

T.C.
NECMETTİN ERBAKAN UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

**THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER AUTONOMY
PERCEPTIONS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN
LANGUAGE TEACHERS ON THEIR BURNOUT
LEVELS: VAN CASE**

Aysel KOÇAK
MASTER THESIS

Supervisor
Assist. Prof. Dr. Ece SARIGÜL

Konya-2018

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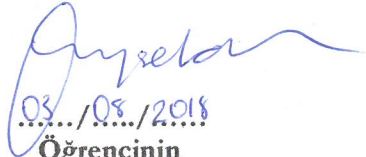
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BİLİMSEL ETİK SAYFASI

Öğrencinin	Adı Soyadı	Aysel KOÇAK
	Numarası	138304031028
	Ana Bilim Dalı	Yabancı Diller Eğitimi
	Bilim Dalı	İngiliz Dili Eğitimi
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Bu tezin proje safhasından sonuçlanmasına kadarki bütün süreçlerde bilimsel etiğe ve akademik kurallara özenle riayet edildiğini, tez içindeki bütün bilgilerin etik davranış ve akademik kurallar çerçevesinde elde edilerek sunulduğunu, ayrıca tez yazım kurallarına uygun olarak hazırlanan bu çalışmada başkalarının eserlerinden yararlanılması durumunda bilimsel kurallara uygun olarak atıf yapıldığını bildiririm.


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YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ KABUL FORMU

Öğrencinin	Adı Soyadı	Aysel KOÇAK
	Numarası	138304031028
	Ana Bilim Dalı	Yabancı Diller Eğitimi
	Bilim Dalı	İngiliz Dili Eğitimi
	Programı	Tezli Yüksek Lisans
	Tez Danışmanı	Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ece SARIGÜL
	Tezin Adı	The Effects of Teacher Autonomy Perceptions of English As A Foreign Language Teachers on Their Burnout Levels: Van Case

Yukarıda adı geçen öğrenci tarafından hazırlanan “The Effects of Teacher Autonomy Perceptions of English As A Foreign Language Teachers on Their Burnout Levels: Van Case” başlıklı bu çalışma 13/07/2018 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda oybirliği ile başarılı bulunarak, jürimiz tarafından yüksek lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

	Ünvanı Adı Soyadı	İmza
Danışman	Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ece SARIGÜL	
Jüri Üyesi	Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Galip KARTAL	
Jüri Üyesi	Doç. Dr. Yağmur KÜÇÜKBEZİRCİ	

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**THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER AUTONOMY PERCEPTIONS OF ENGLISH
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS ON THEIR BURNOUT LEVELS:
VAN CASE**

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout (Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Personal Accomplishment) among English as a Foreign Language Teachers in middle schools of Van using a Teacher Autonomy Scale (Pearson & Hall, 1993) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (Maslach, 1986). In addition, demographic variables, including gender, age, marital status, academic level, years of teaching experience, and classroom size were investigated to determine if they were explanatory factors. The participants from different 39 middle schools in central districts of Van participated in the study.

This study followed correlational research design. The required data were collected through the surveys from 100 English teachers and the relationship between the surveys was analyzed. The study results revealed statistically significant differences in teachers' autonomy perception and their overall burnout scores. When the three subscales of MBI-ES were analyzed separately with TAS, the findings showed that a low negative correlation existed between teacher autonomy and EE (Emotional Exhaustion), similarly, there was a slight negative correlation between teacher autonomy and DP (Depersonalization) whereas the correlation between teacher autonomy and PA (Personal Accomplishment) was positive and significant.

The results from the study confirmed that there is a relationship between English as a Foreign Language Teachers' autonomy perceptions and burnout levels. The teachers have moderate level of teacher autonomy perception however; their burnout levels vary among the dimension of MBI-ES. They have moderate level of Emotional Exhaustion and low level of Depersonalization whereas almost high level of Personal Accomplishment. Furthermore, teacher autonomy and teacher burnout were explored in terms of demographic variables yet there were no significant relationships between demographic variables and both teacher autonomy and teacher burnout.

It is hoped that this study contributes to the field of English Language Teaching, teacher training, and teacher development by highlighting the factors related to the relationship between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout. The findings suggest that there may be inherent benefits of improving teacher autonomy for decreasing teacher burnout. Moreover, in the light of these findings, it is possible to recommend for English teachers and the ones who are interested in English language education the burnout problem can be avoided burnout by gaining autonomy.

Keywords: Teacher Autonomy, Teacher Burnout, English Language Teaching



İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN ÖZERKLİK ALGILARININ TÜKENMİŞLİK SEVİYELERİNE ETKİLERİ: VAN ÖRNEĞİ

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı Van İli ortaokullarında görev yapan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin öğretmen özerkliği algıları ile tükenmişlik seviyeleri (Duygusal Tükenme, Duyarsızlaşma, Kişisel Başarı) arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Belirtilen ilişkiyi incelemek için Öğretmen Özerklik Ölçeği (Pearson & Hall, 1993) ve Maslach Tükenmişlik Envanteri-Eğitimci Anketi (Maslach, 1986) kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca, açıklayıcı faktörler olup olmadığını belirlemek için cinsiyet, yaş, medeni hal, akademik seviye, mesleki deneyim süresi ve sınıf büyüklüğü gibi demografik değişkenler araştırılmıştır. Çalışmaya Van İli merkez ilçelerinden 39 ortaokul katılmıştır.

Bu çalışma, nicel ve korelasyonel bir araştırmadır. 100 İngilizce öğretmenin anketleri ile gerekli veriler toplanmış ve aralarındaki ilişki analiz edilmiştir. Araştırma sonuçları öğretmenlerin özerklik algıları ve tükenmişlik seviyeleri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklılıklar olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Maslach Tükenmişlik Envanterinin üç alt ölçeği ayrı ayrı Öğretmen Özerklik Ölçeği ile analiz edildiğinde, bulgular öğretmen özerkliği ile Duygusal Tükenme arasında düşük bir negatif korelasyon, benzer şekilde öğretmen özerkliği ve Duyarsızlaşma arasında hafif bir negatif korelasyon olduğunu göstermiştir. Öğretmen özerkliği ile Kişisel Başarı arasındaki korelasyonun ise pozitif yönde ve anlamlı olduğu ortaya konmuştur.

Araştırmanın sonuçları, İngilizce öğretmenlerinin özerklik algıları ve tükenmişlik düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkiyi doğrulamıştır. Bununla birlikte İngilizce öğretmenlerinin orta düzeyde öğretmen özerkliği algısına sahip olduklarını; tükenmişlik seviyelerinin ise tükenmişliğin alt boyutlarına göre farklılıklar gösterdiğini belirlemiştir. Öğretmenlerin tükenmişliğin alt boyutlardan elde ettikleri ortalamalara bakıldığında, orta düzeyde duygusal tükenme, düşük düzeyde duyarsızlaşma ve hemen hemen yüksek düzeyde kişisel başarı seviyesinde oldukları sonucuna varılmıştır. Ayrıca öğretmen özerkliği ve öğretmen tükenmişliği demografik değişkenler açısından araştırılmış ancak demografik değişkenler ile

öğretmen özerkliği ve öğretmen tükenmişliği arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır.

Bu çalışmanın, öğretmen özerkliği ile öğretmen tükenmişliği arasındaki ilişki ile alakalı faktörleri vurgulayarak İngilizce Dil Eğitimi, öğretmen eğitimi ve öğretmen geliştirme alanlarına katkıda bulunması umuluyor. Bulgular, öğretmen tükenmişliğini azaltmak için öğretmen özerkliğinin geliştirilmesinden doğabilecek yararlar olabileceğini düşündürmektedir. Ayrıca, bu bulgular ışığında, İngilizce öğretmenleri ve İngilizce eğitimiyle ilgilenenler için özerklik kazanarak tükenmişlikten kaçınmanın mümkün olabileceği önerilebilir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Öğretmen Özerkliği, Öğretmen Tükenmişliği, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA:	Analysis of Variance
CA:	Curriculum Autonomy
EE:	Emotional Exhaustion
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
ELT:	English Language Teaching
GA:	General Autonomy
MBI:	Maslach Burnout Inventory
MBI-ES:	MBI–Educators Survey
MBI-GS:	MBI–General Survey
MBI-HSS:	MBI–Human Services Survey
MoNE:	Ministry of National Education
PA:	Personal Accomplishment
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TA:	Teacher Autonomy
TAS:	Teacher Autonomy Scale

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the outline of the study. First, the background of the study, and statement of the problem are introduced. Then, the purpose and the significance of the study are explained. Afterwards, research questions, assumptions and limitations of the study are clarified and finally, definitions of terms are introduced.

1.1. Background of the Study

Language teaching is increasingly identified as significant by governments, international organizations, corporations, education systems, militaries, immigration and refugee services (Long, 2009). Countries and societies spend amount of money, resources and time to improve the quality of language education, mostly English language, in their schools to keep up the world. This increasing need and growing recognition bring greater responsibility for language teachers, especially for English language teachers, because English Language is a “lingua franca” in that millions of people across the world speak English to communicate with each other however their native languages are not English. Jenkins (2012, p.486) underlines that “English has served as a means of communication among speakers of different first languages (i.e. a lingua franca for many centuries)”. In this perspective, these reasons and the lingua franca position of English is quiet challenging and gives extra workload to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers.

EFL teachers always face with variety of challenges along their profession and they must learn how to improve their teaching skills and how to cope with these challenges to teach effectively. In this sense, what characteristic of ELF teachers must have and what challenges which these teachers are supposed to cope with come into question. Little (1995, p.179) describe successful teachers as “...genuinely successful teachers have always been autonomous in the sense of having a strong sense of personal responsibility for their teaching”. It is not wrong to say that having sense of autonomy is one of the characteristics of teachers to be considered as

successful. Balçıkanlı (2009) supports the previous idea and states that the way to be a successful teacher and learner is to flourish autonomous behaviours.

The concept of autonomy has gained remarkably significant popularity in language teaching and learning in recent years and considered a desirable aim of education as well as a key of effective teaching and learning (Areglado 1996; Schunk & Zimmerman 1994, 1998). Policy makers, administrators, educational researchers and practitioners give great importance to teacher autonomy over the past two decades.

The term ‘autonomy’ is both a “slippery term” and “multifaceted concept” because it takes its sources from the politics and moral philosophy and usually confused with independent learning and self-instruction and its meaning has been debated from many perspectives by theoreticians (Benson 2001, 2007). According to SDT (derived from Self-Determination Theory), autonomy is a fundamental mankind demand, and tasting autonomy is crucial to well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This theory claims that people are naturally inclined to autonomous behaviors and they need autonomy for healthy functioning.

Teacher autonomy comes into question after many studies on learner autonomy in language education field and researches on teacher autonomy gain speed with the idea that teachers are no more just a conduit for methods devised by authority, but they are self-directed learner and practitioner (Benson, 2011). The concept of learner autonomy in second language learning and teaching was first introduced by Henri Holec who portray learner autonomy as the “ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (Holec, 1981, p.3). This concept of autonomy leads to change the roles of learners and teachers in ELF classes. Benson (2001) states that these developments have bought the notion of teacher autonomy to the field of language teaching. Little (1995) underlines that teacher autonomy is a precondition for learner autonomy and cannot be separated from learner autonomy since they are interdependent. Vieira (2007) points out that “Unless teachers are free to make pedagogical choices that favor learner autonomy; there is no way that pedagogy for autonomy can flourish in schools.” In this regard, it is evident that teachers are active participants of

autonomous learning process. Teachers must be autonomous to foster their learners' autonomy.

Teaching is stressful (Borg & Riding, 1991) and especially teachers experience stressful and demanding events along their profession (Burke & Richardsen, 1996). Teachers suffer stress during their profession and long-term job stress of people who do human service, like teachers is named as "burnout" (Jennet et al., 2003). Haberman (2004) emphasizes that burnout is very challenging for every profession but above all in education. "The teaching profession is among the most stressful of all occupations because of the daily unrelenting pressures and fragmented demands from a number of sources- students, parents, and administrators as well as from the teachers themselves" (Blasé,1991; Blasé & Kirby,1999 as cited by Kottler, Zehm & Kottler, 2005, p.116). Maslach and Leiter (1997) point out that some occupations require face to face interaction and this makes these professions emotionally and physically demanding such as teaching profession, so teaching is more demanding and stressful (Abel & Sewell, 1999; Iwanicki, 2001). Some studies show that teachers experience highest level of job stress among human service professionals they experience burnout (Stoeber & Rennert, 2008). Hock (1988) also claims that teachers are one of the groups they experienced much more burnout. Therefore, it is evident that there are some factors that cause teachers to experience burnout. According to Skaalvik & Skaalvik (2007) lack of autonomy may cause job stress and autonomy is one of the job resources that reduce feeling of burnout (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009). It can be inferred that EFL teachers need autonomy to cope with the challenges along their profession.

The notion of burnout is introduced by Freudenberger (1974, p.160) and he defines it as "the state of physical and emotional depletion resulting from conditions of work". He emphasizes that burnout is a challenge which workers face in human services professionals like nurses, teachers, social workers (Freudenberger, 1974). Later, Maslach and Jackson (1981, p.99) define burnout as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do 'people-work' of some kind".

Many studies investigate the teacher sense of autonomy (Friedman, 1999; Pearson & Moomaw, 2006; Short & Rinehart, 1992; Wilson, 1993) and find a close relationship between teachers' perception of autonomy and their job satisfaction and commitment. These studies clearly indicate that there is a strong relationship between teacher autonomy and job satisfaction. Teachers who feel autonomous in teaching related issues are satisfied with their professions. It is possible to make inferences that non-autonomous teachers do not satisfy their job, and this can lead teachers to burn out. Burned out teachers are prone to be less empathetic and less tolerant towards their students. Moreover, they prepare inadequately for class, and feel less devoted to their job (Dollard et al., 2003).

Teacher burnout leads significant consequences for teacher themselves, their families, colleagues, school administrations and students and causes important deterioration in productivity and quality of the education system. Friedman and Farber (1992) argue that burnout syndrome experienced by a teacher can affect their families, administrators, students, parents, and the whole society in short. The results of teacher burnout are not only limited in the educational environment, the society is affected with every aspect (Çokluk, 2003, p. 120,121). Burnout can lead to disruption in the quality of service, negative feelings towards the people they are serviced, hate feelings, reduced effectiveness in work, and failure to achieve goals (Maslach, 1982). One of the most significant results of burnout is decrease of service quality (Armstrong, 1977; Chance, 1981; Dixon et al., 1980; Truch, 1980; Weiskopf, 1980 cited in Çokluk, 2003). Encouraging autonomy and give authority to teachers can help schools to cope with current problems (Pearson & Moomaw, 2006).

Burnout is minded being infectious hence, dissatisfied, dispirited, and dejected teachers can affect others in the school; make the organization peaceless and uninviting place (Demirel, 2014). Teachers undertake a momentous role in creating peaceful atmosphere in the school and society so how teachers feel about their job matters all the society. Purkey (1970) emphasizes that teachers' feelings of accomplished and well about themselves and their competences encourage the students to feel in the same way. Teachers' negative feelings like failure and/or

lacking in personal satisfaction may lead to suffer their relationship with students and the school vice versa.

1.2.The Statement of the Problem

There are some factors that influence teachers' feelings negatively and cause dissatisfaction, stress, and demotivation towards their professions. Teachers are the main component of the education, so decrease of their motivation because of several reasons can affect not only students but all the society. Unlike other teaching areas, English language teaching is very demanding and challenging because of globalization, moreover it is also a great responsibility and workload for EFL teachers. It is clear how important teachers are for reaching educational and social goals, so, it is not wrong to say how teachers feel about their professions also matters for reaching these goals. There are diverse studies exploring teachers' feelings about their job (Borg, Riding, & Falzon, 1991; Chan, 2004). Phil (2010) states that teacher autonomy is a way to protect teachers to experience burnout.

Vorkink (2006, p.17) states 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”. While teacher autonomy has vital importance in language education and requires “the capacity, freedom, and/or responsibility to make choices concerning one’s own teaching” (Aoki, 2000, p.19), Turkey is still very tightly bound with a centralized education system (Akşit, 2007; Öztürk, 2011; Uygun, 2008; Üzüm, 2014). This centralized system expects teachers to fulfill all the requirements relying on the curriculum and the course books distributed by MoNE (Ministry of National Education).

Like all other teachers, EFL teachers cannot control what they teach and considered as only an implementer of teaching. This lack of control and non-involvement of educational processes like curriculum development may cause some negative feelings like stress, dissatisfaction, and demotivation and consequently may lead teachers to experience burnout. Almost thirty to seventy-five percent of teachers

undergo a moderate to high degree of stress in their profession (Borg et al., 1991), and as a result, expose to burnout and quit their jobs.

In 2004, MoNE made a reform in education; renewed and prepared curriculums in the light of the constructivist approach and textbooks were designed based on this approach. In this reform of the curriculum, teachers should be able to arrange the learning environment according to students' learning styles, needs and levels. In Piaget's constructivist approach, promoting student autonomy is an important goal of education. Teachers should demonstrate that their students can make independent decisions, solve problems, and produce knowledge, ideas and judgments (Castle, 2004). Also, according to the constructivist approach, the learning environment, content and methods should be organized according to each student's own learning characteristics, prior knowledge, and socio-cultural conditions. Teachers must differentiate their teaching for each class, even for each student as much as possible (More, 2000). De Vries and Kohlberg (cited in Castle, 2004, p.6) explains this as:

"Like constructivism, autonomy is not just for students. The autonomous constructor teacher knows not only what to do, but also why. It has a strong network of ideas both theoretical and practical. (...) Autonomous teachers are not involved in the process of accepting questions raised by curriculum specialists without questioning them. They consider whether they agree with the proposals. They take responsibility for the education they give their students. "

However, it seems unlikely that such reform can be achieved without the support of teacher autonomy. Adopting a constructivist approach and not supporting teacher autonomy is a contradiction itself. The most successful countries in the PISA 2012 exam are countries that distribute the allocated resources equally among all schools and provide greater autonomy to schools. For this reason, good examples of countries providing higher autonomy to schools and teachers can be adapted to the Turkish education system.

In sum, education stakeholders as policy makers, government officials, and school administrations mustn't ignore teachers' needs of autonomy and must find

ways to meet the need for teacher autonomy because it is clear that teacher autonomy protect teachers from teacher stress and teacher burnout, motivate and empower them, and make education organizations more inviting places.

1.3.The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine if there is a relationship between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout assessing a sample of Van middle school English teachers using Teacher Autonomy Scale (TAS) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES). Demographic factors including gender, age, marital status, academic level, years of teaching experience, and classroom size will be also examined to determine if they are casual factors.

In this study, firstly the perceived autonomy level of English language teachers will be measured by Teacher Autonomy Scale (TAS) developed by Pearson and Hall (1993) and burnout level of the teachers will be measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) which is developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981). The MBI-ES' three subscales, Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment will be examined with TAS with reference to the socio-demographic variables. Finally, the correlation of teacher autonomy and teacher burnout (EE, DP, and PA) will be examined.

1.4.Research Questions

This current study aims to find answers to following questions:

1. What is the perceived level of teacher autonomy for English language teachers of middle schools?
2. Is there any relationship between teacher autonomy and demographic variables for English language teachers of middle schools?
3. What is the perceived level of burnout for English language teachers in middle schools?
4. Is there any relationship between teacher burnout and demographic variables of English language teachers of middle schools?
5. Is there a significant relation between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout?

1.5.The Significance of the study

This present study is significant in that it explores both teacher autonomy and teacher burnout. These two research subjects are very important for the development of education because teachers are who improve the quality of education. Teaching is very stressful and demanding job and stressed teacher has a negative effect on education system (Kyriacou, 2001). Encouraging teachers to have autonomy in their teaching and foster their students' autonomous behaviors are one of the most desirable goals of education. Teacher autonomy is defined as having control over one's own learning (Benson, 2002; Shaw, 2002). When teachers cannot control teaching related issues and teaching environment, they may experience negative feelings to both their students and their profession.

Many studies have been conducted to enlighten teacher autonomy (Gül, 2015; Karabacak, 2014; Öztürk, 2012; Şakar, 2013; Üzüm, 2014) and teacher burnout (Çolak, 2016; Demirel, 2014; Güneş, 2015; Güven, 2013; Khezerlou, 2012; Tümkaya, 1996) in Turkey, while studies on the relationship between teacher autonomy and feeling burnout of EFL teachers are very limited. The previous studies examined how important teachers' autonomy perceptions and burnout levels in teaching. These studies presented a very detailed exploration of these topics but a study on possible links between these two issues is neglected. We expect that the results of this study will give relative information about teachers' perceived level of autonomy and burnout levels. Furthermore, this present study can shed light on the question if autonomous teachers have less burnout levels.

1.6.Limitations of the Study

This research aims to determine the possible relationship between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout in relation to gender, age, marital status, academic level, years of teaching experience, and classroom size.

There are some limitations of this present study:

- This current study is conducted with a certain group of participants they are teaching English in the middle schools in Van, Turkey, during the first

term of 2016-2017 academic year, so it cannot be generalized to all teaching setting.

- The number of participants is limited to 100. This number should be increased to get more detailed results.
- Two different scales are used to collect data; therefore, accuracy of the answers depends on participants attitudes. They may not reflect their actual thoughts, and this could affect findings negatively.

1.7. Definitions of Terms

Definitions of terms are given alphabetically as follows:

Burnout: it is defined as “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: it “refers to a negative, callous, or excessively detached response to various aspects of the job” (Maslach et al., 2001, p.399).

Emotional Exhaustion: it refers “feelings of being emotionally overextended and depleted of one's emotional resources.” (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998, p.64)

Learner Autonomy: it is defined as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning.” (Holec, 1981, p.8)

Reduced Personal Accomplishment: it is defined as “feelings of incompetence and a lack of achievement and productivity at work” (Maslach et al., 2001, p.399).

Stress: it refers to “a state of mental or emotional strain or tension resulting from adverse or demanding circumstances.” (Oxford English Dictionary Online).

Teacher Autonomy: it is defined as “teachers’ capacity to engage in self-directed teaching” (Little, 1995, p.176).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter gives a literature review of teacher autonomy and teacher burnout. In the first part of this chapter what teacher autonomy is will be explained both in general educational context and language education context. Afterwards, the scope and dimensions of autonomy will be clarified, and functions of teacher autonomy will be presented. Later, the factors that limit teacher autonomy will be emphasized. In the second part, the concept of teacher burnout and its components will be introduced. Then, factors that lead teachers to experience burnout will be questioned.

2.1. What is Teacher Autonomy?

The concept of autonomy is defined differently by many authors. It refers “the right of a group of people to govern itself, or to organize its own activities” (Cambridge International Dictionary of English, 1995, p.82), “freedom from external control or influence; independence” (OED Online, 2018) and “freedom that a place or an organization has to govern or control itself” or “the ability or opportunity to make your own decisions without being controlled by anyone else” (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2018).

In the field of autonomy, teacher autonomy seems to be one of the most important and doubtful concepts because many components conduce its development (Benson, 2006). Researchers view and describe the concept from a multidimensional point of view because of diverse reasons despite its widespread use so, what teacher autonomy means and its implications for education and education stakeholders are still vague. Many researchers have studied on teacher autonomy with diverse variables like work environments (Pearson & Moomaw, 2006), decision making processes (Friedman, 1999), organizational climate (LaCoe, 2006), school policies (Hara, 2006), curriculum development (Dymoke & Harrison, 2006), instructors’ perspectives (Garvin, 2007). Furthermore, scholars and practitioners have engaged teacher autonomy to teacher empowerment (Short & Rinehart, 1992), teacher education (Little, 1995; Smith, 2003; Tort-Moloney, 1997), learner autonomy

(Allwright, 1991; Benson, 2011; Cotterall & Crabbe, 2008; Little, 1995, 2007; Shaw, 2002; Usma & Frodden, 2003;), professional development (Fleming, 1998) and learning of students (Sinclair, McGrath, & Lamb, 2000).

Researchers use some common terms like capacity, competence, ability, freedom, control, and independence to define or explain what teacher autonomy means (Aoki 2002; Boote, 2006; Huang, 2005; Shaw, 2002; Smith, 2003; Smith & Erdoğan, 2008; Street & Licata, 1989;).

Street and Licata (1989) defined the concept of teacher autonomy as “the teacher’s feelings of independence from the institution in making instructional decisions with the classroom”. They interpret teacher autonomy in terms of classroom teaching and it can be inferred from the definition that teacher autonomy is an institutional independence of instructional decisions like teaching strategies, choosing teaching materials and classroom rules.

Pearson and Hall (1993, p. 172) define teacher autonomy as “...the right of teachers to manage themselves and their job environment”. They investigate the concept in terms of pedagogy, curriculum, and classroom discipline and environment. They explain two aspects of teacher autonomy: general autonomy referring to the “issues concerning classroom standards of conduct and personal on-the-job discretion” and curricular autonomy referring to “issues concerning selection of activities and materials and instructional planning and sequencing” (p. 177).

Shaw (2002, p.2) defines it as “...the capacity to take control of one’s own teaching”. Like Shaw (2002), Boote (2006, p. 465) also prefers to use term capacity to define the term as “capacity and obligation to decide what actions are appropriate and the ability to take those actions”. Ling (2007, p. 96) suggests his definition of teacher autonomy as “...an insight, a positive attitude, a capacity for reflection in teaching, and a readiness to promote the learner to be more independent and to take control over his/her own teaching”.

Jimenez Raya, Lamb & Vieira (2007, p. 1) assert that autonomy is “...the competence to develop as a self-determined, socially responsible and critically aware participant in (and beyond) educational environments, within a vision of education as

(inter) personal empowerment and social transformation”. The definition of autonomy refers both teacher and learner autonomy. It is clear that their definitions emphasize on “social” aspect of teacher and learner autonomy.

Öztürk (2011, p. 83) defines the concept in a broad perspective as: “scope of authority and freedom includes that the teachers can make some important decisions related to their job as ‘professionals’, have a right to say about the organization of their work place, and participating into the educational planning, improvement and management processes”.

In language learning and teaching, the concept of autonomy come into the field with The Council of Europe (CoE)’s a Modern Languages Project in 1971. according to Benson (2010), one of the results of this project was the creation of the Centre de Reserches et d’Applications en Langues (CRAPEL) at the University of Nancy, France, which was founded by Yves Chalon who is accepted as the father of autonomy in language learning, and this centre became a centric point for research and practice in the field. Chalon died in 1972 and Henry Holec, considered an important figure within the field of autonomy took over the leadership of CRAPEL. Holec reported a project, which was based on life-long learning opportunities for adults, is regarded as an early document on autonomy in language learning. In the field of language education, the concept of teacher autonomy emerges in the literature with the rise of learner autonomy and has not yet been thoroughly debated in the teacher education area.

A large literature on learner autonomy now exist beginning with Holec (1981) who defines learner autonomy as “ability to take charge of one’s own learning”. Benson & Huang (2008) express that it seems to be there is a reasonable consensus on definition of learner autonomy with the help of 30 years and more of research and practice; however, what teacher autonomy means in the context of language education is still controversial owing to lack of discussion and “equate teacher autonomy with professional freedom, or the degree to which curricula and institution allow scope for teacher discretion”.

Researches, mostly, are concentrated on learner autonomy however, recently, focus has shifted from learner autonomy to teacher autonomy because as Huang (2007) asserts: “with the rise of learner autonomy as an important goal in education, the idea of teacher autonomy came to the point.” Researches on teacher autonomy gain speed and autonomy studies in language learning and teaching focus on teacher autonomy because it is considered a must have for fostering learning autonomy.

Benson (2006) claims that there are some differences in understanding of teacher autonomy between language teaching and other teaching contexts since it is more focused on “teacher autonomy as a professional attribute and the link between teacher autonomy and learner autonomy”. This link or possible links between learner and teacher autonomy is emphasized by many researchers (Allwright, 1991; Benson, 2011; Cotterall & Crabbe, 2008; Little, 1995, 2007; Shaw, 2002;). The idea that learners should be able to control their own learning not only in class but also independently, without a teacher outside the classroom, is widely accepted in the field of language teaching (Benson, 2001). However, Little (1991) suggests that learner autonomy should not be misunderstood as “learning without a teacher (at home, with a computer, in a self-access centre, etc.), and/or that it does away with the need for a teacher”. Instead, learning autonomy is concerned with a capacity that can be discovered and explored in several forms and situations, especially with the help of teacher autonomy.

Barfield et al (2002, p. 3) explain the concept as “a continual process of inquiry into how teaching can best promote autonomous learning for learners”. Reinders and Balçıkanlı (2011) points out two important aspects of teaching that increase learner autonomy: first is the teacher’s own autonomy and second is some teaching skills and competences related to the flourishing autonomy. According to them, language courses are one of the best places for learners to gain autonomy and develop appropriate skills. For this reason, classroom teacher will have a great influence on the development of learners' autonomy. Therefore, teacher autonomy and learner autonomy are closely linked. “It is teachers’ autonomy to cultivate a good environment for learners so that learners may acquire and practice the

knowledge autonomously” (Yan, 2010). However, Benson (2007) queries if more autonomous learners are more effective in language learning.

Smith (2003) emphasizes that in the field of language teaching and learning “definitions have tended to advocate one *aspect* to the exclusion of others, from teacher autonomy as a generalized ‘right to freedom from control’ (Benson 2000), to teachers’ capacity to engage in self-directed teaching (Little 1995, Tort-Moloney 1997), to teacher’s autonomy as *learners* (Smith, 2000)” and continues by defining teacher autonomy as “...the ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for oneself as a teacher, in cooperation with others” (p.1).

Allwright (1991) states that teachers and students are inevitably *co-producers* of language classrooms, so they cannot be thought separately. Little (1995) supports Allwright’s expression emphasizing that learner autonomy and teacher autonomy are interdependent, so promotion of learner autonomy depends on promotion of teacher autonomy. Furthermore, Little (1995) claims that teacher autonomy is a prerequisite for the development of learner autonomy and adds “by the same token, language teachers are more likely to succeed in promoting learner autonomy if their own education has encouraged them to be autonomous”. Little (1995) emphasized the link between teacher and learner autonomy by stating that the progression of learner autonomy depends on the progression of teacher autonomy in two aspects. First, it is irrational to anticipate teachers to encourage autonomy of their learners unless they themselves have an idea in what extent they are autonomous. Second, in determining the initiatives they take in the classroom, teachers must be able to make use of their professional skills in an autonomous way, perform the same reflective and self-managing processes in their teaching just as they perform in their learning.

Benson (2001, p. 185) also supports the Little’s idea that first, teachers themselves must be autonomous in the way they teach and learn to foster their learners’ autonomy. Similarly, Edelhoff (1984, p. 189, cited in Dam, 2007, p. 1) claims that “...teachers will hardly be prepared or able to administer autonomous learning processes in their students if their own learning is not geared to the same principles.”

It can be mentioned a consensus over “...it is the teacher’s responsibility to develop learner autonomy in class” (Dam 1995, p. 79). Voller (1997) specifies that “if students are to learn to take control, the teacher may need to learn to let go, even as she provides scaffolding and structure.” If we really want to succeed considerable improvement in the increasing of learner autonomy we have to make teacher autonomy a focus of attention, and particularly in the organization and the mediation of teacher education (Little, 1995). Some discuss that the progression of learner autonomy makes a shift necessary in the role of the teacher from conduit of information to facilitator and counselor of learning and promoter of learning resources (Little, 1995). While learner autonomy is being developed, teachers are suggested to help learners “to set personal goals, monitor and reflect on their performance, and modify their learning behavior accordingly” (Cotterall, 2000, p. 116).

Previous discussions were summed up and emphasized by Smith (2003) as the multidimensionality of teacher autonomy as well as the importance of teacher-learner autonomy associated with professional development. Smith (2003, 2006) and later Smith and Erdoğan (2008) opt to exploit the term teacher/learner autonomy and define it as “...the ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for oneself as a teacher, in cooperation with others” (2008, p. 83).

The concept of teacher autonomy in the literature of language teaching was presented by Allwright (1990) first and contributed by Little (1995) later in a paper that was preceded by several contributions extending work on teacher roles in self-access to classroom settings (Benson, 2006).

Teacher autonomy is defined by many in applied linguistics (Aoki, 2000; Benson, 2000; Huang, 2005; Little, 1995; McGrath, 2000; Smith, 2000; 2003; 2006). Little (1991) defines the concept as “Autonomy is a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action”. Little (1995) supports the importance of autonomous teachers for promoting learners’ autonomy, emphasizing the necessity to analyze teacher autonomy in a field where learner autonomy was being considerably discussed and researched. He expresses that:

“Successful learners have always been autonomous. The same is true of teacher autonomy. Genuinely successful teachers have always been autonomous in the sense of having a strong sense of personal responsibility for their teaching, exercising via continuous reflection and analysis the highest possible degree of affective and cognitive control of the teaching process, and exploiting the freedom that this confers.”

Littlewood (1996) defines autonomy with two aspects as capacity and willingness and adds that teachers need the capacity for being free in decision making processes that require having abilities and skills for action; and they are in want of willingness that include motivation and reliance to execute choices. He highlights the significance of capacity and willingness to get autonomy.

Aoki (2002, p. 111) describe the concept of teacher autonomy as “...the capacity, freedom, and/or responsibility to make choices concerning one’s own teaching” but because of the limited scope of the definition she accepts her definition a bit problematic. Furthermore, Benson (2000, p. 111) claims that teacher autonomy can be seen as “a right to freedom from control and/or an ability to exercise this right”.

McGrath (2000) explains teacher autonomy comprehensively with two dimensions as psychological and political: a) “...teacher autonomy as a self-directed professional development” b) “...teacher autonomy as freedom of control by others” (McGrath 2000, p. 101-102). The terms self-directed and freedom get to the foreground in this definition but Vieira (2006) disagrees with McGrath (2000) because she supports the idea that “teacher autonomy is not about doing as one wants of being free from external control.” instead, teacher autonomy is “striving for what you believe and empowering yourself as a teacher.” Usma (2007) agrees with Vieira (2006) and adds “Teacher autonomy does not refer to an absolute state of freedom from constraints. It refers to the responsible exercise of discretion within the limits of school stakeholders’ interest and needs.” Alienation is not autonomy (Franklin, 1988), negotiation and collaboration empower teacher autonomy (Smith, 2003). Furthermore, freedom cannot be understood as irresponsible and limitless autonomy

while there is still an ongoing debate on the ideal limits of autonomy (Öztürk, 2011).

Smith (2000, p. 89) defines the concept as “the ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for oneself as a teacher, in cooperation with others.” Smith (2001, p. 5) also presents six characteristics of teacher autonomy:

- Self-directed professional action,
- Capacity for self-directed professional action,
- Freedom from control over professional action,
- Self-directed professional development,
- Capacity for self-directed professional development,
- Freedom from control over professional development.

Teacher autonomy was defined as "the capacity of teachers to engage in self-directed teaching" (Little, 1995), "teachers' ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge, and attitudes" (Smith, 2000); and as “a teacher's ability and willingness to help learners take responsibility for their own learning” (Thavenius, 1999, p. 160).

Huang (2005, p. 206) prefers defining teacher autonomy “...teachers' willingness, capacity and freedom to take control of their own teaching and learning”. According to Huang's definition one can understand willingness, capacity, and freedom are prerequisites for teachers to be autonomous.

Unlike the others who define teacher autonomy, Yan (2010) highlights that there is one more component in teacher autonomy, which is teachers' attitudes. Yan groups teacher autonomy into three dimensions: capacity and freedom in knowledge, skills and attitudes. He thinks that positive attitudes towards teacher autonomy have great importance to practice teacher autonomy whereas, teachers' negative attitudes to teacher autonomy inhibit the process.

Even if there are lots of definitions of teacher autonomy with different points of view, the common spot each study has that teacher autonomy is one of the most important issues that need to be considered in classroom teaching, teacher development and the education system in general.

2.1.1. The Scope and Dimensions of Teacher Autonomy

In this part of the study the scope and dimensions of the teacher autonomy will be elaborated. Researchers have shown that in almost every part of the world, teachers have an actual autonomy in classroom teaching since the closed structure of the classroom environment provides them with a certain amount of informal independence (Anderson, 1987). Within the classroom, the teacher is the sole authority and there is a work environment in which teachers can act freely (Üzüm, 2014, p. 27). However, Öztürk (2011) states that the concept of teacher autonomy is a much larger phenomenon than teacher's freedom of classroom and teaching activities.

Pearson and Hall (1993, p. 177) investigate the teacher autonomy in terms of pedagogy, curriculum, and classroom discipline and environment. They explain two aspects of teacher autonomy: general autonomy referring to the “issues concerning classroom standards of conduct and personal on-the-job discretion” and curricular autonomy referring to “issues concerning selection of activities and materials and instructional planning and sequencing”.

Tort-Moloney (1997, p. 50) says that teachers must “become autonomous regarding curricular demands, pedagogical material and discourses, as well as in research, by being able to acknowledge the virtues and limitations of these areas”. He describes the areas where teachers feel themselves autonomous like curriculum, teaching methods, teaching materials and research considering the possible constraints.

Ingersoll (1994, 1996) identifies the concept of teacher autonomy as having authority in two aspects of school education as planning and implementation of teaching and policy making. Ingersoll (1996) describes the planning and implementation of teaching as individual autonomy in that teachers are responsible for managing teaching and classroom activities; and policy making as collective autonomy in that teachers are interdependent with others in the educational processes.

Later, Friedman (1999, p. 59) states that the preceding studies on the teacher autonomy describe teacher autonomy as “a shield against external pressures such as distrust, strong influence, control, excessive organizational demands, and pedagogical limitations”. Furthermore, according to Friedman scales developed for teacher autonomy were “not based on the premise that the concept of teacher autonomy includes being able to initiate ideas and activities and being involved in major school policies and practices”. He claims that the pedagogical aspect of teaching profession was focal point of the previous literature and this is not adequate to explain teacher autonomy because he considers teachers also as members of schools, teachers’ work environment, who is active participant of decision making processes. Consequently, he asserts two dimensions of teacher autonomy as pedagogical and organizational. Both Ingersoll and Friedman consider teachers as professionals who do not only have autonomy in the classroom but also in school and district. This situation increases the demands of teachers for autonomy and authority.

Researchers opt to use term “freedom” to define teacher autonomy and try to describe the areas teachers should be autonomous (Benson, 2000; Huang, 2005; McGrath, 2000; Smith, 2001). Moomaw (2005) shows that freedom cannot be restricted in the classroom; it covers school structure and organization, disciplinary problems, curriculum content, academic standards, staffing and fiscal policy. According to LaCoe (2008), teachers autonomy refers to freedom on curriculum, instructional methods and techniques to be used, assessment and evaluation of student success and behavior, student discipline, time to be spent for classroom activities and teacher's own professional development. Others classify this freedom differently in the related literature. These are planning and implementing instruction (Freidman, 1999; Pearson & Hall, 1993; White, 1992); participating in administrative processes (Freidman, 1999; Ingersoll, 2007) and developing professional capacity and skills; that is, professional development (Šteh & Požarnik, 2005). Similarly, Öztürk (2011) and Üzümlü (2014) express that different aspects of teacher autonomy emerging in the scientific literature can be grouped into three: planning and implementation of teaching, participating in administrative processes, and

professional development. In the following section, the three groups will be examined.

2.1.1.1. Planning and Implementation of Teaching

Teacher autonomy cannot be limited only in classroom teaching (Friedman, 1999; Ingersoll, 1994; Moomaw, 2005; Öztürk, 2011; Pearson and Hall, 1996; Üzüm, 2014). It is true that the roles of the teachers are very diverse; however, their basic role is the planning and implementation of the education and training activities of the students (Gül, 2015; Öztürk 2011). Teachers have the greatest autonomy in classroom teaching activities (Anderson, 1987). According to Strong (2012, p. 37-38), teachers feel autonomous within the dimension of classroom management. Similarly, Ingersoll (2007, p. 24) expresses that the most striking consequences of teacher autonomy are seen in the field of classroom management. It is necessary to give full authority to teachers in classroom teaching in order to increase the quality of education (Eurydice, 2008; Friedman, 1999).

When the literature is examined, the planning and implementation of teaching consists of three dimensions: content design and planning; selection and implementation of teaching methods and materials; evaluation of students (Öztürk, 2011). According to the characteristics and needs of the students, it is accepted that the methods are planned by the teachers, the materials are selected, and they are applied according to the decisions of the teachers (Friedman, 1999).

The necessity of teachers' autonomy in choosing and arranging teaching methods and materials they implement in the class is widely accepted in the literature, over and above, it is accepted as a positive attitude for the teachers to plan their methods, to choose or prepare their materials freely and to apply them to the class in accordance with their own decisions regarding the needs and characteristics of their own pupils (Üzüm, 2014).

Another important issue that concerns teacher autonomy is the assessment of students. Although this issue is not discussed in the literature as much as the content and methods of teaching, it is often within the dimensions of teacher autonomy in developed scales and models (Adams & Wu, 2002, Eurydice, 2008,

Pearson & Hall, 1993). Although assessing the success of students is traditionally a matter of authority for teachers, the prevalence of centralized examinations at different levels (national, regional or local), usually in the form of a test, which measures students' achievement in many countries, including the United States, appears as a phenomenon that restricts teacher autonomy (Adelman & King, 1990).

DeVries and Kohlberg (1987) examined teacher autonomy in the sense of classroom experiences describing the autonomous constructivist teachers who know what they are doing and why they are doing. According to them autonomous teachers criticize the curriculum and revise it considering students' needs and benefits if it is feasible since they do not see teachers as just practitioners or implementers of curriculum as it is presented to them. While there is a consensus on the development of teacher autonomy in the selection and organization of teaching methods and materials in the literature, different approaches arise when the content of teaching is concerned. Teacher autonomy is not always approved when the content of the course is determined by the teacher. Anderson (1999) claims teachers should not be given too much autonomy in determining the content of teaching in order to ensure the integrity and consistency of the teaching system. However, some scholars support the idea that teacher autonomy should not be limited to the selection of teaching methods and materials, it also includes selecting and deciding on the content of teaching (Freidman, 1999, Pearson and Hall, 1993; White, 1992).

Planning and implementation of teaching is main component of education and the dimension where teacher show most autonomous behaviors. However, teacher autonomy can not be limited only in classroom teaching and teachers can not be seen just as implementers of teaching anymore.

2.1.1.2. Participating in Administrative Processes

Participating in administrative processes is also one of the dimensions of teacher autonomy. According to Maxcy (1991, p. 160) "power being placed in the hands of educators such that they may possess leadership in the policy and decision-making affecting learning in schools". It has been emphasized by many researchers that teacher autonomy is not limited to only in classroom teaching and learning activities, the authority of the teacher in relation to the regulation of the school

environment and working conditions, and the extent of freedom are part of the teacher autonomy (Freidman, 1999; Ingersoll, 2007). It is emphasized that teachers should be included these administrative processes as a stakeholder of education process.

Moomaw (2005) affirms that teacher autonomy cannot be restricted in the classroom; it covers school structure and organization, disciplinary problems, curriculum content, academic standards, staffing and fiscal policy. Seven of the twelve criteria used to determine the teacher autonomy index in PISA research are directly related to school management, such as the arrangement of the school budget, the hiring of teachers, and the selection of students to be enrolled in school (Adams & Wu, 2002).

Freidman (1999) underlines that the roles and tasks of teachers in the school are increasing and diversifying. Teacher autonomy cannot be restricted only in classroom teaching and he prefers categorizing teacher autonomy into two as (a) *pedagogical* that deals directly with issues related to education and training and (b) *organizational* deals with topics such as participation in school management, regulation of the working environment and relationships with the environment. He also. Except for the educational context, teachers are more interested in and participating in the management processes of school administration, financial, human and material resources management, improvement of the school environment and taking and implementing decisions about reaching the goals (Öztürk, 2011). Consequently, this situation increases the authority and autonomy demands of the teachers in all these educational areas.

2.1.1.3. Professional Development

Teaching is a profession that teachers never end learning. Vye et al. (2002) highlight that “language teaching is a process of exploration.” Teachers need to have some professional competences to continue this exploration process and to be effective in educational processes. The ability of teachers to use these competencies also depends on their autonomy. It has been emphasized by many researchers that one of the key elements of professionalism of teachers is the enhancement of professional autonomy. According to Benson (2008) professional independence

should not only be donated from above; but, it should be the result of professional development, furthermore, he adds “In foreign language education, teacher autonomy has largely viewed as a professional attribute to be developed through teacher education process and, more recently, through process of self-directed professional development.” Similarly, Autonomy is not only given by the management, it is also a qualification acquired by the teachers (Öztürk, 2011). Powell & McGowan (1996) support Benson’s idea by defining teacher autonomy with teachers' authority over their work-related issues and their own professional development, in the context of teacher education programs.

OECD (2016) prepared a report based on 2013 TALIS (Teaching and Learning International Survey) assessments about professionalism of teachers. According to this report professionalism is related to four outcomes: perceived status, job satisfaction, school environment, and self-efficacy. The results of the survey with the participation of teachers and school principals from 34 countries show that teacher professionalism is conceptualized by integrating three main fields: knowledge for teaching (in pre-service and in-service education), autonomy, and peer networks (Hacettepe, 2017, p. 14). It is undoubtful that autonomy is inevitable for teacher professionalism.

Enlarging teacher authority and allowing them to work freely is not enough for the teachers to gain autonomy on their own. They also need to have sufficient professional knowledge and skills to enable them as teachers to work autonomously. According to Bauer (cited in Steh & Pozarnik, 2005), teacher autonomy engages to all aspects of a teacher's professional existence, such as values, professional competence, and practice skills. For example, in order to prepare the methods and materials to be used in the classroom, teachers need to be not only competent in this matter, but also to have the necessary knowledge and skills and to show sufficient interest and effort. Teachers’ weakness in professional skills such as producing content, using different teaching methods, and developing materials often leads to an entirely course book dependent teaching (Mustafa & Cullingford, 2008). Therefore, one of the main factors determining teacher autonomy is the level of professional development of teachers.

Teacher education is one of the most important ways of providing the necessary professional development for the teachers to work autonomously. In particular, the quality of pre-service training is a decisive factor in the development of teacher autonomy (Castle, 2004; Webb, 2002). According to Heath (1995) “when pre-service teachers have more highly structured opportunities working in a setting geared to support their preparation as teachers, they will have much greater likelihood of becoming truly highly qualified to teach.” However, only pre-service education is not efficient for professional development as Bustingorry (2008) emphasizes, autonomy is a qualification that must be developed continuously, and it cannot be gained permanently.

Little (2007, p. 27) expresses that “...teachers must learn how to produce and manage the many varieties of target language discourse required by the autonomous classroom” and query how to be accomplished this in teacher education field. Smith (2001, p. 43) pursues that “...teachers need to reflect constantly on their own teaching role in the classroom, monitoring the extent to which they constrain or scaffold students’ thinking and behaviour”. It is also expected that language teachers will develop the flexibility to use the most appropriate teaching approaches for their context. Smith (2001, 2003) and later (Smith & Erdoğan, 2008) believe that teacher autonomy is “...one of the privileged conditions for the promotion of pedagogy for autonomy with language learners” and “...an important goal in its own right” constitute the very basics of autonomy in foreign language teacher education contexts.

Collaboration among colleagues for professional development is also one of the facets of teacher autonomy. Little (1982) expresses that collaboration and collegiality are necessary to provide teachers support and common knowledge. Isolation cannot be spirit of autonomy (Fraser & Sorenson, 1992). Kojima (2008) support the idea that collaboration provides autonomous learning and teaching in classes as it gives teachers self-confidence and chances for sharing teaching ideas. Wildman & Niles (1987) emphasizes that “Autonomy and collegiality complement each other.” Collegiality may be an opportunity for creating learning experiences through transferring knowledge or ideas between novice and experienced teachers

(Clement & Vanderberghe, 2000). Teacher autonomy should therefore not imply an irresponsible and insignificant degree of freedom (Anderson, 1987). The teachers should use the authority and autonomy given by authority to fulfill their responsibilities to students and the society in a conscious way (Steh & Pozarnik, 2005). Furthermore, the diversity and quality of resources, materials and tools provided to teachers is an important factor affecting their autonomous work (Mustafa and Cullingford, 2008).

When different dimensions and elements are evaluated together, teacher autonomy is not a definite and constant phenomenon that arises in relation to the structure of the education system but a phenomenon that varies according to the level of professional development and motivation of the teacher, working and cooperative environment in the school, resources and materials of the school, and the attitude of the school administration (Öztürk, 2011). On the other hand, he expresses that in terms of rules and regulations, the level of teacher autonomy may vary according to different subjects and areas; therefore, it is more accurate to talk about different aspects and grades of teaching autonomy rather than talking about precisely the existence or absence of a given educational system. So, it is more accurate to talk about levels of teacher autonomy in terms of planning and implementation of teaching, participating in administrative processes and professional development. Teachers need autonomy in these areas in different grades.

2.1.2. Functions of Teacher Autonomy

In the literature, very different points are emphasized regarding the function and utility of teacher autonomy. The main functions of teacher autonomy are the development of education and training, the use of new and different teaching methods, development of professional knowledge and skills, and the development of new educational materials (Üzüm, 2014). Öztürk (2012, p. 89) addresses functions and utilities of teacher autonomy under three main headings: "the development of education and training; teaching as a profession; professional and social attitudes of teachers. Granting autonomy to teachers and empowering them seem to be important to find solutions to the existing school problems (Short, 1994). Teachers must have a sufficient professional autonomy to foster learners' autonomy, arrange educational

environment and choose the contents and methods of education according to their different and unique characteristics and needs.

Webb (2002) points out there are generally two different approaches to considering teachers' position. The first approach sees teachers as *technicians*. According to this approach, the main mission of the teachers is to carry out the aims and methods determined by the education experts and the administrators in an effective educational environment. Therefore, they do not need full autonomy. In the second approach, he considers teachers as *professionals* in his definition like the definitions in the field of language teaching; because teacher autonomy is considered as a "professional attribute" and requires a capacity for a self-directed professional development in language teaching (Aoki, 2002; McGrath 2000; Smith 2001, 2003). However, some consider teachers as *semi-professionals* who are under the bureaucratic controls on their work-related behaviors (Lortie, 1969, as cited in Leiter, 1981) because teachers are not given unlimited freedom to do their job. Their autonomy is limited to the implementation of teaching and their autonomy decreases out of their classrooms (Anderson, 1987). It has been emphasized by many researchers that one of the key elements of professionalism of teachers is the enhancement of professional autonomy. According to Goodlad et al. (cited in Webb, 2002), one of the requirements professionals have is authority and autonomy to make decisions about their work using competence and skills. Demirkasımođlu (2010) also states that teacher autonomy is an important constituent of teacher professionalism. Being recognized as professionals in the field requires making decisions and implementing them in professional activities (Ingersoll, 2007). According to Pearson and Moomaw (2005), if teachers are regarded as professionals, they must decide what the learners should do, as do other professionals, such as doctors and lawyers, for patients or clients. Öztürk (2011) states that teachers should be regarded as professionals, and the development of professional knowledge and skills of teachers, areas of authority and autonomy in all levels and subjects related to their professional activities should be developed.

In the field of language teaching and learning, the most important function of teacher autonomy is encouraging and fostering learner autonomy. Researchers

have shown that to increase the students' independence and interest in learning, teachers should possess the capacity for autonomy and if autonomy is not aimed at teacher education, it could be a waste of time to promote learner autonomy because teacher autonomy is a prerequisite for learner autonomy (Little, 1991; 1995). Teacher autonomy has a significant role to provide and foster learner autonomy (Shaw, 2008). According to Vieira (2004) "Unless teachers are free to make pedagogical choices that favor learner autonomy; there is no way that pedagogy for autonomy can flourish in schools." Teachers must have a sufficient professional autonomy in order to foster learners' autonomy, arrange educational environment and choose the contents and methods of education according to their different and unique characteristics and needs.

Teachers who are under control and cannot exhibit autonomous behaviors generally have low level of motivation (MacBeath, 2012). It is argued that the teachers having low motivation are not expected to display learner autonomy support behaviors. Within certain restrictions, the teachers who can display autonomous behaviors are expected to create a student-centered learning environment, provide students with decision options, promote learning within interaction and encourage students to reconstruct the knowledge. In this respect, teacher autonomy and learner autonomy support behaviors can be seen as closely connected with enhancing the quality of education. Assuming that teacher behaviors that are not autonomous cannot lead to learner autonomy support behaviors, determination of the relationship between autonomous teacher behaviors and learner autonomy support behaviors is believed to be important according to the literature.

One of the most important functions of teacher autonomy is increasing job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Brunetti, 2001; Sparks, 2012). Research conducted by the US Center for National Education Statistics showed that teachers' autonomy is closely related to job satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997, p. 51). It can be said that the teachers who have the authority to make decisions in the teaching process and have responsibility are highly motivated (Öztürk, 2011a, p. 91).

The basic requirements of providing an efficient and qualified education environment is teachers' fulfilling their responsibilities effectively. The teacher has a

central role in all attempts to improve the education. The autonomous behavior of teachers can affect the education and training process positively. Teachers, who use new methods in teaching, consider the needs of the students and reflect the information they have acquired into the teaching process may be more effective in their teaching. Highly autonomous employees can make new decisions, plan activities and create work processes according to changing situations and problems (Freidman, 1999). In this context, emphasis has been placed on the autonomy-related issues such as the expansion of teachers' authority and movement areas, the provision of an independent environment that encourages individual initiatives, different methods and practices (Freidman, 1999; Ingersoll, 2007).

Short (1994) states that one of the six key dimensions of teacher empowerment in the development of teaching and learning is autonomy. It is seen that giving more authority and freedom in decision making and application to all professions in general, not just in the field of education, affects the work and production environment positively.

The significance of teacher autonomy is emphasized in the policies for the development of education and training of international institutions. The autonomy of teachers in European Union studies has become more prominent in last decade (CSEE, 2008; Eurydice, 2008; OECD, 2016). Teacher autonomy is also considered as one of the factors determining the quality of education in the PISA surveys conducted by the OECD.

The professional autonomy provided to the teachers reflects their quality of work (Öztürk, 2011). The researches show that there is a relationship between teachers' motivation and job satisfaction levels and autonomy perceptions (Pearson & Hall, 1993; White, 1992). Teachers who see themselves at a high level of reflecting their personal decisions and approaches in their lessons, using authority and taking responsibility have high motivation and job satisfaction. In addition, some researches (Pearson & Hall, 1993) show that problems related to autonomy, such as inadequate free-work environment, excessive supervision and control, lack of diversity and innovation are effective in abandoning teaching professions. According to Ingersoll (2007), autonomous teachers who are able to exercise authority and who are able to

make decisions in matters of which they are responsible are respected by their pupils, their colleagues and the school administration. Similarly, Öztürk (2011) emphasizes that autonomy is a factor affecting the values and respect that teachers have from their students and their environment.

Teacher autonomy can also be an important determinant of student achievement. Teachers with a high level of autonomy have the power to make decisions and take risks related to their students' learning (Çolak, 2016, p. 34). In this context, they may be able to connect more closely with their students and be more effective in their teaching (O'Hara, 2006, p. 3). Ayril et al. (2014) reaches the conclusion that teacher autonomy increases student achievement in his research that investigated the relation between teacher autonomy and student achievement. Iwata (2013) examines the influence of teacher autonomy on student creativity in his research and according to result; teacher autonomy affects students' creativity behaviors positively.

In sum, teacher autonomy has functions to develop education and training, find solutions to school problems and encourage new ways to teaching. Moreover, it is not wrong to say that it helps teachers to get motivated, provide job satisfaction and empowerment. In language teaching and learning, the most striking function of teacher autonomy is encouraging and fostering learner autonomy, because it is thought that teacher autonomy is closely related to students' achievement.

2.1.3. Factors Restricting Autonomy

The concept of autonomy has gained remarkably significant popularity in language teaching and learning in recent years and considered a desirable goal of education as well as a key of good teaching and learning (Arellano 1996; Hammond & Collins 1991; Schunk & Zimmerman 1994; 1998). Policy makers, administrators, educational researchers and practitioners give great importance to teacher autonomy over the past two decades. However; there are some factors that restrict teacher autonomy like job stress (Kyriacou, 1989; Moomaw, 2005), lack of collaboration and collegiality (Barfield, et al, 2002; Fraser & Sorenson, 1992; Hargreaves, 1994; Smith, 2003), lack of time (Peter, 2004), workload and lack of support (Frodden & Picon, 2005), and lack of motivation (Moomaw, 2005; Wilches, 2007).

Benson (2000) puts forward four factors that restrict teachers' autonomy in foreign language teaching. Of these factors, the third and fourth factors are only related to foreign language teaching. The first two factors, however, is valid for all teachers:

1. Policies and procedures (Restrictions from outside the school)
2. Institutional factors (factors cultivated in school)
3. What is the target language to learn and its ideology host conceptual framework
4. Language teaching methods defined in terms of academic or professional expertise

These factors, which Benson (2000) points out, largely limit teacher autonomy; especially the first two factors prevent teachers from showing autonomous behaviors and thus encouraging their learners' autonomy. Benson (2010) also states that one of the factors limiting teacher autonomy is paperwork. Documents that are considered as one of the limitations of the system prevent the teacher from directing the teaching autonomously. In addition, controls mechanism, executive authority, and parents' pressure are some other factors that restrict autonomy.

Hanson (1991, p. 26) identifies some restrictions to develop and foster teacher autonomy as administrative restrictions like developing curriculum and deciding course books, audit of course subjects, school administrations carrying out a single training strategy, and school administration expecting certain roles.

Crookes (1997) identifies four structural factors that affect the efficiency and autonomy of teachers working in public schools. According to the author, the social and legal structure in which teachers are involved influences the teaching activities of teachers.

These four structural factors are as follows:

- The exclusion of teachers in the curriculum development process
- Conflict between educational objectives and school socialization functions
- Lack of interaction with teachers due to working hours; loneliness of teachers

- Insufficient funds for programs

Corwin and Borman (1998, p. 212) presents three contradictions that limit teacher autonomy. First, the contradiction of the teacher who has a wide range of autonomy in the class with the teacher under the control of formal hierarchy order; second, the contradiction of teachers who have collective power like as part of a whole with teachers who have individual power under control of authority; third, contradiction of teachers who leave their common sense in professional matters to provide a collective power.

Mustafa & Cullingford (2008) highlight that one of the most important elements that restrict the autonomy of teachers is using a single material mostly course books. There can be some reasons underlying the excessive usage of course books like statutory requirements in some countries, lack of materials or the lack of professional knowledge and skills of the teachers.

In countries dominated by approaches that encourage teacher autonomy, curriculum content is defined more flexibly and generally on a schedule, and the teacher is given the right to choose and create the content. Programs that organize the teaching content in a rigid and detailed manner reflect the understanding that the teacher must tightly control what to teach in the classroom (Eurydice, 2008). Another important factor that hinders teacher autonomy is that the curriculum it has rigid and intense content. The subject matter in the program is excessive and does not allow teachers enough time and chance to develop and apply new methods and materials (Mustafa & Cullingford, 2008).

As a result, increased pressure on schools by educational policies may reduce the autonomy of teachers. Teachers cannot freely decide using their knowledge and experience because of central education policies. In this environment, teachers become only practitioners of educational policies and prepare students for centralized exams.

2.2. Teacher Burnout

Work is an important part of human beings throughout their life. Problems experienced at work can affect individuals' life negatively and cause feeling of

'burnout'. The concept of burnout has been used as a phenomenon in the 1970s especially in the service sector in the United States, however, before its academic journey, it came to stage with a novel named "A Burn-Out Case" written by Graham Greene (1961) about an architect who suffers from cynicism and disappointments and decide on quitting his job, leave everything behind to explore African jungle for getting rid of negative feelings.

The concept of burnout has been defined by many, but it is clearly seen that all these definitions have some characteristic in common though. Despite the wide variety of views on what burnout is and how to solve it, there is no standard definition of burnout. For this reason, it seems that burnout is defined in various forms (Okutan, 2010, p. 70).

The burnout phenomenon was introduced to academic world by psychiatrist H. Freudenberger (1974, p. 159) in the field of psychology defining the concept as "to fail, to wear out, or become exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources". He described burnout as a situation of professionals' exhaustion and suffering from feeling themselves under pressure because of acting their roles and helping others many years in service (Dollard et al., 2003, p. 15). Later, in 1981, Maslach and Jackson did first empirical study on burnout and developed the most widely used burnout inventory called Maslach Burnout Inventory which have strong psychometric properties and are still in use. Maslach & Jackson (1981, p. 99) define burnout as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism which people mostly dealing with human relations experience". They suggest that people who work in human related jobs are exposed to burnout (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). They give a description of burnout consisting of three dimensions as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lowered personal accomplishment. In parallel to Maslach & Leiter (1981) description, Perlman & Hartman (1982) put forward the description of burnout as a reaction to chronic stress comprise of three dimensions which consist of emotional and/or physical exhaustion, lowered job productivity, and depersonalization.

Burnout is physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion situation because of long-term involvement in emotionally demanding states (Pines A. & Aronson; 1988,

p. 9). Burnout is an emotional reaction related to individual experiences (Gold, 1988). Burnout is a stress equation and a progressive process (Ergin, 1992; Çam, 1992). Zhou and Wen (2007) suggest that burnout is the sum of the negative symptoms of an individual at work.

Solmuş (2010) describe burnout as physical problems, feelings of helplessness, feelings of a negative self-perception evolving with disappointments that seen in people who work for a long time in a constantly demanding environment, and as a result, exhibiting strict and negative attitudes towards the people around and being pessimistic against life.

Boyraz (2015) claims that people who constantly serve to others, consider themselves as self-sacrificing but not able to meet their own expectations and wishes, will be exhausted and begin to think that there is nothing left to give to others, so, this situation causes individuals to face with depersonalization to people they serve, feeling themselves emotionally exhausted, decreasing in the sense of personal accomplishment and competence finally feeling burnout. “Burned-out teachers feel discouraged and disillusioned because they are not satisfying their own needs for challenges, recognition, and appreciation. They feel discouraged about themselves because their work does not provide them with sufficient feelings of fulfillment” (Kottler, et al., 2005, p. 116).

Burnout is a symptom of physical, psychological and social changes in the person as a result of long stress in working life. It causes many problems both in people and in working institutions (Koç, 1999). It is caused by physical exhaustion, long fatigue, helplessness and despairing feelings of people towards their work, life and relations to others because of exposing intense emotional demands for work and constantly working face to face with other people (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001).

People who work human related jobs are exposed to burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Burnout is more common in occupational groups working in close contact with people, where human relationships are in foreground such as medicine, education, and social services (Schwab & Iwanichi, 1982). Maslach & Schaufeli

(1993) also claims that jobs which require human relations like teachers, doctors and social services workers are open to burnout syndrome because of being human oriented professions.

One of the fields that people are exposed to burnout is education (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993), so teachers are at the risk group experiencing more burnout. Teaching is hard, demanding and stressful profession owing to face to face contact with their learners and constantly developing and changing education environment. Furthermore, the role of teachers in education and society is constantly evolving and responsibility of teachers and expectations from teachers are increasing. Teachers are the key to quality and effective education that reaches its educational goals. Educational programs cannot be successful without effective and successful teachers because teaching is a difficult and complex process demanding countless decisions during classes (Miller & Miller, 2002). Teachers' psychological and emotional situations affect teaching process because their positive attitudes encourage effective learning while their negative attitudes hinder learning of students (Güven, 2013).

Teacher's roles, skills and responsibilities they should meet are quite diverse. According to Taylor (1998) creating a 'more humane society' is responsibility of teachers so they are expected to fulfill this responsibility. Because of advanced technology and globalization, the role and responsibility of teachers are constantly changing, so they need to catch up this rapid technology and changing world. According to Dollard et al., (2003), social pressure on education and on its implementers, teachers, increases because of many factors like the role of providing knowledge and skills, innovations, research and necessity of lifelong learning. Burnout can affect the quality of educational organizations and can lead to adverse outcomes by hindering productivity. Many studies have shown that burnout can negatively affect employees' attitudes towards work and cost much to both organizations and individuals because of leading to undesirable behaviors such as running away from work, underperforming, quitting (Chauhan, 2009, p. 442).

Farber (1984, p. 324) defends that "teacher burnout has always been around, masquerading in the past under names such as job dissatisfaction and worker

alienation". He suggests three subtypes of burnout as worn-out, classic, and under-challenged; and proposes:

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: 678).

Furthermore, Farber characterizes teachers into three as *worn-out teachers*, the *frenetic-type teachers*, and the *under-challenged teachers* in terms of his classification of burnout syndrome:

- a. The *worn-out teachers* prefer coping with stressors not by plodding away, but by working superficial. They feel desperate and disappointed because they do not believe in themselves to change the result in any case.
- b. The *frenetic-type teachers* believe that they can overcome all the difficulties by working harder and never accepts their defeat, so they plod away to achieve their educational ideals but experience feeling of exhausted at last.
- c. The *under-challenged teachers* have no more desire or excitement for teaching because of feeling dissatisfaction at workplace. Like *worn-out teachers*, they do their job perfunctorily; moreover, query their job choice (Farber, 2000).

He also states that "some teachers vacillate among these descriptive categories, but many also are described accurately by these general subtypes" (Farber, 2000).

Researchers detects a variety of problems related to teacher burnout (Farber, 1984; Hock, 1988; Maslach & Pines, 1977). There is several study related stress and stressors that cause teacher burnout. Learners are all individuals so each of them has emotional and special needs, different abilities and interests which require extra time and energy for teachers (Boyle et al., 1995). Contradictions between demands of education stakeholders like administrators, students, parents and colleagues lead stress for teachers too. Another stressor is work overload but lack of time for

teachers. Working too many hours causes teachers feel emotional exhaustion and decrease job satisfaction (Cephe, 2010). Lack of time, paper work, administrative demands, exams, homework is examples of work overload. Oversized classes are a source of stress for teachers too (Güven, 2013). Chen & Miller (1997) describe another factor that leads high stress as conflict and ambiguity of roles. Gold (1985, p. 255) enumerated them as follows: “disruptive behavior, students’ lack of interest in their work, new programs, accountability testing, and excessive paperwork. The list was endless.”

Studies in Europe and North America have found that a significant number of teachers are overwhelmed by excessive workload, impractical innovations, inadequate social support, or disturbing and undisciplined student behavior (Huberman & Vandenberghe, 1999). Teachers in this situation may not be able to perform well in their profession, and research also shows that teachers who are experiencing these difficulties tend to leave their profession (Berkhout et al., 1998; Friedman and Fraber, 1992,). When individuals experience burnout, they are prone to lose interest, idealism and enthusiasm for their work (Dworkin, Saha, & Hill, 2003).

Burnout is “the index of the dislocation between what people are and what they have to do . . . a malady that spreads gradually and continuously over time, putting people into a downward spiral from which it's hard to recover” (Maslach & Leiter, 1997) and impedes job performance (Maslach, 1976; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach & Pines, 1977). According to Tümkaya (1996, p. 36), the source of burnout that is the result of having too many expectations to be fulfilled and a large gap between existing and desired expectations that should be associated with the expectations of individuals. It has been stated that individuals who have high expectations for success have exhausted of their jobs when they meet organizational pressure that hinders their activities (Boyratz, 2015). The imbalance between job related demands and the resources the teachers have cause them to feel burnout. Haberman (2004, p. 1) explains this situation as “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”. The

individual who struggles to achieve his or her personal goals as well as the expectations of the institution loses consciousness with frustration, fatigue and helplessness as a result of not being able to get what he wants and finally he experiences physical and mental exhaustion (Işıkhan, 2004, p. 49).

To sum up, burnout is generally regarded as the endpoint of dealing 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”. They feel sad or unhappy about their work and have little enthusiasm or energy for their work. Additionally, burned-out teachers have negative influences on not only themselves but also the components of an entire organization. They generally feel inadequate in teaching students and making school an inviting place, unwilling to prepare lessons, besides, they cannot motivate themselves to come to work, therefore they lose their energy, memory and interest in the subject (Bryne, 1998; Friedman, 2000). However, most of them can find effective ways to manage this job-related stress thanks to 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). Therefore, it is not wrong to say that the feeling of burnout can be overcome because there are many ways to cope with teacher burnout like developing and renewing teaching skills and cooperating with education stakeholders.

2.2.1. Dimensions of teacher burnout

There are some certain reasons to be exposed burnout. According to Maslach (2003, p. 190), the main stressors of burnout are “an overwhelming exhaustion, feelings of cynicism and detachment from the job, and a sense of ineffectiveness and lack of accomplishment”. When the literature on burnout definitions is explored, it is clearly seen that it consists of three dimensions as Emotional exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Reduced Personal Accomplishment (Dollard et al., 2003; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001; Schaufeli, Leiter & Maslach, 2009). These are the most widely accepted dimensions of burnout

phenomenon (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). In the following section, dimensions of burnout will be explored.

2.2.1.1. Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion is considered as the first step to burnout and basically described individuals' feeling of being insufficient. It is also stated that this dimension is the most observable dimension of burnout syndrome (Gündüz, 2005, p. 153). According to Maslach & Jackson (1981, p. 99), "burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do 'people-work' of some kind." Then, Maslach & Goldberg (1998, p. 64) describe the dimension as "feelings of being emotionally overextended and depleted of one's emotional resources... represents the basic stress dimension of burnout". Maslach et al., (2001, p. 399) define exhaustion as "the basic individual stress dimension of burnout". It "is a clear signal of distress in emotionally demanding work" (Maslach et al., 1996, p. 20) and refers "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" for teachers (Fivesa et al., 2007, p. 918).

According to Işıkhan (2004) emotional exhaustion is a reaction of an over working person to overpower himself against this tempo and to not able to meet others' demands. When teachers are unable to meet their students' demands and needs, they are prone to experience emotional exhaustion. The individual experiencing emotional exhaustion has the feeling that he cannot afford anything expected from him because of losing his energy to meet those demands (Maslach, 1982). Furthermore, feeling of restless and nervous is outcome of emotional exhaustion (Farber, 1991).

Maslach & Goldberg (1998, p. 64) claim that heavy workload and personal conflict at work place are the main sources of emotional exhaustion. According to them when there is not any source to have replenishment, they experience the feelings of drained and used up so, they do not have enough energy for standing up to another day or other people. Emotional exhaustion is basically a result of job stressors like heavy workload and role conflict (Dollard et al., 2003). Güven (2013) states that according to some researchers there are some 'triggers' for feeling

emotionally exhausted such as extreme work-related demands, inability of worker and forcing his or her to meet these demands and she adds early stage of emotional exhaustion is usually the beginning of the burnout development.

2.2.1.2. Depersonalization

Depersonalization (cynicism) is another dimension of burnout. It is defined as the interpersonal dimension of burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993) and “refers to a negative, callous, or excessively detached response to various aspects of the job” (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 399), “develops in response to the overload of emotional exhaustion and is self-protective at first” (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998, p. 64). Feelings of cynical, cold, and distant are the results of depersonalization (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

Depersonalization can be portrayed as one’s being irritable, losing idealism, exhibiting negative or inappropriate behavior and it involves giving negative, rigid, insensitive, and extremely neutral responses to other people (Gökçe, 2010). In the process of depersonalization, people behave their clients as impersonal objects (Maslach & Leiter, 2005) because they lose their idealism (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998, p. 64) and this feeling of depersonalization leads one’s sense of meaningless and dissatisfaction at work (Miller & Miller, 2002). The feeling of depersonalization lead teachers to behave their students as impersonal objects (Lee & Ashfort, 1996). Behaving people they serve as impersonal objects, being distracted, humiliating others, ignoring them, having a swinging attitude, being strict to rules and being suspicious of others are the signs of depersonalization (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). The individual in this situation feels weak and inadequate to solve the problem of others. Furthermore, they decrease their human relationships at the lowest level (Cordes, 1993). Because of experiencing depersonalization, teachers have feeling of negative, cynical and callous towards their students, colleagues and other people (Güven, 2013). In this second stage of burnout, people are likely to feel themselves desperate in coping with problems and consider depersonalization as a way out.

2.2.1.3. Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Reduced personal accomplishment is the last dimension of burnout process. It is basically the tendency of a person to evaluate himself negatively (Hock, 1998; Maslach et al., 2001). It is described as “a decline in feelings of competence and productivity at work” (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998, p. 64), “feelings of incompetence and a lack of achievement and productivity at work” (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 399).

This last dimension of burnout “is associated with the tendency to judge and evaluate work with clients in a negative manner.” (Schaufeli, 2003; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1988 as cited by Engelbrecht, Berg & Bester, 2009, p. 4). According to Maslach & Goldberg (1998, p. 64), “This lowered sense of self-efficacy has been linked to depression and an inability to cope with the demands of the job, and it can be exacerbated by a lack of social support and of opportunities to develop professionally”. According to Atila (2014), reduced personal accomplishment is one’s considering himself insufficient and ineffective. People’ losing their self-esteem lead them to losing confidence in others (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

Feeling of burnout reduces teachers feel themselves accomplished (Dollard et al., 2003). Teachers suffering from reduced personal accomplishment believe in that they cannot work with their students and colleagues any more. It causes them to feel incompetent and in effective in teaching and teaching related demands, experience dissatisfaction and unhappiness with both themselves and their professional competence, finally lose their confidence (Hanson, 2006). The result of evaluating themselves negatively like incompetent and insufficient for teaching directs teachers to have a sense of distress and disappointment of reaching their ideals, demoralization and finally failure (Brenninkmeijer et al., 2001; Fivesa et al., 2007). When people perceive themselves as insufficient, they think that they cannot overcome anything, and everyone is against them. Moreover, according to these people, everything they do is very meaningless and worthless, and they do not trust their own abilities to make a change.

2.2.2. Factors Leading to Teacher Burnout

Burnout does not come out suddenly, but it is a phenomenon develops gradually. There are diverse factors that lead teachers to experience burnout syndrome. To understand burnout, it should be focused on the reasons that push individuals to feel this syndrome. Cherniss (1980, p. 17) states that burnout has three stages to happen:

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).

Farber (1991, p. 35) proposes six stages to explain burnout process: “(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”.

As Cherniss (1980) and Farber (1991) states, burnout develops gradually, so, there some are factors or reasons leading teacher burnout. The leading factor that causes burnout is job related stress (Paine, 1982). According to Boyraz (2015), reasons to burnout are closely related to individuals' ideals and when they cannot meet their ideals, they feel tired and disappointed. Stress is a part of teachers' career (Jennet et al., 2003) and teachers are at risk of experiencing burnout like all professions they do 'people-work' some kind. However, teachers experience more burnout than other human services professions (Travers & Cooper, 1993). Hallsten (1993) has argued that there are three individual factors leading burnout process as performance-based self-esteem, goal orientation or self-efficacy, and value congruency.

The lack of stability of the education system, the constant changes of the subjects, the achievements, the changes in the school life, assignments, a different administration in a new school or a new school year, different students, different colleagues, parents, a different socio-cultural environment or private life marriage, separation, possession of a child, in-family conflicts may cause burnout. The changes in teachers' private life and working life brought about various problems, and as a result, the environment of uncertainty brought by a constantly changing environment cause feelings of burnout to the teachers during these periods (Karakuş, 2008, p. 43-44). Reasons and their reflections that lead teachers to burnout can be summarized as in Table 1:

Table 1 Factors Identified as Influential in Burnout and Its Reflections

Teacher's Life			
School type	Intense work pressure	Chronic stress	Frequently changing educational philosophy
Restrictive school culture	Competencies of using information technologies	Gender Education status	Educational policies
Physical infrastructure and resource deficiencies	Crowded classes	Age	
Conflict with administration	Classroom management	Role uncertainty	
Intra-organizational conflicts	Disciplinary problems	Limited promotion possibilities	
	Problems with students and parents	Job-related expectations	
		Unappreciated	
		Low salary	
Effect			
Burnout			
Observed Situation			
Physical and Mental Fatigue			
Reflections			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deterioration in the quality and quantity of the services provided • Impact of business performance and realization of teaching activities in the negative direction • Lose their ideals about their profession • Reluctance • Dissatisfaction 			

(Hacettepe, 2017: 81)

All these situations, summarized in Table 1, lead to the development of a feeling of "burnout" in teaching, and the most fundamental result of this situation can be expressed as physical and mental fatigue so then the most basic reflection of this situation is the deterioration in the quality and quantity of the service offered by the teacher. This deterioration affects all stakeholders, such as students, administrators and parents (Hacettepe, 2017, p. 81).

Burnout is a multi-dimensional and multi-factorial concept which is affected by both individual and organizational or environmental factors. Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001) state that burnout is a process that results from the mismatch between demands and sources. It means that the main factor leads teachers to experience burnout is organizational factors like over workload, bureaucratic obstacles, lack of social support, injustice, inappropriate policies and procedures, unclear roles and responsibilities, and confusing goals (Khezerlou, 2012). When literature is explored, many researchers suggest individual and environmental or organizational factors to explain burnout process (Barutçu & Serinkan, 2008; Ceylan & Siliğ, 2005; Işıkhan, 2004; Izgar, 2001; Otacıoğlu 2008;). According to Maslach and Leiter (1997), the organizational factors affecting the burnout phenomenon are more important than the individual factors. We will see the influence of individual factors on burnout in the next section.

2.2.2.1. Individual Factors

It is assumed that everyone who works is likely to experience burnout, but in some cases some people are more likely to burn out, and others may not be much affected. In addition, individuals with certain traits may be more likely to experience burnout than others because of individual factors. Individual factors are the personal characteristics that facilitate the likelihood of having burnout (Polatçı, 2007, p. 49). People sometimes adapt to the conditions of the organization that causes burnout, but sometimes they do not lose their resistance to burnout according to their personal traits. Even when conditions are the same, the burnout status of everyone may be different (Lee et al., 2003). That is why individual factors may be effective in the burnout process.

2.2.2.1.1. Personality Characteristics

Personality means individual differences in the way each person thinks, feels and behaves. Goddard and O'Brien (2004) emphasize the importance of individuals' personality by expressing that "...research investigating the contribution that personality traits may make to the explanation of burnout has only been reported relatively recently and there is considerable work to be done to integrate personality into a coherent theory of burnout" (Goddard & O'Brien, 2004, p. 4). Personality has a considerable effect on burnout because the most idealistic and enthusiastic people experience burnout compared to others (Pines & Aronson, 1988).

Güven (2013) states that inflexible and isolated people in terms of daily routines are at a high-level risk of burnout since they feel more exhausted compared to others. People who are highly motivated, give great importance to their job and struggle to do their best are more tend to burnout (Pines & Aronson, 1988). This is because they share both the success and failure of their job and take over its consequences. Moreover, these kinds of motivated employees need to develop themselves. Burnout is unavoidable unless they meet their needs and expectations.

People who have Type-A personality, external control focus, lack of self-efficacy, empathy and emotional control, and unrealistic expectation level can be seen as being more prone to burnout (Sürgevil, 2006). Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman conducted a study in the 1960's and studied personality traits in two groups, Type A and Type B. According to this theory, people who are competitive, ambitious, impatient, highly organized, constantly worried about his /her job, aware of time management, critical about everything are labeled Type A; whereas people who are more relaxed are labeled as Type B. Individuals with Type A personality have a higher degree of burnout compared to other individuals (Gökçe, 2010). That is, Type A personality is defined as a potential "burnout" type (Altuntaş, 2003; Baysal, 1995; Siliğ, 2013;).

Employees who are aware of their power to control their life (they have an internal locus control) experience less burnout than employees who think their choices and life are controlled by environmental factors (they have an external locus of control) (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). Grinnell (2016) describes external

locus of control as “the belief that events in one’s life, whether good or bad, are caused by uncontrollable factors such as the environment, other people, or a higher power”. Locus of control refers to the degree of an individual’s own control over outcome of events in his/her life rather than external forces beyond his/her control. People who have external locus of control do not believe in changing negative and undesirable outcomes from their jobs or lives so they are at risk of being burned out.

Teachers who have low self-efficacy are more likely to experience burnout. Bandura (1997, p. 3) defines self-efficacy as “people’s beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives”. According to Schwarzer (1992), self-efficacy refers to one’s belief for personal capability of coping with diverse demanding and novel situations. When it comes to the teacher self-efficacy, it can be said that it is teachers’ beliefs for personal competence to deal with educational and teaching tasks. Teacher self-efficacy is “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). Teachers who have low or lack of self-efficacy focus on their failures and prefer not to awaken their strengths, capabilities and areas they are successful in but see their weakness. They do not need to make an effort to change the situation they are in because they have already accepted the defeat and failure from the beginning (Solmuş, 2004). This belief of teachers’ low or lack of self efficacy causes burnout of teachers. Chwalisz, Altmaier and Russell (1992) reports that teachers scoring low on self-efficacy have a higher degree of burnout compared to their colleagues. Furthermore, a study conducted by Brouwers and Tomic (2000) shows that perceived self-efficacy must be taken into consideration when devising interventions both to prevent and treat burnout among secondary school teachers because perceived self-efficacy had a longitudinal effect on depersonalization and a synchronous effect on personal accomplishment.

According to Sürgevil (2006) having sense of empathy is one of the individual factors that cause people to experience burnout. In the dictionary of Merriam-Webster empathy is defined as “ the action of understanding, being aware of, being sensitive to, and vicariously experiencing the feelings, thoughts, and

experience of another of either the past or present without having the feelings, thoughts, and experience fully communicated in an objectively explicit manner; also : the capacity for this". According to some researches, the sense of empathy has a positive relationship with self-disclosure, socialization, social sensitivity and collective harmony. This can prevent individuals from experiencing burnout or can make it easier for them to cope with burnout; however, having the sense of empathy can also increase the emotional burden of individuals (Gökçe, 2010). This may cause individuals to experience a burnout (Sürgevil, 2006, p. 54).

Another factor that increases the possibility of experiencing burnout is high or unrealistic expectations from the job. Like all the professions that do 'people-work' some kind, teachers also have many expectations related to their profession, but when they cannot accomplish these expectations, they find themselves in feeling of burnout.

2.2.2.1.2. Socio-Demographic Variables

Burnout may also be related to some demographic variables and these variables may affect when the burnout level of the individual is low or high. However, their roles are limited in the burnout and work stress processes (Gutek et al., 1988; Jayaratne et al., 1983; cited in Güven, 2013).

Among all the demographic variables, age is the most related variable to burnout. There are many studies examining the relationship between age and burnout. Some reports significant relationship between them (Ardıç, 2008; Aslan, 2005; Baysal, 1995, 2006; Ergin, 1992; Izgar, 2001; Özmen, 2001) while some reports there are no significant relations (Demir, 1999; Soyer, 2009). It has been observed that people's gender men or women, is not a strong relationship to burnout, but the high level of insensitivity in men, and the higher emotional exhaustion in women are significant to burnout. Collins and Murray (1996) report that higher levels of job stress are observed in older workers. However, according to Barak et al. (2001) younger employees experience higher level of burnout than those over 30-40 years old. This is because people are immune to burnout because of the experiences

they earn as their age progresses and they overcome it easier than young people (Maslach, 1982).

Another factor that is examined its relation to burnout is gender. Some studies conclude that gender is not a strong predictor of burnout (Ardıç, 2008; Barak et al., 2001; Dollard et al., 2001; Farber, 1984b; Izgar, 2001; Soyer, 2009); while others verify the significant relationship between gender variable and burnout (Baysal, 1995; Greenglass & Schwarzer, 1996; Siliğ, 2003; Tümkaya, 1997;).

Marital status is another variable that is thought to be related to burnout. Maslach et al (2001) state that singles are more prone to experience burnout than divorced and married people. Similarly, in the studies conducted by Babaoğlan (2006) show that singles are more burned out compared to married. According to Örmən (1993), individuals who have family responsibility are more resistant to burnout, because marriage make individuals more balanced, determined and psychologically more mature, the care of spouses and children makes the person more experienced, and the love and support of the family members makes it easier for the individual to cope with problems at work.

2.2.2.2. Organizational Factors

Organizational factors are also known as school- level, situational or environmental factors derived from the environment in which teachers work. These factors are all about the workplace and free from the control of teachers. It is claimed that organizational factors are much more effective on burnout than the individual factors (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Friedman, 1991). Individual factors are also effective in experiencing burnout but the leading factor that causes burnout is workplace-driven since organizational factors can affect all individuals in a workplace (Aronson, 1988) and work environment has a significant role in the burnout rates of highly motivated people (Pines & Aronson, 1988). Burnout is caused by the problems that individual faces in his or her workplace because work place and working conditions are significant for teachers as Slegers (1999; p. 252) 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”. Maslach and Leiter (1997, p. 21) so suggest that it is not the individual to be changed, but the organization.

There are diverse stressors in a workplace that lead teachers to burnout. “These stressors include students’ misbehaviours and discipline problems, poor motivation for work, heavy workload and time pressure, role conflict and role ambiguity, conflicting staff relationships in school administration and management, and pressure and criticisms from parents and the wider community” (Dunham 1992, Travers & Cooper 1996 as cited by Chan, 2009: 40).

Maslach & Leiter (2016) states that “most models of burnout make explicit the causal theorizing that has always been implicit in burnout research: certain factors (both situational and individual) cause people to experience burnout, and once burnout occurs, it causes certain outcomes (both situational and individual)”. According to them, there are a plethora of research on identifying organizational risk factors of burnout process in many occupations, but they describe six area that are effective in experiencing burnout as workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

According to the results of many studies, burnout is considered as a reaction against work overload. Work overload refers the situation in which people have exceeding job responsibility or demands to fulfill in a very limited time with very limited resources. Since there is a limit to what the individual can do, the unlimited demands cause stress and exhaustion for individuals. Maslach and Leiter (1997, p. 10) has discussed that workload as “the most obvious indication of a mismatch between a person and the job” and the work overload is directly related to burnout (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 416-428). Maslach & Leiter (2016) explain the contribution of work overload to burnout as:

“Work overload contributes to burnout by depleting the capacity of people to meet the demands of the job. When this kind of overload is a chronic job condition, there is little opportunity to rest, recover, and restore balance. A sustainable and manageable workload, in contrast, provides opportunities to use and refine existing skills as well as to become effective in new areas of activity.”

Lack of control is another factor that contributes the burnout. Control is a personal factor involving evaluations of how individuals can use their abilities (Leiter and Robiichaud, 1997, p. 35). In the workplace, individuals' inability to control over their work may be sufficient for experiencing stress. There is an obvious relationship between lack of control and burnout since "when employees have the perceived capacity to influence decisions that affect their work, to exercise professional autonomy, and to gain access to the resources necessary to do an effective job, they are more likely to experience job engagement" (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

The area of reward is also related to burnout and it can be described as reinforcements both financial and moral to carry out desired behaviors. A fair reward shows that your work has been recognized by management and is an indication of the value that the organization has (Churchill, 2004; Leiter, 2003). Mismatch between reward and accomplishment may lead individuals to feel themselves insignificant and it is closely related to personal failure (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 429). It is stated that "Insufficient recognition and reward (whether financial, institutional, or social) increases people's vulnerability to burnout, because it devalues both the work and the workers, and is closely associated with feelings of inefficacy" (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

The area of community refers employees' relationships with their colleagues and other people in the workplace. Burnout is unavoidable when these ongoing relationships are shaken by lack of support, distrust, and unresolved conflicts (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). This area is related to the social side of the organization. Feeling part of a community is a psychological and social need for people. Individuals who feel they belong to a group and whose needs are met by the group may work more enthusiastic and highly motivated (Sabuncuoğlu & Tüz, 2005). Studies show that people who have social support from their groups score lower emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than others (Ross, Altmaier & Russell, 1989; cited in Dalkılıç, 2014, p. 120).

The area of fairness is related equity and social justice in the literature. Fairness can be defined as employees' having the same rights and conditions at a

workplace. According to Maslach (2006) the most important source of burnout related to organizational factors is fairness. Burnout level of employees who are exposed inequality and injustice in their job is considerably high (Yalçın, 2013, p. 13). Lack of fairness in an organization affects employees' performance and motivation negatively and consequently causes burnout (Polatçı, 2007: 71).

Values refer to standards that determine the actions that individuals exhibit while doing their job (Silah, 2001). According to Maslach & Leiter (2016), "values are the ideals and motivations that originally attracted people to their job, and thus they are the motivating connection between the worker and the workplace, which goes beyond the utilitarian exchange of time for money or advancement." When employees experience a conflict between their values and jobs, they tend to burn out.



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methodology of the study in a detailed way. Information about research design, setting, participants, instruments, and data collection procedures and data analysis will be explained. Basic information about data collection tools, Teacher Autonomy Scale and Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey, will be provided. The methods used within this study are designed to address the following primary question: is there a relationship between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout of EFL teachers who work in public middle schools of Van?

3.1. Research Design

In this study, quantitative research design is used to collect data since it provides data from large number of participants in a limited time. The quantitative research design, which is based on numbers and quantity, provides reliable and replicable data as Dörnyei states that “... quantitative inquiry is systematic, rigorous, focused, and tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that is generalizable to other contexts” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 34). Quantitative research allows researchers collected and transformed data to statistical knowledge (Muijs, 2004, p. 1). It is also a descriptive research design since descriptive statistics are used to compute the perceived levels of teacher autonomy and teacher burnout for English teachers in middle schools.

The study is also a correlational research. Cresswell (2005) states that correlation statistical design is used “to describe and measure the degree of association (or relationship) between two or more variables or sets of scores”. The study investigates if there is a significant relationship between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout (EE, DP, PA), and clarifies how teacher autonomy and teacher burnout change depending on each other.

3.2. Research Questions

The main aim of this study is to investigation of the relationship between teacher autonomy perceptions and burnout levels of English language teachers in Van. The present study explores the following questions:

1. What is the perceived level of teacher autonomy for English language teachers of middle schools?
2. Is there any relationship between teacher autonomy and demographic variables for English language teachers of middle schools?
3. What is the perceived level of burnout for English language teachers in middle schools?
4. Is there any relationship between teacher burnout and demographic variables of English language teachers of middle schools?
5. Is there a significant relation between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout?

3.3. Setting

The study is carried out in public middle schools in Van, during the school years of 2016-2017. Three centre and densely populated districts of Van which are İpekyolu, Edremit and Tuşba, are selected as setting of the research.

Required permissions of authorities are obtained by following the procedure and data collection tools are distributed by randomly to 39 state middle schools in these three districts. Schools are visited by the researcher and teachers are informed about the study and explained how their voluntarily participation is appreciated by the researcher.

3.4. Participants

This sample includes 100 EFL teachers who work in public middle schools in the centre districts of Van during the 2016-2017 academic years. There are 112 public middle schools in the centre of Van, 31 in Edremit, 49 in İpekyolu and 32 in Tuşba. To gather data, participants, who are voluntarily participated in the study, are selected by randomly from 39 schools. Teachers are given seven days to answer the questionnaires. The distribution of the sampling group (N=100) in terms of socio-

demographic variables (gender, age, marital status, academic level, teaching experience, and classroom size) is provided. (See the Table 8.)

3.5. Instruments

To conduct this study, three questionnaires are used to collect data by the researcher: a socio-demographic tool, the Teacher Autonomy Scale (TAS) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES). The socio-demographic tool is used to collect information about participants in terms of gender, marital status, age, academic level, teaching experience, and classroom size.

The Teacher Autonomy Scale (TAS) was originally developed by Pearson and Hall (1993) to discover teachers' perceptions of autonomy. The scale explores teacher autonomy with 18 items including two factors; (a) curriculum autonomy (CA), consists of items 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, and 18, measures autonomy in the areas of selection of activities and materials and instructional planning and sequencing and (b) general teaching autonomy (GA), consists of items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 16, and 17, measures autonomy in the areas of classroom standards of conduct and personal on-the-job decision making (Moomaw, 2005). Eleven items are signs of high autonomy (e.g. The selection of student-learning activities in my class is under my control) and seven items are signs of low autonomy (e.g. I have little say over the scheduling of use of time in my classroom). It was reported that TAS (Pearson & Hall) had a good internal consistency reliability ($r = .80$) in terms of general teaching autonomy and curriculum autonomy. Another study conducted by Pearson & Moomaw (2005) shows that TAS has internal consistency reliability ($r = .83$).

The 4-point Likert-type scale ranged from 1 to 4 (1=definitely false, 2= more or less false, 3= more or less true, and 4= definitely true) is originally used in the scale but Şakar (2013) modified the 4-point Likert-type as 5-point (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree' and strongly disagree). She claims that 'more or less true' and 'more or less false' options may cause unreliable results therefore in order to overcome this problem 'neutral' option is added. Şakar's modified type is used in the present study.

In order to apply the TAS, it is also conducted a pilot study (N=22) to calculate the reliability of the scale. The Cronbach's Alpha is calculated as the table below:

Table 2 Reliability Statistics of the Pilot Study

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,705	18

According to the Table 2 of the TAS, Cronbach's Alpha, an index of reliability of the multiple-item scale ranges between '0' and '1' and the value 0.7 and above accepted reliable (Hatcher 1994), is calculated as 0.705. The demographic information of the participants in the pilot study is presented the following Table 3:

Table 3 Demographic Information of Participants in the Pilot Study

N=22		
Gender	Male	14
	Female	8
Age	25 and below	5
	26-30	11
	31-35	5
	36-40	1
Marital status	Single	13
	Married	9
Academic level	Bachelor's degree (B.A.)	18
	Master's degree (M.A.)	3
	Other	1

Teaching experience	Less than 1 year	4
	1-5 years	10
	6-10 years	4
	11-15 years	3
	16-20 years	1
	Classroom Size	Less than 20 students
	21-30 students	9
	31-40 students	6

Şakar (2013) calculated cut off points for analyzing data results gained through TAS. She accepted cut off points as:

Table 4 Cut-off Points for Teacher Autonomy Scale

Low	0-3,3
Moderate	3,4 - 4,1
High	4,2 – 5

According to the Table 4, any scores below 3,4 are accepted as sign of low perceptions of autonomy whereas scores 4,2 and above are sign of high perceptions of autonomy. Any scores between them are taken as an indicator of moderate autonomy perceptions.

Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), was originally developed by Maslach & Jackson in 1981 for general use, consists of three subscales, dimensions, as Emotional Exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP) and Personal Accomplishment (PA). It was reported by the researchers (Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter, 1996) that the subscales had 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). The validity and the reliability studies were conducted by some researchers (Iwanicki and Schwab, 1981; Gold,

1984). According to these studies of MBI-ES was reported internal consistency of $r=.90$ for EE, $r=.76$ for DP, and $r=.76$ for PA by Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) and Gold (1984) reports internal consistency of $r=.88$, $r=.74$, and $r=.72$ for burnout subscales. Additionally, Cronbach's Alpha estimates for this sample are $r = .878$ for EE, $r = .645$ for DP, and $r = .747$ for PA.

The scale was translated into Turkish to assess the job-related feelings (Çam, 1992; Ergin, 1992) and was also reported as reliable and valid. Ergin (1992) found reliability coefficients as $.83$ for Emotional exhaustion (EE), $.65$ for Depersonalization (DP), and $.72$ for Personal Accomplishment (PA). Çam (1992) found no significant difference between the two versions. For the educational context; the adapted forms were also found reliable and valid with $.74$ for EE, $.75$ for DP, and $.77$ for PA (Baysal, 1995) and $.87$ for EE, $.63$ for DP, $.74$ for PA (Girgin, 1995).

MBI was adapted for different purposes as MBI-General Survey (MBI-GS) for staff members, MBI-GS-Students (MBI-GSS) for discovering feeling of students for their studies and academic works, MBI-Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS) for assessing the job-related feeling of people who work in human services and MBI-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) for discovering how educators consider their job and people whom they work with closely. In this study MBI-ES is employed to measure teachers' job-related feelings.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) consists of 22 items and three dimensions as Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Depersonalization (DP) and Personal Accomplishment (PA). The Dimension of EE which detects the feelings of being emotionally exhausted or overextended consists of the nine items 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 13, 14, 16, and 20. The dimension of DP, assesses the feelings of impersonal response toward people, consists of five items 5, 10, 11, 15, and 22. The dimension of PA, evaluates the feelings of successful achievement, consists of eight items 4, 7, 9, 12, 17, 18, 19, and 21. The MBI-ES measures self-perceived burnout levels of EFL teachers in terms of these three subscales of EE, DP and PA asking how often they experience the feelings mentioned in the inventory through a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 0-6 (where 0 = never, 1= a few times a year, 2=once a

month or less, 3=a few times a month, 4= once a week, 5=a few times a week and 6 = every day). Maslach & Jackson (1986) states that when burnout increases, the scores of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization increase and score of personal accomplishment decreases namely high scores on emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization; low scores on personal accomplishment are accepted signs of burnout. In the following table score categorization of dimensions presented:

Table 5 Score Categories of Burnout Subscales

	Frequency of EE	Frequency of DP	Frequency of PA
Low	0-16	0-8	0-30
Moderate	17-26	9-13	31-36
High	27 or over	14 or over	37 or over
Range	0-54	0-30	0-48

The Table 5 shows the categorization of the scores gained by MBI-ES. 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; 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, 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 . Furthermore, the scores of PA subscale are reversed in order to calculate a summative score of burnout scale.

3.6. Data Collection Process

The research study was conducted with 100 English Foreign Language Teachers of public middle schools in three centre and densely populated districts of Van (Edremit, İpekyolu, and Tuşba) during 2016-2017 academic year. Before contacting to participants of the study, the researcher sought and obtained permissions from Necmettin Erbakan University and Ministry of Education office in

Van. After obtaining permission from authorities, school principals of the middle schools were visited personally to get consent. Next, the quantitative data collection tools, the questionnaires of TAS and MBI-ES, were distributed as paper based to the volunteer teachers. The participants were given seven days to answer the questionnaires because of time constraints and data collection process lasted two months, April 2017 to June 2017.

3.7. Data Analysis Process

The collected data from 100 EFL teachers via TAS and MBI-ES for the present study was analyzed quantitatively through SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences), version 23.00. Descriptive statistics, parametrical tests such as t-tests, compares the differences between groups, one-way ANOVAs (Analysis of Variance), compare differences among the groups, non-parametrical tests such as Mann Whitney U-Test and Kruskal Wallis H-Test were applied by the researcher. Pearson and Spearman correlation tests were used in order to explore the correlations of data. The socio-demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, marital status, academic level, teaching experience, and classroom size) and teacher autonomy were used as independent variables of the present study while perceived burnout levels of teachers (i.e., EE, DP, and PA) were used as dependent variables of the study.

TAS and its two sub-scales (CA and GA) and MBI-ES and three sub-scales of MBI-ES were tested by Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests to check whether their scores were distributed normally or not. The distribution of the scores obtained from TAS and its sub-scales were distributed normally ($p > .05$). While MBI-ES and one of its sub-scale PA (personal accomplishment) meet normal distribution, sub-scales EE (Emotional Exhaustion) and DP (Depersonalization) did not meet normal distribution ($p < .05$) according to results of normality tests.

Table 6 Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a		Shapiro-Wilk	
	Statistic	p	Statistic	p
EE	,115	,002	,958	,003
DP	,131	,000	,940	,000
PA	,092	,036	,976	,065

Because of the abnormal distribution of the scores obtained from EE and DP sub-scales, two non-parametrical tests, Mann Whitney U-Test and Kruskal Wallis H-Test were applied in order to find out relationship between these scales and their independent variables. To examine the relationship between the subscales (EE&DP) and TAS, Spearman correlation test which is nonparametric measure of rank correlation, was used.

Table 7 One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		EE	DP
N		100	100
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	2,2567	1,3520
	Std. Deviation	1,19813	,99661
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	,115	,131
	Positive	,115	,131
	Negative	-,058	-,087
Test Statistic		,115	,131
P		,002 ^c	,000 ^c

According to the table 7, One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test is applied to the subscales (EE&DP) of the MBI-ES and Asymptotic Significance values (Asymp.Sig.) are significant at $p < .05$ level. The test distribution is normal.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the data analysis and interpretation of the findings gathered through Teacher Autonomy Scale and Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey. First, descriptive statistics of participants were given. Second, the results of exploratory statistics for the participants' perceived level of teacher autonomy were portrayed. Third, possible relationships between participants' perceived level of teacher autonomy and their socio-demographic variables were examined. Forth, the results of exploratory statistics for the participants' burnout levels in terms of EE, DP, and PA were provided. Fifth, possible relationships between participants' burnout levels and socio-demographic characteristics were illustrated. Finally, the relationship between participants' perceived level of teacher autonomy and burnout levels in terms of EE, DP, and PA were examined and demonstrated.

4.1. Descriptive Statistics of Participants

In this part of the study, descriptive statistics of the participants is provided. This statistic is very essential to understand the research. Following table gives necessary information about the participants:

Table 8 Descriptive Statistics of Participants

		N
Gender	Male	45
	Female	55
Age	25 and below	21
	26-30	51
	31-35	22
	36-40	5

	41-45	1
Marital status	Single	47
	Married	53
Academic level	Bachelor's degree (B.A.)	89
	Master's degree (M.A.)	7
	Doctoral Degree (Ph.D.)	0
	Other	4
Teaching experience	Less than 1 year	6
	1-5 years	62
	6-10 years	19
	11-15 years	11
	16-20 years	2
Classroom Size	Less than 20 students	12
	21-30 students	57
	31-40 students	25
	41-50 students	6

Table 8 gives basic information of participants in terms of gender, age, marital status, academic level, teaching experience, and classroom size.

Gender

It can be seen from the table that 45 of the participants (N=100) are male while 55 of them are female. In Turkey, 43.35% of the teachers who work in both public and private schools are male and 54.3% are females (MONE, 2017).

Age

The age of the participants shown in the table ranges from 25 to 45. 21 of the participants are 25 and below, 51 of the participants are between 26 and 30, and 22 of them are between 31 and 35. It is evident that more than half of the participants are between 26 to 30 ages and 94 participants are under the age of 35. One can easily say that the population of English language teachers of middle schools in Van is very young. There are five participants between age of 36 and one 40-45 while nobody is above 46 ages according to the gathered data. Ministry of Education (MONE, 2015) reported that, 27% of teachers in Turkey is between the ages 22-30 years, 37.9% of them between 31-40 years, 24.5% of 41-50 years, 9.7% of them 51-60 years and % 0.9 of them is 61 years and over. The arithmetic mean of teachers' age distribution is 37 and approximately 65% of teachers in Turkey is the age range between 22-30 (Hacettepe, 2017: 10).

Marital Status

The table provides information about marital status of the participants. It shows that 47 of them are single whereas 53 of the participants are married.

Academic Level

Academic levels of the participants are also presented by the table. 89 of them have bachelor's degree (B.A.) while 7 have master's degree (M.A.). None of the EFL teachers working in the middle schools of Van have a Doctoral Degree (Ph.D.) from the sample. According to MONE (2015), 0.1% of teachers in Turkey have doctorate, 7.7% of them master's degree, to 80.5% of them bachelor's degree and 5.9% have undergraduate degree.

The Years of Teaching Experience

The years of teaching experience of the participants accumulate between 1-5 years. 62 teachers have teaching experience 1-5 years. 6 teachers are new starter with less than one-year experience. There are 19 participants with 6-10 years of experience and 11 participants with 11-15 years of experience. Only two participants have 16-20 years experience and none of them have teaching experience more than 20 years. Approximately 34.5% of the teachers in Turkey have less than five years of

experience, 13,1% of teachers have experience of 5-9 years, 16,2% between 10-14 years, 16,4% between 15-19 years and 19,7% over 20 years of experience (Hacettepe, 2017: 11).

Classroom Size

The classroom sizes of the participants work generally ranges between 21-30 students. 57 of the participants stated that their classroom size between 21 and 30 students. 12 participants have classrooms with 20 and less students. 25 participants teach in the classroom with 31-40 students while only 6 teachers' classroom sizes are between 41-50 students. There is not any classroom with more than 50 students according to statements of the participants.

4.2. Findings Regarding Perceived Level of Teacher Autonomy for EFL Teachers

Before illustrating overall autonomy perceptions of participants, it is useful to analyze the findings in terms of teacher autonomy areas. TAS is comprised of two subscales including curriculum autonomy and general autonomy. There are four areas of functioning were pertinent to teachers' sense of autonomy at work: (a) class teaching, (b) school mode of operating, (c) staff development, and (d) curriculum development (Moomaw, 2005).

Table 9 gives the descriptive statistics of items 7 and 17 in TAS. These items seem to measure teachers' autonomy perceptions in terms of time management.

Table 9 Descriptive Statistic of Items 7 and 17 in TAS

	M		
	N	\bar{x}	SD
7. The scheduling of use of time in my classroom is under my control.	100	4.02	,909
17. I have little say over the scheduling of use of time in my classroom.	100	3.59	1,02

As can be inferred from the table 9, items 7 and 17 may be related to time management. The mean value of item 7 is calculated as $\bar{x}:4,02$ and it refers to high perception of autonomy indicator 4,2. As a result, teachers perceive themselves highly autonomous in terms of using time in their classrooms. However, the other item of the scale, related to the time management in teaching, item 17 ($\bar{x}:3.59$) is calculated above the moderate perception indicator of teacher autonomy average 3,4. One can say that teachers have moderate to high level of autonomy in terms of time management.

The main reason of why teachers do not feel fully autonomous themselves in terms of time management may be the centralized educational structure of Turkey. Teachers are free how to use their time into classroom by following pre-determined course subjects and course books, but they have not any control over the length of their courses and how many hours their students should take the course. Intense curriculum and limited time to meet educational demands may also lead teachers to feel less autonomous in their classroom because one of the important factors that hinders teacher autonomy is that the curriculum, it has rigid and intense content. The subject matter in the program is excessive and does not allow teachers enough time and chance to develop and apply new methods and materials (Mustafa & Cullingford, 2008). This contradiction between demands and limited time to meet them may cause teachers to experience job stress and lead to burnout. Maslach and Leiter (1997, p. 10) has discussed that workload as “the most obvious indication of a mismatch between a person and the job” and the work overload is directly related to burnout (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 416-428).

The table 10 demonstrates the descriptive statistics of items 4 and 11 and they are related the teacherds’ discretion and latitude in their occupations.

Table 10 Descriptive Statistics of Items 4 and 11 in TAS

	N	M \bar{x}	SD
4. My job does not allow for much discretion on my part.	100	2,88	1,08

11. I have only limited latitude in how major problems are resolved.	100	3,13	,94
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The data mean values of item 4 (\bar{x} :2.88) and item 11 (\bar{x} :3.13), shows that teachers consider their job to limit their discretion with the low level of autonomy perception in terms of item 4. According to the table 10, it is clear that teachers also think that they are not full autonomous in participation of resolving major problems in their job with the low mean score of item 11(\bar{x} :3.13). These two items fall under general autonomy subscales of TAS.

Teachers who are under control and cannot exhibit autonomous behaviors generally have low level of motivation (MacBeath, 2012). It has been emphasized by many researchers that teacher autonomy is not limited to only in classroom teaching and learning activities, that the authority of the teacher in relation to the regulation of the school environment and working conditions, and the extent of freedom are part of the teacher autonomy (Freidman, 1999; Ingersoll, 2007). Consequently, teachers need autonomy to have more discretion about their job and must be included problem solving process in educational context. When teachers feel lack of control in these areas, they are likely to feel job stress since lack of control is one of the factors that contribute the burnout. In the workplace, individuals' inability to control over their work and nonparticipation of how major problems solved about their job may be sufficient for experiencing stress. There is an obvious relationship between lack of control and burnout since “when employees have the perceived capacity to influence decisions that affect their work, to exercise professional autonomy, and to gain access to the resources necessary to do an effective job, they are more likely to experience job engagement” (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

The table 11 shows the analysis of item 15 which related to evaluation and assessment of the learners.

Table 11 Descriptive Statistics of Item 15 in TAS

	N	Mean	
		\bar{x}	SD
15. The evaluation and assessment activities are selected by others.	100	3,51	1,08

The item 15 (\bar{x} :3.51) points out that English language teachers do not feel themselves full autonomous in the sense of evaluation and assessment of activities. The mean value of item 15 (\bar{x} :3.51) is in the moderate self perception level of teacher autonomy. The numbers of written exam, performance evaluation, project assessment teachers have to apply are dictated by regulations of Ministry of Education. Therefore, it is not surprising teachers' not having high level of autonomy in terms of the evaluation and assessment.

Another important issue that concerns teacher autonomy is the assessment of students. Although this issue is not discussed in the literature as much as the content and methods of teaching, it is often within the dimensions of teacher autonomy in developed scales and models (Adams & Wu, 2002, Eurydice, 2008, Pearson & Hall, 1993). Although assessing the success of students is traditionally a matter of authority for teachers, the prevalence of centralized examinations at different levels (national, regional or local), usually in the form of a test, which measures students' achievement in many countries, including the United States, appears as a phenomenon that restricts teacher autonomy (Adelman & King, 1990).

Evaluating and assessing students are among the main jurisdictions of teachers. According to LaCoe (2008), teacher autonomy refers to freedom on curriculum, instructional methods and techniques to be used, assessment and evaluation of student success and behavior, student discipline, time to be spent for classroom activities and teacher's own professional development. Having autonomy in these areas prevent or reduce teacher burnout in educational settings by increasing teacher job performance and productivity. Students in middle schools in Turkey have to take a centralized examination for going a secondary school. This situation affects

teachers' sense of autonomy in terms of evaluation and assessment of students because the centralized exam includes only multiple-choice questions. As a result, teachers force themselves to use this kind of assessment way to prepare their students for the exam. Runte (1998) emphasized the effects of centralized testing on teacher professionalism as follows:

“Centralized testing threatens teachers' professional control in four ways 1) by deskilling the testing portion of the evaluation function, 2) by enforcing a centralized curriculum 3) by removing teacher's right to evaluate the outcome of their own activity and 4) by introducing new (and possibly inappropriate) measures of teacher productivity.”

The table 12 gives the basic descriptive statistics of item 3. The item seems to be related to norms for students' behaviors.

Table 12 Descriptive Statistics of Item 3 in TAS

	M		
	N	\bar{x}	SD
3. Standards of behavior in my classroom are set primarily by myself.	100	3,66	,912

The Table 12 represents the item related to norms for students' behaviors. The mean value of item 3 (\bar{x} :3.66) shows that teacher have moderate perception of teacher autonomy in the sense of determining standards of behaviors in the classroom. It is evident that teachers are not full autonomous in detecting norms of actions performed by students during classroom.

Huberman & Vandenberghe (1999) state that disturbing and undisciplined behaviors of the students is one of the factors resulting overwhelming of teachers according to studies in Europe and North America. Teachers in this situation may not be able to perform well in their profession, and research also shows that teachers who are experiencing these difficulties tend to leave their profession (Friedman and Fraber, 1992, Berkhout et al., 1998). When individuals experience burnout, they are

prone to lose interest, idealism and enthusiasm for their work (Dworkin, Saha, & Hill, 2003).

The table 13 shows the descriptive statistics of the item 13. The item is related to teachers' control over how classroom space is used.

Table 13 Descriptive Statistics of Item 13 in TAS

	M		
	N	\bar{x}	SD
13. I have little control over how classroom space is used.	100	3,71	1,01

When the mean value of item 13 ($\bar{x}:3.71$) represented in the table 13 is considered, it is clearly seen that teachers do not have higher but moderate self perception of teacher autonomy in terms of arranging and designing physical environment of classroom. The reason why teachers do not feel themselves fully autonomous in terms of how classroom space is used may be due to they do not have classroom based on their teaching branches. In present school system of Turkey, also in the traditional system and widely used in our primary education institutions, students are divided into classes based on their grade and each class has their own classroom and students are thought all lessons in same classroom, but teachers teach in different classroom according to their course schedule. Namely, most of the teachers do not have any space to control and arrange based on their course.

In 2006, the Board of Education and Training encouraged to place the branch classroom system application in schools as much as possible. However, in the traditional system, which is widely used in our primary education institutions, students are divided into classes and branches, and each class goes to different classes according to the teachers' course schedule. In this system, classical teaching method is used with very limited use of materials in class.

In 2008, after implementation of branch classroom system, the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) and Board of Education and Training reported the results as:

- In the branch classrooms, systematic thinking of the students using tools and equipment, gain of working habits, increase of imagination and creativity power are provided. As the books, documents, tools and equipment, television and VCD belonging to that classroom were found in the classrooms, the handicrafts and imagination of the students were combined, and a multifaceted development was achieved.
- Through the application, the student has passed the position of demanding information, not waiting for it. As the students were in a classroom for this purpose, the environment that would trigger violence disappeared on this occasion.
- The fact that the activities of each class are in the same environment improved the creativity and competition feelings of the students. Because all the students' work is in the classroom, they have learned to learn side by side. The upper classes began to guide the lower classes, and the success of the lower classes moved the upper classes to action.
- Since words in the English class are always hanging on the classroom, time is saved by not repeating the same process each time.
- As one or more classrooms are empty with the application, the size of classrooms, number of students, is reduced and a more suitable classroom environment is provided.
- It was observed that the success of the students increased during the exams.
- Our teachers have the opportunity to work in a more peaceful and noise-free environment.
- Positive reactions were received from the parents.

According to reported results, this system has many positive effects for education stakeholders. When teachers have right to design and arrange their workplace, it is

possible for them to feel more motivated and devoted. Consequently, when they feel more motivated and devoted, the risk of exposing burnout is decreasing.

Table 14 gives the basic statistical information about the item 2 and 14. These items are related to learning activities and teaching materials.

Table 14 Descriptive Statistics of Items 2 and 14 in TAS

	N	M \bar{x}	SD
2. The selection of student-learning activities in my class is under my control.	100	3,88	,935
14. The materials I use in my class are chosen for the most part by myself.	100	3,88	,977

The items represented in the table of 14 are items to measure the teachers' autonomy perception on control over selection of student learning activities and materials. The item 2 (\bar{x} : 3.88) indicates that EFL teachers have moderate self perception of autonomy in terms of selection of student-learning activities. According to the mean value of item 14 (\bar{x} : 3.88) it can be claimed that teachers have not higher autonomy perception in the sense of choosing materials they use in their teaching but have moderate self perception of teacher autonomy.

Teachers have the greatest autonomy in classroom teaching activities (Anderson, 1987). According to Strong (2012, p. 37-38), teachers feel autonomous within the dimension of classroom management. Similarly, Ingersoll (2007, p. 24) expresses that the most striking consequences of teacher autonomy are seen in the field of classroom management. It is necessary to give full authority to teachers in classroom teaching in order to increase the quality of education (Eurydice, 2008; Freidman, 1999). However, as the table 4.7 shows participants are not full-autonomous in terms of control over selection of student learning activities and materials. Enlarging teacher authority and allowing them to work freely is not enough for the teachers to gain autonomy on their own. They also need to have

sufficient professional knowledge and skills to enable them as teachers to work autonomously. Autonomy is not only given by the management, it is also a qualification acquired by the teachers (Öztürk, 2011). According to Bauer (cited in Steh & Pozarnik, 2005), teacher autonomy engages to all aspects of a teacher's professional existence, such as values, professional competence, and practice skills. For example, to prepare the methods and materials to be used in the classroom, teachers need to be not only competent in this matter, but also to have the necessary knowledge and skills and to show sufficient interest and effort. The weakness of the professional skills of teachers such as producing content, using different teaching methods, and developing materials often leads to an entirely course book dependent teaching (Mustafa & Cullingford, 2008). Therefore, one of the main factors determining teacher autonomy is the level of professional development of teachers.

Table 15 presents the descriptive information about the items 1, 5, 9, and 16. These items seem to evaluate teaching approaches, methods and strategies.

Table 15 Descriptive Statistics of Items 1, 5, 9, and 16 in TAS

	N	M	
		\bar{x}	SD
1. I am free to be creative in my teaching approach.	100	3,91	1,03
5. In my teaching, I use my own guidelines and procedures.	100	3,68	1,00
9. I seldom use alternative procedures in my teaching.	100	3,66	,867
16. I select the teaching methods and strategies I use with my students.	100	3,77	,941

The items 1 (\bar{x} : 3.91), 5 (\bar{x} : 3.68), 9 (\bar{x} : 3.66), and 16 (\bar{x} : 3.77) are evaluated together since they each are related to the students' teaching and the teaching way

teachers prefer while teaching as teaching approach, procedures, methods and strategies. With the mean value of \bar{x} : 3,91 more than half of the EFL teachers see themselves in moderate teacher autonomy level in terms of being creative in their teaching approach. As in the table 15, the teachers are moderately autonomous in using their own guidelines and procedures while teaching with the mean value of \bar{x} : 3,68. The item 9 have very close mean value (\bar{x} : 3.66) with the item 5 (\bar{x} : 3.68) as they both measure similar autonomy areas. The mean value of item 9 (\bar{x} : 3.66) shows that the ELF teachers have moderate self perception of autonomy in using alternative procedures in their teaching. The table also show that the item 16 (\bar{x} : 3.77) measure the teachers' selection of teaching methods and strategies in their teaching. According to the mean value of item 16 (\bar{x} : 3.77), the teachers are not full autonomous in selection of teaching methods and strategies they use but they have moderate self perception of autonomy in related area.

Teacher autonomy can be said to be a phenomenon which, in the narrow sense, reflects teachers' choices and decisions in classroom teaching and teaching activities but autonomy is actually based on the general nature of the educational setting, teaching activities are carried out within the classroom walls in a large scale and the teacher is the sole authority, there is no direct observation and supervision of the superior authorities except for some exceptions (inspections, complaints, etc.). In the classroom, teachers decide to how and what they teach, and how the classroom management and environment will be. Therefore, no matter how strict and authoritative the rules governing education, there is an environment in which the teacher can act freely (Öztürk, 2011). The decisions and regulations of the higher authorities are reflected in the class depending on the interpretation of the teachers and their desire to practice. This situation, which Bidwell (cited in Gamoran et al., 2000) refers to as structural looseness, distinguishes the educational setting and teaching profession from other fields and professions. Researchers have shown that in almost every part of the world, teachers have an actual autonomy in this sense, and that the closed structure of the classroom environment provides them with a certain amount of informal liberty (Anderson, 1987).

Table 16 demonstrates the descriptive statistics of items 6, 8, 10, 12, and 18. They seem to be related curriculum autonomy.

Table 16 Descriptive Statistics of Items 6, 8, 10, 12, and 18 in TAS

	N	M	
		\bar{x}	SD
6. I have little say over the content and skills that are selected for teaching.	100	2,86	1,16
8. My teaching focuses on those goals and objectives I select myself.	100	2,88	1,20
10. I follow my own guidelines on instruction.	100	3,51	,846
12. What I teach in my class is determined for the most part by myself.	100	2,91	1,20
18. The content and skills taught in my class are those I select.	100	2,62	1,23

The items 5, 6, 8, 12, 14 and 18 are classified as curriculum autonomy subscale and remainders are evaluated as general autonomy subscale by Pearson & Hall (1993). However, Moomaw (2005) move the item 5 (In my teaching, I use my own guidelines and procedures.) to general autonomy from curriculum autonomy and move the item 10 (I follow my own guidelines on instruction.) to curriculum autonomy from general autonomy based on the study he conducted. Furthermore, the item 14 (The materials I use in my class are chosen for the most part by myself.) is evaluated separately.

The table 16 represents the descriptive statistics of items 6, 8, 10, 12, and 18. It can be clearly seen that the mean values of the items show that EFL teachers have lower perception of autonomy in this part of the study. The item 6 (\bar{x} : 2.86), indicates

that the EFL teachers are not moderately or fully autonomous but have lower perceptions of autonomy over content and skills selected for teaching. Similarly, the mean value of item 8 (\bar{x} : 2.88), verifies that the teachers see themselves at lower autonomy level in terms of selecting goals and objectives their teaching focuses on. Whereas, the teachers state that they have moderate perception of autonomy in following their own guidelines on instruction with the mean value of 3,51. The mean value of item 12 (\bar{x} : 2.91) is indicator of teachers' lower perception of autonomy in the sense of determining what they teach in their classrooms. It is evident that what they teach is mostly determining by others according to value presented in the table 16 Similarly, item 18 (\bar{x} : 2.62) proves that teachers are not moderate or fully autonomous over the content and skills they teach in the classroom. They have lower perception of autonomy over what they teach. In sum, teachers do not feel themselves autonomous in terms of curriculum.

Fleming (1998) describes teacher autonomy as "Teacher autonomy is commonly used to describe the degree to which teachers make independent curriculum decisions". However, teacher involvement in curriculum development processes are one of the most discussed issues in autonomy field. Hanson (1991, p. 26) identifies some restrictions to develop and foster teacher autonomy as administrative restrictions like developing curriculum and deciding course books, audit of course subjects, school administrations carrying out a single training strategy, and school administration expecting certain roles. Crookes (1997) also identifies the exclusion of teachers in the curriculum development process as a structural factor that affect the efficiency and autonomy of teachers working in public schools.

The understanding that dominates the education system in Turkey is top-down curriculum model. In this model, supreme authority determines and supervises what teachers to do. Teachers hereby have no any latitude in choosing their own contents or determining their own timing for teaching. When choosing course content and methods, teachers do not come out of the frame of the curriculum and textbooks. This situation is supervised by school administrators and inspectors.

Course books have been written, published and distributed by Ministry of Education and almost all educational systems examine students' achievement via these centralized exams and the curriculum is completely harmonized with the central examinations. Teachers feel compelled to prepare their students for the centralized exams because they have been recognized as successful when their students succeed in these exams. Therefore, the role of the teacher does not usually go beyond being the mere practitioner of the curriculum and the textbooks. This situation is often internalized by the teachers as well. Flett and Wallace (2005) name this contradiction as 'autonomy dilemma'. Teachers are required to become autonomous and foster autonomy in students; on the other hand, teachers are pushed into organizing their teaching according to the content of the test, which is an 'affront to teacher professionalism.' (Kubow & DeBard 2000).

Many of the teachers think that developing the program is not a responsibility for them but a responsibility to the Ministry of National Education (Can, 2009). However, it is not possible to apply a general curriculum in most of the time because teaching is not a stable profession, moreover and most importantly, students are all individuals and they have different needs, interests, and different learning way. So, this top-down understanding is a very huge obstacle for teachers to gain autonomy and the way to cope with this obstacle is to include teachers in the curriculum development process. Glatthorn (1987) emphasizes that "The teacher is the curriculum. They do not neutrally implement the curriculum. They adapt, translate and modify and develop their own."

Moomaw (2005) affirms that teacher autonomy cannot be restricted in the classroom; it covers school structure and organization, disciplinary problems, curriculum content, academic standards, staffing and fiscal policy. In countries dominated by approaches that encourage teacher autonomy, curriculum content is defined more flexibly and generally on a schedule, and the teacher is given the right to choose and create the content. Programs that organize the teaching content in a rigid and detailed manner reflect the understanding that the teacher has to tightly control what they will teach to the class (Eurydice, 2008).

Table 17 gives the descriptive statistics of general autonomy and curriculum autonomy.

Table 17 Descriptive Statistics of General Autonomy, Curriculum Autonomy and Teacher Autonomy Scale.

	N	M \bar{x}	SD
GA	100	3,61	,439
CA	100	3,11	,684
TAS	100	3,44	,456

The table 17 indicates the mean values of General Autonomy (GA) and Curriculum Autonomy (CA) of participants (N=100). Apparently, the EFL teachers perceive their general autonomy (GA= \bar{x} :3.61) in moderate level whereas their curriculum autonomy perception is at lower level. Finally, as the table 17 shows, it can be said that the EFL teachers have moderate perception of autonomy with the mean value of TAS (\bar{x} : 3.44).

4.2. Finding Regarding the Relationship Between Teacher Autonomy and Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Possible relationships between teacher autonomy and (a) gender, (b) age, (c) marital status, (d) academic level, (e) teaching experience, and (f) classroom size of English language teachers of middle schools are illustrated in this section.

Table 18 examines the independent sample T-test statistics of teacher autonomy perception for gender.

Table 18 The Independent Sample T-test Statistics of Teacher Autonomy Perception for Gender

Gender	N	M \bar{x}	SD	t	df	sig.
male	45	3,4370	,44280	-,212	98	,833
female	55	3,4566	,47088			

Studying the table 18, according to the sig. scores of the t-test for equality of means being $> .05$ it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between males and females in terms of teacher autonomy perceptions. According to the table 18, the significance value of ,833 ($p > 0.05$) and the mean value of males (\bar{x} :3,4370) and females (\bar{x} :3,4566) are very close each other.

Pearson and Hall (1993), and later Pearson and Moomaw (2006) using samples of public school teachers in Florida, find no significant difference between men and women on total autonomy score. Similarly, Şakar (2013) reports that there was no a significant difference between teacher autonomy and gender in her study investigating English teachers' self perceptions of teacher autonomy in middle schools and high schools. Moreover, studies conducted by Yu-Yong & Ting (2012), Perie & Baker (1997) and Karabacak (2014) show that teacher autonomy is not associated with the gender of teacher.

Table 19 shows the independent sample T-test statistics of teacher autonomy perception for marital status.

Table 19 The Independent Sample T-test Statistics of Teacher Autonomy Perception for Marital Status

marital status	N	M \bar{x}	SD	t	df	Sig.
Single	47	3,4704	,45354	,466	98	,642

Married	53	3,4277	,46207
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As the table 19 represent, it can be inferred that there was no significant difference between singles and married ones because statistics shows that significance value of ,642 ($p > 0.05$) is insignificant. 47 single participants (\bar{x} : 3.4704) and 53 married participants (\bar{x} : 3.4277) had very close scores in terms of teacher autonomy perceptions.

Table 4.20 shows the One-way ANOVA test statistics of teacher autonomy perception for age.

Table 20 The One-way ANOVA Test Statistics of Teacher Autonomy Perception for Age

Variables	Group statistics				Levene's Test		ANOVA		
	Age	N	Mean	SD	F	Sig.	df	F	Sig.
TA	25&below	21	3,4921	,48441	,589	,624	4	,814	,519
	26 to 30	51	3,4978	,44693					
	31 to 35	22	3,3258	,49074					
	36 to 40	5	3,3667	,21731					
	41 to 45	1	3,0556	.					

As can be inferred from the table above, the results of One-way ANOVA analyses show that statistically there is no significant difference between teacher autonomy perceptions ($F(4) = .814, P = .519, P > 0.05$) and age variable. However, when we compare the groups of ages participants in the ranges, 25 & below (\bar{x} : 3.4921) and 26 to 30 (\bar{x} : 3.4978) age groups have moderate level of autonomy perceptions whereas remainder age groups have lower teacher autonomy perceptions.

When the literature on teacher autonomy is explored in terms of age of the participants, a significant difference between them is not reported (Pearson & Hall, 1993; Pearson & Moomaw 2005; Perie & Baker 1997). On the other hand, some studies show that there is a significant difference between teacher perception of autonomy and their age (Karabacak, 2014; Şakar, 2013).

Üzüm (2014) conducts a research to determine the awareness level of grade teachers' in terms of psychological, technical and political autonomy. According to results, teachers' age factor is not associated with technical autonomy, whereas there is a significant relationship between participants' age and both psychological and political autonomy.

Table 21 gives the One-way ANOVA test statistics of teacher autonomy perception for academic level.

Table 21 The One-way ANOVA Test Statistics of Teacher Autonomy Perception for Academic Level

Variables	Group statistics			Levene's Test		ANOVA			
	N	Mean	SD	F	Sig.	df	F	Sig.	
TA	Academic Level								
	Bachelor's Degree (B.A.)	89	3,4563	,46417					
	Master's Degree (M.A.)	7	3,4762	,38471	,098	,907	2	,575	,565
	Other	4	3,2083	,41667					

Data of the 100 participants is studied and presented the table above. As the table 21 indicates, the One-way ANOVA test statistics of the academic level groups

do not show significant differences in terms of teacher autonomy perceptions ($F(2) = .575, P = .565, P > 0.05$).

Pearson & Hall (1993), and Pearson & Moomaw (2006) find no significant difference between teachers' autonomy scores based on academic degree held. Karabacak (2014) also shows that academic level is not associated with teachers' autonomy perceptions in her study that examines the opinions of high school teachers related to teacher autonomy and teacher self-efficacy.

Table 22 demonstrates the One-way ANOVA test statistics of teacher autonomy perception for teaching experience.

Table 22 The One-way ANOVA Test Statistics of Teacher Autonomy Perception for Teaching Experience

Variables	Group statistics			Levene's Test		ANOVA			
	Teaching Experience	N	Mean	SD	F	Sig.	df	F	Sig.
TA	Less than 1 year	6	3,2685	,65397	,827	,511	4	1,020	,401
	1-5 years	62	3,5045	,42373					
	6-10 years	19	3,4444	,55648					
	11-15 years	11	3,2475	,30160					
	16-20 years	2	3,3611	,43212					

As clearly stated in the table 22, the One-way ANOVA analyses shows that statistically, there is no significant difference between teacher autonomy perceptions ($F(4) = 1,020, P = .401, P > 0.05$) and teaching experience years of teachers.

Şakar (2013) found significant difference between teaching experience and perceptions of teacher autonomy in her study with English teachers they work in middle and high schools of Sakarya. In parallel to Şakar (2013), Wan Ling Ling

(2011) conducted a study with EFL teachers and reported that experienced teachers had higher level of autonomy compared to less experienced teachers. Similarly Sparks (2012) detects that as teachers' experience increases, their autonomy also increases. Moreover, years of experience affects teacher stress and motivation (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). Teachers' experience protects them to experience job stress and losing their motivation.

According to the results of a study conducted by Yıldız and Seferoğlu (2017), years of teaching experience is another effective variable on teachers' burnout. For example, teachers with 6-10 years of experience expose higher level of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, while perceptions of personal achievement develop in parallel. This result is the opposite for teachers who have 21-25 years of experience. These teachers who experience emotional exhaustion and depersonalization at a lower level have higher level of personal accomplishment. On the other hand, burnout levels of teachers working in the 26th year and above are higher than all other groups.

Table 23 The One-way ANOVA Test Statistics of Teacher Autonomy Perception for Classroom Size

Variables	Group statistics				Levene's Test		ANOVA		
	Classroom Size	N	Mean	SD	F	Sig.	df	F	Sig.
TA	Less than 20 students	12	3,3148	,45278	1,184	,320	3	,848	,471
	21-30 students	57	3,4250	,48812					
	31-40 students	25	3,5289	,32200					
	41-50 students	6	3,5926	,63115					

As the table 23 represents, according to the One-way ANOVA test statistics, the classroom size groups do not show significant differences in terms of teacher autonomy perceptions ($F(3) = .848, P = .471, P > 0.05$).

One of the criterion based on evaluating teachers' workload is classroom size and crowded classrooms cause an increase in teachers' workload leads stress and fatigue (Hacettepe, 2017: 13). The level of teachers' adoption of perceptions of instructional autonomy and the degree of applicability of the dimension of financial autonomy do not differ according to the number of students (Karabacak, 2014). According to Güven (2013), oversized classrooms are source of stress for teachers (Güven, 2013). This is because the numbers of the students have impact on teachers' control during the classroom and may cause some discipline problems for teachers.

4.3. Findings Regarding the Perceived Burnout Level (EE, DP, and PA) of English Language Teachers

In analysis and interpretation of the data, descriptive statistics of burnout subscales were presented.

Table 24 gives basic descriptive statistics of Emotional exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment.

Table 24 Descriptive Statistics of EE, DP, and PA

	N	M	SD
Emotional Exhaustion	100	20,31	10,78317
Depersonalization	100	6,76	4,98304
Personal Accomplishment	100	36,42	6,10047

The Table 24 presents descriptive statistics of the sub-scales of MBI-ES. The mean values of EE is $\bar{x}:20,31$, DP is $\bar{x}:6,76$ and PA is $\bar{x}:36,42$. When we compare these mean values to MBI-ES scoring key (See the Table 5) it is clear that EFL

teachers have moderate level of Emotional Exhaustion (\bar{x} :20,31) and low level of Depersonalization (\bar{x} :6,76). The mean value of PA (\bar{x} :36,42) shows that teachers can be evaluated as in high level range (37-48).

The following table presents the frequencies of participant in terms of their levels in EE, DP, and PA.

Table 25 Frequencies of Participant in Terms of Their Levels in EE, DP, and PA

Subscales	Observed ranges	Low F	Moderate F	High F
EE	1-43	44	29	27
DP	0-24	66	25	9
PA	19-48	20	28	52

The table above presents frequencies of participants according to their levels of subscales. Having a look at the table 25 and studying the data provided, 44 of EFL teachers have low level of emotional exhaustion, 29 of them are at moderate range while 27 have high level of emotional exhaustion. 66 of the teachers are at the low level of depersonalization, 25 have moderate level of depersonalization whereas only 9 of the teachers have high level of depersonalization. Finally, 20 of the EFL teachers are at the low level of personal accomplishment and 28 have moderate level of personal accomplishment while 52 have high level of personal accomplishment. In sum, it can be inferred from the findings of burnout levels of the teachers that teachers do not experience high level of burnout but almost they are at the low level. Burnout levels of them vary in terms of Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment.

4.4. Findings Regarding the Relationship Between Burnout Subscales and Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Is there any relationship between teacher burnout and (a) gender, (b) age, (c) marital status, (d) academic level, (e) teaching experience, and (f) classroom size of English language teachers in middle schools?

To find out the relationships between demographic variables and the subscales both parametric and nonparametric tests are used by the researcher. The subscales EE and DP are analyzed with the help of nonparametric test as Mann Whitney U test and Kruskal Wallis since the assumptions of parametric test are not met. The subscale PA met normality assumptions so parametric test as t-test and one-way ANOVA are applied to explore the relationships between the socio demographic variables and PA.

Mann Whitney U-Test is used to examine if there are significant differences between Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization in terms of gender. The table below shows the findings:

Table 26 Mann Whitney U-Test Results Related to EE and DP Depending on Gender

	Gender	N	M	SD	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
EE	male	45	20,2444	10,73896	50,64	2279,00				
	female	55	20,3636	10,91781	50,38	2771,00	1231,000	2771,000	-,045	,964
	Total	100								
DP	male	45	7,2667	5,16720	53,40	2403,00				
	female	55	6,3455	4,83513	48,13	2647,00	1107,000	2647,000	-,907	,364
	Total	100								

According to the table 26, males ($\bar{x}:20,24$) and females ($\bar{x}:20,36$) got close mean scores in emotional exhaustion and both have moderate level of EE. Furthermore, there is no significant difference between emotional exhaustion and

	single	47	20,3617	1063306	51,33	2412,50				
EE	married	53	20,2642	11,01599	49,76	2637,50	1206,500	2637,500	-,270	,788
	Total	100								
DP	single	47	7,3517	5,01487	54,40	2557,00				
	married	53	6,2266	4,94058	47,04	2493,00	1062,0	2493,0	-	,204
	Total	100							1,271	

Table 28 demonstrates the scores and details of participants' EE and DP levels in terms of marital status. According to the table there is no statistically significant difference between EE and marital status of the teachers. Single (\bar{x} :20,3617) and married (\bar{x} :20,2642) teachers have very close mean scores and they are in the moderate range of EE. Mean scores of depersonalization indicate that married teachers have lower DP than single teachers statistically but both are in the low level of DP and there is no significant difference between depersonalization and marital status.

Table 29 The Independent Samples t-Test Statistics of PA for Marital Status

		Group statistics			Levene's Test		t-test		
Marital status		N	M	S.d.	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
PA	single	47	36,9149	6,22348					
	married	53	35,9811	6,01438	,011	,918	,762	98	,448
	Total	100							

The table 29 presents descriptive statistics and t-test findings of personal accomplishment. The data shows that single teachers have higher Personal Accomplishment than married teachers, but both are in the moderate almost high

level of DP. There is no significant difference between PA and marital status ($P=.448, P>0.05$).

Table 30 Kruskal Wallis Test results Related to Age for EE and DP

	Age	N	M	SD	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
EE	25 and below	21	21,8095	10,00309	55,21	,764	4	,943
	26 to 30	51	19,7843	10,31952	49,68			
	31 to 35	22	20,4545	13,21517	48,95			
	36 to 40	5	19,4000	10,50238	46,70			
	41 to 45	1			46,50			
	Total	100						
DP	25 and below	21	8,1905	5,58228	57,67	4,359	4	,360
	26 to 30	51	6,9412	4,59744	52,52			
	31 to 35	22	5,5000	5,20760	42,16			
	36 to 40	5	5,0000	5,14782	39,50			
	41 to 45	1			35,50			
	Total	100						

The table above presents descriptive statistics of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization in terms of gender and shows the relationships between the subscales and gender. It can be inferred from the table that mean scores of age groups are similar and there is no significant difference between EE and gender since $p=.943, p>.05$. Depersonalization scores of the participants are also similar but DP

scores decrease as age of participants increase. No significant difference is observed between DP and age variable ($p=.360$, $p>.05$).

Table 31 The One-way ANOVA Test Statistics of Teacher PA for Classroom Size

Age	Group statistics			Levene's Test		ANOVA	
	N	M	SD	F	Sig.	F	df Sig.
PA 25 and below	21	35,7619	6,31589				
26 to 30	51	36,9412	6,50357				
31 to 35	22	36,0909	5,19990	,525	,666	,438	4
36 to 40	5	34,4000	5,85662				,781
41 to 45	1	35,50					
Total	100						

Descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA results are presented in the table 31. There is no significant difference between Personal Accomplishment and age variable because $p=.781$, $p>.05$. Teachers between the ranges of 26 to 30 have highest PA mean scores ($\bar{x}:36,9412$) compared to the other age groups.

Teacher burnout level varies according to "age, occupational status and socioeconomic status of the school where the school is located". Gender-based evaluations show that male teachers experience higher levels of depersonalization and emotional exhaustion. On the other hand, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization are seen at higher levels in teachers under 30 years of age (Seferoğlu, Yıldız and Avcı, 2014).

Table 32 Kruskal Wallis Test Results Related to Academic Level for EE and DP

	academic level	N	M	SD	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
EE	Bachelor's Degree (B.A.)	89	20,6517	10,89318	51,23	,544	2	,762
	Master's Degree (M.A.)	7	16,2857	7,95224	43,43			
	Other	4	19,7500	13,72042	46,63			
	Total	100						
DP	Bachelor's Degree (B.A.)	89	6,8315	4,86695	51,22	1,572	2	,456
	Master's Degree (M.A.)	7	4,5714	4,42934	37,86			
	Other	4	9,0000	8,20569	56,63			
	Total	100						

As it can be easily inferred from the Table 32, teachers with master's degree ($\bar{x}:16,2857$) have lower emotional exhaustion compared to the teachers they have bachelor's degree ($\bar{x}:20,6517$). No significant difference between EE and academic level is provided statistically as the findings show ($p=.762$, $p>.05$). Moreover, teachers with master's degree have lowest depersonalization mean score ($\bar{x}:4,5714$) among academic levels groups. There is also no significant difference between DP and academic level variable since $p=.456$, $p>.05$.

Table 33 The One-way ANOVA Test Statistics of Teacher PA for Academic Level

	Group statistics			Levene's Test		ANOVA			
	Academic level	N	M	SD	F	Sig.	F	df	Sig.
PA	Bachelor's Degree (B.A.)	89	36,5618	6,18090					
	Master's Degree (M.A.)	7	35,1429	5,11301	,584	,559	,219	2	,803
	Other	4	35,5000	7,04746					
	Total	100							

Table 33 indicates the scores and details of the teachers Personal Accomplishment level in terms of academic degrees held. As the table infer, there is no statistically significant difference between personal accomplishment and the academic level of EFL teachers ($p=.803$, $p>.05$).

Table 34 Kruskal Wallis Test Results Related to Teaching Experience for EE and DP

	Teaching experience	N	M	SD	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	df	Asymp.
								Sig.
EE	Less than 1 year	6	24,5000	11,02270	62,00	3,131	4	,536
	1-5 years	62	19,8871	10,96508	49,37			
	6-10 years	19	19,7368	11,76550	48,34			
	11-15 years	11	22,8182	5,80668	58,36			
	16-20 years	2	12,5000	6,36396	28,25			
	Total	100						

DP	Less than 1 year	6	9,6667	5,92171	66,42	3,767	4	,438
	1-5 years	62	6,7742	5,03242	50,28			
	6-10 years	19	6,7368	4,88583	51,24			
	11-15 years	11	5,9091	4,57066	46,68			
	16-20 years	2	2,5000	2,12132	23,50			
	Total	100						

Studying the table 34 thoroughly, as can be inferred, the data shows that more than half of the EFL teachers (N=62) have 1 to 5 years of experiences with mean score \bar{x} :19,8871 which refers they are at moderate level of emotional exhaustion. The teachers with 6-10 years' experience (N=19) have also similar mean score (\bar{x} :19,7368). The teachers with less than one-year experience have highest EE mean score among groups in terms of years of experience but there are only 6 teachers in the group and the teachers with 16-20 years of experience have lowest mean score only with 2 participants. According to the table, there is no significant difference between EE and teachers' years of experience. When Depersonalization scores of participants reviewed in terms of years of experience variable, EFL teachers are in the range of low level of DP according to the MBI-ES scoring key (See the table 5) and there is no significant difference between DP and teachers' years of experience.

Table 35 The One-way ANOVA Test Statistics of Teacher PA for Teaching Experience

		Group statistics			Levene's Test		ANOVA	
Teaching experience	N	Mean	SD	F	Sig.	F	df	Sig.
Less than 1 year	6	37,8333	4,66548					
1-5 years	62	36,0161	6,59978					
6-10 years	19	37,1579	5,92793	,997	,413	,220	4	,927

11-15 years	11	36,7273	4,49646
16-20 years	2	36,0000	7,07107
Total	100	36,4200	6,10047

As the table demonstrated above, teachers have similar Personal Accomplishment scores in terms of years of experiences. Teachers with less than one-year experience (\bar{x} : 37,8333) and teachers who have experiences 6-10 years (\bar{x} : 37,1579) have high level of PA; remainders are in range of moderate PA level, but they got almost high scores according to MBI-ES scoring key. The table also presents that there is no significant difference between PA and teachers years of experience ($p=.927$, $p>.05$).

Table 36 Kruskal Wallis Test Results Related to Classroom Size for EE and DP

	Classroom size	N	M	SD	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
EE	Less than 20 students	12	20,5000	7,96013	53,00	2,077	3	,557
	21-30 students	57	19,5088	11,21721	47,61			
	31-40 students	25	22,2400	10,09241	57,02			
	41-50 students	6	19,5000	15,42401	45,83			
	Total	100						
DP	Less than 20 students	12	8,0833	3,91868	61,63	3,097	3	,377
	21-30 students	57	6,4912	5,24446	48,11			

31-40 students	25	6,9600	4,49518	53,04
41-50 students	6	5,8333	6,82398	40,33
Total	100			

As it can be easily inferred from the Table 36, there is no significant difference between Emotional Exhaustion and classroom size of the participants ($p=.557$, $p>.05$). The DP part of the table demonstrates that there is also no significant difference between Depersonalization and the number of the students in the classroom. All the groups have scores almost low-level range of DP.

Table 37 The One-way ANOVA Test Statistics of Teacher PA for Classroom Size

classroom size	Group statistics			Levene's Test		ANOVA	
	N	M	SD	F	Sig.	F	df Sig.
Less than 20 students	12	36,8333	4,93288				
21-30 students	57	37,1228	6,13558				
31-40 students	25	35,0000	5,50000	1,731	,166	,854	4 ,468
41-50 students	6	34,8333	9,86745				
Total	100	36,4200	6,10047				

As the table 37 shows, there is no significant difference between Personal Accomplishment and classroom size ($p=.468$, $p>.05$). Teachers who teach 21-30 students get highest PA mean score ($\bar{x}:37,1228$) among groups and they are in the range of high level of PA whereas teachers with 41-50 students in a classroom got lowest PA score ($\bar{x}:34,8333$) and they are in the range of moderate level of PA.

When we discuss and evaluate the findings from burnout and demographic variables, one can easily make inferences that they are hardly effective in experiencing burnout. Their roles are limited in the burnout and work stress processes (Gutek et al., 1988; Jayaratne et al., 1983; cited in Güven, 2013). Similarly, this study shows that there are no significant differences between burnout and demographic variables. However, there are some studies in the literature they detect relations between them.

Among all the demographic variables, age is the most related variable to burnout. There are many studies examining the relationship between age and burnout. Some reports significant relationship between them (Ardıç, 2008; Aslan, 2005; Baysal, 1995, 2006; Ergin, 1992; Izgar, 2001; Özmen, 2001) while some reports there are no significant relations (Demir, 1999; Soyer, 2009). It has been observed that people's gender men or women, is not a strong relationship to burnout, but the high level of insensitivity in men, and the higher emotional exhaustion in women are significant to burnout. Collins and Murray (1996) report that higher levels of job stress are observed in older workers. However, according to Barak et al. (2001) younger employees experience higher level of burnout than those over 30-40 years old. This is because people are immune to burnout because of the experiences they earn as their age progresses and they overcome it easier than young people (Maslach, 1982).

Another factor that is examined its relation to burnout is gender. Some studies conclude that gender is not a strong predictor of burnout (Ardıç, 2008; Barak et al., 2001; Dollard et al., 2001; Farber, 1984b; Izgar, 2001; Soyer, 2009); while others verify the significant relationship between gender variable and burnout (Baysal, 1995; Greenglass & Schwarzer, 1996; Siliğ, 2003; Tümkaya, 1997;).

Marital status is another variable that is thought to be related to burnout. Maslach et al (2001) state that singles are more prone to experience burnout than divorced and married people. Similarly, in the studies conducted by Babaođlan (2006) show that singles are more burned out compared to married. According to Örmən (1993), individuals who have family responsibility are more resistant to burnout, because marriage make individuals more balanced, determined and psychologically more mature, the care of spouses and children makes the person more experienced, and the love and support of the family members makes it easier for the individual to cope with problems at work.

4.5. Findings Regarding the Relationship Between Burnout Subscales and Teacher Autonomy

This part of the study answers the primary question of the study because the possible relationship between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout is examined in this section. Following questions are investigated respectively:

Is there a significant relation between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout?

- a. Is there a significant relationship between teacher autonomy and EE?
- b. Is there a significant relationship between teacher autonomy and DP?
- c. Is there a significant relationship between teacher autonomy and PA?

Table 38 Correlation Between TAS and EE

		TAS	EE	
Spearman's rho	TAS	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	-,165
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,100
		N	100	100
EE		Correlation Coefficient	-,165	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,100	.
		N	100	100

The Table 38 demonstrates the correlation between Teacher Autonomy and Emotional Exhaustion. It can be inferred from the table above, correlation value is calculated as $-.165$ between TA and EE. To explain it in detail, a low negative correlation exists between Teacher Autonomy and Emotional Exhaustion subscale. When teacher autonomy increases, emotional exhaustion decreases but there is no significantly meaningful correlation between them.

Table 39 Correlation Between TAS and DP

		TAS	DP	
Spearman's rho	TAS	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	-,037
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,717
		N	100	100
DP	DP	Correlation Coefficient	-,037	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,717	.
		N	100	100

As it can be inferred from the table 39 above, there is also a slight negative correlation between Teacher Autonomy and Depersonalization subscale of burnout inventory. Moreover, a significant correlation between TA and DP ($p=.717$, $p>.05$) is not provided.

Table 40 Correlation Between TAS and PA

		TAS	PA
TAS	Pearson Correlation	1	,246*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,014
		N	100
PA	Pearson Correlation	,246*	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,014
		N	100

When the findings from the Table 40 are interpreted, correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. It can be easily said that there is a positive significant correlation ($p=.014$, $p<.05$) between teacher autonomy and personal accomplishment subscale of burnout. One can make inferences that when 40 teacher autonomy increases, personal accomplishment also increases.

The following table shows the correlation between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout in total.

Table 41 Correlation Between TAS and MBI-ES

		MBI-ES	TAS
MBI-ES	Pearson Correlation	1	-,243*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,015
	N	100	100
TAS	Pearson Correlation	-,243*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,015	
	N	100	100

As clearly stated in the table above, there is a negative correlation between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout. The correlation is significant at the 0.05 level ($p=.015$, $p<.05$). The findings from table show that when teacher autonomy increases, teacher burnout decreases.

Many studies have concluded that restriction of autonomy cause many negative outcomes like tension, anger, and anxiety among teachers (Dworkin, Haney, Dworkin, & Telschow, 1990; Lortie, 1975; Natale, 1993; Yee, 1991, as cited in Moomaw, 2005). These negative feelings may cause teachers to experience stress and consequently experience teacher burnout because as Kyriacou (1989, p. 27) states;

Teacher stress refers to the experience by teachers of unpleasant emotions such as anger, tension, frustration, anxiety, depression, and nervousness, resulting from aspects of their work as teachers. . . Teacher burnout refers to a state of mental, emotional and attitudinal exhaustion in teachers which results from a prolonged experience of stress.

Many studies show that teachers' perception of autonomy is an indicator of their job satisfaction level (Cohrs, Abele & Dette, 2006; Ingersoll, 1997a, 1997b; Kreis & Young Brockopp, 2001; Pearson & Hall, 1993; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). When teachers are not satisfied with their job, they want to change their workplace or quit their entirely. Autonomy is one of the critical factors that teachers need to devote themselves to the profession (Brunetti, 2001) because teacher autonomy is related to higher teacher satisfaction (Perie & Baker 1997). Job dissatisfaction cause teachers to experience stress and finally to burnout if it is not prevented (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). The general teaching autonomy factor is logically consistent with the need for teachers to have control over their work environment, to stay satisfied with the job, and to stay committed to the profession (Moomaw, 2005).

Ingersoll (1997) and later Blasé and Kirby (2000) state that teachers are in need of participating curriculum development process because including this process and having curriculum autonomy help them to accept and identify themselves with the profession. Fostering teacher autonomy in planning and implementation of teaching, participating administrative processes, curriculum development, school structure and organization, disciplinary problems, academic standarts, assesments of students, time sequencing, choosing teaching mateials and activities decreases teachers' feeling of burnout. Encouraging and allowing autonomy in these processes and areas is ver important and necessary to elevating teaching to professional status. Teacher autonomy is logically consistent with teachers' participation and including in these educational phases and curriculum autonomy is also logically consistent with the examination of educational reform initiatives (Short, 1994); because some discusses that teacher autonomy is one dimension of teacher empowerment (Klecker & Loadman, 1996; Short & Rinehart); moreover, it is crucial to any initiative's implementation and success (Ingersoll, 1997).

It is claimed that as curriculum autonomy increased on-the-job stress decreased (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). Farzaneh Javadi (2014) has concluded in his study that teacher autonomy is significantly and inversely related to teachers' feeling of burnout and furthermore, the components of burnout as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment are significant predictors of teacher autonomy. Teacher autonomy is defined as having control over one's own learning (Benson, 2002; Shaw, 2002). When teachers cannot control teaching related issues and teaching environment, they may experience negative feelings to both their students and their profession. Consequently, teacher autonomy is a way to protect teachers to experience burnout.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

This chapter presents the discussions of statistical findings of the study. The current study examined the possible relationship between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout. In addition, demographic variables, including gender, age, marital status, academic level, years of teaching experience, and classroom size were investigated to determine if they were explanatory factors. This chapter will present conclusions, implications, and suggestions about the study.

5.1. Conclusions

The purpose of the study was examining the relationship between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout. Findings showed following conclusions:

The overall mean score of TAS (\bar{x} : 3.44) revealed that EFL teachers have moderate perception of teacher autonomy. When subscales of TAS were analyzed separately, general autonomy (GA) perception of teachers was at moderate level (\bar{x} : 3.61), however; curriculum autonomy (CA) perception was at low level (\bar{x} : 3.11). As the mean scores of GA and CA indicated, EFL teachers do not perceive themselves full autonomous in related areas.

The relations between socio-demographic variables and teacher autonomy perceptions were analyzed via Independent Samples T-test, and One-Way ANOVA. The findings for gender, age, marital status, academic level, years of teaching experience, and classroom size of participants were not statistically significant with TAS. It is possible to infer that teachers' socio-demographic features were neutral to teacher autonomy and have no effects on autonomy perception

The results of the subscales EE, DP, and PA showed that teachers perceive emotional exhaustion at moderate level (\bar{x} :20,31), depersonalization at low level (\bar{x} :6,76), and personal accomplishment at almost high level (\bar{x} :36,42). According to the findings, 44 of EFL teachers have low level of emotional exhaustion, 29 of them are at moderate range while 27 have high level of emotional exhaustion. 66 of the teachers are at the low level of depersonalization, 25 have moderate level of

depersonalization whereas only 9 of the teachers have high level of depersonalization. Finally, 20 of the EFL teachers are at the low level of personal accomplishment and 28 have moderate level of personal accomplishment while 52 have high level of personal accomplishment. It can be inferred from the the findings that teachers have low level of burnout in general.

The findings of the study analyzed via Independent Samples T-test Kruskal Wallis, One-Way ANOVA and Mann Whitney test indicated that there was no significant difference between socio-demographic variables and EE, DP, and PA subscales. This may be because the characteristics of the participants in the sample are close to each other.

The relation between teacher autonomy and burnout subscales was examined. The results revealed that a low negative correlation existed between TA and EE sub-dimension of burnout. When TA and DP were analyzed together, it was seen that there was a slight negative correlation between TA and DP sub-dimension of burnout and a significant correlation between TA and DP was not provided. However, the findings demonstrated that there was a positive significant correlation ($p=.014$, $p<.05$) between TA and PA sub dimension of burnout. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results of the study show that teachers show significant autonomy despite legal regulations. At this point, it can be said that teachers are willing to use autonomy. This should be legitimized by providing autonomy to teachers. Moreover, it can be inferred from the findigs that there may be inherent benefits of improving teacher autonomy for decreasing teacher burnout. So, encouraging teacher autonomy may be a way out to cope with teacher burnout.

According to Skaalvik & Skaalvik (2007) lack of autonomy may cause job stress and autonomy is one of the job resources that reduce feeling of burnout (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009). It can be inferred that EFL teachers need autonomy to cope with the challenges along their profession.

5.2. Implications

The current study investigated the teacher autonomy perception and burnout levels of EFL teachers working in the middle schools of Van. It contributes to the field of English Language Teaching, teacher training, and teacher development by highlighting the factors related to the relationship between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout. The findings suggest there may be inherent benefits of improving teacher autonomy for decreasing teacher burnout.

The findings of the study have following implications for education stakeholders as:

- The results of the research indicated that teachers had moderate level of teacher autonomy in general. However; the study also showed that when data were analyzed in terms of curriculum autonomy and general autonomy, it was clear that teachers had low level of curriculum autonomy. This may be because of the centralized and standardized structure of Turkey education system. Teachers are not considered as a stakeholder of curriculum development processes and they have no word to make decisions on content and skills they teach. The main reason why EFL teachers do not have high level of teacher autonomy may be standardized curriculum. For this reason, therefore, policy makers should provide inclusion of teachers to curriculum development process and selection of content and skills.
- Teachers even have no authority of the selection of course books. All the schools and teachers have to follow same pre- determined content and course books without considering students' levels and needs. Teachers should be allowed and encouraged to use other beneficial course books or teaching materials. Educational administrators should make legal regulations to support and increase teacher autonomy in terms of selecting course books.
- Educational administrators can benefit from the findings to find out teacher autonomy perceptions and the areas in which teachers need more autonomy and learn from the results how teachers feel about their job. They can use the findings to diagnose in what extent teachers have feeling of burnout towards their job and to prevent or reduce teacher burnout in educational settings by

increasing teacher job performance and productivity through providing teacher autonomy in related areas like decision making, curriculum development, evaluation and assessment of student, time management, arranging and designing teaching environment, etc.

- Finally, teachers can benefit from the study to evaluate and develop their autonomy perceptions and protect themselves against burnout or reduce their burnout levels in that developing and increasing teacher autonomy is one of the ways for coping with teacher burnout.

5.3.Suggestions

This present study was conducted with EFL teachers they work in Van during 2016-2017 academic years. However, to get more comprehensive results, similar studies should be conducted with EFL teachers teaching in diverse cities in different academic years. The sample of the study consisted of participants from only middle schools. Other school levels as primary, secondary and higher education can be included, and results can be compared with the present study. Moreover, private schools may be also included in further researches and can be compared with public schools.

This research was designed using the quantitative method. The same research can be designed by quantitative and qualitative method together to reach more detailed results about the topic. The findings can be compared with the results of this study.

Finally, it is suggested that a longitudinal study can be carried out to observe the development of teachers' autonomy and burnout through years. Findings of the study may shed light into possible relationships between autonomy and burnout and guide authorities and education stakeholders to solve educational problems.

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Appendix
T.C.
VAN VALİLİĞİ
İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 69206118/44/3765227>
Konu : Araştırma İzni

21.03.2017

MÜDÜRLÜK MAKAMINA

İlgi : Necmettin Erbakan Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığının
20/02/2017 tarih ve 2777 sayılı yazıları.

İlgi yazı ekinde gönderilen anketin, müdürlüğümüzce oluşturulan "Anket Araştırma ve İnceleme, Başvuruları Değerlendirme Komisyonu" nun 20.03.2017 tarih ve 01 nolu karar sayısında belirtilen açıklamalar doğrultusunda uygulanması uygun görülmüştür.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görüldüğü takdirde; Olurlarımıza arz ederim.

Şakir SİĞİNÇ
İl Milli Eğitim Şube Müdürü

Uygun Görüşle Arz Ederim
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İl Milli Eğitim Müdür Yardımcısı

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Kıyasettin KİREKİN
Vali a.
İl Milli Eğitim Müdürü

VAN İL MİLLİ EĞİTİM MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ
Abdurrâhman Gazi Mah. İskele Cad. 65040 - VAN
e-posta : yüksekoğretimyurdisi65@meb.gov.tr
http://van.meb.gov.tr

Ayrıntılı Bilgi İçin: T.ŞELE Şef (Dâhili 191)
Telefon: 0(432) 222 41 62-63,64,65,69,67
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T. C.
NECMETTİN ERBAKAN ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

Özgeçmiş

Adı Soyadı:	Aysel KOÇAK	İmza:	
Doğum Yeri:	Yozgat		
Doğum Tarihi:	1988		
Medeni Durumu:	Evli		

Öğrenim Durumu

Derece	Okulun Adı	Program	Yer	Yıl
İlköğretim	İbrahim Akoğlu İlköğretim Okulu		Ankara	1999
Ortaöğretim	İbrahim Akoğlu İlköğretim Okulu		Ankara	2002
Lise	Keçiören Lisesi	Yabancı Dil	Ankara	2006
Lisans	Selçuk Üniversitesi	İngilizce Öğretmenliği	Konya	2010
Yüksek Lisans	Necmettin Erbakan Üniversitesi	İngilizce Öğretmenliği	Konya	2018
İş Deneyimi:	Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı 2013-...			
Hakkımda bilgi almak için önerebileceğim şahıslar:	Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ece SARIGÜL			