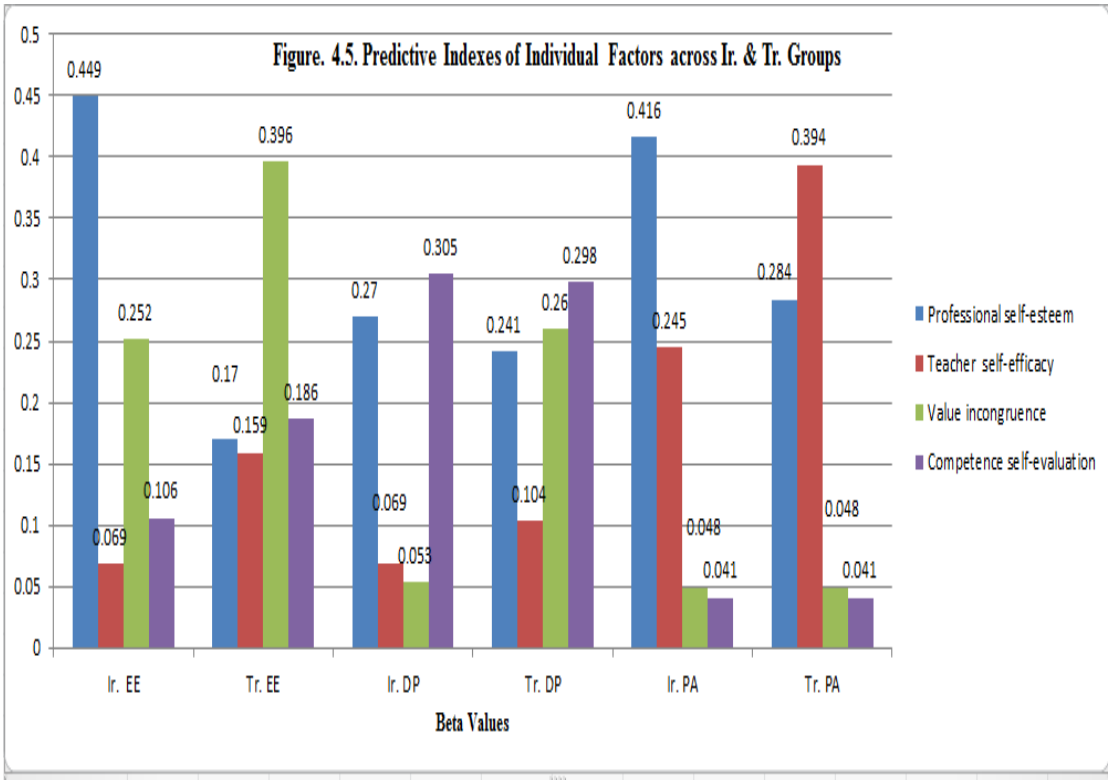
The results also disclosed that the significant factors of PA (i.e., Professional Self-esteem and Teacher Self-efficacy) explained 38.8 percent of the subscale's total prediction variance in the case of Iranian participants and 41.8 percent in the case of Turkish ones. Moreover, *Professional Self-esteem* was the strongest predictor of PA subscale among Iranian teachers (t = 5.196, Beta = 0.416), while the strongest predictor of PA among Turkish teachers was *Teacher Self-efficacy* (t = 3.737, Beta = 0.394). On contrary, the weakest predictor of PA subscale among both Iranian and Turkish teachers was *Competence Self-evaluation* (Ir. ►t = -.442, Beta = -.041; Tr. ► t = -.332, Beta = -.041). See Table 4.23.

Table 4.23.

Coefficients of PA Subscale and Individual Factors across Ir. & Tr. Groups

Subscales	Ir.				Tr.			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Professional self-esteem	.416	5.196	.000	.073	.284	2.697	.008	.027
2. Teacher self-efficacy	.245	3.064	.002	.025	.394	3.737	.000	.053
3. Value incongruence	.048	.890	.374	-	-.048	-.697	.487	-
4. Competence self-evaluation	-.041	-.442	.659	-	-.041	-.332	.740	-
Sig. subscales	Total R^2 = 0.388				Total R^2 = 0.418			

Figure 4.5 also illustrates the predictive values of individual factors in EE, DP, and PA processes between Iranian and Turkish teachers.



4.3.3.2. School-level Sources of Teacher Burnout

The following sections present the teacher burnout predictive analyses of the six school-level factors, which are unique to the school in which he/she works. They are: (a) *Workload*, (b) *Student Misbehavior*, (c) *Oversized Classes*, (d) *Mixed-ability Classes*, (e) *Teaching Materials* and (f) *Social Support*. Some of these school-level burnout sources include a few dimensions: *Workload* consisting of two dimensions, *Student Misbehavior* consisting of three dimensions, *Teaching Materials* consisting of two dimensions, *Social Support* consisting of six dimensions, whereas *Oversized Classes* and *Mixed-ability Classes* are mono-dimensional factors. So, the analyses of this part aim at depicting which burnout processes of EE, DP and PA are better predicted by the dimensions of the factors and the six school-level factors themselves among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers.

(a) Workload as a predictor of teacher burnout

Workload as the first school-level factor has been conceptualized, here, as having two dimensions: (a) *time pressure* (referring to the inabilities of teachers to complete a task because of not having enough time) and (b) *amount of work* (referring to the amount of work to be done).

The results of multiple enter-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the two dimensions of workload and the EE burnout subscale was not statistically significant (F (2, 383) = 2.065; P = 0.128, P> 0.05), whereas, using the stepwise-method of regression, there were statistically significant relationship between the two dimensions of workload and the burnout subscales of DP (F (1,384) = 21.821; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and PA (F (1, 384) = 4.544; P = 0.034, P< 0.05) among Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.24.

Table 4.24.
EE, DP and PA Subscales and Workload Predictors

Subscales	ANOVA				
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	297.759	2;383	2.065	0.128
2. DP	386	727.095	1;384	21.821	0.000
3. PA	386	297.873	1;384	4.544	0.034

The scrutiny of values for EE subscale also revealed that EE had no significant linear relationship with any *Workload* dimension of *Time Pressure* (t = -1.874; P = 0.062, P> 0.05) and *Work Amount* (t = 1.607; P = 0.109, P> 0.05), while DP and PA had significant linear relationship with the workload dimension of *Time Pressure* (t = 4.671; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and *Work Amount* (t = -2.132; P = 0.034, P < 0.05), respectively. See Table 4.25.

The results also showed that the significant dimension of DP (i.e., Time Pressure) and PA (i.e., Work Amount) explained 5.4 and 1.2 percent of each subscale's total

prediction variance, respectively. Moreover, *Time Pressure* was the strongest predictor of DP subscale (*t* = 4.671, Beta = 0.232), and *Work Amount* was the strongest predictor of PA (*t* = -2.132, Beta = -.108). See Table 4.25.

Table 4.25.
Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and Workload Predictors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Time pressure	-.109	-1.874	.062	-	.232	4.671	.000	.054	-.014	-.234	.815	-
2. Work amount	.094	1.607	.109	-	.069	1.204	.229	-	-.108	-2.132	.034	.012
Sig. dimensions	Total R^2 = 0.011				Total R^2 = 0.054				Total R^2 = 0.012			

(b) Student misbehavior as a predictor of teacher burnout

The second school-level factor is *Student Misbehavior* which includes three dimensions of (a) *student discipline* (referring to student problems such as verbal abuse, fighting, screaming, vandalizing school property, cheating, teasing, violent outbursts, drug use, etc.), (b) *student apathy* (referring to students' negative attitudes toward work and school) and (c) *low student achievement* (referring to students' failure to achieve teacher-defined learning outcomes).

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between any dimension of *Student Misbehavior* and the three burnout subscales were statistically significant in EE (F (1, 384) = 38.398; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and PA (F (1,384) = 35.455; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) subscales, whereas, using the enter-method regression, there was statistically significant relationship between two dimensions of student misbehavior and the DP subscale (F (3,382) = 2.837; P = 0.038, P< 0.05). See Table 4.26.

Table 4.26.

EE, DP and PA Subscales and Student Misbehavior Predictors

Subscales	ANOVA				
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	5074.823	1;384	38.398	0.000
2. DP	386	98.234	3;382	2.837	0.038
3. PA	386	2152.693	1;384	35.455	0.000

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE had significant linear relationship with the student misbehavior dimension of *Student Discipline* (t = -6.197; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), DP with the dimensions of *Student Apathy* (t = 2.029, P = 0.043, P< 0.05) and *Low Student Achievement* (t = -2.001, P = 0.046, P< 0.05) and PA with *Low Student Achievement* (t = 5.954, P = 0.000, P< 0.05). See Table 4.27.

Table 4.27.

Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and Student Misbehavior Predictors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Discipline	-.302	-6.197	.000	.091	-.081	-1.366	.173	-	-.009	-.171	.864	-
2. Apathy	.021	.389	.698	-	.126	2.029	.043	.011	.038	.652	.515	-
3. Achievement	-.096	-1.742	.082	-	-.126	-2.001	.046	.010	.291	5.954	.000	.085
Sig. dimensions	Total R^2 = 0.091				Total R^2 = 0.022				Total R^2 =.085			

Furthermore, the results demonstrated that the significant dimension(s) of EE (i.e., Student Discipline), DP (i.e., Student Apathy and Low Student Achievement) and PA (i.e., Low Student Achievement) accounted for 9.1, 2.2, and 8.5 percent of the variance in predicting the subscales, respectively. Moreover, the strongest predictor of EE was *Student Discipline* (*t = -6.231, Beta = -.304),* DP was *Student Apathy* (t = 2.029, Beta = 0.126), and PA was *Low Student Achievement* (t = 5.954; Beta = 0.291). The weakest predictor of EE, in contrast, was *Student Apathy* (t = 0.389, Beta = 0.021), whereas the

weakest predictor of DP and PA was *Student Discipline* (DP ►*t* = -1.366, Beta = -.081; PA ► *t* = -.171; Beta = -.009). See Table 4.27.

(c) Oversized classes as a predictor of teacher burnout

Oversized Classes, the third school-level factor, is mono-dimensional, so, there is no any analysis in this regard.

(d) Mixed-ability classes as a predictor of teacher burnout

Like Over-sized Classes, *Mixed-ability Classes*, the fourth school-level factor, is mono-dimensional, so, there is again no any analysis in this regard.

(e) Teaching materials as a predictor of teacher burnout

The fifth school-level factor is *Teaching Materials* which includes two dimensions of (a) *suitability of the textbooks* (referring to the suitability and practicality of the present high-school textbooks in Iran and Turkey) and (b) *availability of other materials* (referring to the availability of additional teaching materials for better presentation of lessons).

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the two dimensions of *Teaching Materials* and the burnout subscales were statistically significant for EE (F (1, 384) = 10.600; P = 0.001, P< 0.05) and DP (F (1, 384) = 27.736; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), whereas, using the enter-method regression, there was not statistically significant relationship between the two dimensions of teaching materials and the burnout subscale of PA (F (2,383) = 1.608; P = 0.202, P> 0.05) among Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.28.

Table 4.28.

EE, DP and PA Subscales and Teaching Materials Predictors

Subscales	ANOVA				
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	1499.594	1;384	10.600	0.001
2. DP	386	910.893	1;384	27.736	0.000
3. PA	386	106.054	2;383	1.608	0.202

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE had significant linear relationship with *Teaching Materials* dimension of *Availability of Other Materials* (t = -3.256; *P* = 0.001, *P*< 0.05) and DP with *Suitability of the Textbooks* (*t* = 5.266; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05), while PA subscale had no significant relationship with any dimension of *Teaching Materials* (Textbook suitability ►*t* = -1.784; *P* = 0.075, *P*> 0.05 and *Material availability* ►*t* = 0.884; *P* = 0.377, *P* > 0.05). See Table 4.29. See Table 4.29.

The results also showed that the significant dimensions of EE (i.e., Material availability) and DP (i.e., Textbook suitability) explained 2.7 and 6.7 percent of each subscale's total variance, respectively. Moreover, *Material Availability* was the strongest predictor of EE subscale (*t* = -3.256, Beta = -.164) and *Textbook Suitability* was the strongest predictor of DP (*t* = 5.266, Beta = 0.260). See Table 4.29.

Table 4.29.

Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and Teaching Materials Predictors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Textbook suitability	.096	1.744	.082	-	.260	5.266	.000	.067	-.099	-1.784	.075	-
2. Material availability	-.164	-3.256	.001	.027	-.046	-.849	.396	-	.049	.884	.377	-
Sig. dimensions	Total R^2 = 0.027				Total R^2 = 0.067				Total R^2 = 0.008			

(f) Social support as a predictor of teacher burnout

Our final school-level factor is *Social Support* which includes six dimensions of (a) *guidance* (having access to advice and information to handle problems), (b) *reliable alliance* (perceiving that others can be counted upon for tangible assistance), (c) *reassurance of worth* (referring to recognition of one's competence, skills, and value by others), (d) *social integration* (referring to a sense of belonging to a group that shares similar interests, concerns, and recreational activities), (e) *attachment* (referring to a sense of emotional closeness from which one derives a sense of security), and (f) *opportunity for nurturance* (referring to the sense that others can rely upon one for their well-being).

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the six dimensions of *Social Support* and the three burnout subscales were statistically significant for EE (F (3, 382) = 19.788; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), DP (F (2, 383) = 26.970; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and PA (F (3, 382) = 17.917; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) among both Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.30.

Table 4.30.
EE, DP and PA Subscales and Social Support Predictors

Subscales	ANOVA				
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	2502.903	3;382	19.788	0.000
2. DP	386	834.666	2;383	26.970	0.000
3. PA	386	1047.198	3;382	17.917	0.000

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE had significant linear relationship with the *Social Support* dimensions of *Guidance* (t = 2.462; P = 0.014, P< 0.05), *Reassurance of Worth* (t = -3.230; P = 0.024, P< 0.05) and *Attachment* (t = -6.107; P = 0.085, P< 0.05); DP with the dimensions of *Reassurance of Worth* (t = -4.134; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and *Attachment* (t = -4.879; P = 0.033, P< 0.05); and PA with the dimensions of *Reassurance of Worth* (t = 2.447; P = 0.015, P< 0.05), *Social*

Integration, (*t* = 3.039; *P* = 0.003, *P*< 0.05) and *Attachment* (*t* = 3.733; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05). See Table 4.31.

Table 4.31.

Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and Social Support Predictors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Guidance	.125	2.462	.014	.014	.073	1.430	.153	-	.029	.553	.580	-
2. Reliable alliance	-.022	-.421	.674	-	-.063	-1.247	.213	-	.049	.976	.330	-
3. Reassurance of worth	-.159	-3.230	.001	.024	-.204	-4.134	.000	.039	.125	2.447	.015	.014
4. Social integration	-.095	-1.785	.075	-	-.026	-.495	.621	-	.160	3.039	.003	.021
5. Attachment	-.317	-6.107	.000	.085	-.241	-4.879	.000	.054	.192	3.733	.000	.032
6. Opportunity for nurturance	-.061	-1.179	.239	-	-.077	-1.498	.135	-	.101	1.887	.060	-
Sig. dimensions	Total R^2 =.135				Total R^2 =.123				Total R^2 =.123			

The results also revealed that the significant dimensions of EE (i.e., Guidance, Reassurance of Worth, and Attachment), DP (i.e., Reassurance of Worth and Attachment) and PA (i.e., Reassurance of Worth, Social Integration, and Attachment) accounted for 13.5, 12.3, and 12.3 percent of the variance in predicting the subscales total variance, respectively. Moreover, *Guidance* was the strongest predictor of EE, DP and PA subscales (EE ► *t* = -6.107, Beta = -.317; DP ► *t* = -4.879, Beta = -.241; PA ► *t* = 3.733, Beta = 0.192), while the weakest predictor of EE, DP and PA were *Reliable Alliance* (*t* = -.421, Beta = -.022), Social Integration (*t* = -.495, Beta = -.026) and Guidance (*t* = 0.553, Beta = 0.029), respectively. See Table 4.31.

(g) School-level factors as predictors of teacher burnout

Having performed the stepwise and enter method regression analyses for determining the predictive relationship between the dimensions of the six school-level factors (i.e., Workload, Student Misbehavior, Over-sized Classes, Mixed-ability Classes, Teaching

Materials, and Social Support) and the three subscales of burnout (i.e., EE, DP, and PA), the analyses of this part focus on determining the potential predictive relationship between the six school-level factors themselves and the three burnout subscales of EE, DP, and PA while (a) taking Iranian and Turkish groups together and (b) making distinction between the groups.

Iranian and Turkish teachers in a unique group

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the six school-level factors (i.e., Workload, Student Misbehavior, Over-sized Classes, Mixed-ability Classes, Teaching Materials, and Social Support) and the three burnout subscales were statistically significant in EE (F (4, 381) = 17.141; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), DP (F (4,381) = 23.273; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and PA (F (5, 380) = 19.227; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) subscales irrespective of Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.32.

Table 4.32.
EE, DP and PA Subscales and School-level Factor

Subscales	ANOVA				
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	2128.461	4;381	17.141	0.000
2. DP	386	663.799	4;381	23.273	0.000
3. PA	386	1028.437	5;380	19.227	0.000

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE had significant linear relationship with the school-level factors of *Workload* (t = 2.088; P = 0.037, P< 0.05), *Student Misbehavior* (t = -2.809; P = 0.005, P< 0.05), *Mixed-ability Classes* (t = -4.409; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and *Social Support* (t = -3.609; P = 0.000, P< 0.05); DP with the factors of *Workload* (t = 3.358; P = 0.001, P< 0.05), *Mixed-ability Classes* (t = -4.109; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), *Teaching Materials* (t = 3.607; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and *Social Support* (t = -6.041; P = 0.000, P< 0.05); and PA with *Student Misbehavior* (t = -4.858; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), *Over-sized Classes* (t = -4.858; P = 0.000, P< 0.05),

Mixed-ability Classes (*t* = -4.858; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05), *Teaching Materials* (*t* = -4.858; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) and *Social Support* (*t* = -4.858; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05). See Table 4.33.

Table 4.33.

Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and School-level Factors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Workload	.106	2.088	.037	.010	.188	3.358	.001	.024	-.099	-1.667	.096	-
2. Student misbehavior	-.155	-2.809	.005	.017	-.087	-1.575	.116	-	.285	4.943	.000	.051
3. Over-sized classes	-.097	-1.616	.107	-	.024	.419	.675	-	-.168	-3.039	.003	.019
4. Mixed-ability classes	-.233	-4.409	.000	.043	-.200	-4.109	.000	.036	.123	2.376	.018	.012
5. Teaching materials	.030	.505	.614	-	.200	3.607	.000	.028	-.164	-3.144	.002	.021
6. Social support	-.177	-3.609	.000	.029	-.283	-6.041	.000	.077	.269	5.643	.000	.067
Sig. subscales	Total R^2 =.153				Total R^2 = 0.196				Total R^2 =.202			

The results also disclosed that the significant factors of EE (i.e., Workload, Student Misbehavior, Mixed-ability Classes, and Social Support), DP (i.e., Workload, Mixed-ability Classes, Teaching Materials, and Social Support) and PA (i.e., Student Misbehavior, Over-sized Classes, Mixed-ability Classes, Teaching Materials, and Social Support) accounted for 15.3, 19.6, and 20.2 percent of each subscale's total prediction variance, respectively. Moreover, the strongest predictor of EE was Mixed-ability Classes (*t* = -4.409; Beta = -.233), DP was Social Support (*t* = -6.041; Beta = -.283) and PA was Student Misbehavior (*t* = 4.943; Beta = 0.285), while the weakest predictors of EE, DP and PA were *Teaching Materials* (*t* = 0.505; Beta = 0.030), *Over-sized Classes* (*t* = 0.419; Beta = 0.024) and *Workload* (*t* = -.099; Beta = -1.667), respectively. See Table 4.33.

Comparison between Iranian and Turkish teachers

The results of multiple enter-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the six school-level factors and the three burnout subscales were statistically significant in EE (Ir. ►F (6,223) = 9.035; P = 0.000, P< 0.05 and Tr. ► F (6,149) = 11.643; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), DP (Ir. ►F (6,223) = 16.390; P = 0.000, P< 0.05 and Tr. ► F (6,149) = 10.844; P = 0.000, P< 0.05.) and PA (Ir. ►F (6,223) = 11.746; P = 0.000, P< 0.05 and Tr. ► F (6,149) = 8.523; P = 0.000, P< 0.05.) across both Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.34.

Table 4.34.
EE, DP and PA Subscales and School-level Factors across Ir. & Tr. Groups

Subscales	ANOVA									
	N		Mean Square		df		F		Sig.(2-tailed)	
	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.
1. EE	230	156	1164.748	987.815	6;223	6;149	9.035	11.643	.000	.000
2. DP	230	156	464.553	221.922	6;223	6;149	16.390	10.844	.000	.000
3. PA	230	156	673.551	367.458	6;223	6;149	11.746	8.523	.000	.000

The scrutiny of values for EE subscale revealed that there was statistically significant linear relationship between the EE subscale and the school-level factors of *Workload* (t = 2.678; P = 0.008, P< 0.05), *Student Misbehavior* (t = -2.332; P = 0.021, P< 0.05), *Mixed-ability Classes* (t = -3.393; P = 0.001, P< 0.05) and *Social Support* (t = -3.039; P = 0.003, P< 0.05) in the case of Iranian participants and between the EE subscale and the school-level factors of *Over-sized Classes* (t = -3.736; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and *Social Support* (t = -3.925; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) in the case of Turkish participants. See Table 4.35.

The results also showed that the school-level factors of EE in the case of Iranian participants accounted for 19.6 percent of the subscale's prediction variance, while in the case of Turkish participants explained 31.9 percent of the subscale's total variance. Moreover, *Mixed-ability Classes* (t = -3.393, Beta = -.220) was the strongest predictor

of EE subscale among Iranian teachers, while the strongest predictor of EE among Turkish teachers was *Over-sized Classes* (*t* = -3.736, Beta = -.323). On the other hand, the weakest predictor of EE subscale among Iranian participants was *Over-sized Classes* (*t* = -.014, Beta = -.001), whereas, it was *Teaching Materials* (*t* = -.824, Beta = -.075) among Turkish participants. See Table 4.35.

Table 4.35.

Coefficients of EE Subscale and School-level Factors across Ir. & Tr. Groups

Subscales	Ir.				Tr.			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Workload	.194	2.678	.008	.026	-.157	-1.667	.098	-
2. Student misbehavior	-.176	-2.332	.021	.020	.115	1.223	.223	-
3. Over-sized classes	-.001	-.014	.989	-	-.323	-3.736	.000	.064
4. Mixed-ability classes	-.220	-3.393	.001	.042	-.128	-1.452	.149	-
5. Teaching materials	.001	.008	.993	-	-.075	-.824	.411	-
6. Social support	-.200	-3.039	.003	.033	-.274	-3.925	.000	.070
All subscales	Total $R^2 = 0.196$				Total $R^2 = 0.319$			

Additionally, the scrutiny of values for DP subscale revealed that there were significant linear relationship between the DP subscale and the school-level factors of *Workload* (*t* = 4.242; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05), *Over-sized Classes* (*t* = 2.202; *P* = 0.029, *P*< 0.05), *Mixed-ability Classes* (*t* = -2.383; *P* = 0.018, *P*< 0.05), *Teaching Materials* (t = 3.816; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) and *Social Support* (*t* = -2.965; *P* = 0.003, *P*< 0.05) in the case of Iranian participants, and between the DP subscale and the school-level factor of *Social Support* (*t* = -6.681; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) in the case of Turkish participants. See Table 4.36.

The results also demonstrated that the school-level factors of DP in the case of Iranian and Turkish participants explained 30.6 and 20.9 percent of the subscale's total prediction variance, respectively. Moreover, *workload* (*t* = 4.242, Beta = 0.285) was the strongest predictor of DP among Iranian teachers, while the strongest predictor of DP subscale among Turkish teachers was *Social Support* (*t* = -6.681, Beta = -.471). On the other hand, the weakest predictor of DP subscale among Iranian participants was

Student Misbehavior (*t* = -1.388, Beta = -.098), whereas, it was *Workload* (*t* = -.214, Beta = -.020) among Turkish ones. See Table 4.36.

Table 4.36.

Coefficients of DP Subscale and School-level Factors across Ir. & Tr. Groups

Subscales	Ir.				Tr.			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Workload	.285	4.242	.000	.056	-.020	-.214	.831	-
2. Student misbehavior	-.098	-1.388	.166	-	-.072	-.755	.451	-
3. Over-sized classes	.154	2.202	.029	.015	-.138	-1.580	.116	-
4. Mixed-ability classes	-.144	-2.383	.018	.018	-.103	-1.157	.249	-
5. Teaching materials	.251	3.816	.000	.045	.093	1.006	.316	-
6. Social support	-.181	-2.965	.003	.027	-.471	-6.681	.000	.209
All subscales	Total R^2 = 0.306				Total R^2 = 0.304			

At last, the scrutiny of values for PA subscale showed that there was significant linear relationship between the PA subscale and the school-level factors of *Workload* (*t* = -2.190; *P* = 0.030, *P*< 0.05), *Student Misbehavior* (*t* = 4.557; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05), *Over-sized Classes* (*t* = -2.516; *P* = 0.013, *P*< 0.05), *Mixed-ability Classes* (*t* = 2.730; *P* = 0.007, *P*< 0.05), *Teaching Materials* (*t* = -2.045; *P* = 0.042, *P*< 0.05) and *Social Support* (*t* = 2.309; *P* = 0.022, *P*< 0.05) in the case of Iranian participants and between the DP subscale and the school-level factors of *Student Misbehavior* (*t* = 2.490; *P* = 0.014, *P*< 0.05) and *Social Support* (*t* = 6.217; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) in the case of Turkish participants. See Table 4.37.

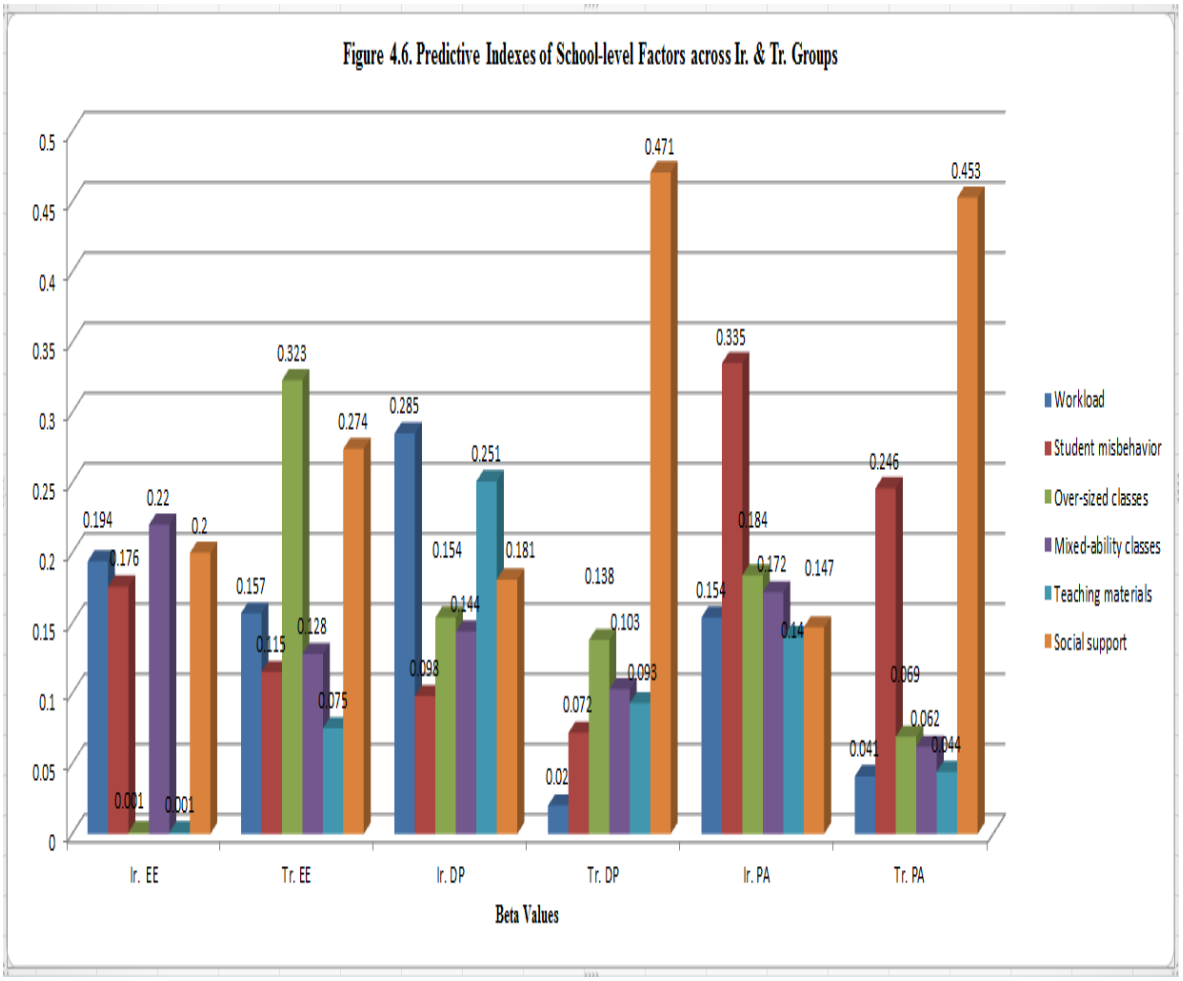
The results also disclosed that the school-level factors of PA in the case of Iranian and Turkish participants accounted for 24.00 and 25.6 percent of the subscale's total prediction variance, respectively. Furthermore, the strongest predictor of PA subscale among Iranian teachers was *Student Misbehavior* (*t* = 4.557, Beta = 0.335), while the strongest predictor of PA among Turkish teachers was *Social Support* (*t* = 6.217, Beta = 0.453). On the other hand, the weakest predictor of PA subscale among Iranian participants was *Teaching Materials* (*t* = -2.045, Beta = -.140), whereas, it was *Workload* (*t* = 0.413, Beta = 0.041) among Turkish participants. See Table 4.37.

Table 4.37.

Coefficients of PA Subscale and School-level Factors across Ir. & Tr. Groups

Subscales	Ir.				Tr.			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Workload	-.154	-2.190	.030	.016	.041	.413	.680	-
2. Student misbehavior	.335	4.557	.000	.071	.246	2.490	.014	.031
3. Over-sized classes	-.184	-2.516	.013	.022	-.069	-.762	.447	-
4. Mixed-ability classes	.172	2.730	.007	.025	-.062	-.668	.505	-
5. Teaching materials	-.140	-2.045	.042	.014	-.044	-.463	.644	-
6. Social support	.147	2.309	.022	.018	.453	6.217	.000	.193
All subscales	Total $R^2 = 0.240$				Total $R^2 = 0.256$			

Figure 4.6 also illustrates the predictive values of school-level factors in EE, DP, and PA processes between Iranian and Turkish teachers.



4.3.3.3. Administrational Sources of Teacher Burnout

In the following sections, the teacher burnout predictive analyses of the four administrational factors (referring to those conditions imposed on individuals and schools by the administration) are presented. They are: (a) *Teacher Autonomy*, (b) *Reward Adequacy*, (c) *Fairness*, and (d) *Fringe Benefits*. While *Fringe Benefits* is a mono-dimensional factor, the other factors include a few dimensions: *Teacher Autonomy* consisting of four dimensions, *Reward Adequacy* consisting of three dimensions and *Fairness* consisting of four dimensions. So, the following analyses aim at depicting which burnout processes of EE, DP and PA are better predicted by the dimensions of the three factors and the four administrational factors themselves among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers.

(a) Teacher autonomy as a predictor of teacher burnout

Teacher Autonomy as the first administrational factor has been conceptualized, here, as having four dimensions: (a) *pedagogy* (referring to teachers' perception of ability and freedom to choose appropriate teaching methods, strategies and content to meet student needs) , (b) *curriculum evaluation* (referring to teachers' evaluation of the established curriculum), (c) *decision making* (referring to a sense of being involved in decision making processes) and (d) *problem solving* (referring to teachers' perception of freedom to use their personal initiative in solving work problems).

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the four dimensions of *Teacher Autonomy* and the three burnout subscales were statistically significant in EE (F (1; 384) = 11.534; P = 0.001, P< 0.05), DP (F (2,383) = 6.852; P = 0.001, P< 0.05) and PA (F (3, 382) = 15.556; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) subscales among Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.38.

Table 4.38.

EE, DP and PA Subscales and Teacher Autonomy Predictors

Subscales	ANOVA				
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	1627.885	1;384	11.534	0.001
2. DP	386	233.572	2;383	6.852	0.001
3. PA	386	924.193	3;382	15.556	0.000

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE had significant linear relationship with the *Teacher Autonomy* dimension of *Decision Making* (t = -3.396; P = 0.001, P< 0.05), DP with the dimensions of *Decision Making* (t = 2.204; P = 0.028, P< 0.05) and *Problem Solving* (t = -3.698; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), and PA with the dimensions of *Curriculum Evaluation* (t = -3.382; P = 0.001, P< 0.05), *Decision Making* (t = 2.758; P = 0.006, P< 0.05) and *Problem Solving* (t = 3.379; P = 0.001, P< 0.05). See Table 4.39.

Furthermore, the results demonstrated that the significant dimensions of EE (i.e., Decision Making), DP (i.e., Decision Making and Problem Solving) and PA (i.e., Curriculum Evaluation, Decision Making and Problem Solving) accounted for 2.9, 3.5, and 10.9 percent of prediction variance of the subscales, respectively. Additionally, the strongest predictor of EE was *Decision Making* (t = -3.396, Beta = -.171), while the strongest predictor of DP and PA was *Problem Solving* (DP ► t = 2.204, Beta = 0.133; PA ► t = 3.379, Beta = 0.196). On contrary, the weakest predictor of EE and DP was *Curriculum Evaluation* (EE ► t = -.359, Beta = -.018; DP► t = 1.283, Beta = 0.066); whereas, the weakest predictor of PA was *Pedagogy* (t = 0.029; Beta = 0.515). See Table 4.39.

Table 4.39.

Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and Teacher Autonomy Predictors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Pedagogy	.073	1.286	.199	-	.086	1.494	.136	-	.029	.515	.607	-
2. Curriculum evaluation	-.018	-.359	.720	-	.066	1.283	.200	-	-.167	-3.382	.001	.027
3. Decision making	-.171	-3.396	.001	.029	.133	2.204	.028	.012	.163	2.758	.006	.018
4. Problem solving	-.100	-1.663	.097	-	-.223	-3.698	.000	.035	.196	3.379	.001	.027
Sig. dimensions	Total $R^2 = 0.029$				Total $R^2 = 0.035$				Total $R^2 = .109$			

(b) Reward adequacy as a predictor of teacher burnout

The second administrational factor is *Reward Adequacy*. It includes two dimensions of (a) *salary* (referring to teachers' satisfaction of their pay for the work they do) = 2 items (e.g., "Though my salary is low, I am not complaining about") and (b) *valuation* (referring to teachers' expectation of value from their administration for their effort and work).

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the two dimensions of *Reward Adequacy* and the burnout subscales were statistically significant in EE (F (1, 384) = 11.615; P = 0.001, P< 0.05), DP (F (1,384) = 5.209; P = 0.023, P< 0.05) and PA (F (1, 384) = 13.301; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) among Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.40.

Table 4.40.

EE, DP and PA Subscales and Reward Adequacy Predictors

Subscales	ANOVA				
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	1639.013	1;384	11.615	0.001
2. DP	386	180.977	1;384	5.209	0.023
3. PA	386	852.621	1;384	13.301	0.000

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE and PA had significant linear relationship with the *Reward Adequacy* dimension of *Valuation* (EE ► t = -3.408; P = 0.001, P< 0.05 and PA ► t = 3.647; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), while DP had significant linear relationship with the dimension of *Salary* (t = 2.282; P = 0.023, P< 0.05). See Table 4.41.

The results also showed that the significant dimension of EE (i.e., Valuation), DP (i.e., Salary) and PA (i.e., Valuation) explained 2.9, 1.3, and 3.3 percent of each subscale's total prediction variance, respectively. Moreover, *Valuation* was the strongest predictor of EE and PA subscales (EE► t = -3.408, Beta = -.171; PA ► t = 3.647, Beta = 0.183), whereas, the strongest predictor of DP was Salary (t = 2.282, Beta = 0.116). See Table 4.41.

Table 4.41.
Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and Reward Adequacy Predictors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Salary	-.071	-1.355	.176	-	.116	2.282	.023	.013	-.026	-.508	.612	-
2. Valuation	-.171	-3.408	.001	.029	-.041	-.778	.437	-	.183	3.647	.000	.033
Sig. dimensions	Total R^2 = 0.029				Total R^2 = 0.013				Total R^2 = 0.033			

(c) Fairness as a predictor of teacher burnout

The third administrational factor, *Fairness*, includes the four dimensions of (a) *distributive justice* (referring to allocation of outcomes such as rewards, benefits, and promotion), (b) *procedural justice* (concerning with the decision-making procedures which determine the outcomes), (c) *interpersonal justice* (referring to the treatment manners of authorities with employees), and (d) *informational justice* (dealing with the fairness of the communication of the decisions and procedures behind the allocation of outcomes).

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the four dimensions of Fairness and the three burnout subscales were statistically significant in EE (F (2; 383) = 4.629; P = 0.010, P< 0.05), DP (F (2; 383) = 6.561; P = 0.002, P< 0.05) and PA (F (2; 383) = 7.710; P = 0.001, P< 0.05) among Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.42.

Table 4.42.

EE, DP and PA Subscales and Fairness Predictors

Subscales	ANOVA				
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	658.844	2;383	4.629	0.010
2. DP	386	223.964	2;383	6.561	0.002
3. PA	386	492.825	2;383	7.710	0.001

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE and DP subscales had significant linear relationship with the *Fairness* dimensions of *Distributive Justice* (EE ►t = 2.272; P = 0.024, P< 0.05 and PA ► t = 3.386; P = 0.001, P< 0.05) and *Interpersonal Justice* (EE ►t = -3.029; P = 0.003, P< 0.05 and PA ► t = -1.976; P = 0.049, P< 0.05), whereas, PA with the dimensions of *Distributive Justice* (t = -3.372; P = 0.001, P< 0.05) and *Procedural Justice* (t = 3.904; P = 0.000, P< 0.05). See Table 4.43.

Table 4.43.

Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and Fairness Predictors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Distributive justice	.194	2.272	.024	.013	.288	3.386	.001	.029	-.281	-3.372	.001	.029
2. Procedural justice	-.031	-.327	.744	-	.068	.716	.475	-	.325	3.904	.000	.038
3. Interpersonal justice	-.259	-3.029	.003	.023	-.168	-1.976	.049	.010	.041	.426	.670	-
4. Informational justice	-.061	-.810	.419	-	.076	1.008	.314	-	.095	1.207	.228	-
Sig. dimensions	Total R^2 = 0.024				Total R^2 = 0.033				Total R^2 = 0.039			

Additionally, the results demonstrated that the significant dimensions of EE (i.e., Distributive Justice and Interpersonal Justice), DP (i.e., Distributive Justice and Interpersonal Justice) and PA (i.e., Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice) accounted for 2.4, 3.3, and 3.9 percent of each subscale's total prediction variance, respectively. Moreover, the strongest predictor of EE was *Interpersonal Justice* (*t* = -3.029, Beta = -.259), DP was *Distributive Justice* (*t* = 3.386, Beta = 0.288) and PA was *Procedural Justice* (*t* = 3.904, Beta = 0.325). On other hand, the weakest predictor of EE and DP was *Procedural Justice* (EE ► *t* = -.327, Beta = -.031; DP► *t* = 0.716, Beta = 0.068); whereas, the weakest predictor of PA was *Interpersonal Justice* (*t* = 0.426; Beta = 0.041). See Table 4.43.

(d) Fringe benefits as a predictor of teacher burnout

Fringe Benefits, the last administrational factor, is a mono-dimensional factor, so, there is no any analysis in this regard.

(e) Administrational factors as predictors of teacher burnout

Having performed the stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the predictive relationship between the dimensions of the four administrational factors (i.e., Teacher Autonomy, Reward Adequacy, Fairness, and Fringe Benefits) and the three subscales of burnout (i.e., EE, DP, and PA), the analyses of this section focus on determining the potential predictive relationship between the four administrational factors themselves and the three subscales of EE, DP, and PA while (a) considering Iranian and Turkish groups as a unique group and (b) contemplating them as separate groups.

Iranian and Turkish teachers in a unique group

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the four administrational factors (i.e., Teacher Autonomy, Reward Adequacy, Fairness, and Fringe Benefits) and the three burnout subscales were statistically significant in EE (F (3, 382) = 9.256; P = 0.000, P< 0.05),

DP (F (2,383) = 9.021; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) and PA (F (3, 382) = 12.600; P = 0.000, P< 0.05) subscales irrespective of Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.44.

Table 4.44.

EE, DP and PA Subscales and Individual Factors

Subscales	ANOVA				
	N	Mean Square	df	F	Sig.(2-tailed)
1. EE	386	1260.943	3;382	9.256	0.000
2. DP	386	304.168	2;383	9.021	0.000
3. PA	386	764.420	3;382	12.600	0.000

The scrutiny of values for each subscale revealed that EE and PA had significant linear relationship with the administrational factors of *Teacher Autonomy* (EE ►t = -2.629; P = 0.009, P< 0.05 and PA ►t = 4.878; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), *Reward Adequacy* (EE ►t = -3.835; P = 0.000, P< 0.05 and PA ►t = 2.641; P = 0.009, P< 0.05) and *Fairness* (EE ►t = 3.580; P = 0.000, P< 0.05 and PA ►t = -4.162; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), while DP with the factors of *Teacher Autonomy* (t = -3.414; P = 0.001, P< 0.05) and *Fairness* (t = 4.222; P = 0.000, P< 0.05). See Table 4.45.

Table 4.45.

Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and Individual Factors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Teacher autonomy	-.194	-2.629	.009	.017	-.251	-3.414	.001	.029	.356	4.878	.000	.057
2. Reward adequacy	-.315	-3.835	.000	.036	-.086	-1.032	.303	-	.214	2.641	.009	.017
3. Fairness	.327	3.580	.000	.031	.310	4.222	.000	.044	-.376	-4.162	.000	.041
4. Fringe benefits	.046	.635	.526	-	.108	1.522	.129	-	-.045	-.630	.529	-
Sig. subscales	Total R^2 =.068				Total R^2 = 0.051				Total R^2 =.090			

The results also disclosed that the significant factors of EE (i.e., Teacher Autonomy, Reward Adequacy and Fairness), DP (i.e., Teacher Autonomy and Fairness) and PA (i.e., Teacher Autonomy, Reward Adequacy and Fairness) accounted for 6.8, 5.1, and 9.00 percent of total prediction variance of the subscales, respectively. Moreover, *Fairness* was the strongest predictor of EE, DP and PA subscales (EE ► t = 3.580, Beta = 0.327; DP ► t = 4.222, Beta = 0.310; PA ► t = -4.162, Beta = -.376), while the weakest predictor of EE and PA was *Fringe Benefits* (EE ► t = 0.635, Beta = 0.046; PA ► t = -.630, Beta = -.045) and DP was *Reward Adequacy* (t = -1.032; Beta = -.086). See Table 4.45.

Comparison between Iranian and Turkish teachers

The results of multiple enter-method regression analyses for determining the potential relationship between the four administrational factors and the three burnout subscales was statistically significant in EE (Ir. ►F (4;225) = 2.549; P = 0.040, P< 0.05 and Tr. ► F (4;151) = 13.240; P = 0.000, P< 0.05), while employing the stepwise method there was also statistically significant relationship in DP (Ir. ►F (1; 228) = 36.304; P = 0.000, P< 0.05 and Tr. ► F (1; 154) = 21.668; P = 0.000, P< 0.05.) and PA (Ir. ►F (3; 226) = 9.720; P = 0.000, P< 0.05 and Tr. ► F (1;154) = 17.043; P = 0.000, P< 0.05.) subscales across Iranian and Turkish groups. See Table 4.46.

Table 4.46.

EE, DP and PA Subscales and Administrational Factors across Ir. & Tr. Groups

Subscales	ANOVA									
	N		Mean Square		df		F		Sig.(2-tailed)	
	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.	Ir.	Tr.
1. EE	230	156	387.333	1205.316	4;225	4;151	2.549	13.240	.040	.000
2. DP	230	156	1251.055	540.377	1;228	1;154	36.304	21.668	.000	.000
3. PA	230	156	641.053	859.721	3;226	1;154	9.720	17.043	.000	.000

The scrutiny of values for EE subscale revealed that there was statistically significant linear relationship between the EE subscale and the administrational factors of *Reward*

Adequacy (*t* = -2.884; *P* = 0.004, *P*< 0.05) and *Fairness* (*t* = 1.986; *P* = 0.048, *P*< 0.05) in the case of Iranian participants and between the EE subscale and the administrational factors of *Teacher Autonomy* (*t* = -3.895; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) and *Reward Adequacy* (*t* = -2.497; *P* = 0.014, *P*< 0.05) in the case of Turkish participants. See Table 4.47.

Using enter-method regression, the results also showed that the administrational factors of EE in the case of Iranian and Turkish participants accounted for 4.3 and 26.00 percent of the variance in predicting the subscale, respectively. Moreover, *Reward Adequacy* (*t* = -2.884, Beta = -.291) was the strongest predictor of EE subscale among Iranian teachers, while the strongest predictor of EE among Turkish teachers was *Teacher Autonomy* (*t* = -3.895, Beta = -.450). On the other hand, the weakest predictor of EE subscale among Iranian participants was *Teacher Autonomy* (*t* = -.302, Beta = -.026), whereas it was *Fringe benefits* (*t* = -.319, Beta = -.028) among Turkish participants. See Table 4.47.

Table 4.47.
Coefficients of EE Subscale and Administrational Factors across Ir. & Tr. Groups

Subscales	Ir.				Tr.			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Teacher autonomy	-.026	-.302	.763	-	-.450	-3.895	.000	.075
2. Reward adequacy	-.291	-2.884	.004	.035	-.298	-2.497	.014	.031
3. Fairness	.242	1.986	.048	.017	.254	1.847	.067	-
4. Fringe benefits	-.056	-.596	.552	-	-.028	-.319	.750	-
All subscales	Total R^2 = 0.043				Total R^2 = 0.260			

Additionally, employing stepwise-method regression, the scrutiny of values for DP subscale revealed that there was significant linear relationship between the DP subscale and the administrational factor of *Fairness* (*t* = 6.025; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) in the case of Iranian participants and between the DP subscale and the administrational factor of *Teacher Autonomy* (*t* = -4.655; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) in the case of Turkish participants. See Table 4.48.

The results also showed that the significant factor of DP (i.e., Fairness) in the case of Iranian participants explained 13.7 percent of the subscale's prediction variance, while the significant factor of DP (i.e., Teacher Autonomy) in the case of Turkish participants accounted for 12.3 percent of the subscale's prediction variance. Moreover, *Fairness* (*t* = 6.025, Beta = 0.371) was the strongest predictor of DP among Iranian teachers, while the strongest predictor of DP subscale among Turkish teachers was *Teacher Autonomy* (*t* = -4.655, Beta = -.351). On the other hand, the weakest predictor of DP subscale among both Iranian and Turkish participants was *Fringe Benefits* (Ir. ► *t* = 0.408, Beta = 0.036; Tr. ►*t* = 0.552, Beta = 0.045). See Table 4.48.

Table 4.48.

Coefficients of DP Subscale and Administrational Factors across Ir. & Tr. Groups

Subscales	Ir.				Tr.			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Teacher autonomy	-.152	-1.880	.061	-	-.351	-4.655	.000	.123
2. Reward adequacy	-.174	-1.875	.062	-	-.050	-.473	.637	-
3. Fairness	.371	6.025	.000	.137	-.074	-.626	.532	-
4. Fringe benefits	.036	.408	.683	-	.045	.552	.582	-
Sig. subscales	Total R^2 = 0.137				Total R^2 = 0.123			

At last, the scrutiny of values for PA subscale through stepwise-method regression showed that there were significant linear relationships between the PA subscale and the administrational factors of *Teacher Autonomy* (*t* = 3.432; *P* = 0.001, *P*< 0.05), *Reward Adequacy* (*t* = 3.557; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) and *Fairness* (*t* = -4.591; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) in the case of Iranian participants and between the PA subscale and the administrational factor of *Teacher Autonomy* (*t* = 4.128; *P* = 0.000, *P*< 0.05) in the case of Turkish participants. See Table 4.49.

The results also disclosed that the significant factors of PA (i.e., Teacher Autonomy, Reward Adequacy and Fairness) in the case of Iranian participants explained 11.4 percent of the subscale's prediction variance, whereas the significant factor of PA (i.e., Teacher Autonomy) in the case of Turkish participants accounted for 10.0 percent of the

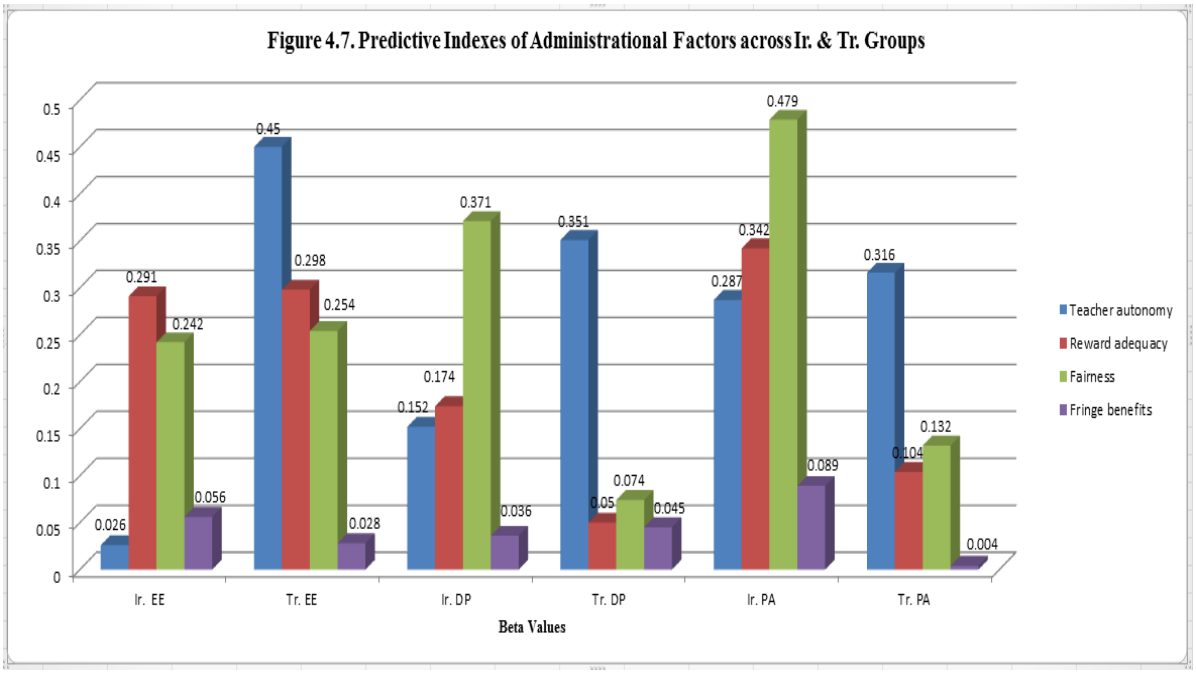
subscale's prediction variance. Furthermore, *Fairness* (*t* = -4.591, Beta = -.479) was the strongest predictor of DP among Iranian teachers, while the strongest predictor of DP subscale among Turkish teachers was *Teacher Autonomy* (*t* = 4.128, Beta = 0.316). On the other hand, the weakest predictor of DP subscale among both Iranian and Turkish participants was *Fringe Benefits* (Ir. ► *t* = -.993, Beta = -.089; Tr. ►*t* = -.053, Beta = -.004). See Table 4.49.

Table 4.49.

Coefficients of PA Subscale and Administrational Factors across Ir. & Tr. Groups

Subscales	Ir.				Tr.			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. Teacher autonomy	.287	3.432	.001	.046	.316	4.128	.000	.100
2. Reward adequacy	.342	3.557	.000	.052	-.104	-.979	.329	-
3. Fairness	-.479	-4.591	.000	.082	-.132	-1.104	.271	-
4. Fringe benefits	-.089	-.993	.322	-	-.004	-.053	.957	-
Sig. subscales	Total R^2 = 0.114				Total R^2 = 0.100			

Figure 4.7 also shows the predictive values of administrational factors in EE, DP, and PA processes between Iranian and Turkish teachers.



4.3.4. Interaction of Variables and Factors on Burnout Processes

The statistical analyses of this section done in completion of the two previous ones (i.e., 4.3.2 and 4.3.3), that is, the relationship of the seven socio-demographic variables and the three types of factors with EE, PD, and PA burnout processes were examined separately, whereas, this section combined their roles in these processes together. In other words, the analyses were done to determine interaction effects of the socio-demographic variables and the individual (i.e., Professional Self-esteem, Teacher Self-efficacy, Value Incongruence and Competence Self-evaluation), school-level (i.e., Workload, Student Misbehavior, Oversized Classes, Mixed-ability Classes, Teaching Materials and Social Support) and administrational factors (i.e., Teacher Autonomy, Reward Adequacy, Fairness and Fringe Benefits) on EE, DP and PA burnout processes. In fact, there was only significant relationship between the nationality, gender, and age variables with EE, PA and DP burnout subscales, respectively (See part 4.3.2). Thus, the interaction effects of these significant demographic variables were examined with the three types of factors. To put it in another way, those socio-demographic variables which did not have significant relationship with the burnout processes of EE, DP and PA were excluded from the study because the probability of interaction effect among insignificant variables is less than that of significant ones (i.e., we are aware that a significant independent variable's relationship with a dependent variable in One-Way ANOVA may be insignificant in Two-way ANOVA and vice versa). The variable-subscale combinations whose interactions with the factors were not examined in the study are: (a) nationality with DP and PA; (b) gender with EE and DP; (c) age with EE and PA; (d) marital status with EE, DP and PA; (e) academic level with EE, DP and PA; (f) years of teaching experience with EE, DP and PA; and (g) employment status with EE, DP and PA. The analyses would help us to answer the fourth research question.

4.3.4.1. Interaction of Nationality Variable and Factors on EE

The section represents the statistical analyses of the interaction effects of the nationality variable and the individual, school-level and administrational factors on EE burnout processes.

a. Nationality and individual factors

A Two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effects of two-level Nationality variable and the four individual factors (i.e., Professional Self-esteem, Teacher Self-efficacy, Value Incongruence and Competence Self-evaluation) on EE burnout subscale as the dependent variable. The results showed no significant interaction between Nationality and any individual factors, but significant main effects were observed for Nationality-and-Professional Self-esteem, Nationality-and-Teacher Self-efficacy, Nationality-and-Value Incongruence, and only Nationality with Competence Self-evaluation. See Table 4.50.

Table 4.50.

Interaction of Nationality Variable and Individual Factors on EE

Nationality & Individual factors	Two-way ANOVA									
	Main Effect					Interaction Effect				
	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2
Nationality	1195.842	1;298	12.507	.001	.156	-	-	-	-	-
Professional self-esteem	290.924	49; 298	3.141	.000	.759	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Professional self-esteem	-	-	-	-	-	89.899	37;298	.776	.823	.088
Nationality	1846.841	1;301	13.778	.000	.169	-	-	-	-	-
Teacher self-efficacy	229.908	45;301	1.690	.040	.625	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Teacher self-efficacy	-	-	-	-	-	137.141	38;301	1.090	.337	.121
Nationality	2687.503	1;329	27.599	.000	.226	-	-	-	-	-
Value incongruence	363.241	34;329	4.108	.000	.758	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Value incongruence	-	-	-	-	-	78.434	21;329	.646	.883	.040
Nationality	1892.264	1;284	14.406	.000	.164	-	-	-	-	-
Competence self-evaluation	175.067	56;284	1.343	.150	.615	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Competence self-evaluation	-	-	-	-	-	130.181	44;284	.962	.545	.130

b. Nationality and school-level factors

A Two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effects of two-level Nationality variable and the six school-level factors (i.e., Workload, Student Misbehavior, Over-sized Classes, Mixed-ability Classes, Teaching Materials and Social Support) on EE burnout subscale. The results for the ANOVA indicated an insignificant main effects for Nationality (F (1,354) = 4.053, P = 0.060, P> 0.05; η^2= 0.187) and Workload (F (17, 354) = 0. 648, P = *0.*807, P> 0.05; η^2= 0.422), but a significant interaction between Nationality and Workload (F (13,354) = 3.182, P = 0.000, P< 0.05; η^2= 0.105). Eta square value (i.e., η^2) showed a medium proportion of variance of EE to the interaction. See Table 4.51. Let's note that partial η^2 is interpreted as the proportion of variance of the dependent variable that is related to a particular main or interaction source, excluding other main or interaction sources. It ranges in value from 0 to 1. It is unclear what small, medium and large values for partial η^2 are, however, the suggested cutoffs are: *.01* - *.05* for small, *.06* - *.139* for medium, and *.14 – 1* for large.

The results of the ANOVA also revealed an insignificant main effects for Nationality (F (1,324) = 2.729, P = 0.104, P> 0.05; η^2 = 0.045) and Student Misbehavior (F (31,324) = 1.096, P = 0.402, P> 0.05; ŋ2= 0.529), but a significant interaction between Nationality and Student Misbehavior (F (29,324) = 1.700, P = *0.*016, P< 0.05; η^2= 0.132). Eta square value (i.e., η^2) demonstrated a medium proportion of variance of EE to the interaction. See Table 4.51.

Moreover, the results for the ANOVA demonstrated a significant main effect for Nationality (F (1,324) = 7.801, P = 0.008, P< 0.05; η^2= 0.158), an insignificant main effect for Teaching Materials (F (35,324) = 1.017, P = *0.*482, P> 0.05; η^2= 0.523), and a significant interaction between Nationality and Teaching Materials (F (25,324) = 17.87, P = *0.*013, P< 0.05; η^2= 0.121). Eta square value (i.e., η^2) demonstrated a medium proportion of variance of EE to the interaction. See Table 4.51.

Finally, the results showed no significant interaction between Nationality*Over-sized Classes, Nationality*Mixed-ability Classes, and Nationality*Social Support, but

significant main effects were observed for Nationality-and-Mixed-ability Classes and Nationality-and-Social Support. See Table 4.51.

Table 4.51.

Interaction of Nationality Variable and School-level Factors on EE

Nationality & School-level factors	Two-way ANOVA									
	Main Effect					Interaction Effect				
	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2
Nationality	1265.414	1;354	4.053	.060	.187	-	-	-	-	-
Workload	228.602	17;354	.648	.807	.422	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Workload	-	-	-	-	-	407.823	13;354	3.182	.000	.105
Nationality	471.074	1;324	2.729	.104	.045	-	-	-	-	-
Student misbehavior	225.028	31;324	1.096	.402	.529	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Student misbehavior	-	-	-	-	-	208.303	29;324	1.700	.016	.132
Nationality	198.518	1;364	1.302	.260	.030	-	-	-	-	-
Oversized classes	402.401	10;364	2.217	.113	.689	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Oversized classes	-	-	-	-	-	181.474	10;364	1.366	.194	.036
Nationality	1079.472	1;364	8.464	.009	.307	-	-	-	-	-
Mixed-ability classes	663.666	10;364	5.120	.008	.837	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Mixed-ability classes	-	-	-	-	-	129.619	10;364	1.059	.394	.028
Nationality	1449.185	1;324	7.801	.008	.158	-	-	-	-	-
Teaching materials	203.185	35;324	1.017	.482	.523	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Teaching materials	-	-	-	-	-	219.094	25;324	1.787	.013	.121
Nationality	1522.114	1;311	11.785	.001	.170	-	-	-	-	-
Social support	262.965	43;311	2.023	.014	.690	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Social support	-	-	-	-	-	130.655	30;311	1.041	.411	.091

c. Nationality and administrational factors

A Two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effects of two-level Nationality variable and the four administrational factors (i.e., Teacher Autonomy, Reward Adequacy, Fairness and Fringe Benefits) on EE burnout subscale. The results for the ANOVA demonstrated a significant main effect for Nationality (F (1,343) = 9.374, P = 0.004, P< 0.05; η^2= 0.218), an insignificant main effect for Reward Adequacy (F

(22,343) = 1.483, *P* = 0.189, *P*> 0.05; η^2= 0.616), and a significant interaction between Nationality and Reward Adequacy (*F* (19,343) = 2.196, *P* = 0.003, *P*< 0.05; ŋ2= 0.108). Eta square value (i.e., η^2) demonstrated a medium proportion of variance of EE to the interaction. See Table 4.52.

Likewise, the results for the ANOVA demonstrated a significant main effect for Nationality (*F* (1,250) = 7.468, *P* = 0.008, *P*< 0.05; η^2= 0.109), an insignificant main effect for Fairness (*F* (88,250) = 1.115, *P* = 0.349, *P*> 0.05; η^2= 0.690), and a significant interaction between Nationality and Fairness (*F* (45,250) = 1.842, *P* = 0.002, *P*< 0.05; η^2= 0.249). Eta square value (i.e., η^2) demonstrated a large proportion of variance of EE to the interaction. See Table 4.52.

Lastly, the results showed no significant interaction between Nationality*Teacher Autonomy and Nationality*Fringe Benefits, but significant main effects were observed for only Nationality with Teacher Autonomy and for only Nationality with Fringe Benefits. See Table 4.52.

Table 4.52.

Interaction of Nationality Variable and Administrational Factors on EE

Nationality & Administrational factors	Two-way ANOVA									
	Main Effect					Interaction Effect				
	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2
Nationality	1752.070	1;310	11.175	.001	.160	-	-	-	-	-
Teacher autonomy	167.160	44;310	1.023	.473	.525	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Teacher autonomy	-	-	-	-	-	170.399	30;310	1.298	.142	.112
Nationality	1905.497	1;343	9.374	.004	.218	-	-	-	-	-
Reward adequacy	377.321	22;343	1.483	.189	.616	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Reward adequacy	-	-	-	-	-	264.364	19;343	2.196	.003	.108
Nationality	1268.326	1;250	7.468	.008	.109	-	-	-	-	-
Fairness	213.570	88;250	1.115	.349	.690	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality* Fairness	-	-	-	-	-	190.681	45;250	1.842	.002	.249
Nationality	1995.055	1;366	12.431	.004	.500	-	-	-	-	-
Fringe benefits	252.326	10;366	1.537	.256	.610	-	-	-	-	-
Nationality * Fringe benefits	-	-	-	-	-	168.019	8;366	1.237	.276	.026

4.3.4.2. Interaction of Gender Variable and Factors on PA

The section represents the statistical analyses of the interaction effects of the gender variable and the individual, school-level and administrational factors on PA burnout processes.

a. Gender and individual factors

A Two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effects of two-level Gender variable and the four individual factors (i.e., Professional Self-esteem, Teacher Self-efficacy, Value Incongruence and Competence Self-evaluation) on PA burnout subscale as the dependent variable. The results showed no significant interaction between Gender and any individual factors, but significant main effects were observed for only Professional Self-esteem with Gender, only Teacher Self-efficacy with Gender, only Value Incongruence with Gender, and only Competence Self-evaluation with Gender. See Table 4.53.

Table 4.53.
Interaction of Gender Variable and Individual Factors on PA

Gender & Individual factors	Two-way ANOVA									
	Main Effect					Interaction Effect				
	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2
Gender	22.822	1;296	.548	.462	.008	-	-	-	-	-
Professional self-esteem	200.261	49;296	4.798	.000	.830	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Professional self-esteem	-	-	-	-	-	41.831	39;296	1.021	.441	.119
Gender	96.021	1;303	2.076	.155	.034	-	-	-	-	-
Teacher self-efficacy	227.630	45;303	4.795	.000	.836	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Teacher self-efficacy	-	-	-	-	-	48.132	36;303	1.181	.228	.123
Gender	14.931	1;324	.251	.618	.002	-	-	-	-	-
Value incongruence	106.413	34;324	1.825	.036	.617	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Value incongruence	-	-	-	-	-	57.726	26;324	.943	.547	.070
Gender	10.601	1;282	.201	.656	.003	-	-	-	-	-
Competence self-evaluation	144.993	56;282	2.709	.000	.752	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Competence self-evaluation	-	-	-	-	-	53.709	46;282	1.088	.332	.151

b. Gender and school-level factors

A Two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effects of two-level Gender variable and the six school-level factors (i.e., Workload, Student Misbehavior, Over-sized Classes, Mixed-ability Classes, Teaching Materials and Social Support) on PA burnout subscale. The results showed no significant interaction between Gender and any school-level factors, but significant main effects were observed for Gender-and-Workload, only Student Misbehavior with Gender, and only Gender with Mixed-ability Classes. See Table 4.54.

Table 4.54.

Interaction of Gender Variable and School-level Factors on PA

Gender & School-level factors	Two-way ANOVA									
	Main Effect					Interaction Effect				
	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2
Gender	580.481	1;353	10.282	.002	.107	-	-	-	-	-
Workload	107.846	17;353	2.156	.047	.632	-	-	-	-	-
Gender * Workload	-	-	-	-	-	47.583	14;353	.745	.729	.029
Gender	193.242	1;325	3.579	.061	.034	-	-	-	-	-
Student misbehavior	100.892	31;325	2.111	.021	.681	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Student misbehavior	-	-	-	-	-	47.241	28;325	.748	.821	.061
Gender	197.768	1;364	2.928	.092	.046	-	-	-	-	-
Oversized classes	117.504	10;364	1.550	.250	.608	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Oversized classes	-	-	-	-	-	75.822	10;364	1.202	.288	.032
Gender	424.977	1;364	7.585	.012	.280	-	-	-	-	-
Mixed-ability classes	127.876	10;364	2.389	.093	.705	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Mixed-ability classes	-	-	-	-	-	53.532	10;364	.844	.586	.023
Gender	243.593	1;321	3.417	.069	.053	-	-	-	-	-
Teaching materials	93.881	35;321	1.245	.256	.541	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Teaching materials	-	-	-	-	-	78.336	28;321	1.301	.146	.102
Gender	117.763	1;307	1.788	.186	.028	-	-	-	-	-
Social support	105.872	43;307	1.575	.068	.603	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Social support	-	-	-	-	-	68.505	34;307	1.151	.265	.113

c. Gender and administrational factors

A Two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effects of two-level Gender variable and the four administrational factors (i.e., Teacher Autonomy, Reward Adequacy, Fairness and Fringe Benefits) on PA burnout subscale. The results for the ANOVA indicated insignificant main effects for Gender (F (1,246) = 1.810, P = 0.183, P> 0.05; η^2= 0.026) and Fairness (F (89, 246) = 0.827, P = 0.783, P> 0.05; η^2= 0.597), but a significant interaction between Gender and Fairness (F (49,246) = 1.696, P = 0.005, P< 0.05; η^2= 0.253). Eta square value (i.e., η^2) showed a large proportion of variance of PA to the interaction. However, the results showed no significant interaction between Gender*Teacher Autonomy, Gender*Reward Adequacy, and Gender*Fringe Benefits. See Table 4.55.

Table 4.55.

Interaction of Gender Variable and Administrational Factors on PA

Gender & Administrational factors	Two-way ANOVA									
	Main Effect					Interaction Effect				
	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2
Gender	206.844	1;306	3.267	.075	.042	-	-	-	-	-
Teacher autonomy	99.505	44;306	1.536	.075	.589	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Teacher autonomy	-	-	-	-	-	66.043	34;306	1.129	.291	.111
Gender	9.979	1;345	.131	.720	.003	-	-	-	-	-
Reward adequacy	65.132	22;345	.794	.702	.460	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Reward adequacy	-	-	-	-	-	84.312	17;345	1.314	.181	.061
Gender	152.725	1;246	1.810	.183	.026	-	-	-	-	-
Fairness	76.686	89;246	.827	.783	.597	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Fairness	-	-	-	-	-	93.107	49;246	1.696	.005	.253
Gender	75.902	1;365	1.162	.288	.031	-	-	-	-	-
Fringe benefits	120.097	10;365	1.804	.183	.642	-	-	-	-	-
Gender* Fringe benefits	-	-	-	-	-	66.720	9;365	1.042	.406	.025

4.3.4.3. Interaction of Age Variable and Factors on DP

The section represents the statistical analyses of the interaction effects of the age variable and the individual, school-level and administrational factors on DP burnout processes.

a. Age and individual factors

A Two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effects of six-level Age variable and the four individual factors (i.e., Professional self-esteem, Teacher Self-efficacy, Value Incongruence and Competence Self-evaluation) on DP burnout subscale as the dependent variable. The results for the ANOVA demonstrated an insignificant main effect for Age (F (5,206) = 0.839, P = 0.524, P> 0.05; η^2= 0.022), a significant main effect for Professional Self-esteem (F (49,206) = 3.982, P = 0.000, P< 0.05; η^2= 0.533), and a significant interaction between Age and Professional Self-esteem (F (125,206) = 1.339, P = 0.032, P< 0.05; η^2= 0.448). Eta square value (i.e., η^2) demonstrated a large proportion of variance of DP to the interaction. See Table 4.56.

On the other hand, the results also depicted no significant interaction between Age*Teacher self-efficacy, Age*Value Incongruence, and Age*Competence Self-valuation, but significant main effects were observed for Age-and-Value Incongruence, only Teacher Self-efficacy with Age, and only Competence Self-evaluation with Age. See Table 4.56.

Table 4.56.

Interaction of Age Variable and Individual Factors on DP

Age & Individual factors	Two-way ANOVA									
	Main Effect					Interaction Effect				
	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2
Age	22.052	5;206	.839	.524	.022	-	-	-	-	-
Professional self-esteem	106.085	49;206	3.982	.000	.533	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Professional self-esteem	-	-	-	-	-	28.026	125;206	1.339	.032	.448
Age	11.804	5;229	.438	.821	.012	-	-	-	-	-
Teacher self-efficacy	90.154	45;229	3.327	.000	.482	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Teacher self-efficacy	-	-	-	-	-	27.911	106;229	1.150	.193	.347
Age	72.874	5;263	2.761	.019	.057	-	-	-	-	-
Value incongruence	55.154	34;263	2.080	.001	.233	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Value incongruence	-	-	-	-	-	21.911	83;263	.626	.994	.165
Age	39.916	5;194	1.459	.205	.036	-	-	-	-	-
Competence self-evaluation	81.843	56;194	2.963	.000	.489	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Competence self-evaluation	-	-	-	-	-	28.385	130;194	1.193	.132	.444

b. Age and school-level factors

A Two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effects of six-level Age variable and the six school-level factors (i.e., Workload, Student Misbehavior, Over-sized Classes, Mixed-ability Classes, Teaching Materials and Social Support) on DP burnout subscale. The results for the ANOVA demonstrated an insignificant main effect for Age (F (5,230) = 0.853, P = 0.514, P> 0.05; η^2= 0.025), a significant main effect for Social Support (F (43,230) = 1.834, P = 0.004, P< 0.05; η^2= 0.339), and a significant interaction between Age and Social Support (F (107,230) = 1.465, P = 0.009, P< 0.05; η^2= 0.405). Eta square value (i.e., η^2) demonstrated a large proportion of variance of DP to the interaction. See Table 4.57.

Conversely, the results revealed no significant interaction between Age*Workload, Age*Student Misbehavior, Age*Over-sized Classes, Age*Mixed-ability Classes, Age*Teaching Materials, but significant main effects were observed for only Workload

with Age, only Over-sized Classes with Age, only Age with Mixed-ability Classes, and only Teaching Materials with Age. See Table 4.57.

Table 4.57.

Interaction of Age Variable and School-level Factors on DP

Age & School-level factors	Two-way ANOVA									
	Main Effect					Interaction Effect				
	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2	Mean	df	F	Sig.	η^2
Age	45.969	5;305	1.253	.289	.052	-	-	-	-	-
Workload	76.709	17;305	2.109	.010	.224	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Workload	-	-	-	-	-	39.999	58;305	1.300	.084	.198
Age	71.860	5;263	2.071	.071	.058	-	-	-	-	-
Student misbehavior	43.950	31;263	1.262	.180	.207	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Student misbehavior	-	-	-	-	-	35.448	86;263	1.071	.337	.259
Age	43.352	5;333	1.183	.326	.076	-	-	-	-	-
Oversized classes	104.329	10;333	2.909	.003	.240	-	-	-	-	-
Age * Oversized classes	-	-	-	-	-	39.443	37;333	1.263	.147	.123
Age	70.406	5;328	2.599	.028	.091	-	-	-	-	-
Mixed-ability classes	45.012	10;328	1.758	.081	.169	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Mixed-ability classes	-	-	-	-	-	22.817	42;328	.652	.954	.077
Age	52.465	5;254	1.494	.195	.048	-	-	-	-	-
Teaching materials	56.432	35;254	1.621	.024	.261	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Teaching materials	-	-	-	-	-	37.682	91;254	1.313	.051	.320
Age	30.016	5;230	.853	.514	.025	-	-	-	-	-
Social support	65.378	43;230	1.834	.004	.339	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Social support	-	-	-	-	-	38.548	107;230	1.465	.009	.405

c. Age and administrational factors

A Two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effects of the six-level Age variable and the four administrational factors (i.e., Teacher Autonomy, Reward Adequacy, Fairness and Fringe Benefits) on DP burnout subscale. The results for the ANOVA indicated insignificant main effects for Age (F (5,156) = .874, P = 0.500, P> 0.05; ŋ2= 0.025) and Fairness (F (89,156) = 1.102, P = 0.302, P> 0.05; ŋ2= 0.414), but

a significant interaction between Age and Fairness (F (135,156) = 1.535, P = 0.005, P< 0.05; ŋ2= 0.570). Eta square value (i.e., ŋ2) showed a large proportion of variance of DP to the interaction. See Table 4.58.

Lastly, the results revealed no significant interaction between Age*Teacher Autonomy, Age*Reward Adequacy, and Age*Fringe benefits, but significant main effects were observed for only Age with Teacher Autonomy and only Fringe Benefits with Age. See Table 4.58.

Table 4.58.

Interaction of Age Variable and Administrational Factors on DP

Age & Administrational factors	Two-way ANOVA									
	Main Effect					Interaction Effect				
	Mean	df	F	Sig.	$ŋ^2$	Mean	df	F	Sig.	$ŋ^2$
Age	83.853	5;226	2.348	.043	.060	-	-	-	-	-
Teacher autonomy	39.648	44;226	1.110	.312	.210	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Teacher autonomy	-	-	-	-	-	37.666	110;226	1.220	.107	.373
Age	77.533	5;284	2.081	.071	.067	-	-	-	-	-
Reward adequacy	36.014	22;284	.953	.528	.148	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Reward adequacy	-	-	-	-	-	39.530	74;284	1.203	.146	.239
Age	31.829	5;156	.874	.500	.025	-	-	-	-	-
Fairness	42.470	89;156	1.102	.302	.416	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Fairness	-	-	-	-	-	38.754	135;156	1.535	.005	.570
Age	52.262	5;329	1.714	.137	.069	-	-	-	-	-
Fringe benefits	60.364	10;329	1.968	.042	.134	-	-	-	-	-
Age* Fringe benefits	-	-	-	-	-	28.363	41;329	.835	.755	.094

4.4. ANALYSIS OF QUALITATIVE DATA

The qualitative data for Iranian and Turkish participants were analyzed based on the framework of the quantitative part (See part 3.6). Those replies outside this framework were mentioned for further attention or study.

4.4.1. Iranian Qualitative Data

The results of qualitative study for Iranian participants were summarized as:

a. Question one: Could you name at least 5 personal, 5 school-level, and 5 administrational factors that most dissatisfy you as an EFL teacher? (See appendix G)

Table 4.59.

Factors in Qualitative Study for Iranian Teachers

Individual factors	F	%	School-level factors	F	%	Administrational factors	F	%
Professional self-esteem	6	40.0	Workload	4	10.0	Teacher autonomy	9	26.5
Teacher self-efficacy	4	26.7	Student misbehavior	9	22.5	Reward adequacy	10	29.4
Value incongruence	2	13.3	Oversized classes	6	15.0	Fairness	10	29.4
Competence self-evaluation	3	20.0	Mixed-ability classes	6	15.0	Fringe benefits	5	14.7
-	-	-	Teaching materials	10	25.0	-	-	-
-	-	-	Social support	5	12.5	-	-	-
Total	15	100.0		40	100.0		34	100.0

There were a few most frequent dissatisfaction factors which were assigned out of the framework. They are: physical environment of schools, student shyness, social support from organizational perspective, job insecurity, forcing teachers to assign high marks for low achievement students, lack of student basic knowledge or inadequate preparedness of students for upper levels, assigning inexperienced and narrow minded teachers to important positions, having completely a negative attitudes to teaching and teachers, and focusing on negative sides of teachers.

b. Question two: On the whole, which of these factors most dissatisfy you with your job?

Personal □ School-level □ Administrational □

The result revealed that all subjects focused on administrational factors as their source of job dissatisfaction (Administrational► *F*= 10; *P*= 100.0 %).

c. Question three: Could you name any individual, school-level, and administrational factors that increase your interest to your job?

Most of participants replied to the question through single sentences such as:
1. I enjoy imparting knowledge to others.
2. Though the condition is not satisfactory, it forgives me emotional security.
3. Anyway, I can save my social status and dignity through the job.
4. I like my job because I am involved in decision-making processes and through which I can influence others.
5. When students take responsibility for themselves, I enjoy my work.
6. Working with young people makes me happy.
7. I feel sympathy to human beings.
8. I am interested in learning English.
10. This job helps me to save my self-esteem and self-efficacy.
11. Are there other jobs to do these days? I have to like my job.
12. I am eager to read stories in English.
13. Student achievement makes me happy.
14. I have to do something, and teaching is one best job, I think.
15. What I earn here is Halal. I hate bribery which is popular in other jobs.

4.4.2. Turkish Qualitative Data

The results of qualitative study for Turkish participants were summarized as:

a. Question one

Table 4.60.

Factors in Qualitative Study for Turkish Teachers

Individual factors	F	%	School-level factors	F	%	Administrational factors	F	%
Professional self-esteem	4	57.1	Workload	8	22.2	Teacher autonomy	9	34.6
Teacher self-efficacy	2	28.6	Student misbehavior	9	25	Reward adequacy	8	30.8
Value incongruence	1	14.3	Oversized classes	4	11.1	Fairness	4	15.4
Competence self-evaluation	-	-	Mixed-ability classes	2	5.6	Fringe benefits	5	19.2
-	-	-	Teaching materials	7	19.4	-	-	-
-	-	-	Social support	6	16.7	-	-	-
Total	7	100.0		39	100.0		26	100.0

There were a few most frequent dissatisfaction factors which were recognized out of the framework. They are: social support from organizational perspective, lack of student basic knowledge or inadequate preparedness of students for upper levels, blaming only teachers for low student achievement, student expectation for giving high mark for low performance, red tape, reduction in teaching hours, and improper sharing of educational equipment.

b. Question two

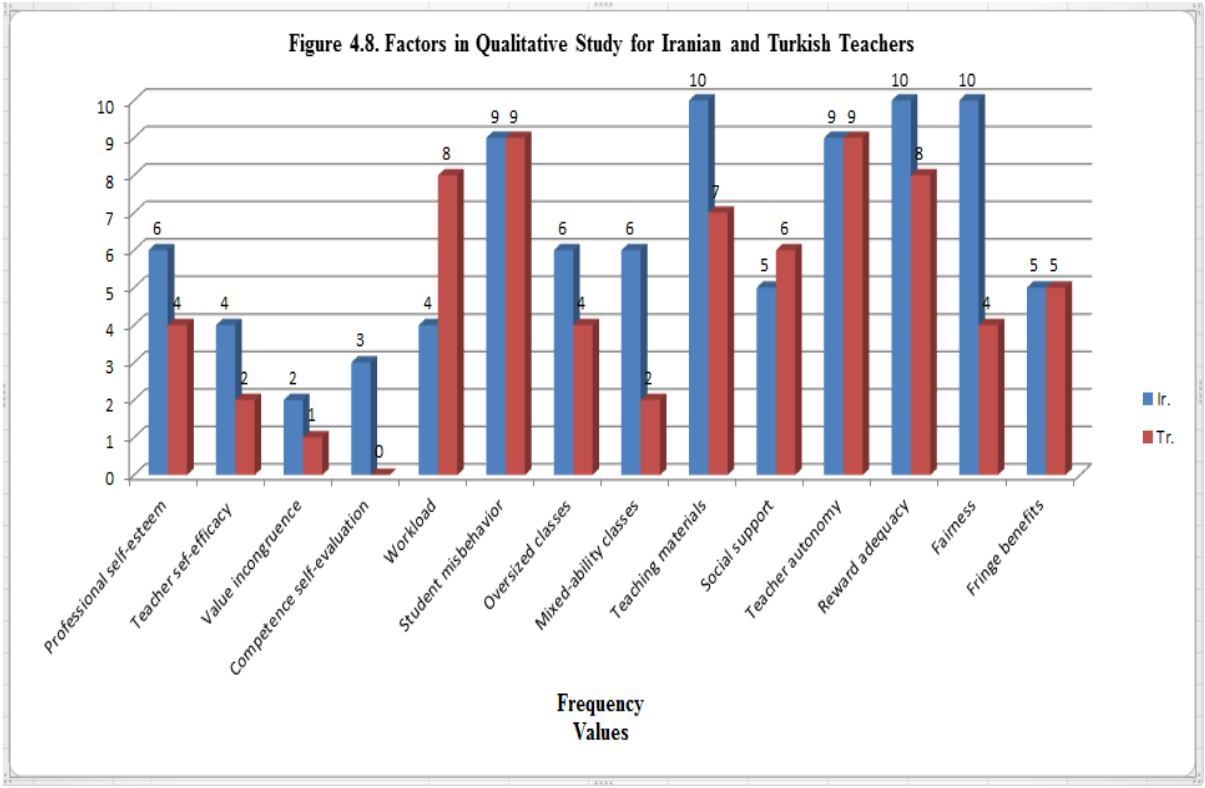
The results revealed that most subjects focused on school-level factors as their source of job dissatisfaction (School-level ►*F*= 7, *P*= 70.0 %), while three participants concentrated on administrational factors (Administrational► *F*= 3; *P*= 30.0 %).

c. Question three

1. I enjoy this job because there is fairness.
2. I have very close friends here, so I enjoy being with them.
3. When students learn, I enjoy my work.
4. I am interested in traveling during the summer.
5. I am eager to speak English.

6. Teaching is much interesting any way.
7. I don't have to go work each day.
8. This job makes me able to pass my knowledge and understanding on young generation.

Figure 4.8 also illustrates comparatively the frequency values of Iranian and Turkish teachers for the fourteen individual, school-level, and administrational factors that dissatisfy them with their job and finally lead them to EE, DP, and PA burnout.



4.5. CONCLUSION

Chapter four presented the statistical findings of the study by introducing the participants through their frequency and percentage values in the areas of (a) nationality, (b) gender, (c) age, (d) marital status, (e) academic level, (f) years of teaching experience, and (g) employment status. Moreover, employing the Maslach,

Jackson, and Leiter's (1996) burnout model, the burnout scores for EE, DP, and PA were computed for Iranian and Turkish teachers as well as descriptive statistics were employed to compute the summative scores of EE, DP, and PA to report the overall burnout perceptions of the participants. Taking the three subscales of teacher burnout (i.e., EE, DP, and PA) as the dependent variables and the demographic variables of the participants (i.e., nationality, gender, age, marital status, academic level, years of teaching experience and employment status) as independent ones, t-test and One-Way NANOVA analyses were followed to see the differences between the groups.

Additionally, using multiple regression statistical analysis, three types of teacher burnout sources (i.e., *four individual, six school-level* and *four administrational* factors) as the independent variables and each burnout subscale (i.e., EE, DP and PA) as the dependent variable were entered into the model to see to what extent these burnout processes would be better predicted by these fourteen factors or their dimensions. Further, in completion of analyses for research questions two and three, the Two-Way NANOVA analyses were done to determine interaction effects of the socio-demographic variables and the individual, school-level, and administrational factors on EE, DP and PA burnout processes. Finally, the qualitative data for Iranian and Turkish participants were analyzed based on the framework of the quantitative part.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter represents the discussions of statistical findings of the study. To get rid of complexity, they were presented based on the research questions. First, the results of exploratory statistics for the participants' perceived levels of job burnout were discussed to answer the first research question. Second, the discussions of findings for significant differences between EE, DP and PA burnout subscales and the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants were demonstrated to reply the second research question. Third, the results of the predictors of EE, DP and PA burnout processes were discussed to answer the third research question. Fourth, the outcomes of interaction effects between the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants and individual, school-level, and administrational factors on EE, DP, and PA burnout processes were discussed to find answers to the fourth research question. Finally, the discussions of the qualitative data were offered to answer the fifth research question.

5.2. DISCUSSION OF THE QUANTITATIVE STUDY

The significant findings were discussed here to find answers to the four research questions which were the objectives of the quantitative study.

5.2.1. General Burnout Perceptions of Iranian and Turkish Teachers

The percentage scores of EE, DP and PA subscales revealed that Turkish teachers perceive more EE burnout than Iranian teachers (High Level ► Ir. = 28.7 %; High► Tr. = 38.5 %), Iranian teachers perceive more PA than Turkish teachers (High Level ►Ir. = 43.9 %; High ►Tr. = 39.7 %), and Iranian and Turkish teachers perceive DP burnout almost equally (High Level ►Ir. = 21.3 %; High Level ►Tr. = 21.2 %). This implies that Turkish teachers feel more drained from their job than Iranian teaches because of feeling emotional exhaustion and decline in their sense of competence and/or

lack of successful achievement with their clients. This may be attributed to the demanding EFL programs in Turkish context or lack of seriousness of Turkish teaches to take responsibility for the work they do. Moreover, the percentage scores of overall burnout showed that the majority of Iranian and Turkish teachers are suffering from moderate level of burnout (Moderate Level ► Ir. = 60.0 %; Moderate level ► Tr. = 74.4 %), where burnout perception of Turkish teachers is greater than that of Iranian teachers. Thus, the first research question was answered.

5.2.2. The Socio-demographic Variables and Burnout Subscales

The results of the seven socio-demographic variables with burnout processes of EE, DP and PA were summarized in table 5.1. The findings regarding the *Nationality* variable revealed that there was statistically slight significant difference between the Iranian and Turkish groups only in the subscale of EE, but not in the subscales of DP and PA. The mean scores of Iranian (Mean= 19.53) and Turkish (Mean= 23.57) teachers showed that the Turkish teachers' mean score was greater than that of Iranian ones. As mentioned above (See part 5.2.1), this implies that Turkish teachers feel emotionally drained from their job and are unable to give of themselves psychologically more than that of Iranian teachers. This may be attributed to the demanding EFL programs in Turkish context or simply to Turkish teachers' perceptions they work hard because Turkish teachers offer 15-hour obligatory teaching per week, while Iranian teachers offer 24-hour obligatory teaching per week with a low amount of salary than that of Turkish teachers.

With regard to the role of *Gender* variable in burnout processes of EE, DP and PA, the findings demonstrated that there was statistically partial significant difference between the male and female groups only in the subscale of PA, but not in the subscales of EE and DP. The scrutiny of mean scores of male (Mean= 31.74) and female (Mean= 33.87) teachers showed that the female teachers' mean score was greater than male teachers. This implies that females feel more competence in their job, feel more success in achieving a satisfactory result with their clients, and take responsibility for their job; therefore, they perceive less PA burnout than males. This may be attributed to the female teachers' seriousness in handling their job.

The findings with the *Age* variable also demonstrated slight significant difference between the age groups of '25 and below' (Mean=11.86, SD = 8.10) and '41 to 45' (Mean=6.37, SD = 5.46) only in the subscale of DP, not in EE and PA subscales. As shown, the mean score of the '25 and below' age group is greater than that of the '41 to 45' age group. This means that the young age group (i.e., '25 and below') perceives more DP burnout than the old age group (i.e., '41 to 45'). That is, the young age group depersonalizes their students more than the old age group or feels more cynical and uncaring towards their students in comparison with the old age one. This may be attributed to the inexperience of this age group in behaving with their students or to their inability in handling work problems properly which finally results in callous responses towards their students.

Finally, the findings for the *marital status*, *academic level*, *teaching experience* and *employment status* of the participants were not statistically significant with the three subscales of EE, DP and PA, that is, these variables were neutral to burnout processes in this study because the groups of each variable had equally been affected by the EE, DP and PA burnout processes - whether positively or negatively. The second research question was answered by reminding that three of the demographic variables (i.e., Nationality, Gender, and Age) were significant in EE, DP, and PA burnout processes, whereas, four ones (i.e., Marital Status, Academic Level, Teaching Experience and Employment Status) were not.

Table 5.1.

Summary of Significant and Insignificant Variables in Burnout Processes

Variables	EE	DP	PA	η^2	In favor of
1. Nationality	+	-	-	S	Tr.
2.Gender	-	-	+	S	Fe.
3. Age	-	+	-	S	25≤ ✓/ 41-45
4. Marital status	-	-	-	-	-
5. Academic level	-	-	-	-	-
6. Teaching experience	-	-	-	-	-
7. Employment status	-	-	-	-	-
Sig.	1	1	1	-	-
Non-sig.	6	6	6	-	-

5.2.3. Teacher Burnout Factors

As mentioned before, *four individual*, *six school-level* and *four administrational* factors along with their dimensions were analyzed to see their predictive effects on the burnout processes of EE, DP and PA among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers. To get rid of complexity, the discussions of the findings for each factor were presented separately in the following sections.

5.2.3.1. Individual Factors

The discussions of the four individual factors (i.e., Professional Self-esteem, Teacher Self-efficacy, Value Incongruence, and Competence Self-evaluation) and their dimensions were presented as:

(a) Professional self-esteem

The results of *Professional Self-esteem* showed that there was a significant relationship between the five dimensions of *Professional Self-esteem* (i.e., Satisfaction, Knowledge Development, Practice, Adaptation, and Communication) and the EE, DP and PA subscales among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, that is, these dimensions had appropriately predictive role in the burnout processes (See Table 5.2). The predictive effect of each dimension was as:

- *Satisfaction* was significant in EE, DP and PA processes,
- *Knowledge Development* was significant in PA processes,
- *Practice* was significant in DP and PA processes,
- *Adaptation* was significant in EE and DP processes,
- *Communication* was significant in DP processes.

The findings mean that Iranian and Turkish teachers are suffering from burnout mainly because of lack of enough satisfaction in their job since *Satisfaction* was the dominant significant dimension in predicting EE, DP and PA processes (Beta Sum = 0.916). Moreover, they feel DP burnout as a result of not performing a qualified work (i.e.,

Practice), not embracing new work conditions easily (i.e., Adaptation), and not being able to impart their knowledge and information to the students (i.e., Communication). Their PA perceptions are also affected when they lose their interest in their job (i.e., Satisfaction), when they do not want to learn new things necessary in their job (i.e., Knowledge Development), and when they do not prepare themselves well for their work (i.e., Practice). Finally, inability of them to adopt and adapt to new work conditions (i.e., Adaptation) leads them to emotional exhaustion.

To avoid or control burnout among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers based on the *Professional Self-esteem* factor, however, teachers' satisfaction of their job should mainly be increased. They should also be encouraged to learn new things necessary in their job, to put forward a qualified work performance, and to embrace new work conditions to overcome challenges and problems in their work. Finally, students should be motivated to grasp more from teaching activities to increase teacher satisfaction and self-esteem.

(b) Teacher self-efficacy

The results of *Teacher Self-efficacy* showed that there was a significant relationship between the four dimensions of NTSES (i.e., Instruction, Keeping Discipline, Cooperating with Colleagues and Parents, and Coping with Changes) and the EE, DP and PA subscales among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, while there was no significant relationship between the two dimensions of NTSES (i.e., Adapting Instruction to Individual Needs and Motivating Students) and the EE, DP and PA processes (See Table 5.2). This means that the four dimensions were valid in predicting EE, DP and PA burnout processes, while the other two dimensions were neural to these processes. The predictive effects of the significant dimensions were as:

- *Instruction* was significant in PA processes,
- *Keeping Discipline* was significant in EE, DP and PA processes,
- *Cooperating with Colleagues and Parents* was significant in DP and PA processes,
- *Coping with Changes* was significant in EE, DP and PA processes.

The results mean that Iranian and Turkish teachers are suffering from burnout mainly for their inability to keep discipline among students since *Keeping Discipline* was the dominant significant dimension in predicting EE, DP and PA processes and the most predictive dimension of these processes (Beta Sum = 0.744). Moreover, they feel EE and DP burnout for not being able to adapt themselves to situational changes (i.e., Coping with Changes). Furthermore, lack of enough cooperation between teachers and their colleagues or students' parents causes them to depersonalize their recipients (i.e., Cooperating with Colleagues and Parents). Finally, their PA perceptions are affected when they cannot achieve enough from the instructional goals of the program, when they fail to cooperate well with their colleagues or students' parents, and when they respond negatively to situational changes.

Therefore, to reduce or combat burnout among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers based on the *Teacher Self-efficacy* factor, student discipline should mainly be promoted. The situation should also be set so that maximum goals of the program to be achieved. Moreover, cooperation between teachers and their colleagues or students' parents should be developed to overcome problems in the work environment. Eventually, teachers should be motivated to adapt themselves to situational changes.

(c) Value incongruence

The results of *Value Incongruence* demonstrated a significant relationship between the two dimensions of *Value Incongruence* (i.e., Value Conflict and Goal Meeting) and the EE, DP and PA subscales among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, whereas no significant relationship was observed between the *Value Incongruence* dimension of *Value Change* and any burnout subscales (See Table 5.2). This means that the two dimensions of *Value Incongruence* were valid in predicting EE, DP and PA burnout processes, while the *Value Change* dimension was neural to these processes. The predictive effects of the significant dimensions were as:

- *Value Conflict* was significant in EE processes,
- *Goal Meeting* was significant in EE, DP and PA processes.

As the results showed, *Goal Meeting* was the dominant significant dimension in predicting EE, DP and PA processes and the most predictive dimension of these processes (Beta Sum = 0.781). This finding can be interpreted as: Iranian and Turkish teachers are suffering from burnout mainly because they think their organization cannot meet its mission properly. At last, the gap between their personal values and those of their organization depletes them emotionally and leads them to EE burnout.

Hence, to overcome teacher burnout or control its processes among their employee, Iranian and Turkish educational administrations should put forward mainly vivid mission statements to eradicate uncertainty and misunderstandings, should adjust the administrational values as far as possible to those of their employees, should not act paradoxically with their established values, and should communicate about their values with their employees.

(d) Competence self-evaluation

The results of *Competence Self-evaluation* revealed that there was a significant relationship between the two dimensions of *Competence Self-evaluation* (i.e., Language Knowledge and Professional Competence) and the EE, DP and PA subscales among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, meaning that these dimensions had appropriate predictive role in the burnout processes (See Table 5.2). The predictive effect of each dimension was as:

- *Language Knowledge* was significant in DP and PA processes,
- *Professional Competence* was significant in EE, DP and PA processes.

The findings mean that Iranian and Turkish teachers are suffering from burnout mainly for lack of having enough professional competence in their job since *Professional Competence* was the significant dimension in predicting EE, DP and PA processes (Beta Sum = 1.009), at the same time, it was the most predictive dimension of these processes. Lastly, lack of possessing enough *Language Knowledge* has led Iranian and Turkish teachers to depersonalize their recipients and has affected their PA perceptions.

Therefore, to prevent burnout development among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers based on the *Competence Self-evaluation* factor, teachers should mainly be encouraged to develop their professional competence in areas such as knowledge and understanding of students and their learning, subject knowledge and application, curriculum, the teacher's role, classroom methodology, classroom management, student assessment. Additionally, to combat the DP and PA problems, they should also develop their language knowledge.

Table 5.2.

Summary of Significant and Insignificant Dimensions of Individual Factors in Burnout Processes

Factor	Dimension	EE		DP		PA		Sum of Bata
		Sig.	Beta Rank	Sig.	Beta Rank	Sig.	Beta Rank	
Professional Self-esteem	Satisfaction*	+	1	+	2	+	3	0.916
	Knowledge Development	-	5	-	5	+	1	0.391
	Practice	-	3	+	1	+	2	0.595
	Adaptation	+	2	+	3	-	4	0.396
	Communication	-	4	+	4	-	5	0.285
	Beta Sum	0.856		0.793		0.934		-
Teacher Self-efficacy	Instruction	-	5	-	6	+	4	0.198
	Adapting Instruction to Individual Needs	-	4	-	5	-	6	0.169
	Motivating Students	-	6	-	4	-	5	0.154
	Keeping Discipline*	+	1	+	1	+	3	0.744
	Cooperating with Colleagues and Parents	-	3	+	2	+	1	0.552
	Coping with Changes	+	2	+	3	+	2	0.446
	Beta Sum	0.613		0.731		0.919		-
Value Incongruence	Value Conflict	+	2	-	3	-	3	0.187
	Value Change	-	3	-	2	-	2	0.178
	Goal Meeting*	+	1	+	1	+	1	0.781
	Beta Sum	0.501		0.324		0.321		-
Competence Self-evaluation	Language Knowledge	-	2	+	2	+	2	0.367
	Professional Competence*	+	1	+	1	+	1	1.009
	Beta Sum	0.288		0.548		0.54		-
Sig. N.		7	-	10	-	10	-	-
Non-sig. N.		9	-	6	-	6	-	-

* indicates the dominant dimension in the factor

(e) Individual factors among Iranian and Turkish participants

While Iranian and Turkish groups were considered in a unique group, the results of analyses for *Individual Factors* showed that there was a significant relationship between

the four individual factors (i.e., Professional Self-esteem, Teacher Self-efficacy, Value Incongruence, and Competence Self-evaluation) and the EE, DP and PA subscales among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, which means that the four factors were valid in predicting EE, DP and PA burnout processes (See Table 5.3). The predictive effects of the factors were as:

- *Professional Self-esteem* was significant in EE, DP and PA processes,
- *Teacher Self-efficacy* was significant in PA processes,
- *Value Incongruence* was significant in EE processes,
- *Competence Self-evaluation* was significant in EE and DP processes.

The results mean that Iranian and Turkish teachers are suffering from burnout associated with *Individual Factors* mainly for not possessing satisfactory professional self-esteem in their job since *Professional Self-esteem* was the dominant significant factor in predicting EE, DP and PA processes and the strongest predictive factor of these processes (Beta Sum = 1.263). Furthermore, teachers' sense of value gap between their personal characteristics and those of their administrations and lack of sensing enough linguistic and professional competence in themselves have depleted them emotionally and have led them to EE burnout. Moreover, they depersonalize their recipients, again, for not sensing enough linguistic and professional competence in themselves. Finally, teacher self-efficacy and professional self-esteem insufficiency affects their PA perceptions.

So, to preclude burnout among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, teachers should mainly be encouraged to develop their professional self-esteem. They should also be encouraged to improve their teaching efficacies through applying appropriate approaches and to boost their linguistic and professional knowledge to overcome EE and DP problems. Finally, educational administrations should try to cover the value gap among their employees as far as possible to reduce their emotional exhaustion perceptions.

Table 5.3.

Summary of Significant and Insignificant Factors in Burnout Processes

Type	Factor	EE		DP		PA		Sum of Bata
		Sig.	Beta Rank	Sig.	Beta Rank	Sig.	Beta Rank	
Individual	Professional self-esteem*	+	1	+	1	+	1	1.263
	Teacher Self-efficacy	-	4	-	3	+	2	0.311
	Value Incongruence	+	3	-	4	-	4	0.212
	Competence Self-evaluation	+	2	+	2	-	3	0.557
	Beta Sum	1.006		0.603		0.734		-
School-level	Workload	+	4	+	4	-	6	0.393
	Student Misbehavior	+	3	-	5	+	1	0.527
	Over-sized Classes	-	5	-	6	+	3	0.289
	Mixed-ability Classes	+	1	+	2	+	5	0.556
	Teaching Materials	-	6	+	3	+	4	0.394
	Social Support*	+	2	+	1	+	2	0.729
	Beta Sum	0.798		0.982		1.108		-
Administrational	Teacher Autonomy	+	3	+	2	+	2	0.801
	Reward Adequacy	+	2	-	4	+	3	0.615
	Fairness*	+	1	+	1	+	1	1.013
	Fringe Benefits	-	4	-	3	-	4	0.199
	Beta Sum	0.882		0.755		0.991		-
Sig. N.		10	-	8	-	10	-	-
Non-sig. N.		4	-	6	-	4	-	-

* indicates the dominant predictive factor

While Iranian and Turkish groups were contrasted, the predictive effects of the factors were as:

- *Professional Self-esteem* was significant in EE, DP and PA processes of both Iranian and Turkish groups,
- *Teacher Self-efficacy* was significant in PA processes of both groups,
- *Value Incongruence* was significant in EE processes of both Iranian and Turkish groups, and DP processes of only Turkish group,
- *Competence Self-evaluation* was significant in DP processes of both groups.

The contrasted findings associated with *Individual Factors* displayed that there were no differences between Iranian and Turkish groups in prediction of EE, DP, and PA burnout subscales by *Professional Self-esteem*, *Teacher Self-efficacy*, and *Competence Self-evaluation* factors because the significant or insignificant role of the factors in

predicting EE, DP, and PA subscales was identical. Value Incongruence had also a common predictive role in EE and PA processes of Iranian and Turkish groups, except for DP subscale which was significant only in the case of Turkish participants, meaning that Turkish teachers also depersonalize their recipients as a result of value gap between themselves and their administration.

In addition, the scrutiny of Beta values revealed that *Professional Self-esteem* was the strongest predictive factor in EE processes of Iranian teachers (Beta= -.449), while it was *Value Incongruence* in EE processes of Turkish teachers (Beta= -.396), meaning that Iranian and Turkish teachers are depleted emotionally for not sensing professional self-esteem in themselves and sensing value incongruence in their administration, respectively. The values also showed that the strongest predictive factor in DP processes of Iranian and Turkish teachers was *Competence Self-evaluation* (Ir. ► Beta= -.305 and Tr. ► Beta= -.298), meaning that Iranian and Turkish teachers depersonalize their students because of not possessing enough competence. Finally, the findings demonstrated that *Professional Self-esteem* was again the strongest predictive factor in PA processes of Iranian teachers (Beta= .419), whereas, it was *Teacher Self-efficacy* in PA processes of Turkish teachers (Beta= 394). That is, lack of enough professional self-esteem sense among Iranian teachers and lack of adequate teacher self-efficacy sense among Turkish teachers affects their accomplishment perceptions (See Tables 4.21, 4.22, 4.23 and Figure 4.5).

In short, the dominant factor in burnout processes among Iranian teachers was *Professional Self-esteem* (Beta sum = 1.135) and among Turkish teachers was *Value Incongruence* (Beta sum = 0.704). Therefore, Iranian teachers should mainly develop their professional self-esteem to combat burnout, while Turkish teachers should mainly try to cover the value gap between themselves and their administration, or their administration should take step in this regard. See Table 5.4 and Figure 4.5.

Table 5.4.

Summary of Significant and Insignificant Factors in Burnout Processes across Ir. & Tr. Groups

	EE				DP				PA				BS	
	Ir.		Tr.		Ir.		Tr.		Ir.		Tr.		Ir.	Tr.
Factor	Sig.	BR	Sig.	BR	Sig.	BR	Sig.	BR	Sig.	BR	Sig.	BR		
1. PS*	+	1	+	4	+	2	+	3	+	1	+	2	1.135	0.695
2. TS	-	4	-	3	-	3	-	4	+	2	+	1	0.383	0.657
3. VI**	+	2	+	1	-	4	+	2	-	3	-	3	0.353	0.704
4. CS	-	3	-	2	+	1	+	1	-	4	-	4	0.452	0.525
BS	0.876		0.911		0.697		0.903		0.75		0.767		-	-
5. W*	+	3	-	4	+	1	-	6	+	4	-	6	0.633	0.218
6. SM	+	4	-	5	-	6	-	5	+	1	+	2	0.609	0.433
7. OC	-	6	+	1	+	4	-	2	+	2	-	3	0.339	0.53
8. MC	+	1	-	3	+	5	-	3	+	3	-	4	0.536	0.293
9. TM	-	5	-	6	+	2	-	4	+	6	-	5	0.392	0.212
10. SS**	+	2	+	2	+	3	+	1	+	5	+	1	0.528	1.198
BS	0.792		1.072		1.113		1.132		1.132		0.915		-	-
11. TA**	-	3	+	1	-	3	+	1	+	3	+	1	0.465	1.117
12. RA	+	1	+	2	-	2	-	3	+	2	-	3	0.807	0.452
13. F*	+	2	-	3	+	1	-	2	+	1	-	2	1.092	0.46
14. FB	-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4	0.181	0.077
BS	0.615		1.03		0.733		0.52		1.197		0.556		-	-
Sig. N	8	-	6	-	8	-	5	-	11	-	5	-	-	-
Non-sig. N	6	-	8	-	6	-	9	-	3	-	9	-	-	-

* (Iran)/** (Turkey) indicates the dominant predictive factor in the group.

- Individual Factors: PS= Professional self-esteem, TS= Teacher Self-efficacy, VI -Value Incongruence, and CS= Competence Self-evaluation.

- School-level Factors: W =Workload, SM = Student Misbehavior, OC = Over-sized Classes, MC = Mixed-ability Classes, TM = Teaching Materials, and SS = Social Support.

- Administrational Factors: TA = Teacher Autonomy, RA = Reward Adequacy, F = Fairness, and FB = Fringe Benefits.

BS = Beta Sum; BR = Beta Rank

5.2.3.2. School-level Factors

The discussions of the six school-level factors (i.e., Workload, Student misbehavior, Over-sized classes, Mixed-ability classes, Teaching materials and Social support) and their dimensions were presented as (Reminding that Over-sized classes and Mixed-ability classes were mono-dimensional factors, so, there was no discussion of their dimensions):

(a) Workload

The results of *Workload* demonstrated a significant relationship between the two dimensions of *Workload* (i.e., Time Pressure and Work Amount) and the DP and PA subscales among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, whereas no significant relationship was observed between the *Workload* dimensions and EE processes. This means that the two dimensions of *Workload* were valid in predicting DP and PA burnout processes, while they were neural to EE processes (See Table 5.5). The predictive effects of the dimensions were as:

- *Time Pressure* was significant in DP processes,
- *Work Amount* was significant in PA processes.

The findings showed that none of the *Workload* dimensions was dominant in predicting the subscales of EE, DP and PA. But, *Time pressure* was the strongest predictive dimension of the burnout processes among Iranian and Turkish teachers (Beta Sum = 0.355). So, it can be inferred that lack of having enough time to complete tasks has caused teachers to commit depersonalization of their recipients. Moreover, the amount of work was a reason in affecting their PA processes. Thus, time of accomplishing work activities within and out-of classrooms should be increased and work amount, on the other hand, should be decreased to overcome DP and PA burnout, respectively.

(b) Student misbehavior

The results of *Student Misbehavior* showed that there was a significant relationship between the three dimensions of *Student Misbehavior* (i.e., Student Discipline, Student Apathy, and Student Achievement) and the EE, DP and PA subscales among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, which means that the dimensions were valid in predicting EE, DP and PA burnout processes (See Table 5.5). The predictive effects of the dimensions were as:

- *Student Discipline* was significant in EE processes,
- *Student Apathy* was significant in DP processes,

- *Student Achievement* was significant in DP and PA processes.

The results showed that none of the dimensions was dominant in predicting EE, DP, and PA processes of Iranian and Turkish teachers, but *Student Achievement* was the strongest predictor of Iranian and Turkish burnout processes (Beta Sum = 0.513). That is to say, students' failure to achieve teacher-defined learning outcomes not only can affect teacher performance and accomplishment but it can also inspire them to have negative attitudes toward them. Moreover, student discipline was an affective reason in leading the teachers to emotional exhaustion, and students' negative attitudes toward learning/teaching activities have caused their teachers to commit depersonalization. So, the educational experts and teachers should mainly cooperate together to increase student achievement and discipline in order to combat burnout.

(c) Teaching materials

The results of *Teaching Materials* demonstrated a significant relationship between the two dimensions of *Teaching Materials* (i.e., Textbook Suitability and Material Availability) and the EE and DP subscales among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, whereas no significant relationship was observed between the *Teaching Materials* dimensions and PA processes. This means that the two dimensions of *Teaching Materials* were valid in predicting EE and DP burnout processes, while they were neural in PA processes. The predictive effects of the dimensions were as:

- *Textbook suitability* was significant in DP processes,
- *Material availability* was significant in EE processes.

The findings showed that none of the dimensions was dominant in predicting EE, DP and PA processes of Iranian and Turkish teachers, but *Textbooks Suitability* was the strongest predictive dimension of the burnout processes (Beta Sum = 0.455). This means that the present high-school textbooks in Iran and Turkey are not enough suitable and practicable because this matter has caused the teachers to response to their students with callous behaviors. Furthermore, lack of having additional teaching materials has led the teachers to emotional exhaustion for they rely wholly on textbooks and cannot

present the lessons well without employing supporting materials. Accordingly, suitability of the textbooks should be increased to overcome DP burnout, and teachers should be allowed to use additional teaching materials for better presentation of the lessons to control teachers' emotional depletion.

(d) Social support

The results of *Social Support* showed that there was a significant relationship between the four dimensions of *Social Support* (i.e., Guidance, Reassurance of Worth, Social Integration, and Attachment) and the EE, DP and PA subscales among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, whereas, no significant relationship was observed between the social support dimensions of *Reliable Alliance* and *Opportunity for Nurturance* and any burnout processes (See Table 5.5). This means that the four dimensions of *Social Support* were valid in predicting EE, DP and PA burnout processes, while *Reliable Alliance* and *Opportunity for Nurturance* dimensions were neural to these processes. The predictive effects of the significant dimensions were as:

- *Guidance* was significant in EE processes,
- *Reassurance of Worth* was significant in EE, DP, and PA processes,
- *Social Integration* was significant in PA processes,
- *Attachment* was significant in EE, DP, and PA processes.

The results mean that Iranian and Turkish teachers are suffering from burnout mainly for not sensing emotional closeness with others to save their security since *Attachment* was the dominant significant dimension in EE, DP and PA processes and the strongest predictor of these processes (Beta sum = 0.75). Furthermore, they feel emotional exhaustion for lack of positive reassurance of their knowledge and work (i.e., Reassurance of Worth) and for not having access to advice and information to handle problems (i.e., Guidance). Likewise, they depersonalize their recipients for lack of work reassurance. Finally, their work accomplishment has been affected when they do not sense emotional closeness with others in the workplace, when they are not participated in group activities, and when their work is not reassured positively.

To overcome teacher burnout or control burnout processes among Iranian and Turkish teachers at *Social Support* level, a positive work environment should mainly be created so that they can sense a secure positive bond with others at the workplace, especially with colleagues and administrators. Moreover, their knowledge, skills, talent, and special work should be recognized and valued so that they can feel that they are respected. They should also be provided with enough advice and information about work and work-related problems for handling their emotional exhaustion. Finally, they should be participated in team work activities to increase their work accomplishment.

Table 5.5.

Summary of Significant and Insignificant Dimensions of School-level Factors in Burnout Processes

Factor	Dimension	EE		DP		PA		Sum of Bata
		Sig.	Beta Rank	Sig.	Beta Rank	Sig.	Beta Rank	
Workload	Time pressure*	-	1	+	1	-	2	0.355
	Amount of work	-	2	-	2	+	1	0.271
	Beta sum	0.203		0.301		0.122		-
Student Misbehavior	Student discipline	+	1	-	3	-	3	0.392
	Student apathy	-	3	+	1	-	2	0.185
	Low student achievement*	-	2	+	2	+	1	0.513
	Beta sum	0.419		0.333		0.338		-
Oversized Classes	This is a mono-dimensional factor.							
Mixed-ability Classes	This is a mono-dimensional factor.							
Teaching Materials	Textbooks Suitability *	-	2	+	1	-	1	0.455
	Material availability	+	1	-	2	-	2	0.259
	Beta sum	0.26		0.306		0.148		-
Social Support	Guidance	+	3	-	4	-	6	0.227
	Reliable alliance	-	6	-	5	-	5	0.134
	Reassurance of worth	+	2	+	2	+	3	0.488
	Social integration	-	4	-	6	+	2	0.281
	Attachment*	+	1	+	1	+	1	0.75
	Opportunity for nurturance	-	5	-	3	-	4	0.239
	Beta sum	0.779		0.684		0.656		-
Sig. N.		5	-	6	-	5	-	-
Non-sig. N.		8	-	7	-	8	-	-

* indicates the dominant dimension in the factor

(e) School-level factors among Iranian and Turkish participants

The results of school-level factors showed that there was a significant relationship between the six school-level factors (i.e., Workload, Student Misbehavior, Over-sized Classes, Mixed-ability Classes, Teaching Materials and Social Support) and the EE, DP and PA subscales when Iranian and Turkish groups were considered in a unique group, that is, the six factors were valid in predicting EE, DP and PA burnout processes (See Table 5.3). The predictive effects of the factors were as:

- *Workload* was significant in EE and DP processes,
- *Student Misbehavior* was significant in EE and PA processes,
- *Over-sized Classes* was significant in PA processes,
- *Mixed-ability Classes* was significant in EE, DP, and PA processes,
- *Teaching Materials* was significant in DP and PA processes,
- *Social Support* was significant in EE, DP, and PA processes.

The results mean that Iranian and Turkish teachers are suffering from burnout associated with *School-level Factors* mainly due to social support insufficiency at the workplace since *Social Support* was the dominant significant factor in EE, DP and PA processes, at the same time, the strongest predictive factor of these processes (Beta = 0.729). Moreover, they feel burnout as a result of students' heterogeneous abilities (i.e., Mixed-ability Classes, the second dominant factor). Additionally, they feel emotional exhaustion for doing much work or not having enough time to complete tasks in time and for students' discipline problems. Besides, they depersonalize their recipients as a result of workload and unsuitability of textbooks. Finally, students' discipline problems, large classes, and the design of textbooks affect their abilities and activities.

To deal with burnout problems associated with *School-level Factors* among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, they should mainly be supported socially, student knowledge competence should be taken into account in class composition, the allocated time for completing tasks within and out of classroom should be increased, student discipline problems should be controlled as far as possible, class sizes should be adjusted to courses, and appropriate textbooks should be offered so that student achievement and

progress could be influenced and teacher interest in teaching could be attained accordingly.

While Iranian and Turkish groups were contrasted, the predictive effects of the factors were as:

- *Workload* was significant in EE, DP and PA processes of only Iranian group, but not in EE, DP, and PA processes of Turkish group,
- *Student Misbehavior* was significant in EE and PA processes of Iranian group, but only PA processes of Turkish group,
- *Over-sized Classes* was significant in DP and PA processes of Iranian group, but only EE processes of Turkish group,
- *Mixed-ability Classes* was significant in EE, DP and PA processes of only Iranian group, but not in EE, DP, and PA processes of Turkish group,
- *Teaching Materials* was significant in DP and PA processes of only Iranian group, but not in EE, DP, and PA processes of Turkish group,
- *Social Support* was significant in EE, DP and PA processes of both Iranian and Turkish groups.

The contrasted results associated with *School-level Factors* showed that *Social Support* was the dominant significant factor in EE, DP and PA processes of both Iranian and Turkish groups, at the same time, it was the strongest burnout predictive factor among Turkish teachers (Beta sum = 1.198). This means that social support is a common source of burnout for Iranian and Turkish teachers, especially for Turkish group. Moreover, similarity was established between the groups in *Student Misbehavior* factor at PA level, meaning that student discipline problems affect teacher achievement and performance in both groups (see Table 5.4 and Figure 4.6).

On the other hand, there were thorough differences between Iranian and Turkish groups in *Workload*, *Mixed-ability Classes*, and *Teaching Materials* factors, which were significant only among Iranian participants, not Turkish ones. This implies that these factors were cross-culturally discriminatory. Workload was significant in EE, DP, and PA burnout processes of Iranian group, at the same time, it was the strongest burnout

predictor among Iranian participants (Beta sum = 0.633). That is to say, Iranian teachers are suffering from burnout at school level mainly for sensing they do much work or they are unable to complete the given tasks in time. Moreover, *Mixed-ability Classes* was significant in EE, DP, and PA burnout processes of Iranian group, meaning that having heterogeneous class composition depletes Iranian teachers emotionally, causes them to commit depersonalization, and affects their accomplishment and achievement. In addition, *Teaching Materials* was significant in DP and PA burnout processes of Iranian group, which means that unsuitability and impracticality of the textbooks causes them to depersonalize their recipients and affects their accomplishment and achievement.

Finally, *Student Misbehavior* and *Over-sized Classes* factors, though cross-culturally not discriminatory, has differently affected the EE, DP, PA processes of Iranian and Turkish teachers. *Student Discipline* problems have affected work performance of Iranian and Turkish teachers, but it has also led Iranian teachers to emotional exhaustion. Further, populated classes has led Turkish teacher to emotional exhaustion, while has led Iranian teachers to depersonalization and accomplishment problems, i.e., Iranian teachers feel cynical and uncaring toward their students and are not satisfied with working them.

The scrutiny of Beta values for the six school-level factors based on EE, DP, and PA subscales also revealed that *Mixed-ability Classes* was the strongest predictive factor in EE processes of Iranian teachers (Beta= -.220), while it was *Over-sized Classes* in EE processes of Turkish teachers (Beta= -.323), meaning that Iranian and Turkish teachers are depleted emotionally for having heterogeneous class composition and having populated classes, respectively. The values also showed that the strongest predictive factor in DP processes of Iranian teachers was *Workload* (Beta= .285) and Turkish teachers was *Social Support* (Beta= -.471), meaning that Iranian and Turkish teachers depersonalize their students because of sensing they do much work and they do not feel emotional closeness with others, respectively. Finally, the findings demonstrated that *Social Support* was again the strongest predictive factor in PA processes of Turkish teachers (Beta= .453), whereas, it was *Student Misbehavior* in PA processes of Iranian teachers (Beta= 335). That is, lack of emotional closeness with others among Turkish

teachers and lack of adequate sense of student discipline among Iranian teachers affects their accomplishment and achievement (See Tables 4.35, 4.36, 4.37 and Figure 4.6).

In short, to deal with burnout problems at school level across Iranian and Turkish teachers, Turkish authorities should mainly create a situation so that teachers could sense emotional closeness for security, provide teachers with advice and information in handling problems, encourage teachers to participate in team work and activities, and create associations through which teachers could develop friendship among themselves. And, to overcome workload problem among Iranian teachers, Iranian authorities should also increase course hours so that teaching tasks and activities could be completed in time.

5.2.3.3. Administrational Factors

The discussions of the four administrational factors (i.e., Teacher autonomy, Reward adequacy, Fairness, and Fringe benefits) and the dimensions of three of them (i.e., Teacher autonomy, Reward adequacy, and Fairness) were presented as:

(a) Teacher autonomy

The results of *Teacher Autonomy* showed that there was a significant relationship between the three dimensions of *Teacher Autonomy* (i.e., Curriculum Evaluation, Decision Making, and Problem Solving) and the EE, DP and PA subscales among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, whereas, no significant relationship was observed between the *Teacher Autonomy* dimension of *Pedagogy* and any burnout processes (See Table 5.6). This means that the three dimensions of *Teacher Autonomy* were valid in predicting EE, DP and PA burnout processes, while *Pedagogy* was neural to these processes. The predictive effects of the significant dimensions were as:

- *Curriculum Evaluation* was significant in PA processes,
- *Decision Making* was significant in EE, DP and PA processes,
- *Problem Solving* was significant in DP and PA processes.

The results mean that Iranian and Turkish teachers are suffering from burnout based on *Teacher Autonomy* factor mainly for not being able to solve their work problems since *Problem solving* was the strongest predictive dimension in burnout processes (Beta sum = 0.519) though it was not the dominant dimension. Moreover, the results showed that *Decision Making* was the dominant dimension in predicting EE, DP, and PA burnout processes though it was not the strongest one. That is to say that Iranian and Turkish teachers feel burnout for not being involved in decision making processes. Finally, work accomplishment of the teachers is affected when they feel the established curriculum restricts their activities, when they are not involved in decision making activities, and when they are not empowered to solve their work problems by using their initiative. Therefore, to deal with the burnout problems at *Teacher Autonomy* level among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, they should mainly be allowed to use their personal initiative or judgment in solving work problems. Moreover, they should be involved in decision making procedures to express their concerns, and a flexible curriculum should be offered so that they could choose appropriate teaching methods and strategies to meet student needs.

(b) Reward adequacy

The results of *Reward Adequacy* demonstrated a significant relationship between the two dimensions of *Reward Adequacy* (i.e., Salary and Valuation) and the EE, DP and PA subscales among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, meaning that the two dimensions were valid in predicting these burnout processes (See Table 5.6). The predictive effects of the dimensions were as:

- *Salary* was significant in DP processes,
- *Valuation* was significant in EE and PA processes.

The findings showed that none of the *Reward Adequacy* dimensions was dominant in predicting the EE, DP and PA processes of Iranian and Turkish teachers, but the predictive effect of *Valuation* (Beta sum = 0.395) was greater than that of the *Salary*, that is, more symbolic rewards (or intangible/ social rewards) such as approval, praise, and support were more important than the material ones in burnout processes, specially

EE and PA; whereas, material rewards had more significant role in predicting DP burnout. So, to improve the situation based on the *Reward Adequacy* factor, teachers should simply be respected in their administration even if they are not paid the right amount for the word they do.

(c) Fairness

The results of *Fairness* demonstrated a significant relationship between the three dimensions of *Fairness* (i.e., Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice, and Interpersonal Justice) and the EE, DP and PA subscales among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, whereas no significant relationship was observed between the *Fairness* dimension of *Informational Justice* and any burnout processes. This means that the three dimensions of *Fairness* were valid in predicting EE, DP and PA burnout processes, while the *Informational Justice* dimension was neural to these processes (See Table 5.6). The predictive effects of the significant dimensions were as:

- *Distributive Justice* was significant in EE, DP, and PA processes,
- *Procedural Justice* was significant in PA processes,
- *Interpersonal Justice* was significant in EE and DP processes.

The results mean that Iranian and Turkish teachers are suffering from burnout mainly due to improper allocation of outcomes (such as rewards, benefits, and promotion) in their administration since *Distributive Justice* was the dominant significant dimension in EE, DP and PA processes, at the same time, the strongest predictive dimension in these processes (Beta sum = 0.763). Moreover, unjust authority treatment has depleted their energies and has caused them to commit depersonalization. Finally, their work performance is affected when there is no fair allocation of outcomes and when they are not involved in decision-making procedures determining their outcomes. To avoid or control burnout among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers based on the *Fairness* factor, however, allocations should mainly be distributed fairly among all members of the administration, the procedures of allocations should be vivid and free from bias, and authorities should show concern for teachers' rights and take steps to deal with them in a proper and truthful manner when they question the fairness of outcomes.

Table 5.6.

Summary of Significant and Insignificant Dimensions of Administrational Factors in Burnout Processes

Factor	Dimension	EE		DP		PA		Sum of Bata
		Sig.	Beta Rank	Sig.	Beta Rank	Sig.	Beta Rank	
Teacher Autonomy	Pedagogy	-	3	-	3	-	4	0.188
	Curriculum evaluation	-	4	-	4	+	2	0.251
	Decision making	+	1	+	2	+	3	0.467
	Problem solving*	-	2	+	1	+	1	0.519
	Beta Sum	0.362		0.508		0.555		-
Reward Adequacy	Salary	-	2	+	1	-	2	0.213
	Valuation*	+	1	-	2	+	1	0.395
	Beta Sum	0.242		0.157		0.209		-
Fairness	Distributive justice*	+	2	+	1	+	2	0.763
	Procedural justice	-		-	4	+	1	0.424
	Interpersonal justice	+	1	+	2	-	4	0.468
	Informational justice	-	4	-	3	-	3	0.232
	Beta Sum	0.545		0.6		0.742		-
Fringe Benefits	This is a mono-dimensional factor.							
Sig. N.		4	-	5	-	6	-	-
Non-sig. N.		6	-	5		4	-	-

* indicates the dominant dimension in the factor

(d) Administrational factors among Iranian and Turkish participants

The results of administrational factors showed that there was a significant relationship between the three administrational factors (i.e., Teacher Autonomy, Reward Adequacy, and Fairness) and the EE, DP and PA subscales when Iranian and Turkish participants were deliberated in a unique group, whereas, no significant relationship was observed between the *Fringe Benefits* factor and any burnout processes (See Table 5.3). This means that the three factors were valid in predicting EE, DP and PA burnout processes, while *Fringe Benefits* was neural to these processes. The predictive effects of the factors were as:

- *Teacher Autonomy* was significant in EE, DP, and PA processes,
- *Reward Adequacy* was significant in EE and PA processes,
- *Fairness* was significant in EE, DP and PA processes.
- *Fringe Benefits* was not significant in burnout processes.

The findings mean that Iranian and Turkish teachers are suffering from burnout associated with *Administrational Factors* mainly due to unfair situation in their organization since *Fairness* was the dominant significant factor in predicting EE, DP and PA processes, at the same time, the strongest predictive factor of these processes (Beta sum =1.013). Moreover, they feel burnout as a result of not sensing enough autonomy in their job (i.e., Teacher Autonomy, the second dominant factor). Finally, inadequacy of rewards depletes them emotionally and affects their accomplishments. To cope with burnout problems associated with *Administrational Factors*, however, allocations should mainly be distributed fairly among all members of the administration, teachers' autonomy perceptions should be developed through leaving place for their voices, initiative and thoughts, and adequate reward should be allocated to them.

While Iranian and Turkish groups were contrasted, the predictive effects of the factors were as:

- *Teacher Autonomy* was significant in PA processes of Iranian group and in EE, DP, and PA processes of Turkish group.
- *Reward Adequacy* was significant in EE and PA processes of Iranian group, but only EE processes of Turkish group,
- *Fairness* was significant in EE, DP, and PA processes of Iranian group, but not in EE, DP, and PA processes of Turkish group,
- *Fringe Benefits* was not significant in burnout processes of both groups.

The contrasted findings associated with *Administrational Factors* revealed that there was no difference between Iranian and Turkish groups in *Fringe Benefits* factor because it was not significant in EE, DP, PA processes of both countries. On the other hand, there were thorough differences between Iranian and Turkish groups in *Teacher Autonomy*, *Reward Adequacy,* and *Fairness* factors, meaning that these factors were cross-culturally discriminatory (See Table 5.4 and Figure 4.7). *Fairness* was significant in EE, DP, and PA burnout processes of only Iranian participants, not Turkish ones, at the same time it is the strongest predictive burnout factor among Iranian teachers (Beta sum= 1.092), therefore, it can be inferred that it is the most common burnout source for Iranian teachers at the administrational level. Whereas, *Teacher Autonomy* was

significant in EE, DP, and PA burnout processes of Turkish participants, at the same time, the strongest predictive burnout factor for Turkish group, therefore, it can be inferred that it is the most common burnout source for Turkish teachers at the administrational level (Beta sum= 1.117). Further, *Teacher Autonomy* was also significant in PA burnout processes of Iranian group, that is, lack of enough autonomy perception affects their accomplishment and achievement. Finally, *Reward Adequacy* factor was significant in EE and PA processes of Iranian group and only in EE processes of Turkish one, i.e., inadequacy of rewards leads to emotional exhaustion and affects teacher performance among Iranian teachers, while it leads to only energy depletion among Turkish teachers.

The scrutiny of Beta values for the four administrational factors based on EE, DP, and PA subscales also revealed that *Teacher Autonomy* was the strongest predictive factor in EE (Beta= -.450), DP (Beta= -.351), and PA (Beta= .316) processes of Turkish teachers, meaning that lack of enough autonomy sensation among Turkish teachers depletes them emotionally, causes them to depersonalize their recipients, and affects their accomplishment and achievement (See Tables 4.47, 4.48, 4.49 and Figure 4.7). The values also showed that the strongest predictive factor in EE processes of Iranian teachers was *Reward Adequacy* (Beta= -.291), meaning that Iranian teachers are mainly depleted emotionally for not getting enough rewards for their work. And, the strongest predictive factor in DP and PA processes of Iranian teachers was *Fairness* (DP ►Beta= .371 and PA ► Beta= -.479), meaning that improper distribution of allocations and unfair decisions and procedures cause Iranian teachers to depersonalize their recipients and affect their accomplishment and achievement (See Tables 4.47, 4.48, 4.49 and Figure 4.7).

In short, to deal with burnout problems at administrational level across Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, Iranian authorities should mainly offer a fair amount of tangible and intangible rewards to the teachers, provide opportunities to challenge the made decisions, care for their rights, and explain adequately the procedures and decisions determining their outcomes. While, Turkish authorities should mainly establish a flexible curriculum through which the Turkish teachers could choose appropriate teaching methods, strategies, and techniques to meet student needs, get rid of more rigid

educational rules and procedures restricting teacher performance, allow for teacher voice, and provide considerable support. Hence, the third research question was answered.

5.2.4. Interaction of Variables and Factors on Burnout Processes

The results of Two-way NAOVA revealed that there were significant interactions between Nationality*Workload, Nationality*Student Misbehavior, Nationality*Teaching Materials, Nationality*Reward Adequacy, and Nationality*Fairness on EE burnout subscale (See Table 5.7). This means that EE burnout is affected by these factors when the nationality of the participants was involved in. In other words, EE burnout of Iranian and Turkish teachers was affected when the combined weight of each factor with nationality variable was exerted on EE subscale.

There was also a significant Gender*Fairness interaction effect on PA processes, meaning that the combined weight of the fairness factor with gender variable has association with PA perceptions of male and female groups. Finally, three significant interactions were observed between Age*Professional self-esteem, Age*Social Support, and Age*Fairness on DP processes (See Table 5.7).That is, DP burnout perception of different age groups was affected when the combined weight of the professional self-esteem, social support, and fairness factors with age variable was exerted on DP subscale. Accordingly, the fourth research question was answered.

Table 5.7.

Interaction of Variables and Factors in Burnout Processes

	Factor	Nationality* Factors on EE		Gender*Factors on PA		Age*Factors on DP	
		Sig.	η^2	Sig.	η2	Sig.	η2
	Professional self-esteem	-		-		+	L
	Teacher Self-efficacy	-		-		-	
Individual	Value Incongruence	-		-		-	
	Competence Self-evaluation	-		-		-	
						-	
`	Workload	+	Me	-		-	
	Student Misbehavior	+	Me	-		-	
	Over-sized Classes	-		-		-	
School-level	Mixed-ability Classes	-		-		-	
	Teaching Materials	+	Me	-		-	
	Social Support	-		-		+	L
						-	
	Teacher Autonomy	-		-		-	
	Reward Adequacy	+	Me	-		-	
Administrational	Fairness	+	L	+	L	+	L
	Fringe Benefits	-		-		-	
Sig. N.		5		1		3	
Non-sig. N.		9		13		11	

5.3. DISCUSION OF THE QUALITATIVE STUDY

The results of qualitative part showed that *Professional Self-esteem* was the most frequent factor among Iranian and Turkish participants. This confirms the results of quantitative part for Iranian group, but not for Turkish one, because *Value Incongruence* was the most predictive burnout factor at individual level among Turkish participants. However, the frequency of Iranian participants in each individual factor was greater than that of Turkish participants (See Figure 4.8).

While focusing on school-level factors, the results demonstrated that the most frequent factor for both Iranian and Turkish participants was *Student Misbehavior*. Though the finding did confirm the results of quantitative study for both Iranian and Turkish participants (where Workload was the most predictive factor for Iranian teachers and Social Support for Turkish teachers), *Student Misbehavior* was the second significant burnout predictive factor in quantitative study. One shocking result with school-level

factors was obtained among Turkish participants: Workload was the second frequent factor among Turkish teachers in qualitative study, while it was the least predictive factor in the quantitative study. Moreover, dissatisfaction of Iranian teachers about unsuitability of textbooks and mixed ability classes in the quantitative study were also confirmed in the qualitative study. And, dissatisfaction of Turkish teachers about lack of social support in the quantitative study was also confirmed in the qualitative study, but their complaint about *Over-sized Classes* was not.

With regard to administrational factors, the results revealed that Iranian teachers are dissatisfied mostly with lack of fairness, inadequacy of rewards, and lack of sensing autonomy in their job, while Turkish teacher are mostly dissatisfied with lack of teacher autonomy and inadequacy of rewards. The findings of this category are also somehow in line with the quantitative results, except for Fringe Benefits. It was not a significant factor in burnout processes of both Iranian and Turkish participants in the qualitative study, whereas, nearly 50% of participants from each country considered this factor as a good burnout source in the quantitative study. On the whole, it can be argued that the results of quantitative study were confirmed by the qualitative one.

Finally, the results of the second question of the qualitative study revealed that all Iranian participants put blame on administrational factors as their burnout source, whereas, Turkish participants sought the causes of their burnout in both school-level and administrational factors. Thus, the fifth research question was answered.

5.4. CONCLUSION, PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Burnout was characterized as “a work-related syndrome that stems from an individual’s perception of a significant discrepancy between effort (input) and reward (output)” (Farber, 1991, p. 24). Fredenberger (1974) first coined the term to describe emotional depletion, motivational loss and commitment reduction experienced by human service workers after prolonged and extensive stress conditions (Soderfelt and Soderfelt, 1995). The concept was further popularized in social sciences in the writings of Maslach (1976) who defines burnout as “a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that

occurs frequently among individuals who do ‘people-work’ of some kind” (Maslach and Jackson, 1981, p. 99).

Based on the pioneering work of Freudenberger (1974) and Maslach (1976), Maslach and Jackson (1981) introduced the most widely accepted conceptualization of burnout and construed it as a psychological syndrome that has three dimensions: *emotional exhaustion* (EE) referring to feelings of being emotionally drained by intense contact with other people, *depersonalization* (DP) referring to negative attitudes or callous responses toward people, and *reduced personal accomplishment* (PA) referring to a decline in one’s sense of competence and of successful achievement in working with people (Maslach, 1982; Maslach and Leiter, 1997; Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001).

Burnout can cause psychophysical problems (such as, headaches, gastrointestinal illness, high blood pressure, diabetes, muscle tension, chronic fatigue, and anomie), and it also may lead to mental distress in the form of anxiety, depression, and sleep disturbances. Moreover, teacher burnout is a major concern in educational settings and negatively impacts teaching quality, student achievement, school climate, and social welfare. Burnout finally results in emotional exhaustion, negative feelings to others, poor performance on the job, and negative self-evaluation. Studies also have revealed that burnout has affected millions of teachers around the world, especially in western countries, and has cost millions of dollars for these countries.

However, burnout has been associated with many sources. Three types of burnout sources among teachers at *individual*, *school-level* and *administrational* levels were involved in the study to see their effects on EE, DP and PA processes of burnout as characterized by Maslach and Jackson (1981). If fact, the study comparatively examined perceived teacher burnout processes of EE, DP, and PA among Iranian and Turkish high school English teachers while taking into account their seven socio-demographic variables including nationality, gender, age, marital status, academic level, teaching experience and employment status.

The results revealed that Turkish teachers perceive more EE burnout than Iranian teachers, Iranian teachers perceive more PA than Turkish teachers, and Iranian and Turkish teachers perceive DP burnout almost equally. The findings also demonstrated there was significant relationship between *nationality*, *gender*, and *age* variables and the EE, DP, and PA burnout subscales, in contrast, no relationship was observed between the *marital status*, *academic level*, *teaching experience* and *employment status* of the participants and any burnout subscale.

Moreover, multiple regression findings showed that *Satisfaction* dimension of *Professional Self-esteem*, *Keeping Discipline* dimension of *Teacher Self-efficacy*, *Goal Meeting* dimension of *Value Incongruence*, and *Professional Competence* dimension of *Competence Self-evaluation* were the dominant significant dimensions of these individual factors in predicting EE, DP or PA processes, that *Time Pressure* dimension of *Workload*, *Student Achievement* dimension of *Student Misbehavior*, *Textbook Suitability* dimension of *Teaching Materials*, and *Attachment* dimension of *Social Support* were the dominant significant dimensions of these school-level factors in predicting EE, DP or PA processes, and that *Problem Solving* dimension of *Teacher Autonomy*, *Valuation* dimension of *Reward Adequacy*, and *Distributive Justice* dimension of *Fairness* were the dominant significant dimensions of these administrational factors in predicting EE, DP or PA processes.

Besides, regression results showed that *Professional Self-esteem* factor of individual factors, *Social Support* factor of school-level factors, and *Fairness* factor of administrational factors were the dominant significant factors in predicting EE, DP or PA processes. Further, while Iranian and Turkish groups were contrasted, the multiple regression results demonstrated that *Value Incongruence*, *Social Support*, and *Teacher Autonomy* factors in the case of Turkish participants and *Professional Self-esteem*, *Workload*, and *Fairness* in the case of Iranian participants were the dominant significant individual, school-level, and administrational factors in predicting EE, DP or PA processes, respectively.

Additionally, the results of Two-way ANOVA revealed interaction effects between Nationality, Gender, and Age variables and individual, school-level, and

administrational factors on EE, DP, and PA burnout processes. Finally, the results of qualitative part displayed Iranian teachers considered the administrational factors as the main source of burnout, while Turkish teachers concentrated on school-level factors.

Pedagogical implications

The findings of the study have pedagogical implications mainly for policy makers, educational administrators, teachers, and researchers affiliated with education. The following is brief notes for implications.

- Policy makers can benefit the results for increasing teacher productivity and satisfaction through setting more flexible and fair regulations, following a more flexible management, increasing teacher participation in decision-making activities, and developing more qualified teacher training programs.
- Educational administrators can use the results to diagnose the burnout sources greatly affecting teachers and to develop programs or solutions to prevent or reduce teacher burnout in educational settings for increasing teacher retention and overall occupational satisfaction. They can also learn from the findings how to make a commitment to novice teachers who are in need of initial success and long term professional achievement, how to provide adequate mentoring programs to achieve teacher commitment and accomplishment, and how to promote teachers' sense of being supported, belonging, and being valued in the workplace.
- Teachers themselves can benefit from the results in how to grow their awareness about factors leading them to burnout, how to develop skills in monitoring their burnout levels, and how to select the best preventive method for coping their burnout at individual, school, and organizational levels.
- Finally, the results of the study can provide insightful information to other researchers interested in the field and can excited them to conduct additional researches in the concerned areas.

Recommendations for burnout intervention

Burnout has many sources, so, various interventions can differently be employed at individual and organizational levels. But, intervention methods and programs including both person- and organization-directed measures are usually recommended to cope with burnout at many workplaces. However, to overcome burnout among Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, the following interventions are commonly recommended at individual, school, and administrational levels based on the results of the study.

At *individual* level:

- teachers should mainly be encouraged to develop their professional self-esteem,
- they should be encouraged to improve their teaching efficacies through applying appropriate approaches,
- they should also be encouraged to boost their linguistic and professional competences, and
- they should try to cover the gap between their personal values and those of their organization.

At *school* level:

- teachers should mainly be supported socially,
- student knowledge competence should be taken into account in class composition,
- the allocated time for completing tasks within and out of classroom should be increased,
- student discipline problems should be controlled as far as possible,
- class sizes should be adjusted to courses, and
- appropriate textbooks should be offered so that student achievement and progress could be influenced and teacher interest in teaching could be attained accordingly.

At *Administrational* level:

- distribution of the allocations should be done fairly so that all members can sense fairness in their administration,
- there should be a place for teacher voice, initiative, and thought so that they can sense autonomy in their job, and
- adequate rewards should be allocated to them.

To deal with burnout across Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, the following interventions are specifically recommended at individual, school, and administrational levels based on the results of the study.

- *At individual level*: Iranian teachers should mainly develop their professional self-esteem to combat burnout, while Turkish teachers should mainly try to cover the value gap between themselves and their administration,
- *At school level*: Turkish authorities should mainly create a situation so that teachers could sense emotional closeness for security, provide teachers with advice and information in handling problems, encourage teachers to participate in team work and activities, and create associations through which teachers could develop friendship among themselves. And, Iranian authorities should increase teaching time of courses so that teaching tasks and activities could be completed in time,
- *At administrational level*: Iranian authorities should mainly offer a fair amount of tangible and intangible rewards to the teachers, provide opportunities to challenge the made decisions, care for their rights, and explain adequately the procedures and decisions determining their outcomes. While, Turkish authorities should mainly establish a flexible curriculum through which the Turkish teachers could choose appropriate teaching methods, strategies, and techniques to meet student needs, get rid of more rigid educational rules and procedures restricting teacher performance, allow for teacher voice, and provide considerable support.

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APPEDIXES

APPEDIX A. SYMPTOMS OF EMPLOYEE BURNOU

Three types of employee burnout symptoms have been proposed by Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998, p. 21). They are as:

(a) *Symptoms of Burnout at Individual Level*

Symptoms of Burnout at Individual Level

Affective	Cognitive	Physical	Behavioral	Motivational
depressed mood	helplessness	headaches	hyperactivity	loss of zeal
tearfulness	loss of meaning and hope	nausea	impulsivity	loss of idealism
emotional exhaustion	fear of 'going crazy'	dizziness	procrastination	disappointment
changing moods	feelings of powerlessness and impotence	restlessness	increased consumption of: Caffeine, tobacco, alcohol, tranquillizers illicit drugs	disillusionment
decreased emotional control	feelings of being "trapped	nervous tics	over- and under eating	resignation
undefined fears	sense of failure	muscle pains	high risk-taking behaviors (e. g. skydiving)	boredom
increased tension	feelings of insufficiency	sexual problems	compulsive complaining	demoralization
anxiety	poor self-esteem	sleep disturbances (insomnia, nightmares, excessive sleeping)	increased accidents	
	self-preoccupation	sudden loss or gain of weight loss of appetite	abandonment of recreational activities	
	guilt	shortness of breath		
	suicidal ideas	increased pre-menstrual tension		
	inability to concentrate	missed menstrual cycles		
	forgetfulness	chronic fatigue		
	difficulty with complex tasks	physical exhaustion		
	rigidity and schematic thinking	hyperventilation		
	difficulties in decision making	bodily weakness		
	daydreaming and fantasizing	ulcers		
	intellectualization	gastric-intestinal disorders		
	loneliness	coronary disease		
	diminished frustration tolerance	frequent and prolonged colds		
		flare-ups of pre-existing disorders (asthma, diabetes)		
		injuries from risk-taking behavior		
		increased heart rate		
		high blood pressure		
		increased electro dermal response		
		high level of serum cholesterol		

(b) *Symptoms of Burnout at Interpersonal Level*

Symptoms at Interpersonal Level

Affective	Cognitive	Physical	Motivational	Behavioral
irritability	cynical and dehumanizing perception of recipients		violent outbursts	loss of interest
being oversensitive	negativism with respect to recipients		propensity for violent and aggressive behavior	discouragement
cool and unemotional	pessimism with respect to recipients		aggressiveness towards recipients	indifference with respect to recipients
lessened emotional empathy with recipients	lessened cognitive empathy with recipients		interpersonal, marital family conflicts	using recipients to meet personal and social needs
increased anger	stereotyping of recipients		compartmentalization	over involvement
	labeling recipients in derogatory ways		social isolation and withdrawal	jealousy
	'blaming the victim'		detachment with respect to recipients	
	air of grandiosity		responding to recipients in mechanical manner	
	air of righteousness		isolation or over bonding from other staff	
	'martyrdom'		sick humor aimed at recipients	
	hostility		expression of hopelessness, helplessness and meaninglessness towards recipients	
	suspicion		using distancing devices	
	projection			
	paranoia			

(c) *Symptoms of Burnout at Organizational Level*

Symptoms at Organizational Level

Affective	Cognitive	Physical	Behavioral	Motivational
job dissatisfaction	cynicism about work role		reduced effectiveness	loss of work motivation
	feelings of not being appreciated		poor work performance	resistance to go to work
	distrust in management, peers, and supervisors		declined productivity	dampening of work initiative
			tardiness	low morale
			turnover	
			increased sick-leave	
			absenteeism	
			theft	
			resistance to change	
			being over-dependent on supervisors	
			frequent clock watching	
			'going by the book'	
			increased accidents	
			inability to organize	
			poor time management	

APPEDIX B. THE SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

The tool includes **7** questions with regard to the socio-demographic information of the participants in the following areas.

Dear respondents,

This is a comparative study of job-related attitudes among Iranian and Turkish high school English teachers. To this end, we need your help in answering the following questions divided into five parts. Please answer the questions that best describe you. The information you provide for each part will be confidential. Thanks for your cooperation. Best Regards, Ebrahim KHEZERLOU. You can contact at: e_khezerlou @hayoo.com.

Part 1: Socio-demographic information				
1	Nationality:	Iranian □	Turkish □	
2	Gender:	Male □	Female □	
3	Age:	25 and below □	26 to 30 □	31 to 35 □
		36 to 40 □	41 to 45 □	46 and above □
4	Marital status:	Single □	Married □	Divorced □
5	Academic level:	Bachelor's Degree (B.A.) □		Master's Degree (M.A.) □
		Doctoral Degree (Ph.D.) □		Other □
6	Years of teaching experience:	5 and below □	6 to 10 □	11 to 15 □
		16 to 20 □	21 to 25 □	26 and above □
7	Employment status:	Full-time □	Part-time □	
	* Would you specify the city where you work?	----------		

********** THE END OF PART ONE **********

APPEDIX C. THE MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY

This is a standard burnout measure developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) which was used to measure teachers' burnout perceptions. The measure includes 22 items.

		0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Part 2: The MBI-ES								
Dear respondent, Below are a number of statements that describe attitudes of high school English teachers about their job. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you. Thanks for your cooperation. **Answer format: How often have you felt this way at work?**		Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day
1	I feel emotionally drained from my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I feel used up at the end of the workday.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I can easily understand how my students feel about things.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I feel I treat some students as if they were impersonal objects.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I deal very effectively with the problems of my students.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I feel burned out from my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I feel very energetic.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I feel frustrated by my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I don't really care what happens to some students.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

19	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I feel students blame me for some of their problems.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

********** THE END OF PART TWO **********

APPEDIX D. THE TOOL FOR INDIVIDUAL FACTORS

The scale was used to measure the personal feelings of the participants about their work in the areas of *Professional self-esteem*, *Teacher self-efficacy*, *Value incongruence*, and *Competence self-evaluation*. The measure includes **56** items.

		1	2	3	4	5	6
Part 3: Individual feelings							
Dear respondent, The following statements concern with personal feelings of high school English teachers about their work. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement. Thanks for your cooperation. **Please, use this scale:**		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	I am a teacher who prepares very well for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I am convinced that I am not able to maintain discipline in any class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I am enthusiastic to learn new skills necessary to my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I'm pretty happy with my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I know enough how to teach high school students in general.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I know I can adapt instruction and assignments to individual needs and organize classroom work accordingly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	My pronunciation and intonation abilities are acceptable for running my classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I am convinced that my grammatical and lexical knowledge are adequate for running my classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I can design different teaching activities to facilitate student learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I feel there is gap between my personal values and the values of my work administration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I feel my receptive skills (listening and reading) are adequate for my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I am convinced that I am able to provide good guidance and instruction to all students regardless of their level of ability.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I feel I'm not doing the best work that I can.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I know I cannot get all students in class to work hard with their schoolwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I feel my productive skills (writing and speaking) are inadequate for my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Working here forces me to compromise my personal values.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I can make up my mind without too much trouble for changes in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I am convinced that I am able to manage instruction regardless of how it is organized.	1	2	3	4	5	6

19	I know how to evaluate the student performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I often get discouraged with what I am doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	I feel I am able to manage instruction even if the curriculum is changed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I feel inadequate in understanding the English culture to run my classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	It takes me a long time to get used to anything new in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I know how to match curriculum materials to students' levels of competence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I often feel that I must compromise with my own values to cope with job demands.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I feel I am not able to cooperate well with most parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I study frequently to keep my knowledge up-to-date.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I know the subject content and how to teach that content to students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	I am able and eager to impart what I know to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I am not familiar with various teaching methodologies, strategies and techniques to meet student needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	My personal career goals are consistent with the administration's stated goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I feel I am goal-oriented in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am able to use different educational technologies for teaching purposes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	I am convinced that I am able to cooperate effectively and constructively with other teachers in team works.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	There are many times when I'd like to leave my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	I know enough about the psychology of teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	I do not know how to motivate students to do their best.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	I cannot create and maintain safe and challenging learning environments for student learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	I sometimes do research to increase the quality of my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	I can create a classroom environment conducive to learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	I know how to establish teacher–student rapport.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	I am convinced that I am able to get students to do their best even when working with difficult problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	I take criticism well and learn from it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44	I am less interested in my job now than before because of value changing in my administration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45	I am not aware of student learning styles.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46	I am convinced that I can control even the most aggressive students.	1	2	3	4	5	6

47	I am able to face new challenges of my job on my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48	I cannot reasonably communicate in English to meet student needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49	I know I cannot motivate students who show low interest to schoolwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50	I sometimes feel my administration cannot meet its goals any more.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51	I don't mind if a colleague needs my work experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6
52	I am convinced that I am able to provide realistic challenges for most students even in mixed ability classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
53	I am convinced that I am able to teach well even if I am told to use instructional methods that would not be my choice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
54	I never worry about any changes in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
55	I am convinced that I am not able to get my students to behave politely and respect the teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
56	There is a discrepancy between the lofty mission statements and actual practices in my administration.	1	2	3	4	5	6

********** THE END OF PART THREE **********

APPEDIX E. THE TOOL FOR SCHOOL-LEVEL FACTORS

The scale includes **36** items dealing with the participants' perceptions about the school where they work in the areas of *Work overload*, *Student misbehavior*, *Over-sized classes*, *Mixed-ability classes*, *Teaching materials*, and *Social support*.

		1	2	3	4	5	6
Part 4: School-level perceptions							
Dear respondent, The following statements concern with perceptions of high school English teachers about the school where they work. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement. Thanks for your cooperation. **Please, use this scale:**		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	My students fail to do in-class assignments.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is no one I can turn to for guidance in times of problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I believe the layout and design of the high-school textbooks are not suitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	There is never enough time in class to get things done.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	My classes are over-populated, so I cannot accomplish my teaching activities properly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	There are colleagues and administrators I can depend on if I really need.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	My energy is used up by students' discipline problems (such as cheating, making noise, talking out of turn, teasing others, fighting etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I think my colleagues and administrators respect my skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Not having enough teaching resources makes my job more difficult (such as realia, wall charts, posters, educational CDs, and films).	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I have close relationships with some colleagues and administrators that provide me with a sense of emotional security and well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I lose my energy and time in dealing with mixed-ability students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	There is too much work to do in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	There are colleagues and administrators who depend on me for help.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	My students have positive attitudes towards learning English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	There are colleagues and administrators who enjoy the same social activities I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	There are computer-based and web-based materials that I can use to facilitate teaching and learning activities in my classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6

17	I feel my students can achieve enough from teaching activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I do not feel a strong emotional bond with at least one other colleague.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	It is difficult to present lessons as planned because of students' discipline problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I know the high school textbooks are appropriate for teaching and learning purposes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	'Large classes' consumes my energy and time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I lack a feeling of intimacy with another colleague.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I feel the EFL program demands a lot.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I think the high-school textbooks are not interesting, challenging and motivating enough to teachers and learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	There is someone I could talk to about important decisions in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	My students submit their homework on time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	There are not supplementary teaching materials that I can benefit for the better presentation of the lessons.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel I do not hold responsibility for the well-being of another colleague.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	I feel my students do not motivate themselves enough to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	The high-school textbooks that I teach from are relevant to my students' needs and levels.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I feel the requirements of the EFL program need a lot of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I feel part of a group of colleagues and administrators who share my attitudes and beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I like high school textbooks for providing useful, accurate, systematic, and contextual learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	My students' proficiency levels have no negative effect on my performance in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	There is no one I can depend on for aid if I am really in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	I feel my students fail to meet the requirements of the program.	1	2	3	4	5	6

********** THE END OF PART FOUR **********

APPEDIX F. THE TOOL FOR ADMINISTRATIONAL FACTORS

The scale was used to measure the participants' evaluation of the administration in which they work in the areas of *Teacher autonomy*, *Reward adequacy*, *Fairness*, and *Fringe benefits*. The measure includes **41** items.

		1	2	3	4	5	6
Part 5: Administrational perceptions							
Dear respondent, The following statements concern with perceptions of high school English teachers about the administration where they work. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement. Thanks for your cooperation. **Please, use this scale:**		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	My performance at work is limited by the established curriculum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I feel my administration allows for teacher voice and provides considerable support.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I believe every member in this administration has really equal chance for rewards (esp., salary).	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I receive recognition from my administration for any special work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I feel the authority does not explain adequately the procedures and decisions determining our outcomes (such as, rewards, benefits, or anything else).	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I feel my administration's decisions are not made based on accurate information.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I feel my administration does not show concern for our rights as teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I feel the employee benefits (such as, health insurance, retirement plans, loans etc.) of my administration are not adequate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I am free to choose appropriate teaching methods, strategies and techniques that I am familiar with to meet student needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	There are formal channels through which every member can express his/her concerns and opinions about the administrational procedures and decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I feel I am not being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I feel the administrational explanations for outcomes are not reasonable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I have considerable freedom to use my personal initiative or judgment in solving work problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I feel we are not promoted fairly in our administration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I feel my administration does not take steps to deal with us in a truthful manner when we discuss the fairness of outcomes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I feel I have no influence over instructional decisions made by my administration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I feel the authority explains the decisions behind the outcomes accurately.	1	2	3	4	5	6

18	I feel I have control over how to solve my work problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I feel the administrational procedures and decisions are explained in a timely manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	On the whole I am satisfied with the benefits offered by my administration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	I am not allowed to fit the content to students' interests and needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I feel my administration does not provide opportunities to challenge the made decisions and correct the flawed ones.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I do not receive the respect I deserve for the work I do from my administration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I feel we are not paid fairly for the work we do in this administration as they do in other administrations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I feel free to make decisions regarding my professional practice and act on them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	The benefits we receive in this administration are not as satisfactory as they are in other administrations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	My administration's procedures uphold the ethical and moral standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	In considering my efforts, I feel my administration does not treat me properly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	I feel everybody is respected fairly in my administration when there is the question of procedures and outcomes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I feel I have influence on what goes on in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I feel we have not enough control over the administrational procedures and processes used to make a decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	My opinion is not asked in my administration when a problem comes up in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I feel the procedures of my administration are free from bias.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	Though my salary is low, I am not complaining about.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	I feel we are promoted in this administration as equal as they do in other administrations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	The current educational rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	I feel we have enough influence over the administrational decisions determining our outcomes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	I feel the benefits we have in the administration is equitable for every member.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	I feel the authority treats us with kindness and consideration when we question the fairness of procedures or decisions determining our outcomes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	My administration's procedures guarantee the consistency of the made decisions across all members at all times.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	I feel we are not respected as fairly here as employees are in other administrations.	1	2	3	4	5	6

************THE END OF PART FIVE ************

APPEDIX G. THE TOOL FOR QUALITATIVE PART

The following questions were asked from the participants during collecting data for the qualitative part.

	Part 6: Interview (a semi-structure methodology)
	Dear respondent, This study aims at identifying the work-related attitudes of secondary EFL teachers that dissatisfy them in their job. Would you let me ask a few questions with this regard about your personal characteristics and the school and administration where you work? The information you provide will be confidential. Thank you for your cooperation.
1.	**Main question A**. Could you name at least 5 personal, 5 school-level, and 5 administrational factors that mostly dissatisfy you as an EFL teacher? • PROBE 1: Would you briefly clarify why X or Y personal factor leading you to this situation? • PROBE 2: Would you briefly clarify why X or Y school-level factor leading you to this situation? • PROBE 3: Would you briefly clarify why X or Y administrational factor leading you to this situation?
2.	On the whole, which of these factors mostly dissatisfies you with your job? Personal □ School-level □ Administrational □
3.	**Main question B**. Could you name any individual, school-level, and administrational factors that increase your interest to your job?
4.	**Main question C**. Do you want to add anything else in this regard? ----------

************THE END OF PART SIX ************

Please add any comments you wish: ----------

---------- ----------

THE END

THANKS A LOT FOR YOUR CONTRIBUTION

APPEDIX H. OFFICIAL DECREES FOR DATA COLLECTION

To protect the rights in data collection, official decrees were issued by the educational ministries of Iran and Turkey:

(a) *Official Decree of Iranian Educational Ministry*



بسمه تعالی

جمهوری اسلامی ایران
وزارت آموزش و پرورش
اداره کل آموزش و پرورش استان آذربایجان شرقی

شماره : ۱۲۲ / 1800 /49263
تاریخ : ۱۳۹۰/۸/۲
پیوست:

به : ریاست محترم کمیته پژوهشی نواحی پنجگانه تبریز
از : اداره کل آموزش و پرورش استان آذربایجان شرقی
موضوع :

احتراماً ، به اطلاع میرساند آقای ابراهیم خضرلو دانشجوی دوره دکتری در رشته آموزش زبان انگلیسی از دانشگاه هاجت تپه ترکیه جهت جمع آوری اطلاعات و تکمیل پرسشنامه که ممهور به مهر گروه پژوهش و تحقیق استان می باشد به حضورتان معرفی می گردد. شایسته است مقرر فرمائید با نامبرده همکاریهای لازم را در اجرای پرسشنامه مبذول نمایند.

سعید صادقی
معاون پژوهش و برنامه ریزی و امور فرهنگی

تبریز- خیابان ارتش جنوبی - کدپستی ۵۱۳۸۶۷۴۶۱۱ تلفن ۵-۵۵۶۹۹۹۲ وب سایت اداره کل: WWW.EA.MEDU.IR
آدرس پست الکترونیکی دبیرخانه : P-DBRK@EAEDU.ORG

(b) *Official Decree of Turkish Educational Ministry*

T.C.
MİLLÎ EĞİTİM BAKANLIĞI
Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğü

K-Q TSE-ISO-EN 9000

Sayı : B.08.0.YET.0.00.00.00.605.99-738/3735 26./10/2011
Konu : Araştırma İzni

HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE
(Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü)

İlgi : a) 07.10.2011 tarih ve B.30.2.HAC.0.41.00.00-200/4637 sayılı yazı,
b) 21.10.2011 tarihli Araştırma Değerlendirme Komisyon Kararı,
c) 28.02.2007 tarih ve B.08.0.EGD.0.33.05.311-311/1084 sayılı Makam Onayı ile Uygulamaya Konulan "Millî Eğitim Bakanlığına Bağlı Okul ve Kurumlarda Yapılacak Araştırma ve Araştırma Desteğine Yönelik İzin ve Uygulama Yönergesi.

Üniversiteniz Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı Doktora öğrencisi Ebrahim KHEZERLOU'nun "A Cross-Cultural Examination of English Language Teachers' Job Burn-Out: The Case of Iran and Turkey" konulu araştırmasında kullanılacak veri toplama araçlarını Türkiye genelindeki ortaöğretim kurumlarında görev yapmakta olan İngilizce öğretmenlerine uygulama izin talebi incelenmiştir.

Üniversiteniz tarafından kabul edilerek onaylı bir örneği Bakanlığımızda muhafaza edilen 9 sayfa 158 sorudan oluşan veri toplama araçlarının örneklem olarak seçilen okulun yöneticilerinin bilgileri dâhilinde örneklem olarak belirlenen kaynak kişilere gerekli açıklamanın yapılması ve gönüllülük esas olmak kaydıyla Türkiye genelindeki ortaöğretim kurumlarında görev yapmakta olan İngilizce öğretmenlerine uygulanmasında bir sakınca görülmemektedir.

İlgi (c) Yönergenin 5. Maddesinin (o) bendi uyarınca teslim tutanağının imzalanarak araştırmanın bitiminde sonuç raporunun iki örneğinin Bakanlığımıza gönderilmesi gerekmektedir.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Mahmut TÜNCEL
Bakan a.
Genel Müdür

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